ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: A BILINGUAL FAMILY LITERACY PROGRAM FOR FAMILIES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS: EXPERIENCES, PERSPECTIVES, AND LITERACY PRACTICES FROM THREE FOCAL FAMILIES

Kimberly Palombo, Doctor of Philosophy, 2015

Dissertation directed by: Dr. Rebecca Silverman
Department of Counseling, Higher Education, and Special Education, University of Maryland, College Park

A large body of research identifies the positive association between family literacy and reading outcomes for children. However, much of this research focuses on children in the emergent reading stage. Research aimed at family literacy for families with English language learners (ELLs) is further limited. Due to the dearth of family literacy program (FLP) literature for children in grades three through five, the current study investigated the experiences and attitudes of three parent–child focal pairs who participated in a bilingual family literacy program. This qualitative study of a family literacy program investigated the following two research questions: (1) What are families' experiences and attitudes related to a family literacy program, implemented as part of an existing reading intervention, to support children's reading development?; and (2) How does what

families learn in a family literacy program align with at–home literacy interactions? Three parent–child focal pairs who were ELLs and had children in fourth grade, served as the participants to investigate these questions. Data sources for analysis included parent and student interviews, parent questionnaire, and audio/video recordings of the program. The constant comparative method (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) was used to analyze all data, both within and across the focal families. The analysis culminated in the development of an emergent theory that summarized the findings from the experiences of the focal families included in this study. Analyses of data revealed the three focal families desired to support their children's literacy development through participation in family literacy programming, and they added to their skills with practical strategies to use with their children. Further, participation in family literacy programming deepened Spanish family literacy interactions related to texts children read in English through oral discourse. Finally, families' implementation of strategies learned in an FLP extended their existing home literacy environment. A discussion of the findings, implications for families, home–school partnerships, and future FLPs, limitations of the current study, and future areas of research are then explored.

A BILINGUAL FAMILY LITERACY PROGRAM FOR FAMILIES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS: EXPERIENCES, PERSPECTIVES, AND LITERACY PRACTICES FROM THREE FOCAL FAMILIES

by

Kimberly Palombo

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the
University of Maryland, College Park in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
2015

Advisory Committee:

Dr. Rebecca Silverman (Chair)
Dr. Sherril Moon
Dr. Joan Lieber
Dr. Megan Madigan Peercy
Dr. Jennifer Turner (Dean's representative)

© 2015 Kimberly M. Palombo
All rights reserved.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank my entire dissertation committee for their guidance and patience. In particular, I express deep gratitude to Rebecca Silverman. Dr. Silverman took me on as an advisee partway through this process and offered insight, encouragement, and support at every step. I would like also to mention Debbie Speece, my initial advisor; I learned an enormous amount about research and writing during my year under her guidance. I thank my husband, Schaeffer, for his unwavering support, love, and understanding; and my parents, Aldo and Mary Pat, for the countless ways in which they helped me complete this work. Finally, to our sweet boy, Atticus, thank you for the big smile that makes everything I do worth it.

Table of Contents

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ii
Table of Contents iii
List of Tables v
Chapter 1: Introduction and Background 1
Home Literacy Environment 5
Home Literacy Environment and English Language Learners 6
Theoretical Framework 10
Overview of Research on Family Literacy 12
The Current Study 14
Definitions of Key Terms 16

Chapter 2: Literature Review 18
Method 19
Inclusion Criteria 19
Family Literacy Programs in Upper Elementary School 21
FLPs with strategy instruction. 22
Without strategy instruction. 31
FLPs without strategy instruction for families of ELLs. 36
Synthesis of Research on FLPs in Upper Elementary School 39
Gaps in the Literature and the Current Study 42

Chapter 3: Methodology 46
Purpose 46
Background 47
Researcher Background, Assumptions, Motivation and Role in the Study 51
Setting 53
Participants 54
Recruitment and Selection 54
Family Literacy Program 55
Family Literacy Program 1. 60
Family Literacy Program 2. 61
Family Literacy Program 3. 63
Family Literacy Program 4. 65
Data Collection 67
Data Analysis 75
Trustworthiness Measures 76
Research Question 1 (RQ1): Data Analysis 78
Research Question 2 (RQ2): Data Analysis 79

Chapter Four: Results 81
Experiences, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Focal Families in a Family Literacy Component of a Reading Intervention 82
Findings for Research Question 1 86
Bianca and Paula. 89
Bruno and Lorenzo. 93
Natalia and Carolina. 97
Analysis Across Focal Pairs. 101

Summary. 107
Findings for Research Question Two 109
Bianca and Paula. 112
Bruno and Lorenzo. 113
Natalia and Carolina. 114
Analysis Across Focal Pairs. 115
Summary. 119
Central Finding: A Substantive Theory 119
Conclusions 121

Chapter Five: Conclusions 123
Contributions 123
Revisiting the Theoretical Framework and Literature Base 124
Families' Experiences and Attitudes Related to the Family Literacy Program 127
Implications 134
Limitations and Future Research 140
Final Thoughts 142

Appendices 144
Appendix A: Literature Review 145
Table 2.1 Definitions for internal, construct, statistical conclusion, and external validity criteria 145
Table 2.2 Methodological Matrix for Quantitative Studies 146
Appendix B: Family Literacy Program Materials 147
Table 3.4 Outline of Family Literacy Program Sessions #2, 3, and 4 147
FLP Session #1 PowerPoint Presentation 151
FLP Session #2 PowerPoint Presentation 152
FLP Session #3 PowerPoint Presentation 154
FLP Session #4 PowerPoint Presentation 156
FLP Session PAWs Strategy Bookmarks 157
Appendix C: Data Collection 158
Table 4.2 Coding Map 158
Family Questionnaire 158
Parent Self–Report Sample 164

References 165

List of Tables

Table		Page
2.1	Definitions for internal, construct, statistical conclusion, and external validity criteria	145
2.2	Methodological matrix for quantitative studies	146
3.1	PAWS Strategy	56
3.2	PET Strategy	56
3.3	PAWS Strategy Questions	59
3.4	Outline of Family Literacy Programs #2, 3, and 4	147
3.5	Data Source Catalogue	67
3.6	Questions for Group, Post–Intervention, and Delayed Post–Intervention Interviews	70
4.1	Initial Conceptual Categories and Codes from Open Coding of Interview Data	84
4.2	Coding Map (Enlarged)	158
4.3	Parent Self–Report Data	88
4.4	Experiences, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Three Focal Parent–Child Pairs in the FLP Across Emergent Themes	107
4.5	Conceptual Categories and Codes for Research Question 2	110
4.6	Parent Questionnaire HLE–Related Data by Focal Family	111

Chapter 1: Introduction and Background

The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) reported that reading scores using standardized measures of both decoding and comprehension for nine–year–olds remained largely unchanged between 2006 and 2011 and only marginally improved since 1992 (NCES, 2011). These results echo the findings of researchers who report a 'fourth grade slump' in reading growth (Chall & Jacobs, 2003; Chall, Jacobs, & Baldwin, 1990). The 'fourth grade slump' describes the phenomenon that students from minority groups exhibit a decelerating growth rate in their reading skills when compared to their peers. Chall and colleagues (1990; 2003) describe that as children move from early elementary school to the later elementary grades, the instructional focus shifts from learning to read to reading to learn. Typically around third grade, classrooms are full of increasingly difficult texts, many expository, and students are expected to glean meaning from text. This shift to instruction that relies heavily on reading comprehension skills and includes non–fiction texts, which mirrors the increased demands on text comprehension in the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) can be particularly challenging for readers vulnerable to being struggling readers.

Despite coming to school from environments that support literacy in a variety of ways (Britto & Brooks, 2001; Britto, Brooks–Gunn, Griffin, 2006), Hispanic students in the United States have several factors that impact their academic success, including their reading development. These factors include: learning English as a second language in contexts that often do not support their existing linguistic and cultural knowledge, poverty, frequent misunderstanding between home and school, and an increased likelihood to be referred for special education services (Ortiz, 2004; Reese & Gallimore,

2000; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; Washington, 2001). The Hispanic population comprises 80% of all English language learners (ELL) in the United States (U.S. Census, 2011). Indeed, in U.S. public schools, the English language learner (ELL) population is the fastest–growing population of students. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics, the percentage of ELLs in public schools increased from 9% in 2002–03 to 10% in 2010–2011. As reported on the most recent Nation's Report Card, ELL students performed 36 points below their non–ELL peers at 4th grade, and 44 points below their non–ELL peers at 8th grade on the NAEP reading assessment (NCES, 2013).

An added demand to develop emergent literacy skills in a language that may not be employed at home contributes to ELL reading vulnerability. Hispanic students more frequently attend schools with high rates of poverty than their White peers (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). The U.S. Department of Education defines a school with a significant population of students living in poverty as having 75% or more students who are eligible for free and/or reduced lunch status. Forty–six percent of Hispanic elementary school students attend a school of poverty, as compared to 14% of White students. An analysis at the secondary school level reveals a similar gap size: 44% of Hispanic students attend a school of poverty compared to and 11% of White students. This disparity is similar in the ELL category, with 25% of elementary school–aged ELLs attending schools with high rates of poverty and 16% of secondary–aged ELLs (2010). Appropriate and efficient identification for special education services is another area of challenge, historically speaking, for ELLs in U.S. public schools.

Both over– and under–representation in special education, or identification at higher–than–expected or lower–than–expected rates, is a significant and long–standing

problem for culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students in U.S. public schools (Sullivan, 2011). In addition, ELLs face a problem of later identification for special education services than their White peers (Samson & Lesaux, 2009). Samson and Lesaux (2009) found ELLs underrepresented in spring of kindergarten, first, and second grade, and over–represented in the spring of third grade. Across the U.S., wide variation exists in the rates with which ELLs are identified as needing special education services (Sullivan, 2011). Percentages range from zero to over 17, whereas the national average is 9% (Sullivan, 2011). Investigation of the rates at which ELLs are identified for special education is particularly challenging. There is no federal regulation requiring states to report language status. However, studying data across eight years in a Southwestern state, Sullivan (2011) found ELLs over–represented across the thirteen special education identification categories. The highest over–representation exists in the two high–incidence categories of Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities (IDD) and Specific Learning Disability (SLD). The risk ratios for these two categories were 1.63 and 1.82, respectively. In other words, ELLs are 1.63 and 1.82 times more likely to be identified for these two special education categories in comparison to their non–ELL peers. This is a significant concern. Students are likely being misidentified within these categories. As such, they may not be receiving the appropriate support they need both in school and out of school.

While thinking about support for students *in* school is paramount, understanding about how parents can support students *out* of school is equally important in any attempt to properly address this reading achievement gap. According to the NCES, the average U.S. elementary school student spends about seven hours per day in school (2011).

Assuming the average nine–year–old sleeps for nine hours per night, each student has likely more than eight waking hours with caregivers outside of school. In addition to exploring in–school factors that contribute to reading, it is important to understand how the literacy environment *outside* of school can support students' reading growth, especially since the average student spends a majority of each day with their caregivers. For example, how do children and their caregivers interact in regards to literacy? Do they read books together? Do parents ask questions of their children related to what they read? Or do families have books for their children to read in their home? These and other questions help to expand our understanding of the landscape of a families' home literacy environment.

It is well–documented that strong parental involvement is related to positive academic outcomes for ELLs. Yet, educators sometimes underestimate the capabilities of parents of ELLs to support their children academically or assume they are uninterested in this kind of support (Brooker, 2002; Goldenberg, 1987). In a qualitative study investigating parents' role in their children's literacy development, Goldenberg (1987) interviewed and observed Spanish–speaking parents and their children's teachers. Goldenberg (1987) found parents willing and able to support their children's early literacy skills. Some parents in Goldenberg's study offered support to their children without prompting from school staff, while others did so only when instructed by their child's teacher. However, teachers consistently described parents as both unwilling and unable to support their children's literacy development. This misunderstanding between teachers and parents of ELLs is not helpful for students. If parents are willing to support their children but waiting for prompting from school staff, and if teachers doubt parents'

willingness, parents and teachers are left at an impasse. In order for ELL students to receive the support they need, both *in* and *out* of school, teachers need to recognize the willingness of parents to engage and provide them with the tools they need to implement support.

In a follow–up study, Goldenberg and Gallimore (1991) examined early reading achievement of Hispanic first and second graders in a program that markedly bolstered parental involvement. Although the design of the study made it difficult to isolate the factor(s) with the greatest impact on the outcomes, Goldenberg and Gallimore (1991) suggested that increased home and parental involvement contributed to improving students' scores from the 30th percentile to the 60th percentile on standardized measures of reading achievement. This research underscores the need to pinpoint how parental involvement impacts reading development in specific ways and how to best capitalize on the support parents are both willing and able to contribute. In the following section I describe how the home literacy environment supports literacy development for all children.

Home Literacy Environment

The home is the foundational setting for a child's cognitive, social, and emotional growth. In order to understand how this setting impacts literacy development, researchers coined the term home literacy environment (HLE) to describe contextual aspects of the environment that support essential skills (Burgess, Hecht, & Lonigan, 2002). This term has been operationalized in various ways, including:

> The frequency with which a parent reads to a child, number of minutes spent reading to a child yesterday, number of books a child owns,

> frequency with which child asks to be read to, frequency of trips to the library with child, frequency with which mother reads to self, frequency with which father reads to self, amount caregiver enjoys reading to self, child's hours of television viewing per day, and the number of household newspapers, magazines and child magazine subscriptions. (Johnson et al., 2008, p. 446)

Johnson et al. (2008) also suggested the following are important to the HLE: aspects related to motivation, enjoyment, interest in reading, and child–initiated behaviors, including frequency of books brought from school to home. Several studies highlighted the positive impact of the HLE on reading outcomes or features closely related to reading success (Katzir, Lesaux, & Kim, 2008; Lynch, 2002; Park, 2008; Petrill, Deater–Deckard, Schatschneider, & Davis, 2005; 2007; Rashid, Morris, & Sevcik, 2005). In the next section, I discuss the ways in which researchers highlight the landscape of the HLE for ELLs.

Home Literacy Environment and English Language Learners

Home literacy activities involve parents and children interacting in a social way in which parents play the role of teachers. In families with ELLs the teaching may very well be reciprocal between parents and children. This is because while parents are helping their children to read the children are helping their parents understand English. A wide breadth of research supports the positive relationship between a strong HLE and factors connected with reading success. In essence, a rich HLE corresponds to elevated reading achievement (Goldenberg, Rueda, & August, 2006).

Specifically, research documents several features of the HLE related to the acquisition of certain reading skills and general support for literacy development. Many aspects of the HLE are shown to be particularly important to reading development of ELLs, including time spent reading with parents; frequency of library visits; encouragement and emotional support related to reading; access to reading materials at home; familiarity with authors and texts; reading enjoyment; and time spent on religious literacy (Arzubiaga, Rueda, & Monzó, 2002; Pucci & Ulanoff, 1998; Reese, Garnier, Gallimore, & Goldenberg, 2000; Rueda, Macgillivary, Monzó, & Arzubiaga, 2001). Research demonstrates that families of ELLs participate in many home literacy activities, including reading and writing letters to relatives in their native countries, reading and completing forms and signs, oral dialogue, reading from magazines, books, and the Bible (Delgado–Gaitan, 1990; 1992; 2004; Monzó & Rueda, 2001). This research highlights that while there may exist opportunities to expand families' knowledge about home literacy and its benefits for children's reading development, their homes are places of rich and varied literacy practices.

All families have areas in which they would benefit from increased knowledge about home literacy, including families of ELLs. In particular, storybook reading is not always a ubiquitous practice in all families of ELLs. Nistler and Maiers (2003) studied Mexican–American families and found storybook reading an infrequent practice. Delgado–Gaitan (2004) studied a sample of ELLs and discovered that storybook reading is more common when children are younger. As text complexity increases, the frequency with which storybook reading occurs decreases. This pattern is similar in families without ELLs. As children grow older and their independent reading skills flourish,

parents likely reduce their storybook reading. While this is not surprising, the researchers suggested it is important to understand if the discussions surrounding texts also become less frequent (Delgado–Gaitan, 2004). In addition to understanding the literacy interactions between parents and children, the ways in which families support children's self concept of themselves as readers, their motivations to read, and their reading enjoyment are important facets to consider.

To understand how the family environment impacts students' reading motivation and self–concept, Arzubiaga et al. (2002) interviewed Spanish–speaking parents. They uncovered several important relationships between home features and students motivation to read and self–concept as readers. Specifically, workload in the home, for example, chores and caretaking of younger siblings, negatively correlated with reading motivation, while family connectedness, values, and time spent on religious activities were all positively related to reader self–concept. A similar relationship exists between reading enjoyment and reading outcomes. Past investigations have associated reading enjoyment with reading comprehension (Cox & Guthrie, 2001) and vocabulary acquisition (Angelos and McGriff, 2002). In a study of ELL participants, Pucci and Ulanoff (1998) reported the relationship between reading enjoyment was strongly connected to students' status as proficient readers. As part of a rich HLE, researchers have indicated a strong relationship between access to print materials and literacy development.

Indeed, access to print materials is important for the reading development of all students. Families in homes with rich and varied reading materials are more likely to engage in literacy activities (Park, 2008; Snow, Burns, and Griffin, 1998). Given the

demands to acquire reading skills in a language other than their native language, it is particularly essential for ELLs to have access to print materials to support their literacy skill development. Pucci and Ulanoff (1998) conducted a study of proficient and less–than–proficient ELL readers. Proficient readers came from homes with many books and recognized common authors and titles. Further, proficient readers who expressed they enjoyed reading performed better on a cloze reading comprehension assessment. This underscores the importance of home and school environments that help foster the joy of reading as a means to deepen children's reading comprehension skills. Finally, particularly essential for ELLS and their HLE, is the need to unpack the complex relationship of language(s) spoken at home and the development of literacy skills in an additional language.

An important question when investigating the HLEs of ELLs is whether practices in English, Spanish, or English *and* Spanish have an impact on students' reading development in English. In other words, should home literacy practices be implemented in the native language (L1) versus the societal language (L2)? Although research evaluating the relationships between home literacy practices in L1 and/or L2 and outcomes in L2 report variable results, researchers have found positive relationships between supportive literacy practices L1 and reading outcomes in L2 (Hancock, 2002; Reese et al., 2000). It is paramount for educators to appreciate that time spent between parents and children interacting in L1, or Spanish, remains beneficial for children's literacy growth. It is the discussion that is most important, as opposed to the language in which the discussion takes place. Given that we know about the positive relationship between expressive language and vocabulary development (Hart & Risley, 2003),

discussion between parent and child in L1 should be viewed as productive for literacy development. Additionally, Spanish–speaking parents would benefit from information that increased verbal interaction in L1 is an opportunity to support their children's L2 literacy growth.

Given the challenges demonstrated by ELLs on national reading measures in upper elementary and the documented importance of the HLE, I sought to understand the experiences, attitudes, and perceptions of families with fourth grade ELLs within a family literacy program (FLP). In the following section, I describe the theoretical framework for the design and analysis of this study.

Theoretical Framework

Two complementary theories underpin family literacy research: sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978) and ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1986; 1989). These two theories help to describe how (1) the interaction between people, and (2) the interaction between people and their environments, impact literacy development. Both theories contribute to our understanding of how collaboration with adults, in and out of school, supports a child's learning and literacy growth. Thus researchers of family literacy programs (FLPs) frame their research in the context of both theories.

Sociocultural theory lays the groundwork for the potential influence of family literacy interactions, for example discussion about a text between parent and child on reading development. According to sociocultural perspectives, social interaction is a primary process through which individuals learn and develop (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky (1978) conceptualized learning as a process facilitated through social interaction in which discourse plays a unique role in skill development. In the area of

reading, children's discourse with others facilitates their construction of meaning from text. In a recent meta–analysis examining research embedded in sociocultural theory, researchers examined the effects of classroom discussion on children's text comprehension (Murphy, Wilkinson, Soter, Hennessey, & Alexander, 2009). Murphy and colleagues (2009) reported substantial improvements in comprehension for students in classrooms utilizing targeted discussion. Given the impact of classroom–based discussion on children's reading comprehension, Vygotsky's sociocultural theory (1978) supports examination of text–related discussion across other environments.

In order to examine *the family* as the context within which children grow their reading skills, I used Bronfenbrenner's theory of ecological development (1986; 1989) as a secondary theoretical foundation. Bronfenbrenner described his theory using the Process–Person–Context–Time (PPCT) model, which highlights the interrelatedness of environmental features and how this complex relationship impacts child development (1986; 1989). In the PPCT model, *process* describes the relationships among domains and skills within an individual, including linguistic, social, and cognitive skills and the interplay between the individual and his or her outside world. *Person* refers to the student and all of his or her characteristics (i.e. sex, age, health condition, etc.). *Context* illustrates levels of the external world outside of an individual, from the micro–system (i.e. family, school, neighborhood) to the exo–system (i.e. media, friends of family, welfare services) to the macro–system (i.e. cultural ideologies) (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). Finally, time captures both the change occurring in the short term and the long term. Short term refers to a student participating in a specific activity. Long term refers to a period across developmental change. Investigations focusing on family

literacy seek to capitalize on the influence of the micro–system of the family to positively improve reading skill development for the person. In this case, the child.

Family literacy is the convergence of discussion, reading development, and the influence of family. The term *family literacy* emerged in the 1980s to underscore how a partnership between parents and their children supports a child's literacy skill development (Taylor, 1983). According to Taylor (1983), from this parent–child partnership, children's emergent literacy skills flourish, which sets in motion future literacy development.

Overview of Research on Family Literacy

Researchers who focus on family literacy report a number of ways in which the home literacy environment (HLE), and the interactions of the family within this environment, impact reading development. This research highlights both *direct* and *indirect* relationships between aspects of the HLE and reading achievement in studies of students in middle childhood (Katzir et al., 2008; Lynch, 2002; Park, 2008; Petrill et al., 2005; 2007; Rashid et al. 2005). Studies that report a *direct* relationship between HLE and reading and achievement are those that link specific aspects of the HLE to reading related outcomes. While those that report an *indirect* relationship between HLE and reading skill show the HLE to significantly impact another skill or characteristic of a child that is related to reading achievement. Several studies relate variations in HLE with differences in ratings of self–concept in reading, positive attitudes about reading, and positive perceptions of students' own reading skills (Katzir et al., 2008; Lynch, 2002). In turn, these characteristics are linked to increased reading achievement. For example, an improved self–perception of reading skills has been shown to be significantly associated

with increased reading achievement (Katzir et al., 2008; Lynch, 2002). Other studies show a direct and positive relationship between certain facets of the HLE, including literacy–related interactions between parents and children, and reading–related outcomes (Park, 2008; Petrill, 2005; 2007).

In a study of international data from the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), Park (2008) found that across 25 countries, the number of books in the home significantly predicted student reading achievement, and across 20 of those 25 countries, parental attitude and engagement was a significant predictor of children's reading achievement. Petrill and colleagues (2005; 2007) studied sets of twins to isolate environmental factors and found significant relationships between HLE and academic outcomes. For example, the number of books mothers read, the number of books children bring home, and general parental involvement are all factors that predict children's receptive vocabulary outcomes. Further, the latter study (2007) showed strong correlations between adoptive mother's reading behaviors and the reading acquisition of adopted children. These findings underscore that literacy–related interactions play an integral role in reading development, as distinct from genetic characteristics.

The majority of research studies on HLE concentrates on the positive impact of the HLE on *early* reading development, in which researchers highlight that variations in HLE can impact children's literacy development (Burgess, Hecht, & Lonigan, 2002; Hart & Risley, 1995; Sénéchal & Young, 2008). A recent meta–analysis of the research studying this link for students in kindergarten to grade three reported a strong overall effect (Cohen's $d = 0.65$) of the HLE on reading outcomes, including measures of early literacy skills, word reading, reading comprehension, or some combination of these skills

(Sénéchal & Young, 2008). Focusing on the specific strategy of Dialogic Reading between parents and children ages two through five, Mol, Bus, De Jong, and Smeets (2008) found a moderate effect on literacy outcomes, including measures of expressive and receptive vocabulary, (Cohen's $d = 0.42$). Similarly, Snow, Burns, and Griffin (1998) found that young children residing in homes with many books and with parents that spend time reading and writing are less likely to develop reading difficulties. Further, researchers found first grade students' motivation for reading was predicted by parents' attitudes towards reading (Baker & Sher, 2002). In a more recent meta–analysis examining a broader spectrum of studies, van Steensel, McElvany, Kurvers, and Herppich (2011) found a small but significant effect (Cohen's $d = 0.18$) of FLPs for children in preschool through grade five. Additionally, for comprehension–based skills, the effect increased slightly (Cohen's $d = 0.22$), in comparison to code–based skills (Cohen's $d = 0.17$). Overall, variations in the HLE and literacy–related interactions between family members impact children's reading development. The next section details how the current study builds upon the existing research to examine this relationship for ELLs in upper elementary school.

The Current Study

For the current qualitative study I analyzed data from three families who participated in an FLP that was implemented as part of a larger reading intervention: Reading Buddies. The Reading Buddies FLP component was implemented in Spring 2013. Reading Buddies, a cross–age peer tutoring (CAPT) program designed to build reading comprehension and vocabulary, matched kindergarten and fourth grade students as *little* and *big* buddies.

At the time of the FLP component (spring 2013) the Reading Buddies program was in its second year of implementation. The CAPT included both teacher–led and buddy–led lessons collaboratively developed by the research team and school teachers. The Reading Buddies program targeted vocabulary and reading comprehension support for ELLs in 16 twice–weekly lessons over a two month period. The program used two unit themes: "rights and responsibilities" and "caring for the environment." All researcher–designed materials were based on these themes. The lessons included both trade books and researcher–designed texts, games, and various media, in conjunction with before–, during–, and after–reading questions, to bolster text comprehension and to build vocabulary. Regarding reading comprehension, students learned the PAWs (Preview–Ask and Answer–Wrap It Up) strategy (Duke, Pearson, Strachan, & Billman, 2002). Regarding vocabulary, the Reading Buddies program used the PET (Pronounce–Explain–Try It Out) strategy (August, Carlo, Dressler, & Snow, 2005). The FLP mirrored the instruction of Reading Buddies, by teaching families these two strategies that students learned and used in school, and the focus of the FLP was on the discussion between parents and children to deepen reading comprehension for the children. A more detailed explanation of these strategies, and the format of the FLP, is included in Chapter 3.

The current study focused on the experiences, attitudes, and perceptions of three focal parent–child pairs who participated in the FLP. My purpose was to understand (1) families' experiences and attitudes related to the family literacy program to support children's reading development; and (2) how experiences and knowledge learned in the FLP aligned with the activities parents used at home to support their children's reading

development. The former inquiry focused on the ways in which parents and children described their experiences in the program, including hwat worked about the program, what they would change, and why they and other families may or may not have participated. The latter inquiry related specifically to how the activities learned in the family literacy program aligned with families' reported home literacy practices. For example, the FLP used a discussion–based strategy in which parents and children spoke in Spanish about English texts. If parents and children reported using a similar format for at–hoem interactions, this was evidence of alignment of the program. For this study, parent–child dyads served as focal family pairs. I investigated the following research questions for the three focal family pairs included in my study:

1. What are families' experiences and attitudes related to a family literacy program, implemented as part of an existing reading intervention, to support children's reading development?
2. How does what families learn in a family literacy program align with at–home literacy interactions?

To contextualize this study, the literature review that follows in Chapter 2 focuses on the features and impact of previously–implemented FLPs.

Definitions of Key Terms

Family Literacy Program (FLP): a program implemented to capitalize on the influence of a family system to impact children's reading skill growth

English language learner (ELL): a student acquiring English as an additional language; applicable to individuals at the initial stage of acquisition to highly fluent; based on having a home language other than English

FLPs with strategy instruction: FLPs in this category include specific training for parents on how to bolster their children's reading–related skills, including instruction on comprehension strategies (i.e. questioning, summarizing, predicting, activating background knowledge, and engaging children in the use and application of these strategies in their reading). For example, a strategy–based FLP could teach parents how to use a specific set of questions to engage their children in discussion about a text.

FLPs without strategy instruction: FLPs in this category do not provide specific strategy instruction to parents on children's reading skills. Rather, FLPs provide parents with information related to reading activities, including the importance of parent–child reading, how to use your local library, or how to set up a home library.

Home literacy environment (HLE): contextual aspects of the environment that support essential skills related to reading, including, but no limited to the frequency with which a parent reads to a child, number of minutes spent reading to a child yesterday, number of books a child owns, frequency with which child asks to be read to, frequency of trips to the library with child, frequency with which mother reads to self, frequency with which father reads to self, amount caregiver enjoys reading to self, child's hours of television viewing per day, and the number of household newspapers, magazines and child magazine subscriptions (Johnson et al., 2008)

Chapter 2: Literature Review

First coined by Taylor (1983), *family literacy* describes the influence of the family on literacy development. Previous research highlights the ways in which strong literacy environments and interactions between parents and children impact literacy development, including ELLs (Goldenberg, Rueda, & August, 2006; Katzir et al., 2008; Lynch, 2002; Mol, Bus, De Jong, & Smeets, 2008; Park, 2008; Petrill et al., 2005; 2007; Rashid et al. 2005). For families of ELLs, the learning and teaching can be a shared experience, as parents may be acquiring new knowledge alongside their children. This body of research draws upon the theoretical work of Vygotsky (1978) to explore the impact of parent–child dialogue on reading development, and Bronfenbrenner (1986; 1989) to understand the relationship between the family system and literacy. These two complementary theories aid in our understanding of how the discussion between adults and children, across both spheres of the home–school partnership, support literacy growth. To frame my own research study, I conducted a review of the literature of family literacy programs (FLPs).

Through a review of the existing literature, I sought to understand how previous Family Literacy Programs (FLPs) impacted families' literacy practices to support children's reading development for children in upper elementary school, including for ELLs. This review of literature supports the current study to utilize qualitative methodology to gather information regarding previously–implemented FLPs for students in upper elementary school, including both non-ELL and ELL participants. To design the methods for the current study, I sought to understand from the literature: (1) the features of previously–implemented FLPs, including logistics– and content–related aspects, and

(2) the ways in which participation in these programs could have impacted families with ELLs methods to support their children's reading development at home.

Method

To locate studies relevant to understanding FLPs and reading development for ELL students in grades three through five I conducted a simultaneous electronic search of Academic Search Premier, Education Research Complete (EBSCO), Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), PsychARTICLES, and PsychINFO. I utilized the following indicators for my literature search: *family literacy program*; *elementary*; and *English language learners.* In addition, I conducted archival searches by sifting through all reference lists from the studies to ensure I identified all relevant literature for this review. After I identified relevant articles from the archival searches, I read all the abstracts to decide if I should include each study in the review.

Inclusion Criteria

My initial search yielded 101 studies for *family literacy program* and *elementary* and 129 for *family literacy program* and *English language learners*. This yielded a total of 230 studies. I used several criteria to narrow the search for relevant studies. First, I incorporated only studies from peer–reviewed journals. This strategy is widely used in reviews of this kind and ensured a high–quality of material (Test, Fowler, Brewer, & Wood, 2005; Troia, 1999). I felt that due to the possibility that many schools attempt to implement FLPs, setting a high caliber of peer–reviewed literature helped to ensure I would only include sound research. Second, because the participants in this study were fourth graders and beyond the emergent reading stage, studies had to include student participants in grades three through five for studies without ELL participants. In order to

understand how FLPs impact ELLs specifically, and because the corpus of literature with ELL participants is limited, I expanded my criteria to include grade levels spanning the range of elementary school (kindergarten through grade five) for studies of FLPs for ELLs. Finally, I included both qualitative and quantitative studies. This was particularly important to gain a full understanding of how other scholars have analyzed this topic by employing a wide variety of research methods, each of which has their own particular merits. These inclusion criteria produced 10 studies of FLPs across three subcategories. Each is describe below.

In this chapter, I review studies of FLPs for children in upper elementary school. The review is divided into three subsections, which correspond to the three subcategories I identified in my literature search:

1. FLPs with strategy instruction (four studies)
2. FLPs without strategy instruction (two studies)
3. FLPs without strategy instruction for families with ELLs (four studies).

These three subsections detail varying types of FLPs in grades three through five. FLPs with strategy instruction included specific strategy–based training for parents as part of the program, whereas those without strategy instruction provided only general literacy–promoting tips to parents. Next, I review studies of FLPs for families with ELLs, all of which did not provide strategy instruction. I then summarize the research of FLPs across the three sections.

Within these three subsections I include commentary on the methodological weaknesses of these studies. I examine the validity of each quantitative study with regard to the following validity types: (1) internal validity; (2) construct validity; (3) statistical

conclusion validity; and (4) external validity. Accounting for factors across these four aspects of validity allows for appropriate sound inferences regarding studies' outcomes and generalizations. Validity threats vary in severity and applicability depending upon the type of study (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). Among the 37 threats to validity I found described in the literature on evaluating quantitative research I identified 11 to be particularly relevant to the six quantitative studies in my review. I explain each threat in Table 2.1 (see Appendix A) and identify which threats pertained to each study in Table 2.2 (see Appendix A).

Family Literacy Programs in Upper Elementary School

In the studies I identified, researchers designed FLPs in one of two ways: (1) FLPs *with* targeted instruction for parents, and (2) FLPs *without* targeted instruction for parents. The FLPs in the former category include specific training for parents on how to bolster their children's reading–related skills, including instruction on comprehension strategies (i.e. questioning, summarizing, predicting, activating background knowledge, and engaging children in the use and application of these strategies in their reading) (Kim & Guryan, 2010; McElvany & Artelt, 2009; Overett & Donald, 1998; Villiger, Niggli, Wanderler, & Kutzelmann, 2012). Only one of these studies included samples of ELLs (Kim & Guryan, 2010). In the latter category of studies, FLPs do not provide targeted instruction to parents on children's reading skills. The researchers in this category provide parents with information related to reading activities, including handouts that contained tips to improve children's reading and stressed the importance of frequent parent–child reading (Goldenberg, Reese, & Gallimore, 1992; Harper, Platt, & Pelletier,

2011; Kelly–Vance & Schreck, 2002; Morrow & Young, 1997; Peercy, Martin–Beltrán, & Daniel, 2013; Shanahan, Mulhern, & Rodriguez–Brown, 1995).

FLPs with strategy instruction.

Four of the ten reviewed studies of FLPs included targeted instruction to parents at the outset of the study (Kim & Guryan, 2010; McElvany & Artelt, 2009; Overett & Donald, 1998; Villiger et al., 2012). Researchers in each study adopted a different approach to the design and implementation of their family literacy program, however all took care to include strategies and instruction for parents on how to assist their children's development of reading–related skills.

To understand the effects of a summer reading intervention on reading comprehension growth for ELL students, Kim and Guryan (2010) randomly assigned 325 (*N*) fourth grade Latino students to one of three groups. They sought to investigate whether a parent training *and* providing books bolstered reading outcomes in contrast to solely providing books to the comparison group. The three groups consisted of the following: (a) children received 10 self–selected books by mail at the beginning of the study; (b) children received 10 self–selected book by mail at the beginning of the study and their parents participated in an FLP; and (c) children received 10 self–selected books by mail after the end of the study. Researchers sought to identify group differences on (RQ1) measures of reading comprehension and vocabulary; (RQ2) self–reported number of books read during summer; (RQ3) self–reported parent–child summer reading frequency; and (RQ4) degree to which intervention components correlated with posttest reading comprehension and vocabulary scores after controlling for pretest score and ELL status.

Parents and children in the family literacy group attended three two–hour literacy events over the summer vacation. These literacy events included dinner and reinforced the state curriculum goals for Grade 4 English Language Arts with content centered on the use of reading comprehension strategies. Researchers highlighted the importance of acquiring meaning from text. They trained parents to engage their children in discussion about their reading with comprehension questions in their native language (Spanish). During the literacy events, parents and their children viewed videos of parent–child dyads reading both fiction and nonfiction texts. Dyads were mixed between mothers and fathers. The videotaped dyads asked before–, during–, and after–reading questions, and reread important passages to answer questions when needed for clarification of meaning. Following the videos, each parent and child dyad practiced strategy use and received guidance from the instructors. Each literacy event reinforced the discussion strategy training (Kim & Guryan, 2010).

Although the study did not show effects on reading comprehension scores on standardized measures, the provision of ten self–selected books, with or without an added family literacy component, significantly increased the amount of time children spent reading during summer vacation. In addition, using rates of attendance at the Family Literacy Programs, researchers found significant differences in number of books read, as well as the frequency with which children read books with their *mothers* and *fathers* based on participation in the family literacy events. Finally, findings revealed positive relationships between number of books read and posttest comprehension scores ($r = .12$). These findings highlight the impact of the family literacy program on reading outcomes,

albeit *indirectly* (i.e. participation in the FLP impacted an element of HLE that in turn lead to positive reading growth).

There are several reasons why Kim and Guryan's (2010) intervention may not have impacted reading outcomes for children, with or without the family literacy component. Given the ELL sample, it is possible that students presented unique needs, such as more targeted decoding instruction. The mean reading comprehension score on a standardized measure for this cohort was at the 24th percentile at the end of fourth grade. These students could have struggled with decoding and fluency skills. Due to the alignment of this intervention to the fourth grade state goals of improving reading comprehension skills, students did not receive any remediation in other reading skills. However, both decoding and fluency are related to reading comprehension. Researchers suggested students' lower reading levels may have made it difficult to affect change in reading comprehension. However, it is likely standardized measures of reading failed to reveal the impact of the FLP for participants. Further qualitative analysis could parse out how the interactions that occurred between parents and children who participated the in FLP impacted aspects of the HLE that have an *indirect* relationship with reading growth.

Kim and Guryan (2010) found increased time spent reading for participants in the FLP associated with consistent attendance. Past research highlights time spent reading is significantly related to reading achievement (Taylor, Frye, & Maruyama, 1990). This makes Kim and Guryan's findings particularly relevant. Further, Kim and Guryan utilized a research design that demonstrated overall validity by addressing eight threats of the selected eleven. Although other family literacy researchers experienced similar challenges in demonstrating the effects on reading growth by using strictly quantitative

measures, Kim and Guryan's results underscored that FLPs can be a powerful tool to impact aspects of the HLE.

In a similar study, McElvany and Artelt (2009) developed the Berlin Parent–Child Reading Program for 509 (*N*; *n* = 104 intervention and *n* = 393 control group) fourth grade participants attending 32 classrooms in schools across Berlin, Germany. In this quasi–experimental study, researchers sought to understand the feasibility of implementing a family literacy program, including: (RQ1) whether families were willing to participate in a voluntary study of this kind; (RQ2) whether the variability in implementation compared to the original conceptual framework of the FLP; and (RQ3) whether participation effects key reading–related skills of fluency, metacognition, vocabulary, reading motivation, and reading comprehension.

The Berlin Parent–Child Reading Program (McElvany & Artelt, 2009) consisted of 43 30–min sessions over 12 weeks. During this period, parents implemented a specific curriculum developed by the researchers. As opposed to in–person training at the outset, parents instead received a highly–detailed instructional manual for the program. The program manual included comprehensive instruction on the standardized session structure, implementation, practical recommendations (including recommended time and place of sessions), and remediation of children's reading difficulties. The sessions included two components: (a) guided oral reading, and (b) a scaffolded implicit–strategy training focused on metacognition and text elaboration. Researchers videotaped each parent–child dyad twice to check for fidelity of implementation: once at the beginning of the study and once at the end of the intervention. McElvany and Artelt analyzed variability in treatment implementation from the collected videotaped sessions.

Results related to RQ3 showed significant differences favoring the intervention group on specific measures of reading–related skills, including vocabulary and reading–related metacognition. Researchers reported no significant differences between groups, with or without controlling for pretest scores on reading fluency, reading motivation, or text comprehension (McElvany & Artelt, 2009). In response to their first and second RQs, McElvany and Artelt reported challenges in both the recruitment of families to participate and faithful implementation of the FLP. Only one third of families followed the specific curriculum. These are common challenges for family literacy research (Timmons, 2008).

It may be possible parents found it difficult to implement the program consistently without in–person training sessions or mentored support throughout the intervention. The lack of consistent implementation likely impacted the ability to discern the impact on reading skills such as fluency and comprehension. Interventions with in–person training may increase the fidelity of implementation and improve reading outcomes for students who participate in the FLP.

Villiger, Niggli, Wanderler, and Kutzelmann (2012) implemented a family literacy program as part of an existing in–school reading intervention. Their particular family literacy program concentrated on promoting reading comprehension skills and preventing decreased motivation to read. Decreased motivation to read is a common occurrence around fourth grade. Participants included German–speaking Swiss fourth graders ($N = 713$). The study addressed three research questions: (RQ1) how effective are the reading programs implemented at school and at home in terms of fostering reading motivation; (RQ2) whether additional parental support during homework in the

school–home group lead to higher reading motivation than in the school–only group; and (RQ3) how effective are the reading programs implemented at school and at home in terms of fostering reading comprehension. Researchers designed and implemented the LiFuS[1] Reading Program to analyze their research questions (Villiger et al., 2012).

The family literacy program of the LiFuS Reading Program used students' homework as material. This program centered on three main components: autonomous support, social relatedness, and experience of competence. Researchers instructed parents to (1) have their child silently read a passage at their own pace, providing referential materials as needed; (2) answer questions; and (3) facilitate their child's use of comprehension strategies, including activation of background knowledge, prediction, and summarization. Through the LiFuS FLP, Villiger et al. (2012) sought to foster pre– and post–reading discussion and motivation during literacy interactions.

Parents received six hours of training over two sessions. The program lasted one school year. Qualified literacy instructors delivered the detailed and scripted training. The first session included videos describing the underlying theoretical construct of the program using dramatized parent–child dyads. During the second session the child also participated. Parents received specific training on reading comprehension strategy instruction, modeling, and practice opportunities. The reading comprehension strategy instruction mirrored the in–school intervention in order to provide consistency for students and reinforce their instruction. Researchers also provided parents with a detailed

---

[1] LiFuS: German abbreviation for "Reading Within Family and School."

instructional booklet to guide implementation and access to personal coaching (Villiger et al., 2012).

Villiger et al. (2012) found participation in the school–home group significantly predicted reading enjoyment and reading curiosity. They found no effect for the school–only group. Assignment to group did not predict word comprehension, sentence comprehension, or text comprehension. However, the findings do confirm that the home–based component of the LiFuS Reading Program added value and accounted for significant variance in two subcomponents of reading motivation.

One possible reason Villiger et al. (2012) did not find increased reading comprehension outcomes for participants is that scripted programs that do not address students' individual strengths and needs may not produce such results. Indeed, it is surprising that group assignment did not result in increased outcomes on word–, sentence–, or text–comprehension given the breadth of this intervention. Although the home component did exhibit an added–value in the area of reading motivation, it is important to understand why this intervention did not impact specific reading skills. Perhaps the focus on a wide breadth of strategies within the program, as opposed to an in–depth approach to teaching one or two strategies made it difficult to discern effects.

Villiger et al. (2012) addressed nine of the eleven validity threats that may impact validity, including the areas of internal, construct, and statistical conclusion validity (see Table 2.1). Villiger et al. (2012) was the only study in this corpus to adequately address reliability of treatment implementation. Reliability of implementation plays a unique role in FLPs. This is because the parents who implement program strategies are typically not trained educators (McElvany & van Steensel, 2009; Timmons, 2008). Understanding the

degree to which parents followed the strategy steps taught in an FLP at home could further explain the outcomes of these studies.

Rather than focusing on more than one strategy, Overett and Donald (1998) focused on a single strategy in order to address the potential problem of inconsistent implementation for multi–component FLPs. Overett and Donald investigated whether reading accuracy, text comprehension, and attitude towards reading improved for participants in an FLP focused on parent–child paired reading within a community with many challenges in South Africa. The FLP consisted of six successive 60–minute Saturday sessions. Both the parent and the child participated in these sessions. Sessions included detailed instructions and modeling of the paired reading process, skills related to mediating a discussion, and time for parent–child dyads to practice reading a variety of texts.

Overett and Donald (1998) targeted two components in the FLP: reciprocity and intentional mediation of meaning. In this intervention, *reciprocity* referred to quality interaction between parent and child through discussion of the story, title, and illustrations. *Intentional mediation of meaning* referred to purposeful discussion about text meaning before–, during–, and after– reading. This process included focusing attention to meaning and context, highlighting important features of the text, reciprocal questioning, prediction, connecting to background knowledge, scaffolding inferences, and using contextual clues. The sessions included training, modeling, and practice using purposive questioning (Who?, What?, When?, Where?, Why?, and How?). The program stressed the importance of brief, consistent, and positive interaction during reading. Researchers suggested that participants engaged in paired reading for a minimum of five

minutes per day, five days per week. However, the researchers expressed that participants had flexibility depending on their time constraints and interest levels.

Overett and Donald (1998) reported significant differences favoring the intervention group in reading accuracy (Cohen's d = .67; ES(r) = .32), text comprehension (Cohen's d = 1.09; ES(r) = .48), and attitude towards reading (Cohen's d = .51; ES(r) = .24). The researchers concluded that strategic and targeted discussion connected to reading between dyads, in addition to increased frequency of reading, played an essential role in the significant outcome differences between the groups.

The study's results indicated parent–child engagement in reading–related discussion may prove to be an effective tool to improve reading growth. Although the design of this study precludes conclusions on causation, researcher's (1998) did suggest two factors that likely impacted the positive outcomes for participants in the treatment group: continuous support to parents and a targeted intervention. The six successive Saturday sessions probably assisted parents in remaining motivated to continue program implementation and offered an appropriate amount of guidance for parents. In addition, the central focus of the program, intentional mediation of meaning through discussion, may have isolated a particularly helpful strategy for improving reading outcomes when practiced between parent–child dyads. Finally, the intervention's minimalistic approach and design (five minutes per day for a singular strategy) likely suited the needs of participants with limited time resources.

FLPs with specific strategy instruction had both direct and indirect impacts on reading achievement. Three salient aspects of these studies should be noted for future research of FLPs: (1) in–person training seems to better prepare parents to implement

strategies than training that provide only written guidelines; (2) a singular strategy as opposed to a multi–component program is better suited to effective implementation by parents; and (3) a program manageable in time supports parents' adherence to proper strategy implementation. I return to these findings in the summary and critique of FLPs in upper elementary school in the next section.

Without strategy instruction.

Six of the ten reviewed FLPs did not include specific strategy instruction to parents. Instead, FLPs implemented within this category provided parents with information related to general reading activities, including handouts with tips to improve children's reading (i.e. how to build a home library). The importance of frequent parent–child reading was also stressed (Goldenberg et al., 1992; Harper et al., 2011; Kelly–Vance & Schreck, 2002; Morrow & Young, 1997; Peercy et al., 2013; Shanahan et al., 1995). Goldenberg et al. (1992), Harper et al. (2011), Peercy et al. (2013), and Shanahan et al. (1995) all implemented FLPs uniquely designed for ELLs. Those particular studies are described in the following sub–section which focuses on FLPs without strategy instruction for ELLs.

Morrow and Young (1997) conducted a study to compare the effects of a school–based intervention versus home and school–based intervention on children's reading skills and motivation to read and write. The intervention lasted for a full school year. The school selected to house the study contained a large minority enrollment (54% African American and 44% Latino). Morrow and Young did not provide ELL status of their participants. They did, however, mention that for parents who may have limited English skills, children helped translate the materials.

All students received the school–based literacy intervention during school. Students in the home–school treatment group received an added family component to reinforce school instruction. The researchers designed the home–school connection to support the goals of the school–based intervention. They surmised students would connect the home activities to the similar school activities and help their parents with limited–English proficiency if necessary. At the beginning of the program, parents received the materials, similar to those used in school to support the home intervention. These materials included two notebooks for journaling and story writing, index cards for writing "Very Own Words," storyboard for telling stories, a *Highlights for Children* magazine, and a Parent Literacy Program Handbook.

The Parent Literacy Program Handbook served as the program's main source of instruction for parents. It included the descriptions of materials, guidelines for the program, and several lists related to bolstering literacy activity in the home and between parents and children (i.e. "Things to Look for and Have in Your Home," "Things to do with Your Child at Home/Outside Your Home," "Making Your Child Feel Good About Themselves," and "Reading and Writing"). Finally, researchers encouraged parents to attend informal monthly meetings in which they could ask questions and share progress.

Morrow and Young (1997) measured reading comprehension, writing, and reading motivation. Data analyses revealed scores that favored the home–school intervention group with statistical significance on the following measures: story retell (Cohen's $d = .74$), story rewriting (Cohen's $d = 3.06$), Probed Recall Comprehension Test (Cohen's $d = .70$), teacher rating of reading and writing ability (Cohen's $d = 1.67$), and

teacher rating of reading and writing motivation (Cohen's $d = 1.34$). No statistically significant differences were found between groups on the California Test of Basic Skills.

Regarding home literacy practices, researchers found significant differences favoring the home–school treatment group in the following areas: time spent reading a book, instances when someone read to you, doing an activity with a grown–up, and time spent reading a magazine. Similar patterns surfaced with parent responses to the questionnaires. The items of "instances when I read to my child" and "doing an activity with my child" favored the treatment group with significance.

This study revealed differences in the extent to which literacy interventions with and without a home–based component to impact student growth in reading achievement and reading motivation. There are several reasons that may account for the between group differences. The collaborative effort between parents, teachers, and children created an environment of respect that fostered student growth and interest in literacy. Morrow and Young (1997) framed their FLP to use a social format for reading interaction between parents and students. They designed home–based activities that were educational, enjoyable, and culturally–sensitive to the diverse background of participants. Activities also focused heavily on verbal interaction as a strategy to increase literacy skills. As Morrow and Young concluded, this emphasis on discussion may have empowered parents to have an impact on their children's reading growth, since parents already regularly engage in dialogue with their children. They needed only to augment an activity they already participated in (discussion), as opposed to learn an entirely new mode of support.

The positive impact of this intervention on reading outcomes suggests there is likely added value to literacy interventions including a home–based component. To address the difficulty in measuring growth on a standardized measure, Morrow and Young (1997) suggested student outcomes might have benefited from more specific instruction to parents regarding how certain reading strategies help students' reading growth. A more in–depth analysis would broaden understanding on how parents and children experience these programs and the underlying beneficial features of FLPs.

In a more generic program that focused exclusively on literacy awareness for families, Kelly–Vance and Schreck (2002) investigated the effects of an FLP for students in grades one through six in the Midwestern United States. The study focused on the effect of participation in the FLP on students' reading rate and accuracy (RQ1), parents attitudes towards reading (RQ2), amount of time parents spent reading with their child (RQ3), and the activities and materials parents used when reading with their children (RQ4).

The FLP lasted six months and all intervention participants included in the analysis completed at least 75% of the FLP. The program consisted primarily of providing parents with general literacy–promoting activities in the home and invitations to participate in literacy–centered events at school. At the outset of the program, parents received a worksheet to log minutes spent reading with their child each day and a handout with reading tips. Parents also received a calendar of literacy events scheduled at school, library hours, and a monthly reminder to hand in their worksheet with minutes logged to teachers. One literacy event held at school was "Family Reading Night", at which researchers provided refreshments, books, and space for parents to read to their

child. Other evenings included tours of themed classrooms in which parents could read to their child, the distribution of information about local libraries, and raffles for gift certificates for books. Content did not include any general or specific instruction to parents on strategies related to improving children's reading outcomes.

Kelly–Vance and Schreck (2002) measured children's reading outcomes. Parents completed a questionnaire that asked for information on time spent engaged in reading–related activities with their child, types of reading activities, and children's attitude towards reading with a parent. Control group parents did not complete this measure. Results indicated a significant growth on reading fluency (measured in words correct per minute) for those who participated in the FLP (*ES* = 0.68). For the parents who participated in the FLP, Kelly–Vance and Schreck found that 30% reported an increase in their children's attitude toward reading with a parent; 15% reported their own attitude toward reading improved; 57% expanded the reading–related materials used in their homes; 42% reported no change in amount of time their family spent reading; and 42% reported decreased methods used to check their children's understanding while reading. At first glance, these results illustrate the inconsistent success of this program. However, although Kelly–Vance and Schreck did not provide insight into the questionnaire responses, I think parents may have become more efficient in their means of reading support for their children. In other words, parents may have focused their efforts on checking for their children's reading understanding through discussion, as opposed to using multiple strategies. This further underscores the need for an in–depth study of parent and children experience and interaction in an FLP.

Kelly–Vance and Schreck (2002) suggested the results of their study were likely limited to their particular setting and thus not applicable to other settings. Many of the items on this questionnaire, such as frequency of reading, are linked to improved reading outcomes. It is imperative to understand how participation impacted possible differences in responses between groups. Given the lack of specific instruction on oral reading fluency in the intervention, it is surprising Kelly–Vance and Schreck found a significant effect on this measure. The results of this study, and the limited understanding of the experiences of families within the FLP, suggests that research needs to dig deep to understand what works for specific families and why it may work.

FLPs without strategy instruction for families of ELLs.

The area of family literacy program design, implementation, and research tailored for participants of ELLs is growing. The four studies in this area aim to understand how to best meet the needs of these families in order to address the literacy gap between ELLs and their native English–speaking peers. However, FLPs geared specifically for parents of ELLs demonstrated mixed results on students outcomes. Moreover, each study implemented an FLP without specific strategy instruction for parent participants.

Goldenberg et al. (1992) compared the effects of providing two types of literacy materials to families in two groups: language–/ communication–based materials and code–based materials. As part of this program, parents viewed videos of a parent–child dyad using oral interaction with similar materials, as opposed to receiving in–person training. The investigators hypothesized that the provision of different materials would yield different types of interactions at home between parents and their children, thus perhaps varying the impact on their decoding skills. They reported that although children

using the language–based materials had higher scores on reading outcome measures, time spent at home using the materials was not related to increased outcomes. By contrast, time spent on the code–based materials demonstrated a positive correlation to outcomes.

In their conclusions, Goldenberg et al. (1992) explained that the code–based materials were better aligned to parents' views on reading acquisition, enabling parents to use these materials with their children. The researchers suggests parents may not have been comfortable engaging in the discussion intended by the language–based materials, and without specific training on how to do so, parents may not have implemented them in a way that increased their children's knowledge. These suggestions from Goldenberg et al., in conjunction with support for text–based discussion to enhance children's comprehension (Duke et al., 2011; Murphy et al., 2009), there exists a need to parse out how to best support parents to engage in this type of discussion, particularly for parents of ELLs.

Three studies (Harper et al., 2011; Peercy et al, 2013; Shanahan et al., 1995) executed similarly–designed FLPs for participants. These programs consisted of several sessions (9, 8, and 12, respectively) where parents were instructed on different aspects of the HLE, reading development, and other academic areas. For example, one session included a discussion on how to create a literacy center in the home and how to use that area effectively. Another session included a trip to the local library. Using this type of FLP, Shanahan et al. (1995) implemented Project FLAME – Family Literacy: *Aprendiendo, Mejorando, Educando* (Learning, Bettering, Educating). Parents exhibited gains in English proficiency and children demonstrated growth in early literacy skills. In addition, teachers expressed that parents of their students who participated in Project

FLAME increased their school participation, including school visits, volunteering, and academic support.

To extend the work of Shanahan et al. (1995), Harper and colleagues (2011) sought to understand the ways in which ELL students versus their native English–speaking peers were differentially–impacted by an FLP. Their program utilized similar content and format as their predecessors (Shanahan et al., 1995). It also focused on a variety of skills related to early reading development and fostered parent–child joint reading. They found that ELLs were uniquely impacted by the FLP as compared to their English–speaking peers. As a result of their participation in the FLP, participants of ELL status experienced significantly positive outcomes on measures of both decoding and reading comprehension

Peercy and colleagues (2013) implemented an FLP of similar format as Shanahan et al. (1995), but further extended the work to examine the community of practice (CoP) created by an FLP. A community of practice (CoP) is a community focusing on a similar concern or domain in which they share information and experience. Specifically, Peercy et al. sought to understand the ways in which parents, children, *and teachers* interacted in the FLP and how this impacted reading development for the ELL children. They found that a unique interaction grew out of the opportunity that adults who did not typically get to work together, had to participate in the FLP. They found that teachers with formal training in teaching techniques for ELL students learned valuable information in the sessions that informed their instruction. Further, the CoP interactions extended beyond the Family Literacy Programs and into their daily practices. A similar outcome occurred for the parent liaison on the FLP team.

As a consequence of participation in the FLP, the parent liaison, Octavia, extended her knowledge of the kindergarten, first, and second grade curricula. She shared this knowledge about student performance with other parents in the community. She was able to guide parents on how to best support their children's literacy given their children's demonstrated performance. This qualitative study highlights the ways in which the effects of an FLP can permeate into other areas of a school community to increase the support for students' literacy development (Peercy et al., 2013). The inclusion of multiple stakeholders, including both parents and children, is essential to understand how an FLP impacts student comprehension and family literacy practices through collaborative text–based discussion.

Synthesis of Research on FLPs in Upper Elementary School

This review underscores the need to better understand the experiences of families in FLPs in order to uncover how participation may impact reading development, particularly for ELL students. For example, do parents of ELLs gain information on practices they are more likely to implement at home in FLPs *with* or *without* specific strategy instruction? Would narrowing the focus of training to one or two strategies better support parent learning? Do parents learn strategies better from in–person training, or do virtual instructions suffice? How does strategy use on L1 impact literacy outcomes in L2? The studies included variable results on reading outcomes, and only a few (Peercy et al., 2013; Shanahan et al., 1995) analyzed how parents and students experienced the programs and whether programs impacted home practices. After reviewing the research base, there are several salient implications for both the content and the design of future family literacy program research. Recommendations for content of future FLP studies

include: single–component FLP with in–person training for parents and children (McElvany & Artelt, 2009; Villiger et al., 2012) and manageable content and duration of FLP (Overett & Donald, 1998); and the inclusion of perspectives from multiple stakeholders (both parents and children) in their experience of participation in an FLP (Peercy et al., 2013). Given the variable results on outcome measures in this corpus, I support Goldenberg's (2006) recommendation that studies use a qualitative research design that includes interviews as a data collection method to better understand families' experience in FLPs in order to better serve their needs.

Studies in this corpus implemented several distinct FLPs. Researchers explored areas such as reading–related discussion between parent–child dyads; fostering strategy use during guided oral reading; and focusing on generic reading–related activities, including information about local libraries, how to build a home library, and themed literacy events. Due to the variability in these FLPs, it is not possible to discern the most effective components. The variability in results indicates a need to isolate which specific components positively impact student reading growth. Specifically, as over half of the reviewed studies examined reading–related discussion and reported a variety of outcomes, it follows that future research should further study this intervention component. An investigation of a family literacy program that focuses primarily on this strategy would help researchers understand if it positively impacts student growth. Given the support for parent–child interaction in L1 to impact L2, as evidenced by Reese at al. (2000), it follows to understand whether this type of FLP would be particularly useful for families with ELLs.

Parents face many challenges while participating in an FLP, namely, the difficulty adhering to the program (McElvany & Artelt, 2009). Future FLP's should focus on a single strategy on which to instruct parents as opposed to a multi-component program (Villiger et al., 2012). In addition, FLPs should include in–person training for parents to ensure they understand the strategy and how to implement it at home with their children (McElvaney & Artelt, 2009; Shanahan, 1995). Finally, FLPs must be manageable not only in content, but also in duration. Given the unique challenge of attendance with participants in these programs, it is paramount that FLPs maximize the likelihood of consistent participation through reasonable duration (Overett & Donald, 1998).

For the design of FLP studies, Goldenberg and colleagues (2006) note a qualitative study of this phenomenon is necessary to understand how to best develop, implement, and evaluate features of FLPs that impact reading outcomes. These investigators specifically recommend observational, naturalistic, interview, and survey studies for understanding these dynamics Although quantitative research allows for systematic comparison, it is only qualitative research that is able to provide the necessary insight crucial in uncovering the how parents and their children experience FLPs and the potential reasons why participation may impact, or fail to impact, reading growth.

Results from the studies in this corpus demonstrate that there is a unique opportunity to impact the reading development of ELLs through FLPs. Parents are both willing and able to implement strategies to support their children's skills (Goldenberg et al., 1992; Harper et al., 2011; Shanahan et al., 1995). Further, the inclusion of multiple stakeholders cultivates a community to partner support efforts, as evidenced by Peercy et al. (2013) through the inclusion of parents, children, and teachers, and also by FLPs that

reinforce the work of in–school reading interventions (Morrow & Young, 1997; Villiger et al., 2012). Given the support for FLPs for ELLs in the literature, and the recommendations from FLP research more generally, it stands to argue that a study of how parents of ELLs experience an FLP. In particular, an FLP that reinforces information learned in an in–school reading intervention, and focuses on one strategy to support their children in upper elementary school, would present a valuable addition to the literature. In the next section, I discuss the gaps in this body of research and how the current study addresses those gaps.

Gaps in the Literature and the Current Study

In a recent meta–analytic review, van Steensel, McElvaney, Kurvers, and Herppich (2011) analyzed 30 studies, 19 of which had samples of children kindergarten–aged and above. Only six studies focused on students in upper elementary school (i.e. grades three through five) (Kim & Guryan, 2010; McElvany & Artelt, 2009; Miller & Kratochwill, 1996; Morrow & Young, 1997; Overett & Donald, 1998; Topping, & Revell, 1993). Only one of these studies focuses on a sample of ELLs (Kim & Guryan, 2010). Van Steensel et al. stressed the need for continued research on FLPs. Specifically, future research needs to address how to design programs that foster consistent parent participation and offer realistically–implemented and effective content to improve students' reading skills. Given the dearth of research related to FLPs for children in grades three through five, and the increased demands related to reading acquisition for ELLs, this study aims to unpack the experiences, attitudes, and perceptions of families in an FLP to support children's reading development and how

their knowledge and experiences in the FLP aligned with the ways in which they support children's reading development at home.

I designed this study to (a) focus attention on families of ELLs in *upper* elementary school; (b) connect to an in–school reading intervention with paralleled instruction; (c) include a targeted strategy for families in an FLP with in–person training and reasonable duration (Overett & Donald, 1998; Villiger et al., 2012); (d) explore of discussion in L1 to support reading development in L2 (Reese et al., 2000); and (e) utilize qualitative design, including interviews, to examine the data and tell the stories of my participants (Goldenberg et al., 2006). In order to build upon the previous work included in this review and address the gaps in the existing literature, in the current study, I evaluated data from three focal parent–child pairs who participated in a Family Literacy Program (FLP). The FLP mirrored instructional components from an in–school reading intervention, Reading Buddies, and consisted of four weekly evening 90–minute sessions. During the FLP, parents were instructed in both Spanish and English and encouraged to speak to their children in their native language using guided reading comprehension questions. Research supports that children's comprehension levels benefit from oral discussion (Duke et al., 2011; Murphy et al., 2009), and that discussion need not be in the societal language (i.e. English) to impact reading development in that language (Hancock, 2002; Reese et al., 2000). This study specifically addressed the following gaps in literature: (1) how families experiences, attitudes, and perception of a family literacy program contribute to their support efforts for children's reading development; and (2) how families' knowledge and experiences from participation in an FLP aligned with the ways in which parents support their children's reading development at home.

Only a small subset of the previous studies of FLPs included ELLs, and the body of literature was even smaller for students in grades three through five. Finally, an investigation into the ways in which parents of ELLs experience an FLP could prove helpful for schools to better support families in their communities.

A better developed understanding of the relationship between parent–child discussion and reading outcomes is relevant for several reasons. First, engaging in reading–related discussion is both temporally and financially economical for parents and children. It does not take an inordinate amount of time nor is it a financially straining activity. Parents and children could engage in discussion across a variety of settings without the need for specific materials. Second, research supports that reading–related discussion in the classroom positively relates to reading outcomes (Duke et al. 2011; Murphy et al., 2009). Therefore a similar relationship likely exists for reading–related discussion outside the classroom. Third, we have yet to fully and accurately capture the impact of the HLE on children's reading growth beyond the emergent stage. This is especially true in regard to ELLs. Given the difficulty in reading experienced by many students at grade four, as described in national reports (NCES, 2011), the relationship could prove an essential for improving reading outcomes for children in upper elementary school. While the area of research examining parent–child discussion in their native language to bolster language and reading development in the societal language is still burgeoning, researchers describe the ways in which L1 reading activities (i.e. reading L1 books) are supportive of L2 reading development (Hancock, 2002; Reese et al., 2000). Finally, the FLP in this study targeted a specific strategy, as opposed to instruction across

a variety of strategies. It is possible that this kind of program design bolsters both accuracy of parent implementation and consistency of use at home.

In order to analyze the data from this program, I followed the recommendations of Goldenberg and co–authors (2006) and used a qualitative study design, supplemented with interviews, to understand how families experienced this program, their attitudes and perception of the program, and how their experiences related to their home literacy practices. Finally, at the recommendation of Peercy et al. (2013), I included interviews from multiple stakeholders, including both parents and students, to widen the lens of how families experienced a discussion–based family literacy program to support reading development of fourth grade ELLs. In the following chapter I describe the methodology for this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Purpose

The purpose of this study was twofold. First, I sought to understand and describe the experiences, attitudes, and perceptions of parents and their children in a home connection component of an existing in–school reading intervention to support their children's reading development, focused specifically on English language learners (ELLs). Second, I wanted to understand how families' knowledge and experience from the FLP aligned with the ways in which they regularly engaged in literacy activities outside of school. In Chapter One, I explained that many children, including ELLs, experience difficulty in reading in upper elementary school (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2013), and the difficulty of many ELLs may be associated with developing emergent reading skills in a language not spoken at home, enrollment in schools with higher rates of poverty than their White peers (U.S. Department of Education, 2010), and biases related to special education referral (Samson & Lesaux, 2009; Sullivan, 2011). The results of the literature review in Chapter Two illustrated variable results of FLPs to improve student literacy development, including FLPs both with strategy instruction (Kim & Guryan, 2010; McElvany & Artelt, 2009; Overett & Donald, 1998; Villiger, Niggli, Wanderler, & Kutzelmann, 2012) and without specific strategy instruction (Goldenberg, Reese, & Gallimore, 1992; Harper, Platt, & Pelletier, 2011; Kelly–Vance & Schreck, 2002; Morrow & Young, 1997; Peercy, Martin–Beltrán, & Daniel, 2013; Shanahan, Mulhern, & Rodriguez–Brown, 1995). While family literacy program research focused specifically on ELLs is limited, past studies describe the positive impact of the HLE on reading development for ELLs. Following the

recommendation of Goldenberg and colleagues (2006), I utilized qualitative methods of inquiry to describe the experiences and attitudes of parents and their fourth grade children in a family literacy program.

In order to investigate these two research purposes, I analyzed data from a Family Literacy Program (FLP) that was implemented as part of a larger reading intervention, Reading Buddies. This program was implemented in the Spring of 2013, during which all data were collected. I posed the following research questions for my analysis of the data:

1. How do families experience a family literacy program, as part of an existing reading intervention, to support children's reading development?
2. How does what families learn in a family literacy program align with at–home literacy interactions?

In the following sections I describe the background for this study, including the in–school reading program in which this FLP was situated, my own assumptions, the participants, and study's contextual setting. This is followed by the data sources collected as part of the FLP and the method operationalized for data analysis. I then describe the ways in which I worked to ensure the trustworthiness and credibility of this qualitative study. Finally, I describe how findings related to each research question using the data sources.

Background

In this section, I briefly describe the in–school reading intervention, Reading Buddies, to which the FLP was connected. I then explain the connection between the

FLP and the Reading Buddies program. Finally, I describe how I designed the FLP after recommendations from the parent liaison at the school.

Students in the fourth grade and kindergarten were participants in a reading intervention that used a cross–age peer tutoring (CAPT) model, Reading Buddies, designed to improve reading comprehension and vocabulary. The Reading Buddies intervention included teacher–led lessons and buddy sessions with kindergarten and fourth grade students. This cross–age peer tutoring program focused on bolstering reading comprehension skills and vocabulary. In this intervention, students were taught two main strategies: vocabulary (Pronounce–Explain–Try It Out; PET Strategy) and reading comprehension (Preview–Ask and Answer–Wrap It Up; PAWs Strategy). Subsequently, I detail each of these strategies (see Table 3.1 and 3.2). This program uses Martha, the talking dog, from the literacy–focused educational program on PBS, Martha Speaks. This is why the strategies (i.e. PET and PAWs) are "dog–centric". The content of the intervention included videos and books from Martha Speaks. Reading Buddies focused particularly on supporting ELLs through the use of cognates, translation, and ample opportunities for interaction with their peer buddies (Peercy, Artzi, Silverman, & Martin–Beltrán, 2015).

Reading Buddies used expository themes, complete with vocabulary and texts to which students applied the vocabulary and reading comprehension strategies. Given the increased cognitive demands of expository texts and the necessity for students to access information through non–fiction, Reading Buddies was organized around two central content themes: Environment and Measurement. All related vocabulary and texts were situated within these two themes, however all of the vocabulary words and the book used

in the FLP were not taught in the in–school intervention. The Family Literacy Program (FLP) was developed to augment the Reading Buddies program and extend it to parents. The FLP matched the themes of the intervention, Measurement and Environment, in content and materials. The focal vocabulary words in the FLP included words related to both Measurement and Environment. The text used for this study focused on taking care of the environment through recycling. Although all families from the Reading Buddies program were invited to participate, for this study I concentrated on a small subset of fourth grade parent–child pairs from the Reading Buddies program. I detail the attendance for each evening in a subsequent section. Myself, and several members of the research team, designed and implemented the FLP. Prior to recruitment this home–connection component received Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval as part of the larger Reading Buddies study.

Turning to the previous literature for guidance, however limited, I planned the Family Literacy Program (FLP) component of this intervention with our entire research team, several members of the school staff, and a parent liaison from the school. Marta,[2] the parent liaison, shared past experiences about planning events for the families at this particular school and the unique challenges that may impact their participation. In a series of informal conversations, teachers, school staff, and Marta offered the following recommendations to increase the likelihood of participation. I took all of the following recommendations into account:

---

[2] All names are pseudonyms.

- Use a side–by–side English/Spanish translation method to ensure all parents could participate in the same room,
- Use multiple and varied forms of recruitment to inform parents about the program and remind them of each upcoming night,
- Provide dinner at the start of each evening, and
- Provide transportation from a nearby apartment complex where many students reside.

As a research team, we discussed many ways to best serve a predominantly Spanish–speaking group during the planning phase. We decided on real–time English–Spanish translation by a native Spanish speaker. This allowed all participants to be in the same room and part of the same program, as opposed to two programs separately delivering content in English or Spanish.

I planned the intervention to last four weeks for several reasons. Information relating to intensity and duration of family literacy interventions varied markedly in the included review. For example, the spectrum of FLP intensity in the included review ranged from having no in-person training sessions for parents (Morrow & Young, 1997) to two three–hour sessions delivered over two weeks (Villiger et al., 2012) to 43 30–minute sessions delivered over 14 weeks (McElvaney & Artelt, 2009). Although the intensity of the FLP in the current study was on the shorter end of the spectrum, I was concerned about sustained effort on the part of parents and the issues relating to attendance described in this area of study. Two hour weekly sessions over four weeks fit on the spectrum of reasonable intensity in my review. In addition, I thought parents might be more likely to attend all sessions in this format considering it was not an

overwhelming commitment. Finally, the FLP coincided with Reading Buddies implementation and fit within the school's schedule. Both were requirements from the school.

Researcher Background, Assumptions, Motivation and Role in the Study

I approached this study as a highly iterative process; I learned as I implemented and revised accordingly. At the end of the presentation on the initial FLP session, I held informal conversations with the parent participants to understand their perspectives and motivations for attending the program. I aimed to be continually aware of my own biases and assumptions, especially how they impacted this study and my interactions with the participants (Brantlinger, Jimenez, Klingner, Pugach, & Richardson, 2005).

Several aspects of my personal background impacted this study, for example my own upbringing and past career experience. I grew up in an upper class White family in the Mid–Atlantic region of the United States and attended parochial school, where although I performed above average I was not at the very top of my class. There were numerous and varied opportunities to engage with literacy due to the various resources available to me throughout my life.

Upon obtaining my Master's degree in Special Education: Learning Disabilities, I worked as a special education teacher and then a learning specialist in two independent schools located within Washington, DC. At these schools I taught students with a wide breadth of skill levels and interacted extensively with their parents. My students' parents demonstrated a wide spectrum of motivations to be directly involved in their children's schooling. Many parents wanted to be highly involved. Other parents, however, left decision–making largely to the school faculty and staff. The two schools in which I

worked took two entirely different approaches to parent involvement. One school utilized a model with little classroom–related parent interaction. This school encouraged parents to be involved in the community, but not in instruction–related decisions. The other school had a very "open door" policy to parents. Parental input was welcome across the entirety of the school experience. These differences were due to myriad reasons. Yet, as a teacher, I consistently felt that I neglected to capitalize on the home–school relationship to ensure the success of my students. I felt many parents were not provided specific guidance from the school regarding how to best support their children's reading development at home, and that many of these parents desired to know more about how to more effectively do so. When I spoke to colleagues working with families with different demographics they often expressed surprise at this notion. This was due in part to my population of families being highly–educated and upper class Washingtonians. However, I felt parents' desire for more information and stronger home–school connection transcended demographics or other descriptive statistics. My desire to better understand the relationship between home and school as it relates to supporting students' reading skills prompted my return to graduate school. I have consistently held the opinion that all parents want to support their children to be successful. Those parents who do not seem interested (from a teacher's perspective) in supporting their children's academic development are simply needing guidance to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills on how to best do so. In addition to my interest in children who struggle in school, through research opportunities at the University of Maryland, at the outset of my doctoral program, I became increasingly interested in the role of parents involvement in

groups that are traditionally marginalized from the US school context, including ELLs and students from lower income backgrounds.

In this study, I served as both participant and researcher, referred to as participant–as–observer by Adler and Adler (1994). This allowed me to understand the activities and perspectives of participants, control the direction of the program, but also keeping a separation between the participants and myself (1994). I was highly involved in the planning, implementation, and data collection phases of the study. During the study, I taught the participants, as I was responsible to deliver the content in English prior to Spanish translation. Following the study, I participated in data collection. I completed all of the student interviews, and two of the three parent interviews. Throughout the study, I tried to pay careful attention to how my biases, assumptions, and background impacted my perceptions of the participants. I consistently tried to separate my own ideas from the perspectives expressed by the participants. I describe ways in which I address this vulnerability to increase the credibility of this qualitative study later in the chapter.

Setting

This study took place at Martin Luther King Elementary School (MLK). MLK is a public school located in the greater Washington, DC area. In the Spring 2013, when the FLP was implemented, MLK served 839 students (80.81% Hispanic/Latino; 14.3% Black; .02% White; .02% two or more races. 92.8% of students in this school qualified for free or reduced lunch (FARMs), 57.7% were categorized as limited English proficiency (LEP), 5.9% of students qualified for special education services, and >95%% of the school received Title I funding (Maryland State Department of Education, 2013).

Participants

The Reading Buddies intervention at MLK included two fourth grade classrooms and two kindergarten classrooms. There were 90 fourth grade and 60 kindergarten students in the in–school intervention. All Reading Buddies participants were invited to the FLP, and this study includes data from three parent–child focal pairs from the FLP (*N* = 3). Because each focal pair included a parent and child, there are three total parents and three total children who served as participants.

Focal Pair One included Paula and her daughter, Bianca, a fourth grade student at MLK. Focal Pair Two included Lorenzo and his fourth grade son, Bruno. Carolina and her fourth grade daughter, Natalia, served as Focal Pair Three. All individuals, parents and children, identified English as their second language and Spanish as their first language.

Recruitment and Selection

We, the research staff, recruited students and their parents from an existing in–school reading intervention, Reading Buddies, to participate in an added home–connection component of this reading intervention, the Family Literacy Program (FLP). This program lasted four weeks with four weekly two–hour evening sessions. All students from Reading Buddies were invited to participate in the FLP. This study analyzed a small portion of the data collected during the FLP. After speaking with school staff, we recruited participants using a variety of mechanisms. This included flyers and stickers, home phone calls, and in–person announcements on a daily basis in the two weeks leading up to the first Family Literacy Program (FLP SESSION). All recruitment mechanisms informed parents that both dinner and transportation from a local apartment

complex were provided. Ninety fourth graders were invited to participate in the FLP. Kindergarten families were invited to participate in a separate FLP with a purely vocabulary focus and are not included in the present study.

Attendance can be of particular concern for family literacy research (Timmons, 2008). This study was no exception. Attendance at the four weekly FLP sessions varied markedly (FLP session 1: $n = 9$; FLP session 2: $n = 23$; FLP session 3: $n = 16$; FLP session 4: $n = 17$; each number delineates the number of parent–child pairs in attendance). Six parent–child pairs attended all four nights, five of whom consented to interviews. Of those five focal pairs, three parent–child dyads completed each interview data point. The current study focused on those three focal parent–child dyads in the Family Literacy Program. The focal dyads included two females and one male in the student group and two mothers and one father in the parent group. All focal parent and child participants were English Language Learners (ELLs). Spanish was their first language. I determined ELL status from the parent questionnaire. In the next section I describe the FLP program in depth.

Family Literacy Program

I wanted the content of the FLP to mirror the during–school Reading Buddies intervention in order to help parents practice the reading comprehension and vocabulary strategies taught during school with their child. The reading comprehension strategy from Reading Buddies, "PAWs," followed a before–, during–, and after–reading progression. The acronym stood for P–Preview, A–Ask and Answer, and W–Wrap It Up. I detail the process for the PAWs strategy in Table 3.1. The vocabulary strategy, "PET", stood for P–Pronounce, E–Explain, and T–Try It Out, and provided students

opportunities to put definitions in their own words and try words out in sentences (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.1 PAWS Strategy

Step	Student Action(s)
P: Preview	● (Before Reading) Students look through book to gain understanding ● Students complete the statement, "I think I will read about…"
A: Ask and Answer	● (During Reading) Students stop after sections to review ● Students complete the statement, "I think the most important part was…"
W: Wrap it Up	● (After Reading) Students formulate a summary by joining the Ask and Answer responses with transitional words (e.g.., first, next, last) ● Students complete the statement, "I think this book was about…"

Table 3.2 PET Strategy

Step	Student Action(s)
P: Pronounce	● Students pronounce an unknown word, typically they repeat the word as said by their teacher.
E: Explain	● Students explain the meaning of the word using their own words after hearing from their teacher or adult.
T: Try it Out	● Students use the word in an original sentence.

Each session lasted two hours and started with dinner for all participants. Myself and a native Spanish–speaker from the research team delivered content in both English and Spanish for the entire program. In order to do this, I delivered the intervention in English and a native Spanish–speaker on our research team staff immediately translated the material. The initial FLP session served to get consent from parents, introduced parents to the content of the program, including the PAWs and PET strategies, included a demonstration of how to use the PET strategy with two new vocabulary words, and allowed time for the completion of questionnaires. The second, third, and fourth FLP

sessions followed the same 90–minute format, and covered one phase of the PAWs strategy on each night and two new vocabulary words with the PET strategy. Table 3.4 (see Appendix B) outlines the format sequence used for the strategy FLP session, and the next section includes detail on each FLP session.

I wanted to ground strategy use in an actual text parents could read with children and provide children with increased opportunity to access expository text. In order to do that, I used a single non–fiction text throughout the entire program with which parents and children could practice the strategy. At the end of the program, they were permitted to take the book home with them. It is well–documented that for children with more a limited knowledge base and vocabulary, reading comprehension can be particularly difficult. This is especially true as complexity of texts increases as they move through school (Stanovich, 1996). It follows that students still acquiring English skills are exposed to increased risk for challenges in reading comprehension given their developing vocabulary skills (Lesaux & Geva, 2006). The book, Recycling by Rhonda Lucas Donald, matched the environmental theme of the Reading Buddies program. Due to the emphasis of expository texts in the Common Core State Standards, I concentrated all of our instruction on using this expository text. This ensured a connection between the two parts of the program. It also provided a solid link for the students to make text–to–text connections with the book from the FLP and the books used in the intervention. For the Reading Buddies program, members of the research team wrote expository texts with the selected vocabulary to match the intervention themes. Within the parent–child dyads, I wanted children to read to their parents, while parents listened along. I choose this level because of the rich vocabulary words as well as the book format's adaptability to the

PAWs reading comprehension strategy focused on before–, during–, and after–reading (Duke, Pearson, Strachan, & Billman, 2002).

In order to teach parents the reading comprehension strategy in a way that maximized their ability to implement it at home with ease, I applied the questioning strategy to PAWs in order to foster reading–related discussion. I thought the use of questions could make the strategy easier to implement, as it did not depend on parents' literacy levels. Instead, it called on their ability to engage their child in discussion. I surmised that parents were likely already engaging their children in discussion about their school day or other topics while they were together outside of school. I asked this in the parent questionnaire. Families' already–occurring dialogue presented a good opportunity to direct their conversations to more academic–related topics. I thought that if parents knew what questions to ask and received guidance on using these questions in discussions with their children, they could increase their child's understanding of text. Further, research supports that interactions in L1, in this case Spanish, positively impact children's development in L2, or English (Hancock, 2002; Reese et al., 2000).

There are substantial effects on reading comprehension outcomes stemming from classroom discussion (Duke et al., 2011; Murphy et al., 2009). My main goal in teaching parents to implement this strategy was to promote parent–child dialogue about reading. I thought a similar relationship likely exists for reading–related discussion outside the classroom. I modeled questions after skills from the intervention, including prediction, summarization, integration of prior knowledge, and questioning. Duke et al. (2011) described all of these skills as closely connected to reading comprehension development. Duke et al. (2011) also underscored that engaging children in discussion about what they

read is an essential ingredient to successful reading comprehension. I used the steps for each part of PAWs from the Reading Buddies intervention to create questions "Strategy Questions" for each step of PAWs (see Table 3.3). I placed the Strategy Questions on bookmarks to send home with families for quick reference (see Appendix B).

Table 3.3 PAWs Strategy Questions

Step	Strategy Questions
P: Preview	1. What do you see on the cover of the book? 2. Did you see a Table of Contents? 3. Do the pictures in the book tell you what the book is about? 4. What do you think you will read about in this book? 5. Do you think the book is informational or literature?
A: Ask and Answer	1. What is the *who* or the *what* in the part you just read? 2. What is the most important thing about the *who* or the *what*?
W: Wrap it Up	1. What did you read about first? 2. What did you read about next? 3. What did you read about last? 4. What was the entire book about?

The last portion of each FLP session covered a vocabulary strategy taught in Reading Buddies, the PET strategy. This acronym means P – Pronounce, E – Explain, and T – Try It Out. When students encounter a new word they either do not know how to say or the meaning, they can use the steps of the PET strategy, with the help of their reading buddy or a teacher, to help them through this cognitive progression. The first step is to simply pronounce, or say, the word out loud. In the second step, Explain, students put the definition of the vocabulary word into their own words to explain its meaning. In the last step, the goal is for the student to try using the word in a sentence.

I chose eight vocabulary words for the Family Literacy Program. I taught two new words at the end of each session. I used Words Worth Teaching (Biemiller, 2009) to select eight words across the two themes from Reading Buddies, Measurement and

Environment, and across levels including T2 (useful to teach during the primary K–2 grades), T6 (useful to teach in the upper elementary 3–5 grades), and D (difficult for elementary children at grade 6 or earlier). Although these words mentioned in texts used in the Reading Buddies intervention due to the themes, they were only *explicitly* taught in the Family Literacy Program. The vocabulary words included: hazard, drastic, toxic, deposit, minimum, surplus, observe, and adjust.

I video– and audio–recorded all sessions of the FLP with consent from participants. See Table 3.4 (see Appendix B) for a detailed description of each night.

Family Literacy Program 1.

The first Family Literacy Program (FLP session 1) served to introduce parents to the program. Upon arrival, parents completed consent forms and gathered in a gymnasium where dinner was served. During dinner, I welcomed parents and explained the format for the evening: parents would attend a session on reading and their children would stay with teachers in training until joining them for the session's last portion. The teachers in training read books, played games, and coordinated cooperative play with the children as the parents attended the content portion of the FLP. The content portion took place after dinner in a separate classroom.

I used a PowerPoint presentation (see Appendix B) to guide each session. During this first FLP session, I discussed the nature of reading instruction in fourth grade. Namely, I explained the instructional focus on reading comprehension and vocabulary to help bolster students' understanding of what they read. I wanted parents to gain some understanding that instruction tends to shift, by fourth grade. At this stage they already know *how* to read but continue to need instruction related to *understanding* what they

read. I discussed the Reading Buddies program that their children received during the day and that the Family Literacy Program would parallel this content with the goal that parents could implement these strategies at home with their children. After I briefly described the two strategies, PAWs and PET, the children joined their parents to learn two new vocabulary words using the PET strategy (*hazard* and *drastic*). At the end of the session parents completed the questionnaire and participated in a relaxed conversational group interview.

Family Literacy Program 2.

The second FLP session started the instruction for the reading comprehension strategy, PAWs. The focus of this night was P – Preview, the before–reading step of PAWs, in which students look at text features to gain an understanding of the content of the book they are about to read. I used a teach–model–practice format for this and subsequent nights. For P – Preview, I first discussed the rationale of this step in the strategy. Specifically, I provided the description for the step used with students in Reading Buddies, "Look through the book and think about what you will read." I explained the goal of this step is for readers to complete the statement, "I think I will read about…" Once parents had an opportunity to ask questions about the description of this step, I moved onto modeling the strategy.

I first covered several important terms for parents, including: informational (non–fiction) texts, narrative (fiction), text features, tables of contents, and glossary. I explained to parents the text features of a book help readers to discern whether it is an informational/non–fiction or narrative/fiction text. Using a PowerPoint presentation (see Appendix B) with scanned pages of the text that parents had in front of them, I modeled

how a reader uses the text features with self–talk. The scanned pages included side–by–side translation. This was true for all text on the PowerPoint. One by one, we discussed information gleaned from the cover, table of contents, pictures, and glossary within the text. Then, I provided a sample statement for "I think I will read about…" based on our discussion of the text features. Finally, we decided together whether the book was informational (non–fiction) or narrative (fiction).

My goal for the modeling process was for parents to *understand the thinking readers should do* while completing this step of the PAWs strategy. It was not necessarily to teach them how to use the text features themselves. This objective was consistent with the overall goal of the program to foster reading comprehension *discussion*, as opposed to *instruction*, between parents and their children. In order to foster this discussion, I taught parents Strategy Questions that essentially guided children through the P – Preview step of the PAWs strategy. Parents received these Strategy Questions on a bookmark in either Spanish or English.

In the final stage of the strategy instruction, children joined their parents. This provided an opportunity for parents to practice using the Strategy Questions together while having time for questions and clarification. During this time, I instructed children to use the text features of Recycling while the parents asked questions from the bookmark. After jointly reviewing the text features, parents asked children to decide whether the text was information or narrative.

As with FLP session 1, the participants learned two new vocabulary words using the PET strategy during the last portion of the session. I first reviewed the two vocabulary words from FLP session 1. I next introduced the new words, *toxic* and

deposit. Parents and children completed the Practice – Explain – Try It Out method of the strategy for both words.

Finally, I introduced parents to the Self–Report (see Appendix B) they would complete the following week regarding their use of the Strategy Questions during the week. I explained to parents that we wanted to know whether it was actually feasible to implement these Strategy Questions at home. We were not "checking up" on whether or not they were using the questions. It was imperative they understood that if they reported they did not implement the strategy questions this information was still valuable to us as it would help shape our future family literacy programming. The Self–Report consisted of two questions: (1) Which days did you talk to your child this week about reading?; and (2) Which days did you use the Preview Strategy Questions this week with your child? Under each question, parents could check a box for each day of the week in which they had implemented the instruction. I instructed parents to complete this self–report at the beginning of the next session, FLP session 3.

I closed the session by providing a future look at the next topic, A – Ask and Answer, during which students were to read and think about what is most important in a text.

Family Literacy Program 3.

The Family Literacy Programs followed a very similar format each week for the strategy sessions. The third FLP session began with and brief review of P – Preview and parents completion of the self–report related to their work with the Strategy Questions for P – Preview. Parents had a few minutes to think back on the week and check the days of the weeks they (1) talked about reading with their child at all and (2) used the Preview

Strategy Questions with their child. I then began instruction on the second step of PAWs, A – Ask and Answer.

The focus of A – Ask and Answer, the during–reading step of PAWs, is for readers to stop and think while they are reading about what is most important in a text and think about what might happen next. I used a teach–model–practice format with a PowerPoint as in the previous FLP session 2. For A – Ask and Answer, I provided the description for the step used with students in Reading Buddies, "Read and think about what's most important." I explained that the goal of this step is for readers to complete the statement, "I think the most important part was…" Once parents had an opportunity to ask questions about the description of this step, I moved onto modeling the strategy.

In order to model this during–reading step, I needed parents to have read or listened to the reading of a portion of text from Recycling. Using a PowerPoint presentation (see Appendix B) with scanned pages of the text that parents had in front of them with side–by–side translations in English and Spanish, I read two paragraphs of text from the book. I explained to parents that when they use the Strategy Questions with their child they would not need to have read the text because the purpose of the questions is to guide their children through the thinking on their own. This mirrors what was done in the classroom. However, we needed to read the portion of the text so they could understand the thinking behind this step of PAWs in the session. We used the questions to identify the *who* or *what* in the text and what was the important feature of the *who* or *what.* Then, I provided a sample statement for "I think the most important part was…" based on our discussion. Again, the goal of the modeling was for parents to understand the thinking throughout the process, as opposed to teaching them how to summarize themselves.

In the final stage of the strategy instruction, children joined their parents. This provided an opportunity for parents to practice using the Strategy Questions with their children while having time for questions and clarification. During this time, I instructed children to read certain pages from Recycling, and then had parents ask the questions from the bookmark. Following their discussion, children finished the statement "I think the most important part was…"

Next, participants learned two new vocabulary words using the PET strategy in the last portion of the session. First I reviewed the four vocabulary words from FLP sessions 1 and 2. I then introduced the new words, *minimum* and *surplus*. Parents and children completed the Practice – Explain – Try It Out method of the strategy for both new words.

I closed the session by providing a future look at the next topic, W – Wrap It Up, during which students provide a summary of an entire text based on what they read first, next, and last.

Family Literacy Program 4.

The final FLP session (see Appendix B for PowerPoint presentation) began with a brief review of A – Ask and Answer and parents completion of the self–report for use with the A – Ask and Answer Strategy Questions. Parents had a few minutes to think back on the week and check the days of the weeks they (1) talked about reading with their child at all, and (2) used the Preview Strategy Questions with their child. I then began instruction on the third step of PAWs, W – Wrap It Up.

For the after–reading step of PAWs, W – Wrap It Up, readers summarize an entire text using the most important information they read first, next, and last. For W – Wrap It

Up. I discussed the rationale behind this step in the strategy, and introduced parents to the term *summary*. Specifically, I provided the description for the step used with students in Reading Buddies, "Summarize what you read first, next, and last." I explained that the goal of this step is for readers to complete the statement, "I think this book was about…" Once parents had an opportunity to ask questions about the description of this step, I continued to model the strategy.

Because parents and children had not yet had the opportunity to read the entire Recycling text, I used the Table of Contents to highlight information in each chapter of the book to create an accurate summary. This was a necessary shortcut due to the time allotted for the program. As with the previous strategy sessions, the goal for the modeling process was for parents to *understand the thinking readers should do* while completing this step of the PAWs strategy. It was not to learn the skill of summarizing.

In the final stage of the strategy instruction, children joined their parents to practice using the Strategy Questions. Children read an entire chapter from Recycling to their parents and then answered the Strategy Questions for W – Wrap It Up. The children then strung together the answers to the Strategy Questions to create a summary about the chapter they read.

Participants then learned two new vocabulary words using the PET strategy in the last portion of the session. First I reviewed the six vocabulary words from FLP sessions 1, 2, and 3 and then introduced the new words, *observe* and *adjust*. Parents and children completed the Practice – Explain – Try It Out method of the strategy for both words.

Finally, as this was the last session, I distributed the Self–Report to parents for the following week as an addressed stamped postcard and asked them to mail it back in one

week. I explained each family would receive a free book for each returned Self–Report postcard.

Data Collection

Several sources of data were collected as part of this project to understand the phenomenon from a variety of perspectives (see Table 3.5). I used data from audio recorded and transcribed interviews, including *group parent interviews*, *individual parent interviews* (both post–intervention and delayed–post), and *individual student interviews.* This was done to understand the ways in which families experienced the FLP and how it might have impacted their home literacy interactions. In addition, I looked at a parent questionnaire and three time–points of a parent self–report. Finally, I examined data from the field notes and transcripts of each actual FLP session. To reiterate, I led this home–connection component of Reading Buddies and designed all interview questions with the help of our research team. All transcription tasks were completed as part of the data management in the larger Reading Buddies program study. Table 3.5 provides descriptions of each data source.

Table 3.5 Data Source Catalogue

Data Source	Description
Group Parent Interview	An informal conversation on the first FLP session in which I gathered information regarding parents' motivations and goals for participating in the program.
Individual Parent Interview	One–on–one interview with each parent in the focal pairs that occurred in either English or Spanish at two time points: one immediately following the conclusion of the FLP and one six weeks post–intervention.
Student Interview	One–on–one interview with each student in the focal pairs that occurred in English immediately following the FLP in order to understand their impression of the program in general and

	specifics about the interactions with their parents outside of the FLP implementing the strategy questions.
Parent Questionnaire	A researcher–developed measure to gather information on family backgrounds, home literacy practices, and parent self–efficacy.
Parent Self–Report	Four brief postcard–style responses in which parents reported the frequency with which they implemented each step of the reading comprehension strategy between each FLP session.
Descriptive Field Notes	Post–reflections I wrote following each FLP session, and real–time field notes from an observing colleague.
Audio and Video Recording	Audio and video recordings on each FLP session.

Group Parent Interview. At the end of the first Family Literacy Program, I conducted an informal group interview. I used the same side–by–side English/Spanish translation method to conduct the interview. Maria, a native–speaker of Spanish, conducted this interview with me. Prior to the session, she translated all of the interview questions, and we talked through the translations to ensure meaning was not lost. My main objective of this interview was to understand parents' goals for participating in a family literacy program. In addition, I wanted to hear from parents why they thought other parents did not attend the first night of the program. We added questions related to increasing participation to the protocol due to the low attendance rate. We thought hearing from parents might help us understand how to encourage participation. I wanted to maintain a relaxed conversational atmosphere to put parents at ease, as this was the first night of the program. This data source related to the reflexive design of this study in which we learned as we implemented the study, and responded to lessons learned along the way. Data included 24 minutes of audio from the group parent interview collected at the end of the first night of the FLP. All three focal parents were present for this interview.

Individual Parent Interviews. I conducted parent interviews at two time points: one week immediately following the conclusion of the FLP and one six weeks post–intervention. Five parents consented to the interviews and attended all four FLP sessions. Of these five parents, I chose three parents to include in this study because they completed both interviews. To collect similar information across parents, interviews were semi–structured using a protocol of questions (see Table 3.6). Parents opted to be interviewed in either English or Spanish. I conducted interviews in English. A native Spanish–speaking colleague, who also participated in the FLP, conducted interviews in Spanish. This provided consistency across the study. It also allowed parents to feel comfortable and develop a relationship with her as well.

I focused interviews on understanding parents' experiences and attitudes about participating in the Family Literacy Program (mostly the first interview) and implementing the strategies in their homes with their child (both interviews). In general, I wanted to understand parents' thoughts on the feasibility and relative ease of using the reading comprehension strategy in their homes, and whether they found certain components of the reading comprehension strategy (PAWS) easier to implement or more helpful than others. In addition, during the first interview, I wanted parents to share their thoughts related to content and delivery of family literacy programming for upper elementary students in general and what they felt was helpful or lacking from the intervention. The second interview focused primarily on home implementation of the reading strategy and whether participation in the program impacted dialogue, reading behaviors, and plans for summer reading activities with their child.

I audio recorded all interviews with consent of each parent. Research assistants transcribed the interviews in both English and Spanish. A native Spanish–speaking research assistant translated Spanish interview transcriptions to English. Data included 2 hours and 3 minutes of audio from the six parent interviews collected over a six–week period following the FLP.

Student Interview. I conducted student interviews at one time–point post–intervention in English. I structured these interviews similarly to the parent interviews, but focused on their thoughts about participating in the family night program, specifically on their interactions with their parents during the actual sessions. These interviews included student commentary on the reading comprehension intervention (Reading Buddies) occurring during the day. Students were permitted to direct the conversation. I also asked students about their motivation to participate in the FLP, whether they used the reading comprehension strategy at home with their parents outside of the FLP sessions, and whether these discussions were in Spanish or English. I wanted to understand whether the students thought conversations with their parents about reading helped them understand texts better. I audio–recorded and transcribed these interviews in the same manner as the parent interviews. Data included 1 hour and 5 minutes of audio from the three student interviews collected in a single day post– FLP.

Table 3.6 Questions for Group, Parent, Delayed Parent, and Student Interviews

Sequence	Questions
Group Parent	● What do you want to learn during the Reading Buddies Family Nights? ● Why did you choose to participate in this program? ● Why do you think other parents chose not to attend this evening? ● What do you think would encourage other parents to participate in the program? ● What recruitment method (phone/flyer/stickers) worked

	best?
Parent Post–Intervention	● What did you want to learn during the Reading Buddies Family Nights? ● What did you think was helpful while you were at the Reading Buddies Family Nights? ● What was easy or difficult about using the strategies at home that you learned in the Family Nights? ● What did you want to learn at the Family Nights that we did not talk about? ● What suggestions do you have about how to make the Family Nights better for next year? ● Would you participate in the Family Nights again next year? ● Did you find it easy or hard to practice the Strategy Questions at home with your child this week? ● What would make using the Strategy Questions easier for you? ● What other questions did you have about practicing these questions with your child?
Parent Delayed Post–Intervention	● Have you implemented any aspects of the PAWs strategy since the end of the program? ● If so, have you used the Preview, Ask & Answer, or Wrap It Up questions? Which ones have you used the most? ● How has this program effected how you talk about books with your child? ● How do you think this program will affect how you talk about books with your child this summer? ● What plans do you have to help your child continue to grow in reading over the summer? ● How has this program impacted your feelings about helping your child in reading? Do you think you are better equipped to help your child?
Student Post–Intervention	● Why did you want to come to the Family Literacy Programs? ● Why do you think your parent wanted to come to the Family Literacy Programs? ● What was your favorite part of the FLP sessions? ● How did you feel about working with your parent during the FLP sessions? ● Do you read at home with your parent frequently or not so frequently? ● Do you read on your own by yourself? ● Can you tell me about when you and your parent talked about what you read using the PAWs question bookmark at home?

	● Did you talk in Spanish or English? ● How does talking with your parent about what you read help you better understand the text? ● What would you change about the FLP sessions?

Parent Questionnaire. To collect information about their background and home literacy practices, I asked all parent participants to complete a researcher–developed questionnaire (see Appendix C). I adapted the HLE portion of the questionnaire from Whitehurst (1993) and Griffin and Morrison (1997). Information collected from this portion of the survey contributed to understanding differences in literacy exposure for the study's participants. I included 10 questions related to the frequency and duration of reading for independent reading for the child, frequency of parent–child discussion about school, number of books in the home, and types of literacy–related activities in which the parent and child engage at home.

The second portion of the survey consisted of nine items and focused on parents' thoughts about their efficacy to help their children in school. The first seven items make up an existing measure designed by Hoover–Dempsey and Sandler (2005). Parents scored seven statements on their general beliefs about their ability to contribute to their children's academic success with a six–point Likert scale (disagree very strongly to agree very strongly). Walker, Wilkins, Dallaire, Sandler, and Hoover–Dempsey (2005) reported .78 (α) alpha reliability for the 7–item measure. I added the last two items on this measure to target parent's self–efficacy beliefs specifically related to reading comprehension. I crafted these items similarly to the other items and tried to target the reading comprehension strategy of questioning taught in the FLP.

I piloted the measure prior to the intervention and used cognitive interviews to evaluate my questions. Beatty and Willis (2007) explain cognitive interviewing is a method of administering draft survey questions with simultaneous collection of verbal feedback about responses. This tactic enabled me to understand if my survey questions effectively elicited the intended response from the participant. During the pilot, feedback focused primarily on the response choices. Specifically, respondents suggested the inclusion of a 'neutral' option within the self–efficacy scale portion of the survey. Due to this being a pre–existing and validated measure, I did not think it prudent to alter the response options. In addition, pilot respondents suggested changing the final response choice of 'almost daily', following a questions such as "How often do you talk with your fourth grade child about any aspect of their school day?" to 'almost daily/daily' or to include a fifth choice 'daily'. Following this suggestion I changed 'almost daily' to 'almost daily/daily' as the fourth and final response choice.

Two native Spanish–speakers translated the entire measure to allow parents to complete the survey in the language of their choice. Parents received a $5 Target gift card for each returned questionnaire.

Parent Self–Report. Following each strategy FLP session (sessions 2, 3, and 4) parents completed a two–question self–report (see Appendix C) related to frequency of reading discussion. This included general discussions and those that focused on specific strategies that occurred with their child that week. The Self–Report consisted of the following questions:

1. Which days did you talk to your child this week about reading in general?
2. Which days did you use the Strategy Questions this week with your child?

There was a table under each question with the days of the week leading up to the next FLP session and an empty box to be checked for each applicable day. Parents completed three Self–Report. This consisted of one for each strategy FLP session and step of PAWs. For the final Self–Reports, parents received the survey as a self–addressed stamped postcard. Instructions were to mail the postcard back a week from the end of FLP session 4. In order to bolster return rate, I reminded parents to return the postcards with flyers in Spanish and English every day during the week following the end of the Family Literacy Program. I sent a free book home with each child whose parent returned the Self–Report.

Descriptive Field Notes. Following each session, I recorded descriptive field notes about the experience. A colleague who observed all sessions also recorded descriptive field notes in real time. Because I acted as both an instructor and participant in the FLP, I recorded my field notes after the conclusion of each session. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) describe descriptive field notes as a researcher's effort to provide an objective record of what happened in the field. Although they admit subjectivity is never completely absent, the researcher makes his or her best effort to eliminate judgments in their field notes. To do this the researcher must be as descriptive as possible in order capture as much of the field as possible on paper (Bodgan & Biklen, 2007). My field notes, and the field notes of my colleague, included reflections on both the content of the session and parent participation in the sessions.

Audio and Video Recordings and Transcriptions. All four FLP sessions are video– and audio–recorded and transcribed by the research team. This data included six hours of video from the FLP sessions over a four–week period.

Data Analysis

In order to capture the vivid context of this study, I used grounded theory methodology. I constantly compared the data by moving back and forth between coding and generating conceptual categories while progressing to theory development (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Specifically, for my analysis I utilized Strauss and Corbin's (1990) iteration of the constant comparative method of qualitative data analysis for both of my research questions. Ayres, Kavanaugh, and Knafl (2003) suggested this method allows for the inclusion of essential contextual information that other methods of coding and subsequent analysis could potentially miss. Further, Ayres et al. (2003) described the importance of analysis both within and across focal pairs in order to understand both the experience of all participants in the context of a particular phenomenon, in this study a family literacy program, and the unique experience of each individual focal pair in the context of this phenomenon. The family literacy program as a whole was the 'case' in this study, evaluated using three focal pairs, including one parent and one child.

For each research question, I used Strauss and Corbin's (1990) three step coding method: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. In the open coding step I described events in the data, compared them to one another, and put similar events together to form codes. For example, in an interview, one parent said "[I want learn how] to choose which books are the best for [my children]". This comment, in addition to similar ones, was coded as "Book Choice." This enabled me to categorize that several parents noted the desire to understand how to choose appropriate books for their children. In the axial coding step I grouped codes together based on points of commonality to form conceptual codes. Strauss and Corbin (1990) called this axial coding to express the

concept of joining open codes at intersecting axes. This step draws on the interpretive lens of the researcher, as opposed to the solely descriptive, and largely objective, nature of open coding. For example, "Book Choice" could fit into the larger category "Areas that Need Support," where parents referenced ways in which they desired to improve their ability to support their children's literacy. In the selective coding step I worked to understand the relationships within the groups of codes and, based on these relationships, wrote a set of "statements that can be used to explain, in a general sense, what is going on" (p. 145). Regarding the final stage of the constant comparative method, Glaser and Strauss (1967) describe three guidelines to understand when a researcher is ready to write a theory with confidence. The guidelines are as follows: (1) the analysis forms a systematic theory; (2) it is a reasonably accurate statement of the subject matter; and (3) it is presented in a format others in the field can use (p. 113). Harry, Sturges, and Klingner (2005) found "thematic" coding to better describe this step. That is, sought to uncover the central theme of the stories behind the conceptual categories generated in the previous step.

Trustworthiness Measures

There are several ways in which researchers can ensure their empirical *qualitative* studies are trustworthy. Brantlinger et al. (2005) outlined several techniques to increase the credibility of qualitative research in special education. As part of my analytic plan, I used the following six strategies to ensure soundness of conclusions drawn from my analysis: audit trail, triangulation, disconfirming evidence, collaborative work, thick, detailed description, and research reflexivity.

Audit trail. Brantlinger et al. (2005) describe audit trail as meticulous tracking of the interviews conducted, including the amount of time in the field conducting observations and the specific episodes where the target phenomena is observed. This technique helps demonstrate the researcher's claims were made from sufficient field research. For my study, I catalogued, described, and documented all data sources and time spent in the field observing and conducting interviews. This catalogue provided a clear picture of the time spent with study participants, across data collection methods, thereby bolstering the legitimacy of drawn conclusions.

Triangulation. Triangulation enables the researcher to systematically search for convergences of evidence from varied data across multiple sources (Brantlinger et al., 2005). This study employed multiple sources of data, including interviews, observations, parent questionnaires, and parent self–report surveys. I combed each source for similar evidence, both across– and within–participants. Further, I triangulated data across different kinds of participants, including parents and students, to search for evidence that supported a consistent theory.

Disconfirming evidence. After the initial theme generation, I then searched the data for evidence that disconfirms this theory, or outliers (Brantlinger, 2005). Also known as *discrepant case analysis*, this technique helps to counter researcher bias in category or theme generation.

Collaborative work. I used collaborative work to ensure inter–rater reliability of the coding of data. A colleague reviewed the data and codes initially employed to see if we agreed on the coding procedures. Points of disagreement were resolved. Using both

levels of collaborative work increased the likelihood that analyses and interpretations were not biased (Brantlinger et al., 2005).

Thick, detailed description. Brantlinger et al. (2005) and Geertz (1973) described thick, detailed description as collecting sufficient quotes and descriptions of the field to support a researcher's conclusions. In addition to the collection of my own field notes, and those of another colleague, data included transcriptions of all interviews, parent questionnaires, and video and audio recordings of all sessions. This variety of data sources provided ample opportunities to contribute quotes from participants and descriptions from a variety of perspectives across the study.

Researcher reflexivity. Researcher bias is a potentially significant threat to qualitative research. At the beginning of this chapter I disclosed my background, assumptions, and biases as a special education teacher and learning specialist in two schools with high levels of parent involvement. I continued to be reflective throughout the analysis (Brantlinger et al., 2005). Being forthright enabled me to more properly account for how my own perspective may have potentially impacted my conclusions.

Research Question 1 (RQ1): Data Analysis

What are families' experiences and attitudes related to a family literacy program, implemented as part of an existing reading intervention, to support children's reading development?

For this research question, I used the individual and group parent interviews, student interviews, and video and audio transcripts of the sessions for analysis. I sought to understand the ways in which families experienced, and their attitudes about, the family literacy program as means to support children's reading development through

triangulation of data across sources. I coded all data sources, including all interviews and the video and audio transcripts, to answer this research question. Then, I used an iterative process to look for similar and contradictory themes and categories across data sources. I first analyzed data within each parent–child focal pair and described each unique experience of the FLP. I then looked for similarities and differences across focal pairs describing the collective experience of the FLP across the focal pairs.

Research Question 2 (RQ2): Data Analysis

How does what families learn in a family literacy program align with at–home literacy interactions?

For this research question I used the parent interviews, parent questionnaires, and student interviews for analysis. I sought to understand the ways in which knowledge and experiences in the FLP aligned with the ways they were *already* supporting their reading comprehension and vocabulary growth at home. Because of the dearth of literature related to the family literacy practices of families with ELLs in upper elementary school, I wanted to understand the myriad ways in which students are receiving support from their families for their literacy development and how the experiences within an FLP could extend their home literacy environment.

To answer this research question, I coded the parent and student interview transcripts using Strauss and Corbin's (1990) constant comparative method discussed earlier in this chapter. I searched for evidence of both converging themes but also for dis–confirming evidence. In addition, I used the parent questionnaires to confirm that parents describe their home literacy practices similarly across data sources.

The following chapter describes the (1) findings for both research questions within– and across–focal pairs; (2) the ways in which a family's experiences and knowledge learned in the FLP aligned with their at–home literacy interactions to support reading development; and (3) the theory I developed to summarize their experiences in the FLP.

Chapter Four: Results

The purpose of this study was twofold. First, I sought to understand the experiences and attitudes of three Spanish–speaking focal families in a family literacy program component of an in–school reading program. Second, I sought to understand the ways in which each family's knowledge learned and experiences in the FLP aligned with supportive literacy activities that already occurred in the home. Each of three families who participated in the program served as a focal pair, with one parent and one child. If two parents attended the sessions with their child only the parent who consented to the interviews was analyzed. I collected interview data and used qualitative analysis methods to analyze transcripts of interviews. As previously noted, these were transcribed from audio recordings. I included 10 interviews in this analysis. Qualitative methods of this nature allow for a researcher to use the unique accounts of individuals experiencing a common phenomenon to generate more generalizable conclusions (Ayres, Kavanaugh, & Knafl, 2003).

I used the constant comparative method to analyze and interpret data, (Strauss & Corbin, 1997). This method utilizes comparison of events, respondents, and interactions between respondents. Through continuous comparison of events, I identified similarities and differences within the data. From patterns and connections that emerged from identified similarities and differences, I generated themes. Finally, I used these emergent themes to formulate a grounded theory based on my research questions. This chapter presents the findings from this study.

The research includes focal parent–child pairs that participated in the entirety of the family literacy program. The data sources for analysis included both parent and child

post–FLP interviews, video of the FLP sessions, a questionnaire completed by parents at the outset of the program, parent self–report of strategy use between FLP sessions (see Table 4.3), and observations of the FLP sessions. An analysis across the focal pairs follows the profiles of each focal pair itself. I used pseudonyms for all participants.

I evaluated data based on the following research questions:

1. What are families' experiences and attitudes related to a family literacy program, implemented as part of an existing reading intervention, to support children's reading development?
2. How does what families learn in a family literacy program align with at–home literacy interactions?

Experiences, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Focal Families in a Family Literacy Component of a Reading Intervention

In this section I describe findings for my two research questions. I include a list of all initial codes and categories, a description of emergent themes from the categories, a discussion of the themes within each focal pair, including examples from the data, and ananalysis comparing the themes across the three focal pairs. I conclude by summarizing the data analysis surrounding each research question.

The first two phases of constant comparative method data analysis, open and axial coding, (Strauss & Corbin, 1997) allow for a highly iterative process. The researcher initially codes all events in the data and then identifies patterns and connections among these events. I identified 58 initial discrete codes (see Table 4.1). This data included 3 hours and 32 minutes of audio from nine interviews collected over an eight–week period and six hours of video from the FLP sessions over a four–week period. Upon reviewing

each code, comparing and contrasting them, I clustered the 58 codes into eight conceptual categories: Motivations for Participation; Barriers to participation; General Feedback on the FLP; Feedback on Strategy taught in FLP; Bilingualism; Literacy Interactions at Home; Literacy Interactions at School; and Descriptions of Self–Concept. A description of each of the conceptual categories is provided below. In addition, I included data from a parent questionnaire (refer to Appendix for a copy of the questionnaire; see Table 4.6 for questionnaire data).

Motivations for Participation. This category included any references to the reasons parents or children expressed for participating in FLP. For example, this category could include a parent's desire to help their children with their homework, or a student's desire to expand their vocabulary.

Barriers to Participation. I included parents' or students' thoughts on why other families chose not to participate in the FLP in this category. For example, a dad explaining other parents' work schedule or the fear of immigration officials would fall in this category.

General Feedback on the FLP. This category included thoughts on the particular features of the FLP participants found helpful and how they would augment the program from their experience. For example, the length of the FLP or information that participants desired to be included in a future iteration of the FLP would be included in this category.

Feedback on the Strategy Taught in the FLP. Codes related to parents' and children's feedback related to the specific strategy they learned in the FLP reside in this category. For example, this category would include a parent's thoughts on what parts of

the strategy were easiest or more difficult to implement, or a student expressing that summarizing helped s/he to understand a text.

Bilingualism. This category included references to how bilingualism plays a role in literacy. For example, what language students use to read or discuss with their parents and what level of English or Spanish proficiency parents or students may hold would fall in this category.

Literacy Interactions at Home. This category included references to literacy engagement outside of school, typically between parent and child or siblings. For example, reading aloud to a parent before bed or helping a sibling with an unknown vocabulary word would be interactions included within this category.

Literacy Interactions in School. This category included codes related to literacy–related behaviors that occurred during school. These included descriptions of interactions between students and their in–school buddy or strategies used when reading in related materials by themselves.

Descriptions of Self–Concept. This category included references about feelings related to literacy in this category. For example, whether a child feels confident when reading would be included in this category.

Table 4.1 Initial Conceptual Categories and Codes from Open Coding of Interview Data

Initial Conceptual Categories	Identified Codes
Literacy Interactions at Home	Playing 'school' Paired reading with parent Paired reading without discussion pre–FLP Parent asks implicit and explicit questions from FLP Enjoys shared reading experience Mimics Reading Buddies Program with sibling at home Probing children about what they liked best about a book, sequencing

	Uses context clues for unknown vocabulary (i.e. pictures) Uses dictionary for unknown words and then explains to children Discussing with parent encourages child to stop and think about the text Extended discussion questions from FLP Added variety to format from FLP
Literacy Interactions at School	Shared new vocabulary words from FLP with her school buddy Difficulty applying strategy by self, but helpful with a buddy Uses context clues for unknown vocabulary (i.e. pictures)
Barriers to Participation	Demanding parent work schedules Police and immigration fears could contribute to why others don't participate Need to be more explicit about who is running the program because of parent fears Other parents don't attend because they don't seem motivated
Bilingualism	Discusses reading in Spanish at home Reads in English at home Language of school Discusses texts in English with parent Spanish at the dinner table One parent doesn't speak English Corrects parent's English mispronunciations and uses Feels English skills aren't proficient Uses dictionary for unknown words and then explains to children
General Feedback on FLP	Ease of implementation Connection to instructor Modeling was very helpful Group size too large Increase amount of time per session to review previous material and incorporate more practice for parent–child FLP was very practical Needed to include decoding instruction Did not learn how to help multiple children at once Longer program needed More practice opportunities with child Absorbed more when children were not present Wanted more opportunities to ask questions
Feedback on Strategy Taught in FLP	The most difficult part of the questioning strategy was the 'during reading' questions Questioning was most important/helpful part of FLP "Before reading" questions easiest to implement "After reading" challenging to implement

	Thinks previewing the book helped child to get ready to read and know what to expect in the book Summary strategy helps to know what the entire book is about Not enough vocabulary instruction
Motivations for Participation	Frustrated by lack of knowledge how to help reading development Motivated to attend FLP Desire to learn new vocabulary words Desire to help her child read Desire to increase her child's interest in reading Desired decoding instruction for children Desire to improve child's test scores Concrete strategies to implement with child Takes child to library but doesn't know what books are appropriate
Descriptions of Self–Concept	Bored reading by self Increased confidence

In the second stage of coding, axial coding, my goal was to identify the points of intersection between conceptual categories. This was done to highlight overarching themes under which to condense these eight categories. Strauss and Corbin (1990) describe this as a key step in comparative methods. That is, it fosters cohesion within the data "by making connections between a category and its subcategory" (p.97). The aim of the researcher here is to understand the connections between a broad category and its subcategories. These eight categories were the foundation for the analysis for both research questions; I used different categories within the analysis for each question. I did this because not all of the eight categories were relevant to both questions.

Findings for Research Question 1

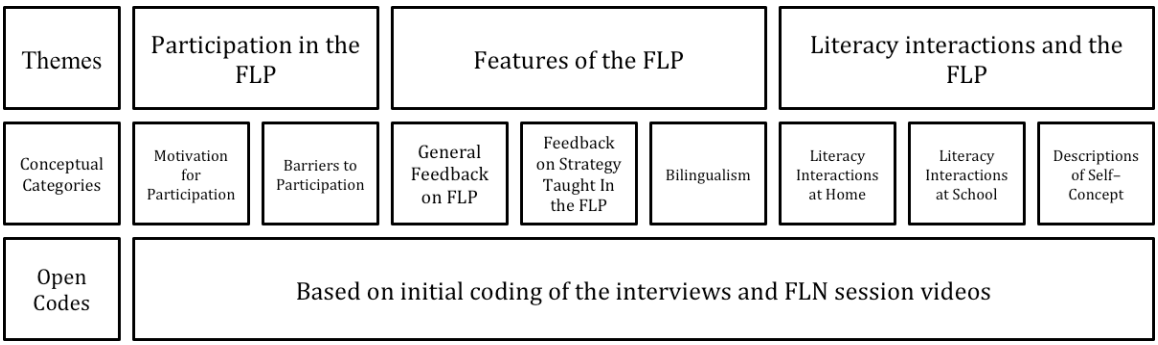
How do families experience a family literacy program, as part of an existing reading intervention, to support children's reading development?

In order to respond to my first research question, I looked for emergent themes from the categories to understand how three parent–child focal pairs experienced the

FLP. As I cross–referenced codes within– and across–categories I began to group categories together. For example, I put the motivations for participation alongside the barriers to participation in order to get a complete picture of the factors that impact participation in the FLP. Similarly, I grouped general and specific feedback related to the FLP with bilingualism to understand how parents experienced the design of the FLP. Bilingualism fit as a subcategory in this group because the parents' and children's status as English language learners impacts how to best design an FLP to meet their needs. I then matched the conceptual categories that described literacy interactions at home and at school. The final conceptual category was self–concept related to literacy. In order to understand the entirety of literacy interactions, I matched this category with home and school literacy interactions. As individual's self–concept related to literacy undoubtedly impacts the ways in which they engage in literacy interactions. Three themes emerged by reducing the original eight categories to three: Participation in the FLP; Features of the FLP; and Literacy Interactions and the FLP (see Table 4.2 for a coding map; for enlarged version see Appendix C).

Participation in the FLP included both motivations and barriers to participation for families. Features of the FLP comprised of general feedback on the FLP, feedback related to the strategy taught in the FLP, and bilingualism. Literacy interactions and the FLP, included codes under the following three categories: literacy interactions at home, literacy interactions at school, and any descriptions of self–concept related to literacy. I summarize these three themes with examples from the data across the three parent–child focal pairs in Table 4.4.

Table 4.2 Coding Map (for an enlarged version see Appendix C)



Three overarching themes emerged during the axial coding stage of data analysis for the three parent–child focal pairs related to their experience of the Family Literacy Program. These included: (1) participation in the FLP; (2) features of the FLP; (3) literacy interactions and the FLP. These three themes provided a multi–faceted understanding of how the three parent–child focal pairs experienced the family literacy program. Table 4.3 details the results of the self–report survey data from the FLP for each focal pair, which I reference in the Literacy Interaction and the FLP subsections for each focal parent–child pair. An analysis across these themes for each focal pair, including examples from data, is included in the following section. Following these descriptions is an analysis of all three focal pairs across the three themes.

Table 4.3 Parent Self–Report Data

Parent	Self–Report 1		Self–Report 2		Self–Report 3	
	How many days did you talk to your child this week about reading?	How many days did you use the **Preview Strategy Questions** this week with your child?	How many days did you talk to your child this week about reading?	How many days did you use the **Preview Strategy Questions** this week with your child?	How many days did you talk to your child this week about reading?	How many days did you use the **Preview Strategy Questions** this week with your child?
Paula	4	0	0	0	4	3
Lorenzo	2	2	1	1	2	2
Carolina	3	5	5	5	5	5

Bianca and Paula.

Bianca was a fourth grade female at Martin Luther King Elementary School (MLK). She attended all four Family Literacy Program sessions with her mother, Paula. Both Bianca and Paula's first language was Spanish. They communicated to one another in Spanish throughout the duration of the FLP. Both Bianca and Paula readily and willingly shared their thoughts about the FLP.

Participation in the FLP. Bianca expressed a desire to participate in the FLP in order to increase her vocabulary knowledge. Similar to the Reading Buddies program during the day, she hoped the FLP would include specific instruction about new vocabulary words. She said, "Sometimes [at home] when I don't know a word, I just couldn't pronounce it….with the PET strategy [and my buddy] I started pronouncing the words well that I didn't even know before." She added that sometimes when reading at home, she often doesn't know how to pronounce words in the text, and the PET strategy from the Reading Buddies intervention assisted in her acquiring new vocabulary knowledge. She hoped the FLP would expand upon this vocabulary growth. She expressed that one of her friends was unable to attend the FLP due to a parent's busy work schedule.

Paula explained her motivation related to her desire to support her daughter, Bianca. "I wanted to learn how to help [my child] read,[3]" she said. This expressed her motivation to bolster her daughter's interest in reading, as she may have known that this is connected to reading success.

---

[3] Translated from Spanish

Features of the FLP. When the FLP ended, Bianca felt further work should have been dedicated to vocabulary instruction. When she learned a new word in the FLP program, "(W)e were talking about it and discussing about it and I finally knew what it meant." While describing the acquisition of new knowledge, her face and voice lit up with excitement. In response to the question "Why did you want to attend the Family Literacy Programs?," Bianca shared her desire that the FLP include expanded opportunities to discuss new vocabulary words.

Paula felt the FLP provided a practical reading comprehension strategy she could implement effectively with her children. "It was very practical for a single mom...before [the FLP] I would say, go read, and that was it[4]", she said. Paula seemed empowered by the tools she learned in the FLP. She suggested the format of the program was especially appealing to her, in that she could bring her children and dinner was offered. Paula further felt the instructor was particularly helpful, in that "I liked how the person treated us. I was smiling the whole time. I never felt bad or sad. And I felt...confidence in how to participate, how to practice, and express our thoughts.[5]" She did note though that the PAWs and PET strategies could be more engaging. She thought a game component would have bolstered the engagement of the children in the program.

Bianca and her mother spoke entirely in Spanish to one another. Bianca read aloud to her mother in English and then they discussed the text together in Spanish. Paula explained that nearly all of the children's books in their home are in English. Due to her limited English proficiency, she appreciated the use of the model of real–time

---

[4] Ibid.
[5] Ibid.

English–to–Spanish translation and thought it allowed for a higher level of engagement. Bianca expressed talking with her mother about books she reads, regardless of whether the discussion language is different from the text language, supports her understanding of what she has read, saying "I started to answer more questions about what I was reading than I used to [when I read by myself]. This helped me understand more what I was reading."

Literacy Interactions and the FLP. Bianca described how she began to use the PAWs bookmarks while "playing school" with her sister at home: "We start reading and I read to her, like a student, like a little buddy and a big buddy…and we would discuss it with the [PAWs] bookmarks [from the FLP]." She expressed that her mother's questions to her have also been impacted after participation in the FLP. Specifically, Bianca said prior to participation in the FLP, her mother would ask her 'What was [the book] about?" Bianca conceded that she mostly evaded this question with silence, saying "I wouldn't answer it because I didn't know [what the book was about]". Their conversations during and after the FLP include more specific questions, such as asking about characters or the most important parts of the text Bianca had read. Bianca explained that she shared the new vocabulary words she learned in the FLP with her in–school buddy: "I shared the new words [with my in–school Kindergarten Reading Buddy]...I explained it to him and we pronounced it and we used it in a sentence and now he knows what the word is." It was evident by the excitement on Bianca's face as she described this opportunity to share new information with her in–school buddy that this interaction was motivating.

Paula expressed similar positive impacts of participation on their home literacy interactions in her interviews. In an interview describing her interactions with Bianca prior to participation she said,

> "Before I would say, go read...and I didn't pay attention. I would ask Bianca, 'Did you read?' And she would say, 'Yes, Mommy, I read'...and that was it. Now I ask Bianca, what did you read? Who was the most important person in the book? What did you read in the beginning?...What did you like best about the book?[6]"

Paula took the questions in the PAWs strategy and follow up with more–specific questions, such as asking what happened in particular paragraphs and on certain pages, within the beginning, middle, and end of the book. She also asked Bianca to express her thinking about a book she had read, asking about her favorite part, or whether something that happened in the book was positive or negative. She noted, "Sometimes the questions are dry...changing the questions helps the kids express [themselves] more.[7]" In her words, "[The PAWs questioning strategy] only required us to be more patient.[8]" This description suggests that Paula perceived the PAWs strategy to be simple and easy to implement, however the self–reports revealed some inconsistencies in her use of the actual PAWs questions in the first two self–report data points. Perhaps when Paula was being interviewed at the end of the study, her increased frequency in discussion using the

---

[6] Ibid.
[7] Ibid.
[8] Ibid.

PAWs questions related to the end of the FLP, in which she reported more instances of discussion on the self–report.

Bruno and Lorenzo.

Bruno was a fourth grade male at Martin Luther King Elementary School (MLK). He and his father, Lorenzo, attended all four Family Literacy Program sessions. Both Bruno's and Lorenzo's first language was Spanish. They communicated to one another in Spanish throughout the FLP. While Bruno was somewhat reticent to share his thoughts about the FLP, with prompting and wait time, Bruno shared his thoughts in a long, and rather drawn out, interview. He spoke mostly in very short phrases. I repeated back to him his response to get more clarity. Most of our conversations followed this pattern. Lorenzo, on the other hand, readily offered his thoughts about the program.

Participation in the FLP. Bruno shared that initially he was not interested in participating in the FLP. He expressed concern that he would be bored during the program and tired due to it being held in the evening. Reluctantly, Bruno shared he did want to expand his English vocabulary at the FLP, similar to ways he had been learning new words in school, saying "[I wanted] to learn new words…[like in Reading Buddies]."

Lorenzo was very motivated to improve Bruno's reading development. He explained that sometimes he takes Bruno and his other children to the library, but struggles "to choose which books are the best for them, for their age." Lorenzo recalled picking books that were too hard for Bruno previously. As such, Bruno expressed his frustration with these choices. He shared his perspective that some parents did not participate for a variety of reasons, including work schedules and a difference in

prioritizing their children's reading development. He said "Honest with you, I think some parents, they don't have time 'cause they working too much. And other parents, they don't care about the children….'cause I know a lot of parents [and] they don't do nothing about it. They don't even find out what [their children are doing] in school." Lorenzo shared his motivation to impact the school's reading scores as a whole, not just his own children's achievement. He expressed disappointment with the number of parents in attendance because he thought it is the families' job to work to improve the school as a whole. And this is difficult if only a few parents participate with consistency.

Features of the FLP. Bruno expressed that he enjoyed the similar format of the FLP to the in–school program, saying "It was like I was a little buddy and he was a big buddy". Bruno had a particularly challenging time expressing his thoughts about features of the FLP beyond the comparison to the in–school reading program. He seemed reluctant to share his thoughts and somewhat uncomfortable in the one–on–one interview with just himself and an adult. Although I tried several tactics, rephrasing questions and asking questions about himself to build rapport, it remained difficult to draw out his thoughts on what he most enjoyed and what he thought could be improved about the program.

Lorenzo thought the most productive time of the FLP occurred when just parents were with the instructors. He explained without the distraction of children, parents focused and concentrated, were able to ask questions of the instructors, and understand the strategy conveyed. He said, "I think with just the parents [was the most helpful part of the sessions]. 'Cause everybody was concentrating and focused on all the information." However, when the children joined the parents for practice, he thought it

became more chaotic. Videos and observations notes of the FLP session show that Lorenzo did readily raise his hand to ask questions during the content portion of the program or with the children present. He suggested the format would have been improved if we started with both children and parents at the beginning and explained the component of the strategy with everyone present. Then, he suggested the children return to the care of the teachers in training to allow for questions from the parents to the instructors. Finally, the children would rejoin the group for practice. He said questions arose once the activity was explained with the children present. However, the increased amount of people in the room made clarification difficult. In addition, he thought a second opportunity to ask questions and receive clarifications following the practice session with the children would have been helpful. Overall, Lorenzo thought the program needed to be longer, each night and over the course of four sessions, saying "I love this program…[but] the program you guys did is too short."

Bruno and Lorenzo spoke to one another in both Spanish and English. By his choice, I completed his initial interview with Lorenzo in English. During this interview, Lorenzo expressed his concern that his own English skills were not at a level that he felt competent to support his son's academic growth. Bruno said he often helped his dad with English by correcting pronunciation and vocabulary use. Bruno said he and his father often discussed the English texts Bruno read for school in English. Bruno shared that his mother does not speak English and at their dinner table they always spoke in Spanish in order to provide time to converse in Spanish together. Lorenzo supported the real–time Spanish/English translation of the FLP. He said that although he can converse in English,

the technical terms of the FLP would have been difficult to understand without the Spanish translation.

Literacy interactions and the FLP. Bruno shared his father engaged him in discussion about text with the questions from the FLP frequently. He explained that he often reads aloud to his dad in English, and his father frequently stops to ask him probing questions about his reading. In their discussions, Bruno and his father, Lorenzo, covered mostly explicit questions. For example, Lorenzo often asks Bruno to use the text features of the cover, the table of contents, and pictures within the text to describe what Bruno thinks to be the topic of the text.

Lorenzo's self–reports showed implementation of the PAWs questions on a weekly, but minimal basis. The highest number of days Lorenzo reported using the specific question in a week was twice (see Table 4.3). This could be connected to Lorenzo feeling certain aspects strategy easier to implement than others. In an interview, Lorenzo shared that he found some of the questions easier to implement with his son Bruno than others. In a similar description to what Bruno shared in his interview, Lorenzo said the Preview questions, explicit questions about text features, were simple to discuss with Bruno. Lorenzo said "The Preview part that's what I like the best." He thought that the Preview questions allowed Bruno to ensure he was interested in a text he had chosen to read, which in turn supported his comprehension, saying "[The Preview questions are helpful because Bruno] reads it more carefully and [tries] to understand exactly." Although Bruno did not share this, Lorenzo conveyed that Bruno practiced the reading comprehension questions from PAWs with his younger brother. He thought the

discussions between himself and Bruno, and Bruno and his younger sibling, contributed to reading progress for Bruno.

Natalia and Carolina.

Natalia was a fourth grade female at Martin Luther King Elementary School (MLK). She attended all four Family Literacy Program sessions with her mother, Carolina. Both Natalia and Carolina's first language was Spanish. They communicated with one another in Spanish throughout the duration of the FLP, although Carolina and Natalia's interviews were conducted mostly in English, given their respective command of English conversational skills. Natalia and Carolina readily and willingly expressed their thoughts about the FLP. Carolina, proved to be highly participatory throughout the duration of the FLP. She sat in the front of the room during each session and frequently offered her thoughts and input throughout the evenings.

Participation in the FLP. Expanding her knowledge of both the PAWs and PET strategies, from the in–school Reading Buddies program, particularly motivated Natalia to participate in the FLP. Natalia expressed that the discussions with her reading buddy in school helped her understand what she read. The FLP, she hoped would thus improve her skills to "be a better buddy." Natalia also added, "I felt good [about participating] because I was ready to learn new things." She thought that the FLP would build upon her knowledge from Reading Buddies. Natalia offered that some of her friends' parents could not attend the FLP due to work commitments; adding that others may not fully understand that children need help reading from their parents.

Carolina shared her main motivation for participating in the FLP was to assist her daughter's reading development. When describing her knowledge prior to the program,

she said "I am frustrated because it is difficult to me. Because I am not a teacher." She explained her desire for simple and clear strategies to allow her to assist Natalia's reading. Carolina shared she watches Natalia have more difficulty in reading than her older siblings. She has been at a loss for how to best support her progress. Carolina shared many of the families were undocumented citizens. Parents may have feared that participation in the FLP would be communicated to police or immigration officials, and many of the families are undocumented citizens. She offered, "People are scared, you know." It may have allayed families' fears and been less intimidating if prior to the program it had been made clear as to who ran the program and who would be in attendance.

Features of the FLP. Natalia found the practice opportunities with her mom during the FLP to be helpful to her comprehension. She compared the times during which she practiced the comprehension questions and learned vocabulary words with her mother to the in–school Reading Buddies program. Natalia explained "the more you ask and answer questions the better you get at reading," and that this kind of asking and answering questions occurred during discussions using the PAWs strategy with her mother at the FLP. For planning future FLPs, Natalia suggested that practice could occur between two of the children rather than just between parents and children. Natalia felt the parent–child pairs made her a "little buddy," and that increased opportunities with other children at the FLP would alleviate that feeling.

Carolina found the PAWs strategy to be the most helpful portion of the FLP. She explained that the bookmarks with questions were a tangible and easily implemented strategy between her and her daughter. Having the precise and specific language to use

with her daughter helped her "feel stronger when reading with [Natalia]." Her frequency of use in the self–report surveys further underscored Carolina's feelings about the PAWs strategy. She reported using each respective PAWs strategy questions, corresponding to the learned portion from the preview week, five times per week on all three self–reports (see Table 4.3). The videos and observation notes of the FLP sessions demonstrated Carolina readily engaged in practice of the strategy with Natalia and asked clarifying questions to the instructor. She would often explain to other parents around her in the sessions to help them implement the strategy with their child.

Carolina had several suggestions for designing future iterations of the FLP, including increasing the time, having smaller groups, and adding more practice time between parents and their children. Regarding duration, Carolina said, "I think the [FLP needed] more time…[If it was longer] more practice with reading with the kids [could have been included]." Carolina expressed that increased time of the program could result in increased practice time using the PAWs questions between parents and their children. Although she expressed that other parents would have benefitted from participation in the FLP, she felt smaller groups of parents and children would have allowed for more meaningful discussion. They would have also allowed for increased feedback from instructors to each parent–child focal pair. Carolina also felt a need for increased transparency between the research team and the participants. Her suggestion stemmed from her thoughts on why some parents may not have participated in the program. She suggested bolstering the level of awareness for parents about who is running the program and dispelling any concerns about immigration reporting. She said,

> "I think you guys need to be more open with the parents. The parents, they need to know who are you…Especially in the paper where you guys give it. And catch one point, you guys say about, talking about the interview…and people are scared because imagine [you] are serious, you know, a lot of people that about the police, about the immigration, about this, about that, investigating your life, you know."

Carolina and Natalia communicated entirely in Spanish to one another. However, Natalia reads in English to her mom at home. Carolina thought the real–time Spanish translation was most helpful to ensure parents received the information accurately. Carolina noted she experiences frustration when she does not know the meaning of an English word in Natalia's school–related reading.

Literacy interactions and the FLP. Natalia expressed she engaged frequently in discussions with her mom using the PAWs questions. She explained that as she read in English to her mom at home, her mom stopped to ask her different questions, both explicit (i.e. What do you see on the cover?) and implicit (i.e. What do you think is going to happen next?). Natalia thought that this kind of discussion increased her understanding of the text, contending, "(W)hen you have to answer a question, it shows what you know." Discussion allowed Natalia to express meaning she gleaned from text.

Carolina shared that the targeted PAWs strategy allowed for her to easily engage in her daughter's reading development. It should be noted that she said some parts of the strategy were easier to use than others. She found the Preview, or before–reading, questions simple to implement with her daughter and particularly helpful for Natalia to ready herself for reading. In her own words: "[The Preview questions] helped because they are completely clear questions [for Natalia to answer]." Some of the more implicit

questions, particularly those targeting the skill of summarizing, were challenging to implement. Her daughter had difficulty understanding and answering them such questions.

Analysis Across Focal Pairs.

Following my initial analysis of the data for each focal pair, I identified patterns of similarity and difference between the three focal pairs in their experiences and attitudes related to the FLP across the three emergent themes. Miles and Huberman (1994) describe two specific reasons for utilizing analysis across focal pairs in qualitative studies: (1) to expand understanding, and (2) to strengthen generalizability. Regarding the former reason, to expand understanding and explanation, Miles and Huberman (1994) explain that through the use of a design with multiple focal pairs, in which a researcher can look both within and across focal pairs, looking for both commonalities and differences between focal pairs intensifies our understanding of a phenomenon. While qualitative research is not suited to generalizability in the same sense as quantitative research, Miles and Huberman (1994) acknowledge that the question of generalizability does not disappear. The authors suggest simply adding focal pairs does not answer the pressing question about whether findings occur beyond a specific focal pair. Rather, it is in the analysis across focal pairs that a researcher identifies similarities and differences both between and among focal pairs to draw out theories surrounding specific phenomena (1994).

Participation in the FLP. All participants expressed a variety of factors that motivated them to participate in the FLP. In general, students in each focal pair expressed their desire to learn tangible ways improve their own reading development,

while their parents largely shared the desire to support their children's reading development as reasons to attend the FLP sessions.

All three students, Bianca, Bruno, and Natalia, expressed a desire to learn new vocabulary words as the major motivating factor to participating in the FLP. Natalia contended "(T)he hardest thing about being a buddy is when you're reading something and you don't know a word." She hoped that she would increase her vocabulary to address situations like the one she described by attending the FLP sessions with her mother. She explained having an expanded vocabulary helps when she is stuck on something while reading. Natalia also expressed the desire to deepen her understanding of the strategies she learned in Reading Buddies. By an increased understanding of the PAWs and PET strategies, Natalia hoped to become a "better buddy" for her in–school partner. Although it was more difficult to draw out responses from Bruno in our interview, he shared his favorite part of the FLP was learning new vocabulary words. Indeed, Bruno recalled several of the new words we learned in the FLP sessions during our interview. Bianca echoed her peers in that her main desire for participation was also to expand her vocabulary. Bianca even shared the new vocabulary from the FLP sessions with her in–school buddy. Overall, the three students within the focal pairs shared similar motivations for participating in the FLP.

Generally, each parent desired to bolster his or her child's reading development by participating in the FLP. However, one parent differed in the particular aspect of reading she was most focused on for her child. Carolina and Lorenzo shared a desire to support literacy development for their child at home in general. They sought specific strategies to implement at home with their child. Carolina said, "I am frustrated [with

helping my daughter, Bianca], because it's difficult for me. Because I am not a teacher." The third parent, Paula, had a more specific goal for participation in the FLP: she wanted to help support her daughter's interest level in reading.

When I engaged in discussion with the parent–child focal pairs in interviews about what might impede others from participating in the FLP, they offered several possibilities. Bianca, the student in the first focal pair and Paula's daughter, explained that at least one of her friends from school could not participate due to her parent's work schedule and a general lack of interest of participating in school events. Bianca said, "Well one of my friends, Katia, she told me she couldn't come [the first] three [nights] but the last one she came with us. She told me she couldn't come because her mom was working and her dad just doesn't like going to school...to talk with a lot of people so they didn't come." Both Carolina and Lorenzo suggested that other families did not participate for the following reasons: fear of immigration officials, demanding work schedules, and lack of desire.

Carolina explained specifically that other parents likely did not know enough about the research staff and were concerned about being undocumented in the United States. She shared that the flyer for the FLP included a mention about participating in an interview. This may have alarmed parents because, "(T)hey imagine it is serious, you know, a lot of people think about the police, about immigration...investigating your life." According to Carolina, this fear and lack of knowledge about the research staff implementing the FLP prevented other families from participating. Lorenzo discussed other barriers to participation, including demanding work schedules and lack of interest in supporting literacy development, saying "Honest with you, I think some parents, they

don't have time 'cause they working too much. And other parents, they don't care about the children….'cause I know a lot of parents [and] they don't do nothing about it. They don't even find out what [their children are doing] in school [sic]." In sum, a variety of factors, both motivating and impeding, impacted families' participation in the FLP.

Features of the FLP. Participants across the three focal pairs shared a wide breadth of feedback related to the design of the FLP. Feedback included both particularly well–designed features of the FLP as well as suggestions for improving others. Some of the features participants favored included the practical and easily–implemented PAWS and PET strategies, modeling how to use the specific parts of the both the PAWS and the PET strategies, the parallel format of the FLP to the in–school reading intervention, and the real–time Spanish/English translation. Suggestions for improving the FLP design included increased opportunities to learn new vocabulary, increased duration and frequency, changes related to group size, more practice time for parent–child dyads, and increased transparency for parents about the research team.

All participants seemed particularly content with the design of both the PAWs and PET strategies. Parents appreciated what they viewed as a practical and easy–to–implement strategy for use outside school. The children liked the complementary nature of the FLP to the in–school reading intervention of Reading Buddies. Feedback related to both the easiest and most difficult portions of PAWs implementation was consistent across all parents. All three parents reported the Preview, or before–reading, questions to be easiest to engage in with their children. The Wrap It Up, or after–reading, questions, were the most difficult. Carolina shared specific comments on the language of the questions in PAWs, saying she thought it was very kid–friendly and easy for her daughter

to understand. Students Bruno and Natalia, compared practicing the PAWs and PET strategies with their parents during the FLP sessions to times when they worked as a big buddy to their little buddy during in–school Reading Buddies sessions. Participants thought the real–time English–Spanish translation during the FLP session to be a positive feature of the FLP.

All three parent–child focal pairs consisted of English language learners who spoke to one another either primarily/entirely in Spanish. Parents across all three focal pairs discussed their ELL status. Parents Carolina and Lorenzo noted feeling their English skills were sometimes inadequate for supporting their children's literacy development. These two parents had notably high language skills in spoken English, often switching between speaking in English to me and Spanish to my research colleague during the FLP sessions. The third parent, Paula, did not comment on her feelings about her level of English proficiency. She did however mention the FLP increased her confidence when discussing texts with her daughter in Spanish. Overall, utilizing Spanish–English real–time translation in the design of the FLP was reported on positively across this study's three focal pairs.

Parents and children across all three focal pairs reported beneficial features of the FLP, including the practical and easy–to–implement PAWs and PET strategies, the amount of modeling from the instructors during the sessions, the parallel format of the FLP to the in–school program, and the real–time translation. Several suggestions for improvement of the FLP were also offered. These included an increased intensity of the program, alteration in group size, and more attention to vocabulary.

Some parents and children seemed more comfortable than others offering suggestions about how to improve the FLP. Both Lorenzo and Carolina suggested the FLP should be increased in length. Indeed, both made note of this four times in their interviews. Another suggestion related to group size, although the comments were not consistent about whether the group size should be larger or smaller. Lorenzo suggested a larger group. Carolina repeatedly (and rather, adamantly) suggested a smaller group. The topic of vocabulary arose in several interviews. Although different factors likely motivated their suggestions, both Bianca and Carolina mentioned a need for increased vocabulary instruction in the FLP. Bianca most enjoyed the vocabulary portion of the program. Carolina reported feeling her vocabulary knowledge sometimes inadequate to support her daughter. Participants suggested these changes would build upon the existing strengths of the FLP.

Literacy Interactions and the FLP. Participants in all three focal pairs reported changes in their literacy interactions as a result of their engagement in the FLP. This occurred in three specific ways: increased frequency of more specific text–level discussions between parent–child dyads, bolstered self–perception related to literacy on both the parent and the child sides, and child–reported generalizations of aspects of the FLP to literacy interactions with siblings and peers. Although this study did not include mechanisms to evaluate the differences in literacy interactions due to participation in the FLP, parents and children reported the differences of their own accord. In particular, parents described having specific dialogue using the discussion questions from PAWs in conversations with their children. The children described literacy interactions with their parents in which they used the PAWs questions. All parents and one child noted ways in

which their self–perception of reading was impacted from their participation in the FLP. The parent participants shared experiencing increased confidence in their capacities to support their child's literacy development due to the new tools learned in the FLP. One child (Bianca, Focal Pair One) shared increased engagement in reading. Finally, across the focal pairs, all of the child participants expressed generalizing the information from the FLP to literacy interactions that included peers and/or siblings. One participant shared the new PET vocabulary words with her in–school reading buddy. The other children described using the PAWs questions with their siblings at home; this could be an important extension for future research. Overall, parents and children described how their literacy interactions were positively impacted by the information and tools learned in the FLP.

Summary.

Overall, the data related to the first research question emphasized several central themes that contribute to an overarching theory related to the phenomena. First, participation in the FLP generally highlights a parental desire to support the literacy development of their child. Second, well–designed family literacy programs for families of ELLs feature a practical strategy, modeled by the instructor, using bilingual delivery. Third, FLPs bolster literacy interactions. These three central findings are used subsequently to describe a theory surrounding the shared phenomenon of this FLP for the included focal pairs, following my discussion of the second research question

Table 4.4 Experiences, Attitudes, and Perceptions of Three Focal Parent–Child Pairs in the FLP Across Emergent Themes

	Participation in the	Features of the FLP	Literacy Interactions

		FLP		and the FLP
Focal Pair One	Bianca (student)	Wanted to learn new vocabulary words Friend couldn't participate due to parents' work schedule	Not enough vocabulary instruction Read in English and discusses in Spanish with mom	Took turns being 'little or big buddy' with sister at home Shared new vocabulary from FLP with her in–school buddy Bored by reading to self
	Paula (parent)	Desired to increase her child's interest in reading	Provided practical strategy Increased her confidence in expressing herself to her child in Spanish about their reading	Engaged in discussion with children about texts Increased confidence in participating in literacy process
Focal Pair Two	Bruno (student)	Wanted to learn new vocabulary words	Likened the FLP format to the in–school reading intervention Switches between Spanish and English at home frequently	Practiced the questions with his younger sibling
	Lorenzo (parent)	Sought concrete strategies for supporting his children in literacy Long work hours prevented other families from participating	Needed to be increased in length Feels his English skills are insufficient to support his children	Specifically found the Preview part of the strategy to help his son get ready to read Was unsure how to choose books for children
Focal Pair Three	Natalia (student)	Desired to expand knowledge of Reading Buddies strategies	Liked practice opportunities with parent during the FLP Likened the FLP format to the in–school reading intervention Reads in English and discusses in Spanish	Discussion with mom encourages her to 'stop and think' about the text Increased confidence in extracting meaning from text

Carolina (parent)	Wanted specific information she could use to support her daughter's reading Immigration fears kept others from participating	Found the modeling portion to be especially helpful Does not always know the English vocabulary in her daughter's reading	Uses the question strategy at home with her daughter

Findings for Research Question Two

How does what families learn in a family literacy program align with at–home literacy interactions?

For my second research question, I wanted to understand how the activities in the FLP fit into the landscape of each family's unique home literacy environment. In order to address my second research question, I used several data sources. These included: parent and child interviews and the parent questionnaire. The parent questionnaire was completed at the outset of the FLP, specifically, during dinner on the first night, prior to the start of any of the FLP content. It was intended as a snapshot of a family's pre–existing literacy practices. All parents completed the questionnaire in Spanish and had the opportunity to ask clarifying questions of the research staff about the document as needed. In addition, research staff read aloud the questionnaire in Spanish at individual tables to small groups of parents. Although I was mainly interested in the qualitative interview data sources, the parent questionnaire allowed me to triangulate the information from the interviews with another data source. I revisited the initial coding stage for the interviews and video recordings and used the lens of home literacy interactions and activities to keep relevant conceptual categories from the previous list of eight. I focused on two categories that provided information directly related to this research question, and

connected directly to the parent questionnaire: Literacy Interactions at Home and Bilingualism (see Table 4.5). I provided the data for each focal pair from the connected items on the questionnaire in Table 4.6. I focused on data within these two categories. This allowed me to concentrate on the descriptions of literacy interactions at home to understand how knowledge and experiences in the FLP aligned with families' home literacy interactions.

Table 4.5 Conceptual Categories and Codes for Research Question 2

Conceptual Categories	Identified Codes
Literacy Interactions at Home	Playing 'school' Paired reading with parent Paired reading without discussion pre–FLP Parent asks implicit and explicit questions from FLP Enjoys shared reading experience Mimics Reading Buddies Program with sibling at home Probing children about what they liked best about a book, sequencing Uses context clues for unknown vocabulary (i.e. pictures) Uses dictionary for unknown words and then explains to children Discussing with parent encourages child to stop and think about the text Extended discussion questions from FLP Added variety to format from FLP
Bilingualism	Discusses reading in Spanish at home Reads in English at home Language of school Discusses texts in English with parent Spanish at the dinner table One parent doesn't speak English Corrects parent's English mispronunciations and uses Feels English skills aren't proficient Uses dictionary for unknown words and then explains to children

The parent questionnaire (see Appendix C) included a wide breadth of questions, only some of which are used as data for this research sub–question. I included data from

the questionnaire related to the family literacy environment, namely: frequency and duration of child independent reading (Questions 4 and 5); frequency of paired reading (Question 8); instances of general and/or specific discussion related to both texts a child read independently or texts from paired reading (Question 9); and number of books for children to read in the home (Question 12). All of these items are included in descriptions of home literacy environment (HLE; (Johnson et al., 2008, p. 446). In the following sections I discuss the findings both within and across focal pairs. For each focal pair, I began with the results from the questionnaire. Parents completed the questionnaire at the outset of the study. I then discussed how that related to information shared in the interviews. I discuss the two conceptual categories, Literacy Interactions in the Home and Bilingualism concurrently, as opposed to in succession. I did this because most literacy interactions relate to the language of choice, and I wanted to have the freedom to discuss this relationship.

Table 4.6 Parent Questionnaire HLE–Related Data by Focal Pair

Focal Pair	Frequency child independent reading	Duration of child independent reading	Instances of general discussion from child independent reading	Instances of specific text–based discussion from child independent reading	Frequency of paired reading	Instances of general discussion from paired reading	Instances of specific text–based discussio n from paired reading	# of books in the home
Bianca & Paula	1–2 times per week	About a hour	No	No	Once or twice a month	No	Yes	0–2 books
Bruno & Lorenzo	6 or more times per week	Less than an hour	No	No	Almost daily/daily	Yes	No	21–40 books
Natalia & Carolina	3–5 times per week	About an hour	No	Yes	Almost daily/daily	Yes	Yes	More than 40 books

Bianca and Paula.

Literacy interactions at home and bilingualism. Paula, Bianca's mother, completed the parent questionnaire at the outset of the study. She reported that Bianca read independently at home for about an hour once or twice a week. Following Bianca's independent reading, Paula reported that she and her daughter did not typically discuss Bianca's reading. Together they participated in paired reading once or twice per month. After instances of paired reading, Paula shared that she and Bianca engage in discussion about the text they are about to read/have read. These discussions were specific text–based in nature as opposed to more general dialogue. Finally, Paula reported that they have 0–2 books in their home. The self–reported information in this questionnaire aligns with both parent and student interviews related to discussion about texts.

Following the conclusion of the FLP, Bianca shared that she and her mom discuss texts that Bianca has read. They speak in Spanish together and her mom asks both explicit and implicit questions about the texts. She said, "When we would go to sleep, we read to my mom and [she] asks us questions about the book. I [talk to] her in Spanish, but I read it to her in English." Bianca also explained that she often practices reading and vocabulary, and discusses texts at home with her younger sister. She noted,

> "We started using the PET strategy at home. I would read to my sister sometimes and she would read back to me and she wouldn't know what the word is...and we would use the PET strategy...We play teacher sometimes and we actually read the books and discuss it with the [PAWS questions] on the bookmarks."

According to Bianca, these types of literacy interactions and discussions, which did not occur frequently prior to the FLP, helped her better comprehend what she read and

expanded her understanding of vocabulary. In her interview, Paula corroborated Bianca's information that they did not have discussion similar to those she described prior to the FLP.

Paula explained in her interview that prior to participation in the FLP, she wasn't sure how to support daughter's literacy development. However, from the FLP Paula shared she is more confident in her ability to discuss texts with her daughter, both with increased frequency and knowledge of the questions to ask of her daughter's reading. She said, "With the bookmark…I feel stronger…reading with my daughter[9]." Taken together, the questionnaire and the interviews highlighted both Paula and Bianca's and Bianca and her sister's rich family literacy interactions outside of school, the positive impact of participation in the FLP on their interactions, and varied text–based discussion is not reliant on a wide breadth of in–home reading materials.

Bruno and Lorenzo.

Literacy interactions at home and bilingualism. At the beginning of the study, Lorenzo, Bruno's father, filled out the parent questionnaire. His responses highlighted that Bruno read independently six or more times per week for less than an hour each time. However, they did not engage in any discussion related to Bruno's reading. Lorenzo shared that he and Bruno used paired reading on a nearly daily basis, and prior to and following these instances. They engaged in general discussions about a text both before and after each paired reading. Lorenzo reported they have between 21 and 40 books in their home. In post–FLP interviews with Lorenzo and Bruno, they both

---

[9] Ibid.

highlighted discussion as a frequent home literacy practice engaged in by both Bruno and Lorenzo and Bruno and his younger sibling after Bruno read aloud.

Bruno typically read aloud to Lorenzo in English and then together they discussed in English what he had read. Bruno explained that because the language of the school is English, he and his father talked in English. However, Bruno's mother communicated only in Spanish and when the family is together, such as at the dinner table, Spanish was used.

Lorenzo switched between English and Spanish quite readily. He completed the questionnaire using the Spanish translation. Although he expressed a lack of confidence in his English skills, he chose to be interviewed in English. Bruno revealed in his interview that his father began utilizing the PAWs reading comprehension questions in post–reading discussion. Lorenzo described a similar interaction between himself and Bruno after reading. Lorenzo cited additional interactions in which Bruno asked the PAWS questions to his younger sibling after reading. Overall, Lorenzo and Bruno shared multiple family literacy interactions, including paired reading between parent and child, reading discussion between parent and child and between siblings. They also reported having access to books in their home.

Natalia and Carolina.

Literacy interactions at home and bilingualism. Carolina reported in the questionnaire that her daughter Natalia read on her own three to five times per week for about an hour. They engaged in paired reading almost daily. Carolina and Natalia discussed texts that Natalia read on her own in general, and they discussed more specific text–related questions prior to and following paired reading. They have over 40 books in

their home. In their post–FLP interviews, Natalia shared specific implicit and explicit questions her mother asks her, and Carolina described the ways in which she engages her daughter in discussion. For example, Natalia said that her mother frequently asks her questions including, "What do you see on the cover? What do you think the book is going to be about?" prior to reading, and " What do you think is going to happen next?" When Natalia used the PET strategy at home and encountered a word she did not know, she noted, "At home [when reading]...we talked about different kinds of words, we pronounced, we explained, and we tried it out." Utilizing these strategies, Natalia and Carolina engaged in literacy interactions at home using both English and Spanish.

Natalia reads to her mom in English. Their discussions, however, are typically in Spanish. Carolina has solid conversational English skills. As such, she preferred to be interviewed in English. During the FLP, Carolina frequently switched between Spanish and English. Both Natalia's and Carolina's interviews revealed that their discussions about texts include a variety of questions, many of which were reading comprehension questions from the PAWS strategy. The interviews with Carolina and Natalia and the questionnaire provide a window into their varied home literacy environment and highlight their access to many books.

Analysis Across Focal Pairs.

I conducted an analysis across all focal pairs to identify points of similarity and difference between the three focal pairs in their home literacy experiences, how knowledge from the FLP fit into their home literacy practices, and how families used English and Spanish in their home literacy interactions. As described previously, Miles

and Huberman (1994) recommend this analysis to both widen the researcher's understanding and to strengthen the generalizability of findings.

Literacy interactions at home and bilingualism. The focal pairs presented three unique home literacy environments, and all three focal pairs reported engaging in discussion about reading at the outset of the FLP. Points of intersection for these three focal pairs included:

- all children practiced independent reading (60 minutes or less per instance);
- all parents reported instances of paired reading with their child;
- all parents reported engaging in discussion with their child about books they read together;
- all families have books in their homes;
- families use a mixture of Spanish and English for both reading and discussion;
- and parents used both implicit and explicit reading comprehension questions from the FLP in reading–related discussion at home.

The three focal pairs displayed the following differences:

- frequency of each child's independent reading time;
- frequency of paired reading between parent and child;
- instances of reading discussion between siblings;
- and quantity of books in the home.

I did not include differences in general versus specific text–based discussion. In hindsight, when reading the questionnaire, I thought it quite possible that parents may or may not have interpreted the differences between these two types of discussion consistently. For example, parents may not have consistently seen differences in

questions such as “What are you reading?” (i.e. a general question about reading) different from “What do you think is going to happen next in the book?” (i.e. a specific text–based question).

Each respective parent shared that Bianca, Bruno, and Natalia practiced independent reading on a regular basis outside of school. However, students differed in frequency of instances of independent reading, from once or twice per week to several times per week or almost daily. Although it was noted that instances of independent reading included reading for school–related tasks at home, it is possible that Paula did not include this reading. She thus possibly misrepresented the amount of independent time for Bianca. This seems likely given that homework for all fourth graders at MLK included twenty minutes of reading each night. Similarly, each parent reported reading together with his or her child. The frequency of his activity between focal pairs differed. For example, Paula reported once or twice monthly paired reading with Bianca. Lorenzo and Carolina reported almost daily paired reading with Bruno and Natalia, respectively.

Most notable is that at the outset of the FLP, prior to any delivery of material, all parents shared that they regularly discussed texts they have read with their child. Although frequency of this activity varied between parent–child pairs, it provided a foundation on which parents could build the targeted discussion–based reading comprehension strategy from the FLP. Teaching a version of an activity that aligned with families existing interactions may have increased their capacity to use the strategy at home. Carolina reported she engaged in discussion about texts both paired reading as well as when her daughter Natalia read independently. Two focal pairs discussed instances of reading discussions between siblings at home. Lorenzo cited these instances

between Bruno his sibling. Bianca explained her interactions with her younger sister. Finally, each focal pair varied markedly in the reported number of books in the home, from 0–2, 21–40, or 40 or more books. Although this is only one aspect of the home literacy environment, research suggests it is a notable one (Park, 2008; Pucci & Ulanoff, 1998; Snow, Burns, and Griffin, 1998). Further, the role of Spanish and English was consistently reported to vary based on reading or speaking across the focal pairs.

Each parent chose to complete the Spanish version of the questionnaire and indicated Spanish as their first language. Across the interviews, children and their parents reported that children read English texts, both in episodes of paired and independent reading. Yet both parents and children noted a mixture of both English or Spanish text discussion. Bruno and his father Lorenzo often discussed texts in Spanish. Natalia and Carolina and Bianca and Paula used Spanish for their discussions. All of three children chose to use English in their post–FLP interviews. However, parents selected both English and Spanish for their interviews. Specifically, Paula chose Spanish and Carolina and Lorenzo selected English. Across focal pairs, families used both Spanish and English to access text and engage in discussion. The dual use of both English and Spanish in families aligned with the design of the FLP, which utilized real–time translation from native Spanish–speakers. Thus making the design of the FLP suitable and comfortable for families in its alignment to their typical language interactions.

Taken together these focal pairs represented three distinct home literacy environments. On one hand, there are points of intersection between the focal pairs, such as independent and paired reading practice, reading–related discussion, and the use of

Spanish and English. On the other hand, there are points of deviation between the focal pairs, such as frequency of independent and paired reading and number of books in the home. Their experiences and attitudes related to the FLP extended the activities parents reported engaging in at home, specifically related to discussion. All parents shared on the questionnaire they engaged in some literacy–related discussion with their children at beginning of the FLP. In interviews with both parents and children, participants reported that existing discussion was extended through the inclusion of more targeted discussion questions from the FLP.

Summary.

Overall, the data related to this research question highlighted two salient themes. First, the home literacy environments of the included focal pairs spanned a spectrum of literacy interactions and materials, including text–related discussion. This provided a sturdy foundation to which parents could add the targeted discussion–based strategy learned in the FLP. Second, families typically discuss in their first language (Spanish), while children read materials in their second language (English), thus paralleling the format of the FLP. These two central findings, in conjunction with those reported for the main research question, are used in the following section to describe the overarching themes of the study through a theory surrounding the shared phenomenon of this FLP for the included focal pairs.

Central Finding: A Substantive Theory

In this study I examined two research questions: (1) What are families' experiences and attitudes related to a family literacy program, implemented as part of an existing reading intervention, to support children's reading development?; and (2) How

does what families learn in a family literacy program align with at–home literacy interactions? When providing a summary of the findings I relied on Glaser and Strauss' (1967) guidance to use the data to identify a central theory in the final stage of analysis.

Glaser and Strauss (1967) delineated between formal and substantive theory. Substantive theory refers to a set of explanations surrounding phenomena within a specific field. A formal theory can be applied to a broad range of similar topics. In this study, I consider my theory substantive as my set of explanations surrounding the experience of families in an FLP applies specifically to the described FLP for Spanish–speaking families with ELLs. I shaped the following substantive theory from the continuously–emergent themes throughout the data analysis process.

> Families in this study, that included English Language Learners (ELLs), desired to support their children's literacy development through participation in a family literacy program. Participation in the family literacy program empowered parents to deepen their Spanish home literacy interactions related to texts children read in English through the use of targeted reading comprehension questions. Finally, families' implementation of the discussion strategy learned in the FLP complemented and extended their existing home literacy practices.

I used Glaser's (1978) markers of a "good theory" as I wrote my own. These include: (1) the categories used to write the theory are situated within the data; (2) the theory is relevant to the core of what occurred in the study; (3) the theory can be used to explain what occurred in the study; and (4) the theory is modifiable. I utilized the themes that emerged from the data to write an explanatory statement about the experiences and

attitudes of the three focal parent–child pairs included within this study, thus making the statement relevant to the core of what happened within the study. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, the experience of drafting this substantive theory was highly iterative. I aimed to capture the overarching experiences and attitudes of the included focal pairs without omitting important aspects of their collective experience or overly inserting my own expectation of the study. Although I worked to write my substantive theory with care to both of these concerns, I may have fallen short on one or both counts. Because of these possibilities, it is essential to view this theory as iterative and adaptable.

Conclusions

Several important themes emerged from analysis both within and across the three focal pairs for both the main research question and the sub–question. Data from the interviews, video recordings, and parent questionnaire revealed a central theory. *That is, for the three focal families included in this study, participation in the FLP served to both expand and enhance existing rich home literacy environments interactions and empower participants to utilize a strategy outside of the FLP.* Overall, parents and children reported positive experiences from participation in the FLP, including, but not limited to implementing strategies taught in the FLP with their children; seeing their children practice the strategy with siblings; and noting the impact on their children's literacy development.

A variety of factors impacted reasons behind participation for both parents and their children. For example, parents' desire to support their children's reading development and children's desire to expand their English vocabulary. Although parents provided similar logistical feedback that the program needed to be increased in length,

they largely supported the strategy design and delivery. All participants reported utilizing at least some portion of the reading comprehension (PAWS) and/or vocabulary strategy (PET) in home literacy interactions.

Each focal pair was unique in their experience of the FLP and the impact of participation differed for each focal pair, although patterns existed across focal pairs. In particular, according to conversations with both Paula and Bianca, participation in the FLP expanded and extended their literacy interactions by increasing their frequency and specificity of their text–based discussion. Lorenzo and Carolina shared that adding to their repertoire of reading comprehension questions to use with Bruno and Natalia, respectively, enhanced their interactions. Of crucial importance is these enhancements occurred without reliance on a wide breadth of reading materials in their homes. Each focal pair reported varying quantities of texts in their homes for their children to use. In the next Chapter I draw conclusions about the study and my theory that the families in the three focal pairs included in this study already had rich family literacy environments that were strengthened from participation in the FLP as part of an existing reading intervention.

Chapter Five: Conclusions

In this study I examined the experiences and attitudes of three English Language Learner parent–child focal pairs in a bilingual family literacy program. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are families' experiences and attitudes related to a family literacy program, implemented as part of an existing reading intervention, to support children's reading development?
2. How does what families learn in a family literacy program align with at–home literacy interactions?

In the forthcoming sections, I describe contributions, findings, limitations, and implications for the current study. I first explain contributions to the research of the current study. I then summarize my findings in a substantive theory I developed to describe the collective experiences of the three focal pairs in the FLP in this study. Next, I describe the implications of the findings of this study for families, schools, and educational programs. The limitations of this study and suggestions for future research are then iterated. I conclude the Chapter with final thoughts about the study.

Contributions

The current study contributes to the existing body of family literacy research, specifically for families with ELLs. Existing research has demonstrated strong relationships between the following:

- Home literacy environments and measures of decoding and reading comprehension (Sénéchal & Young, 2008);

- Dialogic reading practices between parents and children and vocabulary outcomes (Mol, Bus, De Jong, and Smeets, 2008);
- Number of books in the home and reading development (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1997);
- Frequency of reading and writing at home and children's emergent literacy skills (Purcell–Gates, L'Allier, & Smith, 1995);
- And parents' attitudes towards reading and children's motivation to read (Baker & Sher, 2002).

However, the majority of the studies within family literacy research do not include samples of families with ELLs. Moreover, they do not focus on children above grade three. The current study adds a unique perspective to the existing corpus of literature through its focus on the experience of families with ELLs in a family literacy program.

This study tells the stories of three families' distinct experiences within a family literacy program in which families learned two strategies to add to their toolbox of ways to support their children's literacy development at home. I designed this study to respond to the gaps in the extant research base and to follow several recommendations from the existing literature. Through the careful consideration of each of these gaps and recommendations, this study provides further insight into the ways in which we can support families of ELLs in encouraging their children's literacy development.

Revisiting the Theoretical Framework and Literature Base

This study examined two research questions: (1) What are families' experiences and attitudes related to a family literacy program, implemented as part of an existing reading intervention, to support children's reading development? and (2) How does what

families learn in a family literacy program align with at–home literacy interactions? I summarized the major findings of this particular study within the following substantive theory:

> Families in this study, that included English Language Learners (ELLs), desired to support their children's literacy development through participation in a family literacy program. Participation in the family literacy program empowered parents to deepen their Spanish home literacy interactions related to texts children read in English through the use of targeted reading comprehension questions. Finally, families' implementation of the discussion strategy learned in the FLP complemented and extended their existing home literacy practices.

Rooted in Vygotsky's social–cognitive theory (1978), which I used as a theoretical framework for this study, the text–based discussion strategy taught in the FLP in this study capitalized on discussion between parent and child in order to deepen the child's understanding of a text. In addition, the findings relate to Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory (1986; 1989), which underlies research on family literacy practices and programs. Specifically, the FLP augmented the in–school reading intervention for children by utilizing the home–school connection in which parents added new methods to their existing knowledge about how to support their children's reading development.

According to Vygotsky's social–cognitive theory, individuals construct knowledge through social interaction with one another (1978). Vygotsky (1978) posited that when adults structure activities, children are able to participate in activities of greater complexity than they could on their own. Other researchers' inquiries into family literacy

also utilized social–cognitive theory for a foundational framework (McElvany & Artelt, 2009; Mol, Bus, Jong, & Smeets, 2008; Overett & Donald, 1998; Shanahan, Mulhern, & Rodriguez–Brown, 1995; van Steensel, 2006; Villiger, Niggli, Wanderler, & Kutzelmann, 2012). Discussion between parent and child, facilitated by the parent, served as the basis for the strategy taught within the FLP described in this study. Guided by Vygotsky's (1978) work that children could deepen their understanding of texts they read through discussion with their parent, I tried to assist parents to acquire the language cues, in the form of reading comprehension questions that they could use with their child.

At this study's outset, I sought to create a strategy–based FLP for families with fourth grade ELLs, to build upon the literature base. Similar to the FLPs in other studies, I utilized an in–person format for the FLP in this study (Kim & Guryan, 2010; Overett & Donald, 1998; Villiger et al., 2012). Although Kim and Guryan (2010) implemented the only strategy–based FLP with ELL participants, I utilized several of other elements from all three strategy–based programs in the reviewed studies in the FLP in the current study. These included:

1. Focusing on a single strategy in the FLP (Overett & Donald, 1998);
2. Teaching a questioning–based reading comprehension strategy (Kim & Guryan, 2010; Overett & Donald, 1998; Villiger et al., 2012);
3. Modeling each component for parents (Kim & Guryan, 2010; Overett & Donald, 1998; Villiger et al., 2012);
4. Allowing for practice of the strategy between parent and child during which parents could receive guidance (Kim & Guryan, 2010; Overett & Donald, 1998; Villiger et al., 2012); and

5. Implementing an FLP in conjunction with an in–school reading intervention (Villiger et al., 2012);

These aspects of previously–implemented FLPs were incorporated in the present FLP for ELL participants in order to provide an opportunity to learn specific strategies to support reading development for their children, and allow for at–home integration. Several overarching themes emerged to form a substantive theory about the experiences of three included focal pairs as I worked with the data.

My substantive theory emerged from working within the data, grounded in themes both within and across the included focal pairs. This theory represents a consensus of experience for only the three parent–child focal pairs in this study. However, other studies have previously found that families applied strategies learned in an FLP to their HLE (Peercy, Martin–Beltrán & Daniel, 2013; Shanahan, Mulhern, & Rodriguez–Brown, 1995). Although the theory established in this study should be viewed as specific to the context of this particular study, salient themes emerged that warrant further investigation within the context of other FLPs. These themes contributed to the overall findings of this study. In particular, both parents and children desired to support literacy development. Parents sought out ways to support their ability to do this. Indeed, parents were readily willing and able to implement the practical discussion–based strategies introduced in the FLP. In the following section I discuss the findings of this study across the themes that emerged for both research questions.

Families' Experiences and Attitudes Related to the Family Literacy Program

Analysis of data relevant to the first research question regarding families' experiences and attitudes related to the FLP uncovered three central themes. First,

participation in the FLP generally highlights a parental desire to support the literacy development of their child. Second, well–designed family literacy programs for families of ELLs feature a practical strategy, modeled by the instructor, using bilingual delivery. Third, FLPs bolster literacy interactions. In analyzing the data relevant to my second research question regarding how families' experiences and knowledge learned in the FLP aligned with their home literacy practices, two central themes emerged. First, the home literacy environments of my three focal pairs included a variety of literacy interactions and materials, including discussion, providing a solid foundation to which the discussion–based strategy learned in the FLP could be added. Second, similar to the design of the FLP, families typically discuss in their first language (Spanish), though children read materials in their second language (English). I summarize the findings for these themes in the next section.

Participation in the FLP. The parents in this study, Carolina, Paula, and Lorenzo, demonstrated their desire to support their children's literacy development and their willingness to put forth effort to figure out how to do so. Participating in a family literacy program in and of itself provides some indication of parents' desire and effort to support their children. However, interviews with these parents made clear they wanted to support their children and specifically tried to seek out ways to enhance this capacity. Findings in the present study parallel findings by other researchers that suggest parents, including parents of ELLs, are indeed motivated to support their children's reading development (Auerbach, 1989; Brooker, 2002; Goldenberg, 1987; Ortiz, 2004; Peercy, Martin–Beltrán, & Daniel, 2013).

Two parents, Carolina and Lorenzo, cited interest to learn specific strategies they could implement at home to support their children's literacy development as the major motivation behind participation in the FLP. Similarly, Goldenberg (1987) found parents of ELLs highly capable and interested in learning specific strategies from the school–based reading curriculum to support their children's development. The third parent, Paula, had a more specific goal: she wanted to improve her daughter's interest in reading. It is possible that Paula hoped increasing her daughter's interest level would in turn increase her frequency of reading. This is consistent with other researcher's findings that increased interest level is linked to improved reading skill (Lynch, 2002; Katzir, Lesaux, & Kim, 2008; Morrow & Young, 1997; Park, 2008). Interviews uncovered the motivations to participate differed between parents and children in their specificity related to reading development. For example, parents desired to support their children's literacy development *in general*, while children sought to *specifically* improve their vocabulary knowledge. Regardless, these motivations provided evidence *both* parents and children at the outset of the study placed emphasis on the importance of literacy in their lives. This echoes similar findings in previously conducted research, in which parents of ELLs desired to explore and learn a variety of ways to support their children's reading acquisition (Goldenberg, 1987). Alternatively, parents and children suggested reasons that other families may have foregone participation.

Interviews of both parents and children alluded that other families could not participate due to both logistical challenges (i.e. demanding work schedules) and more practical challenges (i.e. lack of knowledge of the research team; fear of immigration officials). Other researchers have found practical challenges for families of immigrants,

specifically related to the fear of immigration officials (Delgado, Huerta, & Campos, 2012; Hernandez, Denton, & Macartney, 2008). Both reasons indicated that recruitment and planning for the FLP could need improving. I will expand on these opportunities in the subsequent section regarding future research directions.

Features of the FLP. The data from this study provided insight from the parent and child perspective regarding the design of an effective FLP. These insights are important for future research on FLPs, which are often designed without input from individuals who have or who will participate in such programs. The feedback regarding features unveiled a particular strength of the FLP and a need for parents that this FLP did not meet: (1) in general, both the English/Spanish design and the included strategies met parents' and children's needs; (2) the program needed to be increased in intensity and duration.

At the outset of this study, I believed parents' possessed the ability to support their children's literacy development through discussion alone. This is based on previous findings that text–based discussion in the classroom, those between children and children and adults, support reading development (Duke et al., 2011; Murphy et al., 2009). Further, I believed that discussion between parents and children which focused on texts children read for school (or pleasure) in English could occur in their first language, Spanish, with equal benefit. Although research examining discussion in L1 to support literacy in L2 is limited, the existing studies supported this belief (Hancock, 2002; Reese et al., 2000). Previous research suggests children benefit from oral discussion and their discussions do not need to be in the dominant language (i.e. English) in order to deepen their text comprehension (Hancock, 2002; Reese et al. 2000). While the current study did

not seek to identify the direction or the strength of the relationship between discussion in L1 to support literacy in L2, this study highlights that parents and children found this method of supporting reading development to be both manageable and effective. This is similar to the findings of Overett and Donald (1997), in which parents where able to implement the strategy taught in a simple and targeted FLP. Although it may be impossible for the logistics of any given FLP to be free from critique, parents highlighted several pertinent aspects that need to be addressed in future iterations of this and other FLPs. I will explore these critiques in the forthcoming section.

Literacy Interactions. Perhaps the most poignant of all findings from this study, participants reported on the positive impact of participation in the FLP on literacy interactions at home between both parents and children, and the children and their siblings. At a foundational level, the purpose of the FLP included in this study was to increase the out–of–school literacy interactions, through discussion, between parents and children. During interviews, parents highlighted several areas of personal growth in their literacy interactions with their children. Specifically, each parent shared they used the reading comprehension questions learned in the FLP at home with their children in discussion. Parents' use of this strategy outside of the practice opportunities with children in the FLP, demonstrated in both the interview and the Self–Report data, implies that parents felt they understood the strategy taught in the FLP and experienced a certain comfort–level for at home implementation. Paula's comfort level with implementing the reading comprehension questions was evident, when she said, "[The discussion strategy] was very practical for a single mom…And it was very easy [to use], because I didn't

have any idea how to work with them [at the outset of the FLP].[10]" Across all participants, the theme of generalizing knowledge from the FLP into literacy interactions outside of the parent–child dyad emerged.

For example, Bianca shared that she and her sister "…talk about books…We play teacher sometimes and we actually read the books and discuss it with the [PAWs questions] bookmarks." This transfer and generalizing of the use of the strategy from parent–child interactions to child–sibling and child–peer interactions suggested that children had internalized the strategy on some level and were motivated to implement the strategy of their own accord. Peercy, Martin–Beltrane, and Daniel (2013) found a similar *spilling over* of knowledge learned in their FLP to other spheres, including school. Taken together, these findings suggest participation in the FLP, for the included three focal pairs, resulted in a positive impact on their home *and* school (for children sharing the information with peers at school) literacy interactions. In order to understand the experiences of families within the FLP more holistically, I sought to understand how their experiences in the FLP paralleled, and hopefully extended, the ways in which parents reported they supported their children's reading development at home.

Literacy interactions at home and bilingualism. Overall, parents reported both rich and varied home literacy environments, including paired reading between parent and child; children's independent reading; booked–related discussion; and the number of books in the home. The existing literature about HLE highlights how these activities and markers are positively related to reading growth for children, and understanding the

---

[10] Ibid.

landscape of HLEs for the families who participate in FLPs would allow researchers to tap into and build upon their existing knowledge. Parents in the present study likely drew on the resources and practices already present in their home literacy environments as they participated in the FLP and facilitated their ability to apply a strategy learned in a relatively short amount of time in the program. Many of these aspects are included in Johnson et al.'s (2008) exhaustive definition of the term home literacy environment:

> (F)requency with which a parent reads to a child, number of minutes spent reading to a child yesterday, number of books a child owns, frequency with which child asks to be read to, frequency of trips to the library with child, frequency with which mother reads to self, frequency with which father reads to self, amount caregiver enjoys reading to self, child's hours of television viewing per day, and the number of household newspapers, magazines and child magazine subscriptions (Johnson et al., 2008, p. 446).

Although families reported differences in frequency, duration, and quantity of some of these aspects, their descriptions underscore that they came to the FLP with a plentitude of their own knowledge about supporting their children's literacy development. If they gained knowledge from the FLP, as all of the families report they did, it was in addition to their existing knowledge.

Overall, the three parent–child focal pairs in this study reported information regarding their varied home literacy environment and their positive experiences within the FLP. These families were motivated to participate in the FLP in order to add to their existing knowledge about supporting their children's literacy development. Each reports

having done so. In the following section, I describe the implications of the current study for families, schools, and future family literacy programs.

Implications

The implications of this study span three major areas: families, home–school partnerships, and future family literacy programs. The landscape of public education has shifted significantly in the last ten years with the growth of the ELL population in the US (NCES, 2013). This growth calls for teachers and education leaders to understand how to best support the needs of both the students and their families in our public schools. In particular, families must be viewed as collaborators in their children's education and parents and educators need to jointly explore the ways that we can work together to support children's literacy development.

Implications for Families. The parents included in this study shared a desire to support their children's literacy development and sought out ways in which to do this through the FLP. This does not mean that parents who could not participate do not seek out support. It simply means this particular FLP, at the particular time it was offered, was not one of those ways. I think the unique experience of Paula, the mother in Focal Pair One, informs the implications for other families in several ways. Paula shared that prior to participation in the FLP saying, "Before I would say, go read...and I didn't pay attention.[11]" While I think Paula likely underestimated her support of her daughter prior to the FLP, she summed up the strategy from the FLP appropriately when she said, "[The

---

[11] Ibid.

PAWs questioning strategy] only required us to be more patient.[12]" This statement aptly encapsulates the implications of this study for families. That is, families can support their children's reading development by simply having discussions about text using targeted reading comprehension questions in their first language. The ways in which the three included families in this study reported incorporating the strategies from the FLP into their home literacy interactions demonstrate how the simple act of asking certain questions may deepen the conversation surrounding text between parents and children. Further, parents reported adapting the reading comprehension questions to extend the discussion and keep their children engaged. I wanted parents to feel empowered to support their children, so that they could add to their repertoire of strategies to support their children through the simple act of targeted discussion in their native language. This is an extension to the existing literature that demonstrates how supportive literacy practices in L1, for example reading books in Spanish, positively impact L2 reading growth (Hancock, 2002).

Implications for Strong Home–School Partnerships. There are several implications for strong and effective home–school partnerships. Researchers describe how teachers often underestimate or assume that parents of ELLs do not have the capabilities necessary to support their children's literacy development (Brooker, 2002; Goldenberg, 1987). This study demonstrates that parents of ELLs not only have the capability to support their children, but they *already have an existing* repertoire of supportive practices. I contend some teachers and schools would benefit immensely from

---

[12] Ibid.

shifting their thinking to recognize families are active partners in their children's education already and not merely passive supporters. For schools to build effective home–school partnerships educators should first seek out the ways in which families support children at home. In an article for teachers and researchers of ELLs, Taylor (1993) described the deficit model. In the deficit model, implicitly held by many educators, children, and in this case also their families, as empty containers that teachers will with knowledge, and she challenged readers to resist this model when working with families. Rather, Taylor (1993) promoted looking at every household as an educational setting. Effective home–school partnerships would start on much more solid footing if teachers and school leaders began here. While the current FLP was *not* planned to meet the unique needs of the participants based on their motivations and existing knowledge, the program of the FLP allowed some opportunity to share their experiences implementing the reading comprehension strategy at home. In other words, parents were able to hear from one another the successes and struggles they may have experienced working with their children at home, using the pre–determined strategy taught in the FLP. Working alongside parents, by learning from parents and sharing strategies with them, should be a reciprocal process to the literacy development of our children.

Effective home–school partnerships could empower parents to use an activity they already do, such as talking to their children, in order to deepen their children's reading comprehension skills. Although I led the current FLP in this study from the perspective that parents had knowledge to contribute about their home literacy environment, I could have capitalized on this knowledge better by using a more reflexive program model rather than a scripted FLP. Had I designed the FLP to utilize a reciprocal approach, I

could have come closer to meeting the *specific* needs of parents. For example, Lorenzo shared in his post–FLP interview he wanted to know more about choosing appropriate books for Bruno to read. If I started at the outset of the FLP with this information, and didn't have a scripted FLP already written, I could have incorporated information about how to choose appropriate texts or included a visit to the local and school library. Educators could tailor the ways in which they engage in effective home–school partnerships if they gathered information from parents about the ways in which they support their children's reading development and areas in which they would like more information.

Implications for Future Family Literacy Programs. There are several important recommendations that future family literacy programs should take into account in the planning process. Some of these recommendations are programmatic in nature (i.e. the relationship between L1 and L2; increased practice opportunities between parents and children). Others, however, are more logistical in nature, (i.e. timing; duration; transparency). Due to the qualitative design of the current study suggestions came directly from participants in the FLP themselves. This gives particular credence to the suggestions for researchers of future FLPs as they design their programs.

The findings of this study suggest three important considerations for researchers designing FLPs in the future:

- Design programs to teach strategies that utilize discussion in L1 to support literacy development in L2.
- Provide ample unstructured time for parents and children to practice implementation of learned components of the FLP together.

- Explore the relationship between access to literacy materials and parents' ability to use strategies at home with children.

Although this study was not designed to measure the strength or direction of the relationship between discussion in L1 to support literacy development in L2, the findings highlight that parents demonstrated support for their children's literacy development by discussing in Spanish the texts children read in English. Future family literacy programs should further explore this relationship. This is especially true when one considers the ease of implementation for families, the cost–free nature of this strategy, and that the strategy takes a minimal time commitment. Parents and children would also likely benefit from a bulk of the time spent at the FLP sessions practicing the strategy.

All three parents desired more time to practice the strategy with their children, ask questions of the research team, and receive feedback from the instructor. I believe this was due to the fact that families needed more time to process the information, through practice with implementation, during the FLP sessions. In this FLP several supports were put in place for families to participate including serving dinner, providing transportation, having Spanish translation by native speakers, and providing teachers in training to occupy the children as their parents attended the content portion of the FLP. Despite these supports, parents likely needs more time to ask questions and process information with the instructor. Lorenzo suggested the inclusion of a second time in which the teachers in training supervised children away from parents. During this time, he suggested the instructors delivering the FLP content could facilitate a discussion between the parents about what worked and what did not work during the practice time with their

children. Parents could also ask clarifying questions of the instructor prior to leaving the FLP session and trying to implement the strategy at home.

The parents in the three focal pairs in this study reported a wide range of access to literacy materials at home from 0–2 books to more than 40 books. This did not, however, seem to impact parents' ability to engage in rich and varied literacy interactions with their children. This is an encouraging finding from the current FLP, as increased access to materials can be costly. However, future iterations of strategy–based FLPs should explore whether providing materials to families or helping parents pick appropriate books at a library deepens their home literacy interactions and impacts student growth. Other considerations researchers should take into account in future FLPs include logistical suggestions.

Family literacy programs involve an enormous amount of planning. Instructors, researchers, and designers of the programs need to take into account myriad logistical details. Given the care, time, and effort that went into the FLP in the current study, I was particularly interested in how the logistics of the program were received by families and their recommendations for future FLPs. Due to the challenges I experienced with attendance, there are two important logistical implications for future FLPs. One of the suggested barriers to participation from two parents, Lorenzo and Carolina, included concern regarding immigration officials and parents at the school not knowing enough about the team of researchers. In the design of future FLPs it is essential to increase transparency between families and the research team to the fullest extent possible. The goal of increased transparency is for parents to feel comfortable participating and to help foster understanding about the objective of the FLP. Finally, as both children and parents

mentioned the challenges other families' meet regarding demanding work schedules, researchers of future FLPs need to think creatively regarding schedule. Whether FLPs can be offered with both an evening or morning time option, or researchers meet with smaller groups on separate evenings, we need to accommodate families to ensure they have access to programs in which they desire to participate, removing barriers that inhibit their ability to attend (Delgado, Huerta, & Campos, 2012). The following section explores the limitations of the current study and how future research can respond to these limitations.

Limitations and Future Research

As in all research, this study was vulnerable to limitations. The current study examined families' experiences solely within the context of the FLP and relied on self–report to understand families' home literacy interactions. In my second research question, I only sought to understand how families' experiences and knowledge learned in the FLP aligned with their home literacy practices, retrospectively. In hindsight, home visits with each of the families included in this study to observe their literacy interaction would have added an important dimension to data, analysis, and subsequent findings. They are not necessarily applicable to other individuals.

First, although my sample of three focal parent–child dyads offered a rich perspective into their experience of a discussion–based FLP, my sampling technique is limited. All FLP attendees were volunteers. Thus, it is not clear whether these participants are at all representative of families of ELLs in general. Although qualitative research is not equipped for generalizations, as Miles and Huberman (1994) discuss, the need to understand if findings for a specific group of participants are relevant to the

larger population does not dissipate. The results of this study, and the substantive theory I wrote to summarize my findings, should be taken only within the context of the parents and children in my focal pairs. I am not aware if other families, even those whose children attended the same FLP, school, and had ELL status, would have experienced the FLP in a similar manner. Another limitation of this research is related to the design of the FLP.

The choice of the three focal dyads was due to (1) full attendance to the program and (2) consent to, and completion of, all interview data points. Because I did not know at the outset which of the participating families would attend all evenings, I could not choose our focal dyads until the conclusion of the FLP. It would be helpful to have video of these specific focal dyads interacting with one another in addition to the existing video of the entire room. Having video and audio of each focal pair would have enabled me to analyze the specific dialogue used when implementing the PAWs and PET strategy across the four sessions. Similarly, the inclusion of home visits with each family would add to my understanding of features of the families' HLEs and their literacy interactions within the home.

Although I designed a scripted FLP to teach two targeted strategies to support children's literacy development, this did not allow for more organic discussion of families' home literacy environment. If I had started the program with these discussions, and included an in–home observation to add to my understanding of the HLE of each focal pair, I could have augmented the FLP to include information or strategies to meet families' specific needs. My conclusions would be strengthened by seeing families in their homes, outside of the context of this FLP. A home visit would have provided an

opportunity to see how parents implement the strategies from the FLP without the help of research staff and other parents. Thus, the results of this study must be interpreted solely within the context of these five volunteer focal parent–child dyads within this FLP context. Finally, similar to other studies of FLPs, the study was vulnerable to issues of attendance (Timmons, 2008).

The range of duration in FLPs varied markedly in the literature, from an intensive program that delivered 22 hours of instruction over 14 weeks (McElvaney & Artelt, 2009) to a shorter program lasting two weeks with six hours of instruction (Villiger et al., 2012). Despite the length of the current FLP, four weekly 90–minute sessions, falling on the shorter end of the continuum, attendance varied widely across the four nights of the FLP. Only five families attended all nights. Of those families, only those included in this study completed all of the interviews. All three parents in this study said they wished the FLP had been longer. In addition, parents disagreed on whether the group size was just right. Because the attendance across the four nights varied significantly it is difficult to parse out whether the group size was too small or too large. Multiple iterations of FLPs of varying duration and/or varying group size are needed to understand the intricacies of duration of the program and group size.

Final Thoughts

At the outset of the study I wanted parents to feel empowered to use discussion with their children, which occurs naturally in homes, as a tool to support their children's literacy development. I desired to share with parents one way in which they could engage their children in discussion about text that was simple, did not take an inordinate amount of time, and did not cost any money. For this study I focused on three of the

many families I met throughout the FLP. These three families completed the entirety of the program and were candid about their experiences, thoughts, and recommendations about the FLP. Support for families of ELLs, who are learning to navigate home and school languages and cultures, is especially important. Family literacy programs are a relatively simple way to share knowledge with families about how to support reading development. Researchers should continue to study this context to add to our understanding of how parent–child interactions impact student reading growth, including discussions in their native language. The qualitative design of this study allowed me to tell the stories of the three focal families in this study. Nevertheless, parent support for children's literacy development is an ever–continuing process. Future research should investigate whether these findings are similar across a variety of participants.

Appendices

Appendix A: Literature Review

Table 2.1 Definitions for internal, construct, statistical conclusion, and external validity criteria
Table 2.2 Methodological Matrix for Quantitative Studies

Appendix B: Family Literacy Program

Table 3.4 Outline of Family Literacy Program Sessions #2, 3, and 4
FLP SESSION #1 PowerPoint Presentation
FLP SESSION #2 PowerPoint Presentation
FLP SESSION #3 PowerPoint Presentation
FLP SESSION #4 PowerPoint Presentation
FLP SESSION PAWs Strategy Bookmarks

Appendix C: Data Collection

Table 4.2 Coding Map (Enlarged)
Family Questionnaire
Parent Self–Report Sample

Appendix A: Literature Review

Table 2.1 Definitions for internal, construct, statistical conclusion, and external validity criteria

Criterion	Definition
Internal Validity	
Selection Bias	Systematic differences between participant characteristics could also cause the observed effect
Attrition	Possibility that the loss of participants over time reflects bias in the sample (i.e. motivation, persistence, resources, etc.)
Construct Validity	
Mono–Operation Bias	Use of a single operationalization of a construct, as in setting and time, leads to difficulty connecting observed effects to the broader construct
Mono–Method Bias	Use of a single method of observing, as in a single assessment, an operationalization includes that method into the operationalization
Constructs Confounding	Inferences of a construct that represent the study operations do not describe the limited levels of the construct actually studied or the inadvertent inclusion of extraneous variables in the operationalization not in the construct
Statistical Conclusion Validity	
Violation of Statistical Assumptions	Violation of test assumptions causes over– or under–estimation of the size and significance of an effect
Unreliability of Treatment Implementation	Partial implementation of treatment underestimates the effects on participants relative to those who received the full standardized implementation
Low Statistical Power	Sufficient power to detect differences between treatment and outcome
External Validity	
Interaction of Causal Relationship with Units	Effect(s) found with specific units may or may not exist and/or generalize across different units
Interaction of Causal Relationship with Treatment Variations	Effect(s) found with a specific treatment may or may not exist and/or generalize across treatment variations
Interaction of Causal Relationship with Outcomes	Effect(s) found with specific outcome measure/observation may or may not exist and/or generalize across different measures

Table 2.2 Methodological Matrix for Quantitative Studies

Authors	Selection	Attrition	Mono-Operation Bias	Mono-Method Bias	Constructs Confounding	Low Statistical Power	Unreliability of treatment implementation	Violation of Statistical Assumptions	Interaction of Causal Relationship with Units	Interaction of Causal Relationship Over Treatment Variations	Interaction of Causal Relationship with Outcomes
	Internal Validity		Construct Validity			Statistical Conclusion Validity			External Validity		
Mandel Morrow, L., & Young, J. (1997)	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
Overett, J., & Donald, D. (1998)	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Kim, J. S., & Guryan, J. (2010)	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
McElvany, N., & Artelt, C. (2009)	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes
Kelly-Vance, L., & Schreck, D. (2002)	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No
Villinger, C., Niggli, A., Wanderler, C., Kutzelmann, S. (2012)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No

Appendix B: Family Literacy Program Materials

Table 3.4 Outline of Family Literacy Program Sessions #2, 3, and 4

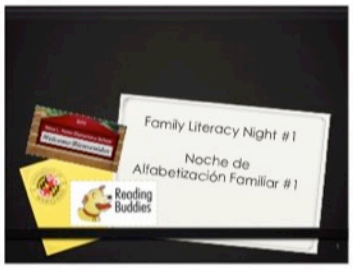
Session	Amount of Time	Topic	Description
FLP Session #2: Before Reading	5 min	Welcome and background	Brief overview of importance of talking to students about what they read to support student reading growth; Stated the purpose of these nights: to give parents a new tool to help their children become better readers and to introduce them to a vocabulary strategy used in the classroom
	5 min	Introduce Target Strategy: Preview	Described what it means to preview text, discussed text features, and how the strategy helps students get ready for reading a book and begin to understand the content they are reading. Used an example (same book throughout sessions): parents previewed the text features of the book they read later with their child to get an idea what it is about. Overviewed how asking students questions helps us to know if they understand a text and helps students to think more carefully about books they are reading.
	15 min	Strategy Questions: Preview	Introduced Preview Strategy Questions: • What do you see on the cover of the book? • Did you see a Table of Contents? • Do the pictures tell you what the book is about? • What do you think you will read about? • What do you think you will read about in this book? • Do you think the book is informational or literature? (Go over these vocabulary words) Distributed to parents a Preview Target Strategy Bookmark with Strategy Questions
	5 min	Model Target Strategy	Viewed instructors' modeling of a parent–child dyad using the Preview Strategy Questions together
	Children join parents in session		
	10 min	Practice Target	Parents and children received a book to practice

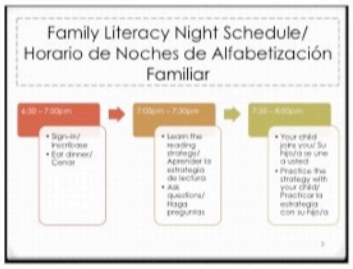
		Strategy: Preview	the strategy. As students explored the text features of the book, parents practiced asking the Strategy Questions. (They eventually took this book home.)
	10 min	PET Strategy	With parents and children present, introduced two new vocabulary words using the Pronounce–Explain–Try It Out (PET) strategy used in Reading Buddies.
	5 min	Home Connection	Encouraged parents to practice the Target Strategy at home with their children before they complete their nightly reading.
	5 min	Welcome, background, & review	Brief overview of strategy learned previous week; Stated the purpose of these nights: to give parents a new tool to help their children become better readers and to introduce them to a vocabulary strategy used in the classroom
	5 min	Introduce Target Strategy: Ask and Answer	Described what it means to check for understanding of the text throughout the reading process, discussed thinking about characters, plot, and predictions help students to see if they understand their reading. Reviewed how asking students questions helps us to know if they understand a text and helps students to think more carefully about books they are reading.
FLP Session #3: During Reading	15 min	Strategy Questions: Ask and Answer	Introduced Ask and Answer Strategy Questions: • What is the *who* or the *what* in the part you just read? • What's most important about the *who* or the *what*? Distributed to parents an Ask and Answer Target Strategy Bookmark with Strategy Questions. Used an example (same book throughout sessions): read aloud a short passage and describe the strategy with already–placed post–it notes.
	5 min	Model Target Strategy: Ask and Answer	Viewed instructors' modeling of a parent–child dyad using the Ask and Answer Strategy Questions together
	Children join parents in session		
	10 min	Practice Target Strategy: Ask and Answer	As read aloud from the text to their parents, parents practiced asking the Strategy Questions, first in places where they've already been planned with post–it notes, and encouraged to do

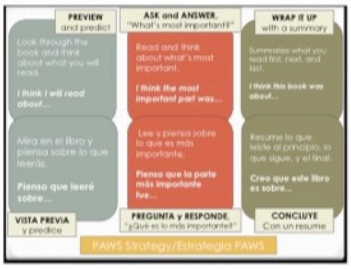
			so in places they think to ask these questions.
	10 min	PET Strategy	With parents and children present, introduced two new vocabulary words using the Pronounce–Explain–Try It Out (PET) strategy used in Reading Buddies.
	5 min	Home Connection	Encouraged parents to practice the Target Strategy at home with their children as their children complete nightly reading.
FLP Session #4: After Reading	5 min	Welcome, background, & review	Brief overview of strategy learned previous week; Stated the purpose of these nights: to give parents a new tool to help their children become better readers and to introduce them to a vocabulary strategy used in the classroom
	5 min	Introduce Target Strategy: Wrap It Up	Described what it means to check for understanding after reading an entire book. Discussed "summary" and how students think about the beginning, middle, and end in order to come up a summary of an entire book.
	15 min	Strategy Questions: Wrap It Up	Reviewed how asking students questions helps us to know if they understand a text and helps students to think more carefully about books they are reading. Introduced Wrap It Up Strategy Questions: • What did you read about first? • What did you read about next? • What did you read about last? • What was the entire book about? Distributed to parents a Wrap It Up Target Strategy Bookmark with Strategy Questions Used an example (same book throughout sessions): discuss how a student could summarize the contents of the entire book using this strategy
	5 min	Model Target Strategy: Wrap It Up	Viewed instructors' modeling of a parent–child dyad using the Wrap It Up Strategy Questions together

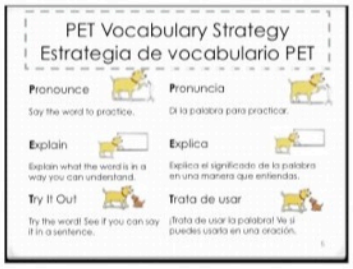
	Children join parents in session		
	10 min	Practice Target Strategy: Wrap It Up	Using a part of the book students had already read, parents practiced asking the Strategy Questions.
	10 min	PET Strategy	With parents and children present, introduced two new vocabulary words using the Pronounce–Explain–Try It Out (PET) strategy used in Reading Buddies.
	5 min	Home Connection	Encouraged parents to practice the Target Strategy at home with their children as their children complete nightly reading. Discussed how parents can use this strategy with books their children are reading in class as part of Reading Buddies to help build their comprehension.

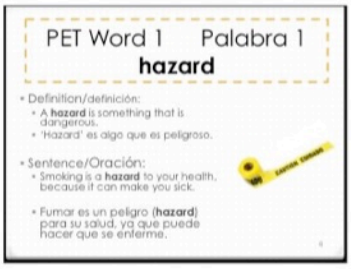
FLP Session #1 PowerPoint Presentation

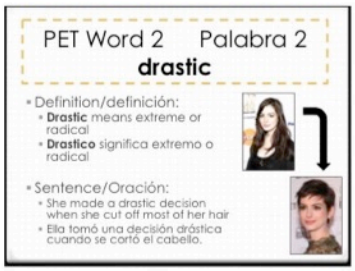


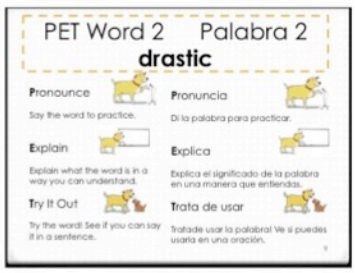




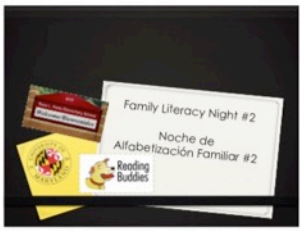


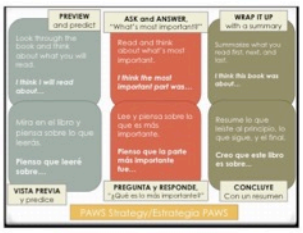


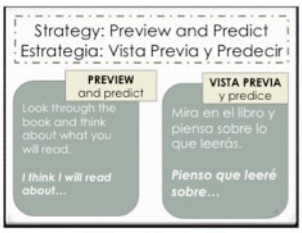


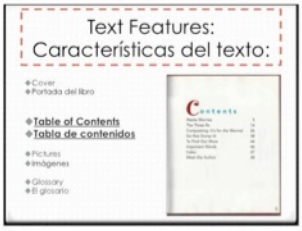


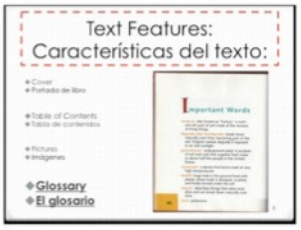
FLP Session #2 PowerPoint Presentation

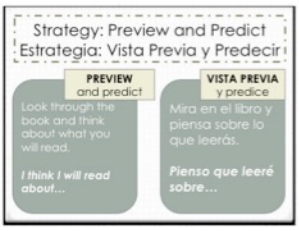


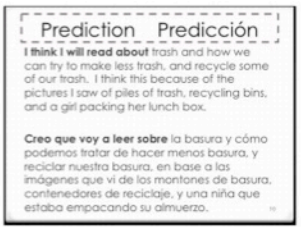


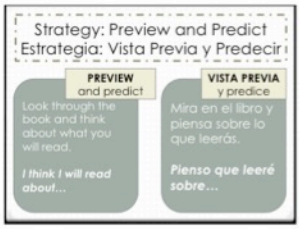


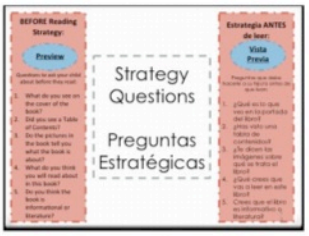






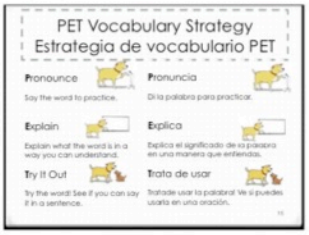




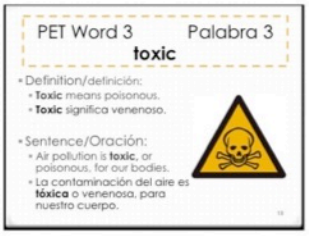

BEFORE Reading Strategy:
Preview
Strategy Questions
Preguntas Estratégicas
Estrategia ANTES de leer:
Vista Previa

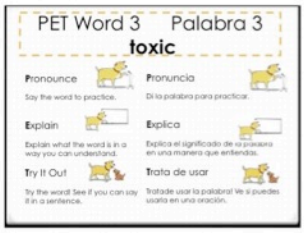
Take a look...
Miren...

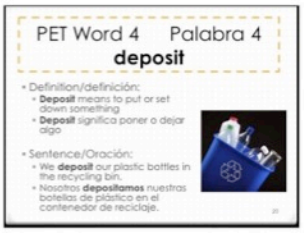
Let's practice!
¡Vamos a practicar!

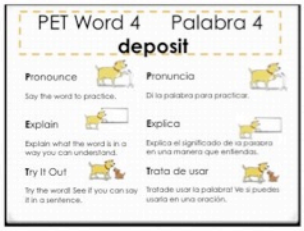

PET Vocabulary Strategy
Estrategia de vocabulario PET
Pronounce
Say the word to practice.
Pronuncia
Di la palabra para practicar.
Explain
Explain what the word is in a way you can understand.
Explica
Explica el significado de la palabra en una manera que entiendas.
Try It Out
Try the word! See if you can say it in a sentence.
Trata de usar
Tratade usar la palabra! Ve si puedes usarla en una oración.

Let's Review!
¡Repasemos!
PET Word 1: hazard
PET Word 2: drastic


PET Word 3 Palabra 3
toxic
Definition/definición:
Toxic means poisonous.
Toxic significa venenoso.
Sentence/Oración:
Air pollution is toxic, or poisonous, for our bodies.
La contaminación del aire es tóxica o venenosa, para nuestro cuerpo.


PET Word 3 Palabra 3
toxic
Pronounce
Say the word to practice.
Pronuncia
Di la palabra para practicar.
Explain
Explain what the word is in a way you can understand.
Explica
Explica el significado de la palabra en una manera que entiendas.
Try It Out
Try the word! See if you can say it in a sentence.
Trata de usar
Tratade usar la palabra! Ve si puedes usarla en una oración.

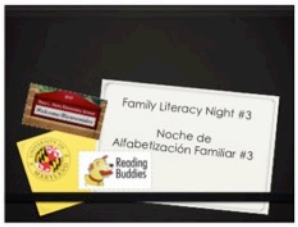

PET Word 4 Palabra 4
deposit
Definition/definición:
Deposit means to put or set down something
Deposit significa poner o dejar algo
Sentence/Oración:
We deposit our plastic bottles in the recycling bin.
Nosotros depositamos nuestras botellas de plástico en el contenedor de reciclaje.

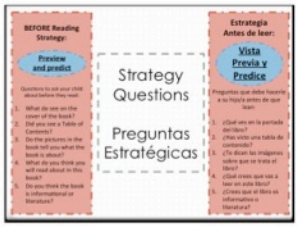

PET Word 4 Palabra 4
deposit
Pronounce
Say the word to practice.
Pronuncia
Di la palabra para practicar.
Explain
Explain what the word is in a way you can understand.
Explica
Explica el significado de la palabra en una manera que entiendas.
Try It Out
Try the word! See if you can say it in a sentence.
Trata de usar
Tratade usar la palabra! Ve si puedes usarla en una oración.

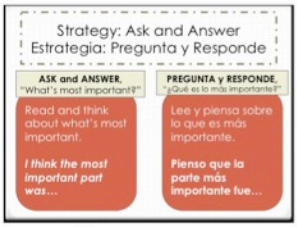
At Home
En Casa
Practice at home!
¡Practiquen en casa!

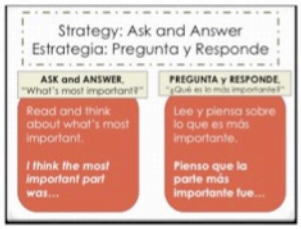
Next week...
Próxima Semana...
ASK and ANSWER.
"What's most important?"
Read and think about what's most important.
I think the most important part was...
Lee y piensa sobre lo que es más importante.
Pienso que la parte más importante fue...
PREGUNTA y RESPONDE.
"¿Qué es lo más importante?"

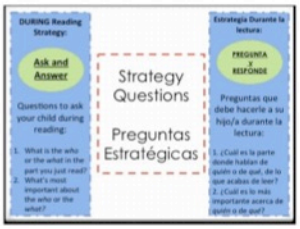
FLP Session #3 PowerPoint Presentation

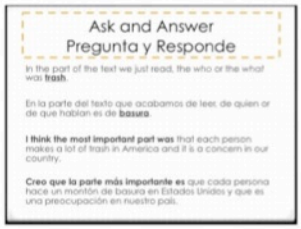




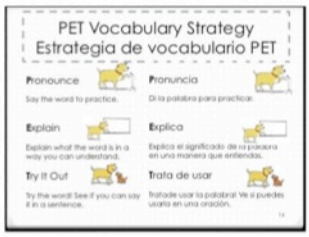








Let's practice!

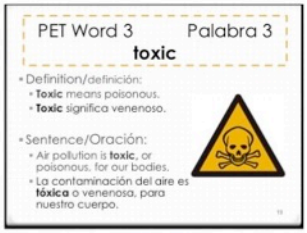

PET Vocabulary Strategy
Estrategia de vocabulario PET
Pronounce
Say the word to practice.
Pronuncia
Di la palabra para practicar.
Explain
Explain what the word is in a way you can understand.
Explica
Explica el significado de la palabra en una manera que entiendas.
Try It Out
Try the word! See if you can say it in a sentence.
Trata de usar
Tratade usar la palabra! Ve si puedes usarla en una oración.

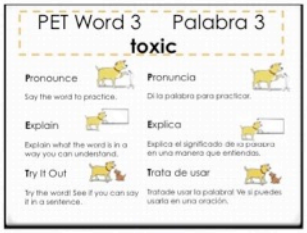
PET Word 1 Palabra 1
hazard
Definition/definición:
A hazard is something that is dangerous.
"Hazard" es algo que es peligroso.
Sentence/Oración:
Smoking is a hazard to your health, because it can make you sick.
Fumar es un peligro (hazard) para su salud, ya que puede hacer que se enferme.

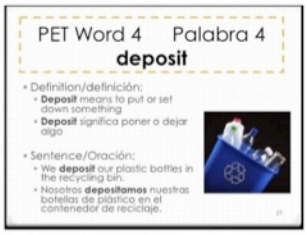
PET Word 1 Palabra 1
hazard
Pronounce
Say the word to practice.
Pronuncia
Di la palabra para practicar.
Explain
Explain what the word is in a way you can understand.
Explica
Explica el significado de la palabra en una manera que entiendas.
Try It Out
Try the word! See if you can say it in a sentence.
Trata de usar
Tratade usar la palabra! Ve si puedes usarla en una oración.

PET Word 2 Palabra 2
drastic
Definition/definición:
Drastic means extreme or radical
Drastico significa extremo o radical
Sentence/Oración:
She made a drastic decision when she cut off most of her hair
Ella tomó una decisión drástica cuando se cortó el cabello.

PET Word 2 Palabra 2
drastic
Pronounce
Say the word to practice.
Pronuncia
Di la palabra para practicar.
Explain
Explain what the word is in a way you can understand.
Explica
Explica el significado de la palabra en una manera que entiendas.
Try It Out
Try the word! See if you can say it in a sentence.
Trata de usar
Tratade usar la palabra! Ve si puedes usarla en una oración.


PET Word 3 Palabra 3
toxic
Definition/definición:
Toxic means poisonous.
Toxic significa venenoso.
Sentence/Oración:
Air pollution is toxic, or poisonous, for our bodies.
La contaminación del aire es tóxica o venenosa, para nuestro cuerpo.


PET Word 3 Palabra 3
toxic
Pronounce
Say the word to practice.
Pronuncia
Di la palabra para practicar.
Explain
Explain what the word is in a way you can understand.
Explica
Explica el significado de la palabra en una manera que entiendas.
Try It Out
Try the word! See if you can say it in a sentence.
Trata de usar
Tratade usar la palabra! Ve si puedes usarla en una oración.

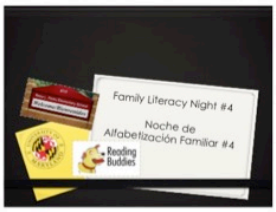

PET Word 4 Palabra 4
deposit
Definition/definición:
Deposit means to put or set down something
Deposit significa poner o dejar algo
Sentence/Oración:
We deposit our plastic bottles in the recycling bin.
Nosotros depositamos nuestras botellas de plástico en el contenedor de reciclaje.

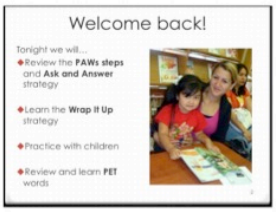
PET Word 4 Palabra 4
deposit
Pronounce
Say the word to practice.
Pronuncia
Di la palabra para practicar.
Explain
Explain what the word is in a way you can understand.
Explica
Explica el significado de la palabra en una manera que entiendas.
Try It Out
Try the word! See if you can say it in a sentence.
Trata de usar
Tratade usar la palabra! Ve si puedes usarla en una oración.

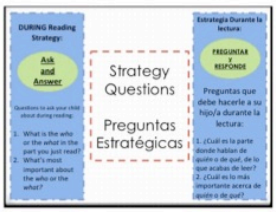
At Home
En Casa
Practice at home!
Practica en casa!

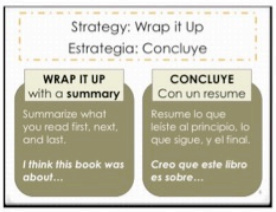
Next week...
Próxima Semana...
WRAP IT UP
with a summary
Summarize what you read first, next, and last.
I think this book was about...
Resume lo que leiste al principio, lo que sigue, y el final.
Creo que este libro es sobre...
CONCLUYE
Con un resume

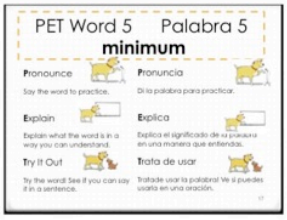
FLP Session #4 PowerPoint Presentation

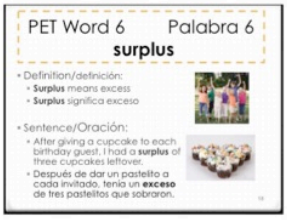


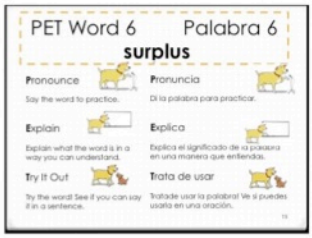


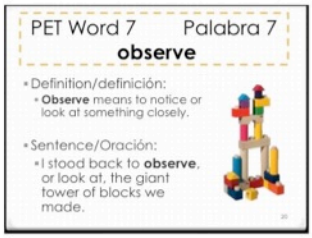


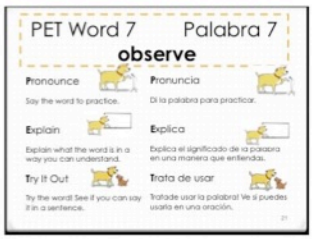


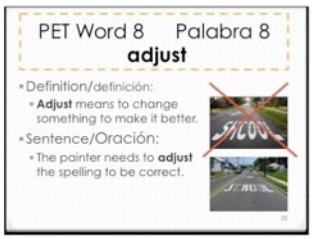


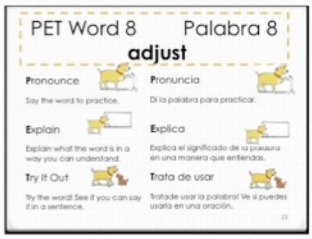




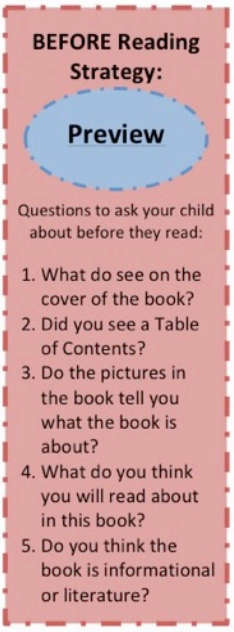


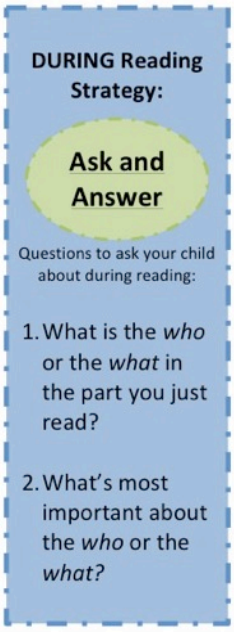


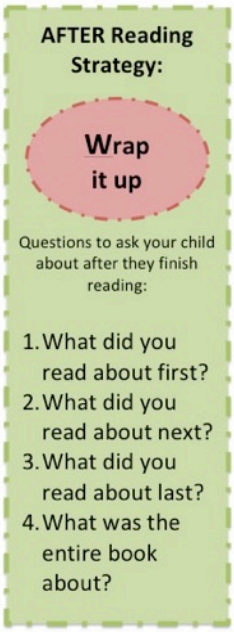




FLP Session PAWs Strategy Bookmarks

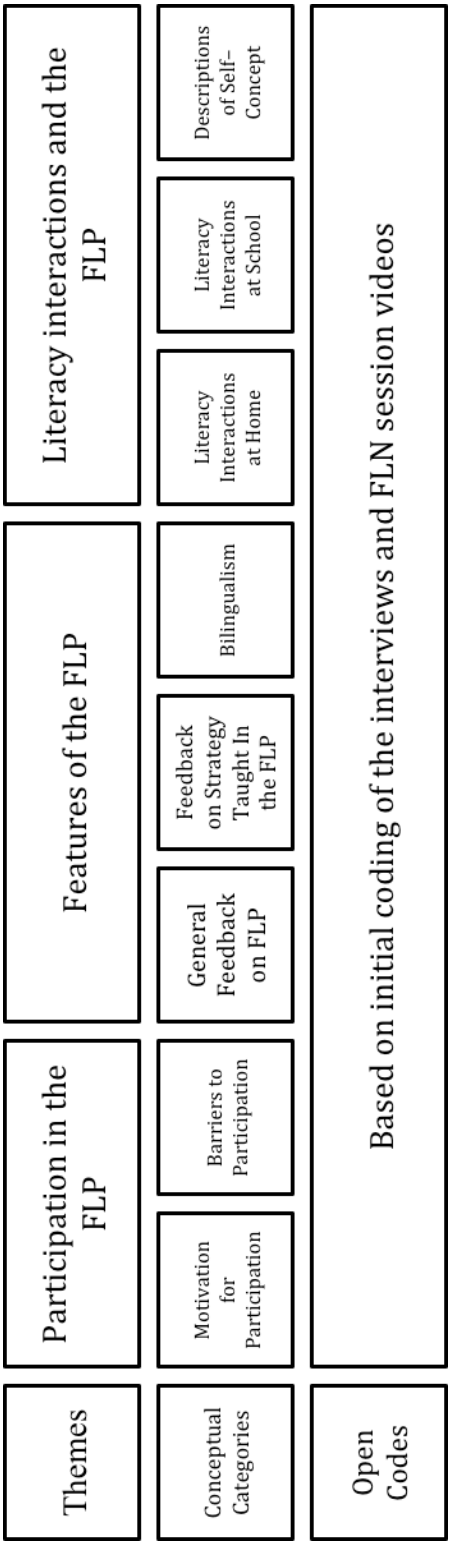






Appendix C: Data Collection

Table 4.2 Coding Map



Family Questionnaire

Parent's Name: _____
Fourth Grade Child's Name: _____

Background Information:

1. What is your relationship to this fourth grade child? (please check one)

___ mother
___ father
___ grandparent
___ older sibling
___ other (explain: _____

2. Is English your first language?

___ Yes ___ No

You, Your Child, & Home:

3. How often do you talk with your fourth grade child about any aspect of their school day? (please check one)

____ hardly ever
____ once or twice a month
____ once or twice a week
____ almost daily/daily

4. How many times per week does your fourth grade child read on their own, or to themselves, at home? (please check one)

____ 0 times
____ 1–2 times per week
____ 3–5 times per week
____ 6 or more times per week

5. About how long each time does your fourth grade child read on their own, or to themselves, at home? (please check one)

____ less than one hour
____ about an hour
____ more than one hour

6. How many times per week does your fourth grade child do math activities on their own, or by themselves, at home? (please check one)

____ 0 times
____ 1–2 times per week
____ 3–5 times per week
____ 6 or more times per week

7. About how long each time does your fourth grade child do math activities on their own, or by themselves, at home? (please check one)

____ less than one hour
____ about an hour
____ more than one hour

---

8. How often do you do reading activities with your fourth grade child, including homework? (please check one)

____ hardly ever
____ once or twice a month
____ once or twice a week
____ almost daily/daily

---

9. What kinds of reading activities do you do with your fourth grade child? (please check all that apply)

____ read books together
____ talk in general about the books we read together
____ ask my child specific questions about books we read together
____ talk in general about the books my child reads on his/her own
____ ask my child specific questions about books my child reads on his/her own
____ other (please explain:
_____)

---

10. How often do you do math activities with your fourth grade child, including homework? (please check one)

____ hardly ever
____ once or twice a month
____ once or twice a week
____ almost daily/daily

---

11. What kinds of math activities do you do with your fourth grade child? (please check all that apply)

____ talk about practical math problems, (for example, adding items while grocery shopping)
____ ask my child specific math questions
____ do math-related tasks together, including measuring or cooking
____ other (please explain:
_____)

---

12. Approximately how many books do you have in your home? (please check one)

____ 0–2
____ 3–10
____ 11–20
____ 21–40
____ more than 40

You, Your Child, & School:

Please circle the answer for how much you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Please think about the current school year as you consider each statement.

13. I know how to help my child do well in school.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
14. I don't know if I'm getting through to my child.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
15. I don't know how to help my child get good grades in school.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
16. I feel successful about my efforts to help my child learn.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
17. Other children have more influence on my child's grades then I do.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
18. I don't know how to help my child learn.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
19. I make a significant difference in	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly

my child's school performance.						
20. I know how to help my child improve his or her reading comprehension skills.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
21. I don't know what questions to ask my child about a book he or she is reading.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
22. I don't know how to engage my child in talk about a book he or she reads.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
23. I don't know how to help my child improve his or her reading comprehension skills.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
24. I feel comfortable asking my child questions to help improve his or her comprehension of the book he or she read.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly

25. My child better understands what he or she reads after we talk about a book.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
26. I know how to help my child practice his or her multiplication facts.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
27. I feel comfortable doing math problems with my child.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
28. I don't know how to help my child improve his or her multiplication skills.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
29. I think I make a significant difference in my child's math skills.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
30. My child improves his or her multiplication facts when we practice them together.	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly
31. I feel successful about my efforts to help	Disagree very strongly	Disagree	Disagree just a little	Agree just a little	Agree	Agree very strongly

my child improve his or her multiplication facts.						

Parent Self–Report Sample

Name: _____

1. Which days did you talk to your child this week about reading in general? (please check all that apply)

Tuesday, May 7	Wednesday, May 8	Thursday, May 9	Friday, May 10	Saturday, May 11	Sunday, May 12

2. Which days did you use the **Wrap It Up Strategy Questions** this week with your child? (please check all that apply)

Tuesday, May 7	Wednesday, May 8	Thursday, May 9	Friday, May 10	Saturday, May 11	Sunday, May 12

References

Angelos, S., & McGriff, N. (2002). Tracking students' reading progress. *Knowledge Quest, 30,* 44–46.

Arzubiaga, A., Rueda, R., & Monzó, L. (2002). Reading engagement of Latino children. *Journal of Latinos and Education, 1*(4), 231–43.

Auerbach, E. R. (1989). Toward a social–contextual approach to family literacy. *Harvard Educational Review 59*(2), 165–81.

August, D., Marlo, M., Dressler, C., & Snow, C. (2005). The critical role of vocabulary development for English language learners. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 20*(1), 50–57.

Ayres, L., Kavanaugh, K., & Knafl, K. A. (2003). Within–case and across–case approaches to qualitative data analysis. *Qualitative Health Research, 13*(6), 871–883.

Baker, L., & Scher, D. (2002). Beginning readers' motivation for reading in relation to parental beliefs and home reading experiences. *Reading Psychology, 23*(4), 239–69.

Beatty, P. C., & Willis, G. B. (2007). Research synthesis: The practice of cognitive interviewing. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *71*(2), 287–311.

Biemiller, A. (2010). *Words worth teaching: closing the vocabulary gap*. Columbus, OH: McGraw–Hill SRA.

Bogdan, R. & Bilken, S. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: an introduction to theories and methods.* (5th Ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Brantlinger, E., Jimenez, R., Klingner, J., Pugach, M., & Richardson, V. (2005). Qualitative studies in special education. *Exceptional Children, 71*(2), 195–207.

Britto, P. R., Brooks–Gunn, J. (2001). Beyond shared book reading: Dimensions of home literacy and low–income African American preschoolers' skills. *New Directions For Child and Adolescent Development, 92*, 73–89.

Britto, P. R., Brooks–Gunn, J., Griffin, T. (2006). Maternal reading and teaching patterns: associations with school readiness in low–income African American families. *Reading Research Quarterly, 41*(1), 68–89.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1986). Ecology of the family as a context for human development: Research perspectives. *Developmental Psychology*, *22*, 723–42.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1989). Ecological systems theory. In R. Vasta (Ed.), *Annals of child development. Six theories of child development: Revised formulations and current issues* (pp. 187–249). London: JAI Press.

Bronfenbrenner, U., & Morris, P. (2006). The bioecological model of human development. In *Handbook of Child Psychology* (6th ed., Vol. 1, pp. 793–828). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Brooker, L. (2002). "Five on the first of December!" What can we learn from case studies of early childhood literacy? *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy, 2*(3), 292–313.

Burgess, S. R., Hecht, S. A., & Lonigan, C. J. (2002). Relation of the home literacy environment (HLE) to the development of reading–related abilities: A one–year longitudinal study. *Reading Research Quarterly, 37*(4), 408–26.

Bus, A. G., van IJzendoorn, M. H., & Pellegrini, A. D. (1995). Joint book reading makes for success in learning to read: A meta–analysis on intergenerational transmission

of literacy. *Review of Educational Research, 65,* 1–21.

Castro, D. C., Mendez, J., Garcia, S., & Westerberg, D. (2012). Family literacy programs for Latino families in the United States. In B. H. Wasik (Ed.), *Handbook of family literacy* (2nd ed., pp. 270–288). New York: Routledge.

Chall, J. S. & Jacobs, V.A. (2003). Poor children's fourth–grade slump. *American Educator, 27*(1), 14–7.

Chall, J.S., Jacobs, V.A., & Baldwin, L.E. (1990). *The Reading Crisis: Why Poor Children Fall Behind*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Cox, K.E., & Guthrie, J.T. (2001). Motivational and cognitive contributions to students' amount of reading. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 26*, 116–131.

Delgado–Gaitan, C. (1990). Literary for empowerment. New York: The Falmer Press.

Delgado–Gaitan, C. (1992). School matters in the Mexican–American home: Socializing children to education. American Educational Research Journal, 29, 495–513.

Delgado–Gaitan, C. (2004). Involving Latino families in schools Raising student achievement through home–school partnerships. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Delgado, R., Huerta, M. E., & Campos, D. (2012). Enhancing relationships with parents of English language learners. *Principal Leadership, 12*(6), 30–34.

Duke, N. & Pearson, P. D., Strachan, S. L., & Billman, A. K. (2011). Essential elements of fostering and teaching reading comprehension. In Samuels, S. J. & Farstrup, A. E. (Eds.), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (4th ed.; pp. 51–93). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures.* New York: Basic.

Gersten, R., Fuchs., L. S., Compton, D., Coyne, M., Greenwood, C., & Innocenti, M. S. (2005). Quality indicators for group experimental and quasi–experimental research in special education. *Exceptional Children, 71*(2), 149–64.

Glaser, B. (1978). *Theoretical sensitivity: Advances in the methodology of grounded theory.* Mill Valley, CA: Sociology Press.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1970). Discovery of substantive theory. In W. Filstead (Ed.), *Qualitative Methodology* (pp. 288–297). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago: Aldine.

Goldenberg, C. (1987). Low–income Hispanic parents' contributions to their first–grade children's word–recognition skills. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 18*(3), 149–79.

Goldenberg, C., & Gallimore, R. (1991). Local knowledge, research knowledge, and educational change: A case study of early Spanish reading improvement. *Educational Researcher, 20*(8), 2–14.

Goldenberg C., Reese, L. & Gallimore, R. (1992). Effects of literacy materials from school on Latino children's home experiences and early reading achievement. *American Journal of Education, 100*(4), 497–536.

Goldenberg, C., Rueda, R. S., & August, D. (2006). Synthesis: Sociocultural contexts and literacy development. In August, D., & Shanahan, T. (Eds.), *Developing literacy in second–language learners: Report of the national literacy panel on*

language–minority children and youth (pp. 249–318).Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Griffin, E. A., & Morrison, F. J. (1997). The unique contribution of home literacy environment to differences in early literacy skills. *Early Child Development and Care, 127,* 233–243. doi:10.1080/0300443971270119

Hancock, D. R. (2002). The effects of native language books on the pre–literacy skill development of language minority kindergarteners. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education, 17*(1), 62–68.

Harper, S., Platt, A., & Pelletier, J. (2011). Unique effects of a family literacy program on the early reading development of English language learners. *Early Education and Development, 22*(4), 989–1008.

Harry, B., Sturges, K. M., Klingner, J. K. (2005). Mapping the process: An exemplar of process and challenge in grounded theory analysis. *Educational Researcher, 34*(2), 3–13.

Hart, B., & T.R. Risley. (2003). The early catastrophe: The 30 million word gap by age 3. *American Educator, 27*(1): 4–9.

Hart, B. & Risley, T. (1995). *Meaningful differences in the everyday experience of young American children.* Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes Publishing.

Henderson, A., & Mapp, K. (2002). *A new wave of evidence: The impact of school, family, and community connections on student achievement.* Austin, TX: National Center for Family & Community Connections with Schools: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

Hernandez, D. J., Denton, N. A., & Macartney, S. E. (2008). Children in immigrant families: Looking to America's future. *Social Policy Report, 22*(3), 3–22.

Hoover–Dempsey, K.V., & Sandler, H.M. (2005). *Final Performance Report for OERI Grant # R305T010673: The Social Context of Parental Involvement: A Path to Enhanced Achievement*. Presented to Project Monitor, Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education, March 22, 2005.

Hoover–Dempsey, K., & Whitaker, M. (2010). The parental involvement process: implications for literacy development. In K. Dunsmore & D. Fisher, (Eds.) *Bringing Literacy Home.* (pp. 53–82). Newark, NJ: International Reading Association.

Johnson, A. D., Martin, A., Brooks–Gunn, J., & Petrill, S. A. (2008). Order in the house!: Associations among household chaos, the home literacy environment, maternal reading ability and children's early reading. *Merrill–Palmer Quarterly, 54*(4), 445–72.

Katzir, T., Lesaux, N. K., & Kim, Y. (2008). The role of reading self–concept and home literacy practices in fourth grade reading comprehension. *Reading & Writing, 22*(3), 261–76. doi: 10.1007/s11145–007–9112–8

Kim, J. S., & Guryan, J. (2010). The efficacy of a voluntary summer book reading intervention for low–income Latino children from language minority families. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*(1), 20–31. doi: 10.1037/a0017270

Kelly–Vance, L., & Schreck, D. (2002). The impact of a collaborative family/school reading programme on student reading rate. *Journal of Research in Reading, 25*(1), 43–53.

Lesaux, N. K., & Geva E. (2006). Synthesis: Development of literacy in language–minority students. In D. August, & T. Shanahan (Eds.), *Developing literacy in second–language learners* (pp. 53–74). Mahwah, NJ: Elbaum.

Lynch, J. (2002). Parents' self–efficacy beliefs, parents' gender, children's reader self–perceptions, reading achievement and gender. *Journal of Research in Reading, 25*(1), 54–67.

McElvany, N., & Artelt, C. (2009). Systematic reading training in the family: Development, implementation, and initial evaluation of the Berlin Parent–Child Reading Program. *Learning and Instruction, 19*, 79–95. doi: 10.1016/j.learninstruc.2008.02.002

McElvany, N., & van Steensel, R. (2009). Potentials and challenges of family literacy interventions: The question of implementation quality. *European Educational Research Journal, 8*(3), 418–33.

McKenna, M., and Kear, D. (1990). Measuring attitude toward reading: A new tool for teachers. The Reading Teacher, 43, 626–639.

Miles, M. & Huberman, A. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Miller, B. V., & Kratochwill, T. R. (1996). An evaluation of the Paired Reading program using Competency–Based Training. *School Psychology International*, *17*, 269–291.

Mol, S. E., Bus, A. G., de Jong, M. T., & Smeets, D. J. H. (2008). Added value of dialogic parent–child book readings: A meta–analysis. *Early Education and Development, 19*(1), 7–26.

Moll, L. C., Amanti, C., Neff, D., & Gonzalez, N. (1992). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms. *Theory Into Practice*, *31*(2), 132.

Moll, L. & Cammarota, J. (2010). Cultivating new funds of knowledge through research and practice. In K. Dunsmore & D. Fisher (Eds.) *Bringing Literacy Home.* (pp. 289–305). Newark, NJ: International Reading Association.

Monzó, L. & Rueda, R. (2001). *Constructing achievement orientations toward literacy: An analysis of sociocultural activity in Latino home and community contexts*. University of Michigan–Ann Arbor: Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement (CIERA).

Morrow, L., & Young, J. (1997). A family literacy program connecting school and home: Effects on attitude, motivation, and literacy achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 89*(4), 736–42.

Murphy, P. K., Wilkinson, I. A., Soter, A. O., Hennessey, M. N., & Alexander, J. F. (2009). Examining the effects of classroom discussion on students' comprehension of text: A meta–analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology; Journal of Educational Psychology*, *101*(3), 740–64.

National Center for Education Statistics (2011). *The Nation's Report Card: Reading 2011* (NCES 2012–457). Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C.

National Center for Education Statistics (2013). *English Language Learners.* Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C.

Nistler, R. J., & Maiers, A. (2003). Stopping the silence: Hearing parents' voices in an urban first–grade family literacy program. In P.A. Mason & J.S. Schumm (Eds.), *Promising practices for urban reading instruction* (pp. 334–353). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Ortiz, R. W. (2004). Hispanic/Latino fathers and children's literacy development: Examining involvement practices from a sociocultural context. *Journal of Latino and Education, 3*, 165–180.

Overett, J., & Donald, D. (1998). Paired reading: Effects of a parent involvement programme in a disadvantaged community in South Africa. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 68*, 347–56.

Park, H. (2008). Home literacy environments and children's reading performance: A comparative study of 25 countries. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 14*(6), 489–505.

Peercy, M. M., Artzi, L. T., Silverman, R. D. & Martin–Beltrán, M. (2015). Meeting the demands of the ELA Common Core for English language learners: Developing vocabulary and reading comprehension skills in a language–rich classroom environment. In DeOliveira L. C., Klassen, M., & Maune, M. (Eds.), *The Common Core State Standards in English Language Arts: For English Language Learners* (75–94). Alexandria, VA: TESOL Press.

Peercy, M. M., Martin–Beltrán, M., & Daniel, S. M. (2013). Learning together: Creating a community of practice to support English language learner literacy. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 26*(3), 284–99.

Petrill, S. A., Deater–Deckard, K., Schatschneider, C., & Davis, C. (2005). Measured environmental influences on early reading: Evidence from an adoption study. *Scientific Studies in Reading, 9*(3), 237–59.

Petrill, S. A., Deater–Deckard, K., Schatschneider, C., & Davis, C. (2007). Environmental influences on reading–related outcomes: An adoption study. *Infant and Child Development, 16*, 171–91. doi: 10.1002/icd.476

Piaget, J. (1983). *Handbook of Child Psychology,* Vol. 1. P. Mussen (ed.). New York: NY: Wiley.

"Prince George's County." *2013 Maryland Report Card*. Web. 19 May 2014.

Pucci, S. L., & Ulanoff, S. H. (1998). What predicts second language success? A study of home and school variables. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 121–122*, 1–18.

Purcell–Gates, V. (1996). Relationships between home literacy experiences and emergent knowledge. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *31*(4). 406–428.

Purcell–Gates, V., L'Allier, S., & Smith, D. (1995). Literacy at the Harts' and the Larsons': Diversity among poor, inner city families. *The Reading Teacher, 48*(7), 572–579.

Rashid, F. L., Morris, R. D., & Sevcik, R. A. (2005). Relationship between home literacy environment and reading achievement in children with reading disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 38*(1), 2–11.

Reese, L., & Gallimore, R. (2000). Immigrant Latinos cultural model of literacy development: An evolving perspective on home–school discontinuities. *American Journal of Education, 108*, 103–134.

Reese, L., Garnier, H., Gallimore, R., & Goldenberg, C. (2000). Longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of emergent Spanish literacy and middle–school English reading achievement of Spanish–speaking students. *American Educational Research Journal, 37*(3), 633–62.

Rueda, R., Macgillivary, L., Monzó, L. & Arzubiaga, A. (2001). *Engaged reading: A multi–level approach to considering socio–cultural factors with diverse learners*. Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing, Inc.

Samson, J. F., & Lesaux, N. K. (2009). Language–minority learners in special education: Rates and predictors of identification for services. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 42*(2), 148–62.

Sénéchal, M., & Young, L. (2008). The effect of family literacy interventions on children's acquisition of reading from kindergarten to grade 3: A meta–analytic review. *Review of Educational Research, 78*(4), 880–907.

Shadish, W., Cook, T. & Campbell, D. (2002). *Experimental and quasi–experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Shanahan, T., Mulhern, M., & Rodriguez–Brown, F. (1995). Project FLAME: Lessons learned from a family literacy program for linguistic minority families. *Reading Teacher, 48*(7), 586–93.

Snow C., Burns M., & Griffin P. (Eds.) (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children.* Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Stanovich, K. E. (1996). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly, 21,* 360–407.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Sullivan, A. L. (2011). Disproportionality in special education identification and placement of English language learners. *Exceptional Children, 77*(3), 317–334.

Taylor, B. M., Frye, B. J., & Maruyama, G. M. (1990). Time spent reading and reading growth. *American Educational Research Journal, 27*(2), 351–62.

Taylor, D. (1993). Family literacy: Resisting deficit models. *TESOL Quarterly 27*(3), 550–53.

Taylor, D. (1983). *Family literacy: Young children learning to read and write*. Exeter, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.

Test, D.W., Fowler, C.H., Brewer, D.M., and Wood, W.M. (2005). A content and methodological review of self–advocacy intervention studies. *Exceptional Children*, 72, 101 25.

Timmons, V. (2008). Challenges in researching family literacy programs. *Canadian Psychology, 49*(2), 96–102.

Troia, G. (1999). Phonological awareness intervention research: A critical review of the experimental methodology. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *34*, 28–52.

U.S. Census Bureau. (2011). *The Hispanic population: 2010.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

U.S. Department of Education. (2010). National Center for Education Statistics, Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), "Public School Questionnaire," 2007–08.

U.S. Department of Education. (2010). *The condition of education, 2010.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

van Steensel, R., McElvany, N., Kurvers, J., & Herppich, S. (2011). How effective are family literacy programs? Results of a meta–analysis. *Review of Educational Research, 81*(1), 69–96.

Villiger, C., Niggli, A., Wandeler, C., & Kutzelmann, S. (2012). Does family make a difference? Mid–term effects of a school/home–based intervention program to enhance reading motivation. *Learning and Instruction, 22*, 79–91.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978) *Mind in society: The development of psychological processes.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Walker, J.M., Wilkins, A.S., Dallaire, J., Sandler, H.M., & Hoover–Dempsey, K.V. (2005). Parental involvement: Model revision through scale development. *Elementary School Journal, 106*(2); 85–104.

Werner, E. (1990). Protective factors and individual resilience. *Handbook of early childhood intervention*, *2*, 115–32.

Whitehurst, G. J. (1993). *Stony Brook Family Reading Survey*. Stony Brook, NY: G., J. Whitehurst.