

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS AND EXPOSITORY TEXT:
A CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS OF READING BEHAVIORS
USING RETROSPECTIVE MISCUE ANALYSIS

A DISSERTATION

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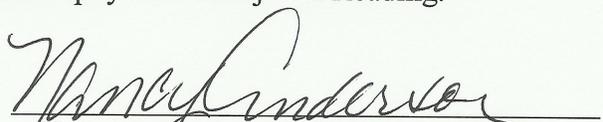
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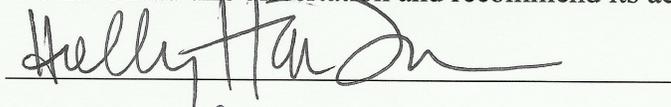
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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Patricia Y. Sosa-Sanchez entitled "English Language Learners and Expository Text: A Cross-Case Analysis of Reading Behaviors using Retrospective Miscue Analysis." I have examined this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy with a major in Reading.


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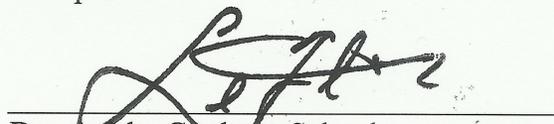
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DEDICATION

To my husband, Rey, and my children, Jessica, Christie and Lil' Rey, my most heartfelt thanks for the many personal sacrifices you all made for me to continue leading us by example to endless opportunities of success. With gratitude and appreciation, you provided me with constant love, support and encouragement to go the distance. To my parents, Francisco and Elizabeth Sosa, who have gone home to The Lord, thank you for always believing in me and reminding that I had the potential in becoming and achieving anything I set my mind to doing.

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ABSTRACT

PATRICIA Y. SOSA-SANCHEZ

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS AND EXPOSITORY TEXT: A CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS OF READING BEHAVIORS USING RETROSPECTIVE MISCUE ANALYSIS

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This cross-case analysis of reading behaviors focuses on ELLs and expository text. The objective of this study was to examine fourth grade ELL reading processes of expository text. The theoretical framework will be based on Goodman's sociopsycholinguistic theory (1984) in that reading utilizes thought and language as a process to construct meaning. Therefore, reading is a constructive process in which the reader interacts with the text to create meaning. Cummins (1979) suggests that underlying proficiencies are important in building strong L1 to transfer to L2, and Krashen (1992) suggests that the Natural Approach hypothesis provides the means for comprehensible input. These theoretical frameworks on second language acquisition support the idea that an ELL's background knowledge gained through social experiences provides comprehensible input to create meaning while reading in any language. The two guiding questions for the study were 1) How do 4th grade ELLs process expository text? And 2) How do 4th grade ELLs describe reading processes after reading expository text? The findings suggest that ELLs were challenged by content words as 92% of the miscues on content words caused meaning change. In addition, the findings of this study suggest that ELL readers seem to be familiar with graphophoneme aspects of content

words, but still make syntactic or semantic miscues without self-correction. And, the ELL readers in this study appear to use grapho-phonics in their reading processes. The ELL readers also seem to require conversational support with some code-switching for comprehension of questions being asked as well as with the organization of the expository text used in this study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Bilingual Education Act of 1968 empowered school districts to provide innovative educational programs to serve Limited English Proficiency (LEP) students, now identified as the English Language Learners (ELLs). Historically, different programs and approaches implemented across the country, such as transitional bilingual and dual language, share a similar aim: to prepare students with limited English speaking ability to participate effectively in the regular classroom as quickly as possible.

In order to be successful in all classrooms, ELLs must be able to read and process complex texts (August, Shanahan, & Escamilla, 2009; Ackerman, 2007, 2008; McNeil, 2009; Lesaux, 2010; Markham and Gordon, 2007; Goodman, 1984). Complex texts are both narrative and expository. Expository text is defined as text structure that provides information in a clear non-narrative organizational structure with a major topic and supporting information (Fountas and Pinnell, 2012). The organizational structure associated with expository text, also known as content-area text, includes description, temporal sequence, explanation, comparison-contrast, definition-examples, and problem-solution (Irwin, 2007). The context of this qualitative cross-case analysis study is how ELLs process expository text.

Research Problem

A significant amount of research shows ELL students are challenged by expository text while reading (August, Shanahan, & Escamilla, 2009; Gersten, 1996;

Dollins, 2012; Kiesler & Bowers, 2012; Lipp & Wheeler, 1991; Lesaux & Kieffer, 2010; Proctor, et al., 2007; Auckerman, 2007, 2008). ELLs' reading achievement related to expository text plateaus in fourth grade, and steadily remains as ELLs continue into middle school. ELLs' challenges related to expository text are related to background knowledge (McNeil, 2010; Johnson, 1982) which influences vocabulary development (Lesaux, et al, 2010) and the way content and connection words work in texts (Cho and Christianbury, 2010).

Previous research examining the miscue patterns and reflexive dialogue of middle school ELLs (Jurue, 2004; McKeown and Gentilucci, 2004), college level remedial reading ELLs' reading strategies (Thurer, 2010), sixth grade ELLs' metacognitive knowledge (Jimenez, Garcia and Pearson, 1995), and seventh grade ELLs' language discourse and reading processes (Marek, 1987) illustrate how most research examines older ELL reading processes. Research that focuses on younger ELLs' reading expository text and how they process the text is sparse. In a more recent period of time, research on ELLs' reading expository text and their reading processes is on the rise (Ogle and Correa-Kovtun 2010; Araya, Hiebert and Pearson, 2011).

The purpose of this study was to describe fourth grade ELLs' reading processes of expository text. The detailed description of the reading behaviors will provide insight into the challenges that ELLs experience. The participants in the study were native Spanish speakers, who were dominant in their native language, with limited English proficiency. Retrospective Miscue Analysis (RMA) was the research tool that helped reveal the ELLs' reading processes.

Research Questions

The research questions that guided this study follow:

1. How do fourth grade ELL readers process expository text?
2. How do ELL fourth grade readers describe reading processes after reading expository text?

Through a naturalistic, qualitative inquiry, I conducted a cross-case analysis to explore how ELL readers interacted with expository text. I observed reading behaviors with the use of RMAs. This study was based on sociocognitive theories of reading behaviors and comprehension (Goodman, 1984; 1996). Goodman (1996) suggests that readers tend to self-correct only if the miscue is disruptive to the meaning of the text. Given that background knowledge (McNeil, 2010) and content words (Cho and Christianbury, 2010) challenge ELLs, RMA was an appropriate research tool. The use of RMAs for this study allowed me to further evaluate the readers' miscues to seek patterns associated with their reading processes and behaviors. Participants included five 4th grade ELL native Spanish speakers, the teacher/researcher, and one faculty advisor. The primary data sources include marginal notes, reading surveys from participants, audio recordings of RMAs within guided reading sessions, pre-study inventories and post-study inventories from participants (Goodman & Marek, 1996).

Significance of the Study

This study is significant for a number of reasons. First, most research conducted related to ELLs reading processes was conducted by an outside researcher (Black, 1999; Jerue, 2004; Marek, 1987) rather than the classroom teacher. This research was

conducted by a classroom teacher as researcher. Second, as stated earlier, this research examines a unique population, fourth grade ELLs. Research on ELLs reading processes describing the reading processes of fourth grade ELLs reading expository text were scarce. RMA provides a systematic tool for close observation in classroom contexts. Furthermore, this study will contribute to the theoretical and research base related to ELL in classrooms.

Definition of Terms

Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS): "surface" skills of listening and speaking which are typically acquired quickly by many students; particularly by those from language backgrounds similar to English who spend a lot of their school time interacting with native speakers Cummins (1990).

Behavior: the act of interacting with a situated environment that is dependent on its stimuli.

Bilingualism: the ability to use two languages.

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP): the literacy and vocabulary knowledge necessary to cope with the academic demands; it is a continual development that happens throughout school and our lifetimes. (Cummins, 1999).

Competency: knowledge that is necessary for understanding a meaning; underlying knowledge of language.

Comprehensible input: the means in which we acquire language when we understand messages (Krashen, 1992).

Connection words: words that connect one idea to another idea within a sentence or given text (Irwin, 2007).

Content words: words within a text that is organized in an expository manner that creates a concept within a disciplinary study.

Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA): a reading assessment created for primary students in elementary classrooms; measures fluency and comprehension providing measurement of students' reading competencies with assigned letters.

English language learner: Any student whose primary language is any other than language and who is in the process of learning the English language (Ovando, Collier and Combs, 2003). The use of the English language may be minimal in the domains of reading, writing, speaking and listening that are at a proficient level of the home expectancy.

Expository text: text that is organized in a manner, oral or written discourse that is used to explain, describe, give information or inform.

Evaluación del desarrollo de la lectura (EDL): a reading assessment created for the primary students in bilingual classrooms; measures fluency and comprehension providing measurement of students' reading competencies with assigned letters. This is the Spanish version of DRA.

Miscue analysis: provides a scheme for analyzing oral reading behaviors as a "window" in the reading process (Goodman, 1973).

Miscue: term coined by Goodman (1987) to identify an error in an effort to emphasize his belief that all reading is cued by language and personal experience and is not simply random, uncontrolled behavior.

Reading process: a process of constructing meaning from text. It is the readers utilization of three information systems (orthography, phonology, syntactic) in constructing their texts and comprehending; interaction with a text (Goodman, 1994).

Semantic acceptability: the degree of a miscue fitting within the meaning of a given text. Semantic acceptability depends on syntactic acceptability.

Syntactic acceptability: the degree of a miscue fitting within the syntax of a sentence and within the entire story.

Retrospective Miscue Analysis (RMA): an instructional method that allows conversation to take place that examines reading behavior and revalues the reader.

Retrospective Miscue Analysis (RMA) session: an interactive session that allows the reader to examine miscues and establish self-awareness of his reading behaviors.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, I will present a review of the literature that established the theoretical framework for the findings to this study. The theoretical framework will be followed by an overview of literacy acquisition by ELLs. This will be followed by a brief discussion on the effect of second language acquisition on literacy in which the development of basic and content vocabulary play a vital role. In addition, I will provide a discussion on ELLs creating meaning from expository text, and finally discuss the retrospective miscue analysis tool and its relationship to the reading processes of ELLs.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study is built on Cummins' interdependence theory, Krashen's second language acquisition theory's $i+1$ model and Goodman's sociopsycholinguistic theory. Cummins' belief of the common underlying proficiency best accentuates the importance of ELLs' building a strong native language (L1) to further transfer into the second language (L2). Krashen's second language acquisition theory of the Natural Approach model provides the means for ELLs to gain comprehensible input in both communicative and academic language. Goodman's sociopsycholinguistic theory frames the relevance of the transaction that exists when a reader creates meaning with the text – both function words (for the purpose of this study we call connection words) and content words. This study focused on providing the

positive assets of becoming bilingual and bi-literate as ELLs become cognizant of their reading processes.

The exploration of bilingual education and its effects on the acquisition of literacy has an impact in how education serves ELLs across the world (Cardenas-Hagan, et al, 2007; Chiappe, et al, 2007, Rubenstein-Avila, 2002; Droop & Verhoven, 2003; Fitzgerald, 1993; Jimenez, Garcia & Pearson, 1996). Research suggests that Spanish dominant children who participate in a bilingual program tend to successfully acquire a second language and academic language at an overwhelming rate surpassing their counter Anglophone participants (Lindholm-Leary, 2005; Thomas & Collier, 2000). Within certain types of bilingual programs, different approaches have been adopted and implemented. Some have measured remarkable results in improved literacy skills in two languages for all children participating in these programs, both their native language (referred to as L1), and their second language (referred to as L2), particularly in two-way dual language programs. In a longitudinal study conducted by Collier and Thomas (2004), the research findings have empowered many two-way dual language enrichment and immersion models. This suggests that participating students tend to exemplify fully bilingual and bi-literate children at the end of the program's six-year commitment.

The leading-edge and trending educational practice in today's schools in which educating bilingual children is essential is the creation of dual language programs. However, the confusion and interchangeable use of *dual language* and *bilingual education* terms still bring about different methods and approaches without distinguishing a true approach within its use (Kerper-Mora, 2007; Torres-Guzman, 2005). In addition, it is still unclear

if the participation in certain types of bilingual programs is helping or hindering literacy skills of such children as they either become fully bilingual or fully immerse into their second language (Keper-Mora, 2007, Rubenstein-Avila, 2002, Christian, Howard & Loeb, 2000).

Overview of Literacy Acquisition of ELLs

Koda (2007) reminds us that the acquisition of L2 reading is considered cross-linguistic, thus, it is determined to be more complex than L1 reading. Koda stresses the influence of Cummins' developmental interdependence hypothesis, claiming that the levels of L2 proficiency of a bilingual child are determined largely by the capabilities they have developed before the intensive L2 exposure began. Therefore, within the development of bilingual programs, one must consider the development of reading as a complex process as learning two languages involves a continual interaction with constant adjustments and accommodations necessary for each language demands (Koda, 2007; Cummins, 1987).

In an ethnographic research study conducted in Canada (Iannacci, 2008), the cross-linguistic aspects were explored as students oral language use was observed to confirm Cummins' adjustments and modifications made by ELLs. Results of the study concluded that even though some stress is experienced by the student in formulating the use of the L2, code switching is used by the student as a modification to maintain cultural identity, and maintain language validity (Iannacci, 2008). As the students are realizing the value of their home language, they are exemplifying "additive orientation" as it "does not require the actual teaching of the minority language" because educators communicate

to students and parents in a variety of ways the extent to which the minority language and culture are valued within the context of the school (Cummins, 1986).

Today, we still see ELLs as at-risk students who either struggle to be successful according to academic standards due to their lack of reading and literacy skills in English (Markham & Gordon, 2007). However, we need to keep in mind that other factors are involved – such as cultural and linguistic differences, socioeconomic conditions, district and classroom resources, lack of quality teachers and perhaps, community support. As educators, we must rule out the factors that are beyond our control, and focus on those in which we can get our hands on that will affect our ELLs, thus allowing them to gain success in schools. For example, the socio-cultural factors involved in literacy acquisition are important in developing oral literacy. Regardless of pre-school literacy exposure, this is one intervention we can take and build up for learners. Clay's (1966) contributions to early literacy intervention have allowed experienced school teachers to further analyze the literacy developments of learners through observations of their behaviors in learning to read. Teachers can further comprehend the complexities associated with literacy development, gaining confidence to intervene early for struggling readers and writers in overcoming difficulties. This type of critical awareness encourages implementation of best practices for the language development of the bilingual learner. The success of every learner is important, but interventions in reading and writing must be beneficial for all learners, and can never be implemented at too young an age.

Writing differences among cultures, from the lithographic to the symbolic nature of writing, intervention must be provided, particularly for ELLs whose language is other

than Spanish. For example, Chinese, Russian, or Arabic languages do not share the same writing system as English. Therefore, questions remain on the best intervention for these students (Christian, Howard, & Loeb, 2000). Nonetheless, we should be mindful that our instruction must be meaningful in which allows for shared experiences to add to the learning experiences.

In a digest report by one Texas Education Agency (1998), diagnosis and intervention were noted as significant elements in ensuring improved reading skills for all learners. A joint venture with the Institute for Academic Excellence and Advantage Learning, Canutillo developed a Spanish/English version of *Accelerated Reader*, particularly for their dual-language environment. This drove forward the implementation of the *Reading Renaissance* intervention, a process that involved identification of language needs, helped identify “at risk” learners by means of a student record log. Their “at risk” students were those whose student record report produced unsuccessful scores in both English and Spanish reading. This intensive intervention helps strengthen vocabulary as well as develop good reading habits. As a result of their intervention with this approach, their results showed their “at-risk” students below 10%.

Another contribution that educators can make to the improvement of literacy acquisition is that of teacher preparation and staff development. Research has shown that teacher background and experiences have an impact on teaching effectiveness within the classroom (Lindholm-Leary, 2001). As a result, this is an important factor in the success and intervention process for students, particularly our diverse populations. Mainstream teachers must provide instruction that is culturally and linguistically meaningful without

sacrificing standard expectations that are appropriate for the grade level. However, the task of a bilingual teacher includes the meaningful instruction along with language and content that is accessible to the varying needs of students. Much of this experience requires additional pre-service training, classroom coaching and considerable in-service (Lindholm-Leary, 2001).

ELLs Constructing Meaning with Expository Text

As research continues to evolve, a paradigm that was created two decades ago on how ELLs learn in the classroom is becoming a debatable issue once again. An exact differentiation between Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) is on an uproar and has become a test of time. BICS, identified as the “surface” skills of listening and speaking and are typically acquired quickly by many students, theoretically is developed before CALP and through social experiences. CALP, identified as the literacy and vocabulary knowledge necessary to cope with the academic demands, develops continually throughout school experiences and beyond within the context of our life experiences. Students who exhibit a high level of CALP have been associated to having a high degree of background knowledge (Auckerman, 2008). As a result of this, these students are able to construct meaning at higher degrees than those students who have limited background knowledge.

In another one of Auckerman’s articles (2007), she suggests that students’ comprehension that utilizes their background knowledge is sometimes misconceived by the teacher. In other words, recognition needs to be given to students who are able to generate a hypothesis about a text and satisfactorily explain from the student’s own

perspective. As an effort to explain this comprehension and its misconceptions, Auckerman (2008) elaborates on reading comprehension having three perspectives that are associated with how a reader comprehends text. The first perspective is *comprehension-as-outcome view*. From this perspective, the student gets the “right” meaning, or he/she does not get some or all of it – and thus, does not have comprehension. The second perspective is *comprehension-as-procedure*. Within this perspective, as it may appear more appealing perspective, the student is able to generate the “right” understanding which involves teacher-modeling of “good” comprehension strategies. The third perspective, which Auckerman terms as *comprehension-as-sense-making*, is not dependent on the reader reaching the “right” understanding of the text. Rather, it represents success because of the student’s engagement in textual decision-making in order to create meaning. Regardless of the perspective, Auckerman suggests that explicit teaching is of essence in order for comprehension to be built on the students’ background knowledge (Auckerman, 2007). The conceptual understanding of these perspectives allows for the explicit teaching to reconceptualization of text and will allow students to formulate the competency of utilizing information that is readily available for connections with text. In general, this will lead to gaining a greater comprehension of text. Auckerman also suggests that the using of the Woodcock-Munoz Oral Language Assessments or Pre- Language Assessment Scales (Pre-LAS), an oral language assessment that purports to measure oral native language ability in children ages 4 to 6, are not reliable means to measure a student’s *academic language* as most of the batteries of such administrations are actually measuring a child’s background knowledge

(Auckerman, 2008). The adjustment of vocabulary that becomes part of the academic language should be considered as the child makes meaning according to what the context is at the time. Therefore, it would be inappropriate to utilize the word “academic vocabulary” for the purpose of this study. Auckerman goes on to stating that recontextualization of vocabulary to help the student make sense of new words is what teachers should do in the classroom. Basically, using a child’s schema to build new knowledge and help the recontextualization of the words in the context-embedded situation will allow the student to become more proficient and successful in comprehending text with new vocabulary (Auckerman, 2008).

In 1995, Fitzgerald published a review report on research in which he highlights the problematic issues in past research that have heavily relied on preexisting views of reading. This research on reading processes of ELLs tends to position itself with significant components of orality and literacy transfer from one language to another. This position was a general foundation for various studies on ELLs’ literacy. A second position Fitzgerald takes is that language acquisition and literacy acquisition are similar in that they are both orally related (Fitzgerald, 1995). Essentially, their acquisitions are complex and have many dimensions of development involved in the process. Nonetheless, a number of studies suggest that second-language orality precedes second-language literacy (Droop, Verhoeven, 2003; Jimenez, Garcia & Pearson, 1996).

In addition, Tong, Irby, Mathes, and Kwok (2008), suggest that the lack of English proficiency has become an obstacle for ELLs, particularly in terms of academic survival. In a study they conducted to reveal English oral development for ELLs in a

transitional bilingual program and a structured English immersion program, they concluded that both of these bilingual models needed to be enhanced. Consequently, application of best practices is needed in order to accelerate oral English language acquisition to remove the disadvantage of low-levels of English proficiency.

Expository Text

Academic language is one of the central characteristics of expository text and thus provides a special challenge to ELLs. Research on ELLs and expository text show three factors that contribute to the challenge of comprehending expository text – background knowledge, vocabulary and students reading interests.

A key factor in the comprehension of reading expository text is vocabulary (Lesaux, Kieffer, Faller and Kelley, 2010). Students who have a large vocabulary comprehend better (National Reading Panel, 2000). Lesaux et. al's study in a middle school environment also suggests that vocabulary is multidimensional and complex, which makes it essential in the comprehension of expository text. ELLs are developing academic language and vocabulary. Expository text is loaded with dense academic language. Hence, ELLs find expository text particularly challenging (Lesaux, et al., 2010; Lin, 2011; Anderson & Roit, 1996).

Preschool children with more experience with books have developed more background knowledge. Background knowledge can be classified in terms of knowledge culture or cultural topics, discipline-related topics, gender specific topics, or general related topics – such as weather and sports (McNeil, 2010). It is more complex than vocabulary. While it is suggested that all ELLs are familiar with everyday language and

situations, Chamot and O'Malley (1994) argue that reader comprehension relies on shared cultural background information. Since the culture and academic ways of working in classrooms and books is vastly different for ELL students, this creates a difference in the way that they share cultural experiences, perhaps limited those shared experiences.

Reading interest also affects a reader's comprehension of expository text. Lipp and Wheeler's study (1991) suggests that when ELLs select high-interest reading material, they tend to remain engaged for longer periods of time. As a result, a gain of vocabulary through these prolonged periods of reading are essential (Lesaux et.al, 2009; 2010; Lin, 2011). In addition, preferred reading interest allows the reader to make connections to what may bring to the reader cultural relevance within the expository text. This reading interest empowers the reader to transfer well known meaning-making strategies across which allows for greater comprehension (Lin, 2011).

Reading comprehension of expository text is essential for ELLs' success when the reading process is taken into the content area in which texts of this kind are mainly used for academic learning. Essentially, the metacognitive levels of reading in L1 theoretically are developed and can be transferred to reading in L2. However, the establishment of cultural relevance for ELLs through vocabulary, background knowledge and high-interest reading opportunities are essential.

Bilingual Education Theories and Research

Native Language Transfers to Target Language

Jim Cummins' hypothesis of developmental interdependence has helped in framing our beliefs and perceptions on the research of bilingual education and second language acquisition (Fitzgerald, 1995; Droop & Verhoeven, 2003; Netten, Droop & Verhoeven 2010). His developmental interdependence hypothesis suggests that a relationship exists between the native language abilities and the acquisition of the second language; thus, the mediation of the second language is manipulated by the dependence of the native language (Cardenas-Hagen, et al, 2007). This study examined the relationship between the ELLs' L1 letter naming and sound identifications, phonological awareness, and oral language skills and the development of these same skills in the L2. The data were collected from a subsample of a large, multi-state, multi-site and provided for a longitudinal project focused on language and literacy development in Spanish-speaking ELLs from kindergarten through second grade. The results showed that in the beginning of the school year, English and Spanish performance for letter name and sound identification appears relatively similar in that students were able to, on average, identify approximately one-third of the names or sounds of the letters of the alphabet. By the end of the school year, students' letter name and sound identification skills in both languages were higher. Special attention was given to students who began the year with low L2 letter name and sound identification skills, the level of initial L1 skills and how they impacted their end-of-year L2 letter name and sound identification skills. As a result, the study suggests a relation between the L1 abilities and the L2 acquisition (Cardenas-

Hagen et al, 2007). In addition, when native language vocabulary and conceptual knowledge is developed and supported by the child's environment outside of school, the target language benefits as it increased and become highly competent. Cummins (1979) also suggests that an interaction between the language of instruction and the type of competence that a child develops before schooling must exist. Social-cultural factors contribute in the development of the language in which the higher social exposure to language, then the more readily available transfer of skills from native to target language.

Within his hypothesis, Cummins suggests that through the second language acquisition process, the interdependence stems from common underlying proficiencies, known as Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) within the linguistic system, as opposed to the Separate Underlying Proficiencies, known as SUP. Thus, development of the L1 skills is crucial before the intense instruction of the L2 is begun. In a research study conducted by Chiappe, Siegel, & Wade-Woolley (2002), the findings concluded that children learning English may acquire literacy skills in English in a similar manner to native English speakers. However, their alphabetic knowledge in their L1 may precede and facilitate the acquisition of phonological awareness in English. The 3 skills measured within this particular study included letter name and sound identification, phonological awareness and oral language. Thus, this compilation of research suggests that a relationship between L1 abilities and L2 acquisition exists in which L1 competence mediates the acquisition of L2 at the same time that a child begins to acquire his L2 (Cardenas-Hagan, et al, 2007).

Meaningful Interactions in L1 and L2

The Natural Approach, as hypothesized by Stephen Krashen has also profoundly impacted the beliefs and perceptions towards the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory (Bianco & Slaughter, 2009; Harklau, 1994; Markham & Gordon, 2007; Menken & Kleyn, 2010). Krashen's natural approach hypothesis suggests that acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the target language – natural communication - in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding (Krashen & Terrell, National Convention Presentation; Jimenez, Garcia & Pearson, 1996). Furthermore, this approach does not require conscious grammatical rules that might otherwise require explicit instruction. As the SLA theory is mainly associated with the language and literacy development of ELLs whose primary language is anything but English, the Natural Approach and its implementation of instruction within the classroom is embedded within daily routines as modifications for ELLs are made through the utilization of ESL strategies. Regardless of classroom settings, instructional time and mode, or language of instruction, the means of providing partial instruction in L1 with gradual immersion into the L2 mediates instruction. As a result, it allows the learning to become meaningful for the learner in a natural process generating the information to become comprehensible input.

Teaching Methodologies and Strategies for ELLs

In a bilingual classroom setting, teachers leading instruction are trained to further differentiate instruction through the use of English as a Second Language methodologies or strategies that will allow the learner to utilize their background knowledge and apply it

to new knowledge being gained within the classroom instruction. Widely used ESL practices within a classroom include Asher's Total Physical Response (TPR), the preview-view-review method, and the SIOP (Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocols) method (Caballero, 2005; Li 2005; Short, 1998). Each practice is supplemented within a classroom with suggested district curriculum as well as with instructional expertise that each teacher brings into the classroom. For example, in utilizing TPR within a classroom, the delivery of instruction is created by providing body movements and gestures to support the understanding of new information being disseminated by the teacher in the second language. This support of gaining new information is not only through one modality –but through three modalities, auditory, visual, and kinesthetic. Thus, the delivery of information has a greater potential of becoming comprehensible input. In an excerpt from *The ABCs of TPR*, Caballero (2005) suggests that this type of methodology strengthens all four of the language domains, thus facilitating the transferring of L1 to L2 successfully. This strategy allows a concept to be introduced to an ELL in three stages – a preview in L1, a view in L2, and a review in L1, utilizing both languages as a medium of instruction as a concept is being spiraled through its instruction. A study was conducted with 12 deaf/ASL students, and 12 hearing Spanish/English third or fourth grade students were given six short science texts, written at a third-grade level, some of which were presented with the bilingual PVR method, and others with English-only method. While the PVR technique has had no empirical research to prove its effectiveness, in this study, Li (2005) suggests that this method

proved to be a successful technique within this group of deaf American students and a group of hearing bilingual students.

A successful protocol that is used in ESL classrooms is the SIOP, which is also known as the SIOP Model. This protocol allows ELLs to gain comprehensible input in academic content. SIOP's success is credited to the implementation in which pre-trained teachers provide instructional support to ELLs through the use of specific content-language protocols. This type of methodology is one which benefits ELLs gain a better understanding of content vocabulary, as the learner becomes competent in three levels of knowledge within a classroom environment – the English knowledge, the content knowledge, and “how to do the task” knowledge, which constitutes the major components of academic literacy (Short, 1998).

In other areas, however, the implementation of bilingual programs has become challenging, particularly “dual-immersion programs.” Rubenstein-Avila's (2002) study took a critical look at the issues pertaining to language variety and language use within a dual-immersion program. Rubenstein-Avila describes the challenge of programs as a “portrait”, in which the vision is a hazed distinction on how linguistic variety and students' language are being used, incorporated, and addressed in an evolving dual immersion program. In addition, the study suggests that language variety, standards, legitimacy in which language dialect and pigeon became part of the problem. In a similar study in 2000, Christian, Howard and Loeb also contend that even though dual immersion programs present goals of “bilingualism for all students,” it does not necessarily legitimize student's home languages as allowance for their primary discourse.

BICS and CALP

When a student develops the L1 proficiently, the intense instruction of the L2 can begin. Cummins (1990) suggests that this development has two aspects – the basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and the cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). His analogy of the iceberg enlightens educators with the fact that children develop language through their social experiences as well as through their academic experiences. However, misconceptions of how BICS and CALP are viewed have challenged Cummins' theoretical idea. In a publication, *BICS and CALP: Clarifying the Distinction* (1999), Cummins accepts challenges by other research that claim individual differences of these two concepts of language acquisition. Cummins clarifies that even though sequential nature of BICS/CALP is suggested in typical situations, it may not be applicable to every situation. In addition, Cummins reiterates the importance that these two dimensions are conceptually distinct in that the ways that they are acquired are different, but not separate. Therefore, instructional programs for bilingual, ESL, or mainstream classes should be designed to promote the ELLs CALP while supporting the BICS through three construction components: cognitive, academic and language. Effective programs will allow the student to generate new knowledge, create literature and art, and act on social realities that affect their lives (Cummins, 1999).

Children develop their BICs through natural social settings and interactions of play and socializations within an informal setting. This comprehensible language is then used as a foundation to further develop the CALP, or the academic language that is gained through continued social and higher-order thinking opportunities in a formal

setting – which is the classroom. The BICS development requires less cognitive challenges as it is the language that happens in natural settings. Words included in this second language development are less-sophisticated words that help a child become social with friends – such as “play”, “toys”, “friend”, “water”, and “restroom.”

It is through the CALP development that a bilingual learner begins to supplement language development - not only through participation in second language oral dialogue, but also by beginning to make sense of content area text listened to orally; the acquisition then spirals with social experiences into the reading and writing. This ongoing development of academic vocabulary constitutes the development of CALP. The child is able to create second language dialogue, such as “*The bats are nocturnal.*” Or, “*An owl regurgitates the bones of his prey.*” This type of dialogue is not only challenging orally, but with a solid development of CALP, the learner is also able to de-contextualize it and utilize it with comprehension, thus exhibiting comprehensible input (Krashen, 1992).

One of the first means of bridging this cognitive language to the mainstream classroom is through the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) (Chamot & O’Malley, 1987). This approach was designed for limited English proficient students who are being prepared to participate in mainstream content-area instruction. During the process, students are taught to use different strategies that stem from the cognitive model of learning to gain greater comprehension as they utilize both their native language and the target language. CALLA has three components – a curriculum correlated with mainstream content subjects, academic language development activities, and learning strategy instruction. A survey conducted by Chamot & Stewer-Manzanares

(1983) found that there are 13 different instructional approaches currently in use, some of which include TPR, communicative approaches, and eclectic or combination approaches. However, Chamot (1987) found that none focuses specifically on developing the English language skills used in content-area subjects, such as science, mathematics and social studies.

When educators expect a bilingual learner to be proficient in the academic language, it is important to remember that his conversational language, or the tip of the iceberg, has been tapped into during the process of second language acquisition. The stronger the BICS foundation, the stronger the CALP will turn out to be (Cummins, 1987, Krashen, 1992, Tunmer, et al, 1987, Kerper-Mora, 2007, Rubenstein-Avila, et al, 2005). However, there is still controversy on what constitutes proficiency in a language and how to measure its levels of “proficiency” (Cummins, 1990).

Literacy Acquisition Theories and Research

The acquisition of literacy is complex. It presents challenges to teachers in the classrooms. Yet the responsibility of building literacy still lies within the scope of our theoretical belief and how we chose to teach it.

Goodman’s Sociopsycholinguistic Theory

Beginning to read develops from the reader’s sense of making meaning from print. Goodman’s transactional sociopsycholinguistic view of literacy suggests that there must be a relationship between thought and language (Goodman, 1984). Similar to Chomsky (1979), the deep structures that exist is the complexities of literacy and its acquisition provide a transformation of information that is tentatively and selectively

gained from grapho-phonemes, syntactic and semantic cues as they predict and infer where the text is going. Thus learning from errors, or miscues, is a process that allows for meaning-making. Goodman's multidisciplinary theory of reading incorporates the ideas that proficient readers use a variety of language prompting systems, cognitive strategies and behavioral cycles to search for meaning in a text. The engagement of the reader with the writer and the text creates an interaction to create a parallel text closely related to the original. This is what Goodman (1984) termed *dual text*, in which inferences, references, and co-references are being brought about through the transaction with the reader's schema (Goodman, 1984).

Research studies conducted within the last eight years have informed the field of study that the purpose of reading determines how the multidisciplinary transaction and use of the cuing systems will take effect (Koda, 2007, Cardenas-Hagan, et al, 2007). Because construction of the text is necessary for construction of meaning, the reader's schema will evaluate the text using metacognitive skills to determine which transaction will occur: initiate, select, predict, infer, confirm/disconfirm, correct, or terminate the text. Within these acts of reading, the reader has built explicit intentions to produce a specific literary event. These selections or intentions are important in comprehension (Goodman, 1984).

Not only is purpose an important discipline in literacy acquisition, but one must consider the wording of texts (Goodman, 1984). The utilization of function words (for the purpose of this study, we will call connection words) versus content words will make a difference in the level of comprehension during a literacy event. In a word analysis

conducted by Goodman, words found in a passage are 35-40% functional words, and 75% content words, which occur only once. With the high constraints of text, the metacognitive abilities developed by a reader will also contribute to the engagement or termination during a literacy event.

As reading and writing develop reciprocally, Goodman (1984) suggests that early on, the functions of language involve immediate interpersonal transactions. The ability to use and perceive symbolic systems requires all our senses. The oral and written systems' proficiencies are gained when the reader becomes proficient in reading and writing. The realization that spelling conventions are complex and are derived from many linguistic roots, such as German or Latin, forces the reader to adapt to different alternative writing forms – upper and lower case; cursive and print (Goodman, 1984). Consequently, conventional spelling is executed once the reader or writer is able to perceive the ability to deal with the different characteristics within each system. In as much, Marie Clay (1966) emphasized the need for reading and writing to develop, coining the term *emergent literacy* to describe readers and their behaviors used even though they could not actually read and write in a conventional sense (Teale & Sulzby, 1986). Her observations of children and their behaviors led to her contribution to literacy through Reading Recovery, an approach to early literacy intervention widely used across the country.

In *Reading as a Meaning-Construction Process: The Reader, the Text, and the Teacher* (1994), Ruddell and Unrau reiterate the triangulation of the language cuing systems with the reader and the text through the reading process. They suggest that the capacity to understand and generate language is innate, but requires a social support

system for development. In addition, they concur that the Chomsky's ideology of the *Language Acquisition Device* (LAD) with which we are born requires a *Language Acquisition Support System* (LASS) provided by the social world (Ruddell & Unran, 1994). Thus, if young children do not get exposure to social interaction and language stimulus, normal language development does not occur.

This delay in language development is supported by research conducted by Stanovich (1986). Within his framework, Stanovich discusses the different causal relationships that attribute to literacy acquisition. He focuses his *Matthew's Effect*, "rich-get-richer", on the differences in reading volume, and the growth of vocabulary could cumulatively hinder children with inadequate vocabulary resulting in slower development of vocabulary knowledge, and thus inhibits further growth in reading ability. This effect, "rich-get-richer", hypothesizes that children who are read to more while in their pre-school ages will benefit more when they get to their primary school ages and enter into formal education. Furthermore, he postulates that the interlocking of processes with reading, which he terms *reciprocal causation*, may cause differential reading efficiencies. However, reading itself may in turn cause further individual differences in reading stages, such as development of phonological awareness, orthographic representation (Stanovich, 1986).

Another theory that frames literacy acquisition is Vygotsky's theory of cognitive development. Vygotsky's theory provides connection to the social-cultural dimensions of literacy and provides an insight to the many justifications of providing learners with a wide variety of learning experiences in the classroom. A particular focus can be made on

experiences that allow the learner to bring in his background knowledge, cultural experiences, and language opportunities in speaking, reading, and writing. Vygotsky's developmental theory theorizes that children construct knowledge through the environmental experiences that they encounter (Cummins, 1979). In his cognitive theory, Vygotsky's description of the *Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)* reiterates the fact that children's learning shifts upward as the learning occurs, which unavoidably cannot be separated from the social context. As this learning takes place, it involves the external experiences, which are being transformed into internal processes through the means of language. Our culture determines both the content and processes of our thoughts.

Retrospective Miscue Analysis as a Methods Tool

In the works of Yetta Goodman (1996), retrospective miscue analysis is a method introduced to empower the reader and the teacher. During the process of RMAs, the reader gains empowerment through developing self-correcting strategies to further become a proficient and independent reader as greater comprehension is built. In turn, the teacher is thus able to make professional adjustments to the instruction needed to further assist the reader with strategies that will be beneficial to his comprehension needs.

In Jurue's study (2004), the researcher's goal was to identify first language features that were affecting oral reading in order to facilitate the development of more effective instructional practices that could be used to bridge first and second language reading in ELLs. The RMA sessions, which used informational text, were used to gather information from dialogues of questions and answers during the sessions. This resulted in an exploration of L1 features that the readers exhibited during the initial English oral

reading and revealed by analysis of miscue patterns. The Hmong and Samoan students that participated in this study were fourth and fifth graders whose preferred language for speaking was their native language. Results concluded that the RMAs raise students' awareness of syntactical differences between L1 and L2, thus inhibiting comprehension. In addition, the teachers learn more about first language features used by students to negotiate oral reading in English.

In a similar study conducted by Black (1999), using multi-genre text, RMA sessions were used to determine discourse of oral language and its effect on reading comprehension of a fourth grade African-American reader in order for him to further understand his own reading process. A portion of this research, conducted in 1993 by Goodman, included multiple approaches to the data gathering on Zach, the subject. Black further researched how RMA structures, and how instructional sequencing affect reading behaviors. This discourse analysis of RMA allowed the researcher to contribute to the study by understanding the RMA procedures. Furthermore, evaluating the use of RMA questions and discussions allowed for a more in-depth analysis of the miscues. This multi-dimensional aspect provided a more holistic perspective of classroom language patterns. When RMAs were done again with Zach, Black established correlation of growth between reader and researcher-teacher as it allows for reflection on both.

Theurer's research (2010) examined one African-American student who was enrolled in remedial courses at a community college due to a pre-assessment required by the college. The student's background experience with reading was limited in that it was

never a priority growing up. The student participated in an RMA research using narrative text that allowed for evaluation of changes in reading strategies and behavior patterns over the course of the study. During these “tutorial sessions”, the reader’s and researchers social interactions played a fundamental role as the reader was encouraged to reflect on the reading process along with own personal reading strategies. It was during these RMA reading transactions that allowed the reader to understand what proficient reading involves and create empowerment to make personal reading choices.

Existing research on the use of RMA has shown success in allowing readers to become empowered and aware of their reading behaviors, as they become more proficient. Even though this is true, research on ELLs and RMAs is limited; more so with ELLs and expository text.

Summary

Much research is still needed on bilingualism, bilingual education and its effects on literacy acquisition. We often think of ELLs as always being “at risk” learners. However, our mindset must change towards a more progressive approach to implementing instructional approaches that will benefit all learners and begin removing labels from ELLs. Our efforts for closing achievement gaps may go unnoticed to some extent; but, knowing that we are making strides to better educate and intervene during the critical stages of literacy development can only strengthen our efforts to prepare our children for a pluralistic society.

There exists emerging research that continues to develop visions of what literacy should be, within a bilingual education setting. We look at the theoretical framework for

second language acquisition and we can conclude that the proficiency of a second language lies within the sociocognitive and sociolinguistic aspects of literacy. Thus, reinforcing intervention at the early stages will allow for transferring of sub-skills of reading from the L1 to the L2, resulting in successful literacy experiences for ELLs.

The strongest advocate to providing sound change and acceptance for better classroom practices is our voice. In Freire's (1998) words: "we must dare so that we can continue to teach for a long time under conditions that we know well..." Our continued efforts in theoretical research to practice can only provide further avenues in creating more consistent educational practices.

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

The aim of this study was to identify and describe the reading processes of 4th grade English Language Learners (ELLs) enrolled in a Dual Language classroom. As a bilingual teacher I served students whose native language was Spanish. I was serving as a dual language teacher while serving as the researcher for this study. A dual language program is a kind of bilingual education program where students learn two languages in an academic setting. The questions that guided this study were: 1) How do 4th grade ELL readers process expository text? And, 2) How do 4th grade ELL readers describe their reading process after reading expository text? Table 3.1 provides a guideline for how the questions were addressed in the study.

Table 3.1

Study Questions

<i>Question 1: How do 4th grade ELL readers process expository text?</i>	<i>Data Analyzed: RMA Coding Sheets; Types of miscues and patterns</i>
<i>Question 2: How do 4th grade ELL readers describe the reading processes after reading expository text?</i>	<i>Data Analyzed: RMA sessions; post-study questionnaire</i>

Methodology Rationale

This qualitative study used cross-case analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Cross-case analysis was appropriate because it provided insight of reading behaviors of ELLs while reading expository text. This study examined five 4th grade ELLs' reading

behaviors. The selection of cross-case analysis was to describe the patterns found in the observations of reading behaviors. This allowed me to create relevance of the findings within the context of a bilingual classroom. A second fundamental reason was to provide a deeper understanding and explanation of the miscues made by the ELL readers across the text. Seeking structural conditions that carried over the participant-to-participant helped in finding similarities and differences across the texts. In addition, focusing on variable-oriented analysis allowed me to further find correlations between the variable and the behaviors during the reading processes (Miles and Huberman, 1994). These variables included those of syntactic acceptability, semantic acceptability, corrections, meaning change, meaning construction, grammatical relationships, graphic similarities and sound similarities. These analysis were created from the RMA Coding Sheets. Table 3.2 provides an example.

In addition, the variable-oriented strategies allowed for a careful inductive coding, which included both descriptive and interpretive data, to be mapped out (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This provided a behavior mapping system to further analyze the ELL readers' reading process after they read expository text. This process allowed for comparisons to be made on how the ELL readers process expository text, and how they resolve miscues while reading content words. The miscues taken from the RMAs were mapped and categorized according to how the reader processed and corrected it (Figure 1). A detailed description of the coding used for the behavior mapping system is provided later within this chapter.

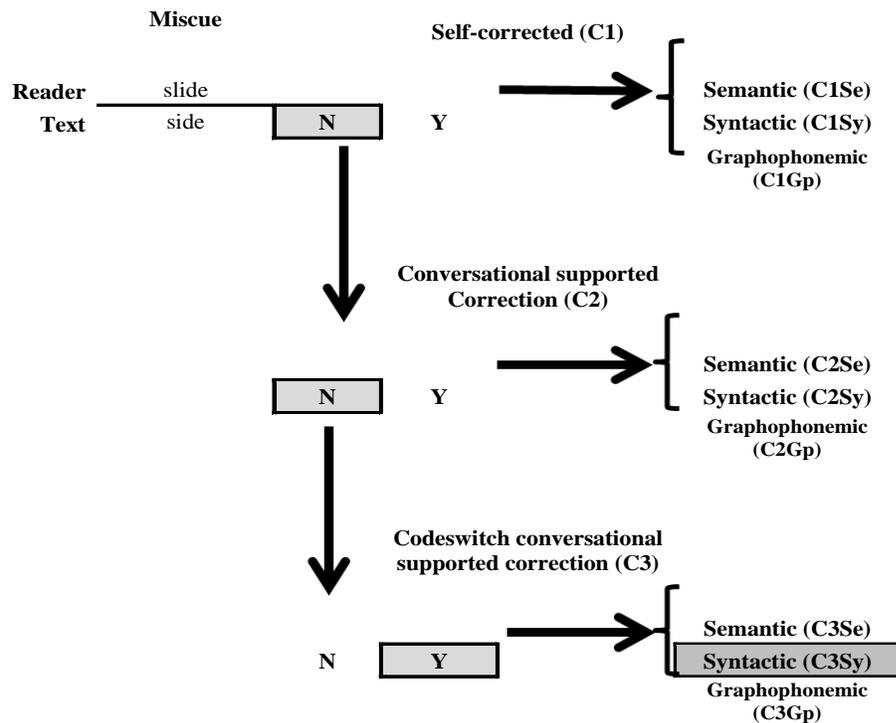


Figure 1: Behavior mapping system on selected miscue

Retrospective Miscue Analysis (RMA) was the methodological tool used to examine the reading behaviors. RMA is a procedure that engages readers in reflecting upon and evaluating the reading process through analyzing their own oral reading miscues (Marek, 1987). The RMA sessions provided ELL readers' reflections that enabled the creation of in-depth analysis of their behaviors while reading expository text, and the analysis of how they described their reading processes after they read expository text.

The expository passages used for this study were from the Qualitative Reading Inventories 5 (QRI5) reading assessments (Leslie and Caldwell, 2010). The Qualitative Reading Inventory-5 (QRI-5) is an individually administered informal reading inventory (IRI) designed to provide information about (1) conditions under which students can identify words and comprehend text successfully and (2) conditions that appear to result in unsuccessful word identification or comprehension. QRI 5's expository passages are descriptive science and social studies materials on various topics. They are modeled after or taken from representative textbooks. These types of passages are included in this diagnostic assessment because research suggests that familiarity, measured by student's background knowledge, is important in how readers create meaning for comprehension (McNeil, 2010; Johnson, 1982). These fourth grade level passages were *Busy Beavers*, *Early Railroads*, and *Plant Structures for Survival*. Figures 2, 3, and 4 provide an example of one of the QRI5 passages. QRI5 assesses comprehension in two ways – retelling and questions. I administered the QRI5 with each participant in the following way: activation of the background knowledge questions before the reading, reading of

the passage by participant, retelling, and question answer session, which assessed text-explicit and text-implicit responses. The text-explicit questions are tied to background knowledge; text-implicit questions are tied to the information directly from the passage. The readers' levels of comprehension, which were categorized as independent, instructional and frustration, are assigned by the QRI5 measurement of comprehension and thus derived from scores on the question measure. QRI5 also allows for think-alouds and look-backs on the text, but were not required by the district and not necessary for this study since I was utilizing a different methods tool. In order to stay within the district's administration guidelines, participants were allowed to select the two passages they preferred for the RMA sessions. All students who were participants of the study scored 5 or less on the measurement of comprehension scoring guide as outlined by the QRI5 (Table 3.3). The district set limitations to the study that did not allow for additional reading materials to be used, particularly during the normal instructional reading block.

Table 3.3

QRI5 Measurement of Comprehension

Without Look-Backs	
Number Correct Explicit:	_____
Number Correct Implicit:	_____
Total:	_____

	Independent: 8 correct
	Instructional: 6-7 correct
	Frustration: 0-5 correct

Level: Four

Expository

Concept Questions:

What is a beaver?

An animal with teeth. (1)

What are dams built by beavers?

Home for a beaver (2)

What are problems caused by beavers?

It makes floods. (3)

How do beavers protect their young?

I think they leave them in house either more to protect (4)

Score: 11 / 12 = 92 %
FAM _____ UNFAM _____

Prediction:

"The Busy Beaver"

Have you ever heard someone say "busy as a beaver"? Beavers are very busy animals and they are master builders. This furry animal spends its life working and building. As soon as a beaver leaves its family, it has much work to do.

0032
First, the beaver must build a dam. It uses sticks, leaves, and mud to block a stream. The beaver uses its two front teeth to get the sticks. The animal uses its large flat tail to pack mud into place. A pond forms behind the dam. (The beaver spends most of its life near this pond.)

In the middle of the beaver's pond is a large mound. This mound of mud and twigs is the beaver's lodge or house. The beaver's family is safe in the lodge because it is well hidden. The doorway to the lodge is under the water. After the lodge is built, the beaver still cannot rest. More trees must be cut down to be used as food for the coming winter. Sometimes there will be no more trees around the pond. Then the beaver has to find trees elsewhere. These trees will have to be carried to the pond. The beaver might build canals leading deep into the forest.

All this work changes the land. As trees are cut down, birds, squirrels, and other animals may have to find new homes. Animals that feed on trees lose their food supply. The pond behind the dam floods part of the ground. Animals that used to live there have to move. However, the new environment becomes a home for different kinds of birds, fish, and plants. All this happens because of the very busy beaver. (281 words)

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Level 4

Figure 2: QRI 5 Busy Beavers passage (pg. 1 of 3)

Level: Four

Number of Total Miscues (Total Accuracy): <u>8</u>	
Number of Meaning-Change Miscues (Total Acceptability): <u>4</u>	
Total Accuracy	Total Acceptability
0-7 miscues <input type="checkbox"/> Independent	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 0-7 miscues
8-29 miscues <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Instructional	<input type="checkbox"/> 8-15 miscues
30+ miscues <input type="checkbox"/> Frustration	<input type="checkbox"/> 16+ miscues
Rate: $281 \times 60 = 16,860$ ^{pp} seconds = <u>81.1</u> WPM	
Correct WPM: $(281 - \frac{8}{60}) \times 60 =$ <u>1</u> seconds = <u> </u> CWPM	

Retelling Scoring Sheet for "The Busy Beaver"

Main Idea

- Have you heard "busy as a beaver"?
- Beavers are animals busy animals and builders.
- master builders.

Details

- As soon as a beaver leaves its family, it has much work to do.
- The beaver builds a dam.
- It uses sticks, leaves, and mud to block a stream.
- The beaver uses its teeth its front teeth to get sticks.
- The animal uses its tail to pack mud.
- A pond forms behind the dam.

- The beaver spends its life near the pond.
- The beaver's home is a mound in the pond.
- The family is safe because the lodge is well hidden.
- The doorway to the lodge is under the water.
- Trees are cut down to be used as food for the winter.
- Sometimes there will be no trees around the pond.
- The beaver has to find trees and carry them to the pond.
- The beaver might build canals.

Main Idea

- This changes the land.

Details

- As trees are cut, birds, squirrels, *lose their homes* and animals have to find new homes.
- Animals lose their food supply.
- The pond floods the land.
- Animals have to move.
- A new environment becomes home for different birds and fish. *fish*

49 Ideas

Number of ideas recalled _____

Other ideas recalled, including inferences:

Figure 3: QRIS Busy Beaver passage (pg. 2 of 3)

Level: Four

Questions for "The Busy Beaver"

1. What is the passage mainly about?
Implicit: how a beaver keeps busy; or what a beaver does

beaver

2. According to the passage, what are the beaver's front teeth used for?
Explicit: to get the sticks

cutting trees

3. Describe the beaver's tail.
Explicit: large and flat

4. Why does the beaver build a dam?
Implicit: to make a pond; or to make a place for his lodge

to not cause floods

5. What is the beaver's lodge or house made of?
Explicit: mud and sticks

6. Why is the doorway to the beaver's house under the water?
Implicit: it is safer and more hidden; or so enemies can't get in

7. What does the beaver eat during the winter?
Explicit: trees

*I don't remember
thing from text*

8. Why might some people dislike beavers?
Implicit: they change the land by flooding; they drive out animals; or they cut down too many trees

*too ugly
or s/t*

Without Look-Backs

Number Correct Explicit: 3

Number Correct Implicit: 2

Total: 5

___ Independent: 8 correct

Instructional: 6-7 correct

Frustration: 0-5 correct

With Look-Backs

Number Correct Explicit: ___

Number Correct Implicit: ___

Total: ___

___ Independent: 8 correct

___ Instructional: 6-7 correct

___ Frustration: 0-5 correct

Figure 4: QRI 5 Busy Beaver passage (pg. 3 of 3)

Data Sources

The primary data sources for the study included audio recordings of two retrospective miscue analysis (RMA) sessions with one initial reading miscue inventories (RMI) per participant during the initial session. All data was transcribed and transferred to electronic documents in order to compress data for analysis.

Audio Recordings

Audio tapes of the participants were compiled during the course of the RMA and RMI events using a digital voice recorder. All audio recorded sessions were considered confidential and kept as such during the course of the study.

Marginal Notes

After RMA coding sheets were analyzed, and transcriptions were completed, marginal notes were utilized in order to draw out important information from the transcriptions. Retelling abilities were also critical in the analysis of the data.

RMA Recording Sheets

Student RMA recording sheets were collected during each of the sessions to further analyze the reading behaviors and categorize the miscues. The RMA recording sheets were also instrumental examining the reader's need for additional conversation for creating meaning of the expository text.

Pre-Study and Post-Study Reading Inventory

A reading inventory was administered before and after the course of study. The pre-study inventory provided background information about the reader's reading habits

outside of the classroom, as well as the perspective and attitude about reading the reader perceived (McNeil, 2010). The post-study inventory provided insight of the reader's reading behaviors and flagged any changes from the pre- and post-study inventory (Black, 1999).

Context of the Study

Researcher

I served as the researcher for this study. I have twelve years of teaching experience within the public education spectrum from grades kindergarten through fourth. My specialization is in both mainstream and bilingual education, serving as a dual language teacher as the Spanish instructor at a Title I campus. I have been a major contributor to the success of one district's implementation of a dual language program, and instrumental in developing curriculum for bilingual education at different campus levels. Participants included myself; five 4th grade ELL students and one faculty advisor.

Classroom

The 4th grade dual language classroom, which was the setting for the beginning of the study, was structured in a fashion that allowed all learners to build both the English and the Spanish language. All students were instructed in both languages. They received two hours of language arts components (reading and writing) with 60 minutes of English and 60 minutes of Spanish, mathematics with 45 minutes of English, social studies with 30 minutes of Spanish and 30 minutes of Science in English. The campus was following

a self-designated dual language model. Language of instruction was dependent upon the day of the week; Monday, Wednesday and Fridays were Spanish days and Tuesdays and Thursdays were English days. During the language arts block, students were in leveled guided reading groups according to their reading levels. Part of their instruction included book clubs in which each group was assigned a leveled chapter book they would read and discuss. During their guided reading sessions, students were given instruction in their native language. This allowed all students to strengthen their native language to facilitate transfer of the second language for content areas. QRI5 was used for English reading assessments, and EDL (Evaluacion del Desarrollo de Lectura), which is the Spanish component of Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA), was used for Spanish reading assessments, as prescribed by the district curriculum department.

The district's language arts curriculum consists of reader's and writer's workshop segments that were embedded with the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills standards (TEKS). The district's bilingual department, at the time, was in formation as the need continued to grow. This was the only campus with a bilingual/dual language program. The rationale for choosing students from this fourth-grade classroom is to ensure that participants partake in classroom instruction grounded in the belief of building strong L1 reading skills that will allow a smooth transfer into the comprehension of expository text in the L2.

Participants

The participants for this study were the ELL students in my classroom. The classroom was a 4th grade dual language class. Five out of the seven native-Spanish speakers were used for the study. These five participants were selected out of the seven because these were the consent forms that were turned in to grant permission for participation in the study.

This study used Spanish-speaking participants in order to provide responses the guiding questions. I was measuring second-language miscues committed by the reader on the target language, which is English. The prompting of the questions during the sessions was redirected, if needed, in the student's native language. This provided insight to the use of the participant's metacognitive skills transferred from their L1 to their L2.

The study focused on students at the intermediate grade levels. This is the level at which expository text and meaning making research gaps appear to exist.

Reader one: Sonia. Sonia is a 10-year-old Hispanic born in Nicaragua, Central America. Her father moved to the United States with her when she was in kindergarten, but only stayed in the states for a few months. They returned to Nicaragua, and stayed there until four months ago. Sonia reenrolled in US public education. She was originally placed in an all-English classroom. Without changing her on the class roster, Sonia was placed in my classroom for daily reading, writing and math lessons. Even though she continued to make small strides of success, her need for accelerated instruction was not enough to bring her to a fully bilingual student. Sonia currently lives with her dad and

his brother in a small apartment. She enjoys watching Spanish soap operas. Her Spanish reading EDL level was at a level P, which is beginning of fourth grade. Her English reading QRI5 reading level was frustration.

Reader two: Rocio. Rocio is a 10-year-old Hispanic female. She lives in a mobile home park with mom and twin brother. She was born in the US, but her home language was Spanish, since this was all mom spoke. Rocio has been in public education since she was in kindergarten, and she has been served through the district's dual language program since she started school. Rocio's hobbies included playing outside with her friends and neighbors, and helping mom cook. Her Spanish reading EDL level was at a level M, which is end of third grade level. Her English reading QRI5 reading level was frustration.

Reader Three: Jacob. Jacob was a 10-year-old Hispanic male. He was born in the United States. His home language was Spanish. His parents were both born in Guanajuato, Mexico. They had been in the US for 13 years. Their household included mom, dad, participant, and two younger sisters, Catarina, who was 9 years old, and Julia, who was 3 years old. Their primary language at home was Spanish. Jacob had been in public education since he began pre-kindergarten, and had been served through the district's dual language program. His Spanish reading EDL level was at a level M, which is beginning of fourth grade. His English reading QRI5 reading level was frustration.

Reader Four: Celina. Celina was a 10-year-old Hispanic female. She and her parents were born in San Luis Potosi, Mexico. Their time living in the US is

undetermined, but Mom remembers coming about a year and a half after dad. Their household included mom, dad, dad's twin brother, participant and little sister, Juanita who was two years old at the time. The primary language at home was Spanish. Celina had been in the country's public education for 8 years now. She had been served through the district's dual language program since she started kindergarten. Her Spanish reading EDL level was at a level M, which is the end of third grade level. Her English reading QRI5 reading level was frustration.

Reader Five: Osvaldo. Osvaldo was a 10-year-old Hispanic male. He was born in the United States. His parents, both mom and dad, were born in Chihuahua, Mexico. They had been in the US for 16 years. Their household included mom, dad, participant and older 13 year old brother, Raul. Their primary language at home was Spanish. Osvaldo had been in public education since he began pre-kindergarten, and had been served through the district's dual language program. His Spanish reading EDL level was at a level P, which is beginning of fourth grade. His English reading QRI5 reading level was frustration.

The participants in this study were included based on the frustration levels with comprehension, not accuracy as illustrated in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Participant Percentages on Comprehension and Accuracy on Each Passage

Participant	Article/Passage	Comprehension Percentages	Accuracy Percentages
1	Early Railroads	13%	90%
	Plant Structures	13%	95%
2	Early Railroads	25%	95%
	Plant Structures	13%	95%
3	Early Railroads	13%	85%
	Plant Structures	38%	90%
4	Busy Beavers	67%	85%
	Early Railroads	13%	90%
5	Busy Beavers	67%	60%
	Plant Structures	0%	70%

Data Collection

I obtained permission from the school’s principal to conduct the study in fourth grade dual language classroom and worked with administrative offices to secure the necessary permissions. This process included setting an appointment via email with administrator, director of district curriculum department, and district’s coordinator of language arts. The goal of the appointment was to outline clear expectations and research requirements, length of study, implications, benefits for participants and in the field of education, identification of risks, how data will be collected, results and how results will be used.

Data from this qualitative study related to reading expository text for creating meaning was collected in a 4th grade public school of 835 students and a teaching staff of 49. The composition of the dual language classroom consisted of 10 Hispanic children, three African-American children and 12 Anglo-American children. 24 out of 26 children had been together in this cohort since kindergarten in 2008. Each year, instruction had been provided in both English and Spanish at different degrees at which the delivery of instruction was loosely termed dual language.

This consecutive four-week study began with sending home the consent forms in Spanish and English (student/parent native language) in the students take-home folders. These were folders assigned by the campus for written school- to-family communication purposes. Consent forms to parents of students provided detailed information regarding the study, including purpose of study, data gathering processes and sources, protection of confidentiality, and how results were conveyed to parents/students. Once permissions were granted from participants, parents and district, collection of data began. Data from the normal curriculum was collected.

During the RMA sessions, readers were asked three key questions about their reading process:

- Does the miscue make sense?
- Why do you think you made this miscue?
- Did that miscue affect your understanding of the text?

The focus of our RMA sessions was their reading processes after reading expository text.

The miscues selected for the RMA sessions were selected with no specific reason in

mind; however, a commonality across the passages for each participant was considered. Reader responses were audio recorded and transcribed. Marginal notes were made after the RMA sessions during my reflection and listening time of audio recordings. These notes provided an objective perspective of the readers' behaviors and verbal descriptions they used to describe their attitudes toward reading expository text.

The initial conference with the participant was done in the classroom setting. At the request of the school district administration, the pre-study inventory was administered to all students in my dual language classroom, bilingual and monolingual students. However, the pre-study inventories used for this study were only those of the five participants. The first passage of the QRI5 was administered during the initial conference with each reader. This was audio recorded for analyzing at a later time outside the school hours. Due to the time frame allowed by the academic school calendar, only the first RMA session was conducted in the classroom. The preceding RMA session and closing session with the participant was conducted approximately at a 10-day interval at the participants' home with a parent present during the session. At the conclusion of the study, at which all RMA sessions had been completed, the post-reading inventory was administered to participants to provide insight of the reader's reading behaviors and note any changes from the pre- and post-study inventories. These two home visits for each of the participants allowed for the completion of the study. Once all data was gathered and RMAs were coded, transcribed and charted, the analysis to support the findings of the guiding questions to this study was conducted.

Data Analysis

As part of the cross-case analysis, I took all the RMA coding sheets and compiled the data according to each of the QRI5 passages. Once they were coded individually, the passages were then compiled into a combined RMA coding sheet to include all 112 miscues made by all ELL readers across all passages. This allowed me to identify patterns in a variable-oriented format. Totals were cumulative for the following categories: number of self-corrections; percentages of syntactic and semantic acceptability; number of miscues that created meaning change; meaning construction; grammatical relationships; and, graphic and sound similarities. An in-depth description for the patterns of each of these is found in Chapter IV. Charts were created to further analyze the patterns across the passages. The totals and percentages allowed us to measure patterns on the miscues, since our focus was examining the readers' reading process of each of the miscues and its effect on syntax and semantic acceptability. In addition, the RMA coding sheets allowed us to look across the different passages and search for patterns on the miscue word category, which were coded as connection or content words. This analysis allowed me to further find specific patterns applicable to expository text. Professional consultation was sought to assist with the coding for consistency, validity and reliability. An 80% agreement between the consultant and me had to be reached in order to create concise data for analysis.

The next step of data analysis required a separation of miscues into two categories: connection words and content words. Both categories were coded according

to their use within the text. Content words were identified as those words within the given passage that were organized in an expository manner to create the concept within the text. These words were used to develop the given topic and discipline in which they were targeting. Connection words were identified as those words that connected one idea to another idea within the given text. Approximately 72 miscues were categorized as content words and 40 miscues were categorized as connection words. These two categories were then further analyzed to find patterns of self-corrected miscues and miscues that could be identified as syntactic acceptability, semantic acceptability, corrections, meaning change, meaning construction, grammatical relationships, graphic similarities and sound similarities. Tables of these two different analyses are provided in the supplemental file A and file B (See supplemental File A and File B). This analysis of content and connection words provided an in-depth perspective of how ELL readers process expository text while reading.

This cross-case analysis and the pattern clarifications were transferred to matrices that demonstrated and categorize and provided 1) patterns of miscues gathered from the RMA coding sheets; and 2) descriptive language used by the reader to examine reading behaviors after reading expository text. The patterns of miscues were compiled by passage, which allowed me to identify the patterns affecting syntactic and semantic acceptability. The descriptive language was coded on a behavior mapping system which entailed an open-ended coding system.

The behavior mapping system was created to examine the reading behaviors of the ELL readers after they read the expository text. The descriptive language was mapped out in connection to the miscue that was being discussed in the RMA session. Each of the miscue was taken from the transcription and analyzed alongside of the conversations the readers had during the sessions. This process allowed for analysis to be made on how ELLs process expository text, and how they resolve miscues while reading content words. The words used for the behavior mapping system were those miscues made by the ELL readers that were used during the RMA discussion. Eighty percent of these miscues were content words. The miscues were then mapped out and categorized according to how the reader processed and corrected it. Each map represented how the reader responded to the semantic competency of the miscue within the text. A different code was given if the miscue was self-corrected during the RMA session without support, with conversational support, or with code switch conversational support. In addition, depending on when the ELL was able to create meaning, the question of did the reader use semantic, syntactic, or graphophonemic competency to gain the semantic competency for create meaning of expository text was used to help analyze the data.

Miscues were coded under three different categories: self-corrected (C1), conversational support (C2), and code-switch conversational support (C3). Under each of these categories were three more subcategories in which the content words were assigned based on syntactic or semantic abilities, or grapho-phonemics. Semantic coding (Se) was assigned to a word if the reader used semantic abilities to correct the miscue.

Syntactic coding (Sy) was assigned to a word if the reader used syntactic abilities, but lacked semantic ability to correct the miscue. Grapho-phonemic coding (Gp) was assigned to the word if the reader lacked semantic abilities and syntactic abilities, but identified high graphic and sound similarities. If the words was ultimately never corrected (NC) during the RMA session, then it was also coded as such. This data was then taken and compiled to create an open-system categorization of behaviors associated with the ELLs reading processes. This data analysis allowed me to identify patterns of ELLs reading behaviors and how they described their reading process after reading the expository text.

Summary

In this chapter, I have provided a rationale for the utilization of the RMAs as a tool to further analyze ELL readers reading processes. I have also provided the methods used to examine ELLs reading behaviors and how the data was analyzed with the use of variable-oriented strategies to provide descriptive and interpretive data of the ELL readers' behaviors while reading expository text. The use of matrices to analyze data also allowed me to observe their reading behaviors while they read expository text, and it allowed me to establish dialogue necessary to provide findings in respect to the guiding questions of this study.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

In this chapter, the findings are presented. The research was guided by two questions: 1) How do 4th grade ELL readers process expository text? 2) How do 4th grade ELL readers describe reading process after reading expository text? In this study reading behaviors were observed and described using Retrospective Miscue Analysis (RMA). RMA coding charts provided a data analysis framework. The patterns in the analysis led to the findings for the first question. The major findings from this analysis were; a) Reconceptualization of content words, b) Self-monitoring for self-correction c) Challenges to syntactical and semantic acceptability.

The transcripts of the conversations with the children and the pre- and post-study inventories provided evidence leading to the findings related to the second question. The major findings from this analysis were: a) Challenges of semantic transferring from L1 to L2; and, b) ELLs reading process facilitated through conversational support. The findings for each question are presented in this chapter.

Question 1: How Do 4th Grade ELL Readers Process Expository Text?

Reconceptualization of Content Words

In what Auckerman (2007) calls a collapse of BICS and CALP, an ELL builds context meaning through the reconceptualization of words. In other words, a language situation helps build his understanding of where text appears and its use within in the

context. Reconceptualization is accomplished when the reader draws upon linguistic resources or competencies and transforms understandings in new contexts. (Auckerman, 2007).

During the RMA sessions, a total of 112 miscues were collectively analyzed. For the purpose of this study, the miscues were categorized by content words or connection words. Content words are identified as those words used in the content areas that reflect the specialized ways with language, ideas, and thinking related to such disciplines as history and mathematics. Content words also represent academic ways of using language (Kucer, 2013; Krashen, 1996). Content words, such as *locomotive*, *canals* and *adaptation*, used in the texts for this research, require the reader to re-conceptualize in the text in which they appear. Sixty-five percent of the miscues were content words. Connection words are identified as those words that are used for connecting similar concepts (Irwin, 2007). Some of the connection words that appeared in the text used for this study include *an*, *a*, *although*, *why* and *as*. Thirty-five percent of the miscues were connection words. A sample of the connection and content words miscued by three ELL readers who participated in this study are provided below (Table 4.1)

The results suggest that on these particular non-fiction texts, the ELLs were challenged by content words as 98% of the miscues on content words caused a meaning change. As illustrated in Table 4.2, the miscues of Sonia on the QR15 passage, “Early Railroads”, the substitutions Sonia used represented what appears to be an unsuccessful attempt to transfer from the L1 language to the L2 language. Sonia substituted words

with false cognates or non-existent words such as *side* for *slide*, or *vale* for *valve*. These substitutions were similar in graphics and sound, which seem to be the preferred methods of reading processing for these ELL children on these particular texts.

Table 4.1

Example of Content and Connection Words Miscued by Three of the ELLs Who Participated in this Study

					1	2	3	4
Reader	LINE No/MISCUE No.	TEXT	Word Category	READER	SYNTACTIC ACCEPTABILITY	SEMANTIC ACCEPTABILITY	MEANING CHANGE	CORRECTION
Sonia	21	Train	content	track	Y	Y	Y	
	25	Valve	content	vale	N	N	Y	X
	29	canals	content	kennels	Y	N	Y	
	33	Europe	content	arope	N	N	Y	
	34	Took	content	look	N	N	Y	X
Jacob	8	develop	content	delop	N	N	Y	
	17	A	connection	--	Y	Y	N	
	27	although	connection	allow	N	N	Y	
	29	canals	content	kennels	Y	N	Y	
Osvaldo	7	Why	connection	whey	N	N	Y	X
	10	heavier	content	---	Y	Y	Y	
	18	An	connection	a	Y	Y	N	X
	34	As	connection	a	Y	Y	N	X

Table 4.2

Sonia's Content Miscues from QR15 passage, "Early Railroads"

Reader	LINE No/MISCUE No.	TEXT	Word Category	READER	SYNTACTIC ACCEPTABILITY	SEMANTIC ACCEPTABILITY	MEANING CHANGE
Sonia	1	Railroads	content	---	N	N	Y
	5	Wagon	content	vagon	N	N	Y
	7	Better	content	bitter	Y	N	Y
	10	Faster	content	after	Y	Y	Y
	16	advertise	content	advertisements	N	N	Y
	18	locomotive	content	locomo	N	N	Y
	19	Side	content	slide	Y	N	Y
	22	Speed	content	seed	N	N	Y
	22	Neck	content	check	N	N	Y
	23	pulled	content	pued	N	N	Y
	24	cheer	content	cherp	Y	N	Y
	25	suddenly	content	sadly	Y	Y	Y
	25	safety	content	safe	Y	N	Y
	25	Valve	content	vale	N	N	Y
	25	engine	content	---	N	N	Y
	26	slowed	content	slow	N	N	Y
	27	Steam	content	stream	N	N	Y
	29	Years	content	year	Y	Y	N
	29	canals	content	channels	Y	Y	Y
	30	cheapest	content	chapters	N	N	Y
	31	Miles	content	millions	Y	Y	Y
	33	Travel	content	---	Y	N	Y
	33	Miles	content	---	N	N	Y
	34	railroads	content	---	N	N	Y
	34	House	content	hurst	N	N	Y
	35	half	content	fall	N	N	Y
	35	horse	content	---	N	N	Y
	35	drawn	content	---	N	N	Y
	35	wagon	content	---	N	N	Y

Reconceptualization of text also played a major role in the degree of meaning loss. All miscues were subcategorized for meaning construction. Words categorized as *no loss* were miscues that were semantically acceptable with no meaning change, or if not acceptable, were corrected. *Partial loss* words were miscues that were semantically acceptable, but caused some meaning change or are only partially semantically acceptable. These were miscues that were not successfully corrected. Words categorized as *loss* were miscues that, for the most part, were semantically unacceptable and not successfully corrected. 30% of the miscues resulted in *no loss* of meaning. 17% of the miscues resulted with *partial loss* of meaning, and 53% of the miscues resulted in complete *loss* of meaning (Table 4.3).

However, further sub-analysis of 72 content and 40 connection words suggests that ELLs meaning construction varies with both subcategories. Meaning construction on content word suggests that only 15% had *no loss*, 19% had *partial loss*, but 65% had complete *loss* of meaning. Meaning construction on connection words suggests that 57.5% had no loss, 10% had partial loss, and 32.5% had complete loss of meaning, also illustrated in Table 4.3. The data show that content words resulted in more meaning loss for ELLs reading these particular texts.

Table 4.3

Meaning Construction of Total Miscues (112 miscues), Subcategorized by Content and Connection Words

Meaning Construction				
Type of word	No Loss	Partial Loss	Loss	total miscues
content	11	14	47	72
% content	15%	19%	65%	64%
connection	23	4	13	40
% connection	58%	10%	33%	36%

Challenges to Syntactical and Semantic Acceptability

This study allowed for an insight to the readers' patterns of syntactic and semantic competency. Modified from its original version laid out by Goodman and Marek (1996), the RMA procedures were helpful in identifying patterns of syntactic and semantic acceptability of ELLs reading miscues while reading expository text. In search of patterns for syntactic acceptability, miscues were coded as either *Y* or *N*. The miscue was coded a *Y* when it occurred in a structure that was completely syntactically acceptable within the sentence and within the text. The miscue was coded with an *N* if it occurred in a sentence that was not syntactically acceptable. In the same manner, patterns for semantic acceptability were coded as either *Y* or *N*. The miscue was coded a *Y* if the miscue occurred in a structure that was completely semantically acceptable within the

sentence and within the text. The miscue was coded an *N* if it occurred in a sentence that was not semantically acceptable.

ELLs total miscues (n=112) had 50% syntactic and 50% semantic acceptability. However, the content miscues revealed a unique pattern. The content miscues had 19% semantic acceptability and 43% syntactic acceptability. These results suggests that ELLs seem to have the potential to maintain sentence structure in their expository reading even though they do not seem to be applying semantics, resulting in challenges constructing meaning. As an ELL reads through an expository text, it seems that they were focused on trying to make grapho-phoneme relations and using some syntactic competency. Semantics seemed to be neglected in the reading process (Tables 4.4 and 4.5).

Table 4.4

Syntactic and Semantic Acceptability and Meaning Change Data (Content Miscues)

Syntactic acceptability			Semantic acceptability			meaning change		
	n =	%		n =	%		n =	%
Y	30	42%	Y	14	19%	Y	64	89%
N	42	58%	N	58	81%	N	8	11%

Table 4.5

Syntactic and Semantic Acceptability and Meaning Change Data (Connection Miscues)

Syntactic acceptability			Semantic acceptability			Meaning acceptability		
	n =	%		n =	%		n =	%
Y	26	65%	Y	22	55%	Y	18	45%
N	14	35%	N	18	45%	N	22	55%

Semantic relationships in the miscues were analyzed using the RMA categories. Miscues were categorized as *strength*, *partial strength*, *overcorrection* and *weakness*. *Strength* was indicated when miscues are syntactically and semantically acceptable, or, if not, are corrected. *Partial strength* was indicated when miscues are acceptable syntactically but not fully semantically acceptable and not corrected. *Overcorrection* was indicated when miscues are fully acceptable syntactically and semantically, yet the reader self-corrects. *Weakness* was indicated when miscues are not fully acceptable syntactically or semantically and are not successfully corrected (Goodman and Marek, 1996).

Graphic and sound similarity were also coded with each of the miscues according to the RMA coding categories. Both were coded using *H* for high degree; *S* for some degree; and, *N* for no degree of similarity (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6

RMA Coding Categories: Comparisons of Strengths Between Semantic and Syntactic Relationships on All Miscues Separated by Content and Connection Words

Semantic and Syntactic Relationships

	Strength (syntactically and semantically acceptable, or self-corrected)	Partial Strength (syntactically acceptable, but not semantically acceptable)	Overcorrection (fully acceptable and self-corrected)	Weakness (not syntactically nor semantically acceptable and not corrected)	Graphic Similarity			Sound Similarity		
					H	S	N	H	S	N
content words n = 72	9	18	5	40	56	1	15	52	6	14
connection words n = 40	8	7	8	17	25	3	12	24	4	12
percentage content words	13%	25%	7%	55%	77%	1%	21%	72%	8%	19%
Percentage connection words	20%	17.5%	20%	42.5%	62.5%	7.5%	30%	60%	10%	30%

It is evident that ELLs in this study found semantic relationships within the specific expository text read challenging. This miscues for content words exhibited a 13% strength in grammatical relationship; however, the graphic and sound similarities were at 77% and 72% respectively, as revealed in Table 4.6. Content words exhibited a 55% weakness in semantic and syntactic acceptability. ELL readers seemed to process connection words similarly exhibiting a high degree of 42% weakness with high graphic and sound similarities at 62.5% and 60% respectively. These results suggest that ELL readers in this study seem to be familiar with the grapho-phoneme aspect of content words. However, those same readers made syntactic or semantic miscues without self-correction.

Challenges in Monitoring and Self-Correction

Readers who exhibit awareness of self-monitoring while reading are able to self-correct. This allows the reader use syntax and semantics in the reading processing. ELLs in this study did not stop or slow down to monitor errors that were not semantically acceptable. A total of 17 errors were self-corrected out of the total of 112. Fifteen percent of all analyzed miscues were self-corrected. Content words had less self-corrections than connection words. For example, 41% of content words such as *leaves* and *lodge* (QRI5, *Plant Structures for Survival* passage) were self-corrected. However, 59% of the connection words were self-corrected, such as *then* and *why* (QRI5, *Early Railroads* passage). The content words in the passages that were self-corrected were *valve*, *took*, *help*, *adaptations*, *place*, *feed* and *pond*. The chosen substitutions by the readers were *vale*, *look*, *helps*, *adaptions*, *places*, *need* and *bond*, respectively. These seven out of 112 words constitute 6% of the total miscues that were self-corrected. Readers seemed to be aware of word patterns within the target language, being able to distinguish graphics and phonemes within the words (Tables 4.7 and 4.8). The ten words that were subcategorized as connection words, which make up the 59% of the self-corrected miscues, suggest that ELLs seem to use their syntax to support their reading process while reading expository text, as also illustrated in Tables 4.7 and 4.8.

Example 1: Content word insertion: Student inserts *help*, but then re-reads for self-correction.

help
 ^
 Vines climb up the sides of taller plants or
 S/C
 objects where there is more sunlight.

Example 2: Content word substitution: Student substitutes *valve* with *vale*, but then re-reads for self-correction.

But suddenly a safety *vale* ~~valve~~ in the engine broke.
 S/C R

On the other hand, when self-corrections on connection words were attempted, the ELLs seem to utilize syntax to go back and reread to make the correction.

Example 3: Connection word substitution: Reader substitutes *an* for *a*, but then re-reads for self-correction.

a
 On ~~an~~ August day that year, the locomotive and the gray
 S/C R
 horse lined up side by side.

Example 4: Connection word substitution: Reader substitutes *why* for *whay*, but then re-reads for self-correction.

Whay |
 Then Peter Cooper got a better idea. ~~Whay~~ not develop a
 S/C R
 steam engine, or locomotive, to pull the carts?

Table 4.7

Miscues Subcategorized as Content Words that were Self-Corrected From All Readers

LINE No/MISCUE No.	TEXT	Word Category	READER	SYNTACTIC ACCEPTABILITY	SEMANTIC ACCEPTABILITY	MEANING CHANGE	CORRECTION
25	valve	content	vale	N	N	Y	X
34	took	content	look	N	N	Y	X
24	helps	content	help	N	Y	N	X
6	adaptations	content	adapions	N	N	Y	X
9	place	content	places	Y	Y	N	X
11	pond	content	bond	Y	N	Y	X
26	feed	content	need	Y	Y	Y	X

Table 4.8

Miscues Subcategorized as Connection Words that were Self-Corrected From All Readers

LINE No/MISCUE No.	TEXT	Word Category	READER	SYNTACTIC ACCEPTABILITY	SEMANTIC ACCEPTABILITY	MEANING CHANGE	CORRECTION
5	than	connection	that	Y	Y	N	X
9	a	connection	the	Y	Y	N	X
18	an	connection	a	Y	Y	N	X
7	why	connection	whey	N	N	Y	X
18	an	connection	a	Y	Y	N	X
34	as	connection	a	Y	Y	N	X
3	along	connection	a lot	N	N	Y	X
7	then	connection	the	Y	Y	N	X
18	on	connection	one	Y	Y	N	X
2	they	connection	tha	Y	Y	N	X

In the RMA process, the ELL readers in this study appear to use grapho-phonics in their reading processes. They did not appear to self-monitor with semantics. As

illustrated in Table 4.9, ELL readers did not appear to self-monitor with semantics, thus resulting in few self-corrections in all QRI5 passages used for this study.

Table 4.9

Comparison Chart of Content and Connection Miscues Self-Corrected with Total Miscues

	Content	Connection	Self-corrections
Self-Corrections	7	10	17
Percentages	6%	9%	15%

Summary of Question 1: How Do 4th Grade ELL Readers Process Expository Text?

The findings to question one of this study suggests that 4th grade ELL readers are challenged by content words more than connection words while processing expository text. The data shows that content words resulted in more meaning loss for the ELLs reading these particular texts. The results also suggest that ELL readers seem to be familiar with the grapho-phoneme aspect of content words and made syntactic or semantic miscues without self-correction. The findings also suggest that ELL readers utilize syntax to support their reading process. Connection words appeared to be used as signals by readers to process structure.

Question 2: How Do 4th Grade ELL Readers Describe Reading Process After Reading Expository Text?

The purpose of RMA's was to help teachers (and researchers in this case) and children revalue the reading process. The RMA sessions allowed the readers to become active participants in an analytical process by listening to previously recorded passages. Conversations during the RMA sessions were centered on decisions the reader made during the reading process. Two pieces of data were taken to help address this question. One piece of data was the pre- and post-study inventories filled out by each of the participants. The second piece of data was the transcriptions compiled from each RMA session. Those transcripts were organized around the selected miscue for the conversation. Each RMA session was then mapped out around conversations, cueing systems, and self-correction, and code-switching to the child's native language.

The findings to support a portion of this question are presented in segments that represent each reader's conversation during the RMAs. Transcriptions of the RMAs' key conversations are provided as visuals, followed by a brief description and analysis of each of the reader's behavior after reading expository text.

To facilitate the student behaviors after reading expository text, mapping charts of their behaviors during the RMA sessions were compiled. Behavior maps are illustrated for each of the readers' miscues analyzed, and are being referred to as Behavior Maps throughout the remainder of these findings. Each of the miscue was taken from the transcription and analyzed alongside of the conversations the readers had during the sessions. This process allowed for analysis to be made on how ELLs process expository text, and how they resolve miscues while reading content words. The miscues taken from

the RMAs were mapped and categorized according to how the reader processed and corrected it.

Miscues were coded under three different categories: *self-corrected (C1)* which meant that the error was self-corrected by simply drawing the student's attention to the error, *conversational support (C2)* which meant that some conversation occurred around the error, and *code-switch conversational support (C3)* which meant the child was supported by a conversation in Spanish. Under each of these categories, three additional subcategories were assigned to the content words based on *syntactic* or *semantic competency*, or *grapho-phonemics*. *Semantic coding (Se)* was assigned to a word if the reader used *semantic competencies* to correct the miscue. *Syntactic coding (Sy)* was assigned to a word if the reader used *syntactic competencies*, but lacked semantic competency to correct the miscue. *Grapho-phonemic coding (Gp)* was assigned to the word if the reader lacked semantic competency and/or syntactic competency, but identified high graphic and sound similarities. If the words were *ultimately never corrected (NC)* during the RMA session, then it was also coded as such. Miscues that were insertions were coded according to their acceptability up to the point of error.

Challenges of Semantic Awareness Transferring From L1 to L2: ELLs Reading Processes Facilitated Through Conversational Support

During the RMA sessions, readers were asked three key questions about their reading process:

- Does the miscue make sense?
- Why do you think you made this miscue?
- Did that miscue affect your understanding of the text?

The focus of conversations was their reading processes after reading expository text.

Reader One: Sonia

Sonia is a newcomer into the United States. The RMA conversation in English did not appear to make sense to her, thus code-switching began early during the session to facilitate her understanding. This seemed to allow Sonia to become comfortable and engage in the conversation. Sonia seemed to be aware that her miscues did change the meaning of her sentence and seemed to be familiar with the miscue in her L1. This became evident during the RMA session on the word “*building*”. Sonia’s semantic competency seemed challenged as she was able to define “*build*” in her L1, but was not sure why the word appeared to look the same or mean the same thing with the suffix added to the word. Extensive conversation took place in her native language as the RMA continued in an effort to build meaning on root words with prefixes and suffixes. This helped create enough meaning to continue with the reading and use syntax to build semantic acceptability (Table 4.10).

Table 4.10

Sonia’s RMA Session on “Building”

Line No.	Speaker	Transcription
17	S	<i>Booldings...</i>
18	T	<i>Ok – if this one’s builders, what do you think this one is?</i>
19	S	<i>Buildings?</i>
20	T	<i>Do you see the similarities? Do you see how they’re the same... if this one is builders, what’s this one?</i>
21	S	<i>Buildings?</i>
22	T	<i>That’s right...now, Shellsea – do you know what a builder or a building is?</i>
23	S	<i>What?</i>
24	T	<i>A builder or a building... do you know what the word build means? Construir... ¿sabes que significa esta palabra? (Construct... do you know what this word means?)</i>
25	S	<i>Si – cuando haces algo. (Yes, when you do something)</i>
26	T	<i>Sabiendo lo que significa construir, de que piensas tu que está hablando el pasaje? Building? What are they talking about in the passage? (Knowing what construct means, what do you think this passage is talking about?)</i>
27	S	<i>Primero el castor construye un rio.... Están construyendo algo... los castores... están construyendo casas. (First the beaver constructed a river... he was constructing something... the beavers... they are constructing houses.)</i>
28	T	<i>¿Cómo sabes que son casas? (How do you know they are houses?)</i>
29	S	<i>Están hablando de pedazos de madera, de viviendas, y de hojas que usan. Rejuntan para construirlas. (They are talking about pieces of wood, about homes, and the leaves they use.)</i>
30	T	<i>Okay – esta palabra cuando la dijiste antes, sonaba bien en la oración? Tenía sentido? (- this word, when you said it before, did it sound right in the sentence?)</i>
31	S	<i>No... pues no. (No... well, no.)</i>
32	T	<i>¿Por qué no? (Why not?)</i>
33	S	<i>Es que – no sabía que significaba. Hasta que me ayudo... It’s ‘cause.... I didn’t know what it meant. Until you helped me...</i>

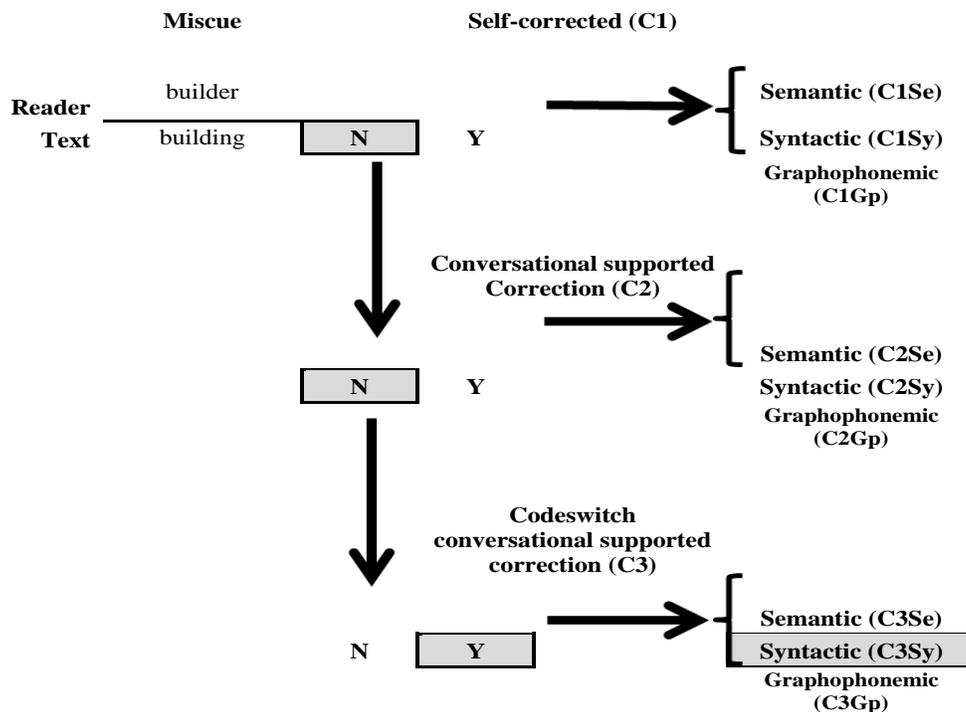


Figure 5: Sonia’s word “building”

Sonia’s miscue of “*building*” was coded as a C3Sy. She was unable to demonstrate semantic competency, thus used syntactic competency to process the word while reading the expository text. In addition, she needed native language support to create meaning during the RMA session, as illustrated in Figure 5.

Sonia’s second miscue was “*side*”. She seemed to be more comfortable this time, and seemed to want to validate the use of the English language during the RMA session. Sonia was able to identify the visual discrimination in her miscue stating the correct word the second time she reads it. Sonia was asked why she thought she had made the miscue, and she responded seemingly to be aware of the meaning of the word. She explained that

she “*really doesn’t know why*” she “*didn’t say it correctly.*” Sonia seemed to experience difficulty with semantics. She was compensating with the high graphic and sound similarity. In addition, her focus on pronunciation seemed to take away from her self-monitoring and thus self-correction (Table 4.11).

Table 4.11

Sonia’s RMA Session on “Side”

43	T	<i>Ok slide. What does it say? Let s read this sentence again. Let’s read this using the word slide.</i>
44	S	<i>On an August day, that year that loco- mo – tive and the gray horse lined up slide by slide.</i>
45	T	<i>Ok - let’s try reading it using the word that’s there... what does it say?</i>
46	S	<i>Side by side...</i>
47	T	<i>Okay let’s try reading it again... Using the word that is in there... what was the word there?</i>
48	S	<i>SIDE...</i>
49	T	<i>oK read it for me...</i>
50	S	<i>ON an August day, that year the locomotive and the gray horse lined up on side by side.</i>
51	T	<i>Ok so do you know what slide means?</i>
52	T	<i>Slide – ¿qué significa esta palabra? Sabes qué significa? (do you know what this word means?....Do you know what it means?)</i>
53	S	<i>Deslizarse (taking off)</i>
54	T	<i>Deslizarse...Ok ¿y qué significa side? (taking of... ok, and what does side mean?)</i>
55	S	<i>Como al lado de aquí. (Like to the side of here)</i>
56	T	<i>Ok al lado de aquí. (Ok to the side here.)</i>
		<i>¿Cuál de esas palabras suena mejor en esta oración?(Which of those words sounds better in the sentence?)</i>
57	S	<i>Al lado de aquí (the side of here)</i>
58	T	<i>Por qué piensas que pusiste esta palabra ahí? (Why do you think you put this word there?)</i>
59	S	<i>Porque – cuando la estaba leyendo, no la leí correctamente. (Because – when I was reading, I read it incorrect.)</i>

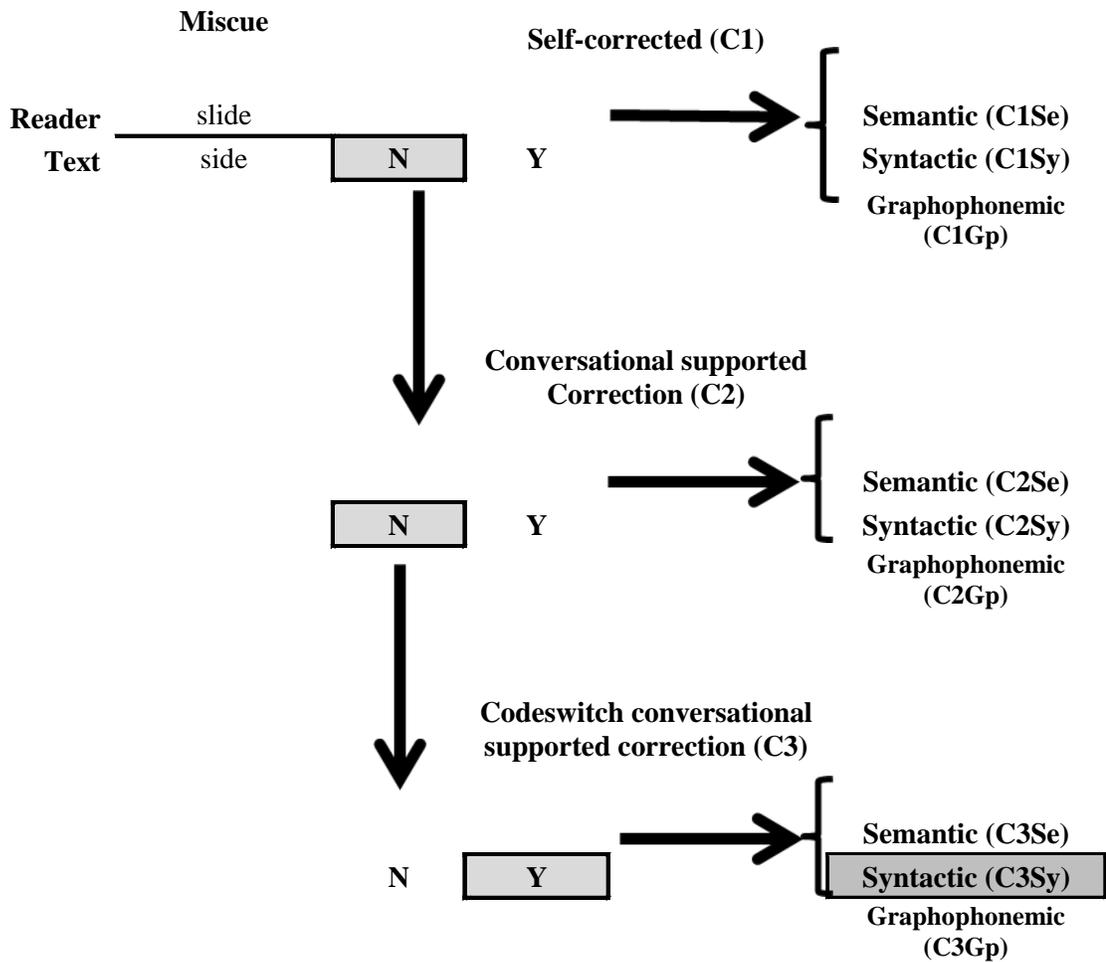


Figure 6: Sonia’s word “side”

Sonia’s miscue of “*side*” was coded as C3Sy. During the RMA session, Sonia’s miscue was syntactically acceptable but lacked semantic competency to create meaning of the word. In addition, she needed native language support to decipher the meaning of the word, as illustrated in Figure 6.

Sonia's post-study inventory revealed her feelings about reading in English and how it is different for her reading in her L1. She stated that she "*feels strange*" reading in English. However, she added that "*reading in English will help learn more.*" Sonia shared that at the beginning of the study, her attitude towards books was "*scary*", but after our sessions she felt "*she can read different types of books and passages.*" She stated "*she couldn't do it before, but now I can do it.*" Her acknowledgement that she can do it has allowed her to feel better as a reader in her L1 and L2. Sonia felt that the RMA sessions helped her "*a lot... telling me how to check my miscues.*"

Reader Two: Rocio

Rocio is a native Texan but her home language is Spanish. The English she gained has been through her siblings, who are fluent in English and Spanish. Rocio still seemed to get very nervous when reading aloud to someone, especially teachers. She confirmed this through the first RMA session. Rocio seemed to be able to self-monitor for self-correction; however, semantics appeared to be neglected in her reading. She seemed to be aware of her miscues when we begin the RMA sessions. She began the session stating "*like you know how Mexican people add another word to make it make sense.....*" Rocio also seemed to be aware of syntactical differences in L1 and L2. For example, Rocio knows that the adjectives in English come before the subject but are reversed in Spanish. Rocio proceeded to explain her thoughts about being a good reader, and mentioned that she knew she had to be careful. She added that her miscues didn't make sense because of this addition (Table 4.12).

Table 4.12

Rocio's RMA Session on "an"

<i>Line No.</i>	<i>Speaker</i>	<i>Transcription</i>
8	<i>T</i>	<i>So why do you think you put that word in there?</i>
9	<i>R</i>	<i>Because I didn't know what it said or like, like you know how Mexican people add another word to make it make sense....</i>
10	<i>T</i>	<i>You think we do that?</i>
11	<i>T</i>	<i>Keep reading....</i>
12	<i>R</i>	<i>Coop... cooper wanted to let people know about his new machine, so he advertised a race between the tom thumb and a gray horse.</i>
13	<i>T</i>	<i>Ok. So let's talk about this here. You noticed you make a miscue here – you think a lot of it has to do with the way we talk in Spanish.</i> <i>Ok – explain that a little more to me, Ruby.</i>
14	<i>R</i>	<i>Because, Like later on, when you get older and you notice it. Like, I was looking through my kindergarten papers and first grade papers and I noticed how I made a mistake and I added the words that didn't make sense.</i>

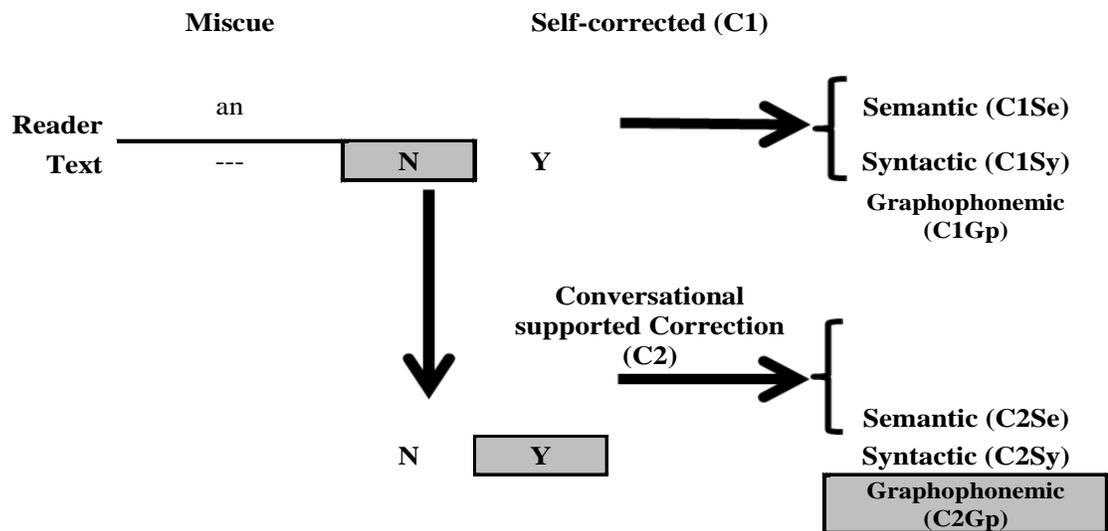


Figure 7: Rocio's word was an insertion

Rocio's miscue, the insertion "an", was coded as *C2Gp*. During the RMA session, Rocio used her syntactic competencies to insert the word which made sense to her up to the point of error. Rocio did not need additional native language support during the conversation.

No code-switching was necessary for Rocio's RMA sessions. She seemed to be familiar with some English and Spanish syntax. This allowed her to self-correct as she listened to the passage recordings, as illustrated in Figure 7. Rocio seemed to understand that self-monitoring while reading will makes her a better reader. Rocio's fluency and accuracy seemed to influence the semantic acceptability of her errors; she stated she "does not always listen" to what she is reading. Her word-calling while reading seemed to be preventing her from demonstrating competency with semantics.

Rocio’s second RMA focused on a self-corrected word “*adaptation.*” The RMA session allowed Rocio to use what she learned at the first RMA session with using her tracker as well as maintaining fluency. Rocio seemed to be demonstrating self-monitoring skills for self-correction; however the error still lacked semantic acceptability. For example, when asked what the word “*adaptation*” meant, she was unable to give a definition. She also seemed to realize that her reading fast may be a factor to her miscue which may contribute to her lack of semantic competency (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13

Rocio’s RMA Session on “Adaptation”

<i>Line No.</i>	<i>Speaker</i>	<i>Transcription</i>
43	T	<i>When you read the passage, you corrected it and then you kept reading... why did you correct it?</i>
44	R	<i>That word? Adapt – adapt....ation adaptation?</i>
45	T	<i>Yes... adaptation</i>
46	R	<i>Because I was reading it and then, I reread it and when I do that I can usually say the words right. Sometimes I can and sometimes I can’t say them right. But, I always think about rereading.</i>
47	T	<i>Ok. Roci this word... the one you self-corrected – adaptation... do you know what it means? Does the miscue make sense?</i>
48	R	<i>I know it means to adapt to something... like to adapt to an environment or to some change...</i>
49	T	<i>Ok – so can we say that maybe adapt means to prepare yourself for a change?</i>
50	R	<i>Yea, something like it... but in this passage – they’re talking about adaptation – plants and how they adapt.</i>
51	T	<i>So, when you self-corrected you knew that the word meant to make a change because of the environment?</i>
52	R	<i>Yes -</i>

not seem to be aware of his miscues when he listened to his recorded passages. During his expository reading, Jacob was still not aware of his miscues. However during our conversation and after listening to his recordings, he did seem to be aware that he made an error, and states, “*Wait, I’ve left out a syllable.*” In addition, Jacob seemed to like rushing through his text. In the conversation, he seemed to realize that this caused the miscue. Jacob at times did exhibit self-monitoring for self-correction; evidence of this is his correct reading on the word “*adaptation*” the second time he sees it in the text. Jacob seemed to struggle with semantic competency within the text and within our RMA discussions. He was unsuccessful in providing the definition to the word “*adaptation*”, and he was unsuccessful in understanding the questions being asked that were related to the passages. (Table 4.14).

Table 4.14

Jacob’s RMA Session on “Adaptation”

Line No.	Speaker	Transcription
27	T	<i>You did correct it. The second time you did, right? Give me a high five! That’s monitoring your reading that’s being able to say”oops I said something wrong here” so I know I have to fix it. You corrected it the second time You did Does the miscue sound like what it looks like on the page? Adaption looks like adaptation.</i>
28	J	<i>Adaptation.</i>
29	T	<i>So they do look similar. So a lot of is your just zooming to read fast, so you know what you need to right. Do you know what adaption means?</i>
30	J	<i>Mmm.. I’m not sure. Isn’t it the same thing?</i>

(Continued)

31	T	<i>Let's talk about the meaning of this word – adaptation. It looks very similar to adaption. In reality, Jonathan, both words mean the same thing. It means to change your way of being to a new environment, just like the plants...Do you think that saying it either way would have helped you understand what you read better?</i>
32	J	<i>I don't know... I didn't understand the question you asked after I read the story.</i>
33	T	<i>That's okay. So maybe you could listen to yourself reading some more, and work on slowing down so you can understand better. Sometimes when we slow down we can make pictures in our mind of what we read. This helps us better understand everything we read. So what are some things you can do Jonathan, to help you understand better?</i>
34	J	<i>Slow down</i>
35	T	<i>So and that's probably why you made your miscue. Did your miscue affect how you understood what you read?</i>
36	T	<i>Do you understand what the sentence is telling you?</i>
37	J	<i>Yes, but not because I made a mistake – I don't think I understood the question that you asked me about adaptation.</i>
37	T	<i>Do you think that those miscues affected how you understood that?</i>
38	J	<i>Yes</i>

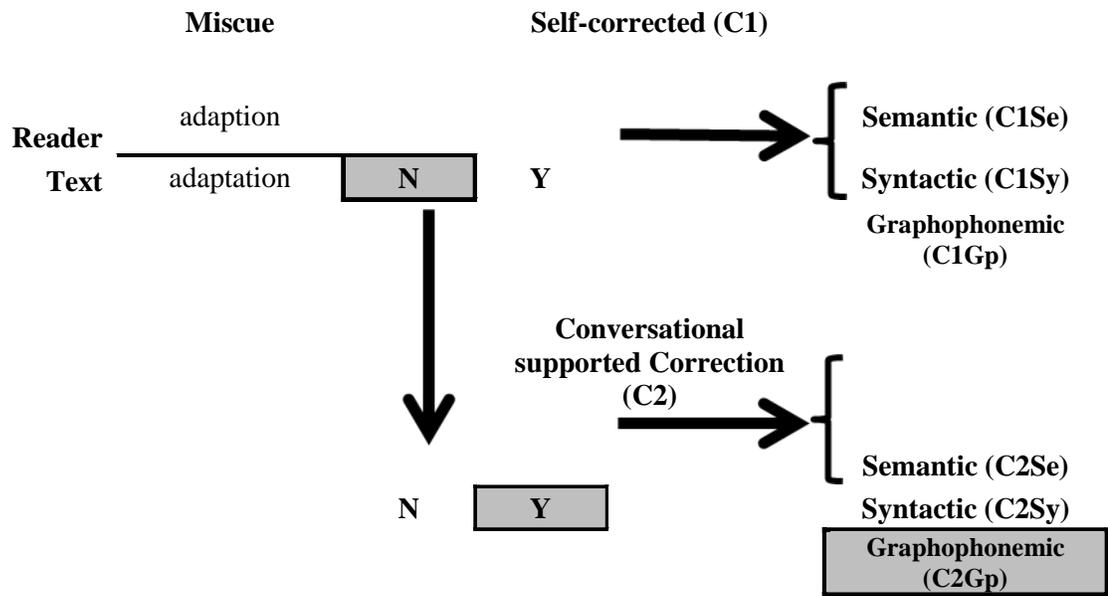


Figure 9: Jacob’s word “adaptation”

Jacob’s miscue of “*adaptation*” was coded as *C2Gp*. During the RMA session, Jacob’s miscue was syntactically acceptable and semantically acceptable. However, his semantics fell short of his competency in creating meaning of the word itself, thus relying on high graphic and high sound similarities, as illustrated in Figure 9.

Jacob’s second miscue chosen was *canals*. This miscue did not seem to make sense to Jacob during the RMA session. He substituted it with “*kennels*”. Jacob did not seem to know the meaning of the word “*kennels*” nor “*canals*”. He did, however seem to be aware that his want to finish reading quickly may have been related to the miscue. Jacob was challenged to construct meaning and gain semantic competency. However, he did realize that he said “*kernel*” and says it reminded him of “*popcorn kernels*.” Looking at both *kennel* and *kernel*, both words have high graphic and sound

similarity. This connection was used to help build background knowledge during the session and discussion on reconceptualization of each of the words. The focus of this RMA session seemed to help Jacob differentiate the meaning of the words associated with his miscue. He began to reconceptualize the similar miscues and was able to successfully create meaning (Table 4.15a and 4.15b).

Table 4.15a

Jacob's RMA Session on "Canals"

43	<i>J</i>	<i>Over the ... the... next 20 years, railroads.... Railroads re-replaced kennels as the easiest and cheapest way to travel.</i>
44	<i>T</i>	<i>Awesome – we're going to look at the word "kennels" vs. "canals." Jonathan, does this miscue make sense to you?</i>
45	<i>J</i>	<i>No</i>
46	<i>T</i>	<i>No it doesn't? Tell me more...</i>
47	<i>T</i>	<i>Did you correct it when you read it?</i>
48	<i>J</i>	<i>I'm not sure – wait... is that not the same word as that one? That's not how you pronounce it? (pointing at the words kennels and canals).</i>
	<i>J</i>	<i>No, wait... but it looks... Oh... I didn't say it all?</i>
49	<i>T</i>	<i>Well, maybe they kind of look the same, but let's talk about something...</i>
		<i>Do you know what kennels are?</i>
50	<i>J</i>	<i>Nnno.... I'm not sure.</i>

Table 4.15b

Jacob's Continued RMA Session on "Canals"

64	<i>T</i>	<i>Well, does the passage talk about any popcorn during the story?</i>
65	<i>J</i>	<i>Nooo!</i>
66	<i>T</i>	<i>Ok – so have you heard it any where else?</i>
67	<i>J</i>	<i>No – I guess not.</i>
68	<i>T</i>	<i>Kennel is a cage we put pets in when we travel. Or it could also be the cage they stay in when they are taken to the dog pound? Have you ever been there?</i>
69	<i>J</i>	<i>No... but I do have a dog! He's in the back barking. Can you hear him??</i>
70	<i>T</i>	<i>He really doesn't want to be out there, does he?</i>
71	<i>J</i>	<i>Nah, he's crazy!</i>
72	<i>T</i>	<i>Do you understand what a kennel means now?</i>
73	<i>J</i>	<i>Yea – I said the wrong word, then... right???</i>
74	<i>T</i>	<i>That's okay – they do kind of sound the same, but they are spelled different. Okay – let's look at this word – canals... you said you didn't know what it meant. Have you ever heard of the word canals?</i>
75	<i>J</i>	<i>No.... I don't think so.</i>
76	<i>T</i>	<i>Canals is like a little river... like a creek.</i>
77	<i>J</i>	<i>You mean like the Rio Grande?</i>
78	<i>T</i>	<i>Not really. Es como un riachuelo donde corre poca agua. Cuando llueve, el agua de los canales llega dar a un lago, o un rio mas grande, como el Rio Grande. (It's like a creek where small amounts of wáter runs. When it rains, the water from the canals reach the lakes or rivers that are bigger, like the Rio Grande).</i>
79	<i>J</i>	<i>Oh... ok. So it's like a little river? With a little water, right?</i>

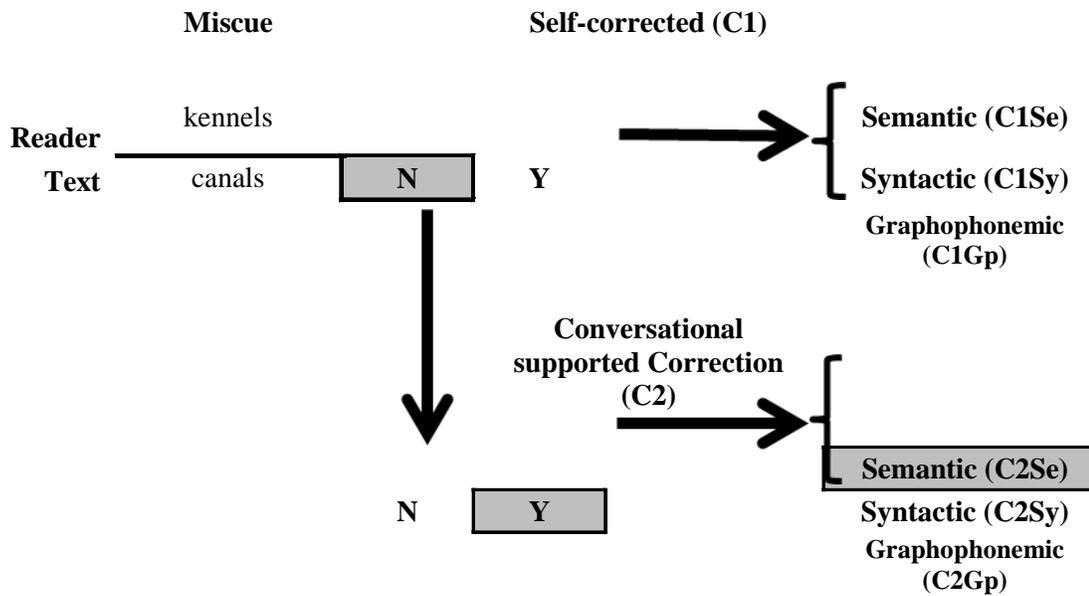


Figure 10: Jacob’s Word “Canals”

Jacob’s miscue of “*canals*” was coded as *C2Se*. During the RMA session, Jacob’s miscue was syntactically acceptable but not semantically acceptable, and he needed no native language support during the conversation, as illustrated in Figure 10.

Jacob’s post-study interview seemed to give an impression that he was not interested in the RMA session. His responses were short with words like “*fine*” and were accompanied with body gestures and shoulder shrugs. Jacob’s attitude toward reading did not appear to change from the beginning of the study to the end, and he stated that “*no*” changes had happened as a result of the sessions. Yet Jacob claims to learn “*new words*” during our sessions.

Reader Four: Celina

Celina's home language was Spanish as parents are from San Luis Potosi, Mexico. She was fluent in English and Spanish, but code-switching conversation was necessary to support her reading. Celina seemed to be nervous and anxious about discussing her reading process during the RMA session. She seemed to exhibit competency with retelling skills when talking about what she just read, being able to maintain logical order and state the main idea from the passages. Celina's miscue was "*power*" and was substituted with "*powder*". Celina seemed to be interested in fixing her miscues. Her active participation in the discussion allowed her to build semantic competency. Her substitution of "*powder*" exhibited high graphic and high sound similarities. Celina did not seem to know the meaning of either word even though she orally articulated both words correctly. Celina seemed to be struggling with understanding the question asked during the RMA session. Code-switching was necessary to foster the conversation. The method of code-switching did not seem to help Celina with semantic competency and the use of the miscue. The use of the content word and the miscue were interestingly enough used by Celina even though she's unable to define either of them in L1 nor L2. She seemed to be confident because of the high graphic and sound similarity. When asked if she knew about "*steam*", she was able to respond "*it is a result of power.*" The RMA session allowed the conversation to support her understanding of what the words meant in her L1 and reconceptualize within the text. The miscue did change her understanding of the story, but she was able to recover

minimal semantic competency when she corrected her sentence with the correct word (Table 4.16).

Table 4.16

Celina's RMA Session on "Power"

<i>Line No.</i>	<i>Speaker</i>	<i>Transcription</i>
29	<i>C</i>	<i>In 1830 cooper built a steam powdered engine...</i>
30	<i>T</i>	<i>Now read the word that's in it</i>
31	<i>C</i>	<i>In 1830 cooper build a steam powered engine....</i>
32	<i>T</i>	<i>Ok so what does that mean</i>
33	<i>C</i>	<i>So he built a machine and put powder in it....</i>
		<i>Pow....</i>
		<i>He put power in it.</i>
34	<i>T</i>	<i>So do you know what powder means?</i>
35	<i>C</i>	<i>No</i>
36	<i>T</i>	<i>Powder.... Como talco.... Lo que te pones en el cuerpo. no sabes que es talco? (Like talc... What you put on your body... you don't know what talc is?)</i>
37	<i>T</i>	<i>So when you said powdered, cooper built a steam powdered engine... it's powdered with steam.</i>
		<i>But when you say power, where was it going to get its power from?</i>
38	<i>C</i>	<i>Steam</i>
39	<i>T</i>	<i>So do you think that your miscue changed the meaning of the text?</i>

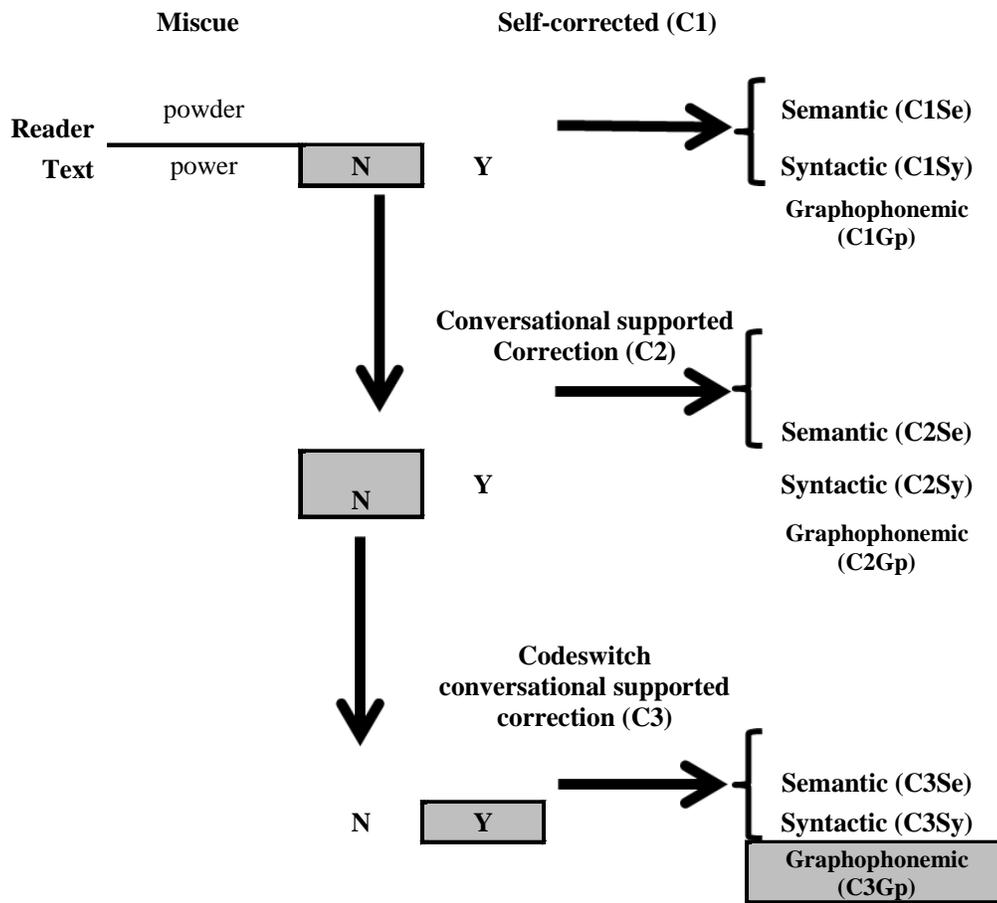


Figure 11: Celina’s word “power”

Celina’s miscue of “*power*” was coded as *C3Gp*. During the RMA session, Celina’s miscue was syntactically acceptable but lacked semantic acceptability to create meaning of the word. Celina also struggled with semantic competency in her L1 and L2 relying on high graphic and high sound similarities. She also needed native language support to decipher the meaning of the word, as illustrated in Figure 11.

Celina's second miscue was "*supply*". Celina seemed to be repeating herself quite a bit while reading her expository text. The RMA session began with discussion on her reading process and to explain why she thought she repeated herself. She mentioned that she did that so "*I can understand the words or word... what it says.*" Celina was aware of self-monitoring for self-correction; thus, she seemed to be aware of some of the meaning change caused by the miscue of the content word. However, she seemed to struggle expressing herself orally when responding to the questions being asked during the RMA session. Celina's miscues exhibit syntactical acceptability. She realized that her miscue was not the text word and rereads again. She was then able to explain that her miscue as it related to structure, and goes on to explain that "*supply*" is only one supply, and "*supplies*" is more than one. Overgeneralization of words of this nature is common for ELLs and often times affect the semantic competence in reading for the reader. Celina was also aware that if she would slow down in her reading, she would be able to construct more meaning while reading and increase her semantic competency (Table 4.17).

Table 4.17

Celina's RMA Session on "Supply"

<i>Line No.</i>	<i>Speaker</i>	<i>Transcription</i>
52	T	<i>Ok. Probably will.... Ok let's look at one other one that you have.</i>
		<i>I've marked one more for you here....right here</i>
		<i>Go ahead and read this sentence</i>
53	C	<i>"As trees are cut down, birds, squirrels and other animals may have to find new homes. Animals that feed on trees lose their food supply."</i>
54	T	<i>Lose their food supply. Ok read what you have put in here read the sentence right here with what you have put in... supplies</i>
55	C	<i>Animals that live on trees lose their food supplies...</i>
56	T	<i>Does this miscue change the meaning of the sentence?</i>
57	C	<i>Yes.</i>
58	T	<i>In what way</i>
59	C	<i>Its like its not just one food supply for one animal but for different kinds</i>
60	T	<i>Of food supplies?</i>
61	C	<i>Not like different supplies lime more than one food supply</i>
62	C	<i>More than one</i>
63	T	<i>But what does this talk about</i>
64	T	<i>Does this change the meaning of the story right there?</i>
65	C	<i>Well, yes – sort of</i>
66	T	<i>How</i>

	<i>T</i>	<i>So what are we talking about?</i>
67	<i>C</i>	<i>That the beavers cut down trees...</i>
68	<i>T</i>	<i>Ok – so the trees... is that one food supply or several food supplies</i>
69	<i>C</i>	<i>One</i>
70	<i>T</i>	<i>So do you think that supplies changes the meaning of the sentence?</i>
71	<i>C</i>	<i>Yes – cuz it doesn't sound right</i>
72	<i>T</i>	<i>Why do you think you made this miscue?</i>
73	<i>C</i>	<i>Maybe I was reading too fast - not thinking.</i>

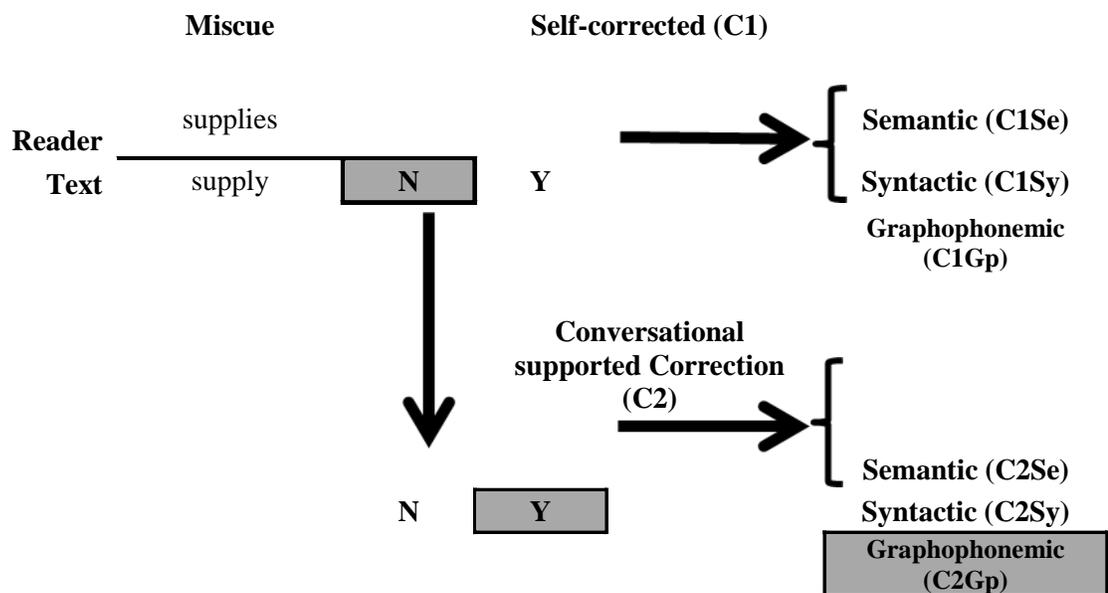


Figure 12: Celina's word "supply"

Celina's miscue of "supply" was coded as *C2Gp*. During the RMA session, Celina's miscue was semantically acceptable; however, she overgeneralized the word

with a suffix when read which changed partial meaning of the word. No native language support was needed, as illustrated in Figure 12.

Celina's post-study inventory seemed to reveal her pride as a reader. She stated that she was learning so that she could express herself better when she read. Her attitude toward reading had changed in a sense that when she started the sessions, she "*didn't know how to correct*" her errors. She also stated that if she would not read as fast, she could get the "*words correct.*" Her changes as a result of the RMA sessions, Celina described her reading habits as not being aware of her substitution of words. She will work on reading carefully to avoid substitutions as a result of her RMA sessions. Celina stated she felt more comfortable in her reading because she is learning about new things and how to correct errors. Her feelings toward our sessions at the beginning were strange, but seemed to grow comfortable as they progressed.

Reader Five: Osvaldo

Osvaldo is a native US Citizen, even though his parents are from Chihuahua, Mexico. Osvaldo seemed to be comfortable talking about his reading processes. During the RMA sessions, we discussed his miscue of "help" as an insertion in the sentence. He seemed to be inserting words to create meaning of the sentence and trying to predict what was coming up to build that meaning. However, Osvaldo realized that this was not helping out by responding to the question of '*how the vines are helping climb up*' with "*I'm not sure...*" The RMA conversation, which converted to a code-switching conversation, demonstrated that even though he was adding the insertions to build that

meaning, he finds out that he's still struggling to build semantic competency. He was aware, though, of his syntactical competency and seemed to be compensating with that. When asked about his miscue and if he knew what the sentence meant, his response was "yes", and restated it in his native language. He was then asked if the miscue changed the meaning of his sentence, and responded "a little" (Table 4.18).

Table 4.18

Oswaldo's RMA Transcription on Word "Help"

Line No.	Speaker	Transcription
7	T	<i>Let's look at some of these miscues you have in here...In here you said... "vines help climb up the sides of taller plants or objects...of taller plants or objects." Ok read to me this sentence putting this word in there...</i>
8	O	<i>Vines help climb up the sides of taller plants or objects where there is more sunlight.</i>
9	T	<i>Ok why do you think you put this word in there? Why do you think you made this miscue?</i>
10	O	<i>I thought it would make like, more sense...</i>
11	T	<i>What do you think it means if you put the word help in the sentence? What is the sentence telling you?</i>
12	O	<i>The vines are helping it climb up.</i>
13	T	<i>What are the vines helping climb up?</i>
14	O	<i>Hmm. I'm not sure. The plants or objects?</i>
15	T	<i>Ok – so let me make sure I'm understanding you correctly: "The vines are helping the plants or objects? Do what?"</i>

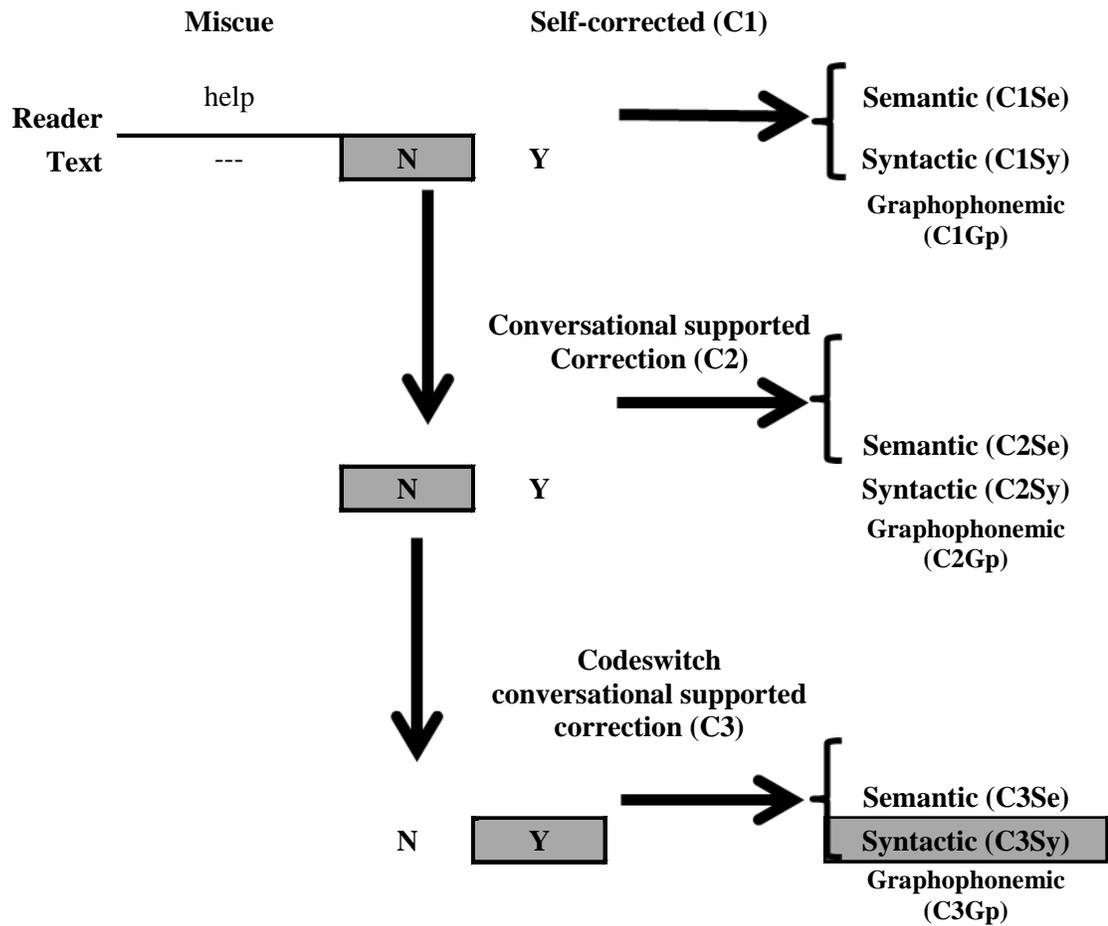


Figure 13: Osvaldo's insertion of the word "help"

Osvaldo's miscue the insertion "help", was coded as C3Sy. During the RMA session, Osvaldo used his syntactic competencies to insert the word which made sense to him up to the point of error. Osvaldo also needed native language support during the conversation, as illustrated in Figure 13.

Oswaldo's second miscue was "*canal*". Oswaldo seemed to be aware of syntactic and semantic changes with his miscue. He seemed to understand that sometimes, when words are added to text, they change the meaning; yet sometimes, they do not. Oswaldo read with fluency, but he substituted "*canals*" with "*kennels*". He seemed to be aware that two words are different. His competency to use context clues appears to be evident as he was able to discuss the different modes of travel, which is one of the passage's main ideas. During the RMA session, Oswaldo seemed to show some confusion regarding the use and meaning of the word. Code switching during this conversation fostered discussion and seemed to increase opportunity for building semantic competency for the reader. During the discussion, he seemed to realize that the word "*canal*" is a cognate. His understanding of the word in his L1 seemed to provide an underlying semantic competency as he continued to make efforts in creating some meaning of the sentence. This understanding also seemed to help him make successful transfers into the L2 content word (Table 4.19).

Table 4.19

Osvaldo's RMA Session on "Canals"

Line no.	Speaker	Transcription
44	T	<i>Ok have you heard of the word canal? Let's look at the sentence again... Over the next 20 years railroads replaced canals as the easiest and cheapest way to travel. What do you think, using your context clues – what do you think this word is going to mean in there? It is what?</i>
45	O	<i>A way to travel</i>
46	T	<i>When you think about that, what does this sentence mean to you? This one here... you're looking at the time also. Pause..... This word here is pronounced canals... in Spanish we are used to saying ca nels; por que las silabas se dividen de esta manera, pero en espanol se dividen ca – na- les. English - canals – can- als. It changes in Spanish as it does in English. (because the syllables are divided this way, but in Spanish they are divided ca-na-les; English - can-als;)</i>
47	T	<i>Can- als</i>
	T	<i>Ok – está hablando de una manera de arriar. Los ferrocarriles remplazaron canales... ¿sabes que es un canal? (Ok- we are talking about modes of transportations. The railroads replaced canals... do you know what a canal is?</i>
48	O	<i>Es como un – poquita agua... (It's like a.... a little bit of water)</i>
49	T	<i>Como un arroyo angosto... te está diciendo que entre los siguientes 20 anos, los ferrocarriles remplazaron canales de la manera más fácil y barata para arriar. (Like a narrow creek... it's telling you that within the next 20 years, the railroads replaced Canals as an easier and cheaper way to travel.</i>
50	T	<i>Now that you know what it means, tell me what are your thoughts about this sentence</i>

(Continued)

51	<i>O</i>	<i>That in 20 years railroads replaced canals as the easiest and cheapest ways to travel.</i>
52	<i>T</i>	<i>Ok does it make sense to you now?</i>
53	<i>O</i>	<i>Yes</i>
54	<i>T</i>	<i>Did it make sense to you before?</i>
55	<i>O</i>	<i>Kind of but not really.</i>
56	<i>T</i>	<i>Did that miscue affect your understanding of the text?</i>
57	<i>O</i>	<i>Yes, it did.</i>
58	<i>T</i>	<i>In what way?</i>
59	<i>O</i>	<i>I didn't know that canals was the same in English...</i>

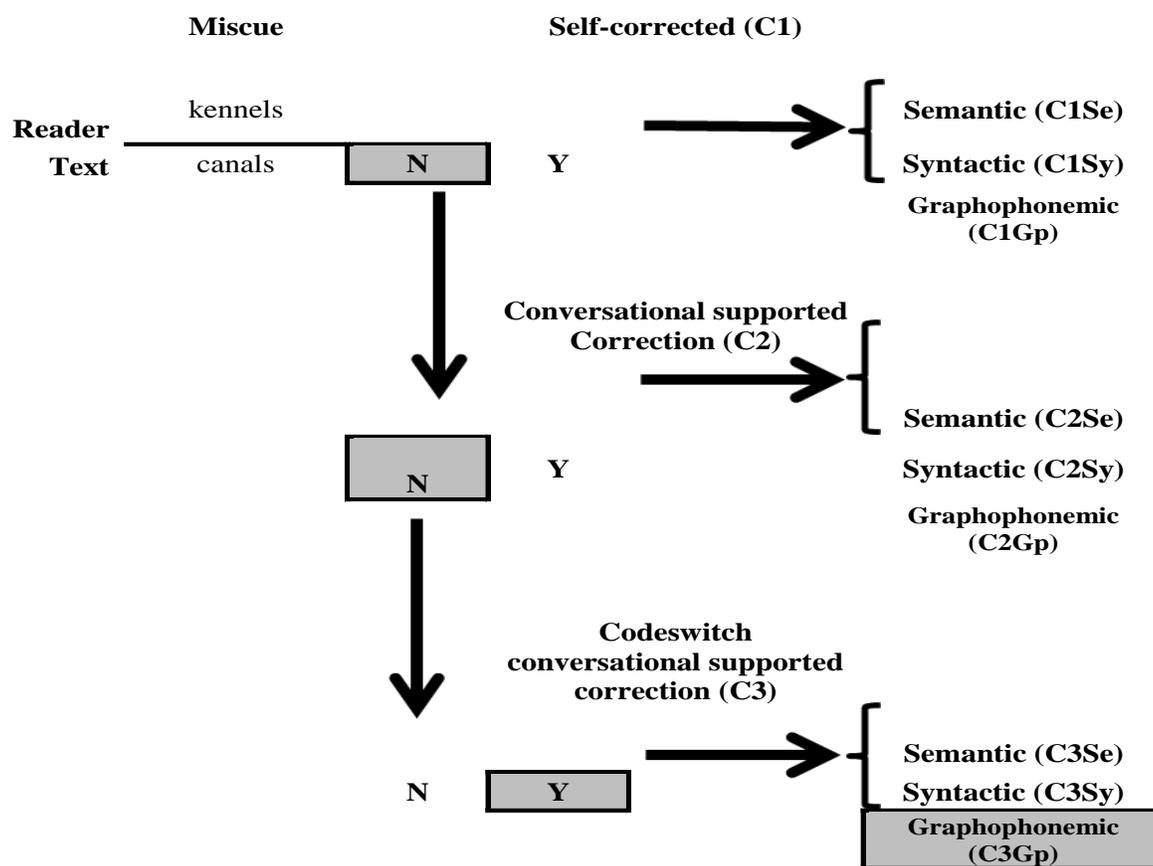


Figure 14: Osvaldo's word "canals"

Osvaldo's miscue "canals" was coded as *C3Gp*. During the RMA session, Osvaldo's miscue was syntactically acceptable but not semantically acceptable. Osvaldo used the high graphic and high sound similarities to substitute the word in the text. He also needed native language support as illustrated in Figure 14.

During Osvaldo's post-study interview, he expressed that he enjoyed the sessions as they helped him more with English pronunciations. His attitude toward reading after his RMA sessions was positive and he stated that he didn't know how to pronounce some

words, but now he did. Osvaldo also seemed to feel that he had done better with his RMA session. He could read better, and he felt like this would allow him to keep working with words that would help him build meaning while reading. As a result of our sessions, Osvaldo stated he was “reading better” and that he “*will read without stopping to try and spell a word.*” Osvaldo felt his sessions made him feel better.

Summary of Question 2: How Do 4th Grade ELL Readers Describe Reading Process After Reading Expository Text?

RMA session discussions revealed that ELL readers seemed to describe challenges in their reading process related to semantics and content vocabulary. Most of the five ELL readers who participated in this study appeared tentative as they discussed their reading processes. Four out of the five students required code-switching to their native language for comprehension during our conversation. These results suggests that ELL readers who have challenges with semantic acceptability as they read in their L2 need conversational support with their L1 to create meaning in the text.

Patterns of self-correction were found with 50% of the miscues needing code-switching conversational support (C3) (Table 4.20). This suggests that ELLs struggle with content words found in expository text and may require linguistic support in their native language to fully reconceptualize vocabulary. They were coded at C3Sy in which the ELL compensated with syntactical ability. The ELL seemed to be aware of the substitution, but used it because the structure of the sentence was acceptable. The mapping of content words provides evidence that suggests that ELLs were challenged by

semantic acceptability of content words, thus finding it difficult to transfer this type of language from their L1 to their L2.

Table 4.20

Behavior Mapping Analysis

Behavior Mapping of Content Miscues				
Conversation Map		text	reader	type of miscue
Self-corrected Errors (C1)				
Semantic (C1Se)	0			
Syntactic (C1Sy)	0			
Grapho-phonemic (C1Gp)	1	<i>adaptation</i>	<i>adaption</i>	<i>substitution</i>
Conversational supported Self-corrected Errors (C2)				
Semantic (C2Se)	1	<i>adaptation</i>	<i>adaption</i>	<i>substitution</i>
Syntactic (C2Sy)	1	<i>canals</i>	<i>kennels</i>	<i>substitution</i>
Grapho-phonemic (C2Gp)	2	<i>supply</i>	<i>supplies</i>	<i>substitution</i>
		----	<i>an</i>	<i>insertion</i>
Code-switch conversational supported correction (C3)				
Semantic (C3Se)	0			
Syntactic (C3Sy)	3	<i>building</i>	<i>builder</i>	<i>substitution</i>
		<i>side</i>	<i>slide</i>	<i>substitution</i>
		---	<i>help</i>	<i>insertion</i>
Grapho-phonemic (C3Gp)	2	<i>power</i>	<i>powder</i>	<i>substitution</i>
		<i>canals</i>	<i>kennels</i>	<i>substitution</i>
Ultimately no correction (NC)	0			

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

This section of Chapter V will present the cross-case analysis of the data that was transcribed and coded. This analysis will discuss the findings and the implications as related to the two research questions. The findings will support the theoretical framework that is associated with this study. In addition, the transcriptions, pre- and post-study inventories and RMA coding sheets will be explained and how they were used to connect ELLs and reading behaviors while reading expository text. I will also discuss the implications for the classroom, and conclude with a statement for further recommendations for research on ELLs and expository text.

Statement of Problem

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the reading process of 4th grade English Language Learners (ELLs) enrolled in a Dual Language classroom as they read expository text. Retrospective Miscue Analysis (RMA) was used to address the two questions that guided this research: 1) how do fourth grade ELL readers' process expository text; and 2) how do ELL fourth grade readers describe reading processes after reading expository text.

As stated in Chapter 2, understanding how ELLs process expository text provides important information about how to support ELL students in classrooms. Reading research and bilingual education research studies conducted within the last decade have enlightened us by suggesting that the purpose of reading determines how the

multidisciplinary transaction and use of the cuing systems will take effect (Koda, 2007, Cardenas-Hagan, et al, 2007). They have suggested that construction of the text is necessary for construction of meaning, thus the reader's schema will evaluate the text using metacognitive skills to determine if he will initiate, select, predict, infer, confirm/disconfirm, correct, or terminate the text. Within these acts of reading, the reader has built explicit intentions to produce a specific literary event. These selections or intentions are important in creating meaning while reading (Goodman, 1984).

Code-Switching and Translanguaging

During this study, code-switching emerged and became part of the methods used to orally assist the readers during the RMA sessions. The readers heavily relied on native language support to further comprehend the conversation. This cross-linguistic is essential in the acquisition of L2 reading and is determined to be more complex than L1 reading. Koda (2007) also stresses the influence of Cummins' developmental interdependence hypothesis, claiming that the levels of L2 proficiency of a bilingual child are determined largely by the capabilities they have developed before the intensive L2 exposure began. Therefore, within the development of bilingual programs, one must consider the development of reading as a complex process as learning two languages involves a continual interaction with constant adjustments and accommodations necessary for each language demands (Koda, 2007; Cummins, 1987).

In an ethnographic research study conducted in Canada (Iannacci, 2008), the cross-linguistic aspects were explored as students oral language use was observed to

confirm Cummins' adjustments and modifications made by ELLs. Results of the study concluded that even though some stress is experienced by the student in formulating the use of the L2, code switching is used by the student as a modification to maintain cultural identity, and maintain language validity (Iannacci, 2008).

RMA research conducted (Jurue, 2004; Black, 2004; Theurer 2010) suggested that the exploration of revaluing students to become independent readers were resulted in the use of RMA. The utilization of expository, narrative and multi-genres supported the researcher in identifying patterns in reading through the use of RMAs. As in this study, the use of the RMAs was crucial in leading to result in the identification of patterns during the reading of expository text. In time, the readers gained awareness of their ability to self-correct as needed based on patterns of syntactic, semantic or visual/sound similarities. Inasmuch, the data gathered from each of the studies, as well as this study, allowed the teacher-researcher to further to provide relevant instruction during sessions for the student. RMAs and its success are not solely for intervention process, but can be utilized to support readers at all levels (Goodman and Marek, 1996).

A gap in literacy comprehension continues to widen between the primary and middle school ELL children. This research in ELLs reading process and behaviors while reading expository text is a key element to the elimination of such literacy gaps. The exploration of how they transfer their L1 cognitive strategies to further semantic competency in their L2, particularly while reading expository text, is crucial in diminishing the gaps. Yet the question of what constitutes content language and basic

language is growing a greater degree in gray area. In other words, what now constitutes BICS and CALP is becoming collapsible as research is finding that both languages and their developments that lead to competency are based on different factors. One of these main factors is that of background knowledge. To claim that a child is lacking CALP because of lack of background knowledge is questionable (Auckerman, 2013).

The utilization of connection words versus content words will make a difference in semantic competency a reader develops during a literacy event. Most expository text has been known to contain 35-40% connection words, and about 65% content words, which sometimes occur only once (Goodman, 1986). This was evident in the text that was used for this study. The expository text that was used for the study was part of the normal curriculum and was used with the readers as prescribed by the district.

Review of Methodology

The expository passages used for this study came from the QRI5 diagnostics and were a normal part of the curriculum. The readers were allowed to select their passages read for the study. Their choices came from three different titles: *Early Railroads*, *Plant Structures for Survival*, and *The Busy Beaver*. This study was conducted as a cross-case analysis of five native Spanish speakers with the use of expository text. This was done to find reading patterns across the text, and not solely on one reader but several readers. All readers were at the *frustration* level for comprehension and *instructional* for accuracy in their initial QRI5 passage. The relevance of these data supports the findings in that the readers in this study exhibit strengths in graphophonemes; however, vocabulary and

meaning construction were not strengths. This pattern of reading strengths and weaknesses are common among ELL children and are prevalent while reading in their L2 (Cardenas-Hagan, et al, 2007; Chiappe, et al, 2007, Rubenstein-Avila, 2002; Koda, 2007).

The primary data sources included audio recordings of Retrospective Miscue Analysis (RMA) within guided reading sessions, marginal notes and transcriptions, and pre- and post-inventories from each of the participants. The use of RMAs allowed us to reveal the reading processes of 4th grade ELLs while reading expository text. The RMAs engaged the readers in reflecting upon and evaluating the reading process through analyzing their oral reading miscues.

The RMA sessions allowed me to meet with each of the readers three times, and conducted a two twenty-minute RMA session during each of my visits. The initial session primarily involved all the gathering of information regarding each of the readers by together filling out their pre-study inventory and discuss with them what the RMAs entailed, and record initial passages. The session that followed included a discussion of their behaviors toward their audio recordings, followed by a targeted lesson on the miscue chosen by me. The transcriptions were marked and checked prior to our visit, so selection of miscue was ready by the time the reader and I sat down to discuss. All individual sessions gave the readers the opportunity to talk about their miscues and how they felt about them responding to the three questions that revolved around the RMA sessions: 1) Does the miscue make sense to you? 2) Why do you think you made this

miscue? 3) Did the miscue affect your understanding of the text? Their responses to these questions shaped the continuation of the RMA session.

My data collection was continuous for three consecutive weeks. The RMA sessions required analysis of miscues on each of the passages and were recorded on the RMA coding sheets that were slightly modified according to the needs of the research. This allowed me to analyze readers' miscues, and gain insight to how they process expository text while reading. In addition, the transferring of L1 to L2 for expository text was utilized in the conversation. This allowed the readers to construct meaning of our in their L1 as some of them required it to engage in discussion. The pre- and post-study inventories provided me with background information about the readers and attitudes toward reading as well as their self-perception of being valuable readers. Some of the readers struggled with understanding the questions being asked in their L2. I utilized code switching during our RMA discussions in order to gain the confidence and trust from the reader which resulted in engagement in the conversation.

I collected all data and transferred it into spreadsheets which allowed me to further search for patterns associated with semantic and syntactic competency and acceptability, and searched for graphic and sound similarities between the miscue and the text. I sought a professional consultant as part of the analysis to build credibility, consistency and establish connection of implications in the professional field. The RMA coding sheets were instrumental in finding patterns between content and connection words and in analyzing the readers' use of syntax and semantics to create meaning while

reading expository text. The student behavior mapping was created for each of the miscues selected for the RMA sessions. Each mapping was created from the transcriptions and marginal notes that were recorded during the RMA sessions. This mapping system was instrumental in analyzing the way ELLs process expository text. The readers' feelings, thoughts and attitudes taken from their transcriptions allowed me to support findings for question two of this study.

Open-ended coding was used to create the data analysis and provide pattern clarifications that were needed. The matrices served as a two-fold data resource. First of all, the matrices allowed us to incorporate the information from Goodman's RMA Coding Sheets and create a breakdown of each of the miscues to find patterns of syntax and semantic acceptability. This reinforced my findings for question one. Secondly, the matrices allowed for descriptive adjectives to be inserted and assign codes according to the readers' behaviors. These were coded as descriptions the readers shared to explain their reading behaviors after reading expository text. This reinforced my findings for question two.

Summary of the Findings

This section of this chapter will present the summary of the findings for each of the questions. There were also influences and factors that contributed to the findings of the study and are also explained in this section. The purpose of this study was to examine the challenges 4th grade ELL students face in acquiring content language in expository text with the use of RMAs.

The following section will focus on responding to the first question of the study:
How do 4th grade ELL readers process expository text?

Reconceptualization of Content Words

The results of this study confirmed that 4th grade ELL readers are challenged by content words more than connection words while processing expository text. The data was able to show that content words resulted in more meaning loss for the ELLs reading these particular texts. When ELLs are reading expository text in their L2, they are able to “word call” and for the most part, maintain fluency. However, because the ELL readers seem to be familiar with the grapho-phoneme aspect of content words, they tend to pay less attention to the syntactic or semantic acceptability of the text. Thus, their semantic competency is neglected. Even when the ELL readers self-correct, the focus remains on their grapho-phoneme aspect of the content words, therefore, semantic competency is limited as well. The results concluded that ELL readers utilize syntax to support their reading process. Connection words appeared to be used as signals by readers to process structure, and re-conceptualization of content words is not happening during the reading processes.

Challenges to Syntactical and Semantic Acceptability

With the use of the RMA Coding sheets, I was able to code all the miscues in the following areas: semantic acceptability; syntactic acceptability; meaning change; correction; grammatical relationship; graphic similarity, and sound similarity. Each of these categories presented patterns that led to the discovery of ELL readers facing both

syntactical and semantic challenges. The data analysis suggested that ELLs seem to have the potential to maintain sentence structure in their expository reading even though they do not seem to be applying semantics, resulting in challenges constructing meaning. As an ELL reads through an expository text, it seems that they were focused on trying to make grapho-phoneme relations and using some syntactic competency. Semantics seemed to be neglected in the reading process. The RMA coding sheets also allowed me to separate the content words from the connection words and analyze their effect in the semantic and syntactic acceptability of the ELL readers. ELLs in this study found semantic relationships within the specific expository text challenging. Content word miscues only peaked at a 13% strength in grammatical relationship. Their weakness in syntactic and semantic acceptability reached a 55% weakness, meaning that those miscues were neither syntactic nor semantic acceptable within the given text.

Challenges in Monitoring and Self-Correction

The QRI5 passages read by the ELL readers became crucial data for the analysis when determining the readers' competence in monitoring for self-correction. I was able to analyze their miscues from the passages after marking the transcripts with the number of errors, including self-corrections, insertions and substitutions. In analyzing this portion of the data, it is suggested that 4th grade ELL readers are challenged by content words more than connection words while processing expository text. The data shows that content words resulted in more meaning loss for the ELLs reading these particular texts. These results also suggest that ELL readers seem to be familiar with the grapho-phoneme

aspect of content words and made syntactic or semantic miscues without self-correction. ELLs readers whose L1 is fully developed will be able to transfer their grapho-phoneme uses into the L2. In addition, the valuing of the L2 more than the L1 in schools gives the ELL a negative connotation of being an ELL. Therefore, their desire to read fluently in the L2 decreases the semantic competency. In other words, when the ELL readers do self-correct a content word, it is substituted with a non-existent word, or with a word that is not semantically acceptable within the context. These findings also suggested that ELL readers utilize syntax to support their reading process. Connection words appeared to be used as signals by readers to process structure.

The following section will focus on answering the second question:

2: How do 4th grade ELL readers describe reading process after reading expository text?

Challenges of Semantic Awareness Transferring From L1 to L2: ELLs Reading Process Facilitated Through Conversational Support

The data analysis for this section of the study was gathered from the pre- and post-study inventories, as well as from the transcriptions compiled from the audio recordings during the RMA session discussions. The analysis revealed that patterns in the reading processes exist as the student faces content vocabulary that is difficult in re-conceptualizing thus minimizes the semantic acceptability of the reader. Eighty percent of the ELL readers who participated in this study appeared to nervous discussing their reading processes. Four out of the five students required code-switching to their native language for comprehension during our conversation. These results suggested that ELL

readers who do not have semantic acceptability in their L1 will find it more challenging to create meaning with expository text in the L2.

Patterns of self-correction were found with 50% of the miscues needing code-switching conversational support. It was during these conversations that I had to ask the questions or converse with the ELL reader in Spanish, L1, in order for the reader to understand the questions I was asking – whether it was passage-related or conversation-related. This also suggested that ELLs struggle with content words found in expository text and may require linguistic support in their native language to fully reconceptualize vocabulary. ELLs who lack sufficient background knowledge or who have a limited vocabulary may also encounter the same struggle with both content and connection words. They were coded at C3Sy, which required code-switching during the conversational support and *in* which the ELL compensated with syntactical ability. The ELL was aware of the substitution, but used it anyways because the structure made sense to the reader. The mapping of content words provides evidence that suggests that ELLs are challenged by semantic acceptability using content words, thus finding it difficult to transfer this type of language from their L1 to their L2.

Discussion of the Findings

The findings of this study have only added to the importance of thoroughly understanding the development of L1 and how it sets the norms for successfully transferring into the L2 for successful reading processes. This colossal issue is attributed to the many factors that affect how teachers teach ELLs, which programs are

implemented, and how teachers are being trained, and teacher perception toward and ELL reader, just to name a few. The use of RMAs has shown success for all readers; the success of an ELL reader can also be enhanced by the use of RMAs. ELL readers can be supported toward successful reading events, particularly while reading expository text, by providing them with opportunities to reflect on their reading through conversation. This reflection is then taken to the next level by ELL readers as they learn to self-monitor for self-correction, and revalue themselves as readers. This given opportunity of discussion allows them to grow as readers and create meaning as they engage with the text.

The findings of this study confirm the complex reading processes of ELLs reading expository text. Differentiation between BICS and CALP is located within a shady area of gray as it is continued to be viewed as separate concepts. As provided within the text of this study, background knowledge is a major contribution to the development of content language which is mostly used through the CALP. The semantic competency of this content language is crucial to how an ELL reader creates meaning while reading expository text. The understanding of what a text means is determined by that level of background knowledge. The semantic competency should not only be measured by the ability to reconceptualize but by the ability to make a connection to the text being read. Background knowledge is something that is constantly being built through different literacy events shared with ELLs. The coupling of reconceptualization and building background knowledge will provide the vehicle for ELLs success in reading. ELLs intelligence is supported by the use of knowing two languages and should be viewed as

an asset and not a hindrance (Aukerman, 2007). Knowing how to provide the comprehensible input to activate the use of both languages facilitates the successful transfer of the ELLs L1 to the L2.

Implications of the Study

As our minority population becomes the majority population in our country, it is crucial that educators become familiar with the needs of our ELL learners. Most of the minority population speaks any other language than English. The results of this study suggest that in order for teachers to be fully aware of an ELLs needs, classroom delivery of instruction may need some adjusting. Implications for education are as follows:

Good teaching should be happening in the classrooms. All teachers must be fully aware of the transferring of L1 to L2 and its competencies. Oral language development does not constitute proficiency and competency in the reading and writing domains, particularly in expository reading and writing. Good teaching happens in a classroom when teachers utilize all language domains with the students and allow them to reconceptualize within all content areas.

Good teaching allows for integration of literacy across the curriculum. The development of reading and writing happen in a reciprocal succession and are essential in the transfer of languages. Students who develop a strong L1, build strong background knowledge in the process and are able to read with fluency and comprehension are more apt to gaining success in their L2. Supporting content language in a classroom happens through the use of multi-genre literature during instruction. In particular, expository text

provides rich content language that is needed to strengthen reconceptualization skills to build semantic competency.

Good teaching does not end with strong grapho-phonemic awareness. This is only the beginning. A good reader exhibits syntactic and semantic competency along with graph-phonemic awareness. Classroom instruction should focus with the end in mind in which the reader's goal is to competently be reading to learn and not learning to read.

Good teaching allows ELL readers the opportunity for discussion. The use of RMAs is a strong suggestion for adoption into every classroom. RMAs allows the teacher and the reader to revalue reading behaviors and take ownership of self-successes. ELLs who are allowed to listen to their readings, discuss them and monitor their behaviors allow for growth in monitoring for self-correction and an increase in semantic competency. Therefore, the reader develops self-confidence as he continues to develop as a successful reader.

Further Research

This study presents one view of how ELLs process expository text while reading and how their perception of reading affects their syntactic and semantic competency. Much research in reading and ELLs is needed particularly in the intermediate years. Readers tend to plateau at the fourth grade level – whether it be due to loss of interest in reading or teacher loss of interest in reader is unknown. But it is important to know that both reasons are probably factors to this issue.

Further research on the effects of fourth grade ELL readers on expository text perhaps could shed some light on how to narrow the academic achievement gap. Expectation on what state standards are placing on students today is increasingly affecting how and what a teacher teaches in the classroom. By contributing to the body of research we are contributing to a solid understanding of how ELLs process expository text and creating literacy events that will enhance this learning to continue providing the tools necessary for academic achievement.

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APPENDIX A

IRB Approval Letter



Institutional Review Board

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
P.O. Box 425619, Denton, TX 76204-5619
940-898-3378 FAX 940-898-4416
e-mail: IRB@twu.edu

May 28, 2013

Ms. Patricia Y. Sanchez
8200 Stallion St.
Denton, TX 76208

Dear Ms. Sanchez:

*Re: English Language Learners and Expository Text: A Cross-Case Analysis of Reading Behaviors
Using Retrospective Miscue Analysis (Protocol #: 17311)*

The above referenced study has been reviewed by the TWU Institutional Review Board (IRB) and appears to meet our requirements for the protection of individuals' rights.

If applicable, agency approval letters must be submitted to the IRB upon receipt PRIOR to any data collection at that agency. A copy of the approved consent form with the IRB approval stamp is enclosed. Please use the consent form with the most recent approval date stamp when obtaining consent from your participants. A copy of the signed consent forms must be submitted with the request to close the study file at the completion of the study.

This approval is valid one year from April 5, 2013. Any modifications to this study must be submitted for review to the IRB using the Modification Request Form. Additionally, the IRB must be notified immediately of any unanticipated incidents. If you have any questions, please contact the TWU IRB.

Sincerely,

Dr. Vicki Zeigler, Co-Chair
Institutional Review Board - Denton

cc. Dr. Connie Briggs, Department of Reading
Dr. Nancy Anderson, Department of Reading
Graduate School

APPENDIX B

Prospectus Approval Letter



The Graduate School
P.O. Box 425649, Denton, TX 76204-5649
940-898-3415 FAX 940-898-3412 gradschool@twu.edu

0021810

June 4, 2013

Patricia Sanchez
8200 Stallion Street
Denton, TX 76208

Dear Ms. Sanchez:

I have received and approved the prospectus entitled *English Language Learners and Expository Text: A Cross-Case Analysis of Reading Behaviors using Retrospective Miscue Analysis* for your Dissertation research project.

Best wishes to you in the research and writing of your project.

Sincerely yours,

Ruth A. Johnson, Ph.D.
Associate Dean of the Graduate School

kjb

cc: Dr. Nancy Anderson, Reading
Dr. Connie Briggs, Chair, Reading