Family Literacy Engagement: Parents’ Perceptions of Their Home Learning Practices

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Family Literacy Engagement: Parents’ Perceptions of Their Home Learning Practices

Introduction

The ways in which children, their families, and the community interact daily with literacy is family literacy (Florida Reading Association, 2014; Taylor, 1998). Engagement in family literacy practices before beginning school promotes literacy learning and a love of reading as children age (Baker, 2013; Kim, Im, & Kwon, 2015; Kuo, 2016). This study was conducted among Kindergarten through fifth grade students in one southeastern United States school district; the researcher in this study investigated the current engagement practices which included family literacy, family engagement, families’ preparedness to assist their children with reading, and their needs in this capacity. Results may be used to inform literacy programming and the support needed to better assist children and their families in developing their literacy skills.

Theoretical Framework

Funds of knowledge was the framework that was utilized in conducting this study. As such, the researcher sought to draw upon the knowledge, assets, and experiences found within the lives of students that develop the whole child to pull into the classroom as a resource for in-school learning (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992; OSPI, 2019; Rios-Aguilar, Kiyama, Gravitt, & Moll, 2011). When considering the students’ funds of knowledge, it is important for teachers to see these funds as valuable assets that are real life learning experiences, and that the students are not only reaping knowledge from their environment, but also contributing in the form of support, labor, interpreting, etc. which allows them to learn to effectively deal with circumstances as they change (Moll et al., 1992). When teachers know the students they teach and recognize the value of and incorporate their funds of knowledge into the curriculum, instruction is more relevant to the students’ lives and interest improves (Moll, et al., 1992).

Literature Review
Family Literacy

Children arrive annually to school with varied experiences encountered since birth that impact their literacy development (Curry, Reeves, & McIntyre, 2016; Kuo, 2016; Scholastic, 2013; Taylor, 1998). Through these experiences, parents and guardians have exposed children to language and literacy, and they have begun to develop alphabetic principle, vocabulary, and comprehension skills (Phillips, Hayden, & Norris, 2006; Taylor, 1998). By providing appropriate reading materials and participating in literacy activities such as shared reading and discussions with children about reading in one’s early childhood, their overall literacy acquisition including vocabulary development, decoding skills, and comprehension increases (Baker, 2013; Curry et al., 2016; Dickinson & Porche, 2011; Kim et al., 2015, Kuo, 2016; Taylor, 1998).

Dinallo (2016) states the voices of family members providing these experiences are often missing in schools as teachers, independent of parents and caregivers, plan for in-school learning, especially among marginalized groups. Therefore, it is necessary for teachers to consider the funds of knowledge the children bring from home that positively impact student learning in the classroom (Dinallo, 2016; Moll et al., 1992). Capotosto and James (2016) note when considering the conversations surrounding at home reading, African American, Hispanic, and low-income families often talk to their children about what they read, but they tend to ask lower level questions than those asked of their peers. Additionally, Hispanic parents often ask fewer immediate questions than African American parents but ask a similar number of summary questions (Capotosto & James, 2016).

Families do not always practice formal literacy strategies at home; however, through shared readings and discussions, parents model a positive attitude towards literacy, questioning, and vocabulary development (Curry et al., 2016). Parents’ involvement in their children’s
education makes a difference in the academic success of the children and can be seen through a range of activities including encouragement, incentives, and assistance with academic tasks (Mapp, 2002). It is important that teachers ask and understand what is already occurring in the home, so they can support the current literacy behaviors being used, provide additional strategies to enhance the current home literacy practices, and promote children’s continued positive literacy development (Dinallo, 2016). Capotosto and James (2016) reflect on the questions being asked of children while reading at home; if parents ask lower level questions when discussing reading, it is attributed to a belief that these are the types of questions being asked in school or sent home through homework. Additionally, if there is a language barrier preventing parents from asking higher level questions, teachers should consider sending home texts and questions in the home language, so the parents can read along and know what questions to ask their children (Capotosto & James, 2016).

**Family Engagement**

Family involvement throughout a child’s life positively impacts literacy development and correlates to increased literacy growth regardless of income and parents’ educational levels (Brotman, et al., 2011; Dearing, Kreider, Simpkins, & Weiss, 2006; Fiore & Roman, 2010; Mapp, 2002; Miano, 2011; Rivera & Lavan, 2012; Sandberg Patton & Reschly, 2013; Santos, 2011; Wiseman, 2011). Through children’s home and community environments and their relationships to the adults (role models) within those environments, children’s value of literacy begins to develop and mirror their role models’ (Compton-Lilly, 2003; Johnson, 2010; Santos, 2011; Strommen & Mates, 2004; Taylor, 1998; Wiseman, 2011). In addition to adults reading to children, adults’ interactions with them about what has been read further develops children’s literacy skills (Abeyrantha & Zainab, 2004; Bailey, 2006; McKool, 2007; Strommen & Mates,
A family’s engagement with literacy skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking) within the home and school in all capacities supports and promotes home literacy and provides strategies to assist in the literacy development of the children that connect home and school learning (Taylor, 1998). However, some parents do not feel comfortable assisting their children as they read which can lead to low literacy achievement for some children (Steiner, 2014). Teachers’ acknowledgement of what skills and knowledge parents offer children should be viewed as an asset and built upon (Moll et al., 1991). Programming and support provided by teachers can increase the comfort levels of all parents as they assist children with reading by providing specific strategies and resources for them (Mapp, 2002; Steiner, 2014). Curry et al. (2016) stress that teachers must not view family literacy practices through a deficit mindset but partner with families to develop home literacy practices that support school practices.

**Preparedness**

Clark, Woodley, and Lewis (2011) state that very young children learn reading can be pleasurable and not just academic if they have access to materials at home and encouragement to read from the adults that influence them. These factors lead to children having a more positive attitude towards reading when they begin school and often see increased academic growth. Additionally, when children have access to materials and are encouraged to read, their overall literacy development improves. It is well documented that literacy is necessary in all aspects of life, and typical daily activities occurring in a child’s home increase his or her background knowledge and literacy skills (Compton-Lily, 2003; Johnson, 2010; Taylor, 1998). Despite these findings, Scholastic & Yankelovich (2008) note that parents read less to their children and spend less time engaged in literacy activities with their children as they age.

**Methodology**
This quantitative research study was conducted at each of the five elementary schools in one southeastern United States suburban school district. All of the participating elementary schools receive Title 1 funding. At these elementary schools, parents of all 2,276 students were asked to participate in a survey that would provide information regarding their current literacy practices and needs related to the inclusion of effective literacy skills in school and at home. The research questions that drove this study were:

1) What are parents’ perceptions of engagement in their own homes (literacy engagement, academic engagement, family engagement, and preparedness to assist)?

2) What are the current literacy related needs of families?

Participants

Participants in this study included the parents of 2,276 Kindergarten through fifth grade students in one school district in the Southeastern United States. Participants were selected through convenience sampling as their students were enrolled in the elementary schools of the school district where the study was conducted. One copy of the survey was sent to the parents of each child in their weekly folder per the directive of the school district; if they chose to participate, parents were to send the completed survey back to the school when they returned the weekly folder. Of the 2,276 surveys sent to parents at each elementary school in the district, 566 were returned (24.86% return rate). The racial background of those invited to participate was 37.6% Caucasian, 13.7% African American, 42.8% Hispanic, and 6% other. The racial background of the participants was 36.9% Caucasian, 9.8% African American, 47.4% Hispanic, and 5.9% other. Of the participants who identified their gender, 96 were male (17.4%) and 457 were female (82.6%).
Participants were prompted to write in answers when asked about their relationship to their child. Due to this question being open for participants’ interpretation of their relationship, some used gender specific terms (mother, father, etc.), while others identified themselves using gender neutral roles (parent, grandparent, etc.). Three hundred eighty-five of the participants (69.7%) identified as the child’s mother and 57 (10%) identified as the father; meanwhile, 87 participants (15.8%) indicated they were a parent. Seven participants (1.37%) noted their relationship to their child was grandmother, and four (.7%) identified as grandparent. The remaining were five aunts (.9%), two uncles (.4%), one cousin, one brother, and one sister (.2% each); two identified as other (.4%). The mean age of those reporting was 33.71 years of age with the minimum age of 21 and the maximum age of 65.

**Instrumentation**

The structured response survey was quantitative and adapted from Lindo’s (2008) Family Engagement in Advancing Literacy Survey (FEALS) of which the Cronbach’s Alpha was 0.88 based on a sample of 128 students in grades 1-5 with mild intellectual disabilities (Lindo, 2013).

To address the needs of the Hispanic population (42.8%), this survey was provided to parents in both English and Spanish. Demographic questions were used to gain further knowledge about this population based on the participants’ gender, ethnicity, age, and relationship to the student (i.e. mother, father, etc.). Additional questions addressed family literacy activities and parent/child together time activities.

Descriptive statistics, F-tests, and T-tests were used to analyze the survey results. F-tests (.05 level of significance or less) were utilized to examine differences of group means when considering race or to determine if the difference occurred by chance and influenced the dependent variable. After a significant difference was demonstrated via an F-test, a post hoc
Tukey test was conducted to determine which group mean was significantly different. T-tests were also conducted to analyze data examining gender; significance was tested at the .05 level.

Finally, participants were asked two open-ended response questions related to their preparedness in helping their children with reading and their needs as they assisted their children with reading. Frequencies were examined for open-ended response questions after the information was organized into categories by coding responses. Coding categories were determined based on participants’ responses to the two open-ended questions. For each question, like responses were grouped and categories determined. Results for “How prepared do you feel to help your child with reading?” were organized by participants’ responses related to their level of preparedness (prepared, prepared enough, or not prepared). Similarly, results for “What do you need to assist you as you help your child with reading?” were organized by the need for access, information, and time. Once categorized, frequencies related to each area were reported.

**Findings**

Findings aligned with four distinct themes related to the study’s two research questions: family literacy, family engagement, preparedness, and needs.

**Family Literacy**

When asked if they or another adult read to their children before they entered school, 90.5% of the participants said yes, and 9.5% said no. The participants were asked if they currently read stories to their children; 85.2% said yes, and 14.8% said no.

Participants also responded to a series of Likert questions. When asked how often they or other adults talked to their children about what was happening in the stories the children read, participants responded as follows: 2.2% never, 4.9% rarely, 39.2% sometimes, 34.1% often, and 19.5% always. Similarly, participants were asked how often their children read for pleasure; they
responded as follows: 5.6% never, 10.3% rarely, 38.5% sometimes, 32.1% often, and 13.4% always. Participants were also asked if they (the adults) read for pleasure; 5.9% said never, 15.9% said rarely, 40.3% said sometimes, 23.8% said often, and 14.1% said always.

When asked about how often their child visited the bookstore or library, 23.2% of the respondents stated that they did not visit the bookstore or public library, 20.9% visited one to two times per year, 35.2% visited once per month, 9.1% visited twice per month, 8.2% visited weekly, 2.7% visited several times per week, and .7% visited daily. Respondents also indicated how many children’s books were in their homes; responses were as follows: 0 books (2.0%), 1-20 books (32.7%), 21-40 books (18.7%), 41-60 books (15.6%), 61-80 (8.1%), 81-100 (6.3%), and more than 100 books (16.4%).

An ANOVA was used to determine significance when comparing race to the dependent variables (Table 1). Race was significant when considering whether children visited the bookstore or public library regularly. Post hoc analysis using the Tukey criterion for significance indicated that Hispanic children visited the bookstore or public library less frequently than Caucasian children.

Race was also significant as it related to the number of children’s books at home. A post hoc Tukey test indicated that Hispanic families had fewer children’s books at home than African American, Caucasian, and other families. African American and Asian families had fewer children’s books at home than Caucasian families.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>African American</th>
<th>Hispanic</th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Caucasian</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visit Bookstore or Library</td>
<td>2.87 (1.332)</td>
<td>2.33 (1.410)</td>
<td>2.60 (.737)</td>
<td>3.08 (1.176)</td>
<td>3.06 (1.731)</td>
<td>9.775</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
T-Tests were used to determine if there was a significant difference when comparing gender to the dependent variables. A significant difference was found when considering if a parent or other adult read to their children when they were younger; males were read to less when compared to females. When asked if parents read to their children now, a significant difference was found, and males were read to less now than females. Also, the number of children’s books in the home showed a significant difference with males having fewer books in the home than females. See Table 2.

Table 2
Gender and Literacy Engagement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Read to Child Before School</td>
<td>1.13 (.334)</td>
<td>1.09 (.286)</td>
<td>1.065</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently Read</td>
<td>1.19 (.394)</td>
<td>1.15 (.371)</td>
<td>1.003</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Books</td>
<td>3.15 (1.619)</td>
<td>3.95 (1.880)</td>
<td>-3.832</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Standard deviations appear in the parentheses below the means. Significant at the p<.05 level.

Participants were asked a series of questions related to their child’s engagement in academic activities. These questions included how often the participants or another adult took their child to the museum, zoo, etc. if they provided their child with learning materials, if they worked on academic skills with their children, engaged in creative activities with their children,
frequency in which they talked to their child’s teacher about their learning, and if they asked for materials from the child’s teacher. Table 3 outlines their responses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Never %</th>
<th>Rarely %</th>
<th>Sometimes %</th>
<th>Often %</th>
<th>Always %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visits Museums</td>
<td>559</td>
<td>4.1(23)</td>
<td>12.0(67)</td>
<td>51.9(290)</td>
<td>29.5(165)</td>
<td>2.5(14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides Learning Materials</td>
<td>552</td>
<td>1.3(7)</td>
<td>5.8(32)</td>
<td>27.0(149)</td>
<td>42.9(237)</td>
<td>23.0(127)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work on Academic Skills</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>1.3(7)</td>
<td>4.0(22)</td>
<td>27.4(150)</td>
<td>40.9(224)</td>
<td>26.5(145)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative Activities</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>5.2(29)</td>
<td>11.0(61)</td>
<td>39.2(217)</td>
<td>34.3(190)</td>
<td>10.3(57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk to Teacher</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>1.8(10)</td>
<td>10.9(60)</td>
<td>42.3(232)</td>
<td>29.6(162)</td>
<td>15.3(84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ask for Materials</td>
<td>527</td>
<td>34.7(183)</td>
<td>25.2(133)</td>
<td>25.6(135)</td>
<td>9.3(49)</td>
<td>5.1(27)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An ANOVA was used to determine significance when comparing race to the various dependent variables (Table 4). Race was significant as it related to whether families took their children to places such as museums, zoos, or historical sites. A post hoc Tukey test indicated that Hispanic families took their children to museums, zoos, or historical sites less frequently than African American, Asian, Caucasian, and other families. Similarly, race was significant as it related to whether parents provided children with learning materials; Hispanic families provided learning materials to their children less frequently than African American, Asian, Caucasian, and other families.

Significance was also found when examining parents’ work on academic skills with their child; a post hoc Tukey test showed Hispanic families worked on academic skills with their children less frequently than African American and Caucasian families. An ANOVA showed
that race was significant as it related to whether parents did creative activities with their child; Hispanic families engaged in creative activities with their children less frequently than African American, Asian, and Caucasian families.

Race was significant as it related to whether parents talked to their child’s teacher about their learning; a post hoc Tukey test indicated Hispanic families talked with their child’s teacher less frequently about their learning than African American families. Additionally, race was significant as it related to whether parents asked for learning materials from the teacher to practice at home; Hispanic families asked the teacher for learning materials to practice at home less frequently than African American, Asian, and Caucasian families. African American families asked the teacher for learning materials to practice at home less frequently than Caucasian families. Families that distinguish themselves as other asked the teacher for learning materials less frequently than African American and Asian families.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4</th>
<th>Race and Academic Engagement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>African American</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visits Museums (n=551)</td>
<td>3.28 (.818)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides Learning Materials (n=544)</td>
<td>4.11 (.725)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work on Academic Skills (n=540)</td>
<td>4.19 (.810)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative Activities (n=546)</td>
<td>3.66 (.939)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk to Teacher (n=540)</td>
<td>3.75 (1.017)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Family Engagement

Participants acknowledged how often their family ate dinner together. They responded rarely (4.2%), 1-2 days per week (4.9%), 3-4 days per week (19.7%), and 5-7 days per week (71.2%). They also noted how many hours their children spent during the week and over the weekend watching television or playing video games. When asked how much time was spent watching television or paying video games during the week, participants responded 5 or more hours (4.9%), 3-4 hours (15.3%), 1-2 hours (55.2%), less than 1 hour (22.2%) and none (2.3%). When asked about the weekend, they responded 5 or more hours (13.5%), 3-4 hours (31.9%), 1-2 hours (41.3%), less than 1 hour (10.8%) and none (2.3%).

Although an ANOVA indicated that race was significant as it related to how many hours children spent watching television or playing video games during the week, further analysis showed there was no significance. Race was significant as it related to how many hours children spent watching television or playing video games during the weekend; a post hoc Tukey test revealed Hispanic children spent more time watching television and playing video games during the weekend than African American, Caucasian, and other children. See Table 5.
### T-tests

T-tests were used to determine significance when comparing gender to the dependent variables (Table 6). A significant difference was found when comparing how many hours per week male and female children watched television or played video games during the school week; males spent more time watching television and playing video games than females.

**Table 6**

**Gender and Family Together Time**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Watch TV During the Week</td>
<td>2.94 (.930)</td>
<td>3.03 (.791)</td>
<td>-1.051</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Standard deviations appear in the parentheses below the means. Significant at the \( p < .05 \) level.

### Preparedness

The participants were also asked to respond to two open-ended questions on the survey. When asked “How prepared do you feel to help your child with reading?”, 224 participants responded. One hundred and thirty-seven (61.2%) respondents stated that they were prepared to help their child with reading, and one parent stated that they “have had good communication with his teachers, past and present. We try to stay up to date on his progress and are willing to reach out when we have questions or need help finding resources.” Another parent stated, “I
often talk with my daughter’s teacher for new ideas to enhance her reading.” Similarly, a different parent mentioned “our teacher is constantly giving us material to assist in helping our child.” Of those that felt prepared, several commented that they were teachers, had advanced degrees, and books in the home. It is interesting to note that one parent commented that she felt prepared “to help the [child] at her current reading level.” One participant stated, “I always reinforce my child to read every day, and I will ask questions about that book.”

Twelve participants (5.4%) stated they were prepared enough to assist their child with reading. Finally, 55 participants (24.5%) indicated that they were not prepared to assist their children with reading, and several of those respondents remarked that they lacked materials and their children did not like to read. One participant stated that he or she felt unprepared to assist their child and went further to say “It seems that the strategies I have taught her they now say are wrong. It confuses us, making it difficult. I feel sounding out words is better than jumping to conclusions based on pictures.” Another participant stated “I try to help her. She gets frustrated with me. She is pretty advanced for her age, so I do have trouble knowing how to help her.”

Thirteen respondents (5.8%) said they were not prepared to assist their children in reading as they did not speak fluent English; one respondent noted that reading materials in Spanish would be helpful when assisting their children. Other responses varied; seven participants (3.1%) indicated they wanted to help their children become good readers, two of which added that they could always improve their own abilities to help their children.

Needs

The second open-ended question asked, “What do you need to assist you as you help your child with reading?”; 286 participants responded. Seventy-eight (27.3%) respondents indicated that they needed access to more reading materials, including leveled books, dual language books,
books in Spanish, and high interest reading materials. One participant said “I think what is in place is effective. If I had to say anything, it would be to make reading more interactive with other activities.” Additionally, 58 (20.3%) of the respondents replied that they would like to receive more information from their children’s teacher that would assist them as they worked with their children while reading. One respondent stated “a clear understanding of the school and classroom teacher’s expectations” would be helpful. Others asked for handouts with suggestions and helpful tips to support their children as they read.

Thirty-one (10.8%) of the participants noted that they needed to devote more time, patience, and consistency to their children as they read. One participant stated it is “hard for me since I work second shift.” Forty-three (15%) of the respondents stated that they found it difficult to assist their children with reading due to their inability to speak English, and they would benefit by improving their own language skills. Seventy-five (26.3%) of the respondents indicated that they did not have any needs as they worked with their child with reading, with several noting that they felt the teachers were already doing a good job helping them, while other participants stated they were providing their own resources.

**Discussion**

Participants in this study indicated a variety of ways that they engaged with their children. A large percentage of participants noted that they continued to read to their school age children, visited bookstores or libraries regularly, and visited museums, zoos, etc. at least sometimes. Participation in these and other activities contribute to the children’s funds of knowledge and can be incorporated into classroom instruction as valuable resources from their homes and communities (Moll et al., 1992; Rios-Aguilar et al., 2011). It is important to note that race was significant in the frequency of visits to the library or bookstore, number of books in the
home, and regularity of visits to museums, the zoo, etc. Specifically, Hispanic families engaged in these experiences less frequently and had fewer books in the home than their peers. Gender was significant when considering if children were read to then and now; findings showed that males were read to less often and had fewer books in the home than females. This information indicates that home and community activities and knowledge should be expanded in future research to include more examples of activities that culturally diverse populations engage in (Moll et al., 1992; Rios-Aguilar et al., 2011).

In accordance with Scholastic and Yankelovich (2008), study findings showed that parents often read to their children when they are young, but as children age, this declined. Many parents noted that they sometimes participated in educational experiences with their children, provided them with learning materials, and assisted them with their academic skills. Similar to other findings in this study, it was found that Hispanic families provided learning materials and assisted their children with academics less often than their peers. These findings align with previous research that indicates interactions with educational experiences such as reading with the adults in their lives and providing access to learning materials such as books improves their academic abilities, including literacy skills as literacy permeates all aspects of learning and life (Abeyrantha & Zainab, 2004; Bailey, 2006; Compton-Lily, 2003; Curry et al., 2016; Johnson, 2010; Mapp, 2002; McKool, 2007; Moll et al., 1992; Strommen & Mates, 2004; Taylor, 1998).

In this study as with previous research, race was significant when examining a child’s interactions with educational and literacy activities in and out of school with Hispanic families engaging less with educational and literacy activities than their peers. As noted by Dinallo (2016) and Capotosto and James (2016), families often engage in conversation with their children about what they read, but African American and Hispanic families often ask lower level
questions related to what is being read. Approximately 25% of the study’s participants indicated they felt unprepared to assist their children with literacy; some stated they felt what they did to assist was wrong or they were confused by the information sent home by the schools. Dinallo (2016) and Taylor (1998) were cognizant of these feelings and encouraged teachers to embrace the strategies and practices families were currently using to support their children’s literacy development; they went on to encourage teachers to promote the continuation of these practices in the home and align home and school literacy, so that it is more meaningful to the students.

Many study participants noted that they maintained effective communication with their child’s teacher; several also commented that the teachers provided them with resources to assist their children while reading at home. These findings connected with previous research indicating that parents must interact with and encourage their children to read (Abeyrantha & Zainab, 2004; Bailey, 2006; McKool, 2007; Steiner, 2014; Strommen & Mates, 2004; Taylor, 1998). However, 27.3% of the participants indicated that they would like to receive more resources including books, dual language materials, etc.; 20.3% indicated that they would benefit from teacher provided information to assist them with literacy instruction. It is imperative that the parents be provided with the tools to engage with their children in literacy (Abeyrantha & Zainab, 2004; Bailey, 2006; McKool, 2007; Steiner, 2014; Strommen & Mates, 2004; Taylor, 1998). Teachers must remain diligent to assist parents as they support literacy at home (Taylor, 1998). This support must also include language assistance as is shown in this study because parents often feel ill-equipped especially when they are English language learners (Capotosto & James, 2016).

**Conclusion**

To gain further understanding of the needs of parents as they attend to the literacy learning demands of their children, deeper exploration into the family literacy practices within
the home is needed. Parents and other caretakers provide knowledge and experience that children can readily use and connect to classroom learning. It is important that teachers acknowledge this prior knowledge and experience and incorporate it into their daily instruction while continuing to foster the parents’ knowledge of how to assist children at home. Support via school literacy programs can provide parents with the tools needed to assist their children as they learn to read; this includes access to high interest reading materials in multiple languages and reading levels, teacher supported at-home literacy strategies, and encouragement for both parents and children as they work to develop the literacy practices in their homes. It is imperative that teachers support parents as they engage in literacy practices within their homes in order to build on the capital that the parents already have related to their children’s literacy learning. As mentioned by the study participants, parents received support from their children’s teachers. Additional support is needed, especially as the children age and shift from learning to read to reading to learn. It is imperative for parents to continue to be prepared and able to assist their children as their reading levels grow. This support may appear in a variety of forms including face-to-face and remote (online, phone, etc.) virtual meetings with the teachers and reading specialists at the school, tips and strategies sent home in children’s weekly assignment folders, and access to additional reading materials that meet children’s ability levels and interests. Also, if families speak a language other than English, these supports and materials should be provided in the language spoken in the home. It is equally as important for the schools, parents, and communities to partner to support children’s literacy growth and development. For example, public libraries, churches, businesses, among other community groups could partner with schools and parents to provide literacy learning through after school programming, summer experiences, volunteer opportunities, etc.
References


RUNNING HEAD: Family Literacy Engagement: Parents’ Perceptions