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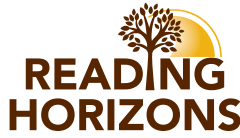


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## Reading in English and in Chinese: Case Study of Retrospective Miscue Analysis with Two Adult English Learners

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### Abstract

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Retrospective Miscue Analysis (RMA) has proved to be a useful instructional tool in language arts classrooms and for English learners from various cultures. However, it has not been used with native Mandarin-speaking English learners. This qualitative case study explored the reading process of two adult Mandarin-speaking ELs through RMA. They read two pieces in simplified Chinese and two in English respectively. This study demonstrates that RMA supports adult ELs to become more metacognitive about their reading process, uncover reading strategies they use, build their confidence to read, acquire more agency, and learn more about the English language. RMA is a powerful instructional strategy for adult ELs. This qualitative case study explored the reading process of two adult Mandarin-speaking ELs through Retrospective Miscue Analysis. It demonstrates that RMA supports adult ELs to become more metacognitive about their reading process, uncover reading strategies they use, build their confidence to read, acquire more agency, and learn more about the English language.

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**KEYWORDS:** English language learning, reading process, miscue analysis

Reading in English and in Chinese:

*I want to feel the same about reading in English as reading in Chinese—*  
Bin, who was chatting with first author Yi (all names are pseudonyms)

Bin shares what many adult English learners (ELs) desire: they seek to become more proficient in English. Ken Goodman (1996) might characterize this as using language cues and reading strategies as effectively in English as in the first language. We have experienced many ELs who read well in their first language, but struggle to read in English. We wondered what would happen when ELs had opportunities to explore their reading in both their native language and in English. We decided to use Retrospective Miscue Analysis (RMA) to support these investigations. Our question was: How do adult ELs explore their reading process and perceptions as readers in Mandarin and English through Retrospective Miscue Analysis?

### What is Retrospective Miscue Analysis?

We used miscue analysis and RMA to give our readers a window into their own reading processes (K. Goodman, 1973). Miscue analysis is a tool used to investigate how readers use the cuing systems and reading strategies to comprehend during reading. It is based on research and theory that demonstrates readers' use of cues, such as letters, sounds, structure, semantics, and context to make meaning (K. Goodman, 1973; Moore & Gilles, 2005; Wilde, 2000).

Y. Goodman, Watson, and Burke (2005) define a miscue as anything the reader says that does not match the text; it is a reader's deviation from text. Researchers (Davenport, 2002; Y. Goodman et al., 2005) have found that all readers miscue and that miscues are not errors. Readers use similar strategies when miscues occur as when there are no miscues (Y. Goodman & Goodman, 1994). However, all miscues are not equal. Strong readers often make *high-quality miscues*, those that do not change meaning, while others may make *low-quality miscues*, which are those that do change or interfere with meaning (Moore & Gilles, 2005).

RMA is an instructional strategy that occurs after miscue analysis. It engages readers in a process that helps them to notice and discuss their miscues with others (Y. Goodman, 1996; Y. Goodman & Marek, 1989; 1996; Y. Goodman, Martens, & Flurkey, 2014; Marek, 1987). An RMA procedure typically includes

- a reading interest inventory and Burke reading interview (BRI) to learn about the readers' beliefs and interests;
- comparatively challenging texts based on the readers' interests;
- a read-aloud of the text followed by a retelling (this step in the procedure is the miscue analysis (Y. Goodman et al., 2005). The process is audio recorded for coding miscues and accuracy)
- marking the miscues, preselecting about ten miscues using an RMA organizer (see Figures 1 and 2);
- playing back the selected miscue recording and conferring with the reader to explore his or her reading strategies, and addressing questions (e.g., "What were you thinking when you made that miscue?"); and
- analysis of the RMA conversations for reader's beliefs and reading strategies, and identification of more or different reading strategies to support the reader. Often, the reader will read a new text for the next RMA session.

The purpose of RMA is to help readers take risks, monitor their reading, and gain confidence because of their language learning status. K. Goodman (1982) called this process *revaluing*, which means that with proper instructional support, readers uncover strengths and needs, recognize strategy use, and build on abilities. They also begin to put into perspective that everyone miscues, not just them, and that sometimes poorly written texts cause miscues.

### Theoretical Framework

This study is guided by social constructivism (Kamberelis & Dimitriadis, 2005). Both the readers and the teacher construct understanding of the reading process with their existing knowledge (Tracey & Morrow, 2006). Learning is a social activity; children and adults learn by interacting with others (Tracey & Morrow, 2006; Vygotsky, 1986). RMA

provides a social environment for the teacher and readers to interact and learn through discussion of the reading experience (Barnes, 1992). Teachers scaffold and provide appropriate support (Vygotsky, 1986) and students mediate their learning engagement and activities (Moll, 2014).

We view reading as a socio-psycho-linguistic process (K. Goodman, 1993; Smith, 1983; Tracey & Morrow, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978). Readers use their linguistic, as well as pragmatic cueing systems, to make sense of print. Linguistic systems include semantic (meaning), syntactic (grammar), graphophonic (sound–symbol) systems; pragmatic cueing systems include the context of the situation, prior knowledge, and culture. Readers apply psycholinguistic strategies to construct meaning: initiate reading, sample and select from the text; make predictions and inferences; confirm or disconfirm predictions; integrate meaning; and terminate their reading (Y. Goodman et al., 2005; Moore & Gilles, 2005; Watson, Burke & Goodman, 1988). Proficient reading is both effective and efficient (K. Goodman, 1993). The effective reader can make sense of text, while the efficient reader accomplishes making sense with the minimum amount of time, effort, and energy.

Rosenblatt (1978) argued that reading is a continuous transaction between the reader, text, and context to create understanding. The reader's stance or purpose for reading will guide their understanding. When the reader is searching for an answer or seeking new information, the stance is efferent; when the reader is living through the reading to be entertained or to make personal connections, the stance is more aesthetic.

Second language (L2) reading is influenced by the first language (L1) and other socio-psycho-linguistic factors. L1 reading, L2 proficiency, L2 decoding, educational background, and learner goals all contribute to successful L2 reading comprehension and influence L2 literacy development (Burt, Peyton & Adams, 2003; Koda, 2007a).

### **Literature Review**

Teachers and researchers (Black, 2004; Y. Goodman & Marek, 1996; Marek, 1987; Moore & Aspegren, 2001; Moore & Gilles, 2005) find through RMA, readers explore the reading process and reflect, evaluate and self-monitor their reading. In doing so, they become more confident and proficient. RMA gives readers opportunities to gain agency and empowers them to revalue their reading, claim or reclaim their learning, and support the development of lifelong readers (Gilles & Peters, 2011; Martens & Doyle, 2011). In addition, RMA generates exploratory conferences and critical dialogue between readers and knowledgeable others (K. Kim, Chin, & Goodman, 2004; Martens & Doyle, 2011; Moore & Gilles, 2005).

Researchers have used RMA to examine the reading of ELs who speak Korean (M. Kim, 2010; K. Kim, Chin & Goodman, 2004; K. Kim & Goodman, 2011; Wurr, Theurer, & Kim, 2009), Spanish (Moore & Brantingham, 2003), and Arabic (Almazroui, 2007; Moteallemi, 2010) as their first languages. These studies found that RMA is a powerful tool to document ELs' growth in attitudes, perspectives, and development as readers, and helps to identify necessary reading instruction. Wurr et al. (2009) found that RMA increased proficient Korean adult L2 readers' awareness of universal reading processes, built their confidence in L2 reading; and gave them access to metacognitive and L1 knowledge. Adult Korean ELs gained more confidence as L2 readers and could express effective strategies and ineffective ones after RMA (M. Kim, 2010). K. Kim et al. (2004) found RMA and in-depth interviews led teachers and learners to critical teaching and learning moments. Moore and Brantingham (2003) reported RMA supported a bilingual boy to become more confident, understand his reading process, and use more effective reading

strategies. Almazroui (2007) documented an Arabic-speaking boy who was learning English and reconceptualized himself as a reader, valued his strengths, overcame some weaknesses, built his confidence, and revalued the effectiveness of strategies. The students were engaged in self-reflection and exploratory talk during the RMA (Motealleemi, 2010). Although RMA research has been done with Korean and Arabic speakers, research with adult Mandarin speaking ELs has not yet been completed. Our study fills this gap in the literature.

This study examines Mandarin and English reading, affording a comparison of reading in the two languages. All writing systems are ambiguous and represent meaning (K. Goodman, 2011). The English language is phonetic, while Chinese is logographic, ideographic, and morphosyllabic (Fu, 2003; K. Goodman, 2011; Hung, 2011a; Hung, 2011b). Each Chinese character is an image, a meaning unit (K. Goodman, 2011). Many characters are semantic-phonetic compounds and some characters are pictographs, ideograms, and have conjoined meanings (Hung, 2011a). Chinese readers rely more on graphic information to read the characters (Hung, 2011b) and use more semantic-focused reading strategies (S. Wang, 2011).

## Methodology

### Setting and Participants

The research presented here is part of a larger case study (Y. Wang, 2014; Yin, 2014). These two participants were selected because they articulated their reading processes most clearly and offered a clear comparison between reading in both languages. Both spoke Mandarin, had at least six years of experience learning English as a foreign language in China, and enrolled in undergraduate courses at a Midwest university for more than one year. They voluntarily participated, and the main researcher met with them individually once per week for about 45 minutes in study rooms on campus during a four-month period.

**Bin Zheng**, age 22, grew up in a rural area in the southeastern region of China. His father was a businessman, his mother stayed at home, and they spoke a local dialect. Bin was proficient in his dialect as well as in Mandarin. After completing high school, he came to the United States to study in an intensive English program for one year preparing for the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), which he passed. He was a junior majoring in accounting at the time of the study, was active in campus events and the community, and opened a small business.

**Lili Yu**, age 21, came from a city in the southwestern region of China. She also spoke both a regional dialect and Mandarin proficiently. She began learning English in third grade and passed the TOEFL in China before attending college in the United States. Her parents divorced when she was young, and she lived with her father, who owned a business and financed her study abroad. Lili was a sophomore majoring in communication at the time of this study. She loved singing and was an avid fan of zombie movies and TV programs.

### Data Sources and Procedure

This study relies on six data sources to support findings: 1) an interest inventory (Appendix A), 2) a modified Burke Reading Interview (BRI) in Mandarin and English for adults (Y. Goodman et al., 2005; Appendix B), 3) four miscue analysis sessions (Y. Goodman et al., 2005), 4) four RMA sessions, 5) semistructured postinterviews in Mandarin and English (Appendix C), and 6) the lead researcher's double entry journal of observations and initial analysis (see Table 1 for the schedule of sessions).

**Table 1**  
**List of Reading and RMA Sessions**

Sessions	Data Collection
Session 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Getting to know you</li> <li>• Burke reading interview in Mandarin</li> <li>• Bring one piece to get to know their reading in Mandarin</li> </ul>
Session 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Getting to know you</li> <li>• Burke reading interview in English</li> <li>• Bring one piece to get to know their reading in English</li> </ul>
Session 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• RMI #1 in Mandarin (fiction)</li> <li>• Explain miscue and the process</li> </ul>
Session 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• RMA #1 in Mandarin</li> <li>• RMI #2 in English (fiction)</li> </ul>
Session 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• RMA #2 in English</li> <li>• RMI #3 in Mandarin (informational text)</li> </ul>
Session 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• RMA #3 in Mandarin</li> <li>• RMI #4 in English (informational text)</li> </ul>
Session 7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• RMA #4 in English</li> <li>• Questions that have arisen from data</li> </ul>
Session 8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Questions</li> <li>• Postinterview in Mandarin</li> </ul>
Session 9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Postinterview in English</li> <li>• Final words</li> </ul>

After the BRI and interest inventory, the lead researcher began with a miscue analysis using four comparatively challenging pieces based on each participant's interests and language proficiency (see Appendix D for an excerpt of the texts in Mandarin). Each participant individually read aloud and then provided a retelling during each session using the Reading Miscue Inventory (RMI) procedures (see the retelling guide in Appendix E). Holistic scores and notes were used to evaluate the two readers' retellings. In total, each participant read two pieces in Mandarin and two in English.

**Table 2**  
**Bin's Profile of In-Depth Procedure**

#	Reading (Percent <sup>1</sup> )	Meaning Construction <sup>2</sup>			Grammatical Relations <sup>2</sup>				Word Substitution In Context						Miscue Per Hundred Words	Words Per Minute	Retelling Comprehension
		No Loss	Partial Loss	Loss	Strength	Partial Strength	Overcorrection	Weakness	Graphic Similarity <sup>3</sup>			Sound Similarity <sup>3</sup>					
									High	Some	None	High	Some	None			
1	Mandarin Fiction	74	19	7	74	14	7	5	18	18	64	9	9	82	3	243	80
2	Mandarin Nonfiction	93	3	3	87	3	10	0	33	25	42	25	25	50	2	202	95
3	English Fiction	66	13	21	62	21	7	10	74	21	5	72	21	7	5	121	60
4	English Nonfiction	74	12	14	72	18	2	8	94	2	4	94	2	4	7	113	85

*Note:* 1. All numbers are percentage except Miscue Per Hundred Words and Words Per Minute.

2. Meaning construction and grammatical relations are coded on every single miscue for their syntactic acceptability, semantic acceptability, meaning change and correction.

3. Graphic similarity and sound similarity are coded only on the substituted miscues.

The primary researcher marked miscues of substitution, correction, omission, insertion, etc. (see examples in Figure 1) and transcribed the retelling. Each miscue was coded for syntactic acceptability, semantic acceptability, meaning change, correction and graphic and sound similarity following the in-depth procedure (Y. Goodman et al., 2005). (The percentages of each area of language use and summative data are presented in Tables 2 and 3.)

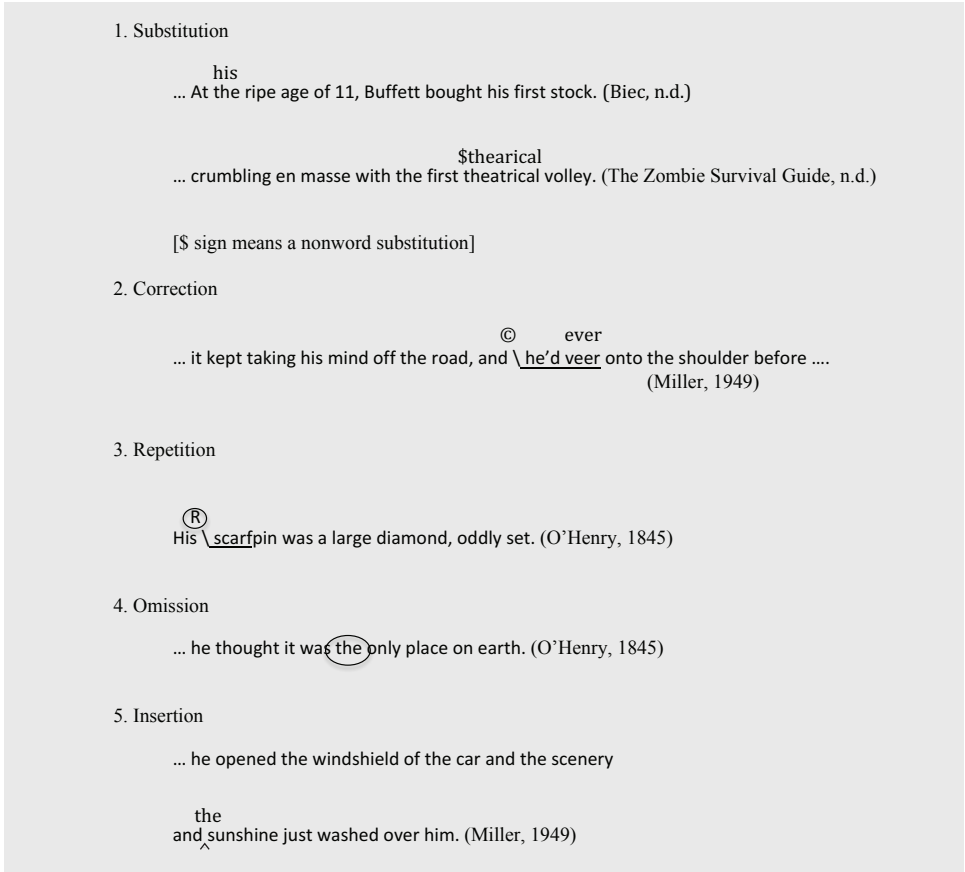


Figure 1. Marking examples.

The primary researcher then invited two colleagues who were familiar with miscue analysis to serve as inter-raters for the coding and analysis in English and Mandarin respectively. They agreed on most of the coding and only a small number of differences were discussed until they reached consensus.

**Table 3**  
**Lili's Profile of In-Depth Procedure**

#	Reading (Percent)	Meaning Construction			Grammatical Relations				Word Substitution In Context						Miscue Per Hundred Words	Words Per Minutes	Retelling Comprehension
		No Loss	Partial Loss	Loss	Strength	Partial Strength	Overcorrection	Weakness	Graphic Similarity			Sound Similarity					
									High	Some	None	High	Some	None			
1	Mandarin Fiction	90	10	0	80	10	10	0	50	0	50	50	0	50	1.5	309	95
2	Mandarin Nonfiction	72	14	14	62	19	19	0	64	18	18	36	36	28	1.8	186	95
3	English Fiction	70	15	15	61	21	8	19	78	11	11	68	11	21	3.2	108	85
4	English Nonfiction	71	10	19	58	10	16	16	83	13	4	83	13	4	3	89	90

After the miscue analysis, the RMA began. The lead researcher preselected six to ten miscues—half high-quality miscues that did not change the meaning and half low-quality miscues that did change the meaning—from each piece and prepared the RMA organizer (see Figure 2). She revisited the participants to conduct the RMA one week after the initial reading and retelling. Thus, after the first visit students were engaged in RMA and then read a new text for the next RMI. She played back the recording and started the conversation about high-quality miscues and then low-quality miscues.

Reader: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Name of Text: \_\_\_\_\_

Line of Text	Text	Miscue as Read/C	Did the miscue change the meaning?	
_____	_____	_____	Yes	No
_____	_____	_____	Yes	No
_____	_____	_____	Yes	No
_____	_____	_____	Yes	No

Questions to think about:

- Does the miscue make sense?
- Does it change the meaning of the sentence?
- Why do you think the reader miscued?
- During the retelling, what connections to other text or life experiences did the reader make?

Some topics for discussion:

*Figure 2. RMA Session Organizer (Moore & Gilles, 2005).*



The selected miscues are presented in Tables 4 and 5 for the two participants respectively. Participants used Mandarin when discussing Mandarin miscues and English when discussing English miscues. Whenever they had difficulty expressing themselves in English, they switched to Mandarin. All sessions were audiorecorded and transcribed. The lead researcher translated the Mandarin portion to English and had another fluent bilingual speaker check the translation for accuracy.

Table 4  
List of Reading and RMA Sessions

Mandarin Fiction <i>All Quiet on the Western Front</i> Summary (1107 words)		Mandarin Informational Text <i>Marketing Case Study: ESP advertising of P&amp;G</i> (1115 words)		English Fiction <i>After Twenty Years</i> By O'Henry (1263 words)		English Informational Text <i>Warren Buffett</i> (906 words)	
Text	Miscue	Text	Miscue	Text	Miscue	Text	Miscue
从戎	从伐	诉求	试求	counter	quarter	boy	boys
炮火	炮战	飘逸柔顺	飘柔顺	right	night	the	his
思念家乡	思乡	润妍。	润妍？	depeopled	developed	acres	airs
时期	时间	演绎	演释	walk	work	tenant	--
著作	--	种	个	falling	feeling	--	a
靴刷	讹刷	觉得	感觉	exclaimed	examed	called	call
乃至	仍至	多	两	How has	However had	had	he had done
理想	思想	需要	需求	plain	police	he	his
--	部	群	群体	the	it	mirror	minor
一个人的死亡之后	一个死人以后	品牌	产品				

We analyzed the participants individually and then conducted a cross-case comparison. We reread the initial and postinterviews, miscue analysis data, RMA transcriptions, and research journals for open coding of themes (see Table 6). Multiple data sources were used to answer the research question, and constant comparative method (Glasser & Strauss, 1967) was utilized for analysis. The two cases used the Miscue Analysis and RMA protocols for scoring as well as examples from each participant to richly describe the data (Yin, 2014).

**Table 5**  
Lili's List of Words Used for RMA Sessions

Mandarin Fiction Say Good Night at Dawn By Jingming Guo (1377 words)		Mandarin Informational Text Chinese Zombie (1163 words)		English Fiction Death of a Salesman Act 1, Part 1 (821 words)		English Informational Text The Zombie Survival Guide (1026 words)	
Text	Miscue	Text	Miscue	Text	Miscue	Text	Miscue
--	的	随	--	at	and	zombie	rombie
奔流	流	现时	现在	Sixty-year	Six-years	ghoul	goal
暮春樱花	暮樱花	沅	元	has	was	purposes	purpose
--	一	额	--	he is	he's	There	The
只	个	上贴	贴上	cause	caused	a	--
--	天	西赶	--	kept	keep	inconclusive	conclusive
前面	面前	两根	长根	veer	ever	theatrical	\$theorical
--	里	赶尸者	尸体	--	on	there	this
				the	his		

### Bin: A Questioner and Connector

In the first interview, Bin reported in Mandarin that he owned and read books on communication and business, as well as biographies of famous businessmen; he was a reader. Often, he read newspapers and short pieces online about cooking and entertainment. He preferred books with illustrations that helped him understand. When he read the four pieces for this study, he actively talked to the text: he asked questions and made connections.

**Table 6**  
Themes and Theoretical Support

Themes that emerged	Theoretical and research support
Use of cueing systems in Mandarin and English	Reading as a socio-psycho-linguistic process (K. Goodman, 1993; Smith, 1983; Tracey & Morrow, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978) Cueing systems (K. Goodman, 1973)
Use of psycholinguistic strategies in Mandarin and English	Reading as a socio-psycho-linguistic process (K. Goodman, 1993; Smith, 1983; Tracey & Morrow, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978) Psycholinguistic Strategies (Y. Goodman et al., 2005) L2 reading (Nation, 2008) Metacognition (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2008)
Reading as meaning-making in both languages	Meaningmaking (K. Goodman, 1973; Y. Goodman et al., 2005) Transactional (Rosenblatt, 1978) Constructivism (Tracey & Morrow, 2006)
Revalue reading, build self-efficacy, gain agency	Previous RMA studies (Almazroui, 2007; M. Kim, 2010; K. Kim et al., 2004; K. Kim & Goodman, 2011; Moore & Brantingham, 2003; Moteallemini, 2010; Wurr et al., 2009)

## Bin's RMA in Mandarin

Although Bin read widely, he considered his reading and writing deficient because he had had difficulty passing exams in high school. On his BRI he reported, "Reading is to get the main idea." He used graphic information, especially when he encountered something unknown. For example, Bin read 从伐 and corrected during reading *All Quiet on the Western Front* (see Figure 1 for marking explanation).

◎从伐  
投笔\从戎

◎join the cut down

*Translation:* throw down the pen and \ join the army.

In the RMA, Bin said he initially thought 伐 and 戎 look alike; however, he realized it did not make sense and those words were different, so he self-corrected.

Bin's reading improved as he became familiar with the text. He used context to predict and made high-quality miscues. For example, he replaced 火 with 战 and 种 with 个. Those miscues did not look or sound similar; however, they did maintain the author's meaning. As represented in Table 2, there is no graphic or sound similarity, while meaning loss is low. He reported he did not read word-by-word, and inserting and omitting words that caused no meaning change helped him read efficiently. Often Bin used his background knowledge to predict unfamiliar words. For example, he predicted the meaning of 妍 yán when he read *Marketing Case Study*.

Bin: I didn't know this word, 妍; then I thought of a person I know. There is the same character, 妍, in her name. Then I sound it aloud like that.

Yi: What does it mean here?

Bin: It's a brand name.

Yi: How did you know?

Bin: It explained in the text following the word.

Bin activated his background knowledge; then he used the context clue to confirm its meaning. He reported in his retelling that he never paid attention to the title of any text until he was asked about this piece during retelling. In addition, he talked a great deal about his connections when he was asked to retell.

Throughout the RMA procedure, Bin's perceptions about his Mandarin reading expanded. In the final interview, he stated, "A reader is someone who can read very well, has his/her own opinion on what he/she reads. Very cool. Read fast and has deep opinions on the texts. Reading, reading comprehension is to read, and to write about it." His definition moved from the reader "knows the meaning" in the beginning to having "deep opinions" and being able to "write about it." When asked about his reading strategies, Bin said, "It's hard to tell. All very natural. No special strategies. I think I know the inner meaning of the sentences. I understand it." It was difficult for Bin to explain how he read Mandarin because it was so natural to him.

During the sessions, Yi shared some reading strategies with him. We can see how he has internalized a more formal language from Yi to comment on his changes,

If the miscue doesn't bother the meaning, I leave it there. ... Now I first get the main idea, the author's intention, then I predict and integrate deeper. I know my reading habits much better. I know it then I can improve my reading strategies.

He also learned that high-quality miscues do not affect his understanding, and he became more metacognitive about his reading.

### Bin's RMA in English

Bin reported that English texts were combinations of letters and symbols; in contrast, Chinese characters vividly represented both graphic and meaning information. In that way, he was comfortable reading for meaning in Mandarin, while he mostly decoded in English. Unlike his fond feelings about Mandarin, he believed English reading was a learning tool; most of his reading in English was for academics. He believed good readers “read and talk fluently” and he wanted to become as proficient in English as he was in Chinese. He stated he might try to use similar strategies in English, though he struggled with things he did not know and needed to refer to an electronic dictionary or Google.

In English, Bin eventually used all language cueing systems, took risks, relied on the context clues to predict meaning, actively questioned, and made connections. In addition, he visualized and made meaningful omissions to read efficiently. The following conversation discussing his miscues in reading *After Twenty Years* illustrates a powerful moment of RMA. He substituted *eyeball* for *eyebrow* and repeated *scarf*.

... a little white

eyeball (R)

scar near his right eyebrow. His \scarfpin was a large diamond, oddly set.

Bin: *Eyebrow*? Then it shouldn't be *eyeball*, because it can't have a scar on the eyeball. It must be somewhere close by the eye. ...

Yi: Does it sound like language?

Bin: Yes. ... I thought *scar* was *scarf*; that's why I didn't understand at the first time.

Yi: Then what did you do?

Bin: I just kept reading.

Yi: Did it change the meaning?

Bin: Sure, at that time I didn't notice it was *scar*. *Eyebrow*. Now it helps me understand; I thought it was *scarf*. If I noticed it was *scar*, I would probably know he was a bad guy. I think I messed up those two.

He miscued on *eyebrow* orally; however, what he miscued in his mind was *scar* for *scarf*. This conversation explained why he was not able to identify this character accurately, which affected his understanding of the plot during his retelling. He was very metacognitive and tried to figure out *eyebrow* and *scar*. This showed him working on meaning-making. More importantly, the RMA procedure encouraged Bin to reread, take risks, monitor his reading, correct his miscue, and understand the text. Thus, he was beginning to revalue his reading and himself as a reader (K. Goodman, 1982).

Reading the given pieces, Bin learned about the language from the texts. For example, reading a biography about Warren Buffett, he substituted *his* for *the* in the sentence below.

his

... At the ripe age of 11, Buffett bought his first stock.

Bin: ... I think (I can read *his*), it should be OK. It is talking about him.

Yi: Then how come you read it as *his*?

Bin: At that time, I thought it was telling *his* things. I have never used it like this.... This expression is not bad... then I learned a new sentence structure today.... It's nice to have varied sentence structure.

Bin assumed it was *his* age because the entire text was about Buffet. Many of his miscues in this piece did not affect his comprehension during retelling. He scored 85 out of 100 on the retelling in Table 2. The RMA conversation encouraged him to reread the text, think about why he miscued, ponder the word choice, and acquire new knowledge. It was a language learning moment that shows his revaluing ongoing as he accepted that it is okay to miscue if it does not change the meaning. Both examples show revaluing in action.

Bin compared his reading in two languages in his last RMA session: "I can read and comprehend simultaneously in Chinese, but I can't do it in English. ... When I try to figure out how to read a word, reread, I lose the meaning." He naturally used strategies to read and construct meaning in Chinese, but he was not as confident in English. He knew he worked hard on pronunciation and word decoding. Spending time pronouncing the new words accurately distracted him from constructing meaning.

Before the closing interview, Yi shared with Bin miscues created by different readers. He was fascinated that native speakers made miscues too. Initially, he believed that only ELs miscued. Knowing that everyone miscues gave Bin more confidence. His conception about reading in English expanded: "A reader can read fast and can write it out, to express his idea/thoughts. Reading with a purpose, not only just reading, [one] has to know the meaning." He considered speed and constructing meaning necessary; reading was not only word decoding but also understanding with a purpose, and writing was a higher level of comprehension. He learned that he did not have to read word by word and discovered the strategies to help him improve. He felt more confident and willing to take risks, became more aware of reading strategies, and monitored this process better after the RMA.

### **Lili: A Metacognitive Reader**

Lili enjoyed reading novellas, news, and posts shared on her Chinese Facebook and microblog. She acquired new words from English television shows and preferred to watch movies rather than read books. She reported that she relied on the illustrations for understanding when reading a book.

### **Lili's RMA in Mandarin**

Lili was confident reading in Mandarin. She commented that she relied on graphic/semantic information: "Chinese words are graphic and you can tell the meaning from the graphics." She also read with purpose, asked questions, visualized, used graphophonic information, reread, used the context, and connected to her prior knowledge. Lili was accurate and focused on meaning. As she became familiar with the text, she lost some surface accuracy, but never lost meaning. She monitored her reading and was aware she focused more on meaning rather than surface accuracy. As represented in Table 3, the graphic and sound similarity percentages are low, while the meaning construction percentages are high. She said,

I know sometimes when I focus on the story, I couldn't read accurately, but I understand what this story is about; I am not following every single word. Reading aloud doesn't mean understanding, so I used some efforts to think; then I couldn't read accurately.

Since most adults do not read aloud, Lili struggled some with accurate oral reading.

However, she did correct internally (K. Goodman, Fries & Strauss, 2016). Her accuracy depended on her purposes for reading: “If it’s for class, the teacher would want us to read accurately, so I should stick to the text, but if I just read for the main idea, to understand it, I would do it following my habits.” She was aware that her reading purposes impacted her strategies. She was metacognitive and regulated her reading.

The following example revealed several strategies Lili used when she read *Chinese Zombie*. She substituted 尸体 *dead bodies* for 赶尸者 *body-senders*.

尸体

但由于赶尸者身穿黑衣夜行

dead bodies

But because the body-senders dressed in black and walked at night, ....

Lili: I feel it’s hard to read aloud this article because the words are brief and short, there are terms, it used short words to give too much information. It’s not like how you talk, you use many sentences to explain what you want to say. But here the sentences are with so many adjectives, adverbs. They are like English long sentences. Explain one thing in a long sentence. It’s hard.

Yi: Did it change the meaning?

Lili: Yes.

Yi: Should you correct it?

Lili: Sure. I was thinking then, because I knew you would ask me the meaning, so I couldn’t get over them easily. I needed to remember, I tried to think visually, so I messed up these two.

Yi: What did you visualize?

Lili: At night, several body-senders were there, with their bells, knock their bamboo sticks. The bodies followed them, just like in the movie.

Yi: So you connect this to the movies you’ve seen.

Lili: Because anything you can think of are closely related to your experiences.

She explained the entire paragraph told how 尸体 *dead bodies* were sent home, so she did not notice in this sentence the subject was 赶尸者 *body-senders*. The text sentence structure is complex and Lili learned about the text characteristics during reading. She reported that learning English sentence structure helped her understand difficult structure in Chinese. In English, besides the graphophonic system, she relied on the syntactic system. That made her aware of her use of grammar to comprehend. After she realized that the syntactic cueing system contributed to meaning making, she used it to analyze the complicated sentences in Chinese. Though English and Chinese structures are not similar, having this awareness helped her apply the specific strategy of analyzing the structure in Chinese. Additionally, she used visualization and connecting to understand. Her retelling scores in Mandarin were both higher than those in English in Table 3.

Lili read and understood Mandarin within its culture. She said, “I understand deeply, (because) I know the culture well. Culture influences language greatly.” She explained, “A person who is able to read is a reader. ... The good reader is who is able to

read objectively, understand the meaning, and has his/her own opinion on it.” Her definition expanded from “understanding the plot” and “character” in Mandarin in the beginning to having “opinions on it” and being objective. She understood that meaning was critical: “As long as I can understand, it’s okay to make miscues.” RMA helped her change some attitudes toward reading and notice the power of rereading. She thought the sessions were “very helpful. I learned how to read and understand, and miscues.”

### Lili’s RMA in English

Reading in English, for Lili, is “reading an article. If I understand it, then I am done. Being able to summarize and know the thesis statement.” She didn’t enjoy her English reading and believed reading was an academic chore. This relates closely to her experience of doing more efferent reading (Rosenblatt, 1978) for academic purposes. If the new words distracted her, she looked them up in the dictionary, used Wikipedia, and asked others.

Lili used her knowledge of word structure, finding the root and the prefix of a new word to decode its meaning. In her opinion, English had strict rules about words and grammar. She hypothesized if she understood all the words and the sentence structure, then she would understand the meaning. RMA helped her resample the information and use the context to predict word meaning. During her reading of *The Zombie Survival Guide*, she substituted a nonword, *\$thearical*, for *theatrical* (\$ means a nonword substitution).

\$thearical

... crumbling en masse with the first theatrical volley.

Lili: I don’t know this word.... I know the sentence before that .... *Crumbling* means break into small fragments. *Theatrical*, I couldn’t even find the root of this word .... From the sentence structure, the following one should describe the main part, but I don’t know ... then I skip. If I go on, I read those that I know. It’s unnecessary to know every single sentence.

She broke the word into parts, aiming to find roots and prefixes that might help her predict its meaning. Then, when she failed to achieve the meaning, she continued to read because she knew she did not need to know every word to understand.

Lili relied on her syntactic knowledge and graphophonic information. As represented in Table 3, her use of syntax/grammar and graphic and sound similarity percentages are high. She also used context to predict the meaning of unknown words. For example, she read *he’d ever* and corrected to *he’d veer* when she read one part of *Death of a Salesman*.

© ever

... it kept taking his mind off the road, and \ he’d veer onto the shoulder before ....

Lili: *He’d veer; he would veer; veer* is a verb, I think, though I don’t know the meaning.

Yi: What do you think it means?

Lili: Pat the shoulder?

Yi: Whose shoulder?

Lili: Maybe it’s something on the car.

Yi: So shoulder is something about the car?

Lili: Oh, so *veer* is turning the wheel?

Yi: Turn the wheel to?

Lili: Turn the wheel to the direction of where the shoulder is.

Yi: The shoulder of the road?

Lili: Like the curb.

Even though she did not understand this sentence initially, RMA became a learning conversation. She used her language structure knowledge to analyze and worked out its meaning from the context. Her conversations with Yi helped her to work her way to understanding (Barnes, 1992).

When reading out aloud, Lili missed some punctuation. She explained it and compared it with Chinese reading:

Lili: Sometimes I don't understand the meaning. In Chinese I know the meaning so I know the punctuation and where to stop or pause, where to emphasize.

Yi: How do you read in English?

Lili: Just the surface meaning, shallow understanding. When I read English books or articles, I only read the words I know and try to understand. I don't pay attention to the word usages, expressions, author's intention, or feelings.

She constructed meanings proficiently in Chinese; however, in English she struggled to notice the words, the structures, the intention, and the meaning simultaneously. She decoded the word meanings and mostly relied on her vocabulary and syntactic knowledge.

Lili commented in the last RMA session,

In Chinese, I understand the meaning and I know how to use my expression. But this one I don't understand its attitude, mood, or emotion. I understand the meaning first and then use my expression. But it's my first time to read this, and I'm supposed to read it aloud, understand, and use my expression? That's too difficult.

In Mandarin, she read like an actress: She read aloud, knew the meanings, and used appropriate expression simultaneously. But in English, Lili seemed to be processing one thing at a time. She could not orchestrate several different processes, vocal expression, etc., in English and needed more time to think. Plus, the new words were a barrier to her understanding. She made more connections when she retold in Mandarin than in English and she scored higher in Mandarin retelling comprehension in Table 3. She was aware of her reading and knew how she approached the text and the differences between her readings in two languages.

Lili reported that in English, culture was a bigger issue than language. Although she may have known every single word, because she did not understand the cultural connections she still might not have understood every word. Throughout RMA, her beliefs about reading in English expanded from wanting to read longer materials to forming her opinions about reading. Lili used supportive strategies: looking up words in the dictionary, using Wikipedia, asking other people, and marking up the text. In addition, she reported she translated and processed in Mandarin. She understood familiar texts in English, then



code-switched to understand unfamiliar texts. Lili reported that she enjoyed RMA sessions because she learned about her own reading. She decided that reading meant constructing meaning and became more consciously aware of her reading process and strategies. Those were her first steps towards reevaluating.

## Discussion

### Themes of Reader Awareness

This RMA practice helped Bin and Lili explore their reading processes. They became consciously aware of their reading process, built their self-efficacy in reading, and began to revalue themselves as readers. Comparing and contrasting Bin's and Lili's growth, the following themes emerged.

**Both readers used all cueing systems to read in Mandarin and English; however, they relied more on linguistic systems in English.** Bin and Lili used all linguistic and pragmatic systems to create meaning no matter what language they read, as suggested by K. Goodman (1973). While reading in Mandarin, they used language systems effortlessly, and they relied more on graphophonic systems in English. As S. Wang (2011) explained when she discussed Chinese writing from a socio-psycholinguistic perspective, the Chinese characters carry semantic meaning as well as graphophonic information, so they made more sense to the readers. Importantly, the participants' reading supports the idea that Chinese readers may understand the words they cannot pronounce (Hung, 2011a) as some characters only carry semantic meaning but not phonic information. In English, both readers used all cueing systems to some degree and both relied heavily on graphophonic information. They were not able to apply the semantic and pragmatic systems effortlessly as they did when reading in Chinese.

**Both readers used psycholinguistic strategies in both languages and unique strategies in English.** The BRI and RMA showed that Bin and Lili used the same psycholinguistic strategies in both languages to construct meaning from print (Y. Goodman et al., 2005), and they transferred their L1 strategies into L2 (Nation, 2008). They became metacognitive in their reading (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2008) and aware that they used more reading strategies in English (Kong, 2006) such as sounding out words, chunking words into parts to figure out pronunciation and meaning, using sentence structures, translating into Chinese, and code-switching. Their Mandarin reading was more effective and efficient (K. Goodman, 1993) than their English reading. In Mandarin, they skipped either long difficult names or unknown words to be efficient, which did not hinder their understanding. In English, however, they decoded every word, even the words that were not important to the text. Thus, they needed more time to process their English reading to achieve the same level of understanding.

**Exploring their Mandarin reading processes helped both readers believe in reading as meaning-making.** The Burke Reading Interview helped readers begin to uncover their reading behaviors. Throughout the study, both shared similar beliefs that reading was creating meanings from the texts (K. Goodman, 1973; Y. Goodman et al., 2005). In Mandarin, they transacted with the text (Rosenblatt, 1978) because they reported they had been immersed in a Mandarin-speaking environment most of their lives. Their Mandarin reading was more aesthetic—they “lived through it”—and they read more automatically. In contrast, in their initial BRI they reported that English was a tool to learn new academic knowledge, and they primarily decoded word meanings. They read to learn either English language or content knowledge, which made their reading more effortful. Through RMA, they learned about their own miscues and moved toward transacting

with the text in English. They came to believe that reading was meaning-making in both languages. Overall, understanding text in L1 eventually helped them explore their L2 reading process and become more metacognitive in both languages.

**This study demonstrated that RMA empowered readers to revalue their reading and build self-efficacy, especially in English.** The previous studies found that RMA improved ELs' confidence in reading (Almazroui, 2007; M. Kim, 2010; K. Kim et al., 2004; K. Kim & Goodman, 2011; Moore & Brantingham, 2003; Moteallemini, 2010; Wurr et al., 2009) and this study highlight that the same is true with Chinese-speaking ELs. RMA gave Bin and Lili another chance to revisit the text, read closely, and focus on meaning-making. Also, the RMA conversations strengthened their understanding of texts. For instance, Bin cleared his confusion and corrected his misunderstanding of the short story, and Lili talked her way to understanding through the conferences respectively. Additionally, RMA helped Bin and Lili explore why they miscued, understand how they read, and identify where and how they lost meaning. They recognized their strengths and the strategies they used or could use. Both were surprised that they had so many strengths. Their knowledge about their miscues changed their perceptions and moved them to more complex understandings of the reading process. Furthermore, RMA sessions became language-learning settings to acquire new words, structures, and culture. Thus, RMA increased their awareness of reading processes, improved their reading abilities in English, and documented their growth in developing more complex, metacognitive processes for constructing meaning during reading.

### **Significance and Implications for Teaching and Research**

This study demonstrates that RMA is a powerful instructional tool for ELs. As ELs explore how they read in L1, it helps them read in L2. RMA in L1 and discussions about L1 proficiency help ELs understand the reading process. Once they believe reading is creating meaning in any language, they read for meaning in L2 as well. They become more confident in using L1 strategies and were willing to learn new ones in both languages. ELs need to uncover and use their successful L1 reading strategies, transfer them to L2 reading, and also apply unique L2 reading strategies as necessary.

RMA is a powerful learning tool for EL teachers as well. Data suggests, through retrospective conversations about reading and miscues, that EL teachers may help learners establish their beliefs about reading as a transaction between the reader, the text, and the context instead of solely decoding words or symbols. Also, EL teachers could use BRI to learn about students' beliefs and strategy use in their native languages and in English. RMA sessions help readers build self-efficacy, uncover strengths, learn new strategies and language knowledge, focus on meaning, and monitor reading for understanding. Moreover, teachers could encourage ELs to use their successful L1 reading strategies in L2. Teachers may teach and demonstrate different strategies to enhance learners' metacognition about which strategies to apply and when.

RMA has been in the literature for many years, but more simplified manuals (Moore & Gilles, 2005; Y. Goodman et al., 2014) have made the procedure more accessible for teachers who are not reading teachers. We advocate more RMA instruction across language and literacy teacher education programs. Instructors could introduce RMA when teachers learn about reading assessment and discuss instructional decision-making. RMA could also be used when teachers conduct reading conferences during reader's workshops or combined with Socratic circles to provide a rich language-learning environment (Moore & Seeger, 2010). It is important that teachers have an understanding of miscue analysis

prior to RMA and that it may take some time to practice analyzing miscues and learn to support readers with probing questions.

In terms of further research, RMA could be used with readers in pairs or small groups. This is called collaborative retrospective miscue analysis (Moore & Gilles, 2005). A teacher or researcher may lead the discussion or ask readers to confer about their miscues. In addition, the participants in this study read excerpts of short stories, novels, biographies, and expository writing. Future research might explore whether readers use the same or different reading strategies when they access other genres, such as poetry, newspapers, or nonfiction texts in content areas. ELs, especially those who come to the United States to study at institutions of higher education, may benefit from conferring with others about their reading in complex content areas.

### Limitations of the Study

While we embrace the findings from this study, we note its limitations. First, the study includes two ELs who voluntarily participated. Additional participants would make the results more robust; nevertheless, a careful microanalysis of the miscue and RMA of these two gave us strong descriptive data. Second, the RMA sessions were held twice in Mandarin and twice in English with each reader, and in total we had about 6 to 7 hours with each participant over the course of three months. Having longer continuous sessions would provide more data on their reading in both languages. Third, the RMA sessions were conducted individually with the participants. The conversation may be more dialogic (Holquist, 2008) in a small group or whole class setting.

### Final Thoughts

This study supported readers' understanding of their own reading and use of effective reading strategies. Participants learned that everyone miscues, and it is acceptable to make miscues if it does not change the meaning. Their perceptions about reading expanded; they used more strategies by the end of the study as they gained confidence and enthusiasm. RMA helped us, as researchers and teachers, understand readers' reading processes and how they can learn to revalue how they read. Together with these readers, we observed their reading strengths and effective strategies. We understood how they used language systems to construct meaning.

This study explores the necessity of encouraging students to explore their reading process in *both* languages. While miscue analysis has given us a window into the reading process, RMA is a powerful and critical instructional tool that reveals and shares processes about language in-use during reading with readers themselves. As Lili said, "The RMA sessions were good, I understand a lot. I realized how to be a good reader."

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**Appendix A**  
**Getting to Know You**  
(Modified from Watson, 1979)

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

**Part One**

1. What do you like to do on Saturday?
2. What is your favorite TV program?
3. Tell me something about your pets, if you have any.
4. What is the best vacation you've ever taken?
5. If you could be famous, what would you be famous for?
6. Tell about the best gift you ever received.
7. Tell about the best gift you ever gave.
8. What would you like to do on your birthday this year?
9. If you could start a collection, what would it be?
10. If you could do anything this weekend, what would it be?
11. What would you like to be doing ten years from now?
12. What sport do you like best?
13. Tell me about your hobby, if you have one. If you don't have one, tell me about one you would like to have.
14. What would you like to be able to do very well?
15. What person or place would you like to know more about?
16. What new subject would you like to know more about?
17. What clubs or groups do you belong to?
18. What are two things you do in your spare time?
19. Name an historical event or period in history that interests you.
20. Tell me something about your family.
21. What do you like about studying or living here?
22. What do you dislike about studying or living here?
23. How are you dealing/did you deal with the transition from living in China to living in here?

**Part Two**

1. Do you like to read?
2. What is the best book you have ever read?
3. What kind of books do you like to read (biography, mystery, animal stories, war stories, fantasy, information books, science fiction, other)?
4. Do you like to tell other people about what you've read?

5. Do you own any books? Tell about them.
6. How often do you read?
7. Do you read because you want to or because you have to?
8. Do you like to be read to?
9. Do you have trouble finding books that you like?
10. Did your parents read to you when you were younger?
11. Do you like to read alone or in a group?
12. Do pictures help you read the story?
13. Do you read a newspaper? If so, what section do you like best?
14. Do you read online? If so, what do you like best?
15. Who is your favorite author?
16. Do you have a library card?
17. How often do you go to the library?
18. Name a character that you have read about and tell why you like him or her.
19. If someone were going to select something for you to read, what should that person keep in mind so that he or she will pick out the perfect thing for you?



**Appendix B**  
**Burke Reading Interview**

(Modified from Burke Reading Interview by C. Burke, 1987, cited in Y. Goodman et al., 2005)

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Age \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_  
School \_\_\_\_\_ Level \_\_\_\_\_  
Sex \_\_\_\_\_ Interviewer \_\_\_\_\_

1. What do you read routinely for pleasure? How frequently?
2. What is the most memorable thing you've ever read?
3. How do you feel about reading? What is reading?
4. How long have you learned English? How do you feel about reading in English?  
What do you read for fun in English? How frequently?
5. How do you choose books, articles, journals, magazines, or other reading materials?  
What's your favorite book/article/author ...?
6. What is the most difficult thing you have to read?
7. When you are reading and you come to something you don't know, what do you do?  
Do you ever do anything else? (TEL me more. Give me an example)
8. Who is a good reader that you know? What makes him or her a good reader?
9. Do you think he or she ever comes to something that she or he doesn't know when he  
or she is reading?
10. If the answer is yes: When he or she does come to something unknown, what do you  
think he or she does about it?
11. If you knew that someone was having difficulty reading, how would you help that person?
12. How did you learn to read? What did they/you do to help you learn?
13. Who is a teacher who has made a difference for you? How did he or she help you?
14. What would you like to do better as a reader?
15. How do you like to read on a computer / iPod / e-reader / smartphone?
16. Do you think that you are a good reader? Use scale 1 (poor) to 10 (advanced).  
How do you know?
17. Anything else you'd like to tell me about yourself?

**Appendix C**  
**Semistructured Final Interview**

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

1. How do you feel about your reading in English?
2. How do you define a reader and reading?
3. What strategies do you think you used for comprehension while reading?
4. When you are reading and you come to something you don't know, what do you do?  
Do you ever do anything else? (Tell me more. Give me an example)
5. What would you like to do better as a reader?
6. How do you feel about retelling after reading?
7. How do you feel about talking about your own miscues after reading?
8. Do you think that you are a good reader? Use scale 1 (poor) to 10 (advanced).  
How do you know?
9. Anything else you'd like to tell me about yourself?

**Appendix D**  
**An excerpt of the texts Bin read in Chinese Mandarin**

市场营销案例分析：宝洁公司（P&G）

广告营销中的 ESP 策略

宝洁公司（P&G）各种品牌的广告营销一直被看作是著名广告大师罗瑟瑞夫斯（Rosser Reeves）于 20 世纪 50 年代所提出的 USP 广告策略的成功典范。比如 B，其各个品牌洗发水的广告就都秉持固有的功能性利益诉求点：“海飞丝——有效去头屑及防止头屑再生；飘柔——洗发护发二合一，令你的头发飘逸柔顺；潘婷——含有维他命 VB5，兼含护发素，令你的头发健康，加倍亮泽；沙宣——由世界著名护发专家推荐，含有天然保湿因子，使头发润泽发亮；润妍——适合东方人发质的中草药黑发洗发露……”。这些品牌都成功地演绎了 USP 的策略精髓，使为数不少的后起洗发水仍然重复这些功能，却无一能胜过宝洁公司（P&G）。

(Anjipu, 2005)

*Note:* The main researcher looked for texts based on the readers' interests first. This piece is about marketing strategies of the company Procter & Gamble. Bin had some background knowledge and was interested in marketing. The lead investigator is proficient in Chinese Mandarin and had been teaching adult ELs for several years in the mainland of China. Based on her experiences and language knowledge, she read the text, checking the sentence structures and vocabulary to ensure that it was a little challenging for Bin to read but not too difficult to understand independently.

**Appendix E**  
**Reading Miscue Inventory Retelling Summary (Fiction)**

Adapted from Y. Goodman et al., 2005

Reader: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Selection: \_\_\_\_\_

Holistic Retelling Score: \_\_\_\_\_

Plot Statements:

Theme Statements:

Inferences:

Misconceptions:

Comments:

**Reading Miscue Inventory Retelling Summary (Nonfiction)**

Adapted from Y. Goodman et al., 2005

Reader: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Reading: \_\_\_\_\_

Specific Information (50 points)

Generalizations (25 points)

Major Concepts (25 points)

Retelling	Specific Information	_____
	Generalizations	_____
	Major Concepts	_____
	Total Points	_____

Inference

Comments

### **About the Authors**

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