



Winter 2008

## Improving Reading Comprehension in Dual Language Programs

Susana E. Franco-Fuenmayor

Brooke Kandel-Cisco

*Butler University*, [bkandel@butler.edu](mailto:bkandel@butler.edu)

Yolanda Padrón

Follow this and additional works at: [https://digitalcommons.butler.edu/coe\\_papers](https://digitalcommons.butler.edu/coe_papers)



Part of the [Bilingual, Multilingual, and Multicultural Education Commons](#), and the [Educational Assessment, Evaluation, and Research Commons](#)

---

### Recommended Citation

Franco-Fuenmayor, Susana E.; Kandel-Cisco, Brooke; and Padrón, Yolanda, "Improving Reading Comprehension in Dual Language Programs" (2008). *Scholarship and Professional Work – Education*. 84. [https://digitalcommons.butler.edu/coe\\_papers/84](https://digitalcommons.butler.edu/coe_papers/84)

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the College of Education at Digital Commons @ Butler University. It has been accepted for inclusion in Scholarship and Professional Work – Education by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons @ Butler University. For more information, please contact [digitalscholarship@butler.edu](mailto:digitalscholarship@butler.edu).

## **Improving Reading Comprehension in Dual Language Programs**

Susana E. Franco-Fuenmayor, M. Ed., Texas A&M University

Brooke E. Kandel-Cisco, M. Ed., Texas A&M University

Dr. Yolanda N. Padrón, Texas A&M University

### **Abstract**

The low achievement levels and high dropout rates of English Language Learners (ELLs) continue to be a great challenge for educators. One area that can provide us with useful information on how to improve the education of ELLs is dual language programs. Research in this area indicates that native language development is important for academic success. The present study examined the cognitive reading strategies of students enrolled in a dual language program. The results indicate that both language groups of students were using successful cognitive reading strategies to comprehend text. The study also describes how the questionnaire used in the study can assist teachers in diagnosing the type(s) of cognitive reading strategies that students use.

## **Improving Reading Comprehension in Dual Language Programs**

The rate of growth of the English Language Learner (ELL) population in schools has been dramatic over the past decade. Some states, for example, have experienced 300-400% increases in the ELL population. In parts of the country, more than 50% of the preschool population comes from non-English-speaking homes (Olsen, 2006). As a group, however, ELLs have lagged behind in terms of academic achievement and have had school dropout rates almost twice those of native English-speakers (Padrón, Waxman, & Rivera, 2002).

These factors have created an urgent need to design and implement instructional approaches to ensure that ELLs attain high levels of achievement. The inclusion of research-based methods and ongoing assessment of students' progress are essential in implementing appropriate instruction for second language students and enhancing their academic achievement. The purpose of this study is to examine the cognitive reading strategies that students enrolled in dual language programs used while reading text. In addition, the questionnaire used in this study to assess students' use of cognitive reading strategies can assist teachers in diagnosing whether students use successful (strong) or unsuccessful (weak) reading strategies while reading text. Utilizing student data, such as that which comes from a reading strategy questionnaire, in the context of research-based instructional practices allows teachers to make informed pedagogical decisions and has the potential to improve the quality of reading instruction for ELLs.

### *Dual Language Development*

Dual language development is one area that can provide useful information on how to improve instructional practices for ELLs. According to Thomas and Collier (2002), for example, in order to produce the highest achievement in both the students' first and second languages

there must be systematic exposure to English combined with ongoing opportunities to learn important concepts in the home language. This means that transitioning students who have not yet mastered the elements of their first language to a new and unfamiliar language too early may have a negative effect on the students' ability to achieve academically.

Dual language programs have been shown to provide access to both the first and second languages and to be effective in educating students who are native speakers of Spanish and English (de Jong, 2002; Reese, Goldenberg & Saunders, 2006; Thomas & Collier, 2003, 2004). Dual language programs combine equal numbers of English-dominant students and minority language-dominant students in the same classroom. These programs maintain an additive philosophy of bilingualism, which shifts the notion of bilingual education from a program that is compensatory in nature to one of enrichment. The program emphasizes cooperative learning since each language group serves as a peer language model. In addition, it is critical that teachers are fully bilingual and biliterate in both of the students' languages. Administrative support, home-school collaboration, strong leadership, and student-centered instruction are also critical to the program's success (Calderón & Minaya-Rowe, 2003).

The benefits of dual language programs are that the language minority students as well as native English speakers are provided the opportunity to develop and learn through their native language. Thus, dual language programs corroborate the philosophy that an additive bilingual environment supports the development of both languages and enhances students' self-esteem and cross-cultural awareness (Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Soltero, 2004). In addition, program evaluations indicate that dual language programs are an effective approach to improving academic achievement for Spanish-speaking students and are similarly beneficial for native-

English speakers (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Gándara, Rumberger, Maxwell-Jolly, & Callahan, 2003).

Although there has been documentation of the benefits of dual language programs for native-Spanish speakers and native-English speakers, it is important to examine how students enrolled in these programs compare academically in critical areas such as reading comprehension. Undoubtedly, reading is an integral aspect of academic learning and particularly important for students who are learning a second language. According to the National Reading Panel (2000), reading comprehension is essential in enabling the development of children's reading skills that subsequently impact students' ability to obtain an education. The panel also suggests that reading comprehension is a complex cognitive process and that teacher training is vital to help students develop and apply strategies that enhance understanding and consequently increase students' achievement.

### *Reading Comprehension and Second Language Learners*

Examining the cognitive reading strategies used by students who are learning a second language is important, considering the complexity of the cognitive processes involved in reading comprehension. In addition, it is essential to develop instruments that can help teachers assess the cognitive reading strategies their students are using. Being able to determine students' use of reading strategies can help teachers design more appropriate instruction, which subsequently can improve student achievement (Padrón & Waxman, 1988).

According to Chamot and O'Malley (1994), cognitive reading strategies are those that enable students accomplish the reading task, while metacognitive strategies involve self-reflection and thinking about reading and learning. Afflerbach, Pearson, and Paris (2008)

consider a reading strategy to be a deliberate attempt to understand and construct meaning of text. When a student reads but does not understand the text, for example, the student may enact the strategy of self-questioning in a conscious effort to improve comprehension. If the student's use of the strategy is successful, s/he will continue to utilize the strategy; eventually the use of self-questioning will become automatic and unconscious. At this point, when strategy use is effortless, Afflerbach and colleagues assert that the reading strategy becomes a skill. Other researchers, such as Lawrence (2007), whose work specifically addresses second language learners, have highlighted that although studies have concluded that effective readers use strategies to comprehend text, there is still a lack of information for teachers regarding bilingual students and the students' use of strategies. Lawrence emphasizes the need for strategy instruction as a major component in the classroom, specifically to meet bilingual students' individual needs.

Research examining differences between elementary school English-monolingual and bilingual students with regard to the use of cognitive reading strategies has found that bilingual readers who are academically successful use cognitive reading strategies more often than their less-able peers, but not as often as the successful English-monolingual students (Padrón, Knight, & Waxman, 1986; Padrón & Waxman, 2001). That is, the successful elementary school bilingual readers reported using cognitive reading strategies less often than the successful English-monolingual readers.

The cognitive reading strategies of elementary bilingual Spanish-English speaking students and monolingual-English-speaking students were examined in two separate studies (Padrón, Knight, & Waxman, 1986; Padrón & Waxman, 2001). In both studies, bilingual students were enrolled in a transitional bilingual program, while the English-monolingual

students received instruction exclusively in their first language. In the study by Padrón, Knight, and Waxman (1986), the cognitive reading strategies of 23 bilingual and 15 English-monolingual third and fifth grade students were examined. The researchers conducted a structured interview and found that students were able to identify 14 different cognitive reading strategies that they used while reading text. They also found that overall, bilingual students used cognitive reading strategies less frequently than their English-monolingual peers (Padrón et al., 1986).

In another study, 317 third-fifth grade English-monolingual and bilingual students were administered the Reading Strategy Questionnaire (RSQ) (Waxman & Padrón, 1987). The results revealed that bilingual students reported using more of the strategies that have been found to be negatively related to students' reading success. For example, bilingual students were found to use the strategies *Read words over and over again* and *Skip parts of the story I don't understand*. The researchers suggested that strategy instruction with bilingual students at an early age may be necessary, so that students do not begin to develop negative reading habits (Waxman & Padrón, 1987).

In addition, Padrón and Waxman (1988) examined the effects of students' perceptions of their cognitive strategies on reading achievement. Eighty-two Latino ELLs from the third through fifth grades participated in this study. The reading comprehension section of the Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test was used to establish the relationship between the students' strategy use and the students' improvement in reading. The RSQ was administered to determine students' perceptions of the cognitive reading strategies they were using. The researchers' findings corroborated previous research findings: lower-achieving readers used less sophisticated strategies, and the use of these cognitive reading strategies negatively affected ELLs' reading comprehension. In summary, not only did students who were less successful use

more of the weaker cognitive reading strategies, but the use of these weaker strategies hindered their reading achievement.

In sum, previous research has identified the type and number of cognitive reading strategies used by students enrolled in transitional bilingual programs. These studies have found that students enrolled in transitional bilingual programs use fewer and less sophisticated strategies when compared with their peer English-monolingual counterparts. Research revealed similar results whether using structured interviews or the RSQ. In addition, when investigating the effects of students' perceptions of the cognitive reading strategies they use on reading achievement, the results indicate that using less sophisticated strategies hinders reading comprehension for students enrolled in transitional bilingual programs.

The research on cognitive reading strategies with students enrolled in transitional bilingual programs has indicated that students need to develop a more expanded repertoire of cognitive reading strategies. Perhaps the lack of strategies can be attributed to the fact that students received instruction in their second language before they demonstrated well-established oral language abilities in their own language. Research has indicated that students who are transitioned into English before they have an opportunity to develop oral language skills in their first language have difficulty achieving high levels of English fluency and do not do as well as students who had the opportunity to learn in two languages (Thomas & Collier, 2002). It is important to examine whether students enrolled in programs where their first language is being developed, such as the dual language program, exhibit the same strategic reading processes. Findings from this research may provide additional information on how instruction in the students' first language enhances or hinders students' strategic processing and subsequently students' reading achievement.



Considering the positive effects of dual language programs and the importance of reading comprehension for students, the purpose of this study is to examine the types of reading strategies that both native-Spanish-speaking and native-English-speaking students enrolled in dual language programs are using. The research questions are as follows:

- (a) What are the cognitive reading strategies that native-English speakers enrolled in dual language programs report using?
- (b) What are the cognitive reading strategies that native-Spanish speakers enrolled in dual language programs report using?
- (c) Are there differences in the type of strategies that native-English speakers and native Spanish-speakers report using?

It is hypothesized that there will be few differences, since both sub-groups are developing their respective native languages.

## Methods

This descriptive study was conducted in an elementary school located in a major city in the south-central region of the U.S. The school, which enrolls nearly 800 students, was rated as exemplary through the state's accountability system for the 2007-2008 school year. This rating signifies that all student groups on the campus had a 90% or higher passing rate on all state-mandated standardized subject area exams. The ethnic composition of the student population is 47% white, 22% Hispanic, 18% Asian, and 13% African American. Approximately 36% of students are considered at-risk, and 24% are labeled economically disadvantaged. ELLs represent 13% of the school's population. Most Spanish-speaking ELLs are enrolled in the dual language program; however, the school also offers ESL classes for speakers of other languages.

Parents make the choice of whether to enroll in any of these programs or waive their children's rights and enroll in the mainstream classrooms.

This school is unique in that it is a magnet school for literary development, meaning that listening, reading, script-writing, dramatizing, writing, illustrating, and publishing activities are highlighted in the school's curriculum. The school's dual language program provides a cohesive, bilingual, biliterate, and bicultural environment for an equal number of Spanish-speaking and English-speaking students. Following the 90:10 model, all Kindergarten and first grade instruction occurs in the target language, and oral language development is provided in English. Both groups learn literacy skills in the minority language. This model increases the ratio of the majority language progressively throughout the program. For example, second grade has an 80:20 ratio, and formal English reading is added in the third grade. Instructional time is balanced between English and the target language in the upper grades. In brief, all participating students receive instruction in language arts and content subjects primarily in Spanish in the early grades (K-3), and gradually increase their English instruction until reaching a level of proficiency in both languages that leads to a 50% Spanish/50% English curriculum in grades 4-5.

### Participants

Data were collected from all 21 students in the school's third grade dual language program. The 21 students, 11 females and 10 males, had been enrolled in the two-way dual language program since Kindergarten. Spanish was the native language of 9 of the students, while the remaining 12 students reported English as their native language. In terms of ethnicity, 10 (48%) were Hispanic, 9 (43%) were white, and 2 (10%) of the students were African-American.

## Instruments

The Reading Strategy Questionnaire (RSQ) (Padrón & Waxman, 1988), was adapted from Hahn (1984) and Paris and Myers (1981). The RSQ is a 20-item, Likert-type questionnaire on which students indicate the extent to which they use various described strategies by responding with (a) yes, (b) sometimes, or (c) no. The instrument has been found to be reliable with samples studied in previous research (e.g., Arnold, 2001; Padrón & Waxman, 1988). Responses for each item were tallied, and frequency tables were compiled. The percentage of students selecting each response for each item was calculated. Finally, cross-tabulation was used to determine item responses by language group, either native-Spanish speaker or native-English speaker.

The following 11 strategies included on the RSQ have not been associated with successful reading comprehension (Chou Hare & Smith, 1982; Hahn, 1984; Knight, 1987; Padrón, 1985) or have not been examined systematically to determine their relationship to reading comprehension:

1. Reading the story over again upon completion of the first reading,
2. Remembering the interesting parts and skip others,
3. Skip parts of the story that I don't understand,
4. Read the story as fast as I can,
5. Say the main ideas over and over,
6. Say the words in the story over and over again,
7. Read slowly and carefully,
8. Think about what I am reading,
9. Look for things that are different in the story,
10. Ask a friend for help if I don't understand, and

11. Look up a word I don't know in the dictionary.

The following nine strategies on the RSQ have been designated by research and theoretical literature (Knight, 1987; Morrow, 1985; Olshavsky, 1976-77; Singer & Donlan, 1982; Weinstein & Mayer, 1986) as strong strategies and to be positively related to students' achievement:

1. Keep a picture of the story in my mind,
2. Ask questions about parts of the story that I don't understand,
3. Try to tell the story in my own words,
4. Ask myself questions about the story,
5. Think about what's going to happen next in the story,
6. Think of something that has happened to me which is similar to the story,
7. Imagine the story like a movie in my mind,
8. Check through the story to see if I remember all of it, and
9. Underline important parts of the story.

### Procedures

Students were administered the RSQ by a teacher and a trained graduate student researcher. Students were given the questionnaire in their first language. Items were read aloud to the students, so that reading proficiency would not interfere with the students' ability to respond to the items.

### Results

Table 1 reports the results of all third-grade students enrolled in the dual language program who were administered the RSQ. Results from the RSQ indicated that *all* third-grade students enrolled in the dual language program were generally using positive cognitive reading

strategies. The results indicated that the strategies that the largest percentage of all third-grade students responded “yes” included three positive strategies: *When I read a story, I think about what’s going to happen next in the story* (86%); *When I read story, I try to keep a picture of the story in my mind* (81%); and *When I read a story, I imagine the story like a movie in my mind* (81%). Two weak strategies were also cited often: (1) *When I read a story, I think about what I am reading* (86%), and (2) *When I read a story, I read it slowly and carefully* (81%). It must be pointed out that in previous studies, bilingual students reported using these weak reading strategies often (Waxman & Padrón, 1987). As a matter of fact, students in transitional programs use these weak strategies almost exclusively. The weak strategies cited have been identified in the literature as less successful, in that little cognitive processing may be involved when students use these strategies. For example, when reading slowly and carefully the student must also use other strategies in order for this strategy to be effective.

When combining students’ responses “Yes” and “Sometimes,” the results indicate that, in addition to the strategies mentioned above, there are a number of strategies that a large percentage of students are using or sometimes using: *After I read a story, I read it over again* (100%); *When I read a story, I look for things that are different in the story* (95%). While these two strategies are negative, a large percentage of students also indicated that they “Yes” and “Sometimes” used the following positive strategy: *When I read a story, I ask questions about parts of the story that I don’t understand* (95%).

The results indicate that a large percentage of students indicated that they are using 15 of the 20 strategies addressed on the RSQ. This indicates that students have developed a great repertoire of strategies. In addition, when examining the type of strategies that a large number of students use, the results indicate that of the 15 strategies that a large percentage of students report

using, eight are positive and seven are negative.

The cognitive reading strategies that students reported not using include the following:

*When I read a story, I remember the interesting parts and skip others* (5%), *When I read a story, I read the story as fast as I can* (5%). None of the students reported using the following strategy: *When I read a story, I skip parts of the story I don't understand* (0%). Overall, all third-grade students in the dual language program reported using a variety of cognitive reading strategies, most of which are positive.

Table 2 reports the percentage of native Spanish-speaking (NSS) and native English-speaking (NES) students in a dual language program who report using each of the cognitive reading strategies. Results indicated that a large percentage of NSS students reported using the strategy: *When I read a story, I read it slowly and carefully* (89%). Although NES students reported using this strategy, it was not reported by as great a percentage of students (75%). The cognitive reading strategy reported by the greatest percentage of NES students was, *When I read a story, I think about what's going to happen next in the story* (92%); a slightly lower percentage (78%) of NSS students report using this strategy. Generally, similar percentages of students from each language group (NES and NSS) report using the following strategies: *When I read a story, I try to keep a picture of the story in my mind* (83%; 78%); *When I read a story, I think about what I am reading* (83%; 78%); and *When I read a story, I imagine the story like a movie in my mind* (83%; 78%). Although both language groups are reporting using these strategies, a slightly larger percentage of NES than NSS students reporting using the strategies.

One strategy was reported as being used by a greater percentage (78%) of NSS students than by NES students (42%). This strategy was, *When I read a story, I underline important parts of the story*. A possible explanation for the use of this strategy by a greater percentage of NSS

may be due to the type of reading instruction they receive. During reading instruction, students are asked to underline sections of the reading passage. This is an activity that is done to prepare students for the state's accountability test in Spanish. Because students take the test in the third and fourth grade in Spanish, teachers may focus on doing this activity more in Spanish than in English. Future research needs to examine the use of this strategy for both language groups and its effect on reading achievement in both languages.

No native English-speakers or native Spanish-speakers reported regularly using the following strategy: *When I read a story, I skip parts of the story I don't understand*. Other cognitive reading strategies that were reported by NES and NSS students as not being used often included the following: *When I read a story, I remember the interesting parts and skip others* (0%; 11%); *When I read a story, I read the story as fast as I can* (0%; 11%). There was, however, a difference found in terms of the percentage of students who reported not using the strategy, *When I read a story, I say the words in the story over and over again*. None of the Native-English speakers reported that they used this negative strategy, while 33% of the Native-Spanish speakers indicated that they used this strategy.

## Discussion

The results of this study indicate that the students perceived using a variety of cognitive reading strategies. In addition, they are reporting consistently using more positive reading strategies than negative reading strategies. The most frequently cited strategies were positive and included strategies focusing on imagery and prediction. The least cited strategies were negative strategies, such as skipping text and reading quickly. Additionally, the results demonstrate few differences in terms of strategy use between native Spanish-speakers and native

English-speakers. Overall, native Spanish-speakers and native English-speakers generally reported using the positive and negative strategies to a similar extent, suggesting these findings may indicate that the dual language context is providing equitable reading instruction that develops students' cognitive reading strategies for both language groups. Additionally, these findings suggest that results from previous research, documenting the use of less sophisticated strategies by bilingual students in comparison to English-monolingual students, may be due in part to the subtractive instructional context in which the bilingual students were learning to read (Padrón, 1985).

This study describes students' reported use of strategies in a dual language context and how teachers can utilize instruments such as the RSQ to generate student data and tailor reading instruction. There are, however, several limitations of the study that need to be addressed. First, the present study did not examine cross-linguistic transfer in order to determine the extent to which elementary students in dual language programs transfer the strategies used in their native language to their second language, as has been done in middle school context (e.g., Jiménez, García & Pearson, 1995, 1996). In addition, this study did not determine how the use of each type of strategy affects student achievement. Knowing which strategies are more effective in enhancing student achievement can further assist in designing instruction that is more effective. Finally, the limited sample size restricts the generalizability of the findings. Future research studies should include a larger sample that includes students from various grade levels.

Most teachers receive little training in the assessment of students' strategic reading (Afflerbach, Ruetschlin, & Russell, 2007). While some reading teachers can accurately assess students' use of reading strategies in everyday classroom contexts such as during guided reading, the use of a student questionnaire is a starting point for teachers who wish to be deliberate about



using student data to inform instruction. Becoming purposeful about collecting, using, and reflecting on student data is an important piece in empowering teachers of ELLs to make informed pedagogical decisions and provide the most effective instruction for their students (Kandel-Cisco & Padrón, 2008). Student self-report instruments, such as the RSQ that was utilized in this study, can help educators use data to develop a more diagnostic stance toward their instruction.

In spite of the small sample size, the study provides information about the strategic use of reading strategies by native Spanish speakers and English speakers while reading in their first and second language. In addition, the RSQ has the potential to assist educators in assessing and understanding the types of positive reading strategies that should be taught in the classroom as well as those negative strategies that teachers should encourage students to eliminate. Knowing the type and number of strategies that students use while reading text can help determine the most effective type of instruction for students. Pinpointing the areas where students need reading strategy instruction can enhance students' reading comprehension and may subsequently contribute to academic achievement in reading.

Using the data from the present study, for example, a teacher could conclude that the majority of students use imagery and prediction to comprehend text. It is important to note, however, that just because students report using a strategy, this does not signify that students are appropriately executing the strategy (Afflerbach et al., 2008). Thus, after establishing that a strategy is used, it is important for a teacher to ascertain that students are using reading strategies—in this example imagery and prediction—in appropriate contexts and that the strategies are indeed supporting accurate text comprehension across genres. In other words, the teacher's job is to help students use strategies in a productive manner and eventually as an

automatic and unconscious response to breakdowns in reading comprehension. The negative strategies that students report can also be a point of departure for a teacher's reading instruction. Again, using an example from the results of the present study, a teacher could conclude that the majority of students use the negative strategy, *When I read a story, I think about what I am reading*. This strategy is considered negative because executing the strategy requires limited cognitive processing. The teacher, therefore, can plan instruction to model the use of this strategy in a more cognitively sophisticated way, such as using self-questioning as a means of thinking about the text read.

While the RSQ is a valuable tool in helping teachers gather data to inform instruction, the instrument can also be used to assist students in comprehending text. Besides giving a name to and legitimizing the reading strategies that students already use, completing the RSQ requires students to reflect on the cognitive processing they employ when reading. Being metacognitive is a process that many students, especially those at the elementary level, may not automatically employ. Teachers can highlight the awareness of cognitive processes that may be catalyzed by the RSQ and encourage students to implement this metacognitive approach with actual reading tasks.

Future research should also begin to look at the role of teachers and instruction in ELLs' reading strategy use (Kandel-Cisco, 2007). The teacher has been identified as an important element to student learning (e.g., Haycock, 1998), yet little is known about how teachers' comprehension instruction may influence ELLs' strategic reading abilities. While the extant literature documents bilingual students' reported reading strategy use, it provides little information on how educational practitioners should provide reading strategy and comprehension instruction to ELLs (Roe, 2004). The present study suggests the use of student self-report data as

one avenue for providing effective and appropriate reading comprehension instruction to language learners in dual language programs. Future studies should continue to examine the reading strategies used across a variety of language learning contexts and suggest other avenues for teachers to improve their reading comprehension instruction with language learners.

## References

- Afflerbach, P., Pearson, P. D., & Paris, S. G. (2008). Clarifying differences between reading skills and reading strategies. *The Reading Teacher*, 61, 364-373.
- Afflerbach, P., Ruetschlin, H., & Russell, S. (2007). Assessing strategic reading. In R. McCormack & J. Paratore (Eds.), *Classroom literacy assessment: Making sense of what students know and do* (pp. 177-194). New York: Guilford.
- Arnold, K. (2002). *Investigating the cognitive reading strategies and motivation to read of resilient, average, and non-resilient fourth and fifth grade Latino English language learners*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Houston, Texas.
- Calderón, M. E., & Minaya-Rowe, L. (2003). *Designing and implementing two-way bilingual programs*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Chamot, A. U., & O'Malley, J. M. (1994). *The CALLA handbook: Implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach*. New York: Addison-Wesley.
- Chou Hare, V., & Smith, D. C. (1982). Reading to remember: Studies of metacognitive reading skills in elementary school-aged children. *Journal of Educational Research*, 75, 157-164.
- Collier, V., & Thomas, W. P. (2002). Reforming education policies for English learners means better schools for all. *The State Education Standard*, 3(1), 30-36.
- Collier, V., & Thomas, W. P. (2004). The astounding effectiveness of dual language for all. *NABE Journal of Research and Practice*, 2(1), 1-20.
- De Jong, E. J. (2002). Effective bilingual education: From theory to academic achievement in a two-way bilingual program. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 26(1), 1-20.

- Gándara, P., Rumberger, R., Maxwell-Jolly, J., & Callahan, R. (2003). English learners in California schools: Unequal resources, unequal outcomes. [Electronic version.] *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 11(36), 1-51.
- Hahn, A. L. (1984). Assessing and extending comprehension: Monitoring strategies in the classroom. *Reading Horizons*, 24, 231-237.
- Haycock, K. (1998). Good teaching matters: How well-qualified teachers can close the gap. *Thinking K-16*, 3(2), 1-14.
- Jiménez, R. T., García, G. E., & Pearson, P. D. (1995). Three children, two languages, and strategic reading: Case studies in bilingual/monolingual reading. *American Educational Research Journal*, 32, 31-61.
- Jiménez, R. T., García, G. E., & Pearson, P. D. (1996). The reading strategies of bilingual Latina/o students who are successful English readers: Opportunities and obstacles. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 31, 90-112.
- Jiménez, R. T. (1997). The strategic reading abilities and potential of five low-level literacy Latina/o readers in middle school. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 32, 224-243.
- Kandel-Cisco, B. (October, 2007). *Investigating vocabulary and reading strategies with middle grades English language learners: Translating research to practice*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Texas Association for Bilingual Education, San Antonio.
- Kandel-Cisco, B., & Padrón, Y. (2008). Using a resiliency perspective to inform bilingual teachers' classroom inquiry. In P. Dam, & M. Cowart (Eds.), *Current issues and best practice in bilingual and ESL education*. Denton, TX: Federation of North Texas Area Universities.

- Knight, S. L. (1987). *Investigating the relationship between classroom instruction and students' cognitive strategies*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Houston, Texas.
- Langer, J. A., Bartolomé, L., Vásquez, O., & Lucas, T. (1990). Meaning construction in school literacy tasks: A study of bilingual students. *American Educational Research Journal*, 27, 427-471.
- Lawrence, L. J. (2007). Cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies revisited: Implications for instruction. *The Reading Matrix*, 7(3), 55-71.
- Lindholm-Leary, K. (2001). *Dual language education*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Morrow, L. (1985). Reading and retelling stories: Strategies for emergent readers. *The Reading Teacher*, 38, 870-875.
- National Reading Panel (2000). National Reading Panel. Retrieved on September 20<sup>th</sup>, 2008 from <http://www.nationalreadingpanel.org/FAQ/faq.htm>.
- Olsen, L. (2006). Ensuring academic success for English learners. UC Linguistic Minority Research Institute, *Newsletter* 15(4).
- Olshavsky, J. (1976-77). Reading as problem-solving: An investigation of strategies. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 12, 654-674.
- Padrón, Y. N. (1985). *Utilizing cognitive reading strategies to improve English reading comprehension of Spanish speaking bilingual students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Houston, Texas.
- Padrón, Y. N., Knight, S. L., & Waxman, H. C. (1986). Analyzing bilingual and monolingual students' perceptions of their reading strategies. *The Reading Teacher*, 39, 430-433.

- Padrón, Y. N., & Waxman, H. C. (1988). The effect of students' perceptions of their cognitive strategies on reading achievement. *TESOL Quarterly*, 22, 146-150.
- Padrón, Y. N., & Waxman, H. C. (2001). The reading strategies of bilingual and monolingual students. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 128, 697-698.
- Padrón, Y. N., Waxman, H. C., & Rivera, H. H. (2002). Issues in educating Hispanic students. In S. Stringfield & D. Land (Eds.), *Educating at risk students* (pp. 66-88). Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education.
- Paris, S. G., & Myers, M. (1981). Comprehension monitoring, memory, and study strategies of good and poor readers. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 8, 5-22.
- Reese, L., Goldenberg, C., & Saunders, W. (2006). Variations in reading achievement among Spanish-speaking children in different language programs: Explanations and confounds. *The Elementary School Journal*, 106, 363-385.
- Roe, M. F. (2004). Literacy for middle school students: Challenges of cultural synthesis. *Research in Middle Level Education Online*, 28(1). Retrieved October 21, 2006, from <http://www.nmsa.org/Publications/RMLEOnline/tabid/101/Default.aspx>.
- Singer, H., & Donlan, D. (1982). Active comprehension: Problem-solving schema with question generation for comprehension of complex short stories. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 17, 166-186.
- Thomas, W. P., & Collier, V. P. (2003). A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement. Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence, Santa Cruz, CA. Retrieved on September 20<sup>th</sup>, 2008 from <http://www.cal.org/crede/pubs/ResBrief10.htm>.

Soltero, S. W. (2004). *Dual language: Teaching and learning in two languages*. New York: Pearson.

Waxman, H. C., & Padrón, Y. N. (1987). *The effects of students' perceptions of cognitive strategies on reading achievement*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association. Dallas, TX.

Weinstein, C., & Mayer, R. (1986). *The teaching of learning strategies*. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed., pp. 315-327). New York: McMillan.



Table 1: Percentage of third grade students enrolled in a dual language program responding *Yes*, *Sometimes*, and *No* to specific cognitive reading strategies

<i>Cognitive Reading Strategies</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>+/-</i>
1. After I read a story, I read it over again.	43	57	0	-
2. When I read a story, I remember the interesting parts and skip others.	5	14	81	-
3. When I read story, I try to keep a picture of the story in my mind.	81	14	5	+
4. When I read a story, I read it slowly and carefully.	81	19	0	-
5. When I read a story, I think about what I am reading.	86	14	0	-
6. When I read a story, I look for things that are different in the story.	43	52	5	-
7. After I read a story, I try to tell the story in my own words.	33	48	20	+
8. When I read a story, I ask myself questions about the story.	43	43	14	+
9. When I read a story, I skip parts of the story I don't understand.	0	29	71	-
10. When I read a story, I read the story as fast as I can.	5	24	71	-
11. When I read a story, I think about what's going to happen next in the story.	86	14	0	+
12. When I read a story, I think of something that has happened to me that is similar to the story.	19	62	19	+
13. When I read a story, I ask a friend for help if I don't understand something.	29	52	19	-
14. When I read a story, I check through the story to see if I remember all of it.	38	38	24	+
15. When I read a story, I say the main ideas over and over.	19	61	19	-
16. When I read a story, I imagine the story like a movie in my mind.	81	10	10	+
17. When I read a story, I look up words I don't know in the dictionary.	19	52	29	-
18. When I read a story, I underline important parts of the story.	57	24	19	+
19. When I read a story, I ask questions about	62	33	5	+

parts of the story that I don't understand.				
20. When I read a story, I say the words in the story over and over again.	14	72	14	–

Table 2: Percentage of third grade native Spanish-speaking (NSS) and native English-speaking (NES) students enrolled in a dual language program responding *Yes* to specific cognitive reading strategies

<i>Reading Strategies</i>	<i>NSS</i>	<i>NES</i>	<i>+/-</i>
1. After I read a story, I read it over again.	44	56	–
2. When I read a story, I remember the interesting parts and skip others.	11	0	–
3. When I read story, I try to keep a picture of the story in my mind.	78	83	+
4. When I read a story, I read it slowly and carefully.	89	75	–
5. When I read a story, I think about what I am reading.	78	83	–
6. When I read a story, I look for things that are different in the story.	56	33	–
7. After I read a story, I try to tell the story in my own words.	44	25	+
8. When I read a story, I ask myself questions about the story.	22	58	+
9. When I read a story, I skip parts of the story I don't understand.	0	0	–
10. When I read a story, I read the story as fast as I can.	11	0	–
11. When I read a story, I think about what's going to happen next in the story.	78	92	+
12. When I read a story, I think of something that has happened to me that is similar to the story.	22	17	+
13. When I read a story, I ask a friend for help if I don't understand something.	22	33	–
14. When I read a story, I check through the story to see if I remember all of it.	56	25	+
15. When I read a story, I say the main ideas over and over.	22	17	–
16. When I read a story, I imagine the story like a movie in my mind.	78	83	+
17. When I read a story, I look up words I don't	11	25	–

know in the dictionary.			
18. When I read a story, I underline important parts of the story.	78	42	+
19. When I read a story, I ask questions about parts of the story that I don't understand.	56	67	+
20. When I read a story, I say the words in the story over and over again.	33	0	-