A STUDY REVISITED: ATTITUDES OF MIDDLE SCHOOL PERSONNEL TOWARD HERITAGE LANGUAGE MAINTENANCE FOR EMERGENT BILINGUAL STUDENTS

by

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CERTIFICATION OF PROJECT WORK

We, the undersigned, certify that this project entitled Attitudes of Middle School Personnel Toward Heritage Language Maintenance for Emergent Bilingual Students by Greta Tomaschke, Candidate for the Degree of Master of Science in Education, Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, is acceptable in form and content and demonstrates a satisfactory knowledge of the field covered by this project.

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Abstract

There are many advantages to becoming bilingual for students learning English as their new language. When English Language Learners (ELLs) begin to acquire a new language in public schools in the United States, they face many challenges that can negatively affect their academic achievement. In this thesis, the author chose to use the term Emergent Bilingual (EB) instead of English Language Learner (ELL), except in places referring to official legislation. EB was used as it emphasizes the students' bilingualism rather than focusing on a proposed deficit in English language proficiency. The language practices and programs offered to EBs reflect upon the attitudes of the school personnel and broader community surrounding the school. The purpose of this study was to examine the attitudes of middle school personnel toward heritage language maintenance (HLM) for EBs. This study is also a replica of Capullo (2007). More specifically, this study examined the attitudes of middle school personnel toward EB students and HLM, bilingual education, English Only and school level policies. The research question was: What are the current attitudes of middle school personnel towards HLM for EB students? Using a fifteen item five-point Likert scale attitude survey, data was collected from personnel in three rural middle schools in Chautauqua County, New York. The results of the study demonstrated that middle school personnel tend to have a positive attitude towards HLM for EB students.

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Introduction

Emergent Bilingual (EB) students face numerous challenges throughout their educational career. Perhaps one of the greatest challenges is acquiring English while simultaneously progressing in the content area subjects. However, when a student is able to use his or her Heritage Language (HL) to learn subject matter, he or she is able to achieve greater academic success. Nonetheless, the language practices and programs offered to EBs can vary state to state or even school to school. These programs and practices often reflect upon the attitudes of the school personnel and the school community. More support from the school toward heritage language maintenance (HLM) and bilingualism leads to programs and practices that encourage heritage language (HL) use, which leads to greater academic success for EBs.

Glossary of Important Terms

There exist a variety of ways to describe additional languages that people speak. While the terms are similar, each has its own unique meaning. The terms and their definitions are provided in Table 1.

Table 1

Definitions of Terms Related to Heritage Language

Term	Definition	Source
Heritage Language	A language that is historically associated with the ethnic heritage of minority populations. This label is used to refer to immigrant, refugee, and indigenous languages.	Lessow-Hurley, 2000, Valdés, Fishman, Chávez, & Pérez, 2006, Montrul, 2012, & Wiley, 2005
Community Language	An alternative term to a Heritage Language, this term is more commonly used in Australia and some European countries. It is preferred by some as it focuses on the present or future of the language, rather than on the past as the word 'heritage' may imply.	Wiley, 2005, & Wright, 2010
Minority Language	In the US, any language other than English, including nonstandard varieties of English.	Wright, 2010
Indigenous Language	A language spoken by indigenous people, such as Native Americans. The indigenous language may not be the first language learned, due to significant language loss, but indigenous languages are closely tied to the individuals' identity and heritage.	García, 2009, McCarty, 2008
Home Language	The language that is taught first to the child and is most often spoken in the child's home during childhood.	New York State Office of Bilingual Education, 2010
First Language/ Native Language (L1)	A language that is learned during early childhood, usually before age 3, and is learned by growing up among people who speak that language.	Saville-Troike, 2012

Problem

The problem addressed by this study is the general lack of support and services offered to Emergent Bilingual (EB) students in the U.S. as they develop and maintain their Heritage Languages (HL). A HL is a language that is historically associated with the ethnic heritage of minority populations, such as immigrants, indigenous people, and refugees (Lessow-Hurley, 2000, Valdés, Fishman, Chávez, & Pérez, 2006, Montrul, 2012, & Wiley, 2005). EB students are those who speak a HL and are developing their English language proficiency, becoming bilingual individuals (García & Kleifgen, 2010). Over recent decades the number of EBs enrolled in United States schools has steadily increased. In the 2011-2012 school year, 4,389,325 students, that is 9.1% of all students, in the U.S. were reported as participating in programs for English Language Learners (ELLs) (United States Department of Education, 2013). Over many decades, the increase in EB students has led policy-makers, administrators, and educators to make changes to policy and practice to accommodate the diverse population of students in U.S. school systems. In the past decades, such changes have included major laws and policies addressing the language of instruction and programs, such as Proposition 227 (1998), and Title III of No Child Left Behind (2001) (García & Kleifgen, 2010). Despite these laws and policies, the changes made to educational policies and programs often fail to meet the diverse needs of EBs. Many of the current programs for EBs fall short of maintaining their HL and allowing them to achieve academically.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to replicate a study conducted by Capullo in 2007 and to investigate middle school personnel attitudes toward maintaining the HL of EB students today. In 2007, Capullo carried out the study to see if local school personnel would be supportive of

using EB students' HLs in order to raise academic achievement. Capullo also investigated factors that may be related to attitude such as number of years an individual had been employed as an educator, whether or not the individual had a master's degree, or if the individual had received training or professional development specific to EB students. The rationale for replicating Capullo 2007 was to investigate changes in attitudes overtime (8 years).

Significance

The current study is significant because it will contribute to the limited current research and literature in the area of the attitudes of middle school personnel toward EBs. Additionally, it will inform local educators and administrators about the attitudes of the personnel toward EB students. This information could inform policy changes made in the area regarding the education of EB students.

Research Questions

The main research questions of this study are:

1. What are the current attitudes of middle school personnel toward HLM for EB students?
    a. Do middle school personnel understand the benefits of HL instruction for schooling?
    b. How do middle school personnel feel about English-Only policies and bilingualism?
    c. Would middle school personnel support school-level policies for HLM?
    d. Do middle school personnel feel like it is their job to support HLM?
2. Does having a New York State (NYS) certification affect attitudes toward HLM?
3. Does the length of time working in a school system affect attitudes toward HLM?
4. Does having received training and/or professional development specific to instructing EBs affect attitudes toward HLM?
5. What changes in attitude toward HLM have occurred since Capullo (2007)?

Literature Review

Defining Heritage Language

There exist a variety of ways to describe additional languages that people speak. When it comes to the language close to a person's family and culture, we tend to call that Heritage Language (HL), or the language close to a person's heritage. More specifically, the term HL refers to languages spoken by indigenous or immigrant minorities and their children. HLs are historically associated with the ethnic heritage of those particular minority populations (Lessow-Hurley, 2000, Valdés, Fishman, Chávez, and Pérez, 2006, & Montrul, 2012). The number of labels for HL at times can be confusing. For example, HLs may also be referred to as the community language, minority language, indigenous language, or first language (L1) (Montrul, 2012). See Table 2 for an exploration of terms related to HL.

Table 2

Definitions of Terms related to Heritage Language

Term	Definition	Source
Heritage Language	A language that is historically associated with the ethnic heritage of minority populations. This label is used to refer to immigrant, refugee, and indigenous languages.	Lessow-Hurley, 2000, Valdés, Fishman, Chávez, & Pérez, 2006, Montrul, 2012, & Wiley, 20
Community Language	An alternative term to a Heritage Language, this term is more commonly used in Australia and some European countries. It is preferred by some as it focuses on the present or future of the language, rather than on the past as the word 'heritage' may imply.	Wiley, 2005, & Wright, 2010
Minority Language	In the US, any language other than English, including nonstandard varieties of English.	Wright, 2010
Indigenous Language	A language spoken by indigenous people, such as Native Americans. The indigenous language may not be the first language learned, due to significant language loss, but indigenous languages are closely tied to the individuals' identity and heritage.	García, 2009, McCarty (2008)
Home Language	The language that is taught first to the child and is most often spoken in the child's home during childhood.	New York State Office of Bilingual Education and Foreign Language Studies, 2010
First Language/ Native Language (L1)	A language that is learned during early childhood, usually before age 3, and is learned by growing up among people who speak that language.	Saville-Troike, 2012

Wright (2010) widens the interpretation of HL even more by stating that students who come from a home where a language other than English is spoken and who speak, or at least partially understand that language may be labeled as HL speakers. Students who are HL speakers may be children of immigrants who were born in the host country or they may have moved to the host country during their childhood (Montrul, 2012). Being HL speakers growing up in a host country where they learn the new language for schooling, HL speakers become emergent bilinguals first, then bilinguals. Some HL speakers are simultaneous bilinguals because they grow up speaking the HL and the new language both since birth, where as other HL speakers are sequential bilinguals because they learned their HL before the new language was acquired (Montrul, 2012). Additionally, when the student becomes fully proficient in English, he may continue to be labeled as a HL speaker (Wright, 2010). As explained by Wright (2010) most HL speakers have some degree of oral proficiency in their HL, but are not always literate in the language.

Language Loss and Heritage Language Maintenance

Many times HL speakers experience language loss. This is a result of the pressures faced by HL speakers when they live in a community and attend a school, and the language and culture that is most commonly used does not match their own. As stated by Valdés, Fishman, Chávez, and Pérez, (2006) many Americans and HL speakers have come to "assume that the loss of ethnic languages is part of the price to be paid for becoming American" (p. xiii). Then, by the time HL speakers reach adulthood, most find that their HL is the weaker language (Montrul, 2012). While HL speakers usually speak the HL as young children at home with their parents, when they transition to school they are often exposed exclusively to English (Montrul, 2012). As the child grows up with the continued exposure to English there is a shift in the functional

dimension of the child's languages. The HL or first language which was once the primary language, the favored language used for communication, shifts to become the secondary language as it is replaced by the new language, which in this context is English (Montrul, 2012).

In some cases, this loss of the HL may lead to a language shift. The term language shift is used to describe the reduction in the number of speakers of a particular language, a loss in language proficiency, or a decreased use of the language in specific domains (Baker, 2011). When a language shift occurs drastically there is a potential for language death. Language death is a term used to describe language loses all of its speakers (Baker, 2011). There are a variety of political, social, cultural, and linguistic factors that can contribute to language loss (Baker, 2011). Such factors may include having a small number of speakers of the HL that live well dispersed from one another, lacking institutions that use the HL for instruction, and the language's lack of a writing system (Baker, 2011).

Therefore, in order to prevent language shift, and even language death, actions to promote language maintenance must occur. Heritage language maintenance (HLM) is a term that refers to the preservation of a language in the number and distribution of its speakers and its continued use in specific domains (Baker, 2011). Thus, HLM is the preservation of the consistent use of a HL in order to maintain the language's stability. Again, there are a variety of political, social, cultural, and linguistic factors that can contribute to language maintenance (Baker, 2011). Such factors may include having a large number of speakers living close together, having an institution that uses the HL for instruction, and the HL having international status (Baker, 2011).

However, in those extreme cases in which a HL experiences language death or endangerment of death, language revitalization becomes a critical action for preservation

purposes. The term language revitalization means instituting interventions to stop the decline of a language in order to prevent language death (Baker, 2011). Language revitalization takes dedication (Baker, 2011). Languages can be massacred quickly through barring their use in schools and through a lack of transmission of the language at home (Baker, 2011). On the other hand, the revitalization of a language takes much more time (Baker, 2011). Language revitalization can occur through education with the assistance from teachers, parents, and language activists, and language planners (Baker, 2011). For instance, the Wopanaak people, residing in New England, have successfully revitalized their language, even after the last native speaker of the language passed away, through dedication and the use of written texts (McCarty, 2008).

Defining Emergent Bilinguals

Just as there exist a wide variety of ways to describe additional languages spoken by an individual, there also exist a variety of ways to identify those individuals that speak the additional languages. Currently, the terms that are most often used to refer to individuals speaking a language other than English in the U.S. are Limited English Proficient (LEP), English Learner (EL) and English Language Learner (ELL). The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (n.d.) defines LEPs or ELs or ELLs as "persons who are unable to communicate effectively in English because their primary language is not English and they have not developed fluency in the English language." No Child Left Behind (NCLB) elaborates on that definition to describe LEPs or ELLs in the school setting as students "whose difficulties in speaking, reading, writing, or understanding the English language may be sufficient to deny the individual ability to meet the State's proficient level of achievement on State assessments" (2001, sec. 9101(37)). Federal and state laws and officials tended to use the term LEP, while school district personnel

and educators refer to the students using the term ELL (García & Kleifgen, 2010). Other terms used are Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD), Language Minority (LM) students, or English as a Second Language (ESL) students (García & Kleifgen, 2010).

However, more recently the terms LEP and ELL have fallen out of favor as they highlight a proposed deficit in the student--that is the lack of the ability to sufficiently speak, read, write, and understand English. Because the terms, LEP, ELL, EL, and LM are English focused with no hint of the HL, they devalue the students' HLs and presents English as being the only legitimate language (García & Kleifgen, 2010). A new term-- Emergent Bilingual (EB)--has been introduced as an appropriate term for identifying those who speak a HL and are in the process of acquiring English. EB highlights the fact that these students not only develop English language proficiency, but also more significantly become bilingual individuals (García & Kleifgen, 2010). That is, EBs continue to develop their proficiency in their HL, while simultaneously developing proficiency in the new language, English. When officials refer to HL speakers as LEPs or ELLs instead of as EBs they fail to acknowledge the bilingualism that these students develop through U.S. schooling and perpetuate the inequalities faced by these students in their education (García & Kleifgen, 2010). In other words, they reduce the status of the HL and cultures of these children and assume that they are lacking in abilities due to their initial lower proficiency in English when compared to native speakers (García & Kleifgen, 2010).

García and Kleifgen (2010) have explained the importance of identifying and thinking of HL speakers as EBs and the positive consequences associated with doing so. For instance, García and Kleifgen (2010) stated the following:

> instead of being regarded as "limited" in some way or a mere "learners of English," as the terms *limited English proficient* and *English language learner* suggest, students are

> seen instead for their potential to become bilingual, and bilingualism begins to be recognized as a cognitive, social, and educational resources (p. 3).

Thus, when the emerging bilingualism of the student is recognized, the educator is focused on building upon the strength of the student, his proficiency in the HL, and simply not remediating his perceived limitation or his learning of English (García & Kleifgen, 2010). Moreover, when the student is viewed as an EB, his HL and bilingualism is used positively, rather than being ignored (García & Kleifgen, 2010). When educational policymakers adopt the use of EB to identify HL speakers, they are more likely to develop a more rigorous and challenging curriculum for instructing students (García & Kleifgen, 2010).

Viewing students as EBs also have positive impacts on their families and communities. Since the term EB highlights the importance of the student's HL, the language practices of the home, where the HL is oftentimes spoken, are then viewed as educational resources (García & Kleifgen, 2010). The parents and communities are no longer given the blame for the student's use of HL instead of English, but instead are viewed as experts in the student's language and cultural practices, which are the original basis of the student's learning (García & Kleifgen, 2010). As a result, the parents are no longer barred from participating in the education of their children, but instead are valued and strong participants (García & Kleifgen, 2010). Due to the positive nature of the term, for the remainder of the literature review and for the purpose of this study, HL speakers will be referred to as EBs or EB students.

Program Types for Bilingual Education

There are numerous program types that educate EBs currently used in the U.S. These programs are often referred to as bilingual education programs. Bilingual education programs for EBs are developed to assist those students as they are in the process of learning the new

language, English, as their second or other language (Morales & Aldana, 2010). Nevertheless, bilingual education is an ambiguous term as it can be used to refer to education that uses and promotes two languages to achieve bilingualism or to refer to a classroom where bilingual children are present, but the use of two languages is not promoted to achieve bilingualism (Baker, 2011). Thus, the pedagogy of one type of bilingual education is truly bilingual as it uses two languages for instruction while the other form is monolingual and only uses one language for instruction. Furthermore, these differing forms of education for EBs can have very different goals and philosophies (Baker, 2011, & Morales & Aldana, 2010). The programs can differ in their use of the target language, the length of enrollment in the program, the instructional focus, and their specific goals regarding language outcomes (Morales & Aldana, 2010). The program types are outlined in Table 3 and further discussed in the sections that follow.

Table 3

Types of Bilingual Education and Heritage Language Programs for Emergent Bilinguals (EBs)

Program Type	Language of Classroom	Language Outcome	Bilingualism
Mainstream or Submersion	New language	Monolingual	Subtractive
English as a Second Language (ESL)	New language	Monolingual	Subtractive
Structured Immersion	New language	Monolingual	Subtractive
Transitional	Moves from HL to new language	Monolingual	Subtractive
Dual-Immersion	HL and new language	Bilingual	Dynamic
Language Revitalization	HL and new language with emphasis on HL	Bilingual	Recursive Dynamic
Saturday HL School	HL and new language with emphasis on HL	Bilingual	Recursive Dynamic

Note. Adapted from *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (5th ed.) by C. Baker, 2011, pp. 209-210. Copyright 2011 by Multilingual Matters.

English Only forms of education for Emergent Bilinguals. English Only forms of education for EBs focus on the acquisition of English and often neglect or even forbid the use of

the HL for instruction. The English Only forms of education for EBs typically aim to assimilate EBs into the mainstream society so that they can fully participate in the life and culture of the host country (Baker, 2011). In order assimilate EBs, the monolingual forms of education offer instruction only in English in order to develop the student's proficiency in English (Baker, 2011, & Lessow-Hurley, 2000). This form of education emphasizes subtractive bilingualism in which the HL is replaced by the new language (García & Kleifgen, 2010 & Baker 2011).

Mainstream or Submersion. One approach to monolingual education for EBs in the United States is known as Mainstreaming or Submersion. Submersion is often described as the 'sink or swim' model as it is alluded to throwing an EB into the deep end of a pool and expecting that student to learn to swim as quickly as possible without the help of flotation devices or specialized swim instruction (Baker, 2011). In other words, EBs are immersed in a classroom where only the new language, English, is spoken and they are taught in that classroom for the entire school day alongside native speakers of English without any special assistance in the HL (Baker, 2011). Consequently, EBs are provided with exactly the same educational services as native speakers of the new language (García & Kleifgen, 2010). In this setting, EBs and their teachers are expected to use only the new language. Thus, English is the medium for instruction, instead of being the object of instruction (Lessow-Hurley, 2000). Without HL supports, the students will sink, struggle, or swim (Baker, 2011). That is why the term submersion is often associated with a negative connotation due to allusion to sink or swim and as a result schools refer to their monolingual educational practices as mainstreaming (Baker, 2011).

However, it is important to note that submersion is now an illegal form of education for EB in the United States. An influential court case in this legal decision was "Equal Protection for Non-English-Speaking School Children: Lau v. Nichols" which was decided in 1974. It was

decided through this case that instead of allowing submersion programs, EB must receive additional support because simply providing equal facilities, books, teachers, and curriculums do not equate to providing the same opportunities for success (Lau v. Nichols, 1974). More recently, New York State's Commissioner of Education has required that EB students be provided equal access to all school programs as identified in Commissioner's Regulation (CR) Part 154 (Office of Bilingual Education and World Languages, 2015). Additionally, CR Part 154 provides specific regulations for English instruction program types and required daily time for such instruction (Office of Bilingual Education and World Languages, 2015). These mandated English instruction programs prohibit the use of submersion programs.

ESL. A second category of monolingual education for EBs is English as a Second Language (ESL). ESL programs may occur in addition to Mainstream education (Baker, 2011). ESL programs aim to develop the EBs' English language skills for academic and communication purposes (Baker, 2011). Thus, ESL instruction focuses on developing grammar, vocabulary, and communication skills (Baker, 2011). ESL programs may be in a Stand-Alone setting, during which the students receive special support is sessions held outside of the regular classroom, or they may be Integrated, in which an ESL teacher collaborates with the content area teacher to provide support to the EB while in the regular classroom (García & Kleifgen, 2010). ESL support increases the comprehensibility of the academic input for EBs by using simplified English (Baker, 2011).

As of September 2015, New York State (NYS) has replaced the use of the term English as a Second Language (ESL) with English as a New Language (ENL) (Office of Bilingual Education and World Languages, 2015). The term, ENL, acknowledges that the EB may already have more than one language prior to learning English. Thus, English would not be their second

language, but instead a new language for the student. Additionally, as of 2015, CR Part 154 requires that ENL instruction be provided both through the Stand-Alone model and through the Integrated model (Office of Bilingual Education and World Languages, 2015). Past regulations had only required ENL instruction to be provided in the Stand-Alone setting (Office of Bilingual Education and World Languages, 2015).

Structured Immersion. A third category of monolingual instruction is known as Structured Immersion. Structured Immersion programs are referred to as Content-based ESL or Sheltered English (García & Kleifgen, 2000). However, Structured Immersion programs are educational programs designed only for EBs and EBs are taught a portion the core curriculum through English while also developing their English language skills (Baker, 2011, García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Lessow-Hurley, 2000). Thus, Structured Immersion varies from Submersion Education as EBs are grouped homogenously and they are educated apart from the native speakers (Baker, 2011, & Lessow-Hurley, 2000). Furthermore, the teacher will use a simplified form of the new language and may initially allow the students to communicate using their HLs (Baker, 2011, & Lessow-Hurley, 2000). In this setting, the EBs are not expected to function immediately in the new language (Baker, 2011, & Lessow-Hurley, 2000). For example, many visual aids and other forms of non-verbal communication, simple syntax, repetitions, slowed speech, and frequent comprehension checks are used in order to make the content being presented to and learned by the EBs more comprehensible (Baker, 2011). Nonetheless, Structured Immersion programs, just like Submersion programs, aim to conduct all instruction in the new language and as a result, the HL is not developed, but instead is replaced by the new language (Baker, 2011). Many people in favor of developing HLs prefer bilingual forms of

education because the goal of bilingual education is bilingualism. The following section reviews the variety of program models available to develop bilingualism.

Bilingual forms of Education for Emergent Bilinguals

Most bilingual education program models lead to developing and maintaining bilingualism. The first program reviewed, Transitional Bilingual Education, is one of the only bilingual programs where the goal is not to develop bilingualism over time. Bilingual forms of education for EBs use the HL and the new language.

Transitional bilingual education for Emergent Bilinguals. Transitional bilingual education programs are popular in the U.S., but have limitation for HLs and EBs. Transitional bilingual education (TBE) is a bilingual education program for EBs that aims to develop a student's proficiency in the new language by shifting the EBs from speaking the HL to speaking the new language (Baker, 2011, García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Lessow-Hurley, 2000). Similar to monolingual forms of education for EBs, transitional bilingual programs aim to assimilate EBs into the new culture (Baker, 2011). To achieve this, TBE increases the use of the new language in the classroom while proportionately decreasing the use of the HL in the classroom (Baker, 2011). In other words, the HL is used for instructional purposes until the EBs have achieved proficiency in the new language and at that point the EBs are transitioned to mainstream education (Baker, 2011, García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Lessow-Hurley, 2000).

There are two major types of TBE: early exit and late exit (Baker, 2011). In early exit TBE, the EB is offered instruction in the HL for a maximum of two years (Baker, 2011). On the other hand, late exit TBE allows the EB to receive instruction in the HL for 40% of the time until the 6th grade (Baker, 2011). The explicit aim of early exit TBE programs is to develop EBs into competent learners in English as quickly as possible so that they can join native speakers of the

new language in the mainstream class as soon as possible (Morales & Aldana, 2010). The reasoning to this aim is to prevent the EBs from falling behind the native speaking peers in content area learning from the curriculum (Morales & Aldana, 2010). On the other hand, late exit TBE programs aim to maintain HL skills and produce learners that are strong readers in both languages and who possess enough vocabulary in core subjects so that they can access the content in both languages (Morales & Aldana, 2010). However, late exit TBE programs still transition the EBs to classrooms in which only the new language is used and instruction in the HL eventually ends (Morales & Aldana, 2010). Nonetheless, according to Baker (2011), early exit TBE has been more predominant.

However, TBE has received much criticism. First of all, TBE programs are viewed as remedial, compensatory, and segregated (Baker, 2011, & Lessow-Hurley, 2000). In other words, EBs are removed for the mainstream classroom and separated for their native speaking peers. As a result, EBs in TBE programs are viewed as possessing a deficit as compared to native language speakers and the segregations supported by TBE reproduces the differences in power and progress for EBs and emphasizes the lower class status (Baker, 2011). Secondly, TBE programs foster subtractive, rather than additive bilingualism (Baker, 2011, & Lessow-Hurley, 2000). Lastly, the short length of time offered by TBE programs, especially early exit TBE, for an EB to master the new language is unrealistic (Lessow-Hurley, 2000). The EBs are often forced to exit the program too soon and as a result face academic failure when placed in the English-Only mainstream class (Lessow-Hurley, 2000). Furthermore, because educators of TBE programs need to spend the majority of the instructional time teaching the new language, the instruction of academic content and time spent on curricular material is lessened (Baker, 2011).

Language maintenance bilingual education for Emergent Bilinguals. Unlike monolingual and TBE programs, language maintenance programs promote bilingualism, biliteracy, and biculturalism for EBs (Baker, 2011, & Lessow-Hurley, 2000). Thus, language maintenance bilingual education programs foster dynamic and recursive dynamic bilingualism.

Dual-immersion. One program type for language maintenance bilingual education is known as a Dual-immersion, or Two-Way immersion, program. Dual-immersion programs allow both speakers of a heritage language and native speakers of the new language to enroll in the same class (Baker, 2011, García & Kleifgen, 2010, Lessow-Hurley, 2000, & Morales & Aldana, 2010). Students typically participate in Dual-immersion programs for up to six years (Baker, 2011, & Lessow-Hurley, 2000). Instruction in dual-immersion programs is provided in both languages, the HL and the new language, with each language ideally being used 50% of the time (Baker, 2011, Lessow-Hurley, 2000, & Morales & Aldana, 2010). However, some Dual-immersion programs may introduce the new language gradually as the program progresses (Baker, 2011, & Lessow-Hurley, 2000). One common Dual-immersion model is a 90/10 model (Morales & Aldana, 2010). The 90/10 model is usually introduced to younger students and involves 90% of the instruction in the minority language and 10% of the instruction in the new language (Morales & Aldana, 2010). As the students progress in the program, the percentage of instruction in the new language increases each year until the 50/50 balance of language for instruction is reached (Morales & Aldana, 2010). Another model is a 50/50 model, in which 50% of the instruction is provided in the new language and 50% in the minority language regardless of the grade level (Morales & Aldana, 2010). Furthermore, during each period of instruction in Dual-Immersion programs, only one language is typically used. (Baker, 2011). Additionally, the language is used as a medium of instruction, while content is the object of instruction (Baker,

2011). Nevertheless, the overlying objective for these programs is for all students, speakers of a HL and native speakers of the new language, to become balanced bilingual and balanced biliterate (Baker, 2011, Lessow-Hurley, 2000, & Morales & Aldana, 2010).

Dual-immersion programs are popular and a beneficial alternative to TBE programs (Baker, 2011, Lessow-Hurley, 2000, & Morales & Aldana, 2010). Since Dual-immersion programs promote bilingualism, biliteracy, and biculturalism, they further develop and add to the students' HL, while also developing a new language. In addition, not only is the HL developed and maintained, but it is also given equal status to the new language (Baker, 2011, & Morales & Aldana, 2010). Moreover, since equal numbers of native speakers from both language groups, the HL and the new language, are enrolled in Dual-immersion programs, all students have the opportunity to interact with native speakers of their targeted second language and as a result their likelihood of developing native like proficiency in that targeted second language is increased (Lessow-Hurley, 2000).

Language Revitalization Programs. While many language maintenance programs found in schools use the new language and the HL for instruction, language revitalization programs only focus on developing HL proficiency and therefore emphasize the use of the HL for all instruction and communication (Hermes, Bang, & Marin, 2012). As explained by Baker (2011), language revitalization programs use the HL for instruction because such programs are concerned with preserving the HL and the culture associated with the HL and its speakers. The goal of language revitalization programs is to create speakers who are able to continue the languages use and growth, even if the last native speaker were to pass away (Hinton, 2011). Thus, language revitalization programs are especially important for HLs close to experiencing language death or even for HLs that have experienced language death. Accordingly, in the U.S.,

language revitalization programs often exist with the purpose of revitalizing, developing, and maintaining Indigenous languages which were nearly lost as a result of laws and attempted genocides imposed on Native American by the federal government of the U.S. (Hermes et al., 2012).

One of the first language revitalization programs was established by speakers of the Maoris language in Aotearoa, the north island of New Zealand (García, 2009). The Maoris realized that their language was close to extinction in the 1970s, after having surrendered their sovereignty to Britain in 1840 (García, 2009). So, in order to prevent the death of their language, the people of Maoris decided to utilize the language still spoken by the elders in the community and started language revitalization programs for children in preschool (García, 2009). The programs were also referred to as Language Nests (García, 2009). The elders of the Language Nest programs would share their spiritual values, language, and culture with the children (García, 2009). The Language Nests were so successful in revitalizing the program that the Maoris extended the program for elementary schools (García, 2009). Then, in the 1980s, Hawaii followed the model established by the Maoris and found success in revitalizing their HL (García, 2009). Nowadays, many Indigenous communities employ language revitalization programs as they work to revitalize their Indigenous languages (García, 2009).

However, Hinton (2011) explained that establishing language revitalization programs is not necessarily an easy task. One of the greatest challenges facing language revitalization programs is that endangered languages often do not have fluent speakers that are of a professional age and able to teach, and when they do, usually those individuals are not trained in education pedagogy (Hinton, 2011). Another challenge for language revitalization programs is that in order to begin the program, the teachers will have to design the materials and curricula by

themselves, instead of having cutting-edge curriculum given to them (Hinton, 2011). Thus, the production of a language revitalization program requires creativity to develop new models for language teaching.

Educational policies in the U.S. have also influenced language revitalization programs, both positively and negatively. English-only and anti-bilingual education policies have severely restricted language revitalization efforts for Indigenous language programs in the U.S. (McCarty, 2008). On the other hand, the Native American Language Preservation Act (NALPA) of 2006 has authorized the establishment of language nests for Indigenous languages (McCarty, 2008). This authorization of language nests programs has given support to many language revitalization efforts by Native Americans (McCarty, 2008).

Theories related to Heritage Language (HL) Development

The ideas of two researchers will be reviewed in this section, Jim Cummins and Ofelia García. Jim Cummins has strongly influenced the way we think about bilingual education in the second half of the 20th century and Ofelia García has influenced the way we think about Bilingual Education so far in the 21st century. Cummins and García both emphasize the benefits of bilingualism and the development of both the HL and the new language.

Introduction to Jim Cummins. Jim Cummins is an influential theorist/researcher in this field and many of his ideas have affected the way we think about HL development. Baker (2011) described Jim Cummins as being "born and schooled in Ireland; educated and enlightened in Canada; an advocate for tolerance, equity and justice for minority peoples throughout the world" (p. 15). Throughout his life, Cummins has been influential to the fields of study related to HLs and bilingual education. Fueled by his experiences with a strict Irish Catholic education that

demonstrated little tolerance for minority populations, one of Cummins' most prominent goals has always been to create change within education and policy (Baker and Hornberger, 2001).

Even though he began his education in psychology, it became evident, as he continued his education and career, that Cummins possessed a willingness to attend to a larger range of issues pertaining to bilingualism and bilingual education (Baker & Hornberger, 2001). Such topics addressed by Cummins in his publications included "cognition, bilingual education, psychological theory, reading instruction, immersion education, reading difficulties, mother tongue maintenance, metalinguistic awareness, immigrant children, language proficiency, and special needs children" (Baker & Hornberger, 2001, pp. 7-8). However, in his later years, Cummins shifted his emphasis from such a broad range to focusing on socio-political ideas (Baker & Hornberger, 2001). This shift has allowed him to understand and address the politics related to education and use that knowledge to realize change against policy makers and politicians. Throughout his research and many publications, Cummins has established profound theoretical framework regarding these topics and has related those theories to educational practices (Baker & Hornberger, 2001). Of particular interest to this study is Cummins' theory regarding linguistic interdependence, and more specifically his theory of the threshold hypothesis as the theories demonstrate the relationships between the home language and the new language.

Linguistic interdependence. The theory of linguistic interdependence, as proposed by Cummins (2005), is relevant to this study as it explains the relationship between an individuals' HL and his second language and demonstrates that using and developing an individual's HL can actually support a higher proficiency in English (García & Kleifgen, 2010). Although the surface features of different languages, such as an individual's L1 and his L2, are separate and appear quite different, there is a common underlying cognitive proficiency that is typical among

all languages (Cummins, 2005). These common underlying features associated with the cognitive proficiency allow for the transfer of language proficiency and knowledge of language skills from the L1 to the L2. Cummins developed this idea as his interdependence hypothesis in 1981 and stated, "to the extent that instruction in Lx is effective in promoting proficiency in Lx, transfer of this proficiency to Ly will occur provided there is adequate exposure to Ly (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn Ly" (Cummins, 2005). In other words, a bilingual program that provides instruction in the HL to develop HL language skills, such as reading and writing skills, will also develop a more thorough conceptual and linguistic proficiency related to the development of literacy in both the HL and English (Cummins, 2005).

The common underlying proficiency model. As previously mentioned, languages have distinct surface features, but they all share a common underlying proficiency (CUP). As explained by Baker (2011) a bilingual individual's two languages may appear separate by their difference in outward conversation, but on a deeper level the two languages do not function separately. The two languages operate through the same central processing system (Baker 2011).

Baker (2011) further summarized Cummins' CUP model in six parts. First, when a person is proficient in two or more languages, he only has one integrated source of thought (Baker, 2011). Thus, irrespective of the language that the individual is operating in, the thoughts that accompany language use come from the same central processing system (Baker, 2011). Also, bilingualism and even multilingualism are possible because people have the capacity to store more than one language and can function in those languages with ease (Baker, 2011). Next, an individual's cognitive development may be fulfilled through two language channels or through one language channel, both with equal amounts of success as both channels contribute to

the same central processing system, which possess those skills needed for full cognitive development (Baker, 2011). Additionally, Baker (2011) notes that the language the individual is using for classroom instruction must be sufficiently developed in order for that individual to be able to process the cognitively demanding tasks of the classroom. In other words, if a student is not sufficiently proficient in English when learning in an English-only classroom, then he will not learn the academic skills being taught through the lesson. Moreover, speaking, reading, writing, and listening in one of the two languages possessed by the individual contributes to the cognitive development of the entire central processing system (Baker, 2011). However, if that individual is required to operate in a L2 that is insufficiently developed, such as a beginner EBL attempting to operate in an English-only classroom, then the system will not function at its greatest ability (Baker, 2011). Thus, what the person attempts to learn when being forced to function in a poorly developed second language will be of lower quality and quantity and will make relatively weak contributions to the CUP. Finally, when one or both languages are not fully functioning the student's cognitive and academic achievement may be negatively affected (Baker, 2011). An instance in which both languages are not functioning fully would be when the individual with limited literacy in his HL is being forced to replace that language with a new language, such as English.

Transfer of proficiency between L1 and L2. Once knowledge exists in an individual's central processing system, that knowledge has the potential for transfer across languages. Stated differently, when an individual is bilingual, linguistic, cognitive, and conceptual elements that are learned in one language can be transferred to his other language and used accordingly. The transfer of proficiency is two-way as it can occur from the HL to the second language or from the second language to the HL (Cummins, 2005). However, the degree to which the knowledge is

transferred varies in accordance with contextual factors. First, a transfer may occur only if the sociolinguistic and educational context is supportive of such transfer (Cummins, 2005). Additionally, the degree of similarity between the L1 and the L2 can influence the amount, as well as the type of knowledge that is transferred. For instance, similar languages, such as French and Italian, allow for a transfer of linguistic, cognitive, and conceptual elements (Cummins, 2005). Conversely, dissimilar languages, such as English and Chinese, only allow for the transfer of cognitive and conceptual elements (Cummins, 2005). Therefore, a higher correlation of transfer occurs between similar languages as compared to dissimilar languages.

There are five types of transfers that are possible between two languages (Cummins, 2005). The first transfer is that of conceptual elements (Cummins, 2005). Conceptual elements are those that are typically learned in the core subject areas in school, such as the concept of cellular division learned in science. The second type of transfer is the transfer of metacognitive and metalinguistic strategies (Cummins, 2005). These strategies may include the knowledge of vocabulary acquisition strategies or understanding that a word can have more than one meaning. The third type of transfer is that of pragmatic aspects of language use (Cummins, 2005). Such pragmatic aspects include the use of hand gestures to clarify meaning and the understanding of adjusting one's language according to the needs of the listener (i.e., talking differently to a peer than to a teacher). The fourth transfer involves the transfer specific linguistic elements (Cummins, 2005). Specific linguistic elements would be the knowledge of the meaning 'photo' in photosynthesis (Cummins, 2005). Lastly, the fifth transfer type is that of phonological awareness (Cummins, 2005). Phonological awareness is the understanding that words are composed of distinct sounds (Cummins, 2005).

Threshold hypothesis. Cummins' threshold hypothesis relates to the benefits of developing one's HL while he simultaneously attains proficiency in English. The threshold hypothesis suggests that there are threshold levels of bilingual proficiency that an individual must achieve not only to avoid negative cognitive and academic consequences, but also to receive beneficial cognitive and academic advantages (Baker, 2011, & Cummins, 2001). Below the first threshold are those individuals who lack proficiency in both their HL and their second language (Baker, 2011). This level is associated with negative cognitive and academic effects (Baker, 2011). Once the first threshold is met and the individual exhibits proficiency in one language, but not in the other, he is unlikely to experience negative cognitive consequences, but also will not reap potentially positive cognitive aspects either (Baker, 2011). However, once the person had attained a high level of proficiency in both languages he is likely to benefit from positive cognitive advantages (Baker, 2011, & Cummins, 2001). In other words, those individuals who have acquired proficiency in a second language, while maintaining or progressing their proficiency in their first language demonstrate positive cognitive effects as compared to those individuals with partial bilingualism (Lessow-Hurley, 2000). Thus, the threshold hypothesis supports the development of a student's HL as they also learn English.

However, the threshold hypothesis has received much criticism. MacSwan (2000) argued that Cummins' threshold hypothesis was ill conceived. MacSwan (2000) argues against the hypothesis using the term semilingualism. Semilingualism is defined as a condition in which individuals have limited abilities in the language that they speak (MacSwan, 2000). Thus, the threshold hypothesis stipulates that semilinguals would experience negative cognitive effects due to the limited language ability. However, MacSwan (2000) criticizes this idea claiming that semilingualism does not exist. MacSwan (2000) explained that languages vary at the level of the

individual, but that a variance does not equate to a deficit. Thus, while semilingualism highlights a deficit in that the individual has limited language abilities, MacSwan (2000) claimed that all individuals could be considered as having a deficit when compared with another. Thus, he refutes the idea of semilingualism (MacSwan, 2000). Therefore, without semilingualism, there would be no individuals, with a supposed lack of language, to be placed at the bottom of the threshold hypothesis where negative effects are experienced.

Introduction to Ofelia García. Much like Cummins, García has also been influential to the fields of study related to HLs and bilingual education. Her dedication to bilingualism and the education of EBs is strongly tied to her experiences of living as an EB in New York City after moving to the U.S. from Cuba at age 11 (García, n.d.). Throughout her life, García has also dedicated her time to teaching EBs bilingually and educating bilingual and ESL teachers (García, n.d.).

Additive, subtractive, dynamic, and recursive bilingualism. Throughout the years, theorists and researchers have developed multiple terms to describe process of acquiring bilingualism. In 1974, Lambert proposed that bilingualism could either be subtractive or additive after having studied Canadian immersion bilingual education programs. Lambert (1974) suggested that EBs typically experienced subtractive bilingualism while being educated in the new language. In other words, the HL of the students would be subtracted and replaced by the new language (Baker, 2011, García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Lambert, 1974). Subtractive bilingualism is usually the goal of Submersion, ESL, Structured Immersion, and Transitional Bilingual Education programs (Baker, 2011, & García & Kleifgen, 2010). On the other hand, Lambert (1974) proposed that additive bilingualism occurs when the new language is added to the HL. Additive and subtractive bilingual models represent bilingualism as occurring in a linear

fashion, in which bilingualism is developed through two autonomous language systems (García & Kleifgen, 2010). In subtractive bilingualism, the individual starts with the HL, acquires the new language, subtracts the HL, and is left with only the new language (García & Kleifgen, 2010 & Lambert, 1974). In additive bilingualism, the individual starts with the HL, acquires the new language in addition to the HL, and is left with two language systems, the HL and the new language (García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Lambert, 1974).

However, García (2009) and García and Kleifgen (2010) argued that bilingualism does not occur in linear fashion, but instead is dynamic. Additive bilingualism suggested that the end result is an individual who is a balanced bilingual and "has" two languages (García & Kleifgen, 2010). However, as explained by García and Kleifgen (2010), this is rarely the case with bilinguals. Instead, dynamic bilingualism as proposed by García and Kleifgen (2010) argues that language is not something an individual "has", but instead is something he "uses" and the level of proficiency in each system is not necessarily equal. Thus, a bilingual uses two languages dynamically to adapt to the complex landscape in which he interacts and communicates with those around him (García & Kleifgen, 2010). Furthermore, the language systems do not develop autonomously, but instead are a single coherent communication system that the individual uses to make sense of information and to derive meaning while interacting in a bilingual community, bilingual family, and multilingual classroom (García & Kleifgen, 2010). Cummins' theories of linguistic interdependence, the Common Underlying Proficiency model, and the threshold hypothesis support the idea of dynamic bilingualism and the concept that languages compose a single system for communication.

García (2009) and García and Kleifgen (2010) also introduced the concept of recursive bilingualism. As previously mentioned, languages can experience language loss and must be

revitalized in order recapture what has been lost. Recursive bilingualism helps individuals to regain or revitalize the lost language in the context of the present and prepare it sustain in the future (García, 2009). Thus, such programs are recursive as the EBs must recover their existing ancestral language practices, while also developing bilingualism that consistently pulls on previous knowledge in order to move forward (García & Kleifgen, 2010). Moreover, recursive bilingualism promotes biculturalism, as it helps individuals and groups to understand their histories and reconstruct their culture to fit their current lives, while also helping them to develop competencies in other languages and cultures with which they are in contact (García, 2009).

Translanguaging. The theory of translanguaging is relevant as it refers to the bilingual practices for which the EB uses his HL and the new language. Cen Williams of Wales first introduced the term translanguaging in the mid 1990s (as cited in García and Wei, 2014, p. 20). However, García has further developed the theory of translanguaging in the 21st century. In most recent years, García has defined translanguaging as the complex, multiple discursive practices of bilingual or pluralingual individuals that they utilize in order to make sense of the bilingual world in which they live (García, 2009, García & Kleifgen, 2010, & García & Wei, 2014). In other words, EBs have a single linguistic repertoire from which they strategically select features of each language to communicate effectively, construct deeper understandings of knowledge, and make sense of the bilingual world around them (García 2009, & García & Wei, 2014). EB youth engage in translanguaging regularly as they translate for their parents (García, 2009). For example, the child may read over a letter from the school, written in English, and then verbally discuss the letter's content in Spanish with his mother. Other acts of translanguaging occur when there are individuals together who do not all speak the same language, as those who are bilingual translanguage to include and facilitate communication among everyone (García, 2009).

Translanguaging is not the same as code-switching (García, 2009, García & Kleifgen, 2010, & García & Wei, 2014). Code-switching refers to the process of shifting between two separate languages (García & Wei, 2014). On the other hand, translanguaging is the construction and use of complex interrelated discursive practices from a single repertoire (García & Wei, 2014). Thus, EBs are not moving back and forth between two systems for communication, but instead are pulling selected features from a single system.

Translanguaging is also used to refer to the pedagogical approaches that utilize the complex language practices of EBs (García & Wei, 2014). Thus, translanguaging pedagogy can be used for instruction. Perhaps one of the most basic benefits of translanguaging is that it allows the educator and the students to communicate knowledge in a multilingual classroom (García & Wei, 2014). For instance, the teacher can present information in one language and allow the students to discuss it in another language to increase comprehension and further communication. Translanguaging is also beneficial as pedagogical approach as the educator is able to include the language practices of all students and the students are able to develop new language practices while sustaining the language practices that pre-exist (García & Wei, 2014). Baker (2001) explained that when translanguaging is used in the classroom, it has the potential to encourage a fuller understanding of the content, develop the weaker language of an EB, facilitate cooperation between an EBs home and school life, and integrate fluent speakers of the new language with new learners.

Educational Policies regarding Heritage Languages

Educational policies regarding HLs strongly influence the HL practices employed by educators of EBs. Throughout history, language education policies regarding immigrants and their HLs have alternated between treating those individuals with restriction and treating those

individuals with tolerance (Menken, 2014). However, the U.S. laws and legislation have generally trended towards maintaining the dominance of English and thus have neglected HL development (Gándara, Losen, August, Uriate, Gomez, & Hopkins, 2010). Even though the country has no official language and no official language policy, the nation's law requires that non-English speakers be given the right to acquire English through equitable education (Gándara et al., 2010). Nonetheless, due to the lack of a consistent language policy, individual states have created their own interpretation of the policies (Gándara et al., 2010). Thus, there are a variety of educational policies and programs that pertain to the education of EBs. These policies regarding the education, English instruction, and instruction in a language other than English, have been controversial since the 18th century (Gándara, et al., 2010). Unfortunately, the policies fluctuate depending on the current economic, political, and social forces in the U.S., instead of being more enduring and grounded in research and an unyielding policy (Gándara et al., 2010). Such forces may include war, such as World War I during which instruction in the German language was barred, or political and social movements, such as the Civil Rights movement of the 1960s, which led to the Civil Rights Act in 1964 (Gándara et al., 2010).

English-only movement. The English-only movement has severely restricted HL development in education throughout U.S. history. As previously stated, the U.S. does not have an official language, regardless of misconceptions held by many that English is the official language. However, in April 1981, a U.S. senator, S.I. Hayakawa proposed an Amendment to the U.S. Constitution that would make English the official language of the country (Baker, 2011 & Gándara et al., 2010). Hayakawa expressed that his purpose was to promote participative democracy and unification (Baker, 2011). While the Amendment failed, Hayakawa's proposal perpetuated the start of the English-Only movement, also known as Official English movement

(Baker, 2011, & Gándara et al., 2010). The English-Only movement claims that English is the social glue, which will allow diverse Americans to come together and overcome differences and that language diversity fuels ethnic and political conflict and separation (Baker, 2011, & Gándara et al., 2010). The movement has influenced the education of EBs with its perception, a perception that it is beneficial for students to learn English early and to focus on English instruction over instruction in content areas (Baker, 2011, & Gándara et al., 2010). Furthermore, the movement has perpetuated the belief that immigrants have the tendency to refuse to learn English and that early English instruction is the only manner to counteract this tendency (Baker, 2011, & Gándara et al., 2010).

However, even before the official English-Only movement began in the 1980s, English-Only practices had been a part of the U.S. history. Beginning in the 1880s, the U.S. attempted to 'civilize' Native Americans and in doing so began what Gándara et al. (2010) referred to as the genocide of Native American Indigenous languages. Native American students were sent to boarding schools in which their HLs were barred and only the use of English was permitted (Gándara et al., 2010). As a result, many Indigenous languages became extinct, Native Americans became marginalized in U.S. culture, and Native Americans began a long history of low academic achievement (Gándara et al., 2010). Then in the 20th century, while many Americans possessed fears related to growing Europe Nationalism and World War I, English-Only practices continued. In 1889, Illinois and Wisconsin adopted English-Only policies for the education of EBs and by 1923, 34 states had adopted English-Only policies in both public and private schooling (Gándara et al., 2010). Gándara et al. (2010) also noted that in 1906 the Naturalization Act was passed which required all immigrants to speak English in order to become naturalized citizens, furthering English-Only like practices.

Following Hayakawa's influence in the 1980s, the practices of the English-Only movement have continued. From the 1980s to the 2000s, anti-bilingual and anti-multicultural feelings had risen among U.S. citizens, all while the number of EBs in U.S. schools had increased drastically and immigration had increased (Gándara et al., 2010). This lead to a sleuth of new proposals for laws and propositions throughout the U.S. In 1994 California attempted to pass Proposition 187, which would bare all undocumented immigrants from using public services including schools (Gándara et al., 2010). However, the U.S. Supreme Court vacated the proposition (Gándara et al., 2010). Nevertheless, just a few short years later California returned with a new proposition regarding immigrants and EBs, Proposition 227. Proposition 227 was proposed by Ron Unz and suggested the prohibition of an EBs HL in instruction and mandated the use of sheltered English immersion programs (SEI) (García and Kleifgen, 2010). SEI programs only allow English to be used for instruction and the EB is only in the program for one year before being moved to the mainstream classroom for instruction (García and Kleifgen, 2010). In 1998, Proposition 227 was successfully passed and barred the use of HL in instruction for EBs in all California schools (Gándara et al., 2010, & García & Kelifgen, 2010). In 2000, Arizona, with assistance from Unz, followed the lead of California and passed Proposition 203, which just like California's Proposition 227, also barred the use of HLs in schools, but also placed stricter measures on parents in regards to opting out of the state's Structured English Immersion (SEI) program (Gándara et al., 2010, & García & Kleifgen, 2010). A couple years later, in 2002, Massachusetts also banned bilingual education and showed favor for the English-Only movement (Gándara et al., 2010, & García & Kleifgen, 2010). Later, in 2004, Arizona passed a referendum barring all undocumented immigrants from public social services (Gándara et al, 2010). Then, in 2006, Arizona placed stricter regulations of the education of EBs through

the SEI program and mandated that all first year EBs be placed in a four hour English Language Development (ELD) program where the instruction focused on English language skills and neglected subject area content (Gándara et al., 2010). As a result of this new referendum, along with Proposition 203, EBs in Arizona are segregated from their English speaking peers and learning only English over content matter for 80% of their school day (Gándara et al., 2010).

Thus, by 2003, three states had favored the English-Only movement and banned instruction for HL maintenance and development. These states were fueled by thoughts communicated in the preamble of California's Proposition 227 which claimed that English-Only would allow the state to spend, or waste, less money on the education of EBs, would raise English literacy levels, and that SEI would help EBs to develop English proficiency at a faster rate (Gándara et al., 2010). Nevertheless, four years after Proposition 227 was passed, only 42% of California's EBs, as reported in 1998, had become proficient in English (García & Kleifgen, 2010). In addition, as of 2002, the annual redesignation rates, or the rates of English language acquisition by EBs, had remained unchanged (García & Kleifgen, 2010). Thus, the propositions passed in California, Arizona, and Massachusetts have proven little to no effectiveness by the means of helping EBs develop English proficiency at a faster rate.

Title VII Bilingual Education Act. As the population of EBs in the U.S. began to grow in the 1960s, educators and policymakers realized a need to establish legislation to address the needs of those EB students in U.S. schools. As a result of conferences to discuss possible policies, in 1968 the U.S. Congress reauthorized the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) with the inclusion of Title VII, the Bilingual Education Act, an act that would influence the education of EBs for decades (García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Wright, 2010). The main purpose

of the Bilingual Education Act was to provide funding to schools for the education of EBs (García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Wright, 2010).

In its early days, the Bilingual Education Act was only for EBs whose HL was Spanish, but other proposals in later years were incorporated in to the act to include the education of EBs who spoke any HL (Wright, 2010). In addition, an early requirement added that the Bilingual Education Act was only for EBs that were living in poverty (García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Wright, 2010). This perpetuated the deficit view of EBs, as they were no longer just viewed as individuals who lacked English proficiency, but were also viewed as being poor (Wright, 2010). However, in 1974, the act was reauthorized to include EBs of all socioeconomic statuses (García & Kleifgen, 2010).

When the Bilingual Education Act was first introduced it had identified a problem, which was the need for EBs to acquire English, but the proposed solutions to that problem were vague (Wright, 2010). What is more, the Bilingual Education Act did not define or even require bilingual education (García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Wright, 2010). Instead, it left the pedagogy, intended goals, and purpose of the act at the discretion of policymakers and educators (García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Wright, 2010). Needless to say, the various policymakers and educators often did not agree upon the pedagogy, goals, and purpose (Wright, 2010). Instead, they debated whether the Bilingual Education Act was designed to help EBs become bilingual or to transition those students to speaking English as quickly as possible (Wright, 2010). Thus, the bilingual education programs that emerged as a result of the act were very diverse.

Since its establishment in 1968, the Bilingual Education Act had been reauthorized six times with the most current reauthorization having occurred in 1994 (Wright, 2010). In the 1980s, the Bilingual Education Act shifted its focus to English Only practices (García &

Kleifgen, 2010). For instance, in 1988 the act was reauthorized to allow 25% of the provided funding to be allocated for English Only programs and placed a three-year limit on each student's participation in Transitional Bilingual Education programs (García & Kleifgen, 2010). However, the reauthorization in 1994 clarified the goals of Title VII and gave more explicit definitions as to the target population of students and the intended programs for the education of those students (Wright, 2010). The reauthorization also listed the purposes and benefits of bilingual education, bilingualism, and a multicultural awareness (Wright, 2010). At that time, the number of programs that were acceptable for bilingual education and allowed to receive funding was increased (Wright, 2010). Of all programs, Transitional Bilingual Education programs were most likely to receive funding and the act showed a greater support for Developmental and Dual Immersion programs (Wright, 2010). Nevertheless, in 1994, some monolingual programs were still eligible for funding through Title VII (Wright, 2010). Thus, the main focus of Title VII, the Bilingual Education Act, was always to help EBs reach English proficiency (Wright, 2010).

Title III of No Child Left Behind replaced the Bilingual Education Act in 2001 (Wright, 2010). However, the Bilingual Education Act led to the establishment of more policies for Bilingual Education throughout the U.S. (Wright, 2010). By the early 2000s, 32 U.S. states had statues to allow HLs to be used in instruction and seven U.S. states had even mandated bilingual education under certain conditions (Wright, 2010). Furthermore, seven other U.S. states stopped enforcing laws that had banned HL instruction in schools (Wright, 2010).

No Child Left Behind. The educational policies that affect EBs changed drastically in 2001 when No Child Left Behind (NCLB) was passed. NCLB is a plan put forth by President George W. Bush with the purpose of improving the education of all students in the U.S. To

promote and monitor the new standards of education, NCLB stated that all students enrolled in grades K-12 must meet annual targets set forth by the state and local governments in order to demonstrate Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) in reading, math, and science. Demonstrating AYP ensures that all school districts and individual schools are accountable for the funding they receive from federal grants (García & Kleifgen, 2010, Menken & Solorza, 2014). Student achievement towards those targets for AYP is measured through standardized tests, usually created at the state level (García & Kleifgen, 2010). NCLB also designated that all subgroups, such as LEP students, must also meet the proposed targets and demonstrate AYP (García & Kleifgen, 2010).

Of particular interest to this study, are the mandates of NCLB for EBs in Title I, "Improving the Academic Achievement of the Economically Disadvantaged", and Title III, "Language Instruction for Limited English Proficient and Immigrant Students" (García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Wright, 2010). Title III has provided grants to state education agencies and in turn, those agencies have given the grants to eligible schools in order to increase funding for educating EBs (Wright, 2010). Nevertheless, while Title III initially increased the funding for EB students, as the EB population has increased it has resulted in fewer funds for each EB student than in previous years (Wright, 2010).

Under Title III of NCLB, all EBs must receive "language instruction education programs", which mandates that EBs be taught English and academic content (Wright, 2010). Furthermore, the programs to be used for the education of EBs are not explicitly explained. Therefore, while Title III makes allowances for the use of HLs in instruction, it does not promote Bilingual Education. The decision about which program types to allow for the instruction of EBs

is ultimately given to the state government (Wright, 2010). Thus, the sole focus of Title III is that EBs receive English instruction in order to attain proficiency in English (Wright, 2010).

In addition, each state must establish annual measurable achievement objectives (AMAOs) to hold all school districts accountable for making progress in educating EBs to attain English proficiency in accordance with Title III (García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Wright, 2010). The three prominent AMAOs of Title III relate to: EBs making annual progress towards English proficiency, EBs attaining English proficiency, and EBs demonstrating AYP (García & Kleifgen, 2010). To demonstrate AYP and to meet AMAOs, each state must design an English language proficiency (ELP) exam (García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Wright, 2010). Additionally, the ELP exams are used to evaluate the proficiency of all newly enrolled EBs, determine if students are eligible for language instruction programs, and to implement appropriate services and programs (García & Kleifgen, 2010). If AMAOs are not attained for two consecutive years, the failing school must establish an improvement plan (García & Kleifgen, 2010). Then, if the school fails to meet AMAOs for four consecutive years, it must create a corrective plan and the state may choose to withdraw Title III funding or even replace the school's educators (García & Kleifgen, 2010, & Wright, 2010). Thus, the implications of AMAOs and AYP have placed unprecedented demands of states and schools to change the academic instruction and English instruction of EBs.

However, according to Menken and Solorza (2014) the changes that schools have made are not necessarily improving the education of EBs. These researchers found that the new accountability mandates put forth by NCLB, particularly the necessity to demonstrate student progress through standardized testing in English, have led schools in New York City to encourage English Only instruction. In some cases, schools even eliminated bilingual education programs (Menken & Solorza, 2014). Furthermore, due to the fact EBs must take the mandated

tests prior to becoming proficient in the English language, EBs tend to demonstrate a poor performance on the accountability measures. The EBs poor performance on standardized tests created a disincentive for educators to serve EBs as the poor performance reflects negatively on the teachers', administrators', and schools' effectiveness (Menken & Solorza, 2014). In an attempt to remedy the negative effects on their accountability measures, school administrators would shuffle EBs among schools in order to lessen the burden of their lower schools on the assessments (Menken & Solorza, 2014). Dispersing the population of EBs among a variety schools also allowed schools to avoid providing Bilingual Education programs for those students as mandated by New York State policy, furthering the administrators' focus on English acquisition through English Only instruction (Menken & Solorza, 2014).

In 2004, a new regulation was added to NCLB which allowed EBs to be exempt for one year from the taking the state's assessment in reading or language arts (García & Kleifgen, 2010). However, those EBs must still take the assessment for Math and Science during the first year of arrival to the U.S. (García & Kleifgen, 2010). The exemption of EBs from the reading or language arts assessment eased some of the pressure on schools to demonstrate AYP. The pressure was also lessened for schools as 2004 NCLB regulation allowed for former EB students, who have been reclassified as attaining English proficiency, to remain in the LEP subgroup for AYP determination purposes (García & Kleifgen, 2010). This new regulation allowed schools to better demonstrate the progress toward English proficiency of EBs (García & Kleifgen, 2010).

NCLB has created a significant shift in political and social thinking, from being a society that provided EBs with access to educational resources and more equal opportunities to a society that is only concerned with closing the achievement gap through assessments and English-Only practices (García, 2010). As a result, the pressures placed on schools, administrators, and

teachers have decreased opportunities for EBs to maintain and develop their HLs in the school setting. Many of these movements and policies are driven by ideologies and attitudes.

Attitudes of Educators towards Emergent Bilinguals

The attitudes of educators toward EBs can influence the educational programs, goals, and outcomes of those EBs. An educator's attitude can determine what pedagogical approaches he will use for instructing EBs, whether or not he will permit the use of the HL in the classroom, and may even determine his expectations for academic achievement for EBs. Past research has explored teachers' attitudes toward EBs in regards to their use of HL, their academic achievement, and their acquisition of English (García-Nevarez, Stafford, & Arias, 2005, Menken & Solorza, 2013, Reeves, 2006, Sook Lee & Oxelson, 2006, Walker, Shafer, & Iiam, 2004, & Yoon, 2007).

Attitudes towards the use of Heritage Languages in schools. HL may be used in schools for instruction of content, language development, or even just for social purposes. Throughout history, policies such as Proposition 227, No Child Left Behind, and the Bilingual Education Act, have influenced teachers' beliefs and attitudes toward the use of HLs in school. While theories of dynamic bilingualism, translanguaging, linguistic interdependence, and the threshold hypothesis support the use of HL in the classroom, many English Only /ideologies promote the belief that HL has negative effects on a child's academic performance and hinder the acquisition of English. Accordingly, researchers have investigated teachers' attitudes toward HL use in schools. Reeves (2006) surveyed 279 content area high school teachers and found that most teachers, 58.4%, thought that students should not be denied the opportunity to use their HL in school. Similarly, García-Nevarez et al. (2005) surveyed 152 elementary teachers and found that most of the teachers saw the importance of using the EBs' HL for instruction, especially

when teaching content area subject matter. However, many of those teachers who understood the importance of using the HL for instruction also expressed a belief that the HL should only be used for instruction until the students finish the third grade (García-Nevarez et al., 2005). This attitude was most likely due to the popularity of the Transitional Bilingual Education program in Arizona at the time of the study, in which students exit the program in the third grade (García-Nevarez et al., 2005). Then, Yoon (2007) conducted a case study with two secondary English Language Arts teachers and found contrasting attitudes from the teachers toward the use of the HL in classroom. While one teacher supported EBs use of their HL in the classroom and felt that the diversity had a positive impact on all of her students, the other teacher discouraged HL use in his classroom (Yoon, 2007).

Attitudes toward academic achievement of Emergent Bilinguals. Instructing EBs can add additional pressure to educators, as they often require special instructional needs. Learning content while also learning a new language is a difficult task that requires sufficient support. However, researchers have found that the general education teachers have varying attitudes toward their roles and responsibilities in the academic achievement of EBs. Through Yoon's (2007) case study of two English language arts teachers, Yoon observed that one educator felt that she was fully responsible for educating EBs in her classroom, while the other teacher expressed an opposing attitude as he conveyed that it was the ESL teacher's responsibility to teach and support the EBs in his class. Moreover, Reeves (2006) surveyed high school teachers to find that while 77% of the teachers thought that having EBs included in their class created a positive environment, 75% of the teachers thought EBs shouldn't be included in the general education class until they acquired a minimum amount of English proficiency. Again, the educators only felt responsible for educating EBs once they had enough English.

Walker et al. (2004) further investigated teachers' attitudes toward their role of responsibility in the academic achievement of EBs, by surveying teachers in three differing school settings. One of the schools surveyed had a low incidence of EBs, a second school had experienced multiple rapid increases in the number of EBs they served, and the third school served many EBs from migrant families and communities (Walker et al., 2004). While analyzing the results of the survey, Walker et al. (2004) found that the teachers of the low incidence school believed that EBs had the potential for high academic achievement and expressed a willingness to help those students achieve. Teachers at the school with a rapid increase in the number of EBs largely welcomed EBs into their school, as reported by 73% of teachers, and many teachers also demonstrated positive support for making necessary adaptations for EBs placed in mainstream classrooms (Walker et al., 2004). However, Walker et al. (2004) found much less positive results from the school with a large migrant population. Teachers at the migrant school viewed EBs as having a deficit and believed they had poor academic performance (Walker et al., 2004). In addition, the teachers of the migrant school conveyed that they did not welcome the culture and language diversity of the EBs into their classroom and they did not invest in the education of the EBs (Walker et al., 2004).

Attitudes toward English acquisition. It can take 5 to 7 years for an EB to have academic English Proficiency (Baker, 2011, & Cummins, 2001). However, research has shown that many teachers do not have a clear understanding of how language is acquired (Reeves, 2006, Sook Lee & Oxelson, 2006, Menken & Solorza, 2013). Reeves (2006) surveyed high school teachers and discovered that many educators thought it was a goal for EBs to learn English and that 71% thought EBs should acquire English proficiency in two years. Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006) found that teachers believed that when more English instruction was provided, the EBs

would acquire the new language more quickly. These results demonstrating the teachers' preference for English and quick English acquisition are most likely influenced by policies such as NCLB and Proposition 227, as they emphasize the use of English.

Support for Heritage Language Development in Education

The recognition and development of HLs are crucial to the personal, academic, and social development of those students speaking the HLs (Sook Lee & Oxelson, 2006). Administrators, educators, and other school personnel can play an integral role in the development of students' HL if they chose to support theory and practices for HL development. Studies conducted by Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006), Karathanos (2009a), Karathanos (2009b), Kibler and Roman (2013), and Menken and Solorza (2013) have identified multiple reasons as to why administrators, educators, and other school personnel choose to support HL development.

More teacher preparation indicated more support. The most prominent reason for supporting HL development in education as identified by Karathanos (2009a), Karathanos (2009b), Menken and Solorza (2013), and Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006) was whether or not the educator had received university preparation or training regarding ESL, TESOL, or bilingual education. Through their studies, the researchers found that those educators who had received either a degree or training in an area related to languages other than English were more likely to support the use of HLs in instruction and to allow HL use in the school setting (Karathanos, 2009a, Karathanos, 2009b, Menken & Solorza, 2013, & Sook Lee & Oxelson, 2006). Additionally, the researchers used surveys, either with a Likert scale, open-ended response questions, or both, interviews, or observations to gather data in order to determine their results.

In one of those studies, Karathanos (2009a) surveyed 327 pre-service teachers, untrained experienced teachers, and trained experienced teachers using a Likert scale and open-ended

response questions, to investigate the teachers' perspectives pertaining to the theory and practice of incorporating EBs' HLs in mainstream instruction. The pre-service teachers were undergraduates at a university who had no ESL-specific university coursework or teaching experience, untrained experienced teachers were those with teaching experience, but no ESL-specific university coursework, and the trained experienced teachers were those with teaching experience and at least nine credit hours of ESL-specific university coursework (Karathanos, 2009a). The results of the study showed that while many teachers showed support for using theory and practices for incorporating EBs' HL in the classrooms, the trained experienced teachers demonstrated the most support for those theories and practices (Karathanos, 2009a).

Furthermore, Karathanos (2009b) surveyed and analyzed course documents for 227 teachers in the Midwest region of the U.S. to investigate to what extent two groups of teachers with differing levels of ESL-specific university courses and teacher preparation differed in their promotion of EBs' use of their HL in instruction. Of those 227 teachers, just over half had not completed any ESL-specific courses at the university level and just under half had completed at least nine or more credit hours of ESL-specific coursework at the university level (Karathanos, 2009b). The results of the study demonstrated that those teachers with nine or more credit hours in ESL-specific courses did more to promote the use of the EBs' HL in instruction (Karathanos, 2009b). Approximately half (53.6%) of the teachers with nine or more credits in ESL-specific courses reported that they allowed the use of HL in instruction most or all of the time, while only 19% of those without any ESL-specific courses reported to allow HL use in instruction most or all of the time (Karathanos, 2009b).

A third study with similar results was conducted by Menken and Solorza (2013) and investigated how leaders of bilingual schools maintained their bilingual education programs and

how they viewed bilingual education and EBs. To collect data Menken and Solorza (2013) interviewed one school district administrator, 11 principals, 10 assistant principals, and six teachers. The results of the interviews revealed that the school leaders in bilingual schools held strong beliefs regarding the importance and effectiveness of bilingual education and that those beliefs were established through formal preparation in bilingual and TESOL teacher preparation programs (Menken & Solorza, 2013). Thus, as in the other studies conducted by Karathanos (2009a) and Karathanos (2009b) those with formal preparation in ESL, TESOL, or bilingual education demonstrated a greater support for HL use in instruction and/or bilingual education (Menken & Solorza, 2013).

Lastly, Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006) conducted a study for which the results demonstrated that individuals possessing teacher preparation regarding ESL were more likely to support HL use than those without ESL teacher preparation. More specifically, by issuing a survey using a Likert scale and open-ended responses to 69, kindergarten through 12th grade, teachers, Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006) found that those with ESL teacher preparation reported implementing HL and cultural practices in the classroom and encouraging HL maintenance.

More professional development indicated more support. A second reason leading to the support of HL use and development in education, which is similar to that of the specific ESL, TESOL, or bilingual preparation, was professional development regarding ESL, TESOL, or bilingual theory and practices (Kibler & Roman, 2013, & Menken & Solorza, 2013). Kibler and Roman (2013) and Menken and Solorza (2013) determined that ESL or TESOL specific professional development was effective in influencing teachers to promote HL use in instruction and in the school setting. Again, these results were determined through the use of surveys, interviews, and observations.

Kibler and Roman (2013) conducted a case study in which they interviewed, observed, and analyzed discussion posts, with two teachers, one a novice kindergarten teacher in an elementary school and one an experienced math teacher who taught in a secondary school. The selected teachers completed the Stanford University Online CLAD Certificate Program, a three course program that educated the participants on policies related to EBs, second language acquisition, teaching methods for EBs, and issues encounter in culturally diverse classrooms (Kibler & Roman, 2013). Upon the completion of the course, Kibler and Roman (2013) found that the two teachers had changed their views on HL use and either allowed or promoted HL use in the classroom more frequently. More specifically, the kindergarten teacher transformed from only promoting HL use occasionally to frequently (Kibler & Roman, 2013). Likewise, the secondary math teacher once prohibited HL use in her classroom, but upon completing the course allowed the students to use their HLs for class discussions (Kibler & Roman, 2013).

As previously mentioned, Menken and Solorza (2013) interviewed 28 school personnel to investigate the reasons why bilingual schools were able to succeed. Among their other discoveries, Menken and Solorza found that professional development was one component that offered support to teachers and administrators as they fought to maintain bilingual education programs under new curricular mandates in schools (Menken & Solorza, 2013). Professional development offered the needed support to help bilingual teachers implement new curriculum while still supporting their bilingual program and responding to city and state mandates that affected the school (Menken & Solorza, 2013).

Educators with L2 show support. A final factor identified by Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006) that led to teacher support of HL use in instruction and in the school setting was dependent upon whether the teacher spoke an L2. Through analyzing the data collected from

surveys with 69 teachers, Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006) concluded that teachers who were fluent in a language other than English were significantly more likely to implement practices in the classroom that encouraged HL use (Sook Lee & Oxelson, 2006). Those teachers with fluency in a language other than English also expressed a stronger belief that the schools should have an active role in supporting HL development than the monolingual teachers did (Sook Lee & Oxelson, 2006).

Opponents of Heritage Language Development in Education

On the other hand, many educators possess a set of beliefs that cause them to choose to not support HL development. One such belief has come from a popular myth that has associated bilingualism with language delays (Sook Lee & Oxelson, 2006). In other words, those who believe the myth believe that for a child to be successful in learning English, he must learn English instead of developing and maintaining his HL (Sook Lee & Oxelson, 2006). Thus, many educators in United States schools had come to believe the myth that students had to acquire English in place of their HLs as opposed to learning English in addition to their HLs, modeling the subtractive bilingualism approach (Sook Lee & Oxelson, 2006, & Lambert, 1974). As a result of this subtractive schooling approach, those educators did not engage in practices that embraced and developed HLs. The educators focused on developing English to replace the HLs, as opposed to developing English in addition to the HLs (Sook Lee & Oxelson, 2006).

As evidenced in the studies done by Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006), Kibler and Roman (2013), Garcia's-Nevarez et al. (2005), and Cobas and Feagin (2008), educators and other school personnel possessed a variety of other reasons for not recognizing or supporting HLs within their schools and classrooms. These reasons were often associated with the myth that English had to

be learned in place of learning and maintaining HLs as explained by Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006).

Educators' perceived roles in heritage language maintenance (HLM). Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006) and Kibler and Roman (2013) identified a common reason regarding the lack of support and recognition offered to HL use in United States classrooms. The common reason was that many educators failed to understand their role in HLM, or the preservation of the use of a HL. In an interview conducted by Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006) one educator stated, "I don't know whose job it [heritage language maintenance] is, but…not mine", when being asked about his/her role in heritage language maintenance (p. 462). Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006) and Kibler and Roman (2013) studied the effects of teacher preparation programs and professional development on educators' roles of HLM. Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006) found that educators who participated in teacher preparation programs to become language educators, either English as a Second Language (ESL) or Bilingual Cross-cultural Language and Academic Development (BCLAD), tended to hold more positive views in regards to HL and supported practices for HLM. Conversely, those who did not prepare to become language educators held more negative views about supporting HLs and did not believe it was their role to engage in practices for HLM. Thus, Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006) suggested that educators with authority promote the value of HLs and educate and empower their peers regarding their role in HLM.

Similarly, Kibler and Roman (2013) concluded that professional development courses that educated teachers on the importance of HLs and HLM were successful in positively influencing the teachers. One educator in the study was observed to be implementing more practices that supported HLs following the conclusion of a professional development course (Kibler & Roman, 2013). Additionally, a second educator in the study had strict rules

prohibiting HL use in her secondary classroom prior to her enrollment in the professional development course. However, upon her completion of the course she became more accepting and understanding of HLs and allowed her students to use their HLs in the classroom. Nevertheless, Kibler and Roman (2013) noted that neither educator used HL practices when teaching content, and therefore suggested that more professional development be offered, so that the educators can move past only using the occasional HL practices towards more in depth and academically rich practices that better support HLM.

More years spent as an educator indicated less support. Research has shown that the more years a teacher spends in the field of education, the more negative views he can hold towards EBs and their use of the HL in the classroom. García-Nevarez (2005) found that the more years teachers taught, the more negative their views toward their students' HL became. Similarly, Walker et al. (2004) found that teachers with less experience working with EBs demonstrated more positive attitudes toward EBs, while those who had worked with EBs for numerous years, under stressful conditions with less support, were less likely to welcome EBs into their classrooms.

Environmental factors impact support. Research also demonstrated that educators tended to show less support for EBs and less encouragement for the use of their HL when other environmental factors took precedent (Sook Lee & Oxelson, 2006 & Kibler & Roman, 2013). Such environmental factors included gang affiliations among students and restrictive policies such as NCLB and English Only policies.

Teachers are typically concerned with not only providing their students with a sufficient education, but also with keeping them safe and healthy. In order to keep students safe, teachers will often forbid activities such as fighting and bullying. However, Kibler and Roman (2013)

observed and interviewed an educator who forbade the use of HLs in her classroom due to student relations and gang affiliations. The educator feared that the use of HLs would allow her students to discuss their gangs and gang related activities. As a result, the environmental factors of gang involvement and ensuring student safety took precedent over HL use.

Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006), Kibler and Roman (2013), and Menken and Solorza (2013) discovered that educators were forced to allow institutional and governmental policies, such as English Only, Proposition 227, and No Child Left Behind (NCLB), to take precedent over HL use and encouragement in the classroom. Educators feared violating the policies such as English Only and Proposition 227 and therefore limited their use of HL practices (Kibler & Roman, 2013). Moreover, NCLB required more standardized testing and therefore educators felt pressured to teach only the material found on the standardized tests and to ignore additional practices, such as HLM, regardless of how beneficial those additional practices were (Sook Lee & Oxelson, 2006). Menken and Solorza (2013) even found that schools would completely eliminate their bilingual education programs in order to focus on English instruction to meet the mandates of policies such as NCLB.

Summary of Karen Capullo's research (2007)

The current study was a replication of a study conducted in 2007 by Ms. Karen Capullo. At the time, Ms. Capullo was a graduate student in the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) program at the State University of New York at Fredonia. Thus, it was relevant to review the methods and results of Capullo's study.

Methods. Capullo (2007) collected data to examine the attitudes of middle school personnel toward HLM for language minority (LM) students (in the current study LM is changed to EB for reasons explained earlier in literature review). To collect data, Capullo (2007)

distributed surveys to middle school personnel in three middle schools in Chautauqua County, New York. Of those three schools, two schools had a high number of EBs and thus the personnel of those schools had relevant experience working with EBs (Capullo, 2007). While the third school did not have any EBs enrolled, it was chosen due to its proximity to a Native American reservation, which was in the process of revitalizing its Indigenous language (Capullo, 2007). The survey was created with a 5 point Likert scale and surveyed the personnel of their beliefs regarding the benefits of HL for schools, attitudes toward bilingualism, beliefs on the importance of English Only, beliefs regarding school level policy for HL, and their beliefs on the role of schools in HLM (Capullo, 2007).

Results. Of the 235 surveys that Capullo (2007) distributed to the three schools, 67 (29%) were completed and returned. In general, the surveyed personnel demonstrated support for HLM and bilingual education (Capullo, 2007). Capullo (2007) found that 61% of the surveyed individuals agreed with statements regarding the benefits of HLM for school. Thus, a majority of the personnel recognized that the EB's HL was important as it could assist the student in transferring knowledge learned in the HL to the content being learned in the new language (Capullo, 2007). This data suggests that the personnel would have been supportive of using the HL for instruction in their own classrooms (Capullo, 2007). Capullo (2007) also found that the middle school personnel demonstrated overwhelming support for bilingual education and theory. Seventy percent (70%) of those surveyed agreed with the items pertaining to attitudes toward bilingualism (Capullo, 2007). Thus, Capullo (2007) explained that the personnel understood the benefits of bilingualism for academic achievement, the importance of HLM on EBs' future success, the benefits of biliteracy and being fluent in two languages, and that schools must work together to promote bilingualism. What is more, Capullo (2007) discovered that the

middle school personnel showed little support for English Only policies. A little over half of the participants thought that it was not right to prevent EBs from using their HL in schools and they recognized that the EBs would not learn English any faster if they were to be placed in an English Only setting (Capullo, 2007). However, the researcher found that the personnel were not as supportive of school policy regarding HLM and the role of school in HLM (Capullo, 2007). While about two-thirds of the participants designated that they would support government funding, only about one-third felt that schools invest in and provide services for HLM (Capullo, 2007). Thus, the results of Capullo's (2007) study suggest that the middle school personnel of Chautauqua County, NY would support bilingual education and the use of a student's HL in school.

Research Questions of the Current Study

The main research questions of this study are:

1. What are the current attitudes of middle school personnel toward HLM for EB students?
    a. Do middle school personnel understand the benefits of HL instruction for schooling?
    b. How do middle school personnel feel about English-Only policies and bilingualism?
    c. Would middle school personnel support school-level policies for HLM?
    d. Do middle school personnel feel like it is their job to support HLM?
2. Does having a New York State (NYS) certification affect attitudes toward HLM?
3. Does the length of time working in a school system affect attitudes toward HLM?
4. Does having received training and/or professional development specific to instructing EBs affect attitudes toward HLM?
5. What changes in attitude toward HLM have occurred since Capullo (2007)?

Methodology

Step One: Choose a Research Topic

The researcher learned about the topic of Heritage Languages (HL) and Heritage Language Maintenance (HLM) in the initial courses of the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) Master's Program at the State University of New York at Fredonia. As she continued to study the topic, the researcher developed an interest in it and the various bilingual program models established to maintain HLs. Once beginning EDU 660, a course in conducting educational research, the researcher was presented with the idea of replicating a study conducted by a former student and now program director of the TESOL program, Dr. Karen Lillie, formerly known as Karen Capullo. Dr. Lillie's study investigated the attitudes of middle school personnel towards HLM for Language Minority (LM) students in Chautauqua County. The researcher obtained a copy of Dr. Lillie's study and read through it. Upon reading the study, the researcher decided that the study was aligned with her interest in HLs and HLM, and decided to replicate the study.

Step Two: Conduct Literature Review

The researcher conducted a literature review on the topics relating to HLs and HLM. She collected readings for the literature review using databases accessed through the library at the State University of New York at Fredonia, books borrowed from the library, and books and research articles borrowed from professors and colleagues. The two main databases that the researcher utilized were Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and Academic Search Complete. When accessing articles through the databases, she was careful to ensure that the articles were of high quality, such as being peer-reviewed and reputable academic journals. The key terms used for searching for articles in the databases included, Heritage Language,

Heritage Language Maintenance, Language Minority, Bilingual Education, and Translanguaging. The various books she utilized for the literature review discussed topics of bilingual education, translanguaging, and EB students.

Step Three: Identify Participants

Participants. This study included participants from two local middle schools in Chautauqua County, New York. For the purpose of this study, the two schools were referred to as School District A and School District B. The participants were all employees of the schools and included administrators, teachers, aides, and paraprofessionals. Thus, for the purpose of this study, the employees are also referred to as middle school personnel. The personnel voluntarily completed the survey in an anonymous manner. The information obtained through the survey allowed them to remain unidentifiable and they did not have direct contact with the primary researcher. As a result, the researcher did not have access to the age or gender of each participant. The only item on the survey that related to age was that the participant checked a box marked, "Participant is over 18 years of age to participate in this survey." Instead, of identifying each participant's exact age, the survey asked how many years the participant has worked in their current career. Additionally, while gender did not need to be analyzed for this study and therefore was not asked of the participants, the schools are Equal Opportunity Employers and the researcher was able to deduce that the participants were of both genders.

Schools. The school districts utilized in this study were chosen for two reasons. The first reason was that one of the schools, School District A is a larger city school with a high enrollment of EBs. Although the second school, School District B, has a significantly smaller EB population, it was chosen for its close proximity to a Native American reservation, which is currently in the process of revitalizing its indigenous language. In this school, the students in

grades 7-12 are able to study Seneca, the indigenous language, in order to fulfill their foreign language requirement for graduation as mandated by New York State. Additionally, the indigenous language is promoted to all students in Pre-Kindergarten to grade 5. Furthermore, the use of School B would allow for a comparison to be made between personnel who interact and instruct a large population of EBs, as in School, versus those who work with a smaller population of EBs, as in School District B. It is important to note that the researcher had originally planned to include a third school district, School District C. Like School District A, School District C is a larger city school with a high enrollment of EBs. However, the researcher's request to distribute surveys in School District C's middle school was denied.

School District A is located in a city of approximately 12,328 residents in Chautauqua County (United States Census Bureau, 2015). School District A is also one of the larger districts in Chautauqua County and has four elementary schools, one middle school, and one high school. School District A's middle school services students in grades sixth through eighth, with approximately 435 students enrolled according to the New York State 2011-2012 Report Card. (NYSED.GOV, 2012). Of those 435 students enrolled, 59 students (14%) were considered to be EBs (NYSED.GOV, 2012). Additionally, a majority of the students were eligible to receive free or reduced lunch, with the New York State 2011-2012 Report Card listing 58% of students being eligible for free lunch and 9% for reduced lunch (NYSED.GOV, 2012).

School District B is located in a town of approximately 2,656 residents according to the 2010 U.S. Census. School District B is smaller in comparison to School District A, and has one elementary school, one middle school, and one high school, which are all located on the same campus. School District B's middle school services students in grades sixth through eighth, with approximately 242 students enrolled according to the New York State 2011-2012 Report Card

(NYSED.GOV, 2012). Additionally, of those 242 students zero students (0%) were considered to be EBs (NYSED.GOV, 2012). However, according to New York State 2011-2012 Report Card, the district serviced 4 students (0.004%) that were classified as EBs (NYSED.GOV, 2012). Lastly, according to the New York State 2011-2012 Report Card, 37% of students were eligible to receive free lunch and 9% of students were eligible to receive reduced lunch (NYSED.GOV, 2012).

Step Four: Submit Human Subject Review for Approval

The researcher completed the Human Subject Review (HSR) application and submitted the application to the course instructor, Mahoney. Mahoney then submitted the application to the HSR approval board. On June 15, 2015, the researcher received a letter (see Appendix A) granting approval from the HSR board. However, after approval had been granted, the researcher realized that the original closing date of the approval had to be altered from October 7, 2015 to December 7, 2015. The researcher contacted Mahoney who contacted the HSR approval board. Mahoney and the researcher received an email from the HSR approval board granting approval for the new dates on August 25, 2015.

Step Five: Select a Framework and Survey

The researcher selected a framework and survey for the study. As this study was a replication of a previous study, the researcher decided that the same survey would be utilized in order to maintain consistency. Unidentifiable data was collected in the form of a five-point Likert scale attitude survey (see Appendix C). Surveying all middle school personnel allowed the researcher to collect data from all individuals who may come in contact with EBs at the middle school level.

Furthermore, the original study, conducted by Dr. Karen Lillie, was completed in 2007. Since then, the population of EBs in the region of study has increased and more awareness has been brought to the proper education of those students. Thus, the replication of this study, including the redistribution of the survey would allow for the potential to have more data demonstrating the possible change in attitudes of the middle school personnel.

Survey questions were identical to those included in the survey used by Capullo in 2007. The majority of the survey questions (items 1-3, 5-7, 10, 12, and 15) originated from Sook Lee and Oxelson's (2006) study on teacher attitudes towards HLM. Additional questions were also taken from Byrnes, Kriger, and Manning's (1997) survey (item 14), Reeves' (2006) survey (item 8), and Shin and Krashen's (1996) survey (items 4, 9, 11, and 13). Questions were selected that aligned to the purpose and research questions of the study.

The survey items were grouped by category as shown in Table 4. The categories were also taken from Sook Lee and Oxelson's (2006) survey. The items regarding the benefits of home language for schooling were taken from Sook Lee and Oxelson's (2006) survey (items 1 and 6), and from Shin and Krashen's (1996) survey (item 11). The items to inform the research as to the participants' attitudes towards bilingualism were all taken from Sook Lee and Oxelson's (2006) survey (items 2, 7, and 12). To investigate the participants' attitudes towards the importance of English only, the researcher took survey items from Sook Lee and Oxelson's (2006) survey (item 3), Reeves' (2006) survey (item 8), and Shin and Krashen's (1996) survey (item 13). Items pertaining to school level policy were taken from Shin and Krashen's (1996) survey (items 4 and 9), and from Byrnes, Kriger, and Manning's (1997) survey (item 14). Lastly, to investigate the participants' attitudes towards the role of schools to HLM, the selected items were all taken from Sook Lee and Oxelson's (2006) survey.

Table 4

Items on Survey as Grouped by Theme

Category Theme	Item Numbers
Benefits of Home Language for Schooling	1, 6, 11
Attitudes toward Bilingualism	2, 7, 12
Importance of English-Only	3, 8, 13
School-level Policy	4, 9, 14
Role of School (to HLM)	5, 10, 15

Note. Adapted from *Attitudes of middle school personnel toward heritage language maintenance for language minority students* by K. Capullo, 2007, p. 63.

The survey also included items with the purpose of collecting information on the teachers' backgrounds. One item was included to identify how many years the educator has taught. The results from this item will allow the researcher to determine if the length of years a teacher has served influences his attitudes toward EBs and HLM, as García-Nevarez et al. (2005) found it to have an influence. The researcher also added an item to the original survey constructed by Capullo (2007) to collect data on whether or not the personnel have had training or professional development specific to EBs. Kibler and Roman (2013) and Menken and Solorza (2013) found that ESL specific training positively influenced a teacher's perspectives on the role of HL in instruction.

Additionally, it is important to note that some of the terminology used in the survey has been modified. The term that was modified involved changing "language minority students" to "emergent bilingual students". It is no longer favorable to label a student as a language minority student as the term suggested that the HL being spoken by the student was of lesser status to the language spoken by the wider community. As noted in the literature review, the term EB is favored because EB does not focus on the proposed deficit of the student, lacking the new language, English, but instead highlights the bilingual abilities of the student (García, 2010).

Attitude Survey. The actual items from the attitude survey being used to collect data for this research study are shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Attitude Survey

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral or N/A	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Proficiency in the home language helps students in their academic progress.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Children who maintain their home language have a better chance of succeeding in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Frequent use of the home language does not deter students from learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
4. If a student is not proficient in English, I believe the child should be in a classroom learning his/her first language as part of the school curriculum.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Schools should be invested in helping students maintain their home language.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Home language instruction is not beneficial for students' English language development.	1	2	3	4	5
7. It is important that children are highly literate and fluent in both English and their home language.	1	2	3	4	5
8. EB students should avoid using their home language while at school.	1	2	3	4	5
9. If a student is not proficient in English, I believe the child should be learning subject matter in his/her first language.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Ideally, schools should provide home language instruction.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I believe learning subject matter (content) in the first language helps EB students learn the content better when he/she studies it at school.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Teachers, parents, and schools need to work together to help students learn English and maintain their home language.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I believe that if a language minority student is in an English-Only class, he/she will learn English better.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I would support the government spending additional money to provide better programs for EB students	1	2	3	4	5
15. I do not talk with parents to strategize on how we can help their children learn English and maintain their home language.	1	2	3	4	5

Step Six: Establish Procedure for Data Collection

The first step in collecting data was to contact all principals of potential participating schools to discuss the proposed study, the attitude survey, and for the researcher to obtain permission. The researcher emailed each principal requesting permission and she attached a copy of the consent form and the survey for the principals' review. The principal of School A granted permission via email without any further approval being needed. The principal of School B replied through email informing the researcher that she must first seek approval from the superintendent of the school district. At that point, the researcher emailed the superintendent to request permission. The superintendent granted approval to the researcher shortly after and asked the researcher to contact the principal once again regarding the specifics of the survey distribution. However, as previously mentioned, the principal of School C denied the researcher's request stating that the personnel of her school were too overwhelmed with prior surveys distributed by other researchers.

Additionally, it is important to note that a miscommunication occurred while the researcher was in contact with the principal of School B. The principal misunderstood the researcher's plan for survey distribution and distributed the survey and consent form electronically through email to all of the school's personnel. When the researcher was made aware of the electronic distribution, she emailed the principal explaining the miscommunication, reiterating the originally planned steps for distribution, and requesting that the principal send a new email asking the personnel to wait for the hard copy version of the survey and consent form, which would be distributed in the following month. The principal agreed and gave the researcher permission, once again, to distribute the surveys using the established procedures.

Once approval was granted by the principals and superintendent, the researcher prepared the personnel consent forms and surveys for distribution. In order to ensure that the attitude survey remained anonymous and was completed voluntarily by the middle school personnel, several steps were taken. The first step was to include two letter-sized envelopes with every consent form and survey. The consent form would be signed by the participant and sealed in one envelope, while the survey was completed and sealed in the other envelope. Next, in order to identify the school from which the survey originated, the surveys for each school were printed on different colored paper. The surveys for School A were printed on green paper and the surveys for School B were printed on yellow paper. This would allow the results to be analyzed by school district. A small plastic bag was attached to each survey and consent form prior to distribution. Each bag contained a #2 pencil and a small gift of appreciation for each participant for taking the time to complete the survey.

The completion of the survey was completely voluntary. If the participant chose to complete the survey, they had to sign the consent form. Once the consent was completed, the participant was to seal it in one of the two provided envelopes. The participant was to label the envelope "consent form" so that it was not confused with the attitude survey. Afterwards, the participant filled out the attached attitude survey. Once the survey was complete, it was placed and sealed in the second envelope. The participant was to label this envelope "attitude survey".

Two large, manila envelopes were left with the secretary at each middle school. One manila envelope was labeled "consent forms" and the other "attitude surveys". The participant brought the completed consent form and survey to the office in the sealed envelopes and placed them into the respective manila envelopes. On the last day of the allotted time to complete the

survey, the secretary sealed both manila envelopes. The researcher collected the manila envelopes from the secretaries one week after the surveys were delivered to the schools.

Step Seven: Distribute Survey

The consent forms and surveys were delivered to the participating middle schools on October 2, 2015 at the end of the school day. The consent forms, surveys, and attached bags were either left with the secretary or placed in the personnel's school mailboxes. The two large, manila envelopes were left with the secretary.

The researcher contacted each secretary on October 7, 2015 to inquire on the amount of surveys that were returned. At that point, the researcher was informed that 21 participants had completed and returned the survey and consent form from School A, and 12 participants from School B had completed and returned the survey and consent form. Additionally, the secretaries of each school emailed all possible participants mid-way through the allotted time to complete the survey on October 7, 2015. The email served as a reminder about the deadline for the completion of the survey and thanked the possible participants for their time and consideration. The researcher hoped that the email would increase the number of surveys that were returned at the end of the allotted time.

At the end of the allotted time to complete the survey, on October 9, 2015, the secretary sealed the two large, manila envelopes. The researcher collected the manila envelopes from each secretary at the end of that school day.

Step Eight: Organize and Analyze Data

Once the surveys were returned, the researcher began organizing the data. The data had to be organized in a manner that was easy to read and interpret for the purpose of analysis. The Likert scale used for the survey ranged from strongly agree at 1 to strongly disagree at 5. To

begin, the data was organized by item to show positive or negative support for each. To do so, the pie graphs were created to represent the percent of participants for each response. Next, the data from the surveys was organized into tables for items by factor (benefits of HL for schooling, bilingualism, importance of English Only, school level policy, and role of school to HLM) and school district, items by factor and number of years taught, items by factor and New York State certification. Each item was also averaged overall to see the percentage for all participants in relation to the item.

In order to properly interpret the results in each table, it should be known that the lower the number the more the participants agreed with the statement. Conversely, higher numbers suggest that the participants disagreed with the statement. A score of 3 indicates a neutral response. For instance, an average of 3.53 for an item would be considered neutral. However, since that number is increasing towards 4, the response is less neutral and edging towards disagree. Additionally, items 6, 8, 13, and 15 were reverse coded. Hence, a higher average indicated more support. Thus, the responses to these items had to reverse coded in order to factor them correctly into the average for each factor.

Step Nine: Identify Limitations

One limitation of this study is the relatively small sample size. Since middle school personnel from only two area schools were surveyed regarding their attitudes toward HLM for EBs, the results were too specific to generalize for the attitudes of a larger group of middle school personnel toward HLM for EBs. It is important to note that middle school personnel in other states with varying laws and regulations may have vastly different attitudes.

A second limitation regards survey responses. As the survey was voluntary, it is possible that only those personnel with an interest or understanding of EBs were more likely to complete

and return the survey. Thus, if only those with an interest or understanding of EBs were to complete and return the survey, the results would be skewed to reflect their perceptions.

Results

Between the two districts, 123 surveys were distributed. However, as shown in Table 6, of the 123 distributed surveys, only 48 were returned. Twenty-six surveys were returned from School A and 22 surveys were returned from School B. Thus, the return rate was relatively low at 48%. This low return rate could be attributed to a few factors. First, the items in the survey pertain to what some may perceive as controversial topics and therefore the personnel may have felt uncomfortable expressing their opinions. Additionally, while the surveys were not distributed at the immediate start of the school year, they were distributed only about a month in. Thus, some of the potential participants may still have been busy with tasks associated with the beginning of the school year. Lastly, the surveys were only administered for one-week duration. While a reminder was sent mid-week, the potential participants may not have had substantial time to complete the survey.

Table 6

Return Rate of Surveys

School District	Surveys Distributed	Surveys Returned	Percent Returned
School A	73	26	36%
School B	50	22	44%
Total	123	48	39%

The Likert scale used for the survey ranged from strongly agree at 1 to strongly disagree at 5. To begin, the data was organized by item to show positive or negative support for each. To do so, the pie graphs were created to represent the percent of participants answering each response. Next, the data from the surveys was organized into tables for items by factor and

school district, items by factor and number of years taught, items by factor and New York State certification. Each item was also averaged overall to see the percentage for all participants in relation to the item.

In order to properly interpret the results in each table, it should be known that the lower the number the more the participants agreed with the statement. Conversely, higher numbers suggest that the participants disagreed with the statement. A score of 3 indicates a neutral response. For instance, an average of 3.53 for an item would be considered neutral. However, since that number is increasing towards 4, the response is less neutral and edging towards disagree. Additionally, items 6, 8, 13, and 15 were reverse coded. Hence, a higher average indicated more support. Thus, the responses to these items had to be reverse coded in order to factor them correctly into the average for each factor.

Overall Average of Results

Overall, the results show that middle school personnel have a neutral to positive attitude towards HLM for EB students. This neutral to positive attitude was evident in the surveys returned from both districts. More specifically, as shown in Table 7, the average results of each item ranged from more positive at 1.67 to more negative, but still relatively neutral at 3.29. When analyzing the results of items from specific categories, attitudes towards the benefits of home language for schooling ranged from 1.75 to 2.48, and attitudes towards bilingualism ranged from 1.67 to 2.15. Additionally, the average results of the items pertaining to the attitudes towards the importance of English-Only, ranged from 2.44 to 2.67, and the results of the attitudes towards school level policy ranged from 2.25 to 2.83. Therefore, it is evident that the average results of the attitudes for the four categories, benefits of home language for schooling, bilingualism, importance of English-Only, and school level policy, were for the most part

positive. Thus, both districts show agreement to the items probing these factors, with highest agreeability to the attitudes of home language for schooling and bilingualism. On the other hand, average results of the items pertaining to the role of the school to HLM, while still relatively positive, were more neutral, as they ranged from 2.5 to 3.29. However, overall, neither school district showed a disagreement or strong disagreement to any of the items or the categories they represented.

Table 7

Average Likert Scale Response per Item

Factor	Item	Average Response for Item
Benefits of HL for schooling	1	1.75
	6	2.48
	11	2.27
Bilingualism	2	2.15
	7	1.67
	12	1.77
Importance of English Only	3	2.67
	8	2.44
	13	2.58
School-level policy	4	2.71
	9	2.83
	14	2.25
Role of school to HLM	5	2.50
	10	2.81
	15	3.29

Percent of Responses per Category

When considering the percent of participants that responded to each category with either agree or strongly agree, bilingualism received the most support. Regarding the attitudes towards bilingualism, 80% of the participants responded to the corresponding items with either agree or strongly agree. Next, 69% of the participants either agreed or strongly agreed with the items

regarding the benefits of home language for schooling. Fifty-six percent agreed or strongly agreed with the importance of English-Only, while 53% agreed or strongly agreed with school-level policy. Lastly, the role of school to HLM received the least amount of support, with 42% of participants agreeing or strongly agreeing with the items questioning this category. However, it is important to note that items 6, 8, 13, and 15 were reverse coded. Thus, the researcher considered the responses of disagree or strongly disagree for these items. See Figure 1.

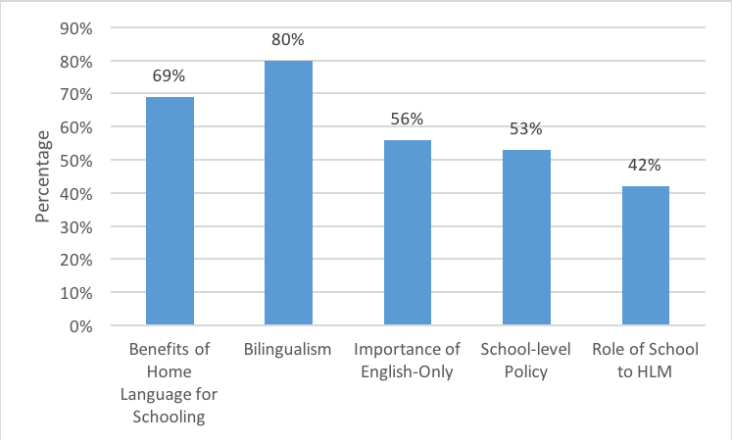

Figure 1. Support for the five factors in the attitude survey.

Attitudes Towards the Benefits of Home Language for Schooling

The results above show showed positive support for the benefits of home language-factor. The responses for each of the items ranged from 35% to 44% agree and 23% to 50% strongly agree. Overall, more than half of the participants, 69%, either agreed or strongly agreed with the statements questioning the benefits of home language for schooling. Thus, 69% of the participants recognized the benefits. Nevertheless, it should be noted that item 6 was reverse coded. Therefore, the percent of responses of disagree and strongly disagree were considered for this item, while the percent of responses of agree and strongly agree were considered for items 1 and 11.

Item 1 investigated the participants' attitudes regarding whether an EBs proficiency in the heritage language (HL) helps him or her with his or her academic progress. When analyzing the results, it was found that 85% of the participants agreed or strongly agreed that a student's proficiency in his or her HL age can benefit their academic progress. Moreover, 50% of all 48 participants strongly agreed with the benefits of the HL for academic progress. On the other hand, only 11% of the participants disagreed with the item and 0% of the participants strongly disagreed. These results are shown in Figure 2. Therefore, this data shows that middle school personnel understand and recognize that HL proficiency can help an EB student to progress academically.

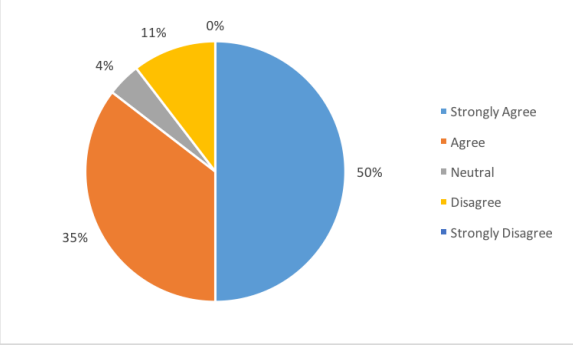

Figure 2. Item 1: Proficiency in the home language helps students in their academic progress.

Item 6 was intended to investigate the participants' attitudes towards HL instruction's benefits on English language development. Much like item 1, item 6 also showed positive support. However, this item was reverse coded and therefore participants showed support for using the HL in schooling by choosing disagree or strongly disagree. Yet, the reverse coding may have been the reason that 25% of the participants selected neutral for the item. Nevertheless, as seen in Figure 3, more than half, 56%, of the participants showed support for the factor by stating that they disagree or strongly disagree to the item. Only 9% of the participants demonstrated a negative response with 15% stating that they agree and only 4% stating that they

strongly agree with the item. Thus, it is evident that middle school personnel show support for the use of HL for schooling.

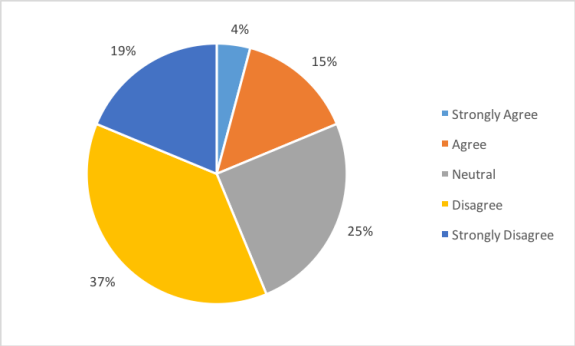

Figure 3. Item 6: Home language instruction is not beneficial for students' English language development.

The final item for this factor, item 11, probed the attitudes regarding learning subject matter in the first language in order to benefit the EB's progress when he or she learns and studies the subject matter in English while at school. The item exhibited similar results to the other two items for this factor. As Figure 4 indicates, of the 48 participants, 67% agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Conversely, only 14% of the participants disagreed or strongly disagreed with the item. Of that 14%, only 2%, that is 1 participant, strongly disagreed with the statement. Hence, approximately two-thirds of the participants recognize that when an EB learns content area knowledge in his or her HL, he or she can have more success when learning and studying the content area knowledge in English when at school.

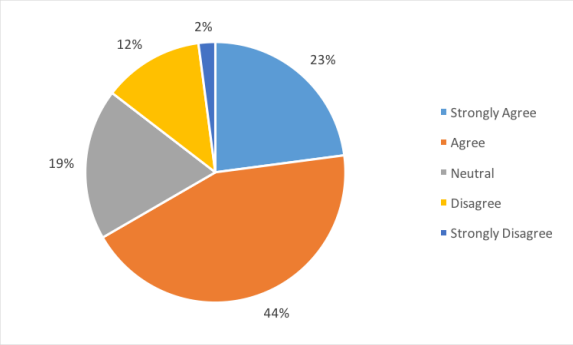

Figure 4. Item 11: I believe learning subject matter (content) in the first language helps ELLs learn the content better when he/she studies it at school.

Attitudes Towards Bilingualism

The factor of bilingualism received the most support of the five factors with four fifths of the participants demonstrating support for it. In other words, 80% of the 48 participants either agreed or strongly agreed to the items probing this factor. Regarding the specific items, the results ranged from 33% to 42% agree and 33% to 54% strongly agree. Thus, the majority of the participants understood and acknowledged the benefits of bilingualism for EB students.

Item 2 examined the attitudes towards the effects of HLM on an EB's future. For this item, approximately two-thirds of the participants, 66%, stated they agreed or strongly agreed, as shown in Figure 5. On the other hand, only 13% of participants disagreed or strongly disagreed to the statement. Moreover, it is important to note that only 1 participant, 2%, actually disagreed with the item. Therefore, it is evident that the majority of the participants support the item and understand that EBs, who are able to maintain their proficiency in their HL and become bilingual, tend to have more opportunities for success in the future. Thus, this item reinforces the importance of bilingualism.

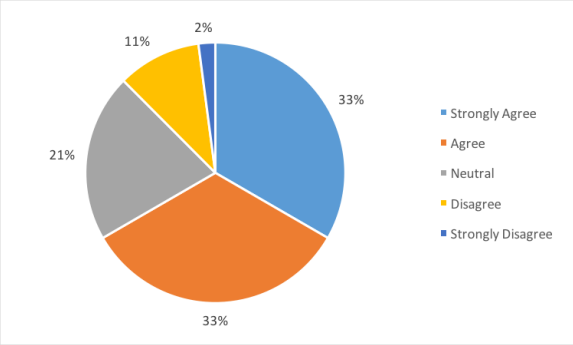

Figure 5. Item 2: Children who maintain their home language have a better chance of succeeding in the future.

An overwhelming majority of the participants showed support for item 7 of the survey. Item 7, explored the attitudes of the participants regarding the importance of literacy and fluency in the HL and in English. As Figure 6 illustrates, the results showed that 88% either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Conversely, only 6% stated that they disagree or strongly disagree with it. Of those 6% of participants, 4%, 2 individuals, disagreed and 2%, 1 individual, strongly disagreed. Similarly, very few participants demonstrated a neutral attitude with only 6%, 3 participants, selecting this response. Thus, it is quite evident that middle school personnel acknowledge the importance of being bilingual and possessing a high rate of literacy and fluency in both the HL and the new language.

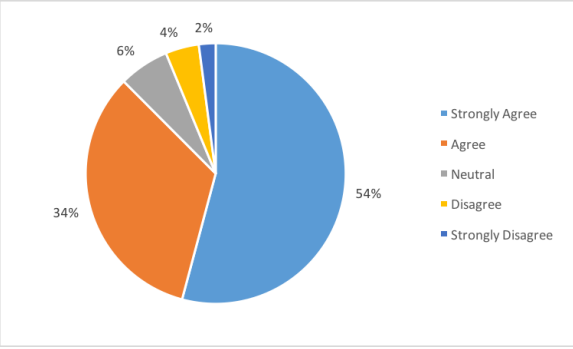

Figure 6. Item 7: It is important that children are highly literate and fluent in both English and their home language.

Item 12 pertained to the benefits received when parents and teachers work together to help students become bilingual and maintain their HL. When responding to item 12, the participants demonstrated very similar attitudes as when responding to item 7. Of the 48 participants, 86% showed support for item 12 by either agreeing or strongly agreeing. Only 6% disagreed with the statement and it is important to note that no one strongly disagreed. Additionally, only a small number of participants, 8%, had a neutral response to the item. This data is shown in Figure 7. As a result of the data for item 12, it is apparent that middle school personnel support the collaboration between educators and parents to maintain an EB's HL proficiency while simultaneously growing his or her English language proficiency.

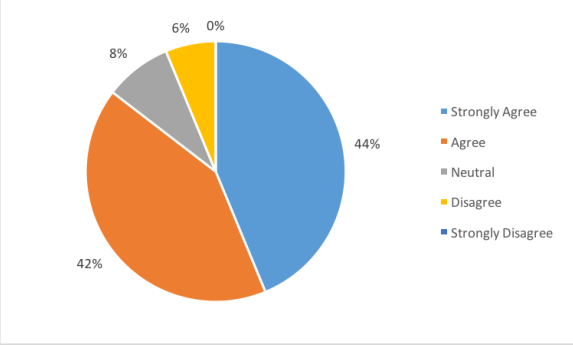

Figure 7. Item 12: Teachers, parents, and schools need to work together to help students learn English and maintain their home language.

Attitudes towards the Importance of English Only

When analyzing the results of the items questioning this factor, it is important to note that there was hope for more support for HLM than for English Only policies. Two of the three items, item 8 and item 13, were reverse coded and needed more disagreement in order to demonstrate support for HLM. Thus, when considering those that agreed or strongly agreed to item 3 with those that disagreed or strongly disagreed to items 8 and 13, it was demonstrated that a little more than half, 56%, of participants support HLM instead of English Only policies.

Item 3 on the survey investigated the attitudes of the middle school personnel toward the concept that an EB's frequent use of his or her HL does not deter his or her acquisition of English. Of all of the participants, 54% either agreed or strongly agreed with item 3, as shown in Figure 8. However, on the other hand, 29% of the participants disagreed or strongly disagreed with the item, while 17% remained neutral. Therefore, just a little over half of the participants recognize that an EB's frequent use of his or her HL will not deter him or her from learning English. Thus, while most middle school personnel support a student's use of the HL while acquiring English, it was not the overwhelming majority showing support for the item.

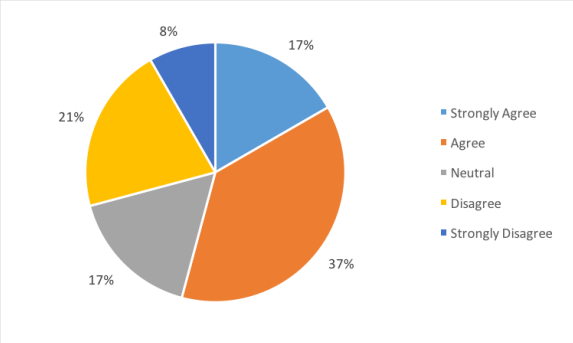

Figure 8. Item 3: Frequent use of the home language does not deter students from learning English.

Item 8 was one of the two items for this factor that needed responses of disagree or strongly disagree in order to demonstrate support for HLM instead of support for English Only policies. Item 8 probed the attitudes pertaining to an EBs use of his or her HL while at school. When analyzing the results from this item, 62% of participants disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Conversely, 21% of those surveyed either agreed or strongly agreed, while 17% remained neutral. The results for this item are demonstrated in Figure 9. Therefore, it is evident that the majority of middle school personnel support EBs' use of their HL while at school instead of instituting English Only policies, which would prohibit their use of the HLs.

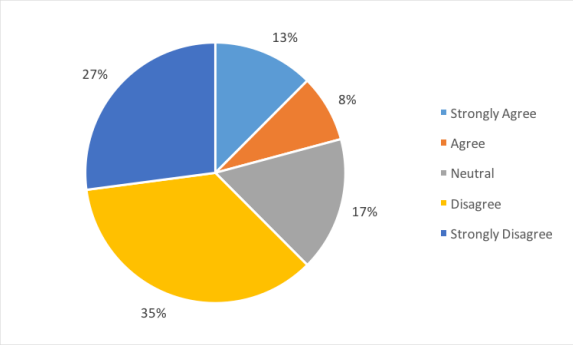

Figure 9. Item 8: English Language Learners (ELLs) should avoid using their home language while at school.

Item 13 was the final item for this factor and also required responses of disagree or strongly disagree in order to demonstrate support for HLM over English Only policies. Specifically, item 13 investigated the attitudes towards the placement of an EB student in an English-Only classroom. As illustrated in Figure 10, of the 48 participants, 52% disagreed or strongly disagreed. On the other hand, 27% agreed to the statement, but no one strongly agreed to the statement. Additionally, 21% of the participants had a neutral response. Therefore, most of those surveyed understood that English Only classrooms are not the best manner for instructing EB students.

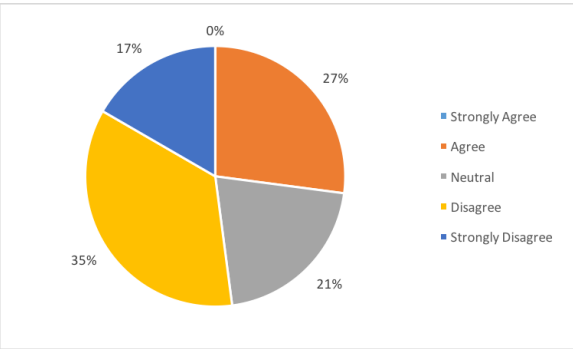

Figure 10. Item 13: I believe that if a language minority student is in an English-Only class, he/she will learn English better.

Attitudes Towards School Level Policy

Overall, just over half, 53%, of the participants showed support for school level policies for HLM for EB students, by either agreeing or strongly agreeing to the items. Of the five factors, school level policy received the second least amount of support. Regarding the specific items, the results ranged from 31% to 35% agree and 8% to 31% strongly agree.

Item 4 on the survey questioned the middle school personnel's attitudes towards whether an EB student, who is not proficient in English, should be learning his or her HL as part of the school curriculum. As shown in Figure 11, of the 48 participants, 56% showed support for this statement by either agreeing or strongly agreeing. However, 38% of the participants disagreed or strongly disagreed to the statement and 6% remained neutral. Thus, a little more than half of those surveyed understand and recognize the benefits of policies for HL instruction.

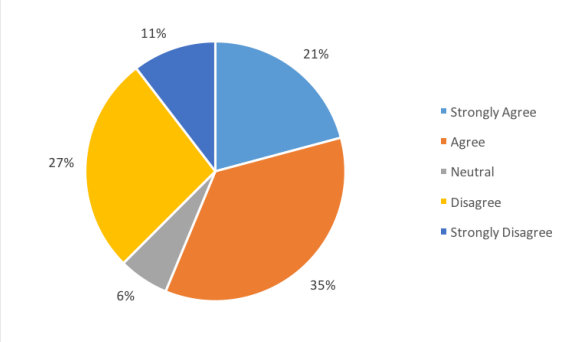

Figure 11. Item 4: If a student is not proficient in English, I believe the child should be in a classroom learning his/her first language as part of the school curriculum.

Item 9 received the least amount of support out of the three items probing school level policy. This item investigated the attitudes regarding if an EB should be learning subject matter in his or her first language if he or she is not proficient in English. Only 42% of the middle school personnel surveyed agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Conversely, 31% disagreed or strongly disagreed and 27% had a neutral response. These results are shown in

Figure 12. Thus, the participants still show more agreement that disagreement towards the item, but the majority did not demonstrate support for content area instruction in the HL for EB students.

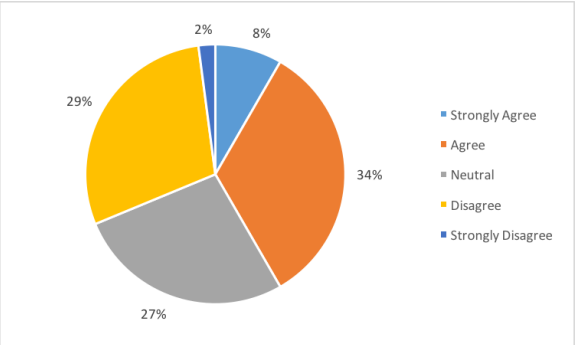

Figure 12. Item 9: If a student is not proficient in English, I believe the child should be learning subject matter in his/her first language.

Item 14, the final item regarding this factor, was intended to investigate the amount of support for government funding for programs for the education of EBs. Of the three items pertaining to school level policy, this item received the most support. As illustrated by Figure 13, 62% of the participants agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. On the other hand, 15% disagreed while only 2%, 1 participant, strongly disagreed with the item. 21% of the participants remained neutral. Consequently, it was determined that the majority of middle school personnel would support the government spending money to provide better programs for EB students.

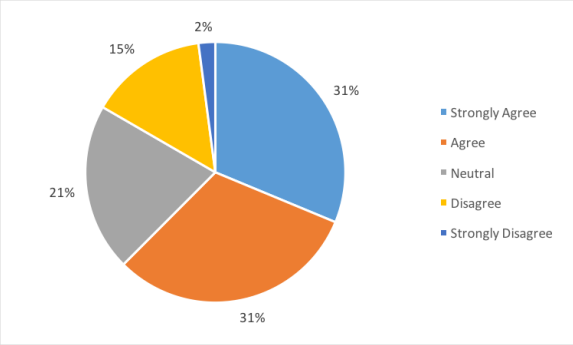

Figure 13. Item 14: I would support the government spending additional money to provide better programs for ELLs.

Attitudes Towards the Role of Schools to Heritage Language Maintenance

Of the five factors, the factor regarding attitudes towards the role of schools to HLM received the least amount of support. Of the 48 participants, 42% showed support for this factor by agreeing or strongly agreeing to the items. The responses to each item ranged from 10% to 38% agree and 8% to 21% strongly agree. However, it should be noted that item 15 was reverse coded. Therefore, when determining the averages, the percent of responses marked disagree and strongly disagree were considered for item 15, while the percent of responses marked agree and strongly agree were considered for items 5 and 10.

Item 5 probed the attitudes towards schools' investments in helping EB to maintain their HLs. Of the three items pertaining to this factor, item 5 received the most support with 59% of the participants indicating that they agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Nevertheless, 25% of participants disagreed or strongly disagreed and 17% were neutral. These results are illustrated in Figure 14. Therefore, it can be concluded that most of the participants believe that schools should be invested in helping EB students to maintain their HLs.

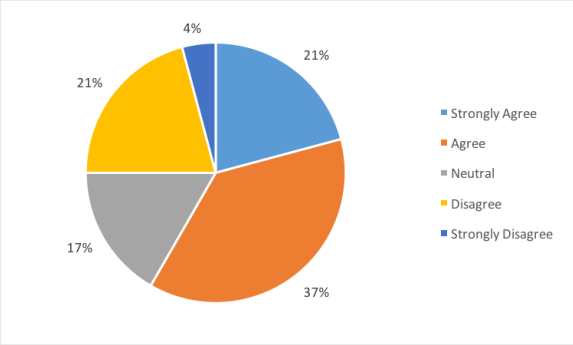

Figure 14. Item 5: Schools should be invested in helping students maintain their home language.

Item 10 on the survey investigated the attitudes of middle school personnel towards whether schools should provide HL instruction. When responding to this item, just under half, 48%, of the participants showed support for the statement, as shown in Figure 15. Then, 35% showed disagreement or strong disagreement, while 17% of participants remained neutral. Thus, it is evident that while the majority of those surveyed did not show direct support, more showed agreement than disagreement to the statement that schools should provide HL instruction.

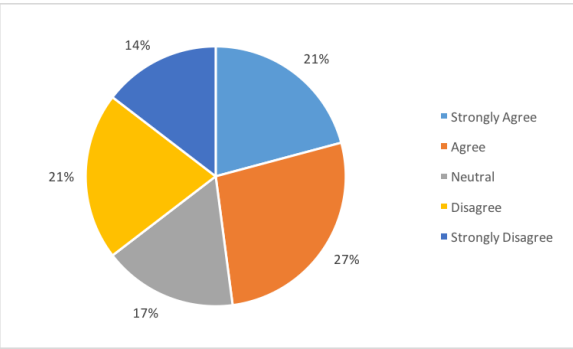

Figure 15. Item 10: Ideally, schools should provide home language instruction.

The final item on the survey and the final item pertaining to this factor was item 15. Item 15 investigated whether or not middle school personnel talk with parents of EB students to strategize how to help the students learn English while maintaining their HLs. This item was reverse coded and therefore support was shown by the participants selecting either disagree or

strongly disagree. However, of all the items included in the survey, item 15 received the least amount of support. As shown in Figure 16, only 19% of participants selected disagree or strongly disagree, while 48% selected agree or strongly agree. Additionally, this item had the highest number of neutral responses with 33% of the participants stating a neutral response. Therefore, it was evident that most middle school personnel do not communicate with parents to strategize on how to help EBs acquire English while simultaneously maintaining their HLs.

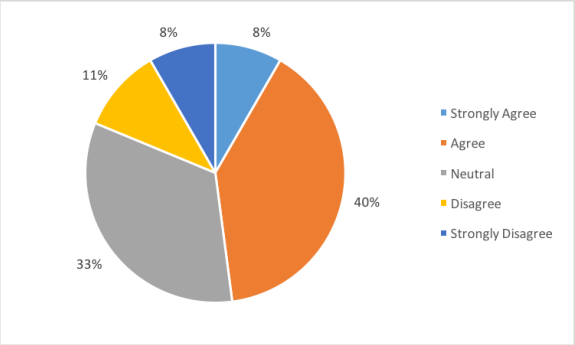

Figure 16. Item 15: I do not talk with parents to strategize on how we can help their children learn English and maintain their home language.

Teacher Certification

The responses from participants with a teacher certification and those from participants without a teacher certification were not much different. Nevertheless, the participants with a teaching certification did show slightly more support for each item than did those without a teaching certification. More specifically, on average, for each item, the participants possessing a teaching certification showed an average of .45 (about a half of a point) more agreements than those without the certification. The only item on the survey in which there was no different in agreement was item 7. Both subgroups of participants had an agreement of 1.67 for the statement in item 7.

The attitudes of those with a certification to those without a certification can also be compared by the five factors. In regards to attitudes towards the benefits of the HL for instruction, those participants with a teaching certification are slightly more agreeable at 2.04. Those without a teaching certification are still in agreement, but slightly more neutral at 2.56. For attitudes towards bilingualism, those with a teaching certification are again more agreeable at 1.81. Those without a teaching certification were similar and still in agreement at 2.02. When regarding the importance of English only, those with a teaching certification were in agreement, but edging toward neutral at 2.42. However, those without a teaching certification were neutral at 3.00. For attitudes towards school level policy, those with a teaching certification were in agreement, but again edging toward neutral at 2.52. Those without a teaching certification were also edging towards neutral at 2.83. Lastly, for attitudes toward the role of schools in HLM, those with a teaching certification were in agreement but edging towards neutral at 2.71. However, those without a teaching certification were neutral at 3.33.

Number of Years in the Field of Education

Overall, there was not a significant difference between the attitudes of the middle school personnel when considering the years that they have worked in the field of education. The researcher analyzed the average response for each item and factor for those working five years or less, those working between five and 15 years, and for those working 15 years or more. When analyzing all five factors, it became evident that while the average responses showed agreement, those with more years in the field of education tended to have a more neutral response.

In regards to attitudes towards the benefits of the HL for schooling, there is a slight degree of difference with the average response ranging from 1.97 to 2.50. Those that had worked for five years or less averaged 1.97. Those that had worked between five and 15 years

averaged at 2.07. Lastly, those that had worked 15 years or more averaged a response of 2.50. Based on these results, those who have worked 15 years or more are still in agreement, but have a slightly more neutral response.

Next, in regards to the attitudes towards bilingualism there, again, is only a slight difference in the average response. Those that have worked in the field for five years or less averaged a response of strong agreement at 1.73. Those that had worked between five and 15 years were also in strong agreement at 1.91. Lastly, those that had worked in the field for 15 years or more averaged a response of 1.96. Thus, it appeared that those with more experience were still in strong agreement, but continually edged more towards agreement.

Then, when considering the attitudes towards English Only policy, there again was not a large difference. Those that had worked in the field for five years or less were in agreement at 2.33. Those that had worked in the field between five and 15 years were in agreement, but edging towards neutral at 2.45. Lastly, those that had worked in the field for 15 years or more were, again, in agreement, but edging even more toward neutral at 2.92. Therefore, it is evident that personnel at all points in their career agree that HLM is more important than English Only policies, but those with more experience were slightly more neutral.

In regards to school wide policy for EBs, all subgroups were in agreement with only a slight difference between each. Those that had worked 5 years or less were in agreement at 2.24. Those that had worked five to 15 years were in agreement but edging more towards neutral at 2.52. Lastly, those that had worked 15 years or more were in agreement, but edging even more towards neutral at 2.88. Thus, again demonstrating the trend that those having worked more years in the field are still in agreement, but slightly more neutral.

Lastly, there was no large difference between the subgroups in regards to the role of schools in HLM. Those that had worked in the field for five years or less were in agreement, but edging towards neutral at 2.48. Those that had worked between five and 15 years were also in agreement, but edging more towards neutral at 2.94. Lastly, those that had worked 15 years or more had a neutral response at 3.02. Therefore, it is evident that those that had worked in the field for a greater amount of time had a more neutral attitude towards the role of schools in HLM.

Emergent Bilingual Specific Training

Overall, there was not a significant difference in attitudes between those who have received training or professional development specifically on the education of EBs and those who have not received training or professional development specifically on the education of EBs. However, those who have received training or professional development showed slightly more agreement to each factor. Nevertheless, those without training still showed an average agreeable or neutral response.

In regards to the benefits of HL for schooling, both subgroups showed support. Those who have received training on average showed strong agreement at 1.80. Those without training showed agreement at 2.63. When considering attitudes towards bilingualism, both subgroups also demonstrated support. Those who have received training showed strong agreement at 1.8, while those who have not received training showed agreement at 2.27. Next, in regards to the importance of English Only, those who have received training agreed at 2.30, while those without training also agreed, but at an average of 2.90. Thus, both subgroups show agreement, but those who have not received training were slightly more neutral. Regarding attitudes towards school level policy for EBs, those who have received training showed slightly more

agreement than those who have not received training. Those who have received training showed an average agreement at 2.64. Those who have not received training showed an average agreement that was edging more towards neutral at 2.97. Lastly, one of the greatest differences in attitudes between those who have received training and those who have not was in regards to the role of schools in HLM. Those who have had training specific to EBs showed agreement at 2.53, while those who had not had training were neutral at 3.30. Thus, the data suggests that middle school personnel who have received training specific to EBs demonstrate slightly more support towards the five factors than those who have not received training.

Discussion

The results of this study are similar to the results of other studies regarding the attitudes of individuals in education towards Heritage Language Maintenance (HLM) for Emergent Bilingual (EB) students. Furthermore, the results are similar those found in the original study conducted by Capullo (2007). Overall, the data suggests that most middle school personnel have positive attitudes towards HLM for EB students. Moreover, the middle school personnel understand the importance of HLM for schooling, support bilingualism and HL use in the classroom instead of English Only policies, support school level policy changes for EB students, and understand their role in students' HLM.

Understanding the Benefits of HL for Schooling and the Educator's Role

The results of the study showed that the majority of middle school personnel, more than two-thirds of those surveyed, understood the benefits of an EB's HL and maintenance in his or her schooling. The individuals' support was evident as 69% of those surveyed agreed or strongly agreed with items probing this factor. Even more, very few participants disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statements. More specifically, an overwhelming 85% acknowledged that proficiency in the HL helps students in their academic progress. Likewise, 56% understood that HL instruction does indeed benefit an EB's English language development. Additionally, 67% believed that when a student learns content area knowledge in his or her first language he or she can more readily learn and study the information in English. This final average was indicated through item 11 on the survey which was taken from Shin and Krashen's (1996) study. That study had nearly an identical average of participants agreeing with the item. Thus, the results relating to this factor show that the middle school personnel in Chautauqua County recognize that a student can use his or her HL to transfer content knowledge to the new language. This is

relative and important as middle school content is academically and cognitively demanding. Thus, the data demonstrates that middle school support HLM and understand its benefits for schooling. Furthermore, the results suggest that the middle school personnel of Chautauqua County may support programs and curriculums that use a student's HL for instruction.

On the other hand, while the participants showed a strong understanding of the benefits of HLM for schooling, their understanding of their role in HLM was not as strong. Less than half, or 42%, of the participants understood the role of schools to HLM. While 58% of those surveyed believed that schools should invest in helping students maintain their HL and 48% thought that schools should provide HL instruction, only 19% stated that they communicate and strategize with parents to support HLM. Thus, these results demonstrate that the personnel may be supportive of schools providing programs and curriculums for HLM, as they understand its benefits, but that it should be someone else's responsibility to directly support and facilitate HLM. This is similar to results from Sook Lee and Oxelson's (2006) study in which they interviewed educators who believed that it was not their job to help the EB students. Likewise, Reeves (2006) found that 77% of educators thought that EBs should not be in the general education classroom until they had full English proficiency. Again, this supports the idea that educators do not understand their crucial role in the education of all EB students.

Support for Bilingualism and Bilingual Education

The results of this study demonstrated that the middle school personnel surveyed had the greatest amount of support for bilingualism. Four-fifths or 80% of the individuals surveyed agreed or strongly agreed with the items. Such a large agreement shows that the participants support bilingualism in schools and have an understanding of the benefits of being bilingual. More specifically, 66% of those surveyed recognized that individuals who maintain their HL

have greater academic success. Another overwhelming result was that 88% of the participants understood that it is important for individuals to have high literacy and fluency rates in both languages. Moreover, 86% of the participants thought that educators and parents should work together to ensure that students become bilingual by maintaining their HL and acquiring English. Such overwhelming and positive support demonstrates that the personnel encourage bilingualism and may support changes to increase the number of bilingual education programs in the area.

Similarly, a majority of the participants, 56%, demonstrated that they are supportive of practices that encourage HLM rather than of those that are in accordance with English Only policies. For instance, 54% of those surveyed agreed that an EB's frequent use of his or her HL will not deter him or her from acquiring English. Additionally, 62% disagreed with the statement that EBs should avoid using their HL while at school demonstrating that they support the students' use of all of their languages. These results in particular are similar to those from Reeves' (2006) study where it was found that 58.4% of the participants should not be denied HL use while in school. Lastly, the current study found 52% of the participants demonstrated that they understood that an English Only classroom setting is not the best manner for a student to learn and acquire English. Such results, paired with the participants overwhelming support for bilingualism, suggest that the middle school personnel of Chautauqua County would be more likely to support bilingual education and programs for HLM instead of supporting English Only education programs. This is very important as bilingual and HLM programs have shown to have more positive results and benefits for EB students. These findings could greatly affect the educational policy decisions in the area of bilingual and HLM programming.

Support for School Level Policy for HLM

Not only can the personnel's support for bilingual education be inferred from their overwhelming support of bilingualism and their understanding of the importance of HLM over English Only programs, but it can also be inferred from their support for school level policy changes for HLM. Of the individuals surveyed, just over half, 53% showed support for school level policy for HLM. More specifically, 56% supported the statement that EB students should learn their HL as a part of the school's curriculum and 42% believed that the students should also be learning the subject matter in their HL. Additionally, almost two-thirds, or 62%, of the participants stated that they would support the government spending money to provide better programs for EBs. This final statistic is in contrast to results found in Byrnes, Kiger, and Manning's (1997) study, in which this item originated. Byrnes, Kiger, and Manning (1997) found that people are weary of the funding needed to institute bilingual education program. However, the fact that almost two-thirds of the participants in this study showed support for government funding was encouraging. Thus, the results reveal that middle school personnel in Chautauqua County would likely support policy changes, funding, and improvements for the education of EBs. Again, these findings could greatly impact the educational policy decisions made on the topic of Bilingual Education and HLM.

Impact of Possessing a Teaching Certification on Attitudes towards HLM

Overall, the results demonstrated that there was not a significant difference in attitudes between those who possessed a New York State (NYS) teaching certification and those who did not. On average, the participants possessing a NYS teaching certification showed only .45 more agreement than those who did not possess a NYS teaching certification. Moreover, the participants with a certification showed agreement to most of the items, while those without a

certification showed an agreement to most, but not all of the items and their average response for each item were slightly more neutral. These results can be compared to those from other studies conducted by Karathanos (2009a), Karathanos (2009b), Menken and Solorza (2013) and Sook Lee and Oxelson (2006), who found that teachers with a certification related to EBs showed more support for HLM. However, it is important to note, that these may have had stronger results as these studies focused more on the possession of a certification related to the education of EBs as compared to those without a certification related to EBs. Certification type was not asked in this survey and therefore it cannot be directly compared. Nevertheless, such results suggest that middle school personnel who possess a teaching certification may be more supportive of HLM for EB than those who do not possess a teaching certification.

Impact of Years Working in Education on Attitudes towards HLM

Similarly, there was not a significant difference in the attitudes of the middle school personnel in relation to the number of years that they have been working in the field of education. However, when analyzing the results by those who have worked five years or less, between five and 15 years, and 15 years or more, it was discovered that while the average responses to each item showed agreement, those with more years in the field of education tended to have a more neutral response. Therefore, while the difference was not significant, it is still similar to García-Nevarez's (2005) study in which it was discovered that the more years an educator had been teaching the less support they tended to have for HLM. Additionally, Walker et al. (2004) found similar results in that the participants in the study with fewer years of experience as an educator showed more positivity when working with EB students. This evidence suggests that younger teachers may be more supportive of HLM for EB students.

Impact of Training or Professional Development on the Attitudes Towards HLM

Overall, there was not a significant difference in the amount of support between participants who have received training or professional development specific to the education of EBs and those who have not. However, those who have received training or professional development showed slightly more agreement to each factor, while those without training still showed an average agreeable or neutral response. The slight difference between the two subgroups does relate to the findings of studies conducted by Kibler and Roman (2013) and Menken and Solorza (2013). While both studies findings were more significant, the comparison is still relevant. Kibler and Roman (2013) found that EB specific training encouraged educators to incorporate more HLM practice into their teaching and Menken and Solorza (2013) found that those with EB specific training were more supportive of maintaining their bilingual curriculums. Thus, the data suggests that providing training to middle school personnel regarding the education of EBs may encourage those individuals to show slightly more support towards HLM for EBs.

Changes in Attitude Since Capullo's Study in 2007

While the results of this study were relatively similar to the results found by Capullo (2007), it was encouraging that the overall amount of support has increased. For instance, Capullo (2007) found that 61% of those surveyed understood the benefits of HL for schooling, while the results of this survey showed that that number has increased 8% with 69% of the participants showing support and understanding. Additionally, the results of Capullo's (2007) study showed that 70% of the participants supported bilingualism, while the results from this study showed a 10% increase for the factor, with now 80% of those surveyed showing support. In 2007, Capullo also found that a little less than half, or 44%, of the participants believed there

should not be English only policies in effect. Again, the current results show an increase in the support for this factor by 12%, to 56% support. Furthermore, Capullo (2007) found that just under half, 49% showed support for school level policy, but that number has also increased, now by 4%, to 53% of participants showing support. Lastly, Capullo (2007) found that only 26% of those surveyed understood the role of schools to HLM. However, this factor had the greatest increase in support, of 16% from 2007, as the current study found that 42% of those surveyed showed an understanding in the role of schools to HLM. Thus, these results suggest that as time passes middle school personnel in Chautauqua County are gaining a greater understanding and acceptance for the proper education of EB students.

Limitations

One limitation of this study is the relatively small sample size. Since middle school personnel from only two area schools were surveyed regarding their attitudes toward HLM for EBs, the results were too specific to generalize for the attitudes of all middle school personnel toward HLM for EBs. Additionally, the attitudes of the middle school personnel surveyed may be influenced by the laws and regulations in place in the state of New York. Thus, it is important to note that middle school personnel in other states with varying laws and regulations may have vastly different attitudes.

A second limitation regards those who submitted survey responses. As the survey was voluntary, it is possible that only those personnel with an interest or understanding of EBs were more likely to complete and return the survey. Thus, if only those with an interest or understanding of EBs were to complete and return the survey, the results would be skewed to reflect their perceptions.

Additionally, since this study was only conducted with personnel at the middle school level, it fails to recognize the attitudes and perceptions of the elementary and high school personnel. If the elementary and high school personnel of the district were to be surveyed, the researcher may have a more complete view of how much support is offered for HLM district wide. Thus, in the future, research conducted with the other personnel in the district may be beneficial.

Lastly, there are limitations of this study when comparing the results to the results of the study conducted by Capullo in 2007. Capullo's (2007) study included participants from three middle schools in Chautauqua County. However, this study was not granted permission to conduct research in all three schools, and therefore was only able to include participants from two of the schools. Thus, due to the omission of the third school, the results may vary from those found by Capullo (2007), and may not be able to be compared directly.

Implications for the Future

Based upon the results of this study, and more importantly the responses received, it appears evident that the middle school personnel of Chautauqua County, New York would welcome and support practices intended for HLM for EB students. Furthermore, it appears that they would support bilingual education as they understand the importance of bilingualism and the benefits of using a child's HL for all aspects of schooling. This perspective is extremely important as demanding regulations such as those from No Child Left Behind (NCLB), the Common Core Curriculum, and standardized testing are fully in effect in area school districts may threaten bilingual and HLM programs. As a result of these demanding regulations, many are concerned with the quality of education of EB students and how to close the achievement gap between them and their English speaking peers.

Bilingual education is very beneficial for all students and promotes higher level of achievements in students. The participants recognized this fact and appeared supportive of implementing bilingual programs. Two Way Bilingual Instruction (TWBI) programs have been known to be a highly effective way to increase academic success in the core area knowledge domains, but also to be highly effective in helping students to maintain their HL. Thus, the researcher would suggest TWBI as a possible answer to promoting success and closing the achievement gap between EB and their peers in Chautauqua County.

However, many districts are at a standstill with the implementation of bilingual education due to the lack of properly trained and certified teachers. Thus, until more bilingual education teachers are available, it is recommended that the school districts use alternative methods to increase and promote the use of students' HL in the school setting. Schools can achieve this through translanguaging practices, hosting language maintenance programs after school or on weekends, and by hiring bilingual classroom aides. Additionally, since the study showed that personnel who had received training showed slightly more support for HLM, it is suggested that schools invest in providing training specific to EBs for all of its personnel. Such training could focus on the benefits of HLM and bilingual education, as well as offer effective practices for the education of EBs.

As time progresses, middle school personnel appear to be showing increasing support towards HLM and bilingualism. If the school personnel voice their opinions and advocate for meaningful education for EB students, then more individuals will likely increase their individual support. As more individuals increase their support, the more awareness will be brought to the issue. Thus, the programs for the education of EBs will improve and the achievement gap will

begin to diminish. It is the responsibility of all individuals in the field of education to continue the current trend of advocacy of bilingual education and HLM programs for EBs.

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Appendix A

Human Subject Review Approval Letter

FREDONIA
STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK

15 June 2015

Greta Tomaschke
c/o Kate Mahoney, Ph.D.
Language, Learning and Leadership
College of Education
The State University of New York at Fredonia

Re: Greta Tomaschke—A Study Revisited: Attitudes of Middle School Personnel Toward Heritage Language Maintenance for Emergent Bilingual Students

Your research project using human subjects has been determined Category 1, Exempt, under the United States Department of Health and Human Services Code of Federal Regulations Title 45 Public Welfare, Part 46 Protection of Human Subjects, 46.101, Subpart A (b) (1) and/or (2). This document is your approval and your study titled "A Study Revisited: Attitudes of Middle School Personnel Toward Heritage Language Maintenance for Emergent Bilingual Students" may proceed as described. **Your approval is valid from September 7, 2015 through October 7, 2015.**

Thank you for keeping the high standards relating to research and the protection of human subjects under the auspices of the State University of New York at Fredonia.

Sincerely,

Judith M. Horowitz, Ph.D.
Associate Provost, Graduate Studies, Sponsored Programs
and Faculty Development
Human Subjects Administrator

Appendix B

Participant Consent Form

To Whom It May Concern:
The attached survey is part of a graduate student's **experimental research study.** The **purpose** of this survey is to look into gaining insight on local middle school teachers' and personnel's honest attitudes toward Heritage Language Maintenance of English Language Leaners. The goal of the researcher is to add to current research literature on this topic and to see if and how attitudes have changed since Capullo conducted the study in 2007.

To better assist your understanding of Heritage Language Maintenance, some definitions have been included here:
• English Language Learner – Individuals who speak a language other than English, such as a Heritage Language, and are in the process of acquiring English.
• Heritage Language – A language that is historically associated with the ethnic heritage of minority populations. This label is used to refer to immigrant, refugee, and indigenous languages.
• Heritage Language Maintenance – the preservation of a language in the number and distribution of its speakers and its continued use in specific domains in order to maintain the language's stability.
• Home Language – The language that is taught first to the child and is most often spoken in the child's home during childhood.

This survey is **voluntary** and **confidential**. If you participate, you as a participant will remain **unidentifiable.** You have a right to withdraw from completing this survey at any point during the study, **without penalty**. In order to ensure confidentiality, no identifiable information is required on the one-page survey. Furthermore, upon completion of the study, the surveys that the researcher collects will be shredded.

The survey is a **fifteen question,** five-point Likert scale (see attached). This should only take about five to ten minutes. The surveys were placed in your mailbox on Monday afternoon, and will be collected from the main office **this Friday,** at the end of the school day (one week duration).

If you choose to complete this survey, please follow these steps:

1. Sign and date your consent at the bottom of this page (in ink).
2. Place this signed form into one of the attached letter-sized envelopes and seal the envelope shut.
3. Please label this envelope "Consent form".
4. Next, fill out the attached fifteen-question survey (in ink) to the best of your ability. ***Do not put your name on the attitude survey.*** Place the completed survey into the other attached letter-sized envelope and seal that envelope.
5. Bring both letter-sized sealed envelopes to the main office. When in the main office, the head secretary has two large manila envelopes marked "Consent forms" and "Attitude surveys".
6. Place your two sealed envelopes into the respective manila envelopes. The head secretary will seal these manila envelopes at the end of this week, at the end of the school day. The researcher will collect the manila envelopes from the head secretary also at the end of the school day.

Thank you in advance for your time.

I am signing this consent form to participate in the experimental research study on middle school personnel attitude toward heritage language maintenance. I have read this consent form. I understand that participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without penalty.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Contact information for any questions:

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Appendix C

Attitude Survey

Please answer yes or no to the following:

Participant understands that this survey is voluntary and anonymous, and that the participant can stop taking this survey at any time during this study without penalty.	YES	NO
Participant is over 18 years of age in order to complete this study.	YES	NO
Participant has New York State teaching certification.	YES	NO
Participant has participated in training or professional development specific to the education of English Language Learners (ELLs).	YES	NO

How many years have you been in your current career? (State number of years.) _____

Answer to the best of you ability. Circle only one answer. Please use a pen.

	Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Neutral or N/A**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
1. Proficiency in the home language helps students in their academic progress.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Children who maintain their home language have a better chance of succeeding in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Frequent use of the home language does not deter students from learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
4. If a student is not proficient in English, I believe the child should be in a classroom learning his/her first language as part of the school curriculum.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Schools should be invested in helping students maintain their home language.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Home language instruction is not beneficial for students' English language development.	1	2	3	4	5
7. It is important that children are highly literate and fluent in both English and their home language.	1	2	3	4	5
8. English Language Learners (ELLs) should avoid using their home language while at school.	1	2	3	4	5
9. If a student is not proficient in English, I believe the child should be learning subject matter in his/her first language.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Ideally, schools should provide home language instruction.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I believe learning subject matter (content) in the first language helps ELLs learn the content better when he/she studies it at school.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Teachers, parents, and schools need to work together to help students learn English and maintain their home language.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I believe that if a language minority student is in an English-Only class, he/she will learn English better.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I would support the government spending additional money to provide better programs for ELLs	1	2	3	4	5
15. I do not talk with parents to strategize on how we can help their children learn English and maintain their home language.	1	2	3	4	5

After completing this page, please seal it in the other attached envelope and bring both envelopes to the main office. Do not put your name anywhere on this form in order to maintain confidentiality. Thank you!

Appendix D

CITI Certificate

COLLABORATIVE INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING INITIATIVE (CITI)

HUMAN RESEARCH CURRICULUM COMPLETION REPORT

Printed on 12/16/2013

LEARNER	Greta Tomaschke (ID: 3704361)
DEPARTMENT	TESOL
PHONE	6072791400
EMAIL	toma1958@fredonia.edu
INSTITUTION	SUNY - College at Fredonia
EXPIRATION DATE	12/16/2015

GROUP 1.

COURSE/STAGE:	Basic Course/1
PASSED ON:	12/16/2013
REFERENCE ID:	11147107

REQUIRED MODULES	DATE COMPLETED
Introduction	09/12/13
History and Ethical Principles - SBE	09/12/13
Defining Research with Human Subjects - SBE	09/19/13
The Regulations - SBE	11/19/13
Assessing Risk - SBE	11/19/13
Informed Consent - SBE	12/13/13
Privacy and Confidentiality - SBE	12/13/13
Research with Prisoners - SBE	12/13/13
Research with Children - SBE	12/13/13
Research in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools - SBE	12/13/13
International Research - SBE	12/13/13
Internet Research - SBE	12/13/13
Avoiding Group Harms - U.S. Research Perspectives	12/13/13
Vulnerable Subjects - Research Involving Workers/Employees	12/13/13
Conflicts of Interest in Research Involving Human Subjects	12/16/13
SUNY Fredonia State College	12/16/13

For this Completion Report to be valid, the learner listed above must be affiliated with a CITI Program participating institution or be a paid Independent Learner. Falsified information and unauthorized use of the CITI Progam course site is unethical, and may be considered research misconduct by your institution.

Paul Braunschweiger Ph.D.
Professor, University of Miami
Director Office of Research Education
CITI Program Course Coordinator