2013

Parental Beliefs And Attitudes On Enrollment In A Dual Language Program At An Elementary School

Leah DeLorenzo
University of Central Florida

PARENTAL BELIEFS AND ATTITUDES ON ENROLLMENT IN A DUAL LANGUAGE PROGRAM AT AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

by

LEAH DELORENZO
B.A. University of Central Florida, 2010

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Arts in TESOL
in the Department of Modern Languages and Literatures
in the College of Arts and Humanities
at the University of Central Florida
Orlando, Florida

Summer Term
2013

Major Professor: Kerry Purmensky

ABSTRACT

In the 2010-2011 school year, there were almost a quarter of a million English language learners (ELLs) enrolled in Florida public schools (Florida Department of Education, 2011), most of whom were placed in mainstream schools with segregated language remediation. Dual language education (DLE) programs offer developmental opportunities in two languages that mainstream schools cannot. The purpose of this research was to identify parental attitudes toward immersion programs and define the reasons that parents enroll their children in DLEs. Sixty participants completed a questionnaire sent home from their student's DLE. The study data included biographical information, statements depicting the reasons for enrollment rated by a Likert scale, and an area for comments. Overall, the study found that survey participants rated their child's comfort communicating with Spanish speakers (4.75 out of 5) to be the most important reason for enrollment. A difference was found in responses depending on the ethnic/language group of surveyed participants. Primarily, Spanish speakers responded more positively to the statements regarding bilingual education than any other ethnic/language group. All parents conclusively believe the dual immersion program has been a success for their children.

For my Grandmother

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my deep gratitude to my committee chair, Dr. Purmensky, whose guidance and encouragement helped me find my way. My thanks also go to Dr. Folse and Dr. Vitanova for their support and direction during this process.

I would like to thank the elementary school's staff and administration, as well as the dedicated parents and students that attend. Without their help and participation, this would have never been possible.

Finally, much love and thanks goes to my family, especially my sister. You have supported me through this entire endeavor and have helped me more than you know.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

DEFINITIONS

Bilingual education: An approach in which students are taught for part of the day in English and part of the day in their native language (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 38)

Dual language education (DLE): also known as bilingual immersion, two-way immersion, dual immersion, and developmental bilingual education. Includes native as well as non-native speakers of the target (non-English) language (Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2002, p. 30)

English-language learner (ELL): An individual who participates in some type of instruction to develop a proficiency in English (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 124)

English as a second language (ESL): An area of instruction in which English is taught to people who speak another language. The term generally applies to instruction that takes place within an English-speaking country and often includes instruction in practical, "survival" English, as well as language appropriate for academic and workplace contexts (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 124)

First language (L1): The first language a human being learns to speak is his *native language*; he is *native speaker* of this language (Bloomfield, 1965, p. 43)

Immersion: When learning a second language, the student is taught and given instruction only in the second language rather than the native language (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 174)

Instrumental motivation: When a learner has a more functional reason for learning a language, such as advancing a career or passing a test (Lindholm-Leary, 2001, p. 272)

Integrative motivation: The desire to affiliate with and understand another language group (Lindholm-Leary, 2001, p. 272)

Language-minority students: In the United States, individuals whose first language is other than English (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 199)

Second language (L2): A language that you speak in addition to the language you learned as a child (Pearson, 2011)

TESOL: Teaching English to speakers of other languages; the teaching of English to speakers of other languages (Pearson, 2011)

Target language: A language other than one's native language that is being learned (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2012)

Two-Way Immersion (TWI): Also known as bilingual immersion, two-way bilingual immersion, two-way bilingual, dual language education, dual immersion, Spanish immersion, and developmental bilingual education. TWI includes instruction in English as well as the target (non-English) language (Lindholm-Leary, 2001, p. 30)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

At the inception of the United States of America, a tolerance existed for the inclusion of varied native languages within society, particularly of those immigrants from northern Europe (Wiley, 1998). Our nation's founders failed to designate an official language (Crawford, 1999), a tradition still continued today, though Hechinger (1978) believes their vision was one of "a unified history, with unified traditions, and with a common language" (as cited in Ovando, 2003, p. 2). Immigrant communities founded in this new country were fervent about retaining and utilizing their native languages. In the 19th century, it was a common occurrence for community newspapers, religious services and school classes to promote these languages (Kloss, 1998). Several states even sanctioned bilingual education in both public and private schools, though these policies should not be seen as a promotion of bilingualism; rather, they reflected a "policy of linguistic assimilation without coercion" (Ovando, 2003, p. 4). Residents of more traditional communities assumed they could combine civil engagement and their old world cultural customs within their new country (Ovando, 2003). The government even used this practice favorably in order for their message to reach this particular populace.

Anti-German attitudes developed due to the preference of the new German immigrants to live in exclusively German communities and send their children to German schools, placing the language in higher esteem than English (Whyte, 1927). In the 1880s, the United States began what Ovando (2003) calls "The Restrictive Period". This period

lasted until the 1960s and was marked with many attempts to alter the laws and create bills with the intention of suppressing the study of foreign languages. An organization called the American Protective Association lobbied for states to adopt English-only education laws and was successful in the states of Illinois and Wisconsin as far back as 1889 (Ovando, 2003). In 1906, the President's Commission on Naturalization, a federal reform committee selected by Theodore Roosevelt, created the Naturalization Act of 1906. This act sought to unify the naturalization process under the Federal Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization and resulted in higher standards than ever before. Those seeking naturalization were required to prove their knowledge of the English language, as well as the Constitution to be considered for court approval (Schneider, 2001).

The Dillingham Commission established by Congress in 1907 scrutinized the differences between the social trends of immigrants before the early 1880s and the immigrants since that time. The Commission made their favorable opinions of the 19th century immigrants clear, citing their discrete dispersal throughout the country and hasty assimilating. They concluded that the "new" wave of immigrants were primarily "unskilled male laborers" who were transients, rather than permanent residents. These newcomers had "almost entirely…flocked to the industrial centers of the East and Middle West" and possessed no desire to assimilate (as cited in Jones, 1960, p. 152). Though the Commission neglected to take into consideration the differing amount of time these groups had to establish themselves, the representation of new wave of immigrants as "involuntary and artificial induced" by the need for inexpensive labor, in addition to "steamship and railroad advertising", was readily accepted by the general public (Jones, p.

153). Citizens began to push for restraints to be placed on this "new" wave of immigrants from eastern and southern Europe (Hakuta, 1986).

During this period of time, the majority of educational practitioners scrutinized bilingualism as a sort of hindrance for students. Schools in large urban areas began implementing Americanization courses led by American organizations, including the American Protective Association (APA), with the intent of integrating immigrants into the general population by using submersion language acquisition techniques and promoting an ethnocentric attitude of assimilation. These courses included lessons in American history, in addition to English and training in the "cultural values, practices, beliefs, and traditions" of the prevailing White Anglo Saxon Protestant (WASP) population (Higham, 1988; Parker, 1983, p. 9). Studies with likely anti-immigrant biases conducted in the 1920s and 1930s led researcher George Thompson to quote in a 1952 college textbook:

> There can be no doubt that the child reared in a bilingual environment is handicapped in his language growth. One can debate the issue as to whether speech facility in two languages is worth the consequent retardation in the common language of the realm (as cited in Crawford, 2004, p. 208).

The attitude shared by most government officials and schoolteachers was that immigrants needed to "make the linguistic, cultural, and cognitive adjustments necessary" to fully integrate into their new society (Ovando, 2003, p. 6).

The foreign language study that did take place in American schools was based on the grammar-translation approach, during which time students would memorize

vocabulary, syntactic formulas and verb formulas, while "taking dictation, and translating written passages" (Crawford, 2004, p. 184). Oral communication in this second language education was extremely limited, since fluency in conversation was not a goal of this approach.

As the decades passed, Americans witnessed the difficultly most immigrants had in reaching a preferred career and stable economic status, and "economic injustice [was] made evident through the enormous increase in mobility and urbanization" after the 1900s (Kloss, 1998, p. xviii). Due to the inequality endured by immigrants, contention with Russia over the satellite *Sputnik*, and the deficiency in foreign language education, the United States experienced a shift in public perception of bilingual education (Kloss, 1998). These events raised awareness of the need for new, innovative foreign language instruction and ushered in a renaissance of bilingual education and multiculturalism (Crawford, 2004).

Several ventures in surveying citizens about their language use at the time were created, resulting in a report advocating for a federal Commission on Biculturalism (Bilingualism) in American Life and for schools to offer regular instruction in a language other than English (Fishman, 1966). As bilingualism was becoming more popular, The United States Office of Education assisted this method of education by enacting the 1958 National Defense Education Act (NDEA, P.L. 85-864; Stat. 1580), contributing a considerable grant to public schools and even loans to selected private schools (Kloss, 1998). The NDEA was designed to enrich the amount of foreign language studies within

the United States by bestowing fellowships to the most auspicious language teachers (Ovando, 2003).

As part of President Lyndon B. Johnson's "War on Poverty," the Bilingual Education Act of 1968 (Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act) was the first of six legislations regarding language minority students to be passed by the US Congress. This act marked a fundamental change in pedagogy from the survival of the fittest situation language learners had experienced since the 1880s, to a situation more conducive to language learning for these students (Ovando, 2003). As a result, educational departments began to receive federal grants for developing programs that were "(a) designed to meet the special educational needs of language minority students, (b) provide pre-service training to personnel such as teachers and teacher aides, (c) establish, maintain, and operate programs," (Bilingual Education Act, 1968, § 704). The educational system of the country began to see a dramatic increase in bilingual education, the study of the history and culture of students' native countries, early childhood education, and continuing adult education for parents of students (Wiese & Garcia, 1998).

The bilingual education movement continued to gain strength with the 1974 United States Supreme Court case Lau v. Nichols. Ovando (2003) stipulates that this case could be considered the "most important and enduring legal symbol through which the civil rights of language-minority students will continue to be deliberated in the years to come" (p. 9). This ruling guarantees that states cannot refuse education to any individual on account of their race, sex, or nation of origin, and requires schools to "take appropriate action of overcome language barriers that impeded equal participation by its students" (as

cited in Lyons, 1992, p. 10). Only a few years later, the United States Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit ruled in favor of Castañeda v. Pickard (1981), requiring school districts to prove their compliance with Lau v. Nichols through a three-part assessment. School districts must be able to validate that all schools follow a curriculum that is based on established teaching theories, all students have access to sufficient resources and faculty, and the programs produce effectual methodology, as well as successful performance of students in content areas in addition to language instruction (Crawford, 1999; Ovando & Collier, 1998; Ovando, 2003).

The 21st century finds the US population more globalized than our country's founders could have ever imagined; multilingual proficiencies are needed to communicate with others around the world for goods and services (García, Flores, & Chu, 2011). Rhodes and Pufahl (2009) suggest that in order to continue to be an economically successful and relevant country, citizens of the United States must have access to second language education. Bilingual education has undoubtedly demonstrated the ability to foster superior academic achievement and language proficiency in both languages than traditional English-only programs, as well as produce cognitive benefits and positive psychosocial results (Peal & Lambert, 1962; Holm & Holm, 1990; Crawford, 2004; Crosby & Prescod, 2009).

According to Cartwright (2008), bilingual children have superior cognitive problem-solving skills due to the manner in which they determine the relevance of and examine the content of speech, and communicate with their peers; all important steps in the "knowledge-assembly" task procedure (as cited in Soderman, 2010, p. 57). This

increase in cognitive functioning tends to transfer to mathematic skills, where bilingual students' performance has been witnessed to exceed that of unilingual students (Abbot, Caccavale, & Stewart, 2007). In a study of immersion programs in Ontario, Canada, over 5000 students participated in testing of reading, writing, and mathematics. By the sixth grade, the immersion students had exceeded expectations and outperformed the students in the standard school programs (Turnbull, Lapkin, & Hart, 2001). Through a series of experiments, Bialystok (2011) found that bilingual participants performed visual and auditory tasks more successfully than their monolingual counterparts. According to her research, possessing bilingual capabilities "leads to changes in the configuration of the executive control network" (p. 232). The result of this change is a more dynamic execution of "control tasks", nonverbal tasks included (Bialystok, 2011). Frisoni, Rossi, and Beltramello (2002) produced data that suggested bilinguals retain cognitive function, even when advanced atrophy of the brain is present.

"Antibilingual education" political activists have been leading the fight in Washington to return to the "sink-or-swim days" of the 19th century. Lobbyist groups, such as English Only and U.S. English, were critical with the approval of Proposition 187, a ballot initiative in California that was designed to deliver a firm blow to undocumented immigrants through cutting back on educational and public assistances they could receive (Ovando, 2003). In June of 1998, these activist groups helped to pass another proposition against bilingual education in California; at that time, of the estimated 1.4 million English language learners (ELLs) in the state, only 30% had access to bilingual programs (California Department of Education, 1997). Proposition 227, or "English for the

Children," championed English-only education and went so far as to hold teachers and administrators personally and monetarily liable if the statute was not followed (Attinasi, 1998). Due to the *No Child Left Behind Act* (2002), national bilingual education has taken a back seat to English-only high-stakes standardized testing (Crawford, 2004). According to García, Flores, and Chu (2011), "traditional bilingual education programs are under attack", developmental bilingual education has "mostly disappeared" and dual language programs "have been scarcely implemented"; secondary level bilingual programs are "almost nonexistent" (p. 7).

Ovando (2003) indicates that these rigid stances against bilingual education stem from the fear of the "other" that is a result of our "nativistic and melting pot ideologies" (p. 14). However, many researchers still believe that bilingual education can provide a better and more effective language education program. For these programs to succeed and bring success to its students, there must be in place: effective and supportive administrative leadership, a positive school climate that promotes achievement and positive performance for *all* students, well-trained teachers with high expectations for achievement of all students, faculty cohesion and program planning, and an appropriate well-paced and challenging instructional emphasis that comprises higher-order skills and assure that low achievers master academic skills (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Garcia, 1988, 1991; Langer, Bartolome, Vasquez, & Lucas, 1990; Tikunoff, 1983; Wong-Fillmore, 1985; Lindholm-Leary, 2001).

Presently, a greater number of parents of students are becoming more accepting and desiring of a bilingual education for their children. These parents of all races and

cultures believe that learning a second language would lead to a favorable job in the future (Craig, 1996). Block (2012) shows how Hispanic parents found their students' relationships with their Spanish-speaking families and communities flourished while in a two-way immersion program. Whiting and Feinauer (2011) found that 57.5% of Anglo-American parents answered that educational opportunities were the main reason for sending their children to a bilingual school. In order to provide a better education, as well as social and economic opportunity for their children, groups of actively involved parents form most two-way immersion programs (Craig, 1996).

Background of the Study

Clearly, the efficacy, definition, functionality, and favorability of bilingual education have been debated since the 1800s. Though today's English-only politicians and activists are unable to see the benefits of a bilingual education, it appears that parents understand and appreciate this option. In an unspecified metropolitan area on the east coast of the United States, both Anglo and Latino parents agreed that two-way immersion programs, as well as other forms of bilingual education, should be supported by the school system, as opposed to being cut by legislators. English-speaking parents responded to a questionnaire, stating they had chosen the (TWI) program for their child because it "provides not only 'substantive gain' (second language acquisition), but also a 'broadening life experience' (a culturally-enriched learning environment)," (Craig, 1996, p. 397). Shannon and Milian (2002) conducted a survey of parents from Colorado dual language immersion programs and found that 72% of English-speaking parents and 91% of Spanish-speaking parents believed their children were learning both languages

adequately. In addition, 95% of Spanish-speaking parents and 64% of English-speaking parents believed that it was "very important" for their students to become bilingual (as cited in Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006, p. 9).

In the attempt to determine the most effective method for English language instruction, researchers have published several recent studies that examine the academic performance of ESL students and the effectiveness of their teachers. Many of these studies have focused on two-way immersion, its unique blend of English and the minority language, and the students enrolled in these programs (Block, 2012; Dorner, 2010; Montague, 1997; Ramírez, 1992; Valdés, 1997b). However, according to Lindholm-Leary (2001),

> Relatively few studies have explored the parents of these children to determine their backgrounds, involvement, attitudes toward bilingualism, reasons for enrolling their child in a bilingual program, or satisfaction with the language education program in which their child is enrolled (p. 143).

In her book, *Dual Language Education*, Lindholm-Leary (2001) details a study she conducted on "Parent Involvement, Attitudes and Satisfaction in Dual Language Education Programs." Influenced by Lindholm-Leary's experiment and subsequent book, a similar survey was created for this study, more focused and relevant to the specific research questions.

The original study by Lindholm-Leary was implemented in 17 California schools, as well as a school in Alaska and involved over 4,000 participants. The selected schools were English/Spanish 90:10 and 50:50 dual language education programs, as well as

transitional bilingual schools and one 90:10 program with English/Portuguese. For data collection, Lindholm-Leary categorized these schools based on their high or low ethnic density, socioeconomic status need, rates of free lunch, and the location (rural, suburban, urban). The study designed by Lindholm-Leary focused not only on the attitudes and beliefs of parents, including reasons for enrollment and level of involvement, but those of teachers and students, as well. Using a quantitative method of data collection, Lindholm-Leary emphasized the ease of analyzing extremely varied data, but recommended that future researchers explore more ethnographic research methods and the perspectives that would provide. Her original parental questionnaire was comprised of the following segments: background (linguistic/ethnic/educational), involvement at school, attitudes and beliefs of bilingualism and the DLE, and a measurement of involvement in activities that promote bilingualism. Lindholm-Leary's questionnaire has since been amended and revised by several other researchers for studies around the country (Lao, 2004; Shannon & Milian, 2002; Parkes, 2008; Ramos, 2007).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine parents' beliefs and attitudes of bilingualism, the reasons for enrolling their child in the TWI program, as well as their perceptions of the school. The research questions that will guide this study are:

Research Questions

1. What are parental attitudes toward bilingualism and the dual immersion program?

2. Why do parents enroll their child in a dual language education program?

3. Is there a relationship between parental perceptions and beliefs of bilingualism and the respondents' education or language demographic?

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 provides a detailed background on bilingual education, as well as the purpose and significance of the research. The explicit research questions will be provided, in addition to the limitations of this study. Chapter 2 delivers a comprehensive review of the literature. Beginning with a selection of the various ways in which ELLs are instructed in the United States, the review focuses on dual language immersion and continues with the benefits of bilingualism. Chapter 3 defines the methodology used, including data analysis and ethical considerations. The data and data analysis from the questionnaire can be found in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 offers a thorough discussion and postulates a set of conclusions.

Significance of the Study

From this study, it is anticipated that stakeholders in the field of bilingual education will gain a better understanding and insight into the similarities and differences of parents who enroll their children in TWI programs. Also, data collected from the surveys will identify any distinctions between reasons stated for enrollment and the

language majority, language minority, and bilingual parents. This study is intended to contribute to the existing body of knowledge on TWI programs and ELLs. Further, it is hoped that this study will encourage other researchers to continue this line of research on parental attitudes and beliefs of bilingual programs. This knowledge could help schools raise interest among families, gather supporters for dual language education, and demonstrate how parents believe bilingualism will benefit their child's life.

Lindholm-Leary (2001) suggests that TWI "is a program that has the potential to eradicate the negative status of bilingualism in the US" (p. 1). According to Willig (1985), when communities, administrations, and staff possess positive attitudes toward language minority students and bilingualism as a whole, local language education policies are more likely to generate successful programs. Thus, in these programs, a high standard of language and academic achievement is offered to students who may have never received such an opportunity for success. This study and others like it could help to bring about this change in attitude by raising awareness of how the reasons that parents enroll their children could be a useful indicator of a what a program should focus on, in order to offer a individualized enrichment program to both language minority and language majority students. To increase the interest among parents, TWI programs should promote the benefits of bilingualism and the exceptional education provided at the school through presentations at educational facilities where future students might be enrolled. Specialized recommendations could be made to parents of various language and ethnic backgrounds, increasing interest in TWI programs by utilizing information garnered on parental attitudes and beliefs. Results from this questionnaire, and others of similar

content, could be promoted through school district literature, program presentations, and published in school newsletters.

Limitations and Delimitations

Although steps will be taken to ensure the validity and reliability of this study, some limitations may arise.

1. Data collected from the surveys is reliant on the perceptual data of the parents of students and the accuracy of this data will be contingent upon the honesty of participants' responses.
2. The researcher is the instrument of data collection and analysis, always carrying the potential for bias.
3. The population sample size of this study was limited by focusing on gathering data from only one specific location and TWI program; because of this, resulting data may not be generalizable to the larger population.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

A surge in the development of assorted language education models has resulted from mass immigration and a highly interconnected world community (Lindholm-Leary, 2001). As businesses and political establishments continue to develop closer international relationships, individuals encounter a greater push toward multilingualism. According to the 2010 US Census report, the general population grew at a rate of 9.7% and the Hispanic population increased at a rate of 43%, representing 16% of the total population (US Census, 2011). In communities across the nation, this demographic shift can be seen in the numbers of foreign workers immigrating to find a better future for their families.

Though many migrant workers and their families may eventually return to their home countries, the United States school system must presently find a way to successfully integrate this culturally and linguistically diverse group of students. A significant percentage of these children speak little if any English when they begin school. In the 2007-2008 academic year, 5.3 million students enrolled in US public schools were classified as English language learners (ELLs); a significant segment of this population, 234,934 children, lived in Florida (Batalova & McHugh, 2010). Currently there are several models of English as a Second Language (ESL) programs utilized in K-12 schools that are taught using various teaching methods and pedagogical beliefs. These models include: segregated language remediation (mainstream), transitional bilingualism,

and dual language immersion (or two-way immersion) programs. The following section will detail the various models of English as second language currently in existence in the United States.

English Language Instruction

Segregated Language Remediation

Segregated language remediation works under the assumption that the most successful language instruction for ELLs is rapid mainstreaming (Akkari, 1998). The most common ESL program, the ESL Pullout system can be found in a majority of the public schools in the United States. Recently, this arrangement has slowly become less popular as more teachers become ESOL Endorsed and more students are being mainstreamed into the general school population full-time. In the remaining programs, participating students spend most of the school day integrated with the mainstream population, immersed in English. They are pulled out of class only once a day to participate in more individualized English language development (Menken, Antunez, Dilworth, & Yasin, 2001). This mild separation usually lasts between 30 minutes to an hour of supplemental English instruction. Because the amount of personnel resources available to the school determines the amount of time that the ELLs will receive language assistance, many underfunded schools are seeing ESL programs shrink. It is not uncommon for school districts to struggle to find ESL certified teachers, leaving some students receiving only 30 minutes of ESL help per week (Ochoa & Rhodes, 2005).

Educators who support pull-out programs express the need for ELL students to

concentrate on English language skills and do not believe formal education in the first language to be highly beneficial (Brisk, 1998). However, Barnett et al., suggest that an English-only school setting is accompanied by, though not necessarily the cause of, L1 attrition (Barnett, Yarosz, Thomas, Jung, Blanco, 2007). Unfortunately for students in pull-out programs, the strongest predictor of L2 achievement is the amount of formal instruction the student has received in their L1. Simply stated, the more L1 primary school training, the higher the L2 achievement in the future (Thomas & Collier, 2002; Lee, 1997; Yamashita, 2004). Across the country, pull-out ESL programs neglect the L1 of their students, resulting in lower academic performance, perhaps even impeding some students forever (Cornell, 1995).

Transitional Bilingualism

ELL Programs that utilize instruction in both English and another language are labeled bilingual programs. One of the more popular of these instructional methods is transitional bilingual education (TBE). These programs provide instruction in both English and the student's first language, though only for a short period of time. Often only offering two or three grade levels, usually beginning in kindergarten, TBE programs operate on the belief that it is important to ensure comprehension of the academic material while the student is acquiring English (Ovando & Collier, 1998). Many researchers stress the importance of a smooth and gradual transition from bilingual lessons to using only English (Saunders, 1999; Ramirez, 1992; Cummins, 1992). If the transition occurs too rapidly, students may suffer long-term consequences, a greatly decreased rate of growth in English reading, language, and math (Ramirerz, 1992).

Thomas and Collier (2002) found that the minimum length of time it takes for a student to reach grade-level performance in their L2 is four years.

Two-Way Immersion Programs

Two-way dual-immersion programs, also known as "TWI" programs, a popular type of dual language education programs, or "DLE", are rapidly becoming popular and have sprung up all over the country. Of the 448 foreign language immersion programs in the US, there are currently 422 programs in 38 states that instruct all of their students in the partner-language for at least 50% of class time and integrate language-minority and language-majority students for at least 60% of the time spent at school (Center for Applied Linguistics, 2011). TWI programs in schools today are roughly modeled after a French immersion education experience in the Canadian province of Quebec, beginning in 1965, in which a school district revitalized foreign language instruction by designing a program specifically for native speakers of English (Craig, 1996). Programs of this nature began to appear the in the United States in the 1960s but saw the greatest growth in the 1980s and 1990s.

De Jong and Howard (2009) believe TWI programs are so successful because they all share the same goals: "academic achievement, bilingualism and biliteracy development, and cross-cultural competence for all students" (p. 1). In a study comparing preschool students in a TWI program to those in a typical English program, the TWI program was found to have supported the Spanish language more comprehensibly using frequent vocabulary development, while simultaneously developing a standard amount of English language. Advances in Spanish language and literacy skills were made by

English-dominant students enrolled in the TWI program, and did not impede English language development (Barnett, Yarosz, Thomas, Jung, & Blanco, 2007). Howard, Christian, and Genesee (2003) examined the assessments of English and Spanish reading in writing, completed by upper-grade elementary students. Similar to a study conducted by Serrano and Howard (2003), these students showed progression to a "high levels of reading and writing ability in both languages in composition, grammar, and mechanics" (as cited in Lindholm Leary, 2005b, p. 58).

A distinguishing feature of TWI programs is their attempt to enroll an equal number of native English speakers and those students who speak the partner language. These facilities almost always function as either a 50:50 or a 90:10 school. In a 50:50 models, schools instruct students in the partner language for half of the class time, typically beginning in elementary school. The 90:10 is a model in which students begin kindergarten with ninety percent of class time devoted to the minority language and 10 percent in English. The amount of English instruction increases each year until the end of elementary school when uniformity is reached between the two languages (Block, 2011). Contrary to concerns of native-speakers falling behind their peers academically without an English-based curriculum, Lindholm-Leary (2001) reveals that TWI programs do not create a hindrance to English proficiency. In fact, when compared to mainstream classrooms, dual language programs prove to be the more auspicious learning environment, in terms of levels of language acquisition and success in other academic subjects taught at school, even math. To ensure the success of all of their students, some dual language programs allocate up to an hour of daily instruction to second language

study, dividing students by native languages. Otherwise, students are taught collectively and the two languages are separated throughout the school day by content area, by time, or by particular teachers (Christian, 1996).

The benefits of these programs are numerous, and they have proven to be advantageous for their students by offering developmental opportunities that mainstream schools cannot, collaboratively combining the two target languages in the classroom. By utilizing native-speaking instructors, dual immersion schools provide their students with excellent language models in both languages (Christian, 1996). Howard, Sugarman, and Rennie (2007) agree that every such program has the same main three goals: "academic achievement, bilingualism, and biculturalism." Perhaps the most significant and permanent development of TWI programs is the positive cross-cultural empathy and respect that will hopefully affect generations to come (Christian, 1996). Academic ventures, especially those involved with science, technology, and math (STEM) are now continually developed in multiple international locations simultaneously. The positive multicultural perspectives shaped by dual immersion schools, in addition to the language acquisition, would provide these international enterprises with American students who could serve as valuable components to the whole. As the nation's ELL population continues to flourish, dual language programs may provide the solution to our country's current education deficiency in native language development, as well as bolster the meager amount of cross-cultural awareness and second language acquisition currently provided to native-born students (Barnett, et al., 2007; Christian, 1996; Alanis & Rodriguez, 2008; Collier & Thomas, 2004).

Bilingual Education

Research has shown that many American parents recognize the benefits of bilingual education, including the social, academic, and economic advantages (Craig, 1996; Lambert, 1990). On October 15, 1997, the Los Angeles Times published a poll that revealed parents from various cultural backgrounds, both proponents and opponents of bilingual education, all desired their own children become proficient in a second language (Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006). Parents are beginning to see the benefits bilinguals enjoy including: increased cognitive functioning, an expanded worldview, promising education and job prospects, pride in their studies, and consistent outperformance of comparison students. Bilingual students understand and embrace their advantage, as can be seen in the 2009 study of German bilingual students. DeCapua and Wintergerst (2009) investigated the "sociopsychological factors" (p. 7) exerting pressure on the students' ability to sustain their German language acquisition in an English-dominant community. One of the students, Gregory (age 12), stated about his bilingualism, "It's really great because I find that I can speak more than one language and that I can communicated [sic] by myself in different ways. I find that important," (p. 16).

Ten years after a conducting a study examining a bilingual 3rd grade class, Whitmore and Crowell (2005) arranged meetings with the students, who offered insights into how their early bilingual education affected their lives. One of these students, Seaaira (age 18), felt her intellectual passion for learning was cultivated in primary school and was an integral part of her development. "I mean just thinking about some of my friends that weren't exposed to that, they're so blind to that whole otherworld. They

have no vastness in cultural anything," (p. 280). In a 2000 speech addressing the growth of the Hispanic American population, Richard Riley, then US Secretary of Education in the Clinton administration, declared:

> [dual language bilingual programs] are challenging young people with high standards, high expectations, and curriculum in two languages. They are the wave of the future…Our nation needs to encourage more of these kinds of learning opportunities, in many different languages. That is why I am challenging our nation to increase the number of dual-language schools to at least 1,000 over the next five years, and with strong federal, state and local support we can have many more (as cited in Lindholm-Leary, 2001, p. 11-12).

Riley did not meet his goal by half, but popularity of these programs is growing every year.

Rodriguez-Fornells, De Diego Balaguer, and Münte (2006) confirmed that due to speaking two languages daily, bilinguals are likely to develop better mechanisms for focusing on only relevant information and "the ability to inhibit inappropriate responses or thoughts (response inhibition)," (p. 138). This mental gymnastics seems to more often than not lead to advanced problem solving abilities, skilled concept formation, and a diversified way of processing information (Crosby & Prescod, 2009). It is believed that by studying a foreign language, students could increase their "metalinguistic awareness" of phonology, syntax, and the very nature of meaning (Cook, 1997). Lindholm-Leary and Block (2010) emphasize that bilingualism does not result in enhancement in general cognitive domains, i.e. intelligence or recalling specific information. However, these

authors submit that there is much evidence to suggest bilingualism results in heightened performance in exercises that demand mental flexibility and creativity in other domains, such as metacognition, cultural sensitivity, metalinguistic awareness, and cognitive processing (Bialystok, Craik, & Luk, 2012; Merrikhi, P., 2011; Yang, Yang, & Lust, 2011; Athanasopoulos, Dering, Wiggett, Kuipers, & Thierry, 2010).

Most ELLs in the US find themselves caught in a mainstream system where the school administration has attempted to assist with language learning by integrating them into an English-only classroom. Non-native speakers often react apprehensively, making friends only with other ESL students. This mainstreaming practice often results in ethnically and linguistically homogenous groups within the student population and can lead to stereotyping and negative cultural attitudes. TWI programs appear to have solved this problem by integrating ELLs with native speaking students full-time and destroying the barriers between them with a linguistic commonality (De Jong & Howard, 2009). In order to avoid "ESL ghettos," language minority students are incorporated into every classroom, instead of sequestered into ESL-only classes (Olsen, 1997; Valdés, 2001). The student body of a typical TWI program has equal numbers of native speakers of English and of the minority language, and the students learn together for most, if not all of the school day**.**

Comprised of diverse language, racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic backgrounds, students of TWI programs converge to create a language-learning environment unequal to any other program (Lindholm-Leary, 2005). The model of a dual immersion school requires each student to act as both guide and supporter, thus creating a cooperative

environment within the classroom (Lindholm-Leary, 2001). A long-term study conducted by Thomas and Collier (2002) revealed that 90:10 and 50:50 dual immersion programs are the only educational programs with the ability to assist students in reaching the 50th percentile in both L1 and L2 in all subjects, as well as retaining or increasing that score throughout the end of their schooling.

DLE programs are considered enrichment programs, as opposed to remedial programs, because they do not aspire to replace an ELL's native language with English, and instead create a bilingual environment in which to learn (De Jong & Howard, 2009). ELLs who are initially placed in mainstream schools, segregated and constrained within remedial programs, are almost never able to close the achievement gap**.** Thomas and Collier (2002) insist that these students' average achievement normal curve equivalent should be rated as high as possible during reclassification of their pull-out ESL program, as this is likely to be the highest level they will reach during their schooling**.**

Bilingual education has been recognized as an effective instructional method for both ELLs and native speakers, often resulting in higher test scores and participation rates in class. According to A.C. Willig (1985), the average student in a bilingual program scored higher than 74% of mainstream program students, after all test scores had been aggregated. In addition, he found this beneficial outcome to affect all major academic subjects, regardless of whether the tests were taken in English or the partner language. Students in dual immersion programs consistently outperform comparison students, reaching national norms earlier than those in alternative curricula (Krashen & Biber, 1988) and developing a surpassing competency in the partner language (Mahrer &

Christian, 1993). Since Lambert's (1987) study on the attitudinal impact of such programs, researchers have witnessed students develop positive cross-cultural perspectives and favorability towards peers who were different from themselves (Lambert, 1987; Potowski, 2004; Christian, Lindholm, Montone, & Carranza, 1997; Dolson & Lindholm, 1994). Potowski (2004) interviewed native English-speaking TWI students about why they enjoyed their school's dual immersion program. The students replied they were pleased that they could now communicate with anyone who spoke Spanish, travel with ease in Spanish-speaking countries, and help others in the community who cannot speak English.

Lindholm-Leary and Borsato (2005) conducted a study utilizing former dual immersion students who were now participating in secondary-school college preparatory mathematics classes. The researchers found that these students had enhanced participation and performance scores, which were attributed to inspired student attitudes, one of the many positive consequences of a successful academic development garnered from their former bilingual curriculum (Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2001). In a related examination of a bilingual program, Mahrer and Christian (1993) found that while employing the Self Perception Profile, students in grades K-12 scored above average for social proficiency, academic competence, physical appearance, self-esteem, and ambition. Upon entering the job market, a bilingual college graduate tends to earn on average 2-3% more than their peers (Saiz & Zoido, 2005) and can expect to receive a 1.7% salary increase for every additional year of foreign language in high school, higher than if the student had taken additional math, science, or English classes (Altonji, 1995). In 2000, a

Yahoo! News report revealed that in Miami, bilingual Hispanics earn almost 7000 dollars more per year than those who can only speak only English (Cummins, 2000).

Many researchers agree that the evidence shows dual immersion programs result in exceptionally high levels of bilingualism and related academic achievement (Christian, et al., 2004; Howard, et al., 2003; Lindholm-Leary & Block, 2010). According to an influential study by Lambert (1987), TWI programs cultivate positive attitudes toward second languages, subsequently conquering the fear of the "other". Similar experiments noting a reconnection with lost heritage were executed by Lindholm-Leary and Borsato (2001) and Lindholm-Leary and Ferrante (2005), which found that three-fourths of English-dominant Latino students from TWI programs were likely to feel comfortable speaking Spanish in public, whereas only 40.3% of mainstream Latino students responded similarly and 32.3% did not feel at all comfortable speaking Spanish in public (Block, 2011).

English Development

One of the most differentiating qualities of dual immersion programs is the valuable support provided to students in the partner language without forfeiting any English language development. In a study of a TWI preschool program, English-dominant students made gains in Spanish language and literacy skills, while still developing English language competency. In the same study, Spanish-dominant students in an English immersion program experienced regression in their Spanish speech (according to age norms), while peers in the TWI program excelled (Barnett, et al., 2007). Although their speech was more measured and replete with non-standard grammar or

vocabulary, Howard, Christian, and Genesee (2004) found native third grade English-speaking students in a TWI program to be communicating very well in Spanish. The incredibly high caliber of language achievement is reached by students of dual immersion programs as a result of the innovative approach the programs have towards utilizing both English and the partner language within the classroom. Instead of studying the languages as subjects themselves, classroom material is taught wholly in either language, applying culturally relevant songs, dance, drama, and engrossing play activities into the lesson, especially with younger ages (Craig, 1996).

Problems Facing TWI Programs

In dual immersion programs, as with all teaching methods, there are a few pedagogical obstacles that instructors and administrators must work to overcome regularly. The most common struggle that instructors encounter within TWI programs is the students' inclination to speak English while at school (Edelsky, 1978; Montague & Meza-Zargosa, 1999). Routinely surrounded by native English speakers, ELLs have been found to consistently develop second language proficiency more expeditiously than their native-English-speaking counterparts. When an early shift to English dominance occurs for minority language students, native-English speakers often feel no need to converse in the minority language (Howard, et al., 2004). Ballinger and Lyster (2011) recently confirmed Valdés' (1997) apprehension toward combining English L1 students and bilingual Spanish L1 within TWI programs. Their research found that doing so would always result in a heavy dominance of English by all students, to convenience the

monolingual speakers while communicating. When observing dual immersion classrooms, De Jong and Howard (2009) noted that group work was almost always conducted in English and focused on intellectual writing, whereas Spanish conversations seemed to be restrained to individual word translations and language mechanics. In a study conducted by Howard and Christian (1997), it was found that at the end of a 50/50 TWI elementary school program, just half of the native English speakers were evaluated as orally fluent in the minority language. The researchers suggested that a 90/10 model was more successful because of the significantly longer amount of instructional time in the minority language. This observation demonstrates the importance of counteracting students' considerable amount of exposure to English with the intensive use of the minority language in the classroom.

Many researchers believe native English-speaking students to be at a learning disadvantage when compared to their language-minority peers, who have the opportunity to develop their second language skills in a wider spectrum of situations due to the prevalence of English-speaking communities (Carrigo, 2000; Edelsky & Hudelson, 1982; Griego-Jones, 1994; Howard & Christian, 1997). Collier and Thomas (2004) indicate that for native-English speakers, academic language in the minority language is the most difficult to develop due to lack of use outside of the classroom. Essays written by older native English-speaking students consistently reveal more mechanical errors when written in the minority language; this is especially true when referring to punctuation and accent marks specific to Spanish (Howard, et al., 2004). Alternately, ELLs face their own set of problems in the classroom, where language difficulty levels often vary greatly

between classes. Commonly, Spanish lessons practice very simple structures, while those in English cover more advanced concepts. When examining teacher-talk in a third and fourth grade TWI classroom, Lindholm-Leary (2001) found that instruction in the minority language utilized simple verb forms in the present tense and simple utterance complexity that used only very short sentences. These practices can lead to an uneven distribution of linguistic knowledge, favoring more advanced acquisition of the majority language.

In the TWI classroom, students may encounter assessment and teaching disparities between languages, resulting in unbalanced proficiency. It is not uncommon for English-only teachers employed by TWI programs to be untrained in ESL. However, Spanish language teachers are almost invariably required to have bilingual or second language certification. Due to this inequality, code switching during classroom instruction is rather common in Spanish lessons but rarely occurs during English ones, as teachers are less likely to be bilingual (De Jong & Howard, 2009). Additional research attests to a degradation of teacher input, questioning, teacher-student interaction, and lesson pacing in minority language classes due to the number of low-level language learners (Delgado-Larocco, 1998, as cited in Howard et al., 2003; Monatgue & Meza-Zargosa, 1999; Takahashi-Breines, 2002). Assessment consistently occurs in English, but some TWI programs may not examine as thoroughly or often in the minority language. For those TWI programs functioning within a mainstream school, support services and resources such as volunteer tutors, special education, or Title 1 may only be available in English (De Jong & Howard, 2009).

Solutions

Many dual immersion programs try to solve the problem of language inequality by following the 90:10 model. Within this framework, students begin pre-kindergarten with 90% of instruction in the minority language and only 10% in English. Every subsequent year, the percentage of instruction time in the minority language is decreased until it is equivalent to the amount of time allocated for English instruction (Thomas & Collier, 1997). Though 90% of instruction in the minority language is significantly more than most parents in the United States are used to, the additional time is used to counteract the inherent advantage native speakers maintain in English and lack of exposure to the minority language. Additionally, the actual amount of instruction time in the minority language is often lower than the percentage they propagate, especially in TWI programs housed within mainstream schools. This is the result of many specialized classes, such as art, music, and P.E. being taught in English (Howard, et al., 2004). Valdés (1997) contends that instructors in two-way immersion programs must collaborate with their peers to provide "high-quality instruction" in the minority language, in order to prevent depreciation in the achievement gap between native English-speaking students and minority students.

Some researchers believe that TWI programs could find a solution to the language gap by promoting the minority language. Integrating the minority language into events and activities that are normally performed in English, allows the school to promote the importance of the language and community. Simple solutions could be found by conducting school assemblies or the morning announcements in Spanish. More

adventurous administrations could create partnerships with schools in Spanish-speaking countries, allowing the students to see the value of their language studies (Howard, et al., 2004). Students could have electronic pen pals and classes could convene for virtual meetings. In an extensive study, teachers at a TWI Elementary school describe how they strive to incorporate all forms of Spanish literature into their curriculum and develop lesson plans to promote the Spanish language and increase students' literacy. This particular school focused on "active" learning, creating assignments that required active negotiating of meaning, constantly engaging the interactions between students of different language backgrounds, and fostering positive bilingual relationships (Alanis & Rodriguez, 2008).

To ensure that each teacher is able to act as a high quality instructional staff member, Lindholm-Leary (2001) suggests that pre-service and in-service training be conducted. She recommends teacher training that can encompass the dual language education model, second language development, instructional strategies in second language development, multicultural and educational equity training and cooperative learning" (p. 65). Without this training, Lindholm-Leary (2001) asserts that teachers will experience many difficulties when trying to implement the TWI model in their classrooms. With the proper foundation, teachers could gain the proficiency needed to provide equal language and content instruction to all students.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Populations

The school in this study is located in a county with a Latino population that has almost doubled in the last ten years to 27.5% of the general population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010) According to Suro and Singer (2002), 50% of Latino voters in the United States now live in the suburbs, as opposed to city centers. When this study was conducted, Latinos of this county originated from many of the world's countries, but 23% were from Puerto Rico and Cuba (Allen, 2009). Within the school's census-designated place, 35% of the population identified as Hispanic and 20% were born in Puerto Rico (US Census, 2010).

This community is home to over 77,500 Hispanic residents; Spanish is an important cultural aspect of this neighborhood, which is reflected in the TWI's target language. Almost 25% of the area's population is 15-24, resulting in a median age of 29.4 (U.S. Census, 2010). The researcher has determined this to be due to the proximity of a large public university. In this neighborhood, 51.9% of the residents are not United States citizens, while 74.8% of those residents were born in Latin America (US Census, 2010).

Participants

The population of this body of research consisted of the parents of students enrolled in the dual language education program at the site in a Central Florida Public School system**.** The study site is an urban school within a suburban area of a central

Florida city. One of the five schools offering a dual language program within its school district, the site is a historically average performing school. Since 1999, Florida has issued grades to its schools, determined by the Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test (FCAT). This annual testing is part of Florida's A+ school accountability system and seeks to identify which students possess academic skills up to the state's learning standards in reading, math, writing, and science (Florida Department of Education, 2005). The elementary school earned the state school grade of a B in 2012 but had previously maintained an A since 2007 (Florida Department of Education, 2012) and has performed consistently on par with district mean scores for the FCAT but slightly under recorded state results (Florida Department of Education, 2011b).

According to the Florida Differentiated Accountability Program, the study site is currently a Title 1 school and receives additional federal funds to provide SES tutoring to students on campus by tutors who have been approved by the state (Florida Differentiated Accountability Program, 2011). Seventy-eight percent of the students are registered for Free or Reduced Lunch (Florida Department of Education, 2011b). Of the 581 students, 68% are Hispanic, 19% are European American, 7% are African-American, 2% Asian or Pacific Islander, and the cultural background of 4% are unknown. Thirty-two percent (188 students) participate in the dual-language program, with 45% of the student body identifying as ELLs (Florida Department of Education, 2012b).

Materials and Methods

The parental questionnaire utilized in this research was adapted from the parental questionnaire developed by Lindholm-Leary and published in the book *Dual Language*

Education (2001). The original study was implemented to over 8,000 participants in 18 90:10 or 50:50 dual language education programs and transitional bilingual schools in California and Alaska. The research study designed by Lindholm-Leary focused not only on the attitudes and beliefs of parents, but teachers and students, as well. The original parental questionnaire was comprised of four segments: background (linguistic/ethnic/educational), involvement at school, attitudes and beliefs of bilingualism and the DLE, and the promotion of bilingualism. This particular survey has been amended and revised by several other researchers (Lao, 2004; Shannon & Milian, 2002; Parkes, 2008; Ramos, 2007).

The questionnaire used in the present survey was composed of a detailed selection of relevant and pertinent questions, had been previously field-tested, and was known to have successful response rates. When altering the questionnaire, the researcher focused on the three research questions of this study:

1. What are parental attitudes toward bilingualism and the dual immersion program?
2. Why do parents enroll their child in a dual language education program?
3. Is there a relation between parental perceptions and beliefs of bilingualism and the respondents' education or language demographic?

All questions seeking extraneous information were deleted to shorten the length and increase the percentage of questionnaires completed and returned. A final open-ended question was added at the end to give respondents the chance to voice their opinions, if they had not already.

The study centered on the data from the results of a parental questionnaire (See APPENDIX A) issued to the parents of the students enrolled at the study site. All documents presented to parents and guardians of students enrolled in the dual language program, including the questionnaire and two cover letters, were presented in both Spanish and English. The questionnaire was written at a seventh grade Flesch-Kincaid grade level, with a Flesch reading ease grade of 5.8. Presenting documents in both languages and at a reading level that is considerate of the subjects' capacities was to ensure that all research participants had the ability to completely and adequately comprehend the information.

Respondents answered 25 questions pertaining to their opinions or attitudes about the TWI program using a continuous 5-point Likert scale. The scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree," addressed attitudes regarding bilingualism and the specific dual language program in section three of the questionnaire. In sections one and two, there were also several questions to ascertain the language, cultural and educational backgrounds of the respondents. This information was used to categorize the families by the language(s) spoken in their household, in order to determine whether the home language has any effect on enrollment in the program. Data collected from these sections also allowed the researcher to conclude whether specific attitudes or beliefs about the dual language program and bilingual education are more prevalent for native speakers of one of these languages than the other.

To raise awareness of the survey and encourage parental participation, the researcher visited the school site multiple times to meet with the principal in order

organize the study most efficiently and effectively. In addition, the researcher attended a family dinner hosted by the school and described the upcoming questionnaire and its importance to the parents present. A few weeks later, cover letter and 200 surveys, packaged inside of envelopes, were provided to the ten teachers of the dual language program. These teachers distributed the envelopes to each of their students, who then brought the survey home to their guardians. Each student in the program received one packet containing a cover letter, a survey, and an envelope to package their completed surveys for privacy. Parents were informed to only return one survey, even if they had multiple students enrolled. These surveys were completely confidential and the data had no identifying marks. All completed questionnaires were returned to the students' teachers, stored in the sealed envelope, and later collected by the investigator.

Quantitative research methods were used during the course of this project because the goal was to analyze the attitudes and beliefs of parents with students enrolled in a dual immersion program. The data collected was reported using numbers and percentages using SPSS, and used to create graphs to represent data collected from section three. To perform this particular analysis, the data in section three needed to be in quantitative form in order to achieve the best measurements.

Procedure

In January 2013, an introductory letter was sent home with students to describe the purpose of the forthcoming survey to the parents and request their participation. One week later, the questionnaire was given to students to take home, accompanied by a second letter, which again explained the function of the research and provided relevant

contact information. In another two weeks, a third letter was sent home with the students, reminding parents to return their surveys to class. The researcher provided the teachers with extra copies of the questionnaire for students who lost their surveys. A bilingual university student with a Translation and Interpretation Certificate translated the questionnaire and letters into Spanish to ensure that all families would be able to participate in their native language. Furthermore, special care was taken to compose the register and discourse of these documents would be comprehensible to respondents of various cultural and educational backgrounds. A native speaker in a Latin American country reviewed the Spanish documents before distribution.

To ensure that the identities of the participants remained anonymous, questionnaires and the accompanying letter were given to students with a white envelope. The letter specified to parents that returning surveys were to be placed in the envelope and returned to the student's homeroom teacher. Each of these teachers was provided with a large craft paper envelope that can be sealed and reopened. When students returned to class with their sealed envelopes, the teacher placed each envelope within the large envelope, which was to be stored in a secure location.

Data Analysis

With the collected questionnaires, the researcher entered the results of the survey questions into Microsoft Excel to organize the results. Dividing the numbers from this data by the total number of surveys returned created percentages that were easily used for comparison. Questions from part one were used to classify the respondent by which language(s) are used in their home. This information allowed for a more complete

understanding of the language backgrounds of the students and their families and how this effected enrollment and attitudes. Data collected from the third part of this survey is organized in a series of bar graphs and tables, in order to display the results of the questionnaire and discover answers to the three research questions.

Part one of the questionnaire sought to identify information about the parents' background and the students' home language. Organizing this data required guardians to be divided into three categories: those who speak only English as their L1 (English or EN), native speakers of Spanish who lack proficiency in English (Spanish or SP) and those who speak both Spanish and English proficiently as indicated in their survey responses (Bilinguals or BIL). Survey question number 1.5 asked the respondents what language or languages they and their spouses spoke. Respondents who filled in "English" only were placed in the EN group and those who wrote "Spanish" were designated as part of the SP group. Respondents who filled in more than one language, either English and Spanish or English and another language, were placed in the BIL group. Based on their responses, these respondents were believed to have sufficient command over more than one language and thus considered to be bilingual. This information was used to identify patterns between these three categories of guardians and find the answer to the third research question: Is there a correlation between parental satisfaction and attitudes and their education or language demographic?

Part two of the study investigated which languages are being used in the home and whether the student's guardians speak the target language. This section also asks the important inquiry: Why does the student attend this TWI program? Data from this section

of the questionnaire provides the information needed to answer the second research question: Why do parents enroll their child in a dual language education program? Part three gathers more information about the reasons for student enrollment and the satisfaction level of parents. The first research question, “What are parental attitudes toward bilingualism and the dual immersion program?” will be answered by comparing the calculated percentages of the answers in this section.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

One hundred and eighty-eight questionnaires were originally sent home with students of the dual language program at the elementary school. The questionnaires were answered by the parent or guardian and returned confidentially. There was a 25% response rate of the questionnaires at the end of a three-week collection period, with a total of 47 parents participating in the study. The response rate of this study was somewhat mitigated by instructions on the survey that only one survey was to be completed by each family, even if multiple children attended the school. Data were analyzed in order to answer the following three research questions:

1. What are parental attitudes toward bilingualism and the dual immersion program?

2. Why do parents enroll their child in a dual language education program?

3. Is there a relation between parental perceptions and education and language demographics?

The majority of the respondents were mothers (43, or 91%) and 9% were fathers. The ethnic composition of the respondents varied, with 81% identifying as Hispanic, 15% as Caucasian/Anglo, and 4% other. Spouses of respondents distinguished themselves as 64% Hispanic, 15% Caucasian or Anglo, and 6% other. Respondents were categorized into language groups based on the language they selected for question 2.2 on the survey. These language groups were EN (English speakers), SP (Spanish speakers), and BIL (bilinguals). Questions 2.1 (list the languages most often used in the home) and 2.2 (your own and your spouse's ability to communicate in Spanish) on the survey defined the

languages used on a daily basis by each member of the household and the respondents' ability to communicate in their second language. This data revealed that EN respondents almost always speak English to their children, the SP parents prefer to communicate in Spanish, and the BIL mothers speak Spanish in the home, while the bilingual fathers speak English (Figure 1).

In households of EN respondents, all but one of the parents responded that they speak English to their children while at home. In SP households, ninety-three percent of mothers reported speaking primarily Spanish. In BIL families, it was found that 40% of parents speak English, 30% speak Spanish, and 33% speak both English and Spanish to their children. In regards to question 3.4 of the survey, encouraging Spanish use outside of school, the majority of parents confirmed they encourage their child to speak Spanish, selecting "agree" and "strongly agree" (mean = 4.5). Although almost all parents answered in agreement with the statement, BIL parents reported that they "strongly agreed" (mean = 4.6) slightly more than SP and EN parents (mean = 4.2).

Every participant reported having either one (33, or 70%) or two (14, or 30%) children enrolled in the TWI. Table 1 identifies the grade levels of the parents' children, including those respondents with children in more than one grade level. The highly diverse educational backgrounds of respondents and their spouses are presented in Figure 2, ranging from only primary school training (four respondents) to graduate level degrees (five respondents). The most common education levels achieved were community college or vocational school degrees and four-year college degrees, at 28% and 32% of respondents respectively. All of the respondent fathers had at least a community college

degree, while slightly less than a third of the mothers possessed only a high school diploma. Four respondents, or 8.5%, were fathers and the remaining 91.5% were mothers.

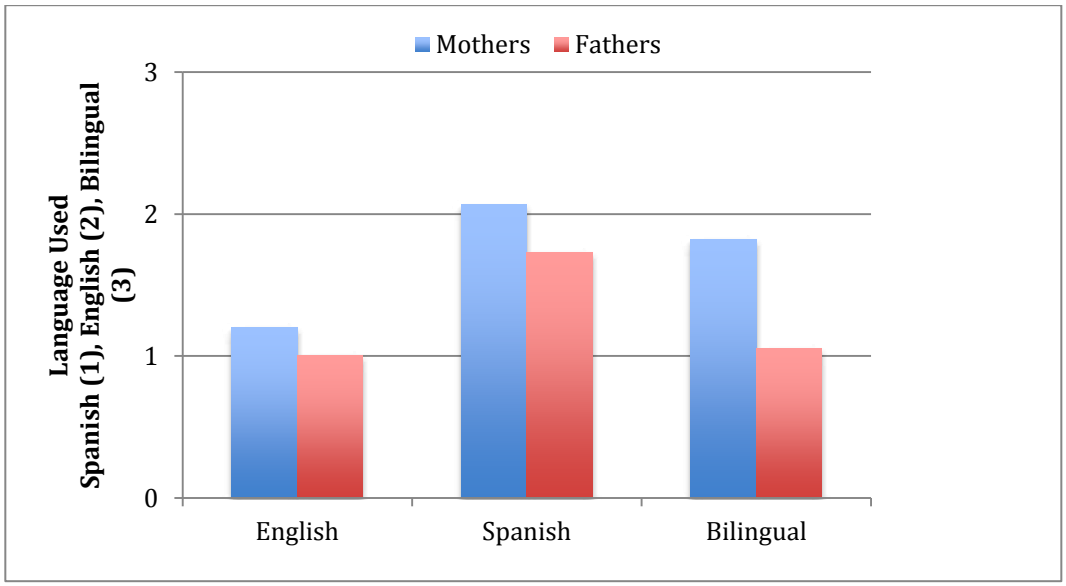


Figure 1 Language use in home. Average response scores by language group

Table 1 Grade levels of the respondents' children

Grade Level of Child	% of respondents out of 47
Only kindergartners	21
Kinder. and first/second grader	8.5
Kinder. and older child, grades 3-5	8.5
Only first/second graders	25.5
First/second grader and older child	8.5
Only third, forth, or fifth grader	28
Total	100%

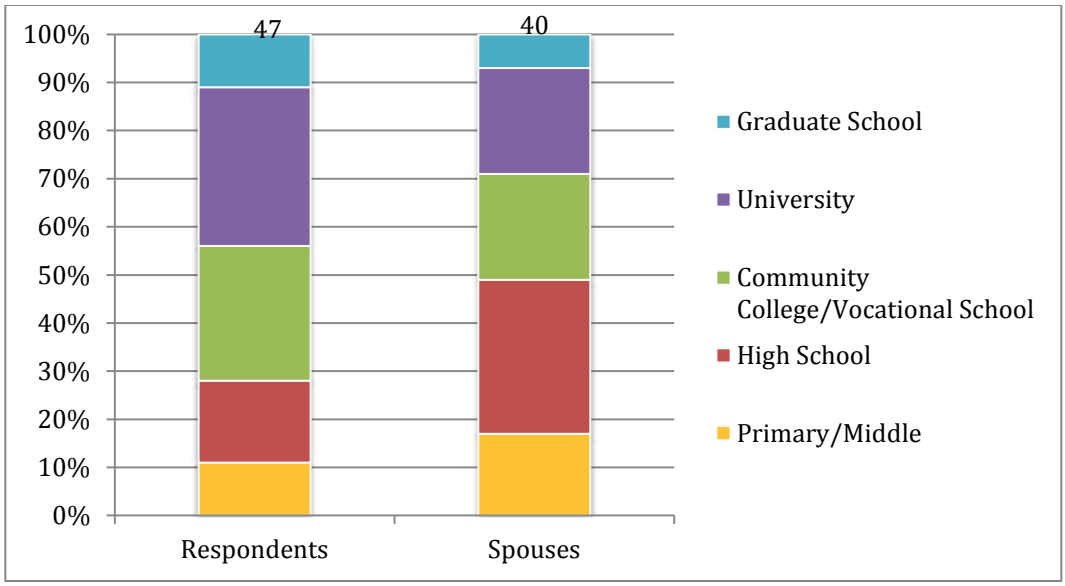


Figure 2 Education level of respondents and spouses

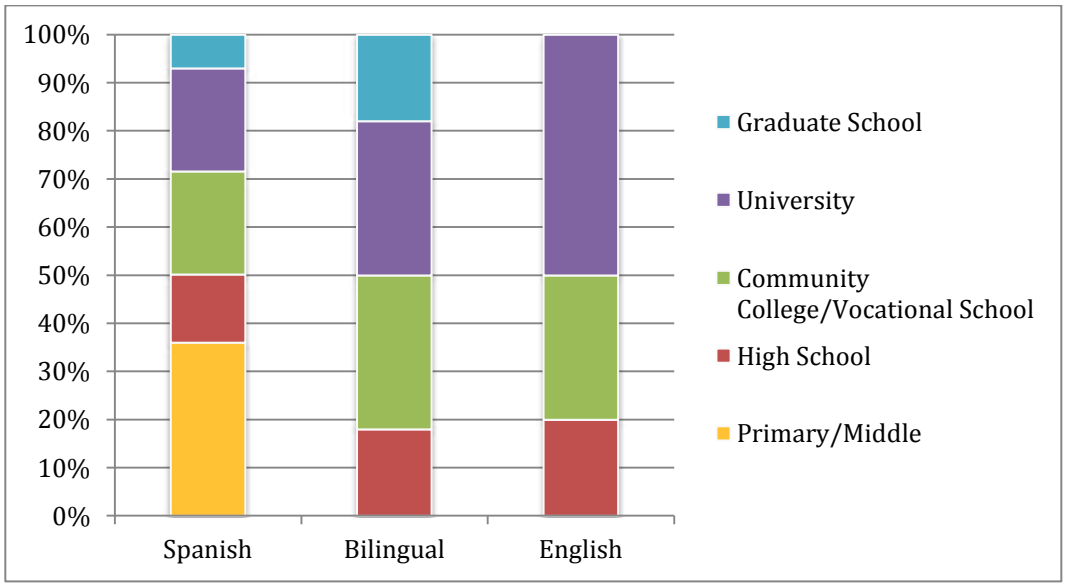


Figure 3 Education level of parents. Percentages by language group

Differences in education of respondents were evident when analyzed by language group. 50% of the English speakers, 21% of Spanish speakers, and 32% of BIL parents attained a college degree. 30% of EN, 21% of SP, and 32% of BIL parents attended

community college or vocational school. 19% of BIL respondents attained a graduate level degree. Over a third of all Spanish-speaking respondents had completed only primary and/or middle school (Figure 3). This data suggests a higher socioeconomic status (SES) for EN and BIL respondents and a lower SES for SP respondents.

First Research Question

Research question number one states: What are parental attitudes toward bilingualism and the dual immersion program? Figures 4, 5, and 6 show the highest and lowest scored survey questions for each language group. Respondents scored these questions using a five point Likert scale; one represented "strongly disagree," while three was "not sure," and five denoted "strongly agree." These graphs display the most and least significant topics for the respondents concerning bilingualism and the DLE their student is enrolled in. Seeking parental reasons for enrollment and distinctions between language groups, One-Way ANOVA was used to assess precision of the measurements by calculating the source of variation between and within language groups. All but two of these questions (3.3: the Hispanic community is made to feel like a valuable part of our school culture and 3.16: becoming bilingual will earn my child respect from others) were found to be statistically significant ($F = 0.84$, $p < 0.05$; $F = 1.6$, $p < 0.05$, respectively) when comparing language groups. Respondents unanimously agreed that they believed the TWI program would help their child communicate more effectively with Spanish speakers (mean = 4.77), understand Hispanic culture (mean = 4.72), and help their student become a more knowledgeable person (mean = 4.70).

Language groups agreed and disagreed about the importance of the various reasons for enrollment. Parents of all language backgrounds responded favorably when questioned about the importance of learning Spanish. EN parents desired for their students to become comfortable with Spanish speakers the most and believed respect of bilingualism to be the least important reason for enrollment (Figure 4). Figure 5 shows how SP respondents believed most significantly that bilingualism would make their child more knowledgeable, but not that it would make them smarter. BIL parents most strongly believed that enrollment in the DLE would foster a greater appreciation of Hispanic culture in their student, but they did not believe the program would make them smarter (Figure 6).

Questions 3.1-3.9 on the questionnaire sought to uncover parental attitudes toward bilingualism and the dual immersion program in order to discover parental attitudes toward bilingualism and the dual immersion program. Parents of all language and educational backgrounds agreed with questions 3.1 and 3.2, that the DLE was providing appropriate access to subject matter (mean = 4.59) and combining native speakers from both languages is the best way to learn (mean = 4.43). English-speaking parents agreed with question 3.1 slightly more than the averages of the other groups (mean = 4.70). Question 3.3, concerning whether the school was treating the Hispanic community as valued peers, was one of the lowest ranked questions for each language group (mean = 4.28) and was particularly low with English-speaking respondents (mean = 4.0).

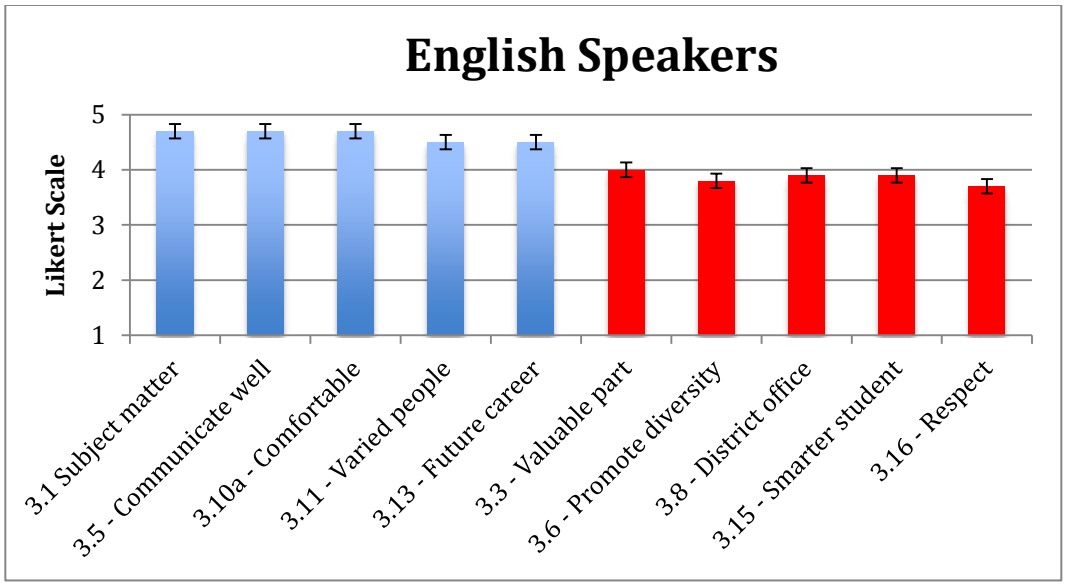


Figure 4 Highest and lowest ranked survey questions. Average response scores

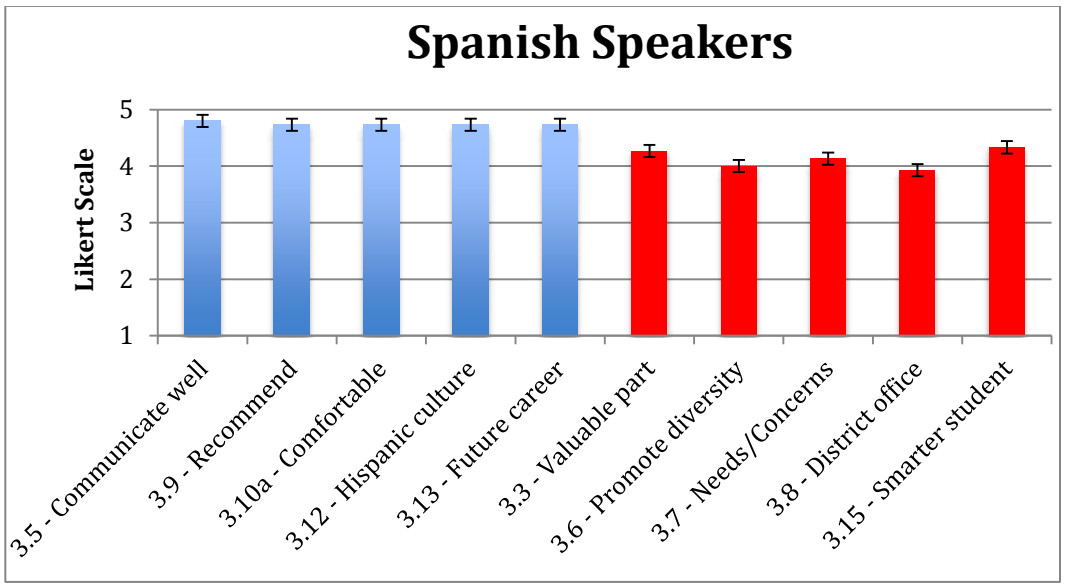


Figure 5 Highest and lowest ranked survey questions. Average response scores

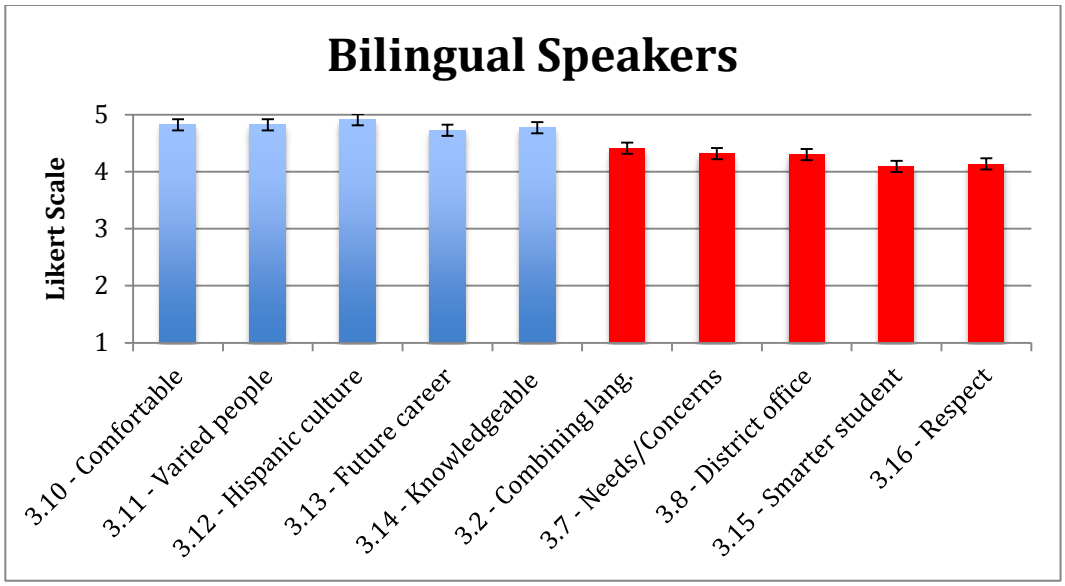


Figure 6 Highest and lowest ranked survey questions. Average response scores

When comparing respondents who agreed with question 3.4, that their student is encouraged to speak Spanish outside of school (mean = 4.49), EN respondents promote less Spanish production than the other groups (mean = 4.20). All parents declared they were very confident about their children's future ability to communicate in Spanish (mean = 4.64) in question 3.5; EN (mean = 4.70) and SP respondents (mean = 4.8) scored this question highest and second highest of the Likert scale inquiries respectively.

Questions 3.6 and 3.7 address the faculty and staff's ability to promote the growth and needs of both language minority and majority communities. When parents were questioned about whether the school's staff was effectively fostering diversity and understanding (question 3.6), all but nine of the respondents**,** regardless of their education level or language background, responded "agree" or "strongly agree". The mean score for each language group was: 4.48 for BIL, 4.0 for SP, and 3.8 for EN. Of the nine

participants who replied “not sure” or “disagree,” there were three SP, one BIL, and five EN respondents. The BIL parent and most of the EN parents attended institutions of higher education, while only some of the remaining four respondents possess a high school diploma.

Regarding the staff’s ability to successfully balance the needs of both English and Spanish communities, all language groups answered question 3.7 similarly. The mean scores for these groups were: 4.2 for EN, 4.13 for SP, and 4.32 for BIL. When examining the nine respondents who answered the lowest with “not sure”, there appears to be a difference between educational backgrounds; seven of these nine have attended institutes of higher education.

Responses to question 3.8 (the administration in the school district office is supportive) produced the lowest overall mean and clearly indicate that respondents do not believe the district office is supportive enough of the needs and concerns of the DLE community (mean = 4.09). Figures 2.0, 2.1, and 2.2 display the highest and lowest average scores of each language group. Question 3.8 can be found in the lower scores of each group’s graph. Language group did not alter the negative opinions shared by parents. EN parents averaged slightly less than “agree” (mean = 3.90), closely followed by SP parents (mean = 3.93). Discrepancies in perceptions of administrative support were not found between educational levels: seventy-nine percent of parents who responded in the affirmative and 80% of those who rated this question as “not sure” have obtained a degree from a higher education program.

When asked whether respondents would recommend their school to another parents, all language groups responded positively (EN mean = 4.5, SP mean = 4.73, BIL mean = 4.73). Sixty percent of EN, 74% of SP, and 77% of BIL parents rated this question as "strongly agree." All language groups had one respondent rate this question as "not sure" if they would recommend the DLE. In the SP group, the respondent had completed primary school, whereas in the EN and BIL groups, the respondents had obtained degrees of higher education. Bilinguals and English speakers who rated this question as 4 (agree), all had degrees from institutes of higher education. The researcher determined that although the school as a whole was an average performing school, the TWI magnet program had a higher standard of academic rigor and the parents had witnessed great advances in their children's language acquisition.

Second Research Question

The second research question inquires: Why do parents enroll their child in a dual language education program? Question 2.3 asked respondents to rate five particular reasons for enrollment from "most important" to "third most important". The possible reasons included: child will have a stronger bilingual/bicultural identity, child will be able to communicate with others, child will have an academic/career advantage, the school is located in the neighborhood, and the program is highly academic.

The seminal publishing of Gardner and Lambert (1972) identifies the significant role motivation plays in language learning and enrollment in a language program. The researchers proposed that these reasons could be categorized into two different types of motivation: instrumental and integrative. Instrumental motives are practical and are

usually for educational or professional reasons. Learners with integrative motives desire to become closer to a culture or population through the language. It has been shown that integrative motivations are often more successful in prompting lasting language acquisition (Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

Survey question 2.3 asked the respondent to identify the top three reasons for their child's enrollment in the DLE. The five reasons provided to choose from were categorized as either integrative reasons (the ability to communicate in Spanish and possess a stronger bilingual/bicultural identity) or instrumental reasons (neighborhood school, academic and social advantage, and quality academics). Figures 7 and 8 display the most important reason for enrollments selected by each respondent, organized by language group and either integrative or instrumental motives. The majority of EN respondents selected instrumental reasons, most notably that their child would gain career and cultural bilingual advantages. The BIL and SP respondents shared similar responses, a majority choosing an integrative reason, followed by the instrumental reason of career and cultural bilingual advantages.

In questions 3.10-3.17, the respondents rated additional possible reasons for enrollment. Figures 9, 10, and 11 display the highest and lowest rated reasons for each language group, 1 representing "strongly disagree", 3 "not sure", and 5 "strongly agree". All respondents, regardless of language group, agreed with question 3.10 and desire their child to be comfortable with other Spanish speakers (mean = 4.77). BIL and EN respondents rated question 3.11 (studying Spanish will allow my child to meet and converse with more and varied people) one of their top three reasons for enrollment

(mean = 4.72), desiring their student to have extraordinary life experiences and constantly meet varied people. BIL and SP parents displayed how important their children's appreciation and understanding of Hispanic culture is with their answers to question 3.12 (mean = 4.68).

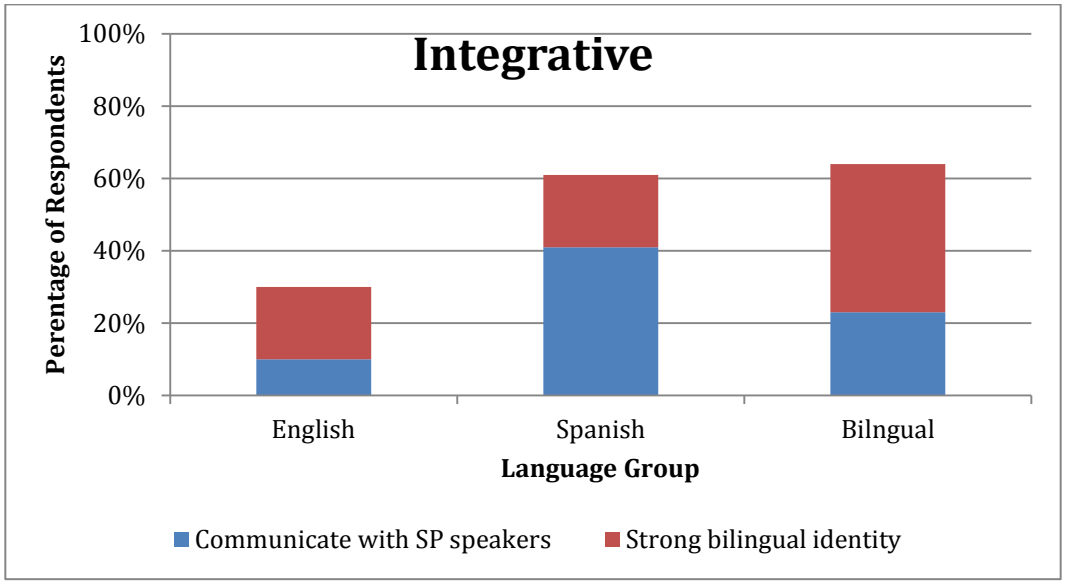


Figure 7 Integrative reasons for enrollment selected by respondents by language groups

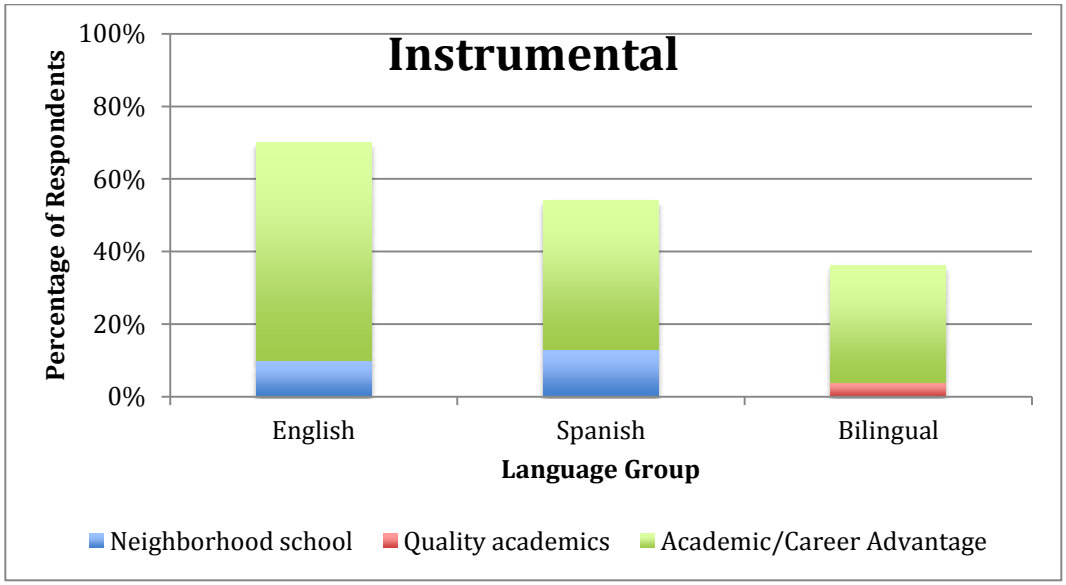


Figure 8 Instrumental reasons for enrollment selected by respondents by language group

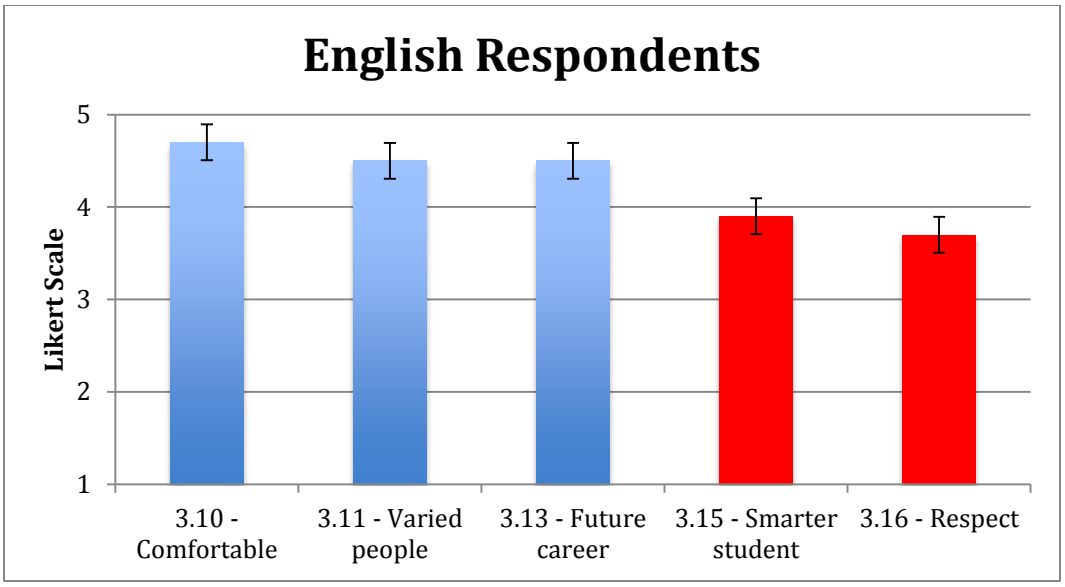


Figure 9 Highest and lowest rated enrollment questions. Average response scores

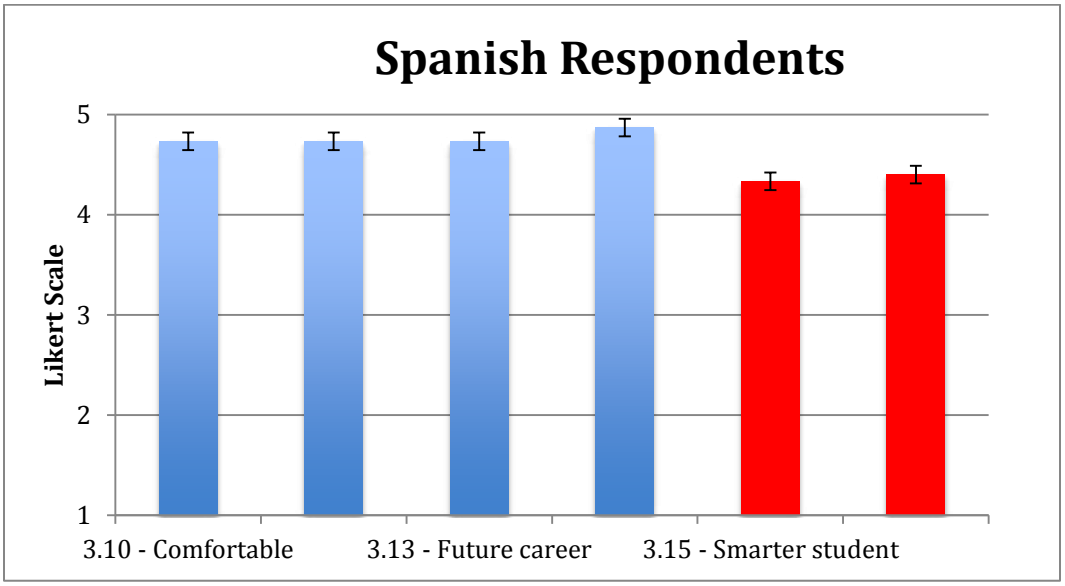


Figure 10 Highest and lowest rated enrollment questions. Average response scores

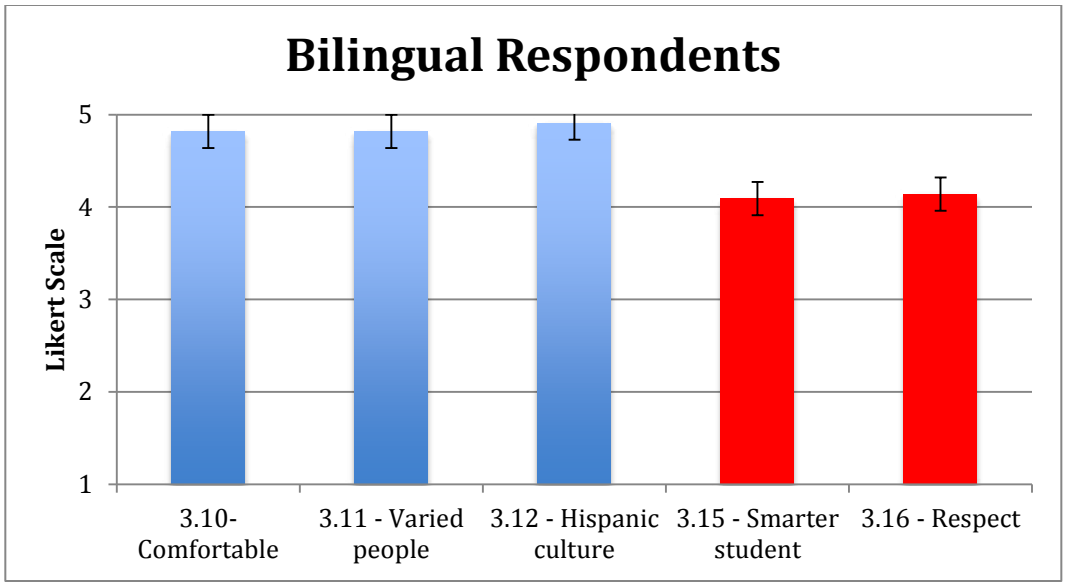


Figure 11 Highest and lowest rated enrollment questions. Average response scores

Bilingualism's positive affect on their child's future academic and career endeavors was very important for SP and EN parents (mean = 4.68). The most important reason for enrollment for SP families was found to be survey question 3.14 (the DLE would make their student a more knowledgeable person), with a mean of 4.87. All language groups rated questions 3.15 and 3.16 (my child will be respected more as a bilingual) as their lowest rated question (mean = 4.13).

Third Research Question

In order to answer research question number three (Is there a relation between parental perceptions and education and language demographics?), Analysis of Variance (One-Way), or ANOVA, was utilized. The test was conducted on survey questions 3.1-3.16, revealing statistical differences between language groups for all questions, except

for 3.3 (Hispanic families are made to feel like a valuable part of the community) and 3.16 (bilingualism will make their child more respected by others). In addition, parental responses to questions 3.1, 3.2, and 3.4-3.8 were analyzed in categorized groups related to the grade level of their student. Respondents were categorized as: parents with only kindergartners, kindergartners and first or second graders, kindergartners and older children (grades 3-5), first or second graders, first/second graders and older children, and only third, forth, or fifth graders. These particular questions were found to have no statistical difference between grade levels of respondents' children and their responses.

ANOVA was also used with the results of survey question 2.3 (What are the three most important reasons for enrollment?) to determine if there was a statistical difference in the top reasons for enrollment between language groups and the educational background of the respondents. Each response was first categorized as either an instrumental or an integrative reason. These responses were analyzed by language groups, then by educational level. There was no statistical difference found between these specific groups and their reasons for enrollment. When reasons for enrollment and education levels were statistically analyzed using probability, all p-values were found to be $p \geq 0.05$.

Bilingual and Spanish-speaking respondents were found to closely share many of the same attitudes and beliefs toward bilingualism and their children's DLE program. SP and BIL respondents had ratings within .20 points of each other for 11 out of 16 questions, or 69% of the survey (3.1-3.16). Survey questions were rated 1-5 with 1 representing "strongly disagree", 3 "not sure", and 5 "strongly agree." Respondents from

the SP and BIL language groups shared four of their top five rated survey questions, including: 3.5 (my child will be able to communicate very well in both Spanish and English), 3.10 (studying Spanish will allow my child to be more comfortable with other Spanish speakers), 3.12 (studying Spanish will enable my child to better understand and appreciate Hispanic culture), and 3.13 (studying Spanish is important for my child's future career). In addition, SP and BIL respondents shared three of the five lowest rated questions, 3.7 (faculty and staff are successful in balancing the needs and concerns of both English and Spanish communities), 3.8 (the administration in the school district office is supportive of the needs and concerns of the school community), and 3.15 (studying Spanish will make my child smarter). Each of the five total highest rated questions received average scores within 0.20 points of each other (Figures 12 and 13).

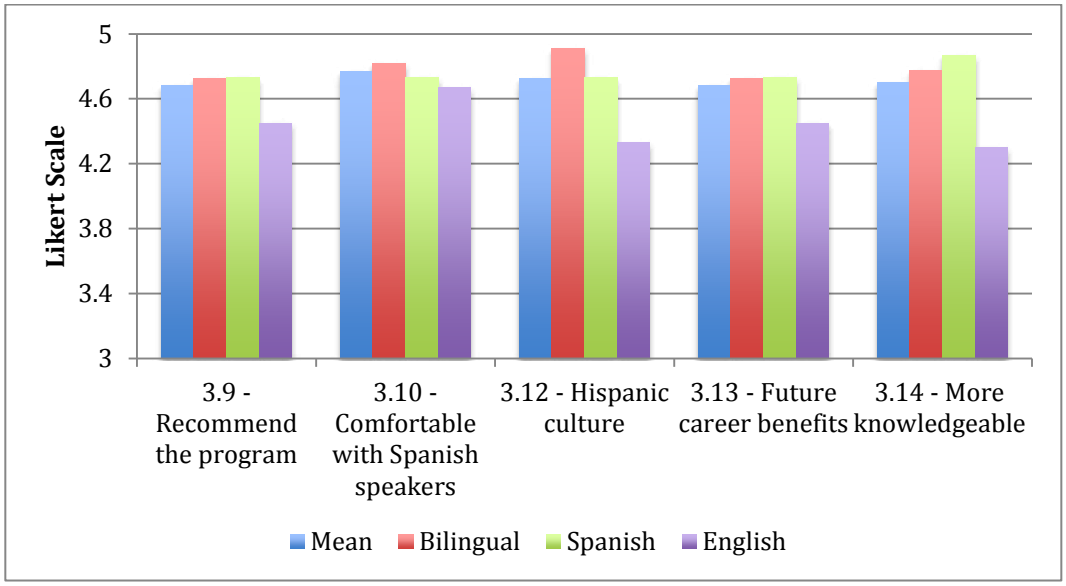


Figure 12 Highest rated survey statements. Average response sorted by language groups.

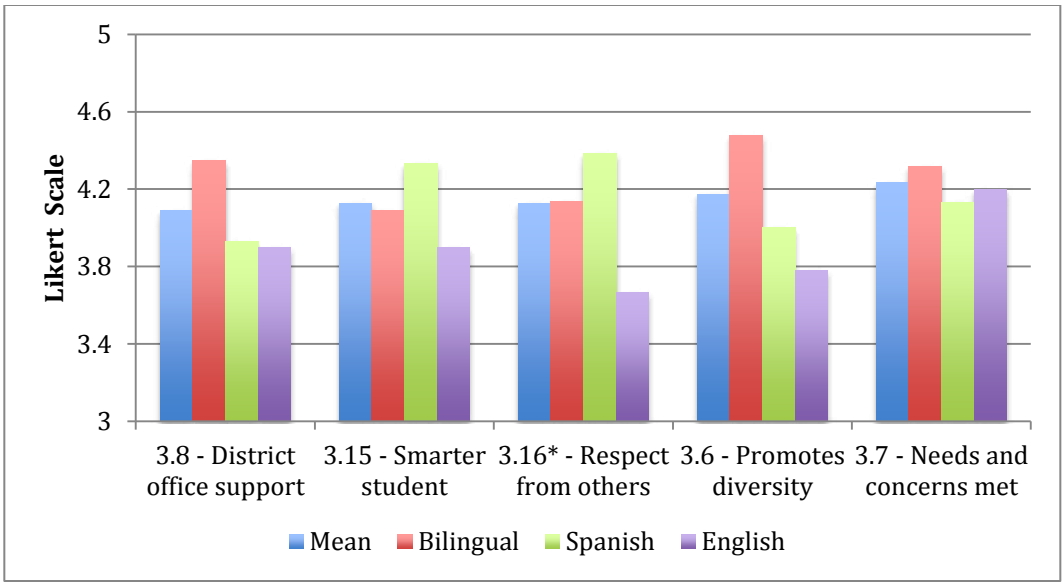


Figure 13 Lowest rated survey statements. Average response by language groups.

*ANOVA revealed statistically insignificant

Two of the top three highest rated survey statements, questions 3.10 (studying Spanish will allow my child to be more comfortable with other Spanish speakers) and 3.12 (studying Spanish will enable my child to better understand and appreciate Hispanic culture), garnered high-ranking responses from BIL and SP language groups. Respondents from the SP group scored both questions with a mean of 4.73 and bilinguals had similar views, rating question 3.10 with a mean of 4.82 and a high mean of 4.90 for question 3.12. Spanish-speaking respondents assigned the same weight to question 3.10 (bilingualism will benefit a future career) as the other two highest ranked questions. The ability to communicate with a varied group of people was more important to BIL respondents (mean = 4.82).

English-speaking respondents averaged intermediate scores, indicating values almost evenly distributed between those of the bilingual and Spanish-speaking groups. When comparing questions 3.1-3.16, six questions resulted in EN scores closer to those of bilinguals and seven were found to be closer to those of SP parents. The remaining three had tied scores between BIL and SP parents. Survey questions 3.7, 3.9, 3.10 and 3.13 revealed EN respondents maintain attitudes and beliefs very similar to the other two language groups on some issues, including the management of the school, as well as future careers and language abilities (Figure 14). Additionally, all language groups rated question 3.8 (does the district office provide enough support for the DLE) as one of the lowest ranked inquires.

Not all of the survey's questions presented responses that were similar between language groups. The four questions displayed in Figure 15 represent those with more than a 0.20-point difference between one or more of the groups' mean scores. Survey question 3.6 (diversity and understanding is promoted in the school community) uncovered a variance between how the language groups perceive the DLE's competence in promoting diversity within the school. Many EN parents were "not sure" the school was doing an adequate job encouraging diversity (mean = 3.8), while SP and BIL respondents generally "agreed" diversity was encouraged (SP mean = 4, BIL mean = 4.5).

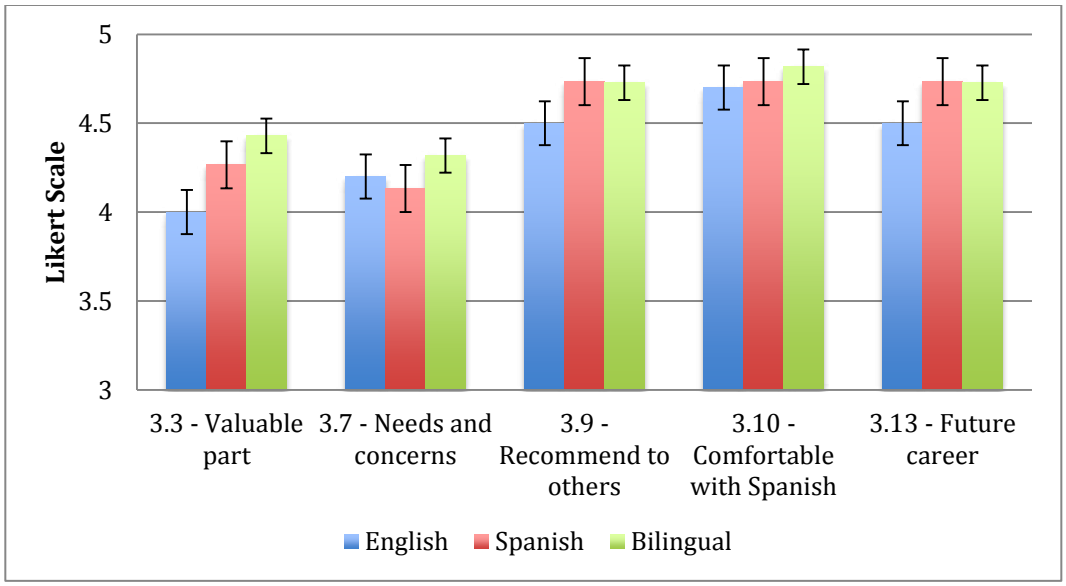


Figure 14 Five most similar survey questions

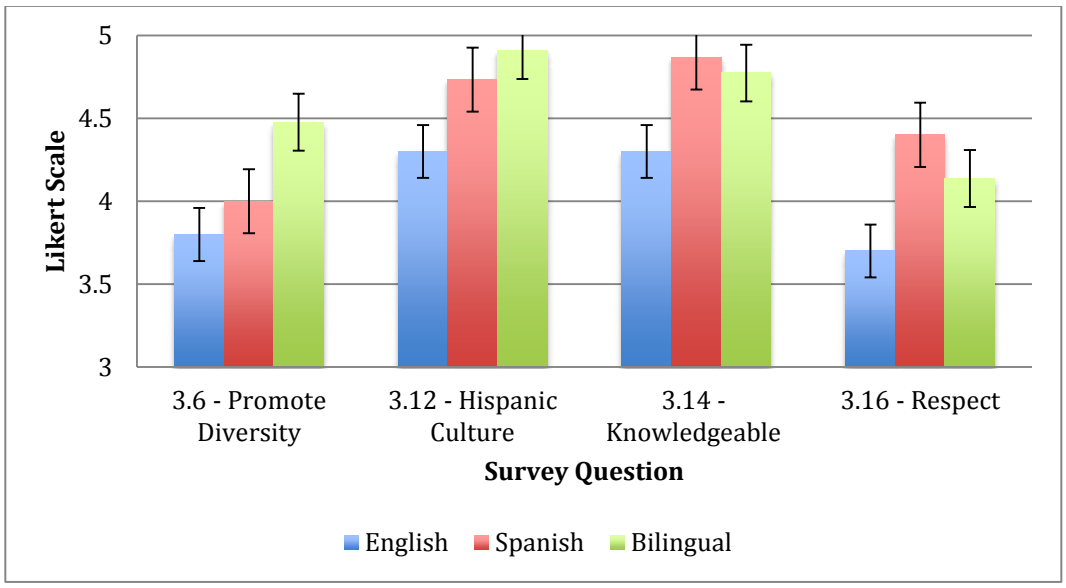


Figure 15 Five most diverse survey question

CHAPTER FIVE: DISSCUSSION

This study was conducted to examine parents' beliefs and attitudes of bilingualism, the reasons for enrolling their child in the TWI program, as well as their perceptions of the school. The research questions that guided this study are:

1. What are parental attitudes toward bilingualism and the dual immersion program?
2. Why do parents enroll their child in a dual language education program?
3. Is there a relation between parental perceptions and beliefs of bilingualism and the respondents' education or language demographic?

A parental questionnaire was sent home with 188 elementary school children. After the data collected from the 47 completed and returned surveys was analyzed, several interesting similarities and differences, as well as distinctions between language and educational groups became evident.

Survey responses were categorized into three language groups: English (EN), Spanish (SP), and bilinguals (BIL). The majority of respondents were bilingual, followed by Spanish speakers, and only ten English respondents. The imbalance between respondents of the language groups is an interesting distinction. The literature suggests that Spanish speakers and bilinguals were more apt to complete the survey because of their involvement and relationship with the school (Cummins, 2000; Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006; Lindholm-Leary & Block, 2010; Valencia & Black, 2002). While comparing parental involvement in DLE programs, Lindholm-Leary (2001) found that minority parents are consistently more highly involved with their students' program than the

majority language parents. Additionally, Cummins (2000) revealed that as the percentage of Spanish-speaking teachers increases within a school (as with a DLE), the involvement of Spanish-speaking parents experiences a similar increase. A comparable survey in Southern California discovered that Spanish-speaking parents provide comparatively elevated levels of support for their students by speaking in Spanish and English in the home, providing supplementary materials in Spanish and English, reading in Spanish, and being involved in school affairs (Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006). Perhaps a conclusion could be drawn from the disparate number of respondents from each language group. BIL and SP respondents in the present study might be seen as more involved and enthusiastic about their children's DLE.

The first research question addresses the attitudes and beliefs held by parents at the school, relating to both bilingualism and the DLE in which their child is enrolled. All language groups and education levels of parents expressed their confidence in the dual immersion theory of learning two languages simultaneously, the teaching methods employed at the school, and their students' exposure to subject matter (questions 3.1 and 3.2). This data reflects the findings of Giacchino-Baker and Piller (2006), in that all parents desired their children to be both academically successful and bilingual, and believe that these goals were achievable concurrently. Lao (2004) also conducted a survey in which parents responded to a similar question with strong support for bilingual education, believing it to facilitate language acquisition in students' L1 and L2.

EN respondents' mean score for question 3.1 (the TWI is giving my child access to the subject matter that s/he needs, mean = 4.7) was the highest of the language groups

and one of the EN group's top three highest rated questions. Responses from 3.1 answer research question number one (parental attitudes toward bilingualism and the DLE) and demonstrate the positive parental attitudes regarding the quality of education. This reflects the findings of Gerena (2011), which revealed that English-speaking parents were content with the academic level of their children's courses and the absence of detriment to academic performance, in regards to their grade-level standards. The EN participants of this study were generally highly educated and desired their children to attend the DLE for integrative reasons. Even with high expectations of their children's academic progress, EN respondents approved of the education provided by the DLE program.

However, respondents in the current study do not seem confident in the equality between language groups in the classroom. One of the lowest scored survey questions, 3.3 (Hispanic students, parents, staff and community members are made to feel like a valuable part of our school culture), reflects the awareness of respondents from all language groups that a preference exists for the English language and culture within the classroom. This survey inquiry provides an answer to the first research question that is less positive than before; parents have an unpleasant perception of inequality between the languages. De Jong and Howard (2009) also found inequalities in language use within dual language programs. They noted that group work was almost always conducted in English and focused on intellectual writing, whereas Spanish conversations seemed to be restrained to individual word translations and language mechanics. De Jong and Howard similarly found that assessment frequently occurs in English and English teachers are usually unilingual, and therefore unable to code switch and integrate Spanish into lessons

the way English often is. Due to the wording of survey question 3.3, it is unclear if respondents were more concerned with the quality of language use in the classroom or the number of bilingual instructors. Regardless, respondents very clearly expressed that they believe the school community needs to improve equality between language groups.

Irrespective of language group or education background, parents found support from the district office to be average and even sometimes lacking. Question 3.8 (the administration in our school district office is supportive of the needs and concerns of the school community) was one of the lowest scored questions of each language group and provides an answer to the first research question, inquiring as to the parental beliefs and attitudes concerning bilingualism and the DLE program. The comprehensive mean of inquiry 3.8 hovered around 4, or "agree"; bilinguals agreed the most (mean = 4.3), followed by SP and EN (mean = 3.9). Those respondents with a community college or university degree perceived lower levels of support than those with lower levels of education.

This school site seems as if it may be lacking the adequate support needed, both social and monetary, from the district in order to accomplish the high standards of a TWI school. The result of question 3.8 indicates that the higher-educated and higher-income families have greater expectations of magnet schools due to their previous encounters with and knowledge of educational systems. These parents expect more involvement and support from the district, with respect to bolstering what they believe to be a deserving and worthwhile program. According to Willig (1985), when communities, administrations, and staff possess positive attitudes toward language minority students

and bilingualism as a whole, local language education policies are more likely to generate successful programs. Most parents at TWI schools are committed to remaining in the program, so long as they are made available (Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006). The evident lack of support from the district office has not resulted in lowered standards of education or poor performing students for this study site and parents are still passionate, but they are concerned.

The mean scores for survey question 3.15 (studying Spanish is important for my child because it will make him/her smarter) were some of the lowest for each language group. This inquiry assisted in answering the second research question: What is the reason for enrollment? Bilingual parents only "agree" with the statement in 3.15, and almost half of SP respondents "strongly agree". Interestingly, Spanish speakers rated question 3.14 (studying Spanish is important for my child because it will make him/her a more knowledgeable person) as one of their highest rated questions. This suggests that the majority of the SP respondents draw a distinction between a smarter person and a more knowledgeable one. This could be perceived as viewing a language as collection of knowledge, one that can be collected and retained but is less qualified to increase intelligence. In a survey of parents with children enrolled in English-Spanish bilingual school education programs, researchers found that parents perceived their children's bilingual studies to be at least satisfactory in terms of academic, linguistic, and multicultural proficiency, though some worried about how rigorously internationally applicable mathematics skills were being taught (Parkes & Ruth, 2011). Parents in this study recognized that language acquisition cannot make a child brighter, but it does

increase cultural experiences, new interactions, and constant stimulation of the mind that can greatly affect a child's life.

In regard to encouraging Spanish use outside of school (question 3.4), the majority of parents confirmed their encouragement with the rating "agree." Although almost all parents answered in agreement with the statement, bilingual parents reported that they "strongly agreed" slightly more than Spanish-speaking parents. This most likely reflects the desire of Spanish-speaking parents to assimilate their child into the English-speaking culture, more so than the bilingual parents who already believe their child is a part of the English-speaking culture. These bilingual parents seem to understand that their student is exposed to mostly English in their every day lives but that to maintain a second language one must practice, which is what these parents are facilitating. The data from the first research inquires into parental attitudes of bilingualism and inquiry 3.4 reveals that parents generally encourage their children to practice their bilingualism. Butvilofsky (2012) describes how one of the students at a DLE program revealed in a class writing that her mother insists on speaking Spanish at dinner. Butvilofsky suggests that this is practice is to impede language attrition the child's classes and every day life became inundated with English. Bilinguals of the United States are unlike monolingual inhabitants of a Spanish-speaking country. They exist in a realm where one language cannot fulfill all of their linguistic needs (Gutiérrez, 1997). SP parents most likely did not have to promote their children to speak Spanish at home because it was natural to do so already. BIL parents, however, might have to encourage their children to use Spanish to

counteract the inferred social pressures experienced everyday to speak English, the majority language.

Questions 3.6, 3.7, and 3.8 asked respondents about their attitudes and perceptions of their child's specific dual language program. Addressing the school's effectiveness in fostering diversity and cooperation (question 3.6) and the first research question (What are parental attitudes toward the DLE?), 80% of the respondents "agreed" or "strongly agreed" to the success of diversification. This response is similar to the findings of Lambert (1987) who observed that positive cross-cultural philosophies were improved for students placed in immersion programs. Lindholm-Leary (1994) and Cazabon, Lambert, and Hall (1993) noted cross-cultural and 'color-blind' friendships within two-way immersion programs. Several other studies in dual immersion programs have shown the pedagogy to produce positive biculturalism and perspectives of Spanish in similar programs (Block, 2011; Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2001; Lindholm-Leary & Ferrante, 2005).

The remaining 20% of respondents (nine parents) responded to question 3.6 with a 3, "not sure", or lower. The mean scores for this question ranged from 4.48 for bilingual respondents through 3.8 for English speakers. Of the nine respondents who rated this question below "not sure" or "disagree", three were SP parents with less than a high school diploma, four were English speakers with a degree from an institution of higher education, one was an English speaker with a high school degree, and the remaining parent was a college educated bilingual. This seems to suggest that these five educated English-speaking parents perceive the same social and educational inequality toward the

minority culture and language as the three lower-educated Spanish-speaking parents. In a focus group interview, Gerena (2011) learned that by the end of two school years, English-speaking parents had developed a considerably more enlightened perception of cultural consciousness and recognition, as well as a heightened compassion and affinity toward the language minority community. These same English-speaking respondents expressed the desire to raise awareness of the benefits of bilingualism and fight against the bigotry, untruths, and insensitivity that exists within the school district. The SP respondents' views in the current study are comparable to those in previous literature, implicating that minority parents and those from lower incomes often feel division, prejudice, and suspicion from school staff (Comer, 1986; Barona & Garcia, 1990; Hidalgo, 1995; Ogbu, 1987). This interesting finding suggests that bilingual parents miss the undertones of inequality or lack the ability to analyze biased situations. Perhaps this occurs because bilinguals move more freely between the other two language groups, thus making it harder to discern any divisiveness.

Statistical differences found for questions 3.1-3.16, revealed distinct beliefs and attitudes held by the language groups, as well as the answer to the first research question regarding parental beliefs and attitudes toward bilingual education and the particular DLE program. No differences were found between the results of respondents with students in different grade levels or parental education levels. This result may have been due to the small sample size. Survey question 2.3 asked parents to select the first through third most important reasons for enrolling their child in the dual immersion program. The first and most important reason selected by all parents was statistically analyzed among the three

language groups and educational backgrounds of respondents. These data were not found to be statistically significant, perhaps because of the limited sample size.

The responses to question 3.7 (the faculty and staff are successful in balancing the needs and concerns of both English and Spanish-speaking communities) show mean scores for each language group that are similar: EN (4.2), SP (4.13), and BIL (4.32), with a maximum score of five. Only nine respondents rated question 3.7 as "not sure", seven of whom had previously attended institutes of higher education. Inquiry 3.7 provides additional information for research question number one (What are parental attitudes toward the dual immersion program?). Though the means of these language groups are similar, 3.7 is one of the lowest rated questions for both BIL and SP respondents. The data indicates BIL and SP parents surmise their children's DLE program to be exceedingly focused on the needs of English speakers, rather than equal with the Spanish community. Interestingly, this result is the opposite of what Lindholm-Leary (2001) found when she asked the same question of parents at a DLE program. In her results, both Hispanic and European English speakers had illustrated their belief that the Spanish community was receiving the most focus in school. Geneva (2010) warns that when students observe diminishing levels of Spanish in the school, their appreciation for bilingual principles and ideology will wane. This study site could work to improve on purposely encouraging the Spanish language and students from that language group, in order to reconcile the invariable flood of English the students experience every day.

When comparing the reasons respondents selected as the most important reason for enrollment, a clear distinction can be seen between language groups and their

strongest motivators. The five reasons presented were categorized as either instrumental or integrative and presented as graphs displaying the averages of each language group. English-speaking respondents were significantly more influenced by integrative motivations, such as academic and career advantages. This suggests that for English speakers, the answer to the second research question regarding parental reasons for enrollment is they are less interested in having a child that is integrated into the Hispanic community than a child with an impressive resume. Many American parents recognize the academic and economic benefits of bilingual education (Craig, 1996; Lambert, 1990). In a focus group conducted by Gerena (2011), EN parents were found to perceive their child would gain prestige and position with their bilingualism and referred multiple times to the financial and opportunistic advantages of bilingualism. These conclusions reflect the majority of English-speaking parents who selected instrumental motivations in the present study.

Respondents from the language groups of Spanish speakers and bilinguals shared many similar attitudes and beliefs regarding bilingualism and the DLE. When comparing the highest and lowest scoring survey questions, SP and BIL respondents averaged responses within 0.20 points of each other. This suggests that the answer to the third research question is that close relations between these two language groups exist. The researcher believes these comparable scores are due to the cultural and linguistic similarities between these groups of respondents. Schreffler (2007) suggests that members of the Hispanic community experience a similar opposition to their identity while in their communities, places of work, and residences. In focus groups of parents of

TWI students, Gerena (2011) recorded statements of both bilinguals and Spanish speakers that supported mutual understanding and learning, as well as maintaining the heritage language. The Spanish-speaking and bilingual parents were confident in the future benefits their child would receive as a bilingual and that the school was facilitating their child's L2 acquisition without any loss of L1. In the present study, BIL and SP parents at this DLE program share many language ambitions for their children because the SP respondents desire their children to be fluent in the majority language, complete their American dream by achieving what they couldn't quite achieve, while still embracing their heritage. The BIL parents would like to share their traditions, but primarily, understand the advantages that stem from bilingualism are worth the hard work.

Two out of the three highest rated survey questions for SP and BIL respondents were the same reasons for enrollment. The reasons selected by the parents were that studying Spanish will allow their student to become more comfortable with other Spanish speakers (question 3.10) and studying Spanish will enable their student to better understand and appreciate Hispanic culture (question 3.12). Providing an answer to the third research question (Is there a relationship between parental perceptions and beliefs of bilingualism and the respondents' education or language demographic?), the high scores on questions 3.10 and 3.12 from both language groups suggest that the connection with and sustainability of their Hispanic culture and language is very important to both bilinguals and Spanish speakers. In a comparable survey, 41.8% of parents expressed the desire for their child's TWI to foster a bilingual-bicultural identity and facilitate language learning, enabling students to converse with multiple generations of Spanish-speaking

family members (Ramos, 2007). Hispanic families have firmly established goals of bilingualism and biculturalism for the children, regardless of L1 (Gerena, 2011). These parents continually stated the importance of the preservation and perpetuation of their child's Spanish language acquisition, as well as their cultural heritage. Many of the SP parents from the current study have spouses who speak only Spanish, and most likely, all have relatives in a Spanish-speaking country. Family connections are acutely important to Hispanic culture, thus it is imperative to these parents that they provide their child with an opportunity to preserve their heritage language.

Spanish speakers and bilinguals provided responses that favored integrative motivations, displaying this as their most foremost reason of enrollment and the answer to the second research question. Forty percent of Spanish-speaking respondents selected the ability to communicate with other Spanish speakers as the most important reason for enrollment, implying a strong family connection and the importance of Spanish to succeed in the Hispanic community. According to Dorner (2010), one of the two main ambitions of the SP parents is that their children have the ability to communicate with multiple generations of their family. Latino parents place greater emphasis on integrative motivations for language acquisition (Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Craig, 1996). Additionally, these parents have defined for their children developmental and academic achievements, in order to encourage strong relationships with extended family members (Craig, 1996). For the language groups in the current study, the ability to communicate and build meaningful relationships with Spanish-speaking family and community members was of greater importance than any instrumental reason.

Spanish-speaking and bilingual respondents shared many commonalities in their highest and lowest ranking questions, as well as their reasons for enrollment. This again displays the existence of relations between language groups and provides an answer to the third research question. Parents who spoke Spanish rated questions 3.9, 3.10, 3.12 and 3.13 with means of 4.73. Bilingual parents scored very similarly to SP parents, for instance question 3.9 (I would recommend this program to other parents). Survey question 3.12 (studying Spanish is important for my child because it will enable him/her to better understand and appreciate Hispanic culture) received a mean score of 4.73 for SP parents but a 4.91 with bilinguals. This could be because Spanish-speaking respondents believe their students already understand Hispanic culture and are consistently exposed to cultural events. Perhaps, as in this instance, a student would not need to rely on the school to act as cultural informant.

In the present study, 40% of bilinguals replied that it was most important that their child have a strong bilingual/bicultural identity, in much the same way as themselves. This inquiry provided a unique perspective on the second research question, what are the parental reasons for enrollment. Mahrer and Christian (1993) employed the Self Perception Profile and found that bilingual students in grades K-12 scored above average for social proficiency, academic competence, physical appearance, self-esteem, and ambition. The bilingual/bicultural identity seems to be very important to bilinguals because they understand the benefits bilinguals enjoy, including: increased cognitive functioning, an expanded worldview, promising education and job prospects, pride in their studies, and consistently outperforming comparison students. Similarly, Hispanic

parents, unbiased by language competency, distinguish integrative motivations over instrumental, due to their propensity toward generational relationships and shared culture (Craig, 1996). Attempting to provide their child with the best opportunities, BIL respondents in the present study perceive a bilingual/bicultural identity to be one of the most important reasons to choose a DLE program.

The second most important achievement for Spanish-speaking respondents from a similar study was creating better opportunities for their children's future careers (Dorner, 2010). Spanish-speaking respondents elicited the highest mean of all of the language groups for survey question 3.13 (studying Spanish is important for my child because s/he will need it for his/her future career). With a mean of 4.73, SP respondents made one of the answers to the second research question (reasons for parental enrollment) evident. Lao (2004) identified one of the most important instrumental motivations for Chinese-speaking parents in a similar study was expanded opportunities for education and future careers. Spanish-speaking parents believe that for future prosperity, the English language and culture are crucial (Gerena, 2011). Giacchino-Baker and Piller (2006), as well as Shannon and Milian (2002), discovered that Hispanic parents perceived future academic and career benefits as an important byproduct of bilingualism. Perhaps the SP survey respondents comprehend how valuable the ability to speak Spanish is, especially in an urban area where the majority of the population is Hispanic; however, they realize that fluency in English is absolutely necessary for their child to achieve financial security. This DLE program provides these parents with the opportunity to provide their children with a wealth of opportunities in a quality learning-environment.

The results of this study revealed areas of the school's community that could benefit from some added attention. Parents from all languages evidently perceive inequalities between language groups, as can be seen by the low scores for questions 3.6 (successful promotion of diversity and understanding among school community) and 3.7 (successful balancing the needs and concerns of both English and Spanish speaking communities). Calderon and Slavin (2001) suggest schools should provide parents with the opportunity to participate meaningfully in their children's education, including creating a 'Building Advisory Team' to assist with school policy making, and volunteer opportunities, all while providing an open community to encourage language minority parents to be involved. Perhaps a 'Building Advisory Team' could organize a group of parents to present the school before the district office and ask for more funding. The respondents who held the largest grievances with the school district for lack of support were the highly educated EN parents and several less formally educated SP parents. If these two groups worked together, they could achieve great opportunities for the school and teach their children a valuable lesson about cooperation.

Conclusions and Implications

The present study reveals the extremely positive attitudes regarding the DLE from parents of varied backgrounds. Parents from all backgrounds desire and believe their children can become fluent in both languages. These findings are similar to those from works of other researchers (Parkes, 2008; Lindhom-Leary, 2001; Howard, Sugarman, & Christian, 2003). The present research was conducted for the purpose of contributing data to the rapidly amassing body of knowledge on dual language education. This survey is

similar to those that have been utilized in previous research studies (Shannon & Milian, 2002; Giacchino-Baker & Piller, 2006; Ramos, 2007; Whiting & Feinauer, 2011). These researchers have used Lindholm-Leary's (2001) questionnaire as a model or resource for their own, including the present study. Dual language education programs have started to truly emerge around the country in the last 10 years and there is still much to learn about parental attitudes and beliefs of bilingualism and their DLE, reasons for enrollment, and if there is a relation between the views of language groups or those with varied educational backgrounds. More research should be conducted in schools around the United States to collect as many perspectives as possible. Future researchers could inquire as to whether there is a relation between attitudes in different regions of one state, or the country. With this research, schools could have a clear idea of how parents perceive the program and begin to alter the practices and cultures within their schools in order to provide more inclusion and diversity to students from all language and educational backgrounds.

Data and conclusions derived from this study could assist the school in focusing their efforts to improve the school for teachers, parents, and students alike. From the completed surveys, it was found that parents, especially English speaking parents, valued the level of academics offered at the school, in addition to the obvious linguistic benefits of attending a bilingual program. The administration could utilize this information by ensuring that these two mainstays of the bilingual education offered at this DLE remain the focus of the school and its teachers. Additionally, the school could use the data collected from parents to assist new parents in understanding how DLE programs contrast

with an English-only, mainstreamed classroom (Sheffer, 2003). Awareness of the reasons for enrollment provides insight into the attitudes and beliefs of the parents. This insight could be used to recruit new parents with a more targeted and effective approach. The school could advance with the knowledge from the present study, applying the knowledge that groups of parents perceive an inequality in the language communities at school with a discernable favorability toward the English language and community.

The present study and the data collected from parents resemble that of other studies and the similar DLE programs involved. A clear theme emerging from these publications is the importance of parental groups formed within the school and the role they can play in shaping and underscoring the learning that occurs in the classrooms. These groups can work to encourage more parental involvement, ensure equally opportunities for participation, and provide translations during school meetings, guarantying each parent the opportunity understand and engage with the community. Not only can these groups boost students' academic success by making parents active participants in their learning, but they are also a way to bridge the gap between language and ethnic groups, creating more equality within the school community. Parents could join together to make their voices heard about offering bilingual homework instructions and updates from the teachers. By engaging in research studies regarding dual language programs and parental attitudes and beliefs, researchers can assist local schools around the country by providing a method with which to collect clear data. Researchers could indicate how these results might be incorporated into personalized plans for consistent improvements at schools nationwide.

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE PRE-STUDY INTRODUCTORY LETTER

UCF

Stands For Opportunity

Greetings!

My name is Leah DeLorenzo and I am a graduate student at the University of Central Florida in the Master of Arts Teaching English as a Second Language program. I am conducting research for my thesis project on why parents chose to send their children to dual immersion programs, just like the one here at Union Park Elementary.

A week ago, you received letters to hand out to your students to be delivered to their parent or guardian. Today you receive a large envelope filled with packets for each student. Every packet contains a cover letter with instructions for the participants, a survey in both English and Spanish, as well as an envelope for parents to place the completed surveys in before returning them to you. When the students begin to bring the completed questionnaires back to class, please place them in this envelope and keep it safely secured in a discrete location.

In one week's time, I will deliver a reminder note to be sent home with every student. With your help, this research will contribute to the growing number of research projects that will eventually change the way the parents of the United States views dual immersion programs. Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions.

Thank you for your time and cooperation,

Leah DeLorenzo

[redacted]

LDeLorenzo488@gmail.com

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE IN ENGLISH

Parent Questionnaire

Important: YOU DO NOT NEED TO WRITE YOUR CHILD'S NAME ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE!

Part 1. Background

1.1 What is your relationship to child(ren) enrolled in the program: Mother ____ Father ____ Other ____

1.2 How many children do you have enrolled in the program? _____

Grade level of children: Kindergarten ____ 1er ____ 2do ____ 3er ____ 4to ____ 5to ____

1.3 What is your and your spouse's ethnic background?

You	Your spouse		You	Your spouse	
___	___	Hispanic/Latino	___	___	Asian-American
___	___	Caucasian/Anglo	___	___	American Indian/Alaskan Native
___	___	African-American			

1.4 What is the highest level of education that you and your spouse have completed?

You	Your spouse		You	Your spouse	
___	___	Elementary	___	___	Community College/Vocational School
___	___	Junior High/Middle School	___	___	4-year College/University Degree
___	___	High School or equivalent	___	___	Professional Degree/Graduate School

1.5 What language(s) do you and your spouse speak? You:_____ Your Spouse:_____

Part 2. Language and Culture

2.1 Please list the language(s) most often used in the home by the:
Mother to child_____Father to child_____Parents to each other_____

2.2 Please check below <u>your own</u> and <u>your spouse's</u> ability to communicate in Spanish.

You	Your spouse	
___	___	No ability; cannot understand or speak the language at all.
___	___	Can understand somewhat but cannot speak the language.
___	___	Can understand and speak the language somewhat.
___	___	Can understand and speak the language very well.
___	___	Native speaker, or native-like ability in the language.

2.3 What are the *three most important reasons* for enrolling your child in the immersion program? (Put a 1 next to the MOST IMPORTANT, a 2 next to the SECOND MOST IMPORTANT, a 3 next to the THIRD MOST IMPORTANT)

_____ it is our neighborhood school
_____ it is a high quality academic program
_____ my child will be able to communicate with family, friends, or other Spanish speaking people
_____ my child will have an academic or career advantage
_____ my child will have a stronger identity as a bilingual-bicultural/multicultural individual

Part 3. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements about the Bilingual Immersion Program. (CIRCLE ONE ANSWER FOR EACH STATEMENT)

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
3.1	I am satisfied that the Two-Way Immersion Program is giving my child access to the subject matter that s/he needs.	1	2	3	4	5
3.2	I believe that combining native English speakers and native Spanish speakers in the classroom is the best way for my child to learn Spanish.	1	2	3	4	5
3.3	Hispanic students, parents, staff and community members are made to feel like a valuable part of our school culture.	1	2	3	4	5
3.4	I really encourage my child to speak Spanish outside of school.	1	2	3	4	5
3.5	I am confident that my child will be able to communicate very well in both Spanish and English after completing the program.	1	2	3	4	5
3.6	The faculty and staff have been successful in promoting diversity and understanding among the school community.	1	2	3	4	5
3.7	The faculty and staff are successful in balancing the needs and concerns of both English and Spanish speaking communities.	1	2	3	4	5
3.8	The administration in our school district office is supportive of the needs and concerns of the school community.	1	2	3	4	5
3.9	I would recommend this program to other parents.	1	2	3	4	5
3.10	Studying Spanish is important for my child because it will allow him/her to be more comfortable with other Spanish speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
3.11	Studying Spanish is important for my child because it will allow him/her to meet and converse with more and varied people.	1	2	3	4	5
3.12	Studying Spanish is important for my child because it will enable him/her to better understand and appreciate Hispanic culture.	1	2	3	4	5
3.13	Studying Spanish is important for my child because s/he will need it for his/her future career.	1	2	3	4	5
3.14	Studying Spanish is important for my child because it will make him/her a more knowledgeable person.	1	2	3	4	5
3.15	Studying Spanish is important for my child because it will make him/her smarter.	1	2	3	4	5
3.16	Studying Spanish is important for my child because other people will respect him/her more if s/he has knowledge of a second language.	1	2	3	4	5
3.17	**Please complete:** Studying Spanish is important for my child because…					

_____

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS SURVEY!

APPENDIX C

SAMPLE PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE IN ESPAÑOL

Cuestionario para Padres

Importante: ¡NO NECESITA ESCRIBIR EL NOMBRE DE SU HIJO EN ESTA ENCUENSTA!

Parte 1. Historial

1.1 Su parentesco con el niño(os) inscrito en el programa: Madre ____ Padre ____ Otro ____

1.2 ¿Cuantos hijos tiene inscrito en el programa? _____

Nivel de grado de los niños: Kinder ____ 1er ____ 2do ____ 3er ____ 4to ____ 5to ____

1.3 ¿Cuales son los origenes étnicos de Ud. y su cónyuge?

Ud.	Su cónyuge		Ud.	Su cónyuge	
___	___	Hispano/Latino	___	___	Asiatico-Americano
___	___	Caucásico/Anglo	___	___	Indio-Americano/Nativo de Alaska
___	___	Afroamericano			

1.4 ¿Cual es el nivel de educación mas alto que Ud. y su conyuge han completado?

Ud.	Su cónyuge		Ud.	Su cónyuge	
___	___	Primaria	___	___	Community College/Escuela vocacional
___	___	Secundaria/Escuela Intermedia	___	___	4-year College/Titulo Universitaria
___	___	Preparatoria o equivalente	___	___	Titulo Professional/Escuela Postgrado

1.5 ¿Qué idioma(s) hablan Ud. y su conyuge? Ud.: _____ Su conyuge: _____

Parte 2. Lenguaje y Cultura

2.1 Por favor, escriba el idioma(s) mas utilizado en el hogar por:
Madre a hijo_____Padre a hijo_____Padres entre si_____

2.2 Por favor, marque a continuación la capacidad para comunicarse en ingles suyo y de su conyuge

Ud.	Su conyuge	
___	___	Sin capacidad; no comprendo o no hablo el idioma en absoluto
___	___	Capaz de comprender algo, pero no hablo el idioma
___	___	Capaz de comprender y hablar el idioma un poco
___	___	Capaz de comprender y hablar el idioma muy bien
___	___	Idioma nativo, o capacidad como nativo de idioma

2.3 ¿Cuales son las *3 razones mas importantes* para inscribir a su hijo en el programa inversivo? (Ponga un 1 junto a la MAS IMPORTANTE, un 2 al lado de la SENGUNDA MAS IMPORTANTE, y un 3 al lado de la TERCERA MAS IMPORTANTE)

___ es la escuela de nuestro vecindario
___ es un programa de alta calidad académica
___ mi hijo podrá comunicarse con familiares, amigos u otras personas de habla española
___ mi hijo tendrá una ventaja académica o profesional
___ mi hijo tendrá una identidad mas fuerte como persona bilingüe-bicultural/multicultural individual

Parte 3. Por favor, indique que tan fuertemente esta Ud. de acuerdo o en desacuerdo con las siguientes afirmaciones sobre el Programa de Inmersión Bilingüe. (CIRCULE UNA RESPUESTA PARA CADA AFIRMACION)

		Totalmente en desacuerdo	En desacuerdo	No estoy seguro	De acuerdo	Totalmente de acuerdo
3.1	Estoy satisfecho de que el Programa Immersivo Two-Way esta dando a mi hijo el acceso a la materia necesaria.	1	2	3	4	5
3.2	Creo que la combinación de hablantes nativos de ingles y hablantes nativos de español en el aula es la mejor manera para que mi hijo aprenda español.	1	2	3	4	5
3.3	A los estudiantes, padres, personal y miembros de la comunidad hispana se les hace sentir como una parte valiosa de nuestra cultura escolar.	1	2	3	4	5
3.4	Animo a mi hijo a hablar español fuera de la escuela.	1	2	3	4	5
3.5	Estoy seguro de que mi hijo será capaz de comunicarse bien en español y en ingles después de completar el programa.	1	2	3	4	5
3.6	Los profesores y personal han tenido éxito en la promoción de la diversidad y el entendimiento entre la comunidad escolar.	1	2	3	4	5
3.7	Los profesores y personal han tenido éxito en equilibrar las necesidades y preocupaciones de ambas comunidades la de hablan inglesa y española.	1	2	3	4	5
3.8	La administración en la oficina del distrito escolar es de apoyo en las necesidades y preocupaciones de la comunidad escolar.	1	2	3	4	5
3.9	Yo recomendaría este programa a otros padres	1	2	3	4	5
3.10	Estudiar español es importante para mi hijo ya que le permite estar más cómodo con otros hispanohablantes.	1	2	3	4	5
3.11	Estudiar español es importante para mi hijo por que le permitirá que conozca y conversa con gente más.	1	2	3	4	5
3.12	Estudiar español es importante para mi hijo por que permitirá entienda mejor y apreciar la cultura hispana.	1	2	3	4	5
3.13	Estudiar español es importante para mi hijo por que lo necesitará para su futura carera.	1	2	3	4	5
3.14	Estudiar español es importante para mi hijo por que lo hará una persona con más conocimiento.	1	2	3	4	5
3.15	Estudiar español es importante para mi hijo por que lo hará más inteligente.	1	2	3	4	5
3.16	Estudiar español es importante para mi hijo porque otras personas le respetarán más por su conocimiento de un segundo idioma.	1	2	3	4	5

3.17 **Por favor rellenar-** Estudiar español es importante para mi hijo porque:

_____

¡GRACIAS POR PARTICIPAR EN ESTA ENCUESTA!

APPENDIX D

SAMPLE COVER LETTER IN ENGLISH

UCF

Stands For Opportunity

Dear Parent,

I would like to enlist your help. I am a graduate student earning my Master degree in Teaching English as a Second language at the University of Central Florida and the subject of my thesis is a survey that will examine the beliefs and attitudes of parents regarding bilingual education and dual language immersion programs. The purpose of this letter is to inform you that your student's school, Union Park Elementary, has been selected to participate in this survey.

The research purpose of this study is to discover the reasons parents, like you, choose to send their children to dual immersion programs and if these programs fulfill your expectations. This project is similar to other surveys that have been conducted in dual immersion programs across the nation, including schools in California, Colorado, Texas and New Mexico.

The survey should only take about 10-15 minutes of your time. All answers will remain anonymous and confidential **(you do not need to put your name on the survey)**. Guardians of students, please feel free to complete the survey. If you have more than one child attending Union Park, you need only complete one survey. **Please have your student return the survey to their teacher by 02/6/13.** Results will be presented and documented as statistical averages. Your help with this research is strictly voluntary and you do not have to answer any questions you do not want.

If you have any questions or concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me at [redacted] or LDeLorenzo488@knights.ucf.edu. You may also contact my faculty advisor, Dr. Kerry Purmensky at (407) 823-0087 or Kerry.Purmensky@ucf.edu. Questions about your rights as a research participant should be directed to the University of Central Florida's Human Subjects Review Board at (407)-823-3778 or irb@mail.ucf.edu.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Leah DeLorenzo
Student Researcher

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE COVER LETTER IN ESPAÑOL

UCF

Stands For Opportunity

Queridos Padres,

Me gustaría pedir su ayuda. Soy estudiante de postgrado, estudiando una Maestría en la Enseñanza del Inglés como segunda lengua en la Universidad de la Florida Central. El tema de mi tesis es una encuesta que estudiará las creencias y actitudes de los padres acerca de la educación bilingüe y programas de inmersión doble lingüística. Esta carta es para informarle que la escuela de su hijo(a) ha sido seleccionado para participar en esta encuesta.

El objetivo de este estudio es conocer por qué los padres deciden enviar a sus hijos a programas de doble inmersión. También espero encontrar si estos programas cumplen con las expectativas. Este proyecto es como otras encuestas que se han llevado a cabo en programas de inmersión dual por todo el país. Algunas de estas escuelas se encuentran en California, Colorado, Texas y Nuevo México.

La encuesta sólo toma unos 10-15 minutos de tu tiempo. Todas las respuestas se mantendrán anónimo y confidencial **(no es necesario poner su nombre en la encuesta)**. Guardianes de estudiantes, son bienvenidos a completar la encuesta. Por favor, llene sólo una encuesta si usted tiene más de un niño inscrito en el programa. **Por favor, haga que su estudiante devuelva la encuesta a su maestro antes del 02/6/13**. Su ayuda en esta investigación es voluntaria y usted no tiene obligación de responder a ninguna pregunta que usted no desea.

Si usted tiene alguna pregunta o inquietud, por favor no dude en ponerse en contacto conmigo al [redacted] o LDeLorenzo488@knights.ucf.edu. También puede contactar a mi consejera de la facultad, la Dr. Kerry Purmensky al (407) 823-0087 o Kerry.Purmensky@ucf.edu. Si tiene preguntas sobre sus derechos como participante en una investigación deben dirigirse a la Junta de Revisión de Sujetos Humanos de la Universidad de la Florida Central al (407) 823-3778 o irb@mail.ucf.edu.

Gracias por su tiempo y consideración.

Atentamente,

Leah DeLorenzo
Investigador Estudiantil

APPENDIX F

SAMPLE REMINDER LETTER IN ENGLISH

Dear Parent or Guardian,

One week ago, your student brought home a packet of papers that contained a letter and a questionnaire in both English and Spanish. That questionnaire is an integral part of the research I am conducting on the reasons families choose to send their children to dual language education programs. **If your student has already returned the completed questionnaire to their teacher, thank you!**

If you have not had a chance to take the questionnaire yet, I would appreciate your reading the message below and completing the survey. Only you can provide the data needed for this important research.

Since no personal information is retained with the surveys for reasons of confidentiality, it is impossible to identify who has not yet returned the questionnaire. **Please have your student bring the completed questionnaire to class before 02/06/13.**

Thank you for your time and consideration,

Leah DeLorenzo
Student Researcher

I am a graduate student earning my Master degree in Teaching English as a Second language at the University of Central Florida. The subject of my thesis is to discover the reasons parents, like you, choose to send their children to dual immersion programs. This project is similar to other surveys that have been conducted in dual immersion programs across the nation, including schools in California, Colorado, Texas and New Mexico.

If you have any questions or concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me at [redacted] or LDeLorenzo488@knights.ucf.edu. You may also contact my faculty advisor, Dr. Kerry Purmensky at (407) 823-0087 or Kerry.Purmensky@ucf.edu. Questions about your rights as a research participant should be directed to the University of Central Florida's Human Subjects Review Board at (407)-823-3778 or irb@mail.ucf.edu.

APPENDIX G

SAMPLE REMINDER LETTER IN ESPAÑOL

Stands For Opportunity

Queridos Padres o Guardian,

Hace una semana, su hijo trajo a casa un paquete de papeles que contenía una carta y un cuestionario, tanto en inglés que en español. Dicho cuestionario es una parte integral de la investigación que estoy realizando sobre las razones familias optan por enviar a sus hijos a programas de lenguaje dual de educación. **Si su hijo ya ha devuelto el cuestionario completado a su maestro, gracias!**

Si usted no ha tenido la oportunidad de tomar el cuestionario, le agradecería que leyera el mensaje de abajo y completara la encuesta. Sólo usted puede proporcionar los datos necesarios para esta investigación importante.

Dado a que ninguna información personal se mantiene con las encuestas, por razones de confidencialidad, es imposible identificar quienes todavía no han devuelto el cuestionario. **Por favor, haga que su estudiante traiga el cuestionario, llenado, a clase antes de 02/06/13.**

Gracias por su tiempo y consideración,

Leah DeLorenzo
Investigador Estudiantil

Soy estudiante de postgrado, estudiando una Maestría en la Enseñanza del Inglés como segunda lengua en la Universidad de la Florida Central. El tema de mi tesis es conocer por qué los padres deciden enviar a sus hijos a programas de doble inmersión. Este proyecto es como otras encuestas que se han llevado a cabo en programas de inmersión dual por todo el país. Algunas de estas escuelas se encuentran en California, Colorado, Texas y Nuevo México.

Si usted tiene alguna pregunta o inquietud, por favor no dude en ponerse en contacto conmigo al [redacted] o LDeLorenzo488@knights.ucf.edu. También puede contactar a mi consejera de la facultad, la Dr. Kerry Purmensky al (407) 823-0087 o Kerry.Purmensky@ucf.edu. Si tiene preguntas sobre sus derechos como participante en una investigación deben dirigirse a la Junta de Revisión de Sujetos Humanos de la Universidad de la Florida Central al (407) 823-3778 o irb@mail.ucf.edu.

APPENDIX H

UCF IRB APPROVAL OF EXEMPT HUMAN RESEARCH

University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board
Office of Research & Commercialization
12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501
Orlando, Florida 32826-3246
Telephone: 407-823-2901 or 407-882-2276
www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: **UCF Institutional Review Board #1**
FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To: **Leah A. Delorenzo**

Date: **January 07, 2013**

Dear Researcher:

On 1/7/2013, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

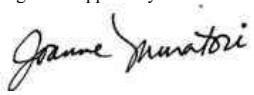
Type of Review:	Exempt Determination
Project Title:	Parental Attitudes Toward Selecting Dual Immersion Education in Central Florida
Investigator:	Leah A. Delorenzo
IRB Number:	SBE-12-08981
Funding Agency:	
Grant Title:	
Research ID:	N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Joanne Muratori on 01/07/2013 04:45:20 PM EST



IRB Coordinator

APPENDIX I

ORANGE COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS RESEARCH REQUEST FORM APPROVAL

Submit this form and a copy of your proposal to:
Accountability, Research, and Assessment
P.O. Box 271
Orlando, FL 32802-0271

Orange County Public Schools

RESEARCH REQUEST FORM

RECEIVED OCT 0 3 2012

Your research proposal should include:
Project Title
Purpose and Research Problem
Instruments
Procedures and Proposed Data Analysis

Requester's Name Leah DeLorenzo Date 9-27-12

E-mail [redacted] Phone [redacted]

Address [redacted] (Street) Orlando, FL, 32826 (City, State, Zip)

Institutional Affiliation University of Central Florida

Project Director or Advisor Dr. Kerry Purmensky Phone 407-823-0087

Degree Sought: (check one) ☐ Associate ☐ Bachelor's ☑ Master's ☐ Specialist ☐ Doctorate ☐ Not Applicable

Project Title: _____

ESTIMATED INVOLVEMENT

PERSONNEL/CENTERS	NUMBER	AMOUNT OF TIME (DAYS, HOURS, ETC.)	SPECIFY SCHOOLS BY NAME AND NUMBER OF TEACHERS, ADMINISTRATORS, ETC.
Students	769	>1 hr, 2 days	[redacted]
Teachers	16-18	>1 hr, 2 days	
Administrators	8		
Schools/Centers	8		
Others (specify) Parents	769	>1 hr, 1 day	

Specify possible benefits to students/school system: This study will show how the parents of students at [redacted] about the program, the standards of education at the school of participation. It will also reveal why parents chose to send their children to this program. This information could be useful for the administration of the school board.

ASSURANCE

Using the proposed procedures and instrument, I hereby agree to conduct research in accordance with the policies of the Orange County Public Schools. Deviations from the approved procedures shall be cleared through the Senior Director of Accountability, Research, and Assessment. Reports and materials shall be supplied as specified.

Requester's Signature [redacted]

Approval Granted: ☒ Yes ☐ No Date: 10-8-12

Signature of the Senior Director for Accountability, Research, and Assessment Vicki Courtney

NOTE TO REQUESTER: When seeking approval at the school level, a copy of this form, signed by the Senior Director, Accountability, Research, and Assessment, should be shown to the school principal who has the option to refuse participation depending upon any school circumstance or condition. The original Research Request Form is preferable to a faxed document.

Reference School Board Policy GCS, p. 249

OCPS1044ARA (Revised 2/10)

REFERENCES

Abbot, M., Caccavale, T., & Stewart, K. (2007). Duke gifted letter. *The Duke University Talent Identification Program: Online Newsletter for Parents of Gifted Youth, 8*.

Akkari, A. (1998). Bilingual education: Beyond linguistic instrumentalization. *Bilingual Research Journal, 22*(2-4), 103-125.

Alanis, I., & Rodriguez, M. A. (2008). Sustaining a dual language immersion program: Features of success. [Reports - Research]. *Journal of Latinos and Education, 7*(4), 305-319.

Allen, G. (2009). Puerto Ricans gain political clout in Florida. *National Public Radio*. Retrieved from http://www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyId=105691084.

Altonji, J. G. (1995). The effects of high school curriculum on education and labor market outcomes. *Journal of Human Resources, 30*(3), 409-438.

Athanasopoulos, P., Dering, B., Wiggett, A., Kuipers, J. R., & Thierry, G. (2010). Perceptual shift in bilingualism: Brain potentials reveal plasticity in pre-attentive colour perception. *Cognition*, *116*(3), 437-443.

Attinasi, J. J. (1998). English only for California children and the aftermath of proposition 227. *Education, 119*(2), 263.

Ballinger, S., & Lyster, R. (2011). Student and teacher oral language use in a two-way Spanish/English immersion school. *Language Teaching*

Research, 15(3), 289-306.

Barona, A., & Garcia, E. E. (1990). *Children at risk: Poverty, minority status, and other issues in educational equity*. National Association of School Psychologists, 8455 Colesville Rd., Suite 1000, Silver Spring, MD 20910.

Barnett, W. S., Yarosz, D. J., Thomas, J., Jung, K., & Blanco, D. (2007). Two-way and monolingual English immersion in preschool education: An experimental comparison. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 22*(3), 277-293.

Batalova, J. M. & McHugh, M. (2010). ELL facts. *ELL Information Center*. Retrieved from http://www.migrationinformation.org/ellinfo/FactSheet_ELL1.pdf.

Bialystok, E. (2011). Reshaping the mind: The benefits of bilingualism. *Canadian Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *65*(4), 229-235.

Bialystok, E., Craik, F. I., & Luk, G. (2012). Bilingualism: Consequences for mind and brain. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 16*(4), 240-250.

Bilingual Education Act § 704 (1968).

Block, N. (2011). The impact of two-way dual-immersion programs on initially English-dominant Latino students' attitudes. *Bilingual Research Journal, 34*(2), 125-141.

Block, N. (2012). Perceived impact of two-way dual immersion programs on Latino students' relationships in their families and communities. *International Journal of Bilingual Education & Bilingualism, 15*(2), 235-257.

Bloomfield, L. (1965). *Language New York*. Taylor & Francis.

Brisk, M. E. (1998). *Bilingual education: From compensatory to quality schooling*. Routledge.

Britannica, E. (Ed.) (2012) Merriam-Webster.

Bureau, U. S. C. (2010). *State & county quickfacts: Orange County, FL*. Retrieved from http://factfinder2.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?src=bkmk.

Bureau, U. S. C. (2011): *Overview of race and Hispanic origin: 2010*. Census Brief. Retrieved from http://www.census.gov/prod/cen2010/briefs/c2010br-02.pdf.

Butvilofsky, S. A. (2012). What I know about Spanish is that I don't talk it much. *Learning from Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Classrooms: Using Inquiry to Inform Practice*, 124.

Calderon, M., & Slavin, R. E. (2001). Success for all in a two-way immersion school. *Bilingual Education*, 27-40.

Carrigo, D. (2000). *Just how much English are they using?: Teacher and student language distribution patterns, between Spanish and English, in upper-grade, two-way immersion Spanish classes.* (Doctoral dissertation). Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.

Cartwright, K. B. (2008). *Literacy processes: Cognitive flexibility in learning and teaching*. New York: The Guilford Press.

Castañeda v. Pickard. 648 F.2d 989 (5th Cir. 1981).

Cazabon, M., Lambert, W. E., & Hall, G. (1993). Two-way bilingual education: A progress report on the Amigos program (Research Rep. No. 3). Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence.

Christian, D. (1996). Two- way immersion education: Students learning through two languages. *The Modern Language Journal, 80*(1), 66-76.

Christian, D., Lindholm, K., Montone, C., & Carranza, I. (1997). Profiles in two-way immersion education. McHenry, IL: Delta Systems Co: Inc.

Cloud, N., Genesee, F., & Hamayan, E. (2000). *Dual language instruction: A handbook for enriched education.* Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Collier, V. P., & Thomas, W. P. (2004). The astounding effectiveness of dual language education for all. *NABE Journal of Research and Practice, 2*(1), 1-20.

Collins, J. W., & O'Brien, N. P. (2003). *The Greenwood dictionary of education*: Greenwood Publishing Group.

Comer, J. P. (1986). Parent participation in the schools. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, *67*(6), 442-446.

Cook, V. (1997). The consequences of bilingualism for cognitive processing. *Tutorials in bilingualism: Psycholinguistic perspectives*, 279-299.

Cornell, C. (1995). Reducing failure of LEP students in the mainstream classroom and why it is important. *The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students,15*, 123-145.

Craig, B. (1996). Parental attitudes toward bilingualism in a local two-way immersion program. *Bilingual Research Journal, 20*, 383-410.

Crawford, J. (1999). *Bilingual education: History, politics, theory and practice* (4th ed.). Los Angeles: Bilingual Education Services.

Crawford, J. (2004). Educating English learners. *Language diversity in the classroom*. Los Angeles, CA: Bilingual Educational Services.

Crosby, R., & Prescod, R. (2009). Effects of bilingualism on cognitive abilities. *Shokotu, 48*, 15-21.

Cummins, J. (1992). Bilingual education and English immersion: The Ramirez report in theoretical perspective. *Bilingual Research Journal, 16*(1-2), 91-104.

Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power, and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire* (Vol. 23). Clevedon [England]; Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

De Jong, E., & Howard, E. (2009). Integration in two-way immersion education: Equalising linguistic benefits for all students. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 12*(1), 81-99.

DeCapua, A., & Wintergerst, A. C. (2009). Second-generation language maintenance and identity: A case study. *Bilingual Research Journal, 32*(1), 5-24.

Dolson, D., & Lindholm, K. (1994). World class education for children in California: A comparison of the bilingual immersion and European schools models. In T. Skutnabb-Kangas (Ed.), *Multilingualism for All.* The

Netherlands: Swets & Zeitlinger Publishers.

Dorner, L. M. (2010). English and Spanish "Para Un Futuro"--Or just English? Immigrant family perspectives on two-way immersion. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 13*(3), 303-323.

Edelsky, C. (1978). "Teaching" oral language. *Language Arts, 55*(3), 291-296.

Edelsky, C., & Hudelson, S. (1982). Background to the present study. *Bilingualism and Language Contact: Spanish, English, and Native American Languages*, 203.

Education, C. D. o. (1997). *Language census*. Sacramento: Author.

Education, F. D. o. (2005). Frequently asked questions. *FCAT - Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test*. Retrieved from http://www.fldoe.org/faq/default.asp?Dept=179&ID=972#Q972.

Education, F. D. o. (2011). Differentiated accountability program. Retrieved from http://www.flbsi.org/DA/.

Education, F. D. o. (2011b). Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test results. Retrieved from http://www.fcat.fldoe.org/results/default.asp.

Education, F. D. o. (2011c). Free/reduced price lunch eligibility by school. Retrieved from http://www.fldoe.org/eias/eiaspubs/xls/frplunch1011svy2.xls.

Education, F. D. o. (2012). Education information and accountability services data report. Retrieved from http://www.fldoe.org/eias/eiaspubs/pdf/ell0910.pdf.

Education, F. D. o. (2012b). School grades, basic information on schools. Retrieved from http://www.schoolgrades.fldoe.org/xls/1112/SGbasic_2012.xls.

Fishman, J. A. (1966). Language loyalty in the United States. The Hague: Mouton.

Frisoni, G. B., Rossi, R., & Beltramello, A. (2002). The radial width of the temporal horn in mild cognitive impairment. *Journal of Neuroimaging*, *12*(4), 351-354.

Garcia, E. (1988). Attributes of effective schools for language minority students. *Education and Urban Society, 20*(4), 387-398.

Garcia, E. (1991). Effective instruction for language minority students: The teacher. *Journal of Education, 173*(2), 130-141.

García, O., Flores, N., & Chu, H. (2011). Extending bilingualism in U.S. secondary education: New variations. *International Multilingual Research Journal, 5*(1), 1-18.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Giacchino-Baker, R., & Piller, B. (2006). Parental motivation, attitudes, support, and commitment in a Southern Californian two-way immersion program. *Journal of Latinos and Education, 5*(1), 5-28.

Gerena, L. (2011). Parental voice and involvement in cultural context: Understanding rationales, values, and motivational constructs in a dual

immersion setting. *Urban Education, 46*(3), 342-370.

Griego-Jones, T. (1994). Assessing students' perceptions of biliteracy in two-way bilingual classrooms. *The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students, 13*(1), 79-93.

Gutiérrez, J. (1997). Teaching Spanish as a heritage language: A case for language awareness. *ADFL Bulletin, 29*(1), 33-36.

Hakuta, K. (1986). *Mirror of language: The debate on bilingualism.* New York: Basic Books.

Hidalgo, M. (1995). Language and ethnicity in the" taboo" region: the US-Mexico border. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 114*(1), 29-46.

Higham, J. (1988). *Strangers in the land: Patters of American nativism, 1860-1925 (2nd ed.)*. Rutgers University Press.

Holm, A., & Holm, W. (1990). Rock Point, a Navajo way to go to school: A valediction. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 508*(1), 170-184.

Howard, E. R., Christian, D., & Genesee, F. (2004). *The development of bilingualism and biliteracy from grade 3 to 5: A summary of findings from the CAL/CREDE study of two-way immersion education*: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence.

Howard, E. R., & Christian, D. (1997). The development of bilingualism and bilteracy in two-way immersion students (Research Report). Santa Cruz, CA and Washington, DC: Center for Research on Education, Diversity &

Excellence and Center for Applied Linguistics.

Howard, E. R., Sugarman, J., & Christian, D. (2003). *Trends in two-way immersion education: A review of the research*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Howard, E. R., Christian, D., & Genesee, F. (2003). The development of bilingualism and biliteracy from Grades 3 to 5: A summary of findings from the CAL/CREDE study of two-way immersion education (Research Report 13). Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence.

Howard, E. R., Sugarman, J., & Rennie, J. (2007). *Realizing the vision of two-way immersion: Fostering effective programs and classrooms*: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Jones, M. A. (1860). American Immigration (Chicago, 1960). *The standard study of nativist groups is John Higham, Strangers in the Land: Patterns of American Nativism*, 1925, 1785-1882. University of Chicago Press.

Kloss, H. (1998). *The American bilingual tradition* (Rev. ed.) (Language in Education: Theory and Practice No. 88). McHenry, IL, and Washington, DC: Delta Systems and Center for Applied Linguistics.

Krashen, S. D., & Biber, D. (1988). *On course: Bilingual education's success in California.* Sacramento, CA: California Association for Bilingual Education Sacramento, CA.

Lambert, W. E. (1987). The effects of bilingual and bicultural experiences on

children's attitudes and social perspectives. In P. Homel, M. Palij, & D. Aaronson (Eds.), *Childhood bilingualism: Aspects of linguistic, cognitive, and social development* (197-221). Hilsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Lambert, W. E. (1990). Issues in foreign language and second language education. *Proceedings of the first research symposium on limited English proficient students' issues* (321-359). Washington, DC: Office of Bilingual Education & Minority Languages Affairs.

Langer, J. A., Bartolome, L., Vasquez, O., & Lucas, T. (1990). Meaning construction in school literacy tasks: A study of bilingual students. *American Educational Research Journal, 27*(3), 427-471.

Lao, C. (2004). Parents' attitudes toward Chinese–English bilingual education and Chinese-language use. *Bilingual Research Journal, 28*(1), 99-121.

Lee, L. (1997). Similarity-based approaches to natural language processing. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from Harvard University. (Technical Report TR-11-97)

Lindholm, K. (1994). Promoting positive cross-cultural attitudes and perceived competence in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms. *Cultural Diversity in Schools: From Rhetoric to Practice*, 189-206.

Lindholm-Leary, K. (2001). *Dual language education* (Vol. 28): Channel View Books.

Lindholm-Leary, K. (2005). Review of research and best practices on effective features of dual language education programs. *Center for Applied*

Linguistics, 35.

Lindholm-Leary, K. (2005b). The rich promise of two-way immersion. *Educational Leadership*, *62*(4), 56-59.

Lindholm-Leary, K., & Borsato, G. (2001). Impact of two-way bilingual elementary programs on students' attitudes toward school and college.

Lindholm-Leary, K., & Borsato, G. (2005). Hispanic high schoolers and mathematics: Follow-up of students who had participated in two-way bilingual elementary programs. *Bilingual Research Journal, 29*(3), 641-652.

Lindholm-Leary, K., & Ferrante, A. (2005). Follow up study of middle school two-way students. *Language in Multicultural Education*, 157-179.

Lindholm-Leary, K., & Block, N. (2010). Achievement in predominantly low SES/Hispanic dual language schools. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 13*(1), 43-60.

Linguistics, C. f. A. (2011). Resources. Retrieved from http://www.cal.org/resources/databases.html

Lyons, J. J. (1992). *Legal responsibilities of education agencies serving national origin language-minority students* (2nd ed.). Washington, DC: Mid-Atlantic Equity Center.

Mahrer, C., & Christian, D. (1993). *A review of findings from two-way bilingual education evaluation reports*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Menken, K., Antunez, B., Dilworth, M. E., & Yasin, S. (2001*). An overview of the*

preparation and certification of teachers working with limited English proficient (LEP) students. Washington, DC: George Washington University.

Merrikhi, P. (2011). The effect of" bilingualism" on Iranian ELT students' critical thinking ability (CT). *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *1*(10), 1424-1431.

Montague, N. S. (1997). Critical components for dual language programs. *Bilingual Research Journal, 21*(4), 409-417.

Montague, N. S., & Meza-Zaragosa, E. (1999). Elicited response in the pre-kindergarten setting with a dual language program: Good or bad idea? *Bilingual Research Journal, 23*(2), 289-296.

National Defense Education Act of 1958, Pub. L. No. 85-864, Part 1, Stat. 1580 (1958).

Ochoa, S. H., & Rhodes, R. L. (2005). Assisting parents of bilingual students to achieve equity in public schools. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 16*(1-2), 75-94.

Ogbu, J. U. (1987). Variability in minority school performance: A problem in search of an explanation. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly, 18*(4), 312-334.

Olsen, L. (1997). *Made in America: Immigrant students in our public schools*. The New Press, 450 West 41st Street, New York, NY 10036.

Ovando, C. J. (2003). Bilingual education in the United States: Historical development and current issues. [Article]. *Bilingual Research Journal,*

27(1), 1-24.

Ovando, C. J., & Collier, V. P. (1998). *Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching in multicultural connected contexts* (2nd ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Parker, F. (1983). Moral education USA: Background and trends. Lecture presented at the WVU Lecture Series 1983: *West Virginia University Benedum/Centennial Lecture Series*. Morgantown, WV.

Parkes, J. (2008). Who chooses dual language education for their children and why. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 11*(6), 635-660.

Parkes, J., & Ruth, T. (2011). How satisfied are parents of students in dual language education programs?: 'Me parece maravillosa la gran oportunidad que le estan dando a estos ninos'. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 14*(6), 701-718.

Peal, E., & Lambert, W. E. (1962). The relation of bilingualism to intelligence. *Psychological Monographs: General and Applied, 76*(27), 1-23.

Pearson. (Ed.) (2011) In *Longman Dictionary online*. Retrieved from http://www.ldoceonline.com/

Potowski, K. (2004). Student Spanish use and investment in a dual immersion classroom: Implications for second language acquisition and heritage language maintenance. *The Modern Language Journal, 88*(1), 75-101.

Ramírez, J. D. (1992). Longitudinal study of structured English immersion strategy, early exit and late-exit transitional bilingual education programs

for language minority children (Executive summary). *Bilingual Research Journal, 16*(1-2), 1-62.

Ramos, F. (2007). What do parents think of two-way bilingual education? An analysis of responses. *Journal of Latinos and Education, 6*(2), 139-150.

Rhodes, N., & Pufahl, I. (2009). Foreign language teaching in U.S. schools: Results of a national survey. *Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics*.

Rodriguez- Fornells, A., De Diego Balaguer, R., & Münte, T. F. (2006). Executive control in bilingual language processing. *Language Learning, 56*, 133-190.

Saiz, A., & Zoido, E. (2005). Listening to what the world says: Bilingualism and earnings in the United States. *Review of Economics and Statistics, 87*(3), 523-538.

Saunders, W. M. (1999). Improving literacy achievement for English learners in transitional bilingual programs. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 5*(4), 345-381.

Schneider, D. (2001). Naturalization and United States citizenship in two periods of mass migration: 1894-1930, 1965-2000. *Journal of American Ethnic History, 21*(1), 50-82.

Schreffler, S. B. (2007). Hispanic heritage language speakers in the United States: Linguistic exclusion in education. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *4*(1), 25-34.

Serrano, R., & Howard, E. R. (2003). Maintaining Spanish proficiency in the

United States: The influence of English on the Spanish writing of native Spanish speakers in two-way immersion programs. In Lofti Sayahi (Ed.), *Selected proceedings of the first workshop on Spanish sociolinguistics* (pp. 77-88). Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project.

Shannon, S. M., & Milian, M. (2002). Parents choose dual language programs in Colorado: A survey. *Bilingual Research Journal, 26*(3), 681-696.

Sheffer, C.S. 2003. Parents' lack of understanding of their children's bilingual education programs. *Bilingual Research Journal 27*, no. 2: 333-41.

Soderman, A. K. (2010). Language immersion programs for young children?: Yes... but proceed with caution. [Article]. *Phi Delta Kappan, 91*(8), 54-61.

Suro, R., & Singer, A. (2002). *Latino growth in metropolitan America: Changing patterns, new locations*. Washington: Brookings Institution, Center on Urban and Metropolitan Policy and The Pew Hispanic Center.

Takahashi-Breines, H. (2002). The role of teacher-talk in a dual language immersion third grade classroom. *Bilingual Research Journal, 26*(2), 461-83.

Thomas, W., & Collier, V. (2002). *A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement.* Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence.

Thomas, W. P., & Collier, V. (1997). *School effectiveness for language minority students*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, Series, No. 9.

Tikunoff, W. J. (1983). *An emerging description of successful bilingual instruction: Executive summary of Part I of the SBIF descriptive study*. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Turnbull, M., Lipkin, S., & Hart, D. (2001). Grade 3 immersion students' performance in literacy and mathematics: Province-side results from Ontario (1998-99). *Canadian Modern Language Journal, 58*(1), 9-26.

United States Supreme Court. (1974). Lau v. Nichols, 414 U.S. 563.

Valdés, G. (1997). Bilinguals and bilingualism: Language policy in an anti-immigrant age. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 127*(1), 25-52.

Valdés, G. (1997b). Dual-language immersion programs: A cautionary note concerning the education of language minority students. *Harvard Educational Review, 67*(3), 391-429.

Valdés, G. (2001). *Learning and not learning English: Latino students in American schools.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Valencia, R. & Black, M. (2002). “Mexican Americans don’t value education!”- On the basis of myth, mythmaking and debunking. *Journal of Latinos and Education, 1*(2), 81-103.

Whiting, E., Feinauer, E. (2011). Reasons for enrollment at a Spanish-English two-way immersion charter school among highly motivated parents from a diverse community. *International Journal of Bilingual Education &*

Bilingualism, 14(6), 631-651.

Whitmore, K. F., & Crowell, C. G. (2005). Bilingual education students reflect on their language education: Reinventing a classroom 10 years later. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 49*(4), 270-285.

Whyte, W. F. (1927). The Bennett law campaign in Wisconsin. *Wisconsin Magazine of History, 10*(4), 27.

Wiese, A. M., & Garcia, E. E. (1998). The Bilingual Education Act: Language minority students and equal educational opportunity. *Bilingual Research Journal, 22*(1), 1-18.

Wiley, T. G. (1998). The imposition of World War I era English-only policies and the fate of German in North America. In Ricento, T. and B. Burnaby (Eds.), *Language and Politics in the United States and Canada*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Eribaum, 211-241.

Willig, A. C. (1985). A meta-analysis of selected studies on the effectiveness of bilingual education. *Review of educational research, 55*(3), 269-317.

Whiting, E. F., & Feinauer, E. (2011). Reasons for enrollment at a Spanish–English two-way immersion charter school among highly motivated parents from a diverse community. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 14*(6), 631-651.

Wong-Fillmore, L. (1985). When does teacher talk work as input? In S.M. Gass & Madden, C. G. (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition*, (pp. 17-50). Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers, Inc.

Yamashita, J. (2004). Reading attitudes in L1 and L2, and their influence on L2 extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 16*(1), 1-19.

Yang, S., Yang, H., & Lust, B. (2011). Early childhood bilingualism leads to advances in executive attention: Dissociating culture and language. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition, 14*(3), 412-422.