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Kindergarten Parent Engagement and Student Reading Literacy in Title I Schools: A Systematic Literature Review and Meta-Synthesis

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Kindergarten Parent Engagement and Student Reading Literacy in Title I Schools: A Systematic Literature Review and Meta-Synthesis

by
Stacy L. M. McDonald

An Applied Dissertation Submitted to the Abraham S. Fischler College of Education in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education

Nova Southeastern University
2019
Approval Page

This applied dissertation was submitted by Stacy L. M. McDonald under the direction of the persons listed below. It was submitted to the Abraham S. Fischler College of Education and approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education at Nova Southeastern University.

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I declare the following:

I have read the Code of Student Conduct and Academic Responsibility as described in the Student Handbook of Nova Southeastern University. This applied dissertation represents my original work, except where I have acknowledged the ideas, words, or material of other authors.

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Stacy L. M. McDonald
Name

April 9, 2019
Date
Acknowledgments

Reading should not be presented to children as a chore, a duty. It should be offered as a gift. In fact, reading for pleasure is more likely to determine whether a child does well at school than their social or economic background (Wake County Public School System, 2016). Writing this systematic literature review has been exciting and challenging! There were roadblocks and floodgates of writing and sometimes I couldn’t put one sentence together to save my life. My sincere hopes are that I have delivered a clear message. I have had incredible teachers along the way. I consider these people to be my mentors and friends to whom I am grateful for: Sally Watkins, my brilliant and patient editor, and especially Dr. Ross, Dr. Coleman, Dr. Edmunds, Mrs. Coke, and Dr. Gabriela Mendez, who read every mark of drivel and helped me to create this piece of work. Thank you to Barbara Welch for putting the finishing touches on the document.

I know my father up in heaven, who I promised that I would complete this, has been watching over me and looking down smiling at my accomplishment with his oversight. I also want to thank my mother and dad for their love and support, as well as teaching me to persevere and to never give up even when it gets challenging and overwhelming. My successes have been a consequence of the foundation built with my family. Love and never-ending support are appreciated and considered gifts in this life. And thanks go out to my friends who understood my absence and withdrawal into a study-writing zone. Lastly, again, I would be nothing without my family. Albert Einstein, my go-to guy, said, “Education is not the learning of facts, but the training of the mind to think…(and)...That is the way to learn the most…when you are doing something with such enjoyment that you don’t notice that the time passes” (Calaprice & Dyson, 2008).
Abstract

Kindergarten Parent Engagement and Student Reading Literacy in Title I Schools: A Systematic Review and Meta-Synthesis. Stacy L. M. McDonald, 2019: Applied Dissertation, Nova Southeastern University, Abraham S. Fischler College of Education. Keywords: parent involvement, emergent literacy, family literacy, reading achievement

The purpose of this study was to systematically review research on the relationship between parent engagement and student reading outcomes in Title I schools at Kindergarten level. The following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the relationship between parent engagement and student reading literacy outcomes in low socioeconomic students in kindergarten? Findings show that parent engagement brings parents together with the school staff working with one another to promote a child’s reading literacy. Parent engagement includes the parent as an active member who shares responsibility for a child’s achievement. A need for teacher professional development for teachers on building communication and relationships with parents is critical. Parents, in school reading programs, learn basic literacy skills so they can use them at home to support their child while both parent and child become active learners to support reading literacy. The point of parent engagement is to make sure that each parent knows how to play a positive role that supports their child’s reading literacy both at home and at school.

2. What strategies are effective to increase low socioeconomic parent engagement that impacts reading literacy outcomes for children in kindergarten? Common successful strategies in the analyzed studies were to supply appropriate reading supplies for parents to use at home with their children to build active engagement with books at home. Another strategy was the creation of a Family Resource Center and having a family liaison in school, helped low-income (i.e., low socioeconomic) parents get in touch with needed resources to support reading literacy for their child at home. Parent engagement practices encourage parents through literacy games, activities, and learning reading classes to improve their skills increased parent communication and understanding of how to help their child at home. Other strategies were using technology to communicate with parents and clarifying the importance of preventing absenteeism with their child on a daily basis. Additional successful strategies were the emphasis on early childhood interventions at school and at home and professional development for teacher on parent engagement.
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Chapter 1: Introduction

Statement of the Problem

Parent engagement in primary grades benefit students social, cognitive, and mental capacity in learning (Hornby & Witte, 2010; Nitecki, 2015). When parents actively engage in their child’s education, the students increase their learning by actively engaging in their education, utilize learning objectives, and achieve measurable growth in outcomes (Bailey, 2006; Cheung & Pomerantz, 2015; Marshall & Jackman, 2015; Wang, Hill, & Hofkens, 2014).

Most students of low socioeconomic status (SES) attend Title I schools. Noble, Norman, and Farah (2005) stated, “Socioeconomic status (SES) is strongly associated with cognitive ability and achievement during childhood and beyond” (p. 74). Jensen (2016) evaluated poverty at school as related to students whose families qualify for free and reduced meal plans and highlighted issues with reading as one of the impacts of poverty on poor students. Noble et al. elaborated on the connection between poverty and reading and asserted that the apparent reading gap “is likely to contribute to the persistence of poverty across generations and affects the life chances of some 12 million U.S. children” (p. 74).

The concept of parent engagement connects the parent to the child, teacher, administration, and school in a special relationship that builds community and supports student learning outcomes especially, in Title I schools. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2012) defined parent engagement as follows:

Parents and school staff working together to support and improve the learning, development, and health of children and adolescents. Parent engagement in schools is a shared responsibility in which schools and other community agencies
and organizations are committed to reaching out to engage parents in meaningful ways, and parents are committed to actively supporting their children’s and adolescents’ learning and development. This relationship between schools and parents cut across and reinforces children’s health and learning in the multiple settings—at home, in school, in out-of-school programs, and in the community. (p. 6)

Parent engagement is especially critical in kindergarten because it is a transition for children and their parents and because success in kindergarten has direct connections to academic success in future grades and learning for life. Nelson (2005) asserted, “A child’s success in kindergarten is a strong predictor of future school success” (p. 215). Children with parental support also enter kindergarten not only ready to learn, but also with a developed maturity, which allows them to adapt to the new environment of a kindergarten classroom. Children need school and parental support from home to transition successfully into kindergarten.

**Background and Justification**

Parents’ engagement in their child’s education increases students’ learning. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2015b) published a report on parent engagement. This research involved interviews with 14,627 parents regarding topics such as parent engagement, kindergarten to fifth grade, and the ways in which parents engaged with their children to promote reading and academic literacy. The report indicated that children whose parents engaged with them in learning activities entered kindergarten better prepared than those children who did not receive parent engagement at home. The NCES (2015b) showed this trend (see Table 1).

Similarly, researchers have found that, at home, positive learning environments
reinforce reading literacy for students and enhance students’ memory of reading skills (Adcock, Thangavel, Whitfield-Gabrieli, Knutson, & Gabrieli, 2006; Jensen, 2009, 2016; Lau, 2013; O’Keefe & Linnenbrink-Garcia, 2014). In addition, Jensen (2016) and Noble et al. (2005) found that students from low-SES backgrounds have learning gaps and that their brains have obvious differences for language, memory, and cognitive control.

Table 1

*Education-Related Activities by Percentage, 2003-2012*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visited a library</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Went to a play, concert, or other live show</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited an art gallery, museum, or historical site</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited a zoo or aquarium</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended an event sponsored by a community, religious, or ethnic group</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Told child a story</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did arts and crafts</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussed family history or ethnic heritage</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Played board games or did puzzles</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, a gap exists between students of low-SES status, at-risk students, and their peers regarding reading literacy achievement in kindergarten, and this gap widens significantly as these children advance in grades. Parents who are classified as low income or as parents with limited English proficiency have multiple hurdles with engaging because they are challenged to adapt socially in the community and do not have access to social supports or to understanding of how the school’s curriculum is supported at home and at school (Reardon, 2016; Rist, 1970; Schulting, Malone, & Dodge, 2005; Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 2013).

As a result, many children from families of low SES enter kindergarten in Title I schools with significant challenges in meeting the academic rigors of reading or reaching the literacy outcomes. It is not that these children from low-income families are not
smart; rather, it is that they do not have the resources to support learning at home. It has been shown that significant learning deficits appear between kindergarten and fourth grade. Reading literacy assessments are made upon entry to kindergarten and yearly, but children must pass a third-grade assessment to meet state standards. Therefore, children must learn and show understanding in usage of grade level reading literacy skills.

Research conducted by Editorial Projects in Education (2017) collected data on 1,006 parents and found that some barriers parents face involve lack of time, work, and demands and conflicts within their daily lives. In this same research, reasons parents gave to explain their disengagement included lack of information, minimal contact from school, low personal education, not knowing what to do to support reading literacy, and lack of need to get engaged due to schools’ low performance (Editorial Projects in Education, 2017). Other barriers are uneducated parents, lack of reading skills themselves, feeling unqualified to help, and being in a low-SES bracket financially and politically.

Noble et al. (2005) stated, “Socioeconomic status (SES) is strongly associated with cognitive ability and achievement during childhood and beyond” (p. 74) and added that the apparent reading gap “is likely to contribute to the persistence of poverty across generations and affects the life chances of some 12 million U.S. children” (p. 74). According to Jensen (2016), although poverty at school is related to students who qualify for free and reduced school meals, “the true impact of poverty relates to reading issues: (1) poor working memory, (2) weak phonological processing skills, and (3) lack of culturally responsive, grade-level books at home” (p. 10). The NCES (2016) showed the percentage distribution of Fall 2010 first-time kindergartners by two risk factors: (a) low parental education and family poverty and (b) selected child, family, and school
characteristics (see Appendix A).

The U.S. Department of Education (2017) reported on parent engagement, kindergarten to fifth grade, and the ways parents engaged with their child to promote reading and academic literacy. Children whose parents engage with them in learning activities enter kindergarten better prepared than those children who do not get parent engagement at home. The U.S. Department of Education showed an updated chart from 2012 to 2016 on this trend (see Table 2). All information is based on parent reports and excludes homeschooled children. Although rounded numbers are displayed, figures are based on unrounded percentages (U.S. Department of Education, 2017).

Table 2

*Education-Related Activities by Percentage, 2012-2016*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visited a library</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Went to a play, concert, or other live show</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited an art gallery, museum, or historical site</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited a zoo or aquarium</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended an event sponsored by a community, religious, or ethnic group</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Told child a story</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did arts and crafts</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussed family history or ethnic heritage</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Played board games or did puzzles</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As a result of NCES findings, Title I schools came into existence. Title I refers to a school that serves a student body of at least 40% lower SES children. Title I is federal funding given to schools to provide for low-income students or to schools with at least a 40% student poverty rate. In Title I schools, support for children of low SES in reading requires support from the environment, both at home and in school. Most low-SES students attend Title I schools. The NCES (2015d) reported that the U.S. government made a law specifically to help students in Title I schools, and this program supported
low-SES students in achieving their academic reading goals.

Title I schools target government policies and guidelines regarding parent engagement in order to build a supportive environment for parents and students to maximize their understanding of the reading curriculum and to engage in the child’s reading program. Although federal policies specifically on parent engagement protocol are in place for Title I schools in all states in America, these guidelines are not always followed or administered. A need exists to increase parent engagement in Title I schools starting during kindergarten to maximize and promote positive student reading outcomes such as supporting a child’s academic development, learning, and positive self-image, as well as monitoring a child’s behavior, setting boundaries, and providing resources by being collaborators with the school to support reading literacy (Mapp, 2012, 2015; Mapp & Kuttner, 2013; Michigan Department of Education, 2011; Silver, Morris, & Klein, 2010).

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2012) defined parent engagement in schools as follows:

Parents and school staff working together to support and improve the learning, development, and health of children and adolescents. This relationship between schools and parents cuts across and reinforces children’s health and learning in multiple settings—at home, in school, in out-of-school programs, and in the community. (p. 2)

Parent engagement has been shown to support a child’s reading literacy. Studying low-SES students, at-risk students, and their peers shows a gap in their reading literacy achievement in kindergarten, and this gap widens significantly as these children advance in grades, thus leaving them behind in academic reading literacy (Greenwood, Carta,
Goldstein, & Kaminski, 2014).

Parent engagement does include parent involvement but also connects the parent to the child, teacher, administration, and school in a special relationship that builds community and supports student learning outcomes. As a result, the term parent involvement has evolved to parent engagement. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2012) defined parent engagement as school staff and parents as partners, working together, to support a child’s reading literacy and health development responsibly through school programs, meaningful communication, and active parent engagement in educational programs to learn how to support reading literacy with their child.

Parent engagement is partially about supporting learning at home by providing the resources, books in this case, for reading and assisting with homework when needed. Parents who do not have the financial means to supply books at home are at a disadvantage for supporting their child’s reading literacy. In contrast, parents who have books and read with their children at home encourage and extend reading skills learned at school which impact a child’s reading literacy (Kalb & van Ours 2014; Mistry & Sood, 2010; Thomas 2009). Parents who create access to books at home support reading literacy at home (Powell & Diamond, 2012). Girard, Girolametto, Weitzman, and Greenberg (2013) found that a child’s oral vocabulary and language skills developed at home directly affect student reading skills and literacy in school. Hence, parent engagement in preschool can provide a smooth entrance into kindergarten and support student reading literacy.

Parent engagement is critical in kindergarten because kindergarten is a transition for children and their parents and because success in kindergarten has direct connections
to academic success in future grades and learning for life. Entrance into kindergarten is a transition for children and their parents. How successful children are in kindergarten has direct connections to their academic success in future grades and learning for life. Some children enter kindergarten with skills such as knowing the ABCs, their numbers 1 to 20, using pencils, taking turns, sharing, and writing their name, whereas other children, whose parents either have not sent them to preschool or assisted them in learning these concepts, come into kindergarten at a disadvantage. Nelson (2005) reminds us that “a child’s success in kindergarten is a strong predictor of future school success” (p. 215). Children with parental support also enter kindergarten not only ready to learn, but also with a developed maturity that allows them to adapt to the new environment of a kindergarten classroom. Immature children need school and parental support from home to transition into kindergarten (Nelson, 2004, 2005).

**Deficiencies in the evidence.** In spite of the critical effect of kindergarten parent engagement in students’ reading, a preliminary search did not show the existence of a systematic review of literature on parent engagement linked to student reading outcomes in kindergarten for children in poverty. To fill this gap, this systematic review of the literature studied peer-reviewed research on this topic.

**Audience.** This systematic review of the literature constitutes a synthesis of research-based evidence from a large number of peer review research to facilitate and guide decision-making procedures regarding parent engagement for supporting reading outcomes of students. People who may benefit directly from this dissertation could use it as references for decision-making purposes: school board members, superintendents, administrators, and teachers. People who may benefit indirectly from this dissertation are parents and students.
Definition of Terms

The following definitions are helpful and necessary for use in this systematic literature review.

**At-risk student status.** According to Pallas (1989), this term refers to students who are “educationally disadvantaged if they have been exposed to inadequate or inappropriate educational experiences in the family, school, or community” (p. 11).

**Basic interpersonal conversational skills.** This term refers to listening and speaking skills used in everyday language (Cummins, 1980).

**Collaboration.** This term refers to a committed action of working with others towards a common goal (Virginia Commonwealth University Center on Society and Health, 2018; Visualscope, 2018; Von Glasersfeld, 1989a, 1989b).

**Key components of reading:** This term refers to the following eight basic components: (a) Phonemic awareness: letter knowledge and concepts of print, (b) Phonics and decoding, (c) Reading fluency, (d) Vocabulary development, (e) Text comprehension strategies, (f) Written expression, (g) Spelling and handwriting, (h) Screening and continuous assessment to inform instruction, and (i) Motivating children to read and expand their literacy horizon.

**Leadership in schools.** A school’s climate is created partly through relationships and interactions among all members of a school community (National School Climate Council, 2016) and is a process of engaging and guiding the skills and talents of parents, teachers, and administrators to work towards a common goal.

**Low income.** This term refers to low-SES families who have limited financial resources. The SES encompasses not just income but also educational attainment, financial security, and subjective perceptions of social status and social class. Low SES
in childhood is related to poor cognitive development, language, memory, socioemotional processing, and consequently poor income and health in adulthood (American Psychological Association, 2017).

**Meta-synthesis.** This term refers to a methodology that synthesizes a compilation of data from qualitative studies which yields a comprehensive review of empirical knowledge on a specific topic.

**Minority students.** According to the U.S. Government (2016), this term refers to a student who is an Alaska Native, American Indian, Asian American, Black (African American), Hispanic American, Native Hawaiian, or Pacific Islander.

**No Child Left Behind.** According to the U.S. Department of Education (2001), this term refers to an educational reform that required the United States to implement high-stakes testing for accountability to show students’ growth in their adequate yearly progress. This directly impacts Title I schools.

**Parent engagement in schools.** This term refers to shared responsibility of parents working with teachers and administrators to accomplish positive support and enrich students learning environment for positive outcomes. Parent engagement in a Title I school involves active participation in a Title I school. It is a consistent, two-way communication between parents, teachers, and administrators and parental involvement in volunteer work guided specifically to increase student outcomes and play a key role in actively helping their child’s learning. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2012) reported, “In schools is defined as parents and school staff working together to support and improve the learning, development, and health of children and adolescents” (p. 1).

**Parental involvement.** This term refers to the participation of parents in regular,
two-way, and meaningful communication involving student academic learning and other school activities, ensuring the following:

A. That parents play an integral role in assisting their child’s learning;

B. That parents are encouraged to be actively involved in their child’s education at school;

C. That parents are full partners in their child’s education and are included, as appropriate, in decision-making and on advisory committees to assist in the education of their child;

D. The carrying out of other activities, such as those described in Section 1118.

(U.S. Department of Education, 2016, p. 7)

**Parent-teacher cooperation in schools.** A critical factor for a Title I school is the cooperating relationship administrators and teachers build with a parent. It involves two-way communication, active and reflective listening between parents and teachers and administrators to work in a coordinated, cooperative, and agreeably focused approach to share ideas and goals and to create new ways to improve the school (Froiland, Peterson, & Davison, 2013; Griffith, 2004; Harvard Family Research Project, 2006).

**Partnership.** This term refers to the central characteristics of effective family-school partnerships:

1. Sharing of power, responsibility, and ownership, with each party having different roles;

2. A degree of mutuality that begins with the process of listening to each other and that incorporates responsive dialogue and give and take on both sides;

3. Shared aims and goals based on a common understanding of the educational needs of children;
4. Commitment to joint action, in which parents, students, and teachers work together. (Bastiani, 1993, p. 101)

Lueder (1998) stated, “Partnerships are a collaborative relationship designed primarily to produce positive educational and social effects on the child while being mutually beneficial to all other parties involved” (p. 22).

Poverty. This term refers to the situation of those individuals who struggle to obtain adequate shelter, food, and basic needs required for daily living (Russel, Harris, & Gockel, 2008).

Reading comprehension. This term refers to “intentional thinking during which meaning is constructed through interactions between text and reader” (Durkin, 1993, p. 11).

Reading outcomes. Reading proficiency requires three sets of interrelated skills that develop over time: language and communication, mechanics of reading, and content knowledge (Connors-Tadros, 2014).

Strong program-family relationship. This term refers to a relationship in which both programs and families contribute resources and work together on behalf of children’s well-being; family engagement will increase, which ultimately benefits the development of children (Halgunseth, Peterson, Stark, & Moodie, 2009).

Student achievement. This term refers to (a) the status of subject-matter knowledge, understanding, and skills at one point in time and (b) the act of a student using life skills toward achieving educational gains through courage, effort or skill, and giving back to the community.

Systematic review. This term refers to the research methodology that discovers, synthesizes, and evaluates a complete, exhaustive review of literature from the most
current research studies and historical studies that have met peer-reviewed standards.

**Title I.** This term refers to federal funding to schools to provide for low-income students or to schools with at least a 40% student poverty rate.

**Purpose of the Study**

Parent engagement in primary grades benefit students social, cognitive, and mental capacity in learning (Hornby & Witte, 2010; Nitecki, 2015). When parents actively engage in their child’s education, the students increase their learning by actively engaging in their education, utilize learning objectives, and achieve measurable growth in outcomes (Bailey, 2006; Cheung & Pomerantz, 2015; Marshall & Jackman, 2015; Wang et al., 2014). The purpose of this systematic review of the literature was to synthesize current peer-reviewed research in parent engagement and student reading outcomes in Title I schools at kindergarten level.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Ferlazzo (2011) offered the following comment:

We need to understand the difference between family involvement and family engagement. One of the dictionary definitions of involve is “to enfold or envelope,” whereas one of the meanings of engage is “to come together and interlock.” Thus, involvement implies doing to; in contrast, engagement implies doing with. (p. 10)

The purpose of this dissertation was to synthesize current peer-reviewed research in the area of parent engagement and student reading outcomes for students of low SES, most of whom attended Title I schools. In order to create a theoretical framework that would help to conceptualize the study in a broader context, this chapter includes a discussion of the concepts of parent engagement, reading literacy, home-school connected support for reading literacy, and Title I.

The theoretical perspective adopted in this systematic literature review includes Family Literacy Theory (Taylor, 1983), Social Exchange Model of Family Engagement (Halgunseth et al., 2009), and the Dual Capacity-Building Framework for Family-School Partnerships (Mapp & Kuttner, 2013). The reading theories adopted for this study were Marie Clay’s (1998) Emergent Literacy Theory, Chall’s (1983) Stages of Reading Development, and the Fountas and Pinnell (2009) Theory of Reading Literacy. In addition, this chapter analyzes gaps and limitations of the current literature, discusses how further research should extend past studies, and articulates the intended contributions of this study.

The relationship between schools and parents precedes the foundation of the
United States. For example, in 1642, a Massachusetts colony voted for a law demanding that parents make available an education that included trade, religion, and reading (Watson, Sanders-Lawson, & McNeal, 2012). Uneducated parents were not capable of committing to the level of engagement demanded by this law. As a consequence, the government took over by offering public education.

The relationship between school and parents was heavily influenced by government and local expectations for children and school standards. The changes in society from farming to industrial work, family composition, and financial status influence the engagement of parents. In the past, the families of the upper class were allowed many generous aspects of education freely. Now, parental engagement has gradually been accepted into the educational plan because over time parental support has become a vital link to a child’s reading literacy success.

**Parent Engagement and Reading Development for Children and Family**

Parent engagement was not always popular or expected in order to support children to gain reading literacy. In fact, influence from society dictated which children went to school and to what kinds of schools; as well as how often. In the 1700s, America formed grammar, private, and elite schools for boys only. Girls were not allowed or expected to pursue an education because they were to attend finishing school, which taught them the skills to raise a family and run a home to support their husband. Wealthy families sometimes sent their sons to England to get a premium education. President Thomas Jefferson stressed that it was an individual state’s decision to support education locally. A problem that surfaced was that poor families needed their children to work with them, so these children would attend school irregularly, if at all. With the challenge of having children attend public school regularly, programs were being introduced to
standardize vocabulary, spelling, and reading skills. In 1783, the first American Spelling Book was created by Noah Webster and was used until 1820 as an introductory reading text.

In the 1800s, the United States began closing schools in some states due to the issue of slavery and stated that it was illegal to educate a slave or their children. Missouri was an exception, and it opened in 1808 a one-room schoolhouse for children. In 1826, the Worcester’s Primer of the English Language was a reading text that included prereading activities and guided teachers to teach vocabulary words as a whole word before phonetically analyzing the word. In 1836, the McGuffy Reader was printed as a reading text collection and focused on knowing alphabet letters, phonetic awareness, syllables, and sight words as well as comprehension questions. Horace Mann in 1837 was instrumental in developing laws for education: state’s curriculum guides, defining grade levels, and implementing common standards along with mandatory attendance so that all children could be educated and vote.

In 1843, Horace Mann, known as the father of education, set up teacher education programs, which came into existence in Massachusetts in 1852. In 1850, the Phonics Method emerged before and after the Civil War with the idea that phonics helped children to sound out the letters to make words and break them down or decode the word. The year 1870 brought the Progressive Education Movement. Colonel Frances Parker and John Dewey, a constructivist, together emphasized that children learn to read based on their interests and from their own writing; basal readers were not used during this time. During the 1880s, a fluctuation from word method, sentence method, to story method was used. The word method focused at first on sight words then emphasized connecting the words to a familiar object with a picture. The sentence method, by Farnham, stressed the
teacher reading to children sentence by sentence and having the child repeat the sentence out loud: echo read.

This historical perspective is necessary to understand how parent involvement is in influencing a student’s reading. Parent involvement is a vital part of parent engagement. Coleman (2006) pointed out that the three main factors in parent involvement are “information, engagement, and advocacy” (p. 6). Parent involvement is the active participation in a two-way, consistent, and meaningful communication focused on student academic learning in order to support the child’s positive academic progress (Borman & Jaymes, 2016; Carter, 2016; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). Parents are vital partners and decision makers regarding their child’s education. Harris and Robinson (2016) found that stage setting, when parents maintain an expectation that their children will achieve in class and have positive reading outcomes, encourages the child to accomplish these goals set from their parent’s influence and expectations. Active participation of parents at school and home also supports a child’s reading literacy. The actions of parents, such as conferences, conferring in the student planner, reading at home, and supporting homework at home, are a few ways parents support reading literacy (Dewey, 1938, 2013; Florida Department of Education, 2017).

The main difference between parent involvement and parent engagement is that involvement insinuates the parent will do what is expected of them, whereas engagement implies that the parent is a partner sharing in decision-making processes, setting goals, and reaching outcomes together with school administrators and teachers. The gradual shift from parent involvement to parent engagement over time has empowered parents to speak out for demands for an excellent education for their child. Parent engagement is a historical issue with which administrators, teachers, and parents have struggled. The
Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2012) defined parental engagement as “parents and school staff working together to support and improve the learning, development, and health of children and adolescents” (p. 1). Snow (2016) stated, “Meaningful family engagement in children’s early learning supports school readiness and later academic success” (p. 1). Snow continued by stating, “Teachers can engage parents in early learning when they share children’s progress” (p. 2). Parents do not always know or understand how important their support is in preparing their child for kindergarten. Both low-risk and high-risk children thrive when their parents are engaged in their education. It is critical that all parents are engaged in supporting their child in kindergarten for positive student learning outcomes (Cervone & O’Leary, 1982; Child Welfare Information Gateway, 2017; Coleman, 1991).

Henderson and Berla (1994), Epstein (2001), Weiss, Lopez, and Rosenberg (2010), and Halgunseth et al. (2009) synthesized three definitions of family engagement. The synthesis includes the following four factors:

1. Early childhood education programs encourage and validate family participation in decision making related to their children’s education. Families should act as advocates for their children and early childhood education program by actively taking part in decision making opportunities.

2. Consistent, two-way communication is facilitated through multiple forms and is responsive to the linguistic preference of the family. Communication should be both school and family initiated and should be timely and continuous, inviting conversations about both the child’s educational experience as well as the larger program.

3. Families and early childhood education programs collaborate and exchange knowledge. Family members share their unique knowledge and skills through
volunteering and actively engaging in events and activities at schools. Teachers seek out information about their students’ lives, families, and communities and integrate this information into their curriculum and instructional practices.

4. Early childhood education programs and families place an emphasis on creating and sustaining learning activities at home and in the community, that extend the teachings of the program so as to enhance each child’s early learning.

The focus of parent engagement is on assuring that the students acquire the best education offered them. The Best Start Resource Center (2011) reported, “Engagement goes beyond involvement of families. Families are engaged when they are motivated and empowered to identify their own needs, strengths and resources” (p. 3). The Center for Public Education (2011) reported, “If children don’t feel connected to school, parent involvement alone will not make a significant contribution to student achievement. Students must also feel that they belong at school and that their teachers support them” (p. 10).

Coleman (1966) found that how the family interacts with schools is much more important than the school itself in producing positive achievement outcomes. The Westat Study (Coleman, 2006) found that when administrators and teachers reached out and connected with the parents for school engagement, student reading and math scores elevated at 40% compared to other schools that were weak in parent engagement. The Westat Study (Coleman, 2006) also found a major variable in a child’s educational outcomes is how effective the teacher is in connecting with the child’s parents regarding school issues.

Cannon and Karoly (2007) found that “increased parent involvement leads to early social competence, which ultimately leads to academic success and further
bolsters the argument that parents play a critical role in influencing early experiences that impact children’s future achievement” (p. 77). Halgunseth et al. (2009) stated the following:

The family engagement literature clearly supports the importance of strong partnerships between families and early childhood education programs. Positive family-program connections have been linked to greater academic motivation, grade promotion, and socio-emotional skills across all young children, including those from diverse ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds. (p. 12)

This statement was also supported by Christenson (2000) and Mantzicopoulos (2003).

Given the importance of parent engagement, in 2011 the Parent, Family and Community Engagement Framework was introduced in America to promote parent engagement. Porter (2012) shared what Briant Coleman stated by reporting the following:

Education is a three-way street between teachers, students and parents. None of us can do it alone. Studies show that children with involved parents tend to do better in school. That is why we work at all levels to find ways to bring parents into the classroom and draw them into their child’s education. (p. C-3)

Cooperative relationships, active listening, dignity and respect to stakeholders (e.g., parents, teachers, and administration), and open communication between students, parents, teachers, and administration will help parents to understand engagement and how to support positive student reading literacy outcomes. Crosby, Rasinski, Padak, and Yildirim (2015) included research from Rasinski, Rikli, and Johnson (2009), focusing on reading support for parents in school programs that accomplish the following:

(a) Use methods of instruction that are proven, (b) develop a consistent program, (c) make the parent involvement activity easy and quick to implement, (d) provide
training and support, and (e) (reading activity) should be enjoyable and should involve authentic reading. (p. 166)

Parent engagement focuses on creating partnerships and promoting a positive home-school connection in order to increase parent engagement, which relates to student literacy outcomes (Lombana & Lombana, 1982).

**Home-school connected support for reading literacy.** Parent engagement is a shared responsibility between the parent, child, teacher, and school, which directly supports growth of both the student and school. When parents are engaged and empowered, student reading achievement assures that their children meet long-term goals for student reading outcomes by the time that child reaches third grade. This reading readiness impacts the student’s readiness for high school and increases chances of graduating and going on to college or professional training to prepare for a lifetime career.

Caspe and Lopez (2017) stressed that reading literacy begins at birth and that each family has a powerful influence on a child by having conversations, providing a book-print rich environment, and providing interactive learning games with technology. There are four main roles parents can engage in that directly affect their child’s academic success in reading:

1. Support learning by learning how to support their child in reading.
2. School partner role where parent-teacher conferences and communication support the parent in guiding a child’s reading at home through homework and practice strategies.
3. Role of advocate for school improvement by increasing family engagement in the school to produce positive outcomes.
4. Parents engaged as decision makers and in leadership roles where they network socially to support all parents in their school’s reading program (Weiss et al., 2010, p. 6)

Krashen, Lee, and McQuillan (2010) found that “more reading leads to better reading (and writing, spelling, vocabulary and grammar), and that more access to books results in more reading” (p. 26). Thompson, Gillis, Fairman, and Mason (2014) found that parents engaging at home in their child’s reading literacy learning at home had a significant impact on their son or daughters reading literacy and achievement. McQuillan (1998) found that, by kindergarten, the word gap increases to over 40 million, and the average low-income child has experienced only 25 hours of one-on-one reading time while their middle-income peers have had over 1,000. Webb (2015) stated, “Engaged communities must be mobilized to remove barriers, expand opportunities, and assist parents in fulfilling their roles and responsibilities to serve as full partners in the success of their children in order to assure student success” (p. 11).

The main areas of parent engagement are building trust with parents, listening to them, educating and sharing learning tools and strategies for reading, communicating and meeting with parents, establishing a baseline of entry reading level of the student, and informing parents of the results. Altschul (2011) pointed out that parent engagement at home and school are different once the child comes to kindergarten and includes helping with homework, talking over school events and daily events with the child, and actively interacting with intellectual games or reading events. Parents can engage by helping with homework at home, volunteering in the school as a reader support, or supporting their student in parent-teacher conferences. Figuring out how parents can engage and maintain student confidentiality does raise a concern. Guidelines and procedural policies must be
set up to assure a student’s privacy. The motivation behind parent engagement depends on their motivation to help their child. The atmosphere or school climate makes a difference also. Parents need to be offered knowledge, vision, mission, and goals of the school, so they understand how to support their child in reading. Professional development of students’ strengths in reading directly encourages success in their careers.

Dempsey and Sandler (as cited in Walker, Shenker, & Hoover-Dempsey, 2010) found the following levels influencing parent volunteer engagement: the role the parents engage is seen as their duty, self-efficacy or the parents’ belief that they are helping educational outcomes, and the parents’ perception of their invitation to volunteer received from administrator, teacher, or their child. There are varieties of ways parents can get engaged in supporting reading literacy, including parent contact with the school and assisting their child with homework in their home (Hoover-Dempsey, 2010). McKenna and Millen (2013) stressed four conditions for their holistic model of parent engagement: development over time, active and deliberate practices, culture sensitivity, and both community and personal engagement. Communication and active listening build trust between teachers and parents within the Title I school community (Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 2005a, 2005b).

Many times, parents need reading instruction themselves in order to support their child’s reading literacy. Auerbach and Collier (2012) reminded us that family literacy programs were initiated across America since the 1980s. The authors stated further that immigrant parents, possibly having limited skills in speaking English and reading English, need programs that educate them on reading skills and the school’s curriculum so that they understand more how to support their child’s reading at home. The Best Start Resource Center (2011) reported, “Engagement goes beyond involvement of families.
Families are engaged when they are motivated and empowered to identify their own needs, strengths and resources” (p. 3). The Center for Public Education (2011) reported, “If children don’t feel connected to school, parent involvement alone will not make a significant contribution to student achievement. Students must also feel that they belong at school and that their teachers support them” (p. 10). Dwyer and Hecht (1992), in the National Center for Education Statistics SES composite score, found factors that influenced parent engagement. The composite was made up of five different variables: (a) mother’s education, (b) father’s education, (c) family income, (d) father’s occupational status, and (e) the number of certain types of possessions found in the student’s home. Additionally, five measures of home environment were examined: (a) composition of the household, (b) minimal parental involvement during high school, (c) parents reading to the student during early childhood, (d) patterns of mother’s employment, and (e) having a special place in the household for the student to study.

**Reading for literacy.** In kindergarten, students are scored by using systematic fall, winter, and spring benchmark assessments that vary from Developmental Reading Assessment to Reading Running Records. Reading skills are learned in a systematic progression that builds up from phonemes and letters to whole words. Brown (2014) found that children who receive effective teaching of reading skills usually develop the needed skills and behaviors for reading that provide a foundation for future grade-level reading proficiency and positive reading outcomes. The skills kindergartners learn for reading help them succeed in math, science, and all other subjects. A person must learn to read, which includes knowing how to transfer use of letters to make words in writing, in order to understand how to cope with the daily activities of life and to understand meanings.
**Phonemic awareness.** Spencer, Schuele, Guillot, and Lee (2008) found that “phonological awareness is a broad term that relates to the ability to analyze the sound structure of language; whereas, phonemic awareness is related to those aspects of phonological awareness directly associated with the manipulation of individual sound” (p. 109). Phonics or phonological awareness focuses on graphemes or letters, their sounds, phonemes (words made up of small sound units), and chunks (syllables with a beginning sound-onset and an ending sound-rime). Phonics is the collaboration between letter and letter sound that connect to make words in the act of reading, which also transfer to writing. Dr. Heggerty (Literacy Resources, 2013) mapped out the differences between phonemic awareness and phonics chart. The main focus in phonemic awareness is on phonemes or sounds, and the main focus in phonics is on graphemes or letters. Phonemic awareness deals with the spoken language, and phonics deals with written language or print. Whereas phonemic awareness is mostly auditory, phonics is both visual and auditory. Finally, in phonemic awareness, students work with manipulating sounds and sounds in words.

In phonics, students work with reading and writing letters according to their sounds, spelling patterns, and phonological structure. Dr. Heggerty (Literacy Resources, 2013) added, “A child who is phonemically aware is able to isolate sounds, manipulate the sounds, blend and segment the sounds into spoken and written words” (p. 1). The National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (2000) reported the following:

It is important to recognize that the goals of phonics instruction are to provide children with some key knowledge and skills and to ensure that they know how to apply this knowledge in their reading and writing. Phonics teaching is a means to
Vocabulary and spelling. Vocabulary includes word knowledge, morphemic elements, word meaning, word analysis, and words in context. Morphology involves morphemes or units of meaning within words and the formation of the words. Vocabulary is the knowledge of the meaning and knowing how to pronounce the words. Baumann (2009) stated, “The relationship between word knowledge and text understanding has been demonstrated empirically in many ways and along multiple dimensions both historically and contemporarily” (p. 325). Cohen (2012) pointed out, “A strong focus on vocabulary helps students understand and communicate using appropriate terminology, and the incorporation of imagery makes learning fun” (p. 72).

Fountas and Pinnell (2011) stated, “Vocabulary refers to words and their meanings. The more known vocabulary words in a text, the easier a text will be. The individual’s reading and vocabulary refer to words that (they) understand” (p. 2). For a child to be able to spell and recognize vocabulary words takes a foundational understanding of letter recognition and phoneme relatedness to letter, which is called letter-sound correspondence, in order to say, spell, and write words for meaning. The size of kindergartners’ vocabulary is a predictor of their reading comprehension in middle elementary years (Scarborough, 1998). Systematic phonics teaches the letters, sounds of letters, and word development in order to build a strong vocabulary.

Comprehension. Reading is an active process that encourages children to use personal knowledge by activating what they know before they read a book by doing a book walk, which is done after a child picks a book. When children pick a book, they examine the front and back covers, the table of contents, look at a few pages in the book, look at the illustrations to get an idea about the topic, and to see if they are interested in
reading this book. Taking a book walk gets the children to think about what is happening in this story, make predictions about the book, and connect their prior knowledge to what they have seen in the book. This strategy helps students to pick books that they are interested in. Then when children read the book, they can focus on the main idea, the main characters, and the meaning of the text. Semantics is the way the language reveals the meaning of the text. Syntax is the phrasing and sentence structure to find out what makes sense and to find meaning.

Clay (2001) remarked, “Reading is a message-getting, problem-solving activity which increases in flexibility over time the more it is practiced” (p. 4). Comprehension includes understanding the meaning of a sentence, the structure of narrative, expository stories, analyzing the text, and monitoring for understanding. Listening comprehension and decoding skills lead to reading comprehension. Teaching children the reading subskills increases positive comprehension outcomes. Deshler, Ellis, and Lenz (1996) wrote Teaching Adolescents With Learning Disabilities: Strategies and Methods and explained that the following happens during reading. Good readers are able to (a) anticipate and predict, (b) use contextual analysis to understand new terms, (c) use text structure to assist comprehension, and (d) organize and integrate new information. However, poor readers do not see any organization and add on rather than integrate information.

**Fluency.** Reading fluently helps children to understand or comprehend the meaning of the text. Wright and Cleary (2006) stated, “Students with reading delays in the primary grades must first attain basic fluency in decoding of text before they can efficiently comprehend the meaning of reading passages” (p. 99). The National Reading Panel (2000) found that “fluency helps enable reading comprehension by freeing
cognitive resources for interpretation” (p. 3). The National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (2000) reported the following:

Teachers need to know that word recognition accuracy is not the end point of reading instruction. Fluency represents a level of expertise beyond word recognition accuracy and reading comprehension may be aided by fluency. Skilled readers read words accurately, rapidly, and efficiently. Children who do not develop reading fluency, no matter how bright they are, will continue to read slowly and with great effort. (p. 3)

Fluency includes letter recognition, letter-sound correspondence, word identification, and connecting the text.

**Parent engagement and student reading literacy outcomes.** Parent engagement in kindergarten has become a critical factor in supporting student reading outcomes. Nelson (2005) stated, “A child’s success in kindergarten is a strong predictor of future school success” (p. 215). Children with parental support also enter kindergarten not only ready to learn, but also with a developed maturity that allows them to adapt to the new environment of a kindergarten classroom. Immature children need school and parental support from home to transition into kindergarten.

Therefore, parents need to understand that an important part of reading for meaning is being able to communicate what has been read. Parents engaging and supporting a child at home with reading use the skills of listening, reading, and sharing conversation about the book in order to make meaning. Chomsky’s theory of language held that the speaker-listener portion in communication was far more important in engaging people. He felt that, even with language deficiencies and lack of knowledge, parents when talking shared conversation, listened, and took turns speaking and listening;
therefore, teachers and administrators must communicate with parents to help them understand how to engage at school and support their child’s reading literacy. It is critical for teachers and administrators to communicate effectively with parents in order to build a warm environment at school, which welcomes and inspires parents to engage and support their child’s positive reading literacy outcomes. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2017), student reading literacy outcomes revealed a loss in achievement (see Table 3).

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade level</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 4</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The NCES (2016) also found a gradation within low-SES kindergartners and their reading literacy outcomes. First-time kindergartners who demonstrated positive approaches to learning behaviors more frequently in the fall of kindergarten tended to make greater gains in reading, mathematics, and science between kindergarten and second grade. For each additional point in students’ fall kindergarten approaches to learning score, average gains from kindergarten to second grade were 3.4 points higher for reading, 1.9 points higher for mathematics, and 1.3 points higher for science.

The positive relationships between initial approaches to learning behaviors and academic gains in reading, mathematics, and science were larger for students from lower SES households than for students from higher SES households. Student reading literacy
outcomes have not improved and, in fact, the results have declined. Since parents are concerned about a child’s success in reading, teachers need to provide practical training opportunities for parents to practice with their child at home: sharing strategies and teaching parents how to play games to learn vocabulary, to practice sight words, and to improve fluency skills. Parents need guidance in order to support their child’s reading outcomes.

Epstein (2009) stated, “The main reason to create such partnerships is to help all youngsters succeed in school and in later life” (p. 38). The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2011) reported the following:

Even when comparing students of similar socio-economic (sic) backgrounds, those students whose parents regularly read books to them when they were in the first year of primary school score 14 points higher, on average, than students whose parents did not. (p. 2)

The National Reading Panel (2000) identified “phonemic awareness and letter knowledge as the two best school entry predictors of how well children will learn to read during their first 2 years in school” (p. 21).

Of course, children enter kindergarten with varying levels of word knowledge and vocabulary memory. Parents who engage with their children at home through reading and verbal interaction increase the child’s word knowledge. Dervarics and O’Brien (2011) explained, “Programs and interventions that engage families in supporting their children’s learning at home are linked to higher student achievement” (p. 3). Parent engagement that supports reading literacy also includes a student-parent usage of strategies to understand “phonics instruction, listening comprehension, reading comprehension, tutoring, and an at-home component” (Kelly & Campbell, 2016, p. 22).
Kindergarten to second-grade improvements were shown by the NCES (2016) as a result of positive collaboration between teachers, parents, and students (see Table 4).

Table 4

*Average Reading Scores for Students From Kindergarten to Grade 2, 2010-2013*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time of assessment</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Very often</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fall 2010</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spring 2011</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First grade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spring 2012</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second grade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spring 2013</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Harris and Robinson (2016) found that stage setting, when parents maintain an expectation that their children will achieve in class and have positive reading outcomes, helps the child to accomplish these goals set from their parent’s influence and expectations. Active participation of parents at school and home support a child’s reading literacy. The actions of parents such as conferences, conferring in the student planner, reading at home, and supporting homework at home are a few ways parents support reading literacy.

More important to parent engagement is trust between parents and the school. Increasingly, research literature shows that when parents, teachers, and administrators build a trusting relationship; it lubricates school changes and daily activities (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Goddard, 2001; Steinberg, 2011). Research-based theory on parent engagement provides the framework for teachers and administrators to engage parents in
supporting their child’s reading literacy. Smith (2001) shared Peter Senge’s ideas on the four values a person uses to drive theory in use: (a) personal mastery, (b) mental models, (c) building shared vision, and (d) team learning. There is usually a noticeable difference in people’s perceptions of their theory in use and their theory in action.

For example, theory in use occurs when teachers and administrators expect parents to be involved in their child’s reading literacy, but theory in action happens when teachers and administrators provide educational programs for parents to learn about reading literacy, family literacy, and how to engage and support their child’s reading literacy at home and at school. Engaged parents might embrace their job to support reading but be weak in following through with the actions required to support their child’s reading. A mapped-out plan and clear directions need to be delivered to parents before they begin assisting in homework, reading time, and parent conferences. Engaged parents need to feel a part of the school community working together under the same vision, mission, and common goals of the school. The key to helping parents understand the components of reading and strategies for reading is to explain how they can engage at home in supporting their child in reading literacy.

**Technology: Dojo, i-Ready, and Imagine Learning programs.** Technology has become increasingly important in 21st-century education for students, teachers, and parents. Teachers can maximize parental engagement by using technology to communicate with parents through a computer or a cell phone. These communication programs help parents to connect with the teacher in order to understand a wide range of important information regarding their child’s behavior, academic growth and needs, and projects and school activities going on in their child’s classroom and school. Some programs that assist and support the teacher-parent connection are Dojo, i-Ready, and
Imagine Learning, as well as the school’s website, in which parents gain access to student data and grading by setting up their own individual accounts. Schwartz (2014) found that 68% of parents surveyed believed computer programs, such as i-Ready, Dojo, and Imagine Learning, shifted their own perceptions of their child’s school. The author stated, “Many parents stated that they feel that computing elevates the public schools, putting schools on par with their private counterparts” (Schwartz, 2014, p. 27).

Imagine Learning provides a strategic scaffold for supporting students when English is their second language. This Imagine Learning program comes in 15 different languages and starts with a beginning lesson of the ABCs and letter sounds for phonics. This program encourages English-language learners with foundational practice in beginning reading skills and repetition to learn the skills with built-in practice and feedback. Schwartz (2014) surveyed parents and found that computer programs used at school that were also accessible at home impacted reading outcomes positively because “everyone has access to technology even if they are not able to afford it. This makes it fair for ALL students” (p. 27).

The i-Ready model is a diagnostic and instructional program for reading. This computer program is used in school and at the student’s home. The student gets an access code, uses it a certain amount of time weekly in school and can practice with it at home to develop skills for reading literacy and vocabulary development. Each lesson within this reading program gives the student a tutorial, then a guided practice session, and finally a graded assessment. Students get immediate, supportive feedback within each lesson. With students’ mastery and passage of each lesson, they acquire points that allow them to have a game session between lessons as a reward. Teachers use this entry test on i-Ready as a baseline to guide planning lessons for students to track their progress. These
i-Ready findings help the teacher to share information on the student’s reading literacy with parents, plan lessons to teach, and chart the student’s progress in reading. Teachers gather data from the i-Ready program and other computer programs to inform parents on their child’s academic growth. The Harvard Graduate School of Education (2013) reported the following:

Parents need to understand that teachers use data to adapt teaching strategies to students’ needs as well as to help students work toward specific learning goals. Knowing how teachers use data helps reassure families that the data are used in meaningful ways and that their child is not seen as just a set of numbers. (p. 3)

On the school’s website, parents gain access to student data, grades, and teacher communications by setting up their own individual accounts. Teachers can maximize parental engagement by using technology to communicate and connect with parents through a computer or a cell phone. These communication programs help parents to connect with the teacher in order to understand a wide range of important information regarding their child’s behavior, academic growth and needs, projects and school activities going on in their child’s classroom and school. The school website has a variety of information about school happenings and important dates and also helps parents to register for an individual account that directly links to their child’s academic grades, behavior, outcomes, and teacher communications; students have access as well. This connection of engagement through the students’ account allows parents to know what their children are achieving, their gaps in work, and to communicate with their children’s teachers.

These programs are just a few that enhance communication between parents and school so that the parents can engage and support their child’s positive learning to meet
the students’ academic goals. The Harvard Graduate School of Education (2013) found that, when parents talk with their child’s teacher about assessment data from computer programs, they get an accurate picture of their child’s strengths and weaknesses so that the parent and teacher can work together to make a plan to help support and promote a student’s reading outcomes. The Harvard Graduate School of Education found that teachers “help families understand what the data suggest about their child’s overall academic progress and any learning challenges that need to be addressed” (p. 6).

In addition, computer technology and usage involve a brain-based science of learning and have influenced 21st-century learning by incorporating computer-based programs to encourage student learning and parent engagement. One aspect of computer programming is directly aimed at reading and math. One-to-one laptop learning is a vital part of math and reading programs across the United States. These programs are brain-based programs developed to make learning active, emotionally connected, and developed for levels of learning so each individual student can engage academically on level in order to achieve growth in math and reading. The focus is on computer reading programs that engage students in reading skills, evaluate and give feedback, and show direct growth or decline in measurements of learning acquired by each student. Data are collected by the teacher and shared with the parents in order to stay current on the student’s needs, supporting team work in improving the child’s reading skills. Computer reading programs allow endogenous learning to occur, where a student learns from within and is motivated internally to learn.

Computer programming supports a child’s learning level and ability, builds on the level of skills and gradually advances to more challenging skills developing as a reader for understanding. By targeting specific student learning needs, the student reading
achievement rate increases. Clearly, computer reading programs enhance student learning. The advantages of computer reading programs are that students get direct feedback, build skills on their own level, and are tracked for growth outcomes so that teachers can share information with parents and together can support the students’ reading literacy outcomes. Computer programming connects students to 21st-century skills such as critical thinking and self-directed learning. The critical point is that computer programs for reading engage students at all levels, but also reengage at-risk students so that they can acquire and learn missed skills needed for reading success.

**Critical Theory and Theorists**


**Family literacy theory.** Family Literacy Theory was termed by Denny Taylor in 1983. Family literacy occurs when one person passes information to another person to help to promote “intellectual, social, spiritual, emotional, and educational growth; intellectual growth refers to the everyday learning that takes place outside of a formal educational institution” (Saskatchewan Ministry of Education, 2008, p. 2). Two models of Family Literacy Theory exist: one for deficits programmed for at-risk students and families and the other strength based for members of a community to contribute to support a student’s positive learning outcomes. This Family Literacy Theory is important because, in order for parents to engage, they need to understand how the family is
involved in the process of a child’s education and reading academic growth first and then have the skills to follow through and support reading at home. Family Literacy Theory focuses on activities and cooperative learning experiences among family members practiced at home. Through these learning experiences a child learns vocabulary, reading skills, and strategies to learn.

Family Literacy Theory recognizes the family as an asset to the school because parent engagement starts at home, and a home-school connection develops the opportunity to understand the resources that support reading literacy at home. Family literacy provides an opportunity for parents to engage in reading literacy experiences at home. This family literacy connection creates respect and understanding of the child’s cultural heritage, language diversity in the family, and the relationship of parent and child to support a child’s motivation to become literate both at home and at school. This Family Literacy Theory also helps parents to recognize their living conditions and offers ways to improve the academic environment at home to meet reading literacy needs of their child. Family Literacy Theory involves all members of the family as viable components to a child’s learning development in reading.

**Social exchange model of family engagement.** Along with Family Literacy Theory, the Social Exchange Model of Family Engagement (Halgunseth et al., 2009) was developed to support family engagement through home-school connection to support student literacy. This Social Exchange Model of Family Engagement is rooted in the Social Exchange Theory, which integrates a combination of anthropology, behavioral psychology, economics, sociology, and social psychology. The assumptions of Social Exchange Theory are (a) people subjectively and introspectively engage to interact in a rational manner, (b) people typically work in dyads (i.e., groups) and get gratification
from others in their works, (c) people interact with others to network and gain profitable situations from their knowledge learned, (d) people are competitive and want to succeed and use knowledge to gain positive results, (e) people are goal oriented in a competitive world, and (f) social norms influence people’s actions; consistent engagement and the more positive results of the engagement lead to more positive engagement (Halgunseth et al., 2009).

Social Exchange Theory is important because attitudes such as trust, respect, and support are reciprocal to the parents, students, and teachers in building a bridge to a child’s positive reading outcomes. Social Exchange Theory is a solution-focused theory that points to effective communication and collaboration, flexibility, responsiveness, and consistent parent support. The social exchange model of family engagement is illustrated here (see Figure 1).

![Social Exchange Model](image)

**Figure 1.** Social exchange model of family engagement.

**Dual capacity-building framework.** The Dual Capacity-Building Framework for Family-School Partnerships (Mapp & Kuttner, 2013) focuses on the importance of family engagement and links family engagement to student learning outcomes by utilizing
policies and programs to connect parents by building networks, sharing skills and knowledge, building on parents’ belief system, and developing self-efficacy. The Dual Capacity-Building Framework supports parent engagement. This framework considers parents to be capable, connected, confident, and cognitive of their importance to supporting their child’s reading literacy outcomes by engaging at home and at school. The first step in this Dual Capacity-Building Framework is to review opportunities for parent engagement and to develop opportunities for parents to engage in academic programs in school. Teachers are not as familiar with how to make connections with diverse families of different cultures. This first step is a challenge. The second step of this program is to link parent engagement to academics. The goal is to build relationships between the school and parents, collaborate, and interact to support student reading literacy. The third step of this program is the policies and programming goals. There are four Cs in this third step: capabilities, connections, cognition, and confidence. The fourth step is to meet parents where they can engage by letting the parents negotiate how they get involved such as being a supporter, encourager, monitor, advocate, decision-maker, or collaborator. The main goal of the Dual Capacity-Building Framework is to link families to school in partnership.

**Reading theories.** The reading theories adopted for this study were theories of Clay (1998), Chall (1983), and Fountas and Pinnell (2009). Marie Clay’s Emergent Literacy Theory found that children come to school with some knowledge of reading and writing. How parents engage at home with their child from birth to 5 or 6 years of age, when children start kindergarten, and the skills learned at home increase a child’s knowledge and help to prepare them for school and reading. Clay also supports leveled reading lessons so that children can process learning to read while meeting the needs and
skills at each level of learning. The reader then acquires the critical thinking skills and thinking skills to meet the demands of increasingly more challenging texts. The author stated, “This happens provided the reader is not struggling” (Clay, 2001, p. 132).

Clay (1998) believed that children had an understanding about reading and writing before they attended kindergarten and could apply this learned knowledge to school learning. Oral language, reading, and writing were developed through practice and use. Clay found that demographics, changing perceptions, and learning were influenced by how interested and engaged children are in reading that leads to the child emerging into meaningful reading and writing literacy. Emergent Literacy was defined by Neuman (2000) as “the view that literacy learning begins at birth and is encouraged through participation with adults in meaningful activities; these literacy behaviors change and eventually become conventional over time” (p. 153). How the parents engage at home impacts a child before they start formal kindergarten, so parents need to understand reading literacy, levels of reading, and the skills children need to learn in order to read and make meaning of the text.

Another set of concepts that is part of the theoretical perspectives of this systematic review of literature involved Chall’s (1983) Stages of Reading Development. The five stages through which readers develop, according to Chall, are as follows. Stage 0 is prereading, and Stage 1 is beginning reading and decoding. Decoding a word is a combination of skills. Decoding a word means to be able to recognize the letters and the sounds of each letter in order to sound out the word. First, word recognition plays a part of knowing a word, which is called identification skill. There is also decoding of nonwords, such as ploud, frush, blud, which is called word attack skill. While pronouncing these nonwords, a child uses the phonics skills. Decoding a word is called
word identification, meaning that a child can sound out the letters properly and say the word correctly.

Stage 2 is a continuance of reading and fluency. Reading fluency is that a child reads and rereads a text using expression for smooth delivery of the written words. The more fluent a child is in reading, the greater the knowledge of vocabulary words for reading literacy. Reading fluency develops from many opportunities to read a text over and over again, which increases independent reading literacy. Stage 3 is reading for learning comprehension. Reading comprehension is a stage where unskilled readers are differentiated from skilled, active readers. Reading comprehension is involved and includes having a solid memory of learned vocabulary, knowing that the purpose of reading is comprehension, and having skills to become enthusiastic readers for meaning and understanding. Reading and rereading a text, summarizing what has been read, and reading for understanding are ways to improve reading comprehension.

Stage 4 involves understanding multiple viewpoints. This occurs when students learn to collaborate and talk about the text, while listening to others’ opinions and interpretations of the text. This enables students to deal with more than one point of view and uncover the layers of information on a concept, which can only be done if the student learned the basic knowledge in stage 3. Being a global reader means that someone reads a text and understands the views of the writers. For example, the book Seven Blind Mice tells the viewpoints of seven different characters, and the reader must understand this idea while reading the text for meaning. This multiple perspective understanding enables the reader to differentiate each character and weave the story together to make sense. Lastly, Stage 5 involves construction and reconstruction. Reading construction is that a child develops reading skills such as vocabulary, decoding words, analyzing stories with regard
to grammar parts, questioning text, summarizing, and reading a text for meaning and understanding. A student knows what to read and what not to read and reads information that is important to the central area of what he or she is studying for the purpose of understanding the text relating to a concept. Learning to read is a process.

Chall’s (1983) stages of reading development are important because everyone goes through these stages, and a person’s age or grade level does not necessarily dictate a person’s level of progress in reading. Because children mature at different ages, their reading develops depending on the skills learned in school, practice at home, and emotional readiness to positively approach learning to read. Children naturally progress in reading through stages of development in reading. Letters and letter sound knowledge are the foundation to decoding a word and sounding out a word. Sounding out a word for word memory is the foundation to putting a sentence together for understanding. Sentence understanding and story formation, beginning, middle, and end, are foundational to critical thinking skills about the story’s meaning.

Another component of this dissertation’s theoretical perspective is the Fountas and Pinnell (2009) Reading Literacy Theory. The Fountas and Pinnell Reading Literacy Theory is a unique assessment system used to examine a student’s beginning elementary reading literacy skills when entering kindergarten. The Fountas and Pinnell Reading Literacy has two sets of instructional assessments and intervention guides formatted to assess readers from reading levels A to Z starting in kindergarten. At each level (i.e., A to Z), texts are analyzed using 10 characteristics: (a) genre or form, (b) text structure, (c) content, (d) themes and ideas, (e) language and literary features, (f) sentence complexity, (g) vocabulary, (h) word difficulty, (i) illustrations or graphics, and (j) book and print features (Fountas & Pinnell, 2006, 2008, 2009).
Fountas and Pinnell (2006) developed this theory to support struggling readers; the assessments help teachers and parents to understand a student’s reading strengths and needs in order to guide instruction. Teachers can share the assessment results with parents, and, together, they can plan and support the reader’s needs both at school and at home. The following is an original, cyclical form of parent engagement, in which parents can step in at any point and still get the support that they need in order to support their child’s learning (see Figure 2).

![Balanced Parent Engagement through Accountability](image)

*Figure 2. Balanced parent engagement through accountability.*

**Title I.** The focus of this dissertation was on Title I, which refers to assistance for families of low SES. The National Assessment of Adult Literacy in 2003 found that “34
44

million adults function at below basic literacy levels, meaning they are unable to complete simple literacy tasks such as filling out a job application, filling out a deposit slip, or reading a prescription label” (National Center for Families Learning, 2017, p. 1). The National Center for Family Literacy (2003) and the National Center for Families Learning (2003) emphasized this relationship between family-parent SES and education and their students’ learning as follows: (a) One child is born into poverty every 40 seconds, (b) a child is born to an uneducated mother, (c) a home with a variety of reading materials is linked to a child having positive reading outcomes, and (d) barriers in schools are no homework support at home, socioeconomic differences, cultural differences, language barriers, parental attitudes, and safety concerns after school hours.

Newman and Bizzarri (2013) found that parents of English-language learners who spoke another language at home, but were learning English at school, wanted to be involved, and the parents’ engagement supported their child’s success in reading. Also, parents in similar neighborhoods or in similar situations of barriers to support their child in reading found when they shared their experiences and interacted in the community or school together, they were able to support their child at school in reading literacy better (Edegger & Wagley, 2014).

Gordon, Downey, and Bangert (2013) stated the strategies that encourage parent engagement are “collaboration, mentoring, parent engagement, professional development, and parent education” (p. 230). Parent engagement varies according to a family’s SES. The NCES (2015b) found that low-SES families, no matter what their culture was, who did outside educational activities such as arts and crafts or games, had increased parent engagement over parents and children from nonpoor families (NCES, 2015b). Low-SES families have parents who care very much about their child’s literacy
success, and the time the parents spend with the child at home engaged in a learning
activity or game, no matter what the culture, impacts the child’s academic growth. The
NCES also found that certain cultures, such as White-Black and White-Hispanic, had
closed reading gaps from 1970 to 2012 with students ages 9, 13, and 17, even though
White students gained 21 points or more compared to these groups of learners.
Furthermore, in 2014 to 2015, almost half of Black and Hispanic public school students,
a third of American Indian students, and one quarter of Pacific Islander students went to
high-poverty schools” (NCES, 2015c, p. 1).

**Parent, student, and school compact-contract for Title I.** In Title I schools,
parents do not always feel competent to engage in supporting their child’s reading
program and the homework that goes with it; therefore, they do not engage. The National
Education Association (2011) reported, “Parents, families, educators, and communities—
there’s no better partnership to assure that all students pre-K to high school have the
support and resources they need to succeed in school and in life” (p. 12). Title I refers to
federal funding that aims to increase learning and overall positive student outcomes for
high-poverty schools with at least 40% or more at-risk students (Coleman, 1966).

These findings were based on research that included parents from varying levels
of social economic status. Crosby et al. (2015) found that children who had poor reading
skills or read at a low level experienced a low reading level in Grade 4; however, if the
parents learned how to implement reading lessons to do at home, the children’s reading
skills improved into the 75th to 90th percentiles. McConnell and Kubina (2016) found
that at-risk students improved when their parents received reading training and reading
skills to implement at home. Title I schools have a parent, student, and school contract for
families to agree with and sign (see Appendix B).
The basis for parent engagement is to create a supportive learning environment for both the school and parents so that they can encourage and help improve children’s reading progress. The real connection behind parent engagement is to create a supportive learning environment for parents so that they can encourage and help their own children’s growth in reading outcomes. There are student responsibilities linked to a parent engaging with their child in order to support reading literacy at home. Tellet-Royce and Wooten (2011) found that engaged parents are capable of introducing children to cultural events to enrich both male and female children positively and using their skills, talents, or interests to support program goals that benefit both parent and child. Parent engagement means supporting their child’s education in school and at home. Because individual students learn in different ways, as well as differ in how they are motivated, activities they prefer, and concepts they do not understand, the “first strategy involves learning as much as possible about students including (a) their interests, (b) what they find difficult or scary about learning, and (c) what strategies they are currently using” (Israel, Maynard, & Williamson, 2013).

**Current Literature: Gaps and Limitations**

A preliminary search for systematic reviews of literature on low social economic kindergarten parent engagement and reading achievement produced 60 studies. In 15 studies on the connection between parent engagement and student reading outcomes, there had not been an emphasis on how influential parent engagement is on early learners in kindergarten and on student reading outcomes. Another study showed that no practical studies have been done to measure how a parent’s time affects their amount of or quality of parent engagement. One quantitative review on parent engagement, the determinants of father involvement and connections to children’s literacy and language outcomes, was
published in 2016 and initially had 51 articles but was filtered down to 19 because of coding and not meeting inclusion criteria. The findings in this review were that resident fathers, fathers’ use of complex language, their income level and educational level directly impacted fathers’ involvement, which influenced the mothers’ involvement.

Consequently, a child’s reading literacy and language development was impacted. The income level was linked to a father’s ability to provide and invest time in cultivating a positive environment at home to support reading literacy. Another aspect of the results was that the low-income father benefited from the mother’s involvement, which influenced a child’s reading literacy (Harding, Morris, & Hill, 2017). These findings were based on research that included parents from varying levels of social economic status.

This systematic literature review was focused strictly on Title I schools and parent engagement. This systematic literature review went beyond basic parent classification but examined how Title I parents get engaged in supporting their child’s literacy in school, at home, and in the community.

Educators need to understand why parents disengage and to evaluate professional development to support parent engagement. There is a need to further investigate what factors motivate parents to be engaged in their child’s reading literacy and education both at home and in the Title I school environment (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2012). Also, there is a serious need to examine technology and computer or phone use with parents in educational settings to support student learning to find out the effectiveness and to address the issue of parents who do not have access to phones, computers, and technology. This dissertation systematically analyzed research that studied the relationship between parent engagement or lack thereof and students’ reading literacy outcomes. In conclusion, this systematic review synthesized research from
past studies in order to understand the links between parent engagement and student reading outcomes in low-SES schools.

**Research Questions 1 and 2**

Research Question 1 asked the following: What is the relationship between parent engagement and student reading literacy outcomes in low-SES students in kindergarten? Research Question 2 asked the following: What strategies are effective to increase low-SES parent engagement that impacts reading literacy outcomes for children in kindergarten?

**Deficiencies in the Evidence**

In the many studies done to show a connection between parent engagement and student reading outcomes, there had not been an emphasis on how influential parent engagement is on early learners in kindergarten and on student reading outcomes. There was a need to further investigate what programs support the parent regarding their child’s reading literacy and education both at home and in the Title I school environment (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2012; National Conference of State Legislatures, 2015; National Research Council, 2000). This dissertation was designed to systematically analyze research that studied the relationship between parent engagement or lack thereof and students’ reading literacy outcomes.
Chapter 3: Methodology

Aim of the Study

The purpose of this systematic review of the literature was to synthesize current peer reviewed research in parent engagement and student reading outcomes in Title I schools at the kindergarten level. This chapter explains the methodology used within this systematic literature review. The purpose of this systematic literature review and meta-synthesis was to examine, evaluate, and synthesize pertinent qualitative and quantitative studies that explore parent engagement and the connection to student reading outcomes. The objectives of this systematic literature review and meta-synthesis were (a) to determine the correlation between parent engagement linked to student reading outcomes (b) to identify in the literature strengths and areas for improvement needs for parent engagement implementation, and (c) to synthesize the key details found in the data that link parent engagement to student reading outcomes.

Transparency, rigor, and objectivity are the main characteristics of a systematic literature review to eliminate bias and provide answers to the questions to provide evidence for stakeholders to develop progressive plans for positive outcomes. This chapter addresses the methodology, methods, and inner working details of this systematic literature review and meta-synthesis on parent engagement. This includes a qualitative and quantitative synthesis of data from studies on parent engagement and parent involvement linked to student reading outcomes in Title I schools, mainly at the kindergarten level. This chapter describes the research design, data collection, and data-synthesis plan.

Qualitative Research Approach

The research method used was a systematic literature review and meta-synthesis.
Meta-synthesis was used rather than meta-analysis because many studies were correlated using qualitative method of synthesis. Qualitative analysis involves a nonlinear iterative approach. The preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-synthesis analysis (PRISMA) guided checklist for procedure processes was used in this systematic literature review. This systematic review of literature with a meta-synthesis was conducted based on the Campbell Collaboration protocols.

Research selection was based on title and abstract, which led to collecting over 140 articles. After identifying relevant studies specifically about parent engagement and student reading literacy outcomes, this researcher correlated the data gathered to form conclusions on the research questions. Meta-synthesis was the method of this research and is a process of gathering more than 40 articles, correlating the data, and focusing on the results of qualitative research-based articles on parent engagement. Booth (2016) stated the following:

A search strategy to be effective requires (i) that it retrieves relevant records, (ii) that it does not retrieve irrelevant references and (iii) that the collective terms be parsimonious, thereby avoiding redundancy. The third requirement is a particular current concern for the qualitative searching community. (p. 432)

Specific information was formatted into researched based findings in order to know what the connection is between parent engagement and students’ reading outcomes. To support the use of meta-synthesis, Sandelowski, Docherty, and Emden (1997) wrote, “In contrast to quantitative metaanalysis, qualitative metasynthesis is not about averaging or reducing findings to a common metric, but rather enlarging the interpretive possibilities of findings and constructing larger narratives or general theories” (p. 369).

Qualitative data content analysis and theoretical-comprehensive sampling assures
transparency when analyzing and appraising all relevant and appropriate studies that met the standards of inclusion criteria and supported solid details within the individual studies, revealing tables, text, and appendices “to enable readers to validate the author’s conclusions” (August & Shanahan, 2006, p. 432). This systematic literature review retrieved data from the past 10 years. Categorical data were synthesized to reveal if there is a direct connection and association between parent engagement and student reading outcomes.

Search strategies included a combination of the following terms: parent engagement, parent involvement, reading strategies, student reading outcomes, and professional development for reading. Included are articles that were peer reviewed. Searches were done in addition to visiting specific databases and peer-reviewed professional journals. This search strategy was important because it is a nonlinear strategy to find relevant articles on the topic of parent engagement and student reading outcomes. This strategy also supports a wide range of data and holds varying research-based data on parent engagement that would be correlated and explained while showing the interrelationship between parent engagement and student reading outcomes.

A systematic literature review with a meta-synthesis approach develops correlations found in data in current use and its uses in the future. It shows the interrelationship between parent engagement and student reading outcomes. The gathered data will lead to distinct points of information that will be valuable in understanding parent engagement and student reading outcomes. The data retrieved were analyzed to answer the research questions and formulate new ideas for use within parent engagement. The approaches detail the different critical points made about parent engagement and student reading outcomes.
Participants

The purpose of this systematic literature review and meta-synthesis was to synthesize current peer-reviewed research in the area of parent engagement and student reading outcomes for students from low-SES backgrounds, most of whom attend Title I schools. This systematic literature review considered studies that included parent engagement, parent involvement, and student reading outcomes. Variables were family, school, community, and individual factors associated with student reading outcomes. The participants in this systematic review were the participants involved in the individual studies that also met the inclusion criteria. Participants in these studies were parents of elementary students engaged in student reading processes, teachers, and administrators. No human subjects took part in this study.

This summative literature review contains data in each study and the results of the research participants, which were analyzed for data results, and participants were gathered within the 28 research-based articles chosen for the summative literature review. This researcher chose literature on parent engagement and student reading outcomes in kindergarten through second grade. A comprehensive sampling was used. The focus was on kindergarten specifically, but there was a broad focus on data from studies and reviews from kindergarten through second grade. A thorough review of literature on this topic of parent engagement was chosen and evaluated for validity. Bias and mistakes were eliminated by using only valid and reliable studies. A systematic interpretive procedure was used to analyze the literature for this systematic literature review. The peer-reviewed, current within the past ten years articles were identified, read, and reviewed to find supporting details of each study: (a) study design, (b) population sample (c) procedures, (d) data-collection methods, (e) data analysis methods, (f) findings and
conclusions, and (g) methodological quality (Fitzgerald, 1995).

Inclusion and exclusion criteria, for systematic review or meta-synthesis, are a group of statements that define the quality and design of studies that are included within (Sackett, Rosenberg, Gray, Haynes, & Richardson, 1996). Sackett et al. (1996) defined levels of evidence, and, in this paper, “Level I includes systematic reviews, and Level IV includes descriptive studies that include analysis of outcomes (i.e., single-subject design)” (p. 71), which describes this summative literature review that includes a meta-synthesis on the topic of parent engagement linked to student literacy outcomes in Title I schools. Shepperd, Adams, Hill, Garner, and Dopson (2013) found that existing summaries of information in peer-reviewed research have been instrumental in influencing new inquiries into research on a topic to further expand the knowledge for practical application of the findings in real life impacting practices within a field.

This review was built in several steps. The first was to gain access to relevant articles on parent engagement and student reading outcomes in databases. Key studies were retrieved from published and unpublished data sources. The studies included within published resources were found searching electronically in databases such as (a) ERIC, (b) ProQuest Educational Journals, (c) Psychology Database, (d) World Cat, (e) Educational Index, (f) Psychology and Behavioral Index, (g) and Speech-Language and Hearing Index. Hand searches of informational sources included specific journals in the educational field of reading. These searches included the following sources and journals: *Journal of Literacy, American Educational Research Journal, Reading Research Quarterly, U.S. Department of Education, International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, Child Development, National Assessment of Educational Progress, School Community Journal, Child Welfare, Developmental Psychology, and Elementary School*
Journal.

The framework set up in this study for inclusion and exclusion within this systematic review and meta-synthesis follows is presented next. The inclusion criteria chosen and used in this study were (a) current studies that were on parent engagement; (b) studies that included the research topic of reading outcomes, parent engagement, or kindergarten grade; (c) studies found in published peer review journals, (d) gray literature, and (e) unpublished studies found in dissertations and government reports. In addition, some studies referred to the reading instructional models such as (a) Marie Clay’s (1998) Emergent Literacy Theory, (b) Chall’s (1983) Stages of Reading, and (c) the Fountas and Pinnell (2009) reading program. Similar to other systematic reviews, this study focused on including selected qualitative research findings.

The first inclusion criteria had to do with a quality, wide collection of articles on the topic of parent engagement and a multitude of information. The second inclusion criteria referred to finding relevant articles. Qualitative filters used to find vital studies on this subject of parent engagement linked to student reading outcomes in kindergarten were (a) parent, (b) reading outcomes, (c) kindergarten, (d) #143-reports-research, and (e) peer reviewed. Only books, conference papers, and research-based articles were used. The final inclusion was date filtering. Because this researcher wanted valid articles, articles going back to 2011 to 2017 were used. The last filter was to process and itemize the points in the article to correlate the data down to major research-based data in order to draw conclusions. The exclusion criteria included (a) duplicate studies, (b) studies conducted prior to 2010, (c) studies written in non-English language, and (f) all studies that did not relate to the questions in this study.
Data-Collection Tools

This systematic literature review used the meta-aggregate approach in order to place the findings found in qualitative or quantitative studies into categories to make meaning of the categories, create statements from the aggregates, and create the synthesized findings. The meta-aggregate approach uses a compilation of data taken from individual studies reported in published literature and generally is used to analyze and summarize the findings from qualitative studies. The Critical Appraisal Skills Program assessment tool (Critical Appraisal Skills Programme, 2018) is a systematic research methodology that appraises three broad issues in systematic literature reviews: (a) validity of the study, (b) the results, and (c) how the study will help in actual practice (see Appendix C). This assessment tool helps a researcher to methodically assess the quality of each study.

After identifying relevant studies during the selection process, there was an encompassing collection process in which using a data-extraction form (see Appendix D) collected specific information from each unique study. Using unit of analysis focuses on one main event, in this case parent engagement, time origin, the scale of time, and explains the end results of this systematic literature review that may lead to future research development. A nonparametric approach was used in order to reveal the category variables and compare them. Rank-based score for the student’s reading outcomes was used to show baselines of their original testing and the end testing.

This researcher selected literature that focused on parent engagement and student reading outcomes for kindergartners. An aggregate review of literature was done by this researcher. A thorough review of literature on this topic of parent engagement was chosen and evaluated for validity. Bias and mistakes were eliminated by using only valid,
reliable studies. When differences in the studies arose, they were dependent on the methodology and the design of the study. A systematic review is broad while focusing on specific questions leading to a synthesis of valuable information relating to a specific outcome. The studies chosen were based on evidence-based practices, which means the best practices in parent engagement, the parents’ values, student reading outcomes, and the best research were synthesized to develop the new findings. The direct measures of parent engagement were measurement of items such as communication or trust, skills for reading, parents’ education background, students’ reading growth, and parents’ engagement at school. Tools used to analyze data and score the results were data charts, spreadsheets, and the data-extraction form. The task of choosing what forms of data extraction required planning and consideration of the complexity of the extracted data.

**Procedures**

The systematic literature review included the analysis of research that focuses on parent engagement linked to student reading outcomes and used a qualitative approach. To do the qualitative reporting and meta-synthesis, the PRISMA and meta-synthesis analysis was used. The PRISMA is a guided checklist for procedure processes in a systematic literature review. Search strategies included searches in databases and professional journals. Search strategies included a combination of terms listed: (a) parent, (b) reading outcomes, (c) kindergarten, (d) #143-reports-research, (e) peer reviewed, (f) parent engagement, (g) parent involvement, (h) reading outcomes, (i) Title I, (j) low-SES student, and (k) reading.

Qualitative filters used to find vital studies on this subject of parent engagement linked to student reading outcomes in kindergarten were (a) parent, (b) reading outcomes, (c) kindergarten, (d) #143-reports-research, and (e) peer reviewed. Data items included in
this summative literature review were peer-reviewed articles that included parent communication with school, family literacy, student grade level, public school, and parent engagement at home. The search was conducted first by finding relevant titles from the databases listed above. Also, abstracts and full texts of studies which met the criteria of inclusion were used in this systematic literature review. Participants included in this systematic literature review were the participants who met the inclusion criteria in the individual studies. These participants from individual studies included parents, students, educational leaders, and other individuals in previously conducted studies in the synthesis of literature. No human subjects were a part of this systematic literature review.

Multiple steps were taken in this summative literature review. First, questions were formulated. Beginning with approval by the university’s Institutional Review Board, a large sample of peer-reviewed articles was gathered that related to parent engagement and student reading outcomes. Data were collected and synthesized into categories to find an interrelationship between parent engagement and student reading outcomes. This interrelationship derived from the data was formulated to answer the research questions, and the possible uses of the triangulated data were presented for future use to develop other theories.

**Data Analysis**

Systematic literature review data analysis uses codes that point out the categorical issues connected to parent engagement, the concepts related to parent engagement, and student reading outcomes, and then categories are mapped out to show the interrelationships between parent engagement linked to student reading outcomes. Selective coding was used to show the connection developed between parent engagement and student reading outcomes. Reliability checks were done with the coding to assure
data is confirmed and credible to the research. After processing the articles from their coding and categories, construct validity was assured by listing information from articles, without personal opinion or bias, and explaining the interrelationship of parent engagement to student reading outcomes.

**Ethical Considerations**

Ethical considerations in this study were to procure data by keeping the articles and their participant’s identity concealed. Accurate coding and reporting of concepts by other researchers were gathered for accuracy in interpreting their data. Because there were no direct interactions with people, no humans were used in this research. The result of this research was to answer research questions and formulate ideas for possible future studies based on grounded theory research.

**Trustworthiness.** Informational data were triangulated to compare parent engagement to student reading outcomes and to explain the effects found.

**Potential research bias.** An expansive and exhaustive research of articles relating to parent engagement and student reading outcomes was done to find connecting data linking parent engagement to student reading outcomes. No conflict of interest or personal bias was put into this research. The inclusion-exclusion process aligns positive selections of peer reviewed research relating to the topic of parent engagement linked to student literacy in Title I schools. Grey literature must be chosen carefully because not all of grey literature is peer reviewed; yet it may be valuable, adding relevance to support the topic. Research in education reminds us that “bias can damage research, if the researcher chooses to allow his bias to distort the measurements and observations or their interpretation” (American Physical Society, 2017, p. 1). In summative literature reviews, the best way to alleviate bias is to select peer-reviewed articles that include the points of
investigation defined in the inclusion-exclusion sections of this paper.

**Delimitations**

The scope of this systematic review of literature focused on research on the relationship between reading outcomes and parent engagement in kindergarten in schools with students in poverty in the United States. As a consequence, delimitations excluded studies on the topic for older students. Criteria for participants were clear and specifically taken from parents of school children ages 5 to 7. In addition, studies from other countries were also excluded.
Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this systematic literature review was to examine, evaluate, and synthesize current peer-reviewed research in the area of parent engagement to see if there is an association between parent engagement and student reading outcomes for students in low socio-economic status, most of whom attend Title I schools. The second purpose was to discover strategies that would affect parent engagement both at home and at school that has positive effects on student reading outcomes. Within the research, five significant categories were examined (i.e., Parent Engagement, Parent Involvement, Family Engagement, Student Reading Outcomes, and Teacher Professional Development) to create categories to synthesize research on parent engagement and effective strategies in parent engagement. Chapter 4 is a report on the synthesis of parent engagement activity and the strategies to get parents engaged in order to support student reading outcomes.

Search Process Results

Research questions guided the entire research process. The primary focus on the literature involved articles and peer-reviewed research studies from 2010. First, to identify articles pertinent to the chosen topic, a search was done in the following databases: (a) ERIC, (b) ProQuest Educational Journals, (c) Psychology Database, (d) World Cat, (e) Educational Index, (f) Psychology and Behavioral Index, (g) and Speech-Language and Hearing Index, as well as links to research papers. Search strategies included a combination of the following terms: parent engagement, parent involvement, reading strategies, student reading outcomes, and professional development for reading. Within this first step, full copies of each study were extracted. The relevant value of the
research articles was determined with the intercorrelation of content pertinent to the definitions and questions within this systematic literature review. Articles that did not have content with critical data to support this research were not used.

The articles meeting inclusion criteria were reviewed for date filtering. In order to explore the most current research articles, articles published between 2011 to 2017 were used. A thorough reading of titles and abstracts led to 130 studies found. The checklist for PRISMA was used to identify critical information within each study (see Appendix E). Of the 130 studies, 37 were found to be duplicates and were removed, leaving 93 studies. These studies were evaluated using the inclusion criteria, which ultimately led to a collection of 28 relevant studies.

The second phase was searching for critical studies. A hands-on search was done to find relevant critical studies, and these are the journals they came from: *Journal of the New York State Reading Association, American Psychological Association, Early Child Development and Care, Education and Treatment of Children, International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, Journal of Applied Research on Children, Journal of the Social Sciences, Journal of Teacher Education, Reading Psychology, Elementary School Journal, Journal of Educational Research, Language and Literacy Spectrum, and School Community Journal*. The data-extraction form was used to extract critical information from each article.

Retrieval and analysis of full articles from government reports and professional organizations were done to assure they met inclusion criteria. These inclusion criteria for this summative literature review included (a) studies that were on parent engagement; (b) studies that included the research topic of reading outcomes, parent engagement, or kindergarten grade; (c) studies found in published peer review journals, (d) grey
literature, and (e) unpublished studies found in dissertations and government reports. Exclusion criteria involved eliminating studies on parent involvement that were broad and unrelated to student reading outcomes. The exclusion criteria also included leaving out (a) duplicate studies, (b) studies conducted before 2010, (c) studies written in a non-English language, and (d) all studies that did not relate to the questions in this study.

Participants included in this systematic literature review were the participants who met the inclusion criteria in the individual studies. Participants in the studies were parents of elementary students engaged in student reading processes, teachers, and administrators. Most of the participants were 95% kindergartners, and the rest were preschoolers. This research did not report on the gender, ethnicity, or English proficiency of the parents, which could impact the results. In addition, 97% of the sampled parents were low-SES parents; 130 studies were found at first.

Qualitative filters used to find essential studies on this subject of parent engagement linked to student reading outcomes in kindergarten were (a) parent, (b) reading outcomes, (c) kindergarten, (d) #143-reports-research, and (e) peer reviewed. Then a hand search for critical articles in journals included American Psychological Association, National Association for the Education of Young Children, National Center for Children in Poverty, American Institutes for Research, and Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences. Once these studies were extracted in full text, only 93 met all the inclusion requirements for this study; 51 studies were found eligible. Of these 51 studies, ultimately 28 studies were used in this systematic literature review because the 28 studies met the inclusion requirements.

The third phase involved a process of searching for professional organizations and government reports. This phase yielded another set of seven mixed-methods studies. The
results of the search process identified critical information organized in a visual display, a PRISMA flowchart (see Appendix F), to show the complete number of excluded studies as well as the included studies. Data-collection tools in this systematic literature review used a meta-aggregate approach in order to place the findings found in qualitative or quantitative studies as a data-collection tool. The Critical Appraisal Skills Program Assessment Tool helped to identify relevant studies. After evaluating the studies, a thorough analysis was done to collect data from the articles meeting the inclusion and exclusion standards by using the assessment tool to evaluate individual studies. Each study was reviewed methodically for critical components relative to this study’s research questions.

The next step was to focus on books that related to the subject of parent engagement and student reading literacy outcomes. Additionally, a complete listing of journals and other sources, A through Z, are displayed in Appendix G. The studies chosen were based on evidence-based practices, which means the best practices in parent engagement, the parents’ values, student reading outcomes, and the best research synthesized to develop the new findings. Item 1 in Appendix G includes the number of studies and names of the authors of each individual study. An itemized list of all studies included in this systematic literature review can be found in Item 2 in Appendix G. Each study is identified with information that includes the following: (a) author and title, (b) study design, (c) sample characteristics, (d) data-collection process, (e) data analysis process, and (f) findings. The collected studies, reviewed and evaluated, are shown in Item 2 in Appendix G.

Categorization of themes was developed using a heuristic tool known as an analytical map (see Appendix H) to classify the articles and research themes. Creswell
and Plano-Clark (2010) found that “themes in qualitative research (also called categories) are broad units of information that consist of several codes aggregated to form a common idea” (p. 186). This analytical map was a valuable tool that guided the research analysis and was a reference sheet for adding details discovered through a more intensive review of the research and articles.

A framework was developed from the synthesis of data into five broad categories: parent engagement, parent involvement, family engagement, student reading outcomes, and teacher professional development. These themes directed codes for organizing the data. A thorough evaluation of the studies led to identifying subgroups for the meta-synthesis. The process of a meta-synthesis is a multistep iterative procedure involving coding key data extracted from the primary studies from the broad categories. Each study was reviewed methodically for critical components relative to this study. The final coding chart used in this systematic literature review was outlined as follows:

1. Parent Engagement
   1.1. Parent knowledge and education level.
   1.2. Instruction to meet parent needs.
   1.3. Teacher efficacy of communication to parent.

2. Parent Involvement
   2.1. Amount of time available to invest.
   2.2. Teacher’s reception and welcome of parent.
   2.3. Social and emotional skills of parent.

3. Family Literacy
   3.1. Literacy in the home.
   3.2. Community engagement.
3.3. Parent reading to and with child at home.

4. Programs for Parent Engagement
   4.1. Literacy programs.
   4.2. Support from school to support parent in literacy interactions at home.
   4.3. Using technology to support literacy.

5. Communication
   5.1. Clear communication between teacher, parent, and child.
   5.2. Technology programs teachers can use to communicate literacy growth of child to parent.

6. Professional Development for Teachers
   6.1. Teachers need training specifically on parent engagement and ways to communicate to parents.
   6.2. Recognize parents as partners in literacy.

7. Student Literacy Outcomes
   7.1. Parents are first teachers of literacy to their child.
   7.2. Teachers need to include parents in developing plans for literacy and include home development for supporting a child’s literacy.

Selective coding was used to show the connection between parent engagement and student reading outcomes. Reliability checks were done with the coding to assure data is confirmed and credible to the research. Reliability checks are necessary because they ensure that the research informs on the designated topic and that the results are from the synthesis of articles in this research only. This reliability check confirmed that the research measure was mapped out and followed to specifically measure parent engagement in kindergarten linked to student reading outcomes. Appendix H includes the
analytic map that was created to show results of the data retrieved. This analytical map
was created after reading, analyzing, and synthesizing the information in the selected 28
studies. After a thorough review of articles, and after contrasting them with the inclusion
and exclusion criteria, only 28 were selected for the final evaluation.

**Demographics of Participants**

The demographics of participants varied from study to study, but some common
threads existed among the participants. The main research categories found in most of the
studies involved parent engagement, parent involvement, family engagement,
professional development for teachers in parent engagement, communication, and the
needs of migrant parents. Ninety-seven percent of the participants were low-SES families
whose children attend Title I schools. Parent engagement involved strategies, parent
voice, parent presence, mentoring programs, teaching adults, parent programs, and
community. Parent involvement included SES level, siblings, mother’s education,
culture, family structure, partnership needs, technology, time issues, and out-of-home
experiences. Family engagement involved home reading, reading to child, specific skills,
school transition, and partnerships.

Professional development for teachers in parent engagement included assistance
with language barriers, reading skills, home resources, conferences, and time strategies.
Communication involved text, Dojo, school website, and in-school conferences. Finally,
the needs of English-language learning parents, parents who were learning English as a
second language, and migrant parents included assistance with language barriers, lack of
resources, work and transportation, and communication. From the chosen studies,
participants were parents of children in kindergarten, but some studies were extended
throughout third grade for literacy outcome findings. Some of the parents were engaged
in early childhood educational support programs, whereas other parents were in focus groups, school reading and support programs, community programs, or surveys.

**Research Questions**

The research results answered the two questions for this study. Research Question 1 asked the following: What is the relationship between parent engagement and student reading literacy outcomes in low-SES students in kindergarten? Research Question 2 asked the following: What strategies are effective to increase low-SES parent engagement that impacts reading literacy outcomes for children in kindergarten?

**Synthesis of Findings**

Research findings indicate that parent engagement continues to transform into a new definition. In 10 of the studies, parent engagement continues to be equally exchanged with parent involvement with the intent that they have the same meaning; they do not (Brown, 2014; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2012; Crosby et al., 2015; Graue & Grant, 1999; Harris & Robinson, 2016; Kuo, 2016; Powell, Son, File, & Froiland, 2012; Senechal, 2006; Smith, 2006; Watson et al., 2012). Reading literacy programs that engage parents increase parents’ awareness and support their ability to learn reading skills and share them with their child during reading time at home.

There is evidence that there is a link between parent engagement and student reading outcomes in low socioeconomic parents. Research findings were itemized in this section by answering individual research questions. The findings of the selected studies on parent engagement were divided into four areas: parent involvement, family engagement, student reading outcomes, and teacher professional development. These four main categories were subdivided into parent programs, family literacy, and time and communication.
Findings for Research Question 1

Research Question 1 asked the following: What is the relationship between parent engagement and student reading literacy outcomes in low-SES students in kindergarten? Of the 28 studies, 15 studies included information that answered Research Question 1 by reporting on parent programs at school or in the community for parents to support their child’s reading literacy outcomes. Findings show that parent engagement is focused on making parents partners and allowing the parents to be involved in the decision-making processes that affect their child. Also, all 15 studies found that positive student reading literacy outcomes have been shown to increase when parents do engage in their child’s reading and academic programs at the school. Some studies referred to the reading instructional models, such as (a) Marie Clay’s (1998) Emergent Literacy Theory, (b) Chall’s (1983) Stages of Reading, and (c) the Fountas and Pinnell (2009) reading program.

Parent engagement. Parent engagement includes the parent as an active member who shares responsibility for a child’s achievement. Of the 28 studies, 15 explicitly had data on the concept of parent engagement. The concept of parent engagement connects the parent to the child, teacher, administration, and school in an exclusive relationship that builds community and supports student reading literacy outcomes, especially in Title I schools. A child’s reading literacy achievement in kindergarten is directly connected to their reading and academic success in future grades. Seven studies reported on parent reading programs for parents to learn to read as well as to understand how to help support their child’s reading at home. Parents in school reading programs learn along with the child, both becoming active learners to support reading literacy (Auerbach & Collier, 2012; Bierman, Morris, & Abenavoli, 2017; Crosby et al., 2015; Edegger & Wagley,
2014; McConnell & Kubina, 2016; Saracho, 2016). In some cases, parents need support programs to learn about reading literacy in their child’s school (Bromer & Weaver, 2014; McConnell & Kubina, 2016).

Results show that parent engagement can be divided into two categories: parent engagement at home and parent engagement at school (Kuo, 2016; Samiei, Bush, Sell, & Imig, 2016; Thompson et al., 2014). Parents are leaders for their children and influence reading literacy at home. Parents are constantly evolving into more knowledgeable people through parent engagement by learning to engage appropriately for the shifting needs of their child each school year. Another finding stresses the importance of reading programs to educate and engage parents so that they can adequately support their child at home with reading (Auerbach & Collier, 2012; Bromer & Weaver, 2014; Caspe & Lopez, 2017; Crosby et al., 2015; Harris & Robinson, 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Seaman, 1991).

Because limited resources and financial burdens challenge a Title I school, parent engagement is critical to improving these kinds of schools. Fourteen studies found that parent engagement makes a difference in students’ reading outcomes (Bierman et al., 2017; Coleman, 2006; Cook & Coley, 2017; Edegger & Wagley, 2014; McConnell & Kubina, 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Minero, 2017; Newman & Bizzarri, 2011; Patton, Silva, & Myers, 1999; Powell et al., 2012; Reece, Staudt, & Ogle, 2013; Samiei et al., 2016; Saracho, 2016; Smith, Robbins, Stagman, & Mahur, 2013).

Bierman et al. (2017) found that, by offering parent engagement programs to the all parents, the school benefited overall and lessened differences between SES levels of parents actually bringing them together to support one another. Smith et al. (2013) found some critical factors that influenced parent engagement, such as low incomes, less
education, language barriers, and the relationship between parent and child that made parents aware of their child’s struggles with reading. New models of parent engagement have emerged over the years. McKenna and Millen (2013) found two components parents presented in parent engagement: “parent voice and parent presence” (p. 11). This new inclusive model of parent engagement with parent voice and presence encourages minority parents to get engaged in their child’s education. McKenna and Millen stated further that parents who are heard share sensitive, private, and personal information about their child and family, as well as their challenges with parenting, behavioral issues with child, and the parent’s responsibilities.

**Parent involvement.** Parent involvement occurs when a parent gets involved, doing something such as volunteering at the book fair or attending curriculum night. Parent involvement is a category under the umbrella of parent engagement. Eight of the studies analyzed in this systematic literature review explicitly focused on parent involvement (Brown, 2014; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2012; Crosby et al., 2015; Graue & Grant, 1999; Harris & Robinson, 2016; Kuo, 2016; Senechal, 2006; Watson et al., 2012). Powell et al. (2012) found that how parents get involved with their child’s reading and academic literacy changes year to year and that parents need concentrated, effective teacher-parent partnership and communication especially when a child is in kindergarten and first grade. Parent involvement begins at home, then at school, and both are an integral part of a child acquiring skills and habits for reading literacy from prekindergarten and kindergarten through third grade. Harris and Robinson (2016) found the biggest impact for increasing parent involvement was to have teachers welcome the parents, parents actively involve themselves, and create a positive reading environment with their child at home.
Senechal (2006) found that one of the most critical parent-child activities at home is a joint book reading to promote reading literacy and also stressed listening, the second essential activity to support reading literacy that parents can have when interacting with their child at home. Watson et al. (2012) found that the lack of parent involvement complicates parent interaction in urban areas due to lack of parent motivation to support their child in reading. Low-income parents need extra support from teachers to get involved in their child’s reading literacy at school. Smith (2006) found that parent involvement for low-income or poverty-level parents increased when the school had a family liaison that communicated with parents over tough issues linked not only to reading literacy but any academic concern about their child because their child sees their involvement, which influences positive reading literacy outcomes.

**Family engagement.** Five studies focused on family engagement as part of parent engagement. Family engagement linked to positive student reading literacy is essential (Auerbach & Collier, 2012; Bromer & Weaver, 2014; Caspe & Lopez, 2017; Reece et al., 2013; Seaman, 1991). Patton et al. (1999) found that “family literacy experience connects multicultural education and English as a second language theories with real-life situations” (p. 140). Snow (2016) stated, “Meaningful family engagement in children’s early learning supports school readiness and later academic success” (p. 1). Snow added that engaging parents early in their child’s education influences early learning and increased positive reading outcomes. Patton et al. found that, when parents get focused support outside of the school setting, the teacher can better evaluate the parents’ reading literacy and their child’s reading skill level and development.

Caspe and Lopez (2017) found that reading literacy could be promoted by a family in seven ways, which includes parents providing rich text environment at home,
having active discussions with their child, high expectations for the child to read, communicate with the child’s teacher, and make reading fun at home or at the library. Samiei et al. (2016) found that family reading literacy increases when schools provide books and support at home for early literacy. Bromer and Weaver (2014) found that family engagement was critical because parents could learn reading skills, use technology for communicating with their child’s teacher, understand what resources are available to the parent, and help with critical child-care skills, transportation, and other barriers.

Auerbach and Collier (2012) found that, for immigrant parents, the Families Promoting Success program was an effective intervention for training parents to learn basic reading skills so that they could read with their child at home, which increased their child’s reading literacy scores aligning with the No Child Left Behind Act. Seaman (1991) found that parents without a general education diploma or graduating certificate from a high school influenced their child’s reading literacy after the parent received parenting skills and reading literacy skills, both of which can lead to breaking the cycle of illiteracy in families, as well as 16 of the other studies (Auerbach & Collier, 2012; Bierman et al., 2017; Bromer & Weaver, 2014; Coleman, 2006; Crosby et al., 2015; Edegger & Wagley, 2014; Graue & Grant, 1999; Kuo, 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Newman & Bizzarri, 2011; Patton et al., 1999; Reece et al., 2013; Smith, 2006; Smith et al., 2013; Thompson et al., 2014; Watson et al., 2012).

Student reading outcomes and reading literacy. Reece et al. (2013) found that student reading literacy outcomes for children from low-income, urban parents increased when parents felt empowered when they volunteered in the Readiness Program, which provided parents with “knowledge, skills, and confidence” (p. 222) to help support their children in reading literacy. This connection between home and school increased parent
engagement and also increased student reading literacy outcomes.

**Parent engagement and reading literacy at home.** All 28 studies mentioned a need for home-school connections for parents. Parents who read to or with their child at home are engaged in reading literacy. Saracho (2016) found parents who read to their child at home increased their child’s reading skills and literacy. There are many benefits for the child when a parent reads to them at home: the development of language, vocabulary, comprehension skills, and literacy development. A child learns to know the meaning of the text by following the print left to right, top to bottom, and the basic skills of connecting the pictures to words to make meaning. Reading literacy for kindergartners includes skills such as phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary and spelling, comprehension, and fluency (Brown, 2014).

Foundational skills support beginning or emergent readers, and active parent engagement reinforces these skills. Graue and Grant (1999) found that, when the teacher and parent are working together and communicating, there is clearer understanding of the responsibility of the parent, vital reading skills to use to support the child in reading at home, and parents become partners with the school. Auerbach and Collier (2012) found that, for immigrant parents, the Families Promoting Success program “was an intervention that trained parents in reading skills to improve student test scores in schools that had not met targets under No Child Left Behind” (p. 1). Newman et al. (2013) stressed that parent engagement for English-language learning families involves innovative measures such as learning about the reading curriculum, teaching parents English, and training parents to have a voice in their child’s education.

**Teacher professional development.** Findings show that teacher development begins with training of teachers from college and then from their professional
development while working at a school (Bromer & Weaver, 2014; Cook & Coley, 2017; Graue & Grant, 1999; Kuo, 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Minero, 2017; Reece et al., 2013; Smith, 2006; Smith et al., 2013). Professional development for parent engagement for teachers is significant because it emphasizes communication strategies so that parents are partners and support the child which increases student reading literacy performance (Graue & Grant, 1999; Kuo, 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Reece et al., 2013; Seaman, 1991). Bromer and Weaver (2014) stressed that teacher training should “focus on the specific skills and knowledge required to work effectively with adults including relationship-based approaches to engaging families” (p. 29).

Kuo (2016) found five critical elements that influence teachers’ knowledge and practices in literacy. Teachers need to understand their cultural stance in their personal lives and their reading literacy development. To engage with parents, teachers need to initiate positive contact and set up a plan with the parents for positive parent engagement. Through collaborative talk or conferences, the teacher can learn about home activities, access to books, child’s home life, and the quality of reading experiences at home (Kuo, 2016).

**Curriculum including parent engagement.** Building family-school partnerships includes parent engagement so that parents understand the reading curriculum at their child’s school and parents learn the skills and habits to develop positive reading literacy at home. Shared responsibility for reading skills and practice and using assistive technology programs helps parents to receive tools to support their child in reading at home and to follow the reading skills communicated from the teacher to the parent (Stefanski, Valli, & Jacobson, 2016; Teti, Cole, Cabrera, Goodman, & McLoyd, 2017; Villa & Thousand, 2017). Senechal (2006) identified two interventions to train parents:
parent-child book reading and listening at home for building supportive interaction with the school curriculum. Crosby et al. (2015) found that maintaining a parent’s involvement at home increases through reading programs presented at school. Cook and Coley (2017) informed us that “outreach specifically to parents through parent orientations may be a key transition practice for supporting children’s academic (reading) success in both early reading and mathematics” (p. 176).

**Communication with parents.** Communication between teacher and parents in poverty helps to create solid relationships and support the parent’s relationship with their child at home and their reading experiences. Technology has become increasingly crucial in 21st-century education for students, teachers, and parents. Teachers can maximize parental engagement by using technology to communicate with parents through a computer or a cell phone. Caspe and Lopez (2017) found that technology programs and organizations linked to reading literacy help parents to link up on reading skills, knowledge on reading, and resources that will help them support their child’s reading literacy outcomes and development. Minero (2017) found that “text messages with (reading) literacy tips” (p. 2) made it easier for parents to “practice at home with their children” (p. 2).

**Findings for Research Question 2**

Research Question 2 asked the following: What strategies are effective to increase low-SES parent engagement that impacts reading literacy outcomes for children in kindergarten? The data analyzed indicated that numerous strategies are effective to support reading literacy for parents. Of 28 articles, 14 studies yielded strategy suggestions to incorporate parent engagement and increase the fidelity of reading programs to enhance parents’ supporting their child’s reading literacy outcomes. A need
for teacher professional development on building communication and relationships with parents is critical (Bromer & Weaver, 2014; Cook & Coley, 2017; Reece et al., 2013; Seaman, 1991). Teachers need to be trained to be mindful of a parent’s culture, language, poverty level, nature of support systems, previous reading education, and the parents’ approaches to reading and reading environment at home (Jung, 2016; McClear, Trentacosta, & Smith-Darden 2016; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Teti et al., 2017; York, Loeb, & Doss, 2018). Teachers guide the parents and teach them how to use reading skills and strategies with their child at home.

The strategies for reading literacy taught to parents are more about habits of the mind, which include effective communication strategies, collaborative relationships, being a discerning critical thinker, being compassionate, and designing a learning environment at home as well as in school (Hindin, Steiner, & Dougherty, 2017; Powers, 2016; Santana, Rothstein, & Bain, 2016; Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017; Villa & Thousand, 2017). Teachers can teach simple strategies to parents, such as ways to reduce chronic stress by not blaming a child for weak reading, handling their own stress properly, and provide a safe, enjoyable reading area and materials to use to read with their child (Hindin et al., 2017; McClear et al., 2016; Schueler, McIntyre, & Gehlbach, 2017; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017).

This strategy for parents helps them because the influence of living in a low socioeconomic situation directly affects the reading outcomes of their child (Hindin et al., 2017; McClear et al., 2016; Schueler et al., 2017; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016). Strategies parents use at home in a child’s earlier years do influence a child’s literacy development. There are benefits beyond reading literacy when parents engage in their child’s literacy. Plus, when parents have a home filled with
reading materials and games, the child naturally is curious and looks at them or plays with them. This initial attempt is the beginning skill of reading literacy: merely looking at pictures or playing word games.

Some strategies given were to supply appropriate reading supplies for parents to use at home with their children (Cook & Coley, 2017; Kuo, 2016; Reece et al., 2013; Samiei et al., 2016; Senechal, 2006; Smith, 2006). McConnell and Kubina (2016) found that teaching parents how to read with their child using a reading program as an intervention strategy revealed that when parents read each day consistently with their child, the child had fewer reading difficulties. Parent engagement progresses into an extensive interaction when the child starts formal schooling. In schools, the teacher becomes a leader and guide in continuing parent engagement growth by encouraging and educating parents on more ways to grow with their child and support their reading literacy.

Brown (2014) found ways teacher help to support parent engagement to support reading literacy at home such as spend time reading on their child’s reading level, labeling items around the house with word cards, play word games, create a word wall, and use computer programs to practice the skills shared from the teacher to support reading skills and literacy outcomes. Many times, having magazines, listening to the radio stories, reading signs while in the car, and playing word games also encourage reading literacy. As students enter kindergarten, parent engagement skills and strategies shift. Smith (2006) found that creating a Family Resource Center, along with a family liaison, helped low-income parents get in touch with needed resources to support reading literacy for their child at home and also trained parents through literacy games, activities, and learning reading classes to improve their skills. Teachers in schools must be aware of
the needs of the parents, child, and family in order to communicate and build a trusting relationship toward a working partnership to support reading literacy.

Poverty seriously affects parents and students linked to reading literacy outcomes and practices at home. Researchers have found that the children of low-SES parents are at risk for poor nutrition, poor health, negative family situations and relationships, and unsafe living conditions (Hindin et al., 2017; Schueler et al., 2017; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Teti et al., 2017). Teachers impact the difference for parents to get their child signed up for free or reduced lunch, which provides a fulfillment of a basic need of the student in order to be ready to learn and to learn to read (NCES, 2015a; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016). Edegger and Wagley (2014) found that support for low-income Latino parents presented through school programs taught these Latino parents to build relationships, engage in leadership training and practice sharing leadership, educating culture and respect for all people, and making resources for reading literacy available to use at home with their children.

Thompson et al. (2014) found that having a print-rich environment at home, playing word games, and visiting the library improved reading literacy because the child interacts with the parent who engages with the child in the activity supports reading literacy at home. The authors explained that educating parents on reading skills and techniques as an intervention improved parent interaction with their child while reading at home, which also meant that the parents get the needed print rich resources to take home to encourage reading at home for low-SES parents or uneducated parents.

Teachers especially need to focus on low socioeconomic parents and their needs so they can help a parent to support their child’s reading literacy at home (NCES, 2017). The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2012) found several ways to encourage
parent engagement: teachers develop homework assignments that involve the parent, invite parents to volunteer in the classroom to see modeling of reading material, encourage family outings as learning experiences, hold parent meetings to train or discuss issues or questions parents have about reading literacy. Parent engagement begins at home and ideally is the supporting link that encourages a child to learn to read for literacy. Sameie et al. (2016) stressed, “Early childhood interventions offer far greater economic and social returns on investment when compared to interventions administered later in life” (p. 618).
Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

Parent engagement is a complex concept, and how a design for parent engagement is set up and implemented impacts parents on all socioeconomic levels. This chapter is about the association between parent engagement and student reading literacy outcomes. The purpose of this systematic literature review was twofold. First, it was to systematically review research on parent engagement and its influence on student reading literacy outcomes in Title I schools at the kindergarten curriculum level for reading in the United States specifically. The second purpose was to explore strategies to increase and improve parent engagement through reading literacy programs. The research questions also focused on factors that influence parent engagement in supporting the reading literacy of students in kindergarten. Research Question 1 asked the following: What is the relationship between parent engagement and student reading literacy outcomes in low-SES students in kindergarten? Research Question 2 asked the following: What strategies are effective to increase low-SES parent engagement that impacts reading literacy outcomes for children in kindergarten? Twenty-eight studies were the focal point of this research to answer the two questions.

This systematic literature review examined, evaluated, and synthesized current peer-reviewed studies in the area of parent engagement and student reading outcomes for students in low socioeconomic status, most of whom attend Title I schools. This chapter is organized as follows: (a) overview of the study, (b) summary of findings, (c) interpretation of the findings, (d) theoretical implications, (e) issues of conflict, (f) limitations, and (g) future directions of research. The findings in this study revealed overall that parent engagement does have a positive impact on a child’s reading literacy
outcomes. Chapter 5 presents a thorough interpretation of the findings in Chapter 4. Also, the limitations, recommendations for future research, and implications of the influences on parent engagement and the social effects in society will be presented.

**Summary of the Findings**

The results of this systematic review of the literature show that, of the 28 peer-reviewed articles analyzed, synthesized, and reported on, 27 articles indicated that parent engagement does link to student reading outcomes. Fifteen of 28 studies investigated parent engagement and found two categories: parent engagement at home and parent engagement at school (Bierman et al., 2017; Coleman, 2006; Cook & Coley, 2017; Edegger & Wagley, 2014; McConnell & Kubina, 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Minero, 2017; Newman et al., 2013; Patton et al., 1999; Powell et al., 2012; Reece et al., 2013; Samiei et al., 2016; Saracho, 2016; Smith et al., 2013; Thompson et al., 2014). Fourteen of the 15 studies found that parent engagement was indeed linked to student reading literacy outcomes (Bierman et al., 2017; Coleman, 2006; Cook & Coley, 2017; Edegger & Wagley, 2014; McConnell & Kubina, 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Minero, 2017; Newman et al., 2013; Patton et al., 1999; Powell et al., 2012; Reece et al., 2013; Samiei et al., 2016; Saracho, 2016; Smith et al., 2013). One researcher showed no conclusive evidence that parent engagement linked explicitly to positive student reading outcomes (Thompson et al., 2014).

Research findings on parent engagement in this study found that, of the 28 studies, 14 studies found that parent programs supported parents both to engage in reading at home and school but also that the programs helped the parent to support their child’s reading literacy outcomes (Auerbach & Collier, 2012; Bierman et al., 2017; Bromer & Weaver, 2014; Coleman, 2006; Crosby et al., 2015; Edegger & Wagley, 2014;
Kuo, 2016; McConnell & Kubina, 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Patton et al., 1999; Reece et al., 2013; Seaman, 1991; Senechal, 2006; Smith, 2006). Current research supports this finding stating that parents are seen as partners in teaching a child to read and the earlier the parents learn how to use reading skills and strategies to help their child read at home, the better (Jensen, 2016; Powers, 2016; Santana et al., 2016; Sornson, 2001; Villa & Thousand, 2017; Zmuda & Jackson, 2015). Current literature shows that parent engagement poses a need for reading program literacy for parents, technology and communication on reading strategies and a child’s reading development, as well as policies to support parents so they can benefit from the reading education and parenting programs offered at their child’s school (Hindin et al., 2017; Jung, 2016; McClear et al., 2016; Schueler et al., 2017; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017; York et al., 2018).

Eight studies analyzed in this systematic literature review that focus on parent involvement found that teachers and their professional development were crucial factors in welcoming parent partnerships and getting parents involved (Brown, 2014; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2012; Crosby et al., 2015; Graue & Grant, 1999; Harris & Robinson, 2016; Kuo, 2016; Senechal, 2006; Watson et al., 2012). Parent involvement linked to Title I school is defined as the participation of a parent in regular, meaningful, two-way communication related to understanding a child’s reading literacy needs and outcomes, and involving active participation in school volunteer activities at the child’s school (U.S. Department of Education, 2004).

All of the five studies on family engagement used in this systematic review of the literature found that early family engagement, for the family that has a vibrant print and welcoming reading environment in their home, does directly support positive student
reading literacy outcomes (Auerbach & Collier, 2012; Bromer & Weaver, 2014; Caspe & Lopez, 2017; Reece et al., 2006; Seaman, 1991). In all five cases, the term family engagement was used interchangeably to mean the same as parent engagement. All 28 studies mentioned a need for parents to be engaged with a child’s reading literacy needs and outcomes both at home and interacting at school to effectively participate actively to support their child in reading most efficiently.

Nine studies found teacher professional development to be a critical key for teachers to establish partnering relationships with parents to support a parent in understanding reading skills and the need for reading with their child at home (Bromer & Weaver, 2014; Cook & Lopez, 2017; Graue & Grant, 1999; Kuo, 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Minero, 2017; Reece et al., 2013; Smith, 2006; Smith et al., 2013). Teachers especially need to focus on low socioeconomic parents and their needs so the parents can help support their child’s reading literacy at home.

**Interpretation of the Findings**

First and foremost, parent engagement begins at home and can extend into each school year when the parents know how to engage. Parent engagement is a valuable resource that is often overlooked. Parents who become partners in education are parents that are engaged, not only in their child’s school but also at home. The point of parent engagement is to make sure that each parent knows how to play a positive role that supports the child’s reading literacy. Parent engagement is highly correlated to positive student reading literacy outcomes. In fact, the connections between parent engagement in the early years, prekindergarten to first grade, and student reading literacy outcomes are influenced by the quality and enduring motivation that parents invest in reading with the child, attending reading literacy programs, and setting the stage with expectations for
reading success with their child.

The results of this systematic review of the literature show that parent engagement does link to student reading outcomes. The Coleman Report, a landmark study, found that educational outcome disparity among parents and their student’s reading outcomes had to do with the school itself, the community, and the home (Coleman, 1966). Current research is consistent with the finding of this systematic review showing that low socioeconomic parents are at a disadvantage when it comes to getting the parental support needed to support their child in reading (Hindin et al., 2017; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; York et al., 2018). Coleman (1966) set new standards for parents to view a good school because, before Coleman’s report, a good school was defined by school size, reading curriculum, library books, and resources. After Coleman’s report, a good school was defined by outcomes of students, gains in learning, students going to college or getting a job, and building a career.

This is important because parent engagement sets the tone for how the child perceives reading education. Current research explicitly links parent engagement to parents actively engaging in supporting their child’s reading literacy at home by providing reading resources, taking time to read with their child every day, and playing word games to increase vocabulary linked to improved reading literacy (Hindin et al., 2017; Jung, 2016; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017; York et al., 2018). When a parent engages in reading with a positive attitude and expressive voice while reading at home, then the child picks the parent’s positive attitude and internalizes it to become a skilled reader most of the time.

Fifteen of 28 studies investigated parent engagement and found two categories: parent engagement at home and parent engagement at school (Bierman et al., 2017;
Coleman, 2006; Cook & Lopez, 2017; Edegger & Wagley, 2014; McConnell & Kubina, 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Minero, 2017; Newman et al., 2013; Patton et al., 1999; Powell et al., 2012; Reece et al., 2013; Samiei et al., 2016; Saracho, 2016; Smith et al., 2013; Thompson et al., 2014). All 15 studies show that parent engagement begins at home and continues in school when parents learn how to engage at every grade level that their child encounters in school.

Research findings answering Research Question 1 indicated that parent engagement continues to transform into a new definition that has grown from the description of parent involvement and is still interchanged with family engagement even today. Twenty-seven of the 28 studies analyzed show positive influence on student reading outcomes (Hindin et al., 2017; Jung, 2016; McClear et al., 2016; Schueler et al., 2017; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017; York et al., 2018). The goal of parent engagement is to create a welcoming environment for parents to learn how to use reading skills with their child and support their own child’s reading literacy skills and habits of reading at home so that their child can achieve positive reading literacy outcomes. Parent engagement is a broad concept that is confused with parent involvement. Parents can be involved but not engaged, but when parents are engaged, they are also involved. Current research shows that enriching the parents through educational programs in reading will aid them in how to engage and make meaningful experiences out of their interaction with their children’s homework in reading (Powers, 2016; Santana et al., 2016; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017; Zmuda & Jackson, 2015).

Fourteen of the 28 studies found that parent engagement was indeed linked to student reading literacy outcomes (Bierman et al., 2017; Coleman, 2006; Cook & Lopez,
Current research agrees with this and extends the notion that parent engagement is not the complete point, but also that any adult that takes the responsible role of helping a child engaged with the primary parent is a part of community engagement to support children to achieve their reading literacy goals (Powers, 2016; Santana et al., 2016; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017; Zmuda & Jackson, 2015). Another critical point is that, in order for a parent to engage fully with the 21st-century goals for reading literacy, it is important for the parent to have access to a cell phone and a computer, which helps a teacher to communicate with updated needs and resources available to the parent and child for improving reading literacy (Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017).

Eight current studies, not used in this original systematic review of literature, show that parent engagement lacks reading program literacy for parents, technology, and communication on reading strategies and a child’s reading development, as well as policies to support parents so they can benefit from the reading education and parenting programs offered at their child’s school (Hindin et al., 2017; Jung, 2016; McClear et al., 2016; Schueler et al., 2017; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017; York et al., 2018). Current research findings show that progress has been made in engaging parents on all socioeconomic levels, especially the low-SES parents, in programs on reading literacy and skills for parents so they can learn how to engage in reading at home with their child to support positive reading literacy outcomes (Hindin et al., 2017; Teti et al., 2017; York et al., 2018). In addition, research states that enriching the parents through educational programs in reading will aid them in how to engage and
make meaningful experiences out of their interaction with their children’s homework in reading at home (Powers, 2016; Santana et al., 2016; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017; Zmuda & Jackson, 2015).

Another finding was that parent involvement continues to be defined as when a parent participates in regular, two-way, and meaningful communication involving student reading literacy or academic outcomes and other school activities such as curriculum night, book fairs, and conferences (Graue & Grant, 1999; Harris & Robinson, 2016; Kuo, 2016; Senechal, 2006; U.S. Department of Education, 2015; Watson et al., 2012). Current research defines parent engagement as more than simple parent involvement, but rather as parents who partner with their child, teacher, and school to responsibly assist in decision making, listening and responding to reading needs of the child, and being accountable for supporting reading at home (Hindin et al., 2017; Schueler et al., 2017; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018).

Another result found that, with today’s family structure, parents are not just the biological adults who parent; however, extended family members might fall into the category of the parent of a child. Family engagement is interchanged with parent engagement in this case because these adults need to have the support in understanding the reading skills and curriculum from school in order to help the child read at home (McCler et al., 2016; Schueler et al., 2017; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; York et al., 2018). Barriers for low-SES parents need to be considered when parents engage in reading with their child at home because some barriers can interfere with parent engagement such as the amount of time they have to read with their child and the level of the parents’ reading education (Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; York et al., 2018).
An unexpected finding, answering Research Question 2, is that a teacher’s professional development seriously influences parent engagement with reading because of the communication of reading skill strategies shared with a parent through technology. Minero (2017) found that, when parents “received weekly texts about their children’s grades, absences, and missed assignments” (p. 2), student attendance increased 18%, and 39% of the students achieved grade-level reading literacy performance. A teacher who uses 21st-century technology, such as Dojo, Imagine Learning, i-Ready, and texting to communicate with updates of a child’s progress and to inform parents on specific reading skills for their child impacts positive attendance, increases student reading literacy outcomes, and encourages a positive attitude regarding reading habits for the child and parent (Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; York et al., 2018). Not only did teachers develop a relationship with a parent, but they also advised and supported the parent in order for the parent to gain the appropriate reading supplies needed at home, helped the parent reduce stress linked to reading, and taught the parent to read when needed through effective programming and engagement at school.

**Limitations**

The limitations of this study involved a lack of a large number of studies specifically relating to kindergarten, Title I schools in America, and student reading outcomes. The limitation of terms for parent engagement were obvious and parent involvement, in this systematic literature review, was used with equal quality for this research. The potential for bias was apparent due to the selection of the studies and their participants gathered using self-reporting in a systematic literature review. Also, bias may occur when specific populations from extracted studies are used because of a narrow point of focus, which limits extending generalizations about future implications.
This study defined parent engagement with a specific definition and within described language. That is, parent engagement is indicated by parents’ interaction, engagement, and responsibility to support their child in reading at home for parents with children in kindergarten in Title I schools. This study did not compare parent engagement for parents of kindergartners in public and private schools. There could be a difference among public and private schools due to the availability of more funding for reading materials and support. Another factor not studied was the idea of parent engagement for those parents who join in at first but do not stay engaged in a reading program at their child’s school regarding how it affects their child’s reading literacy outcomes.

The culture and gender of the parent or the child, as well as the reading knowledge of the parent, was not examined in this study. The culture and gender of the child or the parent and the parents reading ability can explicitly influence how the parent uses reading skills to help their child to read at home. The social and emotional skills used by the parents at home influence the voice in their reading, interpretation of the meaning of a text, and whether or not reading is considered a necessary part of their lives at home or in the child’s educational development (Owens et al., 2015).

A crucial limitation is that a parent’s level of reading skills and comprehension was not factored in how it might affect a parent’s influence or support with their child in learning to read for proficiency, especially for parents in low-SES conditions. Another limitation is that factors such as work schedule, transportation, access to reading materials, and lack of time along with the accountability of the parent to engage in reading at home and the links to a child’s reading literacy were not examined.

Another limitation is the fact that this study did not focus on the kind of technology used to engage parents. Communication in the 21st century involves
technology and applications for cell phones and computer programs that are explicitly used to communicate with parents. Low-SES parents who cannot afford to buy a cell phone or a computer are at a disadvantage, which may affect their child’s reading literacy outcomes due to lack of communication and reception of teachers passage of information on reading skills critical for homework in reading at home. A child’s reading literacy achievement in kindergarten at home and school is directly connected to their reading and academic success in future grades.

Finally, funding for reading literacy programs at school for educating parents on parent engagement to support reading skills was not examined. Potentially, there could be a difference between Title I, public, and private school funding for parent engagement specifically on reading engagement. An extended idea to examine is to review the quality of reading programs offered to parents to engage in at schools. The importance and quality of an educational reading literacy program can be costly.

Conclusions

Of the 28 studies, 15 studies found that parent engagement focused on making parents partners and allowing the parents to be involved in the decision-making processes that affect their child. These 15 studies also found that positive student reading literacy outcomes have been shown to increase when parent do engage in their child’s reading and academic programs at school. Seven studies reported on parent reading programs for parents to learn to read as well as to understand how to help support their child’s reading at home. Parents in school reading programs learn along with the child, both becoming active learners to support reading literacy (Auerbach & Collier, 2012; Bierman et al., 2017; Crosby et al., 2015; Edegger & Wagley, 2014; McConnell & Kubina, 2016; Saracho, 2016). In some cases, parents need support programs to learn about reading
literacy in their child’s school (Bromer & Weaver, 2014; McConnell & Kubina, 2016).

Results show that parent engagement can be divided into two categories: parent engagement at home and parent engagement at school (Kuo, 2016; Samiei et al., 2016; Thompson et al., 2014). Parents are leaders for their children and influence reading literacy at home.

Another finding stresses the importance of reading programs to educate and engage parents so that they can adequately support their child at home with reading (Auerbach & Collier, 2012; Bromer & Weaver, 2014; Caspe & Lopez, 2017; Crosby et al., 2015; Harris & Robinson, 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Seaman, 1991). Because limited resources and financial burdens challenge a Title I school, parent engagement is critical to improving these kinds of schools. Fourteen studies found that parent engagement makes a difference in students’ reading outcomes (Bierman et al., 2017; Coleman, 2006; Cook & Lopez, 2017; Edegger & Wagley, 2014; McConnell & Kubina, 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Minero, 2017; Newman et al., 2013; Patton et al., 1999; Powell et al., 2012; Reece et al., 2013; Samiei et al., 2016; Saracho, 2016; Smith et al., 2013).

When a teacher connects with a parent on a social and emotional level and truly engages in a collaborative conversation, this sparks interest, kindles a passion, increases joy and satisfaction, and creates a respectful environment in which the student, parent, and teacher are all working together to help the student reach reading literacy goals (Auerbach & Collier, 2012; Bromer & Weaver, 2014; Caspe & Lopez, 2017; Crosby et al., 2015; Harris & Robinson, 2016; Hindin et al., 2017; McClear et al., 2016; McKenna & Millen, 2013; Seaman, 1991; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017). When a teacher learns to encourage parent engagement by planning for
a conference, gathering data to prepare a meeting with the parent, making considerations about the student progress, and planning with ideas to support the student in reading literacy, then all three are engaged in the learning process (Schueler et al., 2017; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; York et al., 2018).

Bierman et al. (2017) found a need to focus on “parent engagement programs to improve reading gaps in children from economically-disadvantaged families” (p. 8) by studying which parent programs for reading are effective, the delivery format and time allowance to educate parents in the reading program, and how to “motivate and support stressed parents to improve engagement in reading programs” (p. 8). The need for increasing parent engagement in Title I schools is a serious endeavor. Parent engagement in primary grades benefits students’ social, cognitive, and mental capacity in learning (Hornby & Lafaele, 2012; Hornby & Witte, 2010; Jeynes, 2011; Nitecki, 2015). When parents actively engage in their child’s education, the students increase their learning by actively engaging in their reading academics, utilizing learning objectives, and achieving measurable growth in their outcomes (Bailey, 2006; Cheung & Pomerantz, 2015; Marshall & Jackman, 2015; Wang et al., 2014).

Parent engagement and parents who actively become partners with the teacher to use reading interventions to teach their child reading skills have a profound effect on their child’s reading literacy outcomes (Hindin et al., 2017; McClear et al., 2016; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017). Parent involvement is the active participation in a two-way, consistent, and meaningful communication focused on student academic learning to support the child’s positive academic progress (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). The main difference between parent involvement and parent engagement is that involvement insinuates the parent will do what is expected of
them, whereas engagement implies that the parent is a partner sharing decision-making, setting goals, and reaching outcomes together with school administrators and teachers. Educators need to understand why parents disengage and to evaluate professional development to support parent engagement.

In conclusion, findings show that parent engagement brings parents together with the school staff working with one another to promote a child’s reading literacy. Parent engagement is a shared responsibility between the parent, child, teacher, and school, which directly supports the growth of both the student and school. When parents are engaged and empowered, student reading achievement assures that their children meet long-term goals for student reading outcomes by the time that child reaches third grade. Parents are capable of being coteachers to their child for reading, but they must learn how to help their child in reading. The knowing how to and understanding the specifics of phases and skills needed to become a literate reader are lessons that can be taught in reading programs for parents to engage in for reading. This reading readiness impacts the student’s preparation for each grade level all the way to high school and increases a child’s chances of graduating and going on to college or professional training to prepare for a lifetime career.

**Theoretical implications.** The results of this study indicate that parent engagement does make a difference in a child’s reading literacy outcomes. The implications are that parent engagement is a complex concept, and, in theory, parent engagement has shown, in this study, that the engagement of a parent does have a positive influence on a child’s reading literacy outcomes. Theoretically, the design of how parent engagement is set up for engagement makes a difference in how a parent engages.
**Implications for the practice of parent engagement.** Parent engagement is including the parents in the decision-making process and making them partners with the school and school district to support reading literacy. Parents are the first teachers of their children, and the home environment influences a child’s interest in reading. Entrance to kindergarten is a transition for children and their parents. How successful children are in kindergarten has direct connections on their reading literacy success in future grades and learning for life. Some children enter kindergarten with skills such as knowing the ABCs, their numbers 1 to 20, using pencils, taking turns, sharing, and how to write their name, whereas other children, whose parents either have not sent them to preschool or not assisted them in learning these concepts, come into kindergarten at a disadvantage in their learning.

Parent engagement is bringing parents together with the school staff working with one another to promote a child’s reading literacy, so parents can connect with the teacher and use reading skills at home that the teacher shares with them from the daily reading curriculum (Stefanski et al., 2016; Teti et al., 2017; York et al., 2018). Parent engagement includes the parent as an active member who shares responsibility for a child’s achievement. It is essential that administrators and teachers understand and listen to a child’s parents. Parent engagement leads to parent involvement. Parents learn along with the child, both becoming active learners to support reading literacy. In some cases, parents need support programs to learn about reading literacy in their child’s school.

Something that needs to be considered when implementing strategies to engage parents is that active parent engagement increases with effective communication. Internet know-how, phone apps, and in-person meetings all support a parent being engaged in their child’s education. Parents need to learn about their child’s reading curriculum and
also receive training on how to implement skills and habits that support reading literacy at home with their child through reading, assisting with homework, collaborative talking and listening to what reading events occurred in school each day. The gradual release of responsibility occurs not only with children in school, but also for parents trying to support their child’s reading literacy at home. Having parent classes on reading text barriers, such as not knowing a vocabulary word, pointing out the type of text read, and using grammar effectively to make meaning of the text, are just some factors teachers can train parents to implement when reading the text at home.

Dr. Marilyn Price-Mitchell stressed that the central bridge for building home-school partnerships between parents and teachers to support a child’s reading literacy is to engage the parent in (a) meaningful dialogue, (b) show mutual respect, (c) actively listen to one another, (d) collaborate on issues that affect student learning, (e) empathize with one another, (f) open themselves to learning from each other, and (g) involve students as responsible collaborators in their own learning. This new model for balanced parent engagement through accountability supports the parents in their child’s reading literacy at all points of their learning, and the parents also get the support they need.

Appendix I shows an original design for parent engagement in which the parent is the center of this process for supporting a child’s reading literacy and teachers and parents are partners working together to support reading literacy outcomes of a child.

The results of this study indicate that providing parent programs to learn about the reading curriculum in their child’s school is essential (Hindin et al., 2017; Schueler et al., 2017; Smythe-Leistico & Page, 2018; Stefanski et al., 2016). When parents get the support and understanding, they are more likely to engage with their child’s education. As a consequence, schools need to become communities that allow and promote parents,
students, and teachers to be active partners in the process of reading literacy.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

Based on the limitations of this study a recommendation for future research would be to continue to work on a definition of parent engagement. Another recommendation for future research could be to examine the relationship of gender and culture of the child and the parent in connection to the active parent engagement in reading and reading skills shared with their child to support reading literacy outcomes. An exploration of a parents’ reading level and skills education in reading could influence the reading behaviors, habits, and skill of their child’s reading level and reading literacy outcomes.

Another crucial finding is that the level of reading education impacts how a parent engages in reading at home with their child. Low-SES parents do not always acquire reading skills, and they need the support the most, although parent engagement across all socioeconomic levels varies depending on jobs, time, and the perception of how important it is that they read with their child at home. Many times, a parent believes that the school should be teaching reading, and, therefore, the parent does not have to read with the child at home. This lack of knowledge is a great misunderstanding that parents do not understand how important they are in the relationship between parent engagement and reading habits of the children of kindergarten ages accepted for entrance into public schools in America.

An additional recommendation is to examine parent engagement and the access a parent has to technology, cell phones, and computers in order to engage in their child’s reading literacy program from school to use at home. Research on the relationship between access to technology and parent engagement could illuminate factors that may be associated with parent engagement and student outcomes. The final recommendation
would be to explore the cost of effective reading programs for parents and the quality of the reading program. Cost of a reading program directly affects whether the school can provide a quality educational reading experience to communicate and educate the parent on reading foundations and skills needed for use at home while reading with their child. Developing a universal reading program for all students and parents at any SES level and culture would be helpful to all parents by providing a framework for reading that could be supported no matter where the family is located in the United States.
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Appendix A

2010-2011 Study: First-Time Kindergartners by Two Risk Factors
2010-2011 Study: First-Time Kindergartners by Two Risk Factors

NCES (2016) shows the "...percentage distribution of fall 2010 first-time kindergartners by two risk factors: low parental education and family poverty, and by selected child, family, and school characteristics: 2010-11: Standard errors of mean reading and mathematics scale scores for children in kindergarten for the first time in the 2010-11 school year, by child, household, and school characteristics: School year 2010-11

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<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian or Alaska Native, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more races, non-Hispanic</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty status 2</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income below the federal poverty level</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income between 100 and 199 percent of the federal</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poverty level</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income at or above 200 percent of the federal poverty level</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents’ highest level of education</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than high school diploma or equivalent</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school diploma or equivalent</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college or vocational degree</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate/professional school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family type in fall 2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two parents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One parent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary home language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple home languages, no primary language identified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School type in fall 2010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Black, non-Hispanic includes African American. Hispanic includes Latino. Poverty status is based on preliminary U.S. Census thresholds for 2010, which identify incomes determined to meet household needs, given size).
Appendix B

Title I: School, Parent, and Student Responsibilities
Title I: School, Parent, and Student Responsibilities

### School Responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standards</th>
<th>Provide high-quality curriculum and instruction in a supportive and effective learning environment that enables the participating children to meet the State’s student academic achievement standards as follows: Describe how the school will provide high-quality curriculum and instruction, and do so in a supportive and effective learning environment.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hold parent-teacher conferences (at least annually in elementary schools) during which this compact will be discussed as it relates to the individual child’s achievement. Specifically, those conferences will be held: Describe when the parent-teacher conferences will be held.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide parents with frequent reports on their children’s progress. Specifically, the school will provide reports as follows: Describe when and how the school will provide reports to parents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide parents reasonable access to staff. Specifically, staff will be available for consultation with parents as follows: Describe when, where, and how staff will be available for consultation with parents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide parents opportunities to volunteer and participate in their child’s class, and to observe classroom activities, as follows: Describe when and how parents may volunteer, participate, and observe classroom activities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Parent Responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standards</th>
<th>We, as parents, will support our children’s learning in the following ways: Describe the ways in which parents will support their children’s learning, such as:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monitoring attendance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Making sure that homework is completed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Volunteering in my child’s classroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participating, as appropriate, in decisions relating to my children’s education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Promoting positive use of my child’s extracurricular time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Staying informed about my child’s education and communicating with the school by promptly reading all notices from the school or the school district either received by my child or by mail and responding, as appropriate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serving, to the extent possible, on policy advisory groups, such as being the Title I, Part A parent representative on the school’s School Improvement Team, the Title I Policy Advisory Committee, the District wide Policy Advisory Council, the State’s Committee of Practitioners, the School Support Team or other school advisory or policy groups.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Student Responsibilities (revise as appropriate to grade level)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standards</th>
<th>We, as students, will share the responsibility to improve our academic achievement and achieve the State’s high standards. Specifically, we will: Describe the ways in which students will support their academic achievement, such as:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do my homework every day and ask for help when I need to.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Read at least 30 minutes every day outside of school time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Give to my parents or the adult who is responsible for my welfare all notices and information received by me from my school every day.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix C

Critical Appraisal Skills Program Tool
Critical Appraisal Skills Program Tool

Making sense of evidence about effectiveness
Ten questions to help you make sense of qualitative research.

These questions consider the following:
1. Are the results of the review valid?
2. What are the results?
3. Will the results help?

A number of prompts are given after each question. These prompts are designed to remind the reviewer why each question is important.

Screening Questions
1. Was there a clear statement of the aims of the research?
   Consider:
   - What the goal of the research was
   - Why is it important?
   - Consider its relevance

2. Is a qualitative methodology appropriate?
   Consider:
   - If the research seeks to interpret or illuminate the actions and/or subjective experiences of research participants

Detailed Questions
3. Was the research design appropriate to address the aims of the research?
   Consider:
   - If the researcher has justified the research design (e.g. have they discussed how they decided which method to use)?

4. Was the recruitment strategy appropriate to the aims of the research?
   Consider:
   - If the researcher has explained how the participants were selected
   - If they explained why the participants they selected were the most appropriate to provide access to the type of knowledge sought by the study
• If there are any discussions around recruitment (e.g. why some people chose not to take part)

5. Were the data collected in a way that addressed the research issue?
Consider:
• If the setting for data collection was justified. If it is clear how data were collected (e.g. focus group, interviews, literacy programs, etc.)
• If the researcher has justified the methods chosen
• If the researcher has made the methods explicit (e.g. for interview method, is there an indication of how interviews were conducted, or did they use a topic guide)?
• If methods were modified during the study. If so, has the researcher explained how and why?
• If the form of data is clear (e.g. tape recordings, video material, notes, etc.)
• If the researcher has discussed saturation of data

6. Has the relationship between researcher and participants been adequately considered?
Consider:
• If the researcher critically examined their own role, potential bias and influence during:
  - Formulation of the research questions
  - Data collection, including sample recruitment and choice of location
  - How the researcher responded to event
• How the researcher responded to events during the study and whether they considered the implications of any changes in the research design
• Has the relationship between researcher and participants been adequately considered?
Consider:
• If the researcher critically examined their own role, potential bias and influence during:
  - Formulation of the research questions
- Data collection, including sample recruitment and choice of location

- How the researcher responded to events during the study? Have they considered the implications of any changes in the research design?

7. Have ethical issues been taken into consideration?

Consider:
- If there are sufficient details of how the research was explained to participants for the reader to assess whether ethical standards were maintained
- If the researcher has discussed issues raised by the study (e.g. issues around informed consent or confidentiality or how they have handled the effects of the study on the participants during and after the study)
- If approval has been sought from the ethics committee

8. Was the data analysis sufficiently rigorous?

Consider:
- If there is an in-depth description of the analysis process
- If thematic analysis is used. If so, is it clear how the categories/themes were derived from the data?
- Whether the researcher explains how the data presented were selected from the original sample to demonstrate the analysis process
- If sufficient data represented to support the findings
- To what extent contradictory data are taken into account
- Whether the researcher critically examined their own role, potential bias and influence during analysis and selection of data for presentation

9. Is there a clear statement of findings?

Consider:
- If the findings are explicit
- If there is adequate discussion of the evidence both for and against the researcher’s arguments
- If the researcher has discussed the credibility of their findings (e.g. triangulation,
respondent validation, more than one analyst)

- If the findings are discussed in relation to the original research question

10. How valuable is the research?

Consider:

- If the researcher discusses the contribution the study makes to existing knowledge or understanding (e.g. do they consider the findings in relation to current practice or policy, or relevant research-based literature?)
- If they identify new areas where research is necessary
- If the researchers have discussed whether or how the findings can be transferred to other populations or considered other ways the research may be used

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Appendix D

Data-Extraction Form
# Data-Extraction Form

<table>
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<th>Data Extraction Form</th>
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<tr>
<th>Study Author &amp; Date</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theoretical Perspective</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Publication Source/Data Base</th>
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<table>
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<th>Purpose of Study</th>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Sample Size/Characteristics</th>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Sampling Socioeconomic status</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How were participants selected?</th>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study Setting</th>
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</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of Study</th>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methodology and Data Collection Methods</th>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Analysis Methods</th>
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</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Findings</th>
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</thead>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conclusions</th>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Risk of Bias</th>
<th>Publication Source Funding Source Concealment Number of results reported Neutrality</th>
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</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Retrieval Information</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall Study Quality Use +/-</th>
<th>Rating 1, 2, 3</th>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discernible purpose</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consistency/Logical conclusion</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Literature Review</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate Sample size</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methodological quality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficient data presentation method</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Validity Addressed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Findings are clear and reported</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion based on findings presented</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rigor/Applicability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix E

Checklist for PRISMA
## Checklist for PRISMA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section/Topic</th>
<th>#</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>TITLE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Identify the report as a systematic review, meta-analysis, or both.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ABSTRACT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structured summary</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Provide a structured summary including, as applicable: background; objectives; data sources; study eligibility criteria, participants, and interventions; study appraisal and synthesis methods; results; limitations; conclusions and implications of key findings; systematic review registration number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INTRODUCTION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rationale</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectives</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Provide an explicit statement of questions being addressed with reference to participants, interventions, comparisons, outcomes, and study design (PICOS).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>METHODS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protocol and registration</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Indicate if a review protocol exists, if and where it can be accessed (e.g., Web address), and, if available, provide registration information including registration number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eligibility criteria</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Specify study characteristics (e.g., PICOS, length of follow-up) and report characteristics (e.g., years considered, language, publication status) used as criteria for eligibility, giving rationale.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information sources</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Describe all information sources (e.g., databases with dates of coverage, contact with study authors to identify additional studies) in the search and date last searched.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Present full electronic search strategy for at least one database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study selection</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>State the process for selecting studies (i.e., screening, eligibility, included in systematic review, and, if applicable, included in the meta-analysis).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data collection process</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Describe method of data extraction from reports (e.g., piloted forms, independently, in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data items</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>List and define all variables for which data were sought (e.g., PICOS, funding sources) and any assumptions and simplifications made.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of bias in individual studies</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Describe methods used for assessing risk of bias of individual studies (including specification of whether this was done at the study or outcome level), and how</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRISMA Checklist</td>
<td>Reported on page</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of bias across studies</td>
<td>15 Specify any assessment of risk of bias that may affect the cumulative evidence (e.g., publication bias, selective reporting within studies).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional analyses</td>
<td>16 Describe methods of additional analyses (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression), if done, indicating which were pre-specified.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RESULTS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study selection</td>
<td>17 Give numbers of studies screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally with a flow diagram.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study characteristics</td>
<td>18 For each study, present characteristics for which data were extracted (e.g., study size, PICOS, follow-up period) and provide the citations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of bias within studies</td>
<td>19 Present data on risk of bias of each study and, if available, any outcome level assessment (see item 12).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results of individual studies</td>
<td>20 For all outcomes considered (benefits or harms), present, for each study: (a) simple summary data for each intervention group (b) effect estimates and confidence intervals, ideally with a forest plot.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synthesis of results</td>
<td>21 Present results of each meta-analysis done, including confidence intervals and measures of consistency.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of bias across studies</td>
<td>22 Present results of any assessment of risk of bias across studies (see Item 15).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additional analysis</td>
<td>23 Give results of additional analyses, if done (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression [see Item 16]).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISCUSSION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of evidence</td>
<td>24 Summarize the main findings including the strength of evidence for each main outcome; consider their relevance to key groups (e.g., healthcare providers, users, and policy makers).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>25 Discuss limitations at study and outcome level (e.g., risk of bias), and at review-level (e.g., incomplete retrieval of identified research, reporting bias).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Provide a general interpretation of the results in the context of other evidence, and implications for future research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Funding     |                | Describe sources of funding for the systematic review and other support (e.g., supply of data); role of funders for the systematic review. |

*Note. Adapted from Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses: The PRISMA Statement, by D. Moher, A. Liberati, J. Tetzlaff, and D. G. Altman, 2009, PLoS Med 6(6), e100097. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed100097*
Appendix F

PRISMA Flowchart Diagram
PRISMA Flowchart Diagram

Identification

Records (journal articles) identified through database search
(N = 112)

Records identified through government reports, books and professional organizations
(N = 6)

Reports on Parent Engagement programs from different States in America
(N = 12)

Records found after duplicate removal
(N = 93)

(Restructured screened
N = 93)

Records excluded
(N = 65)

Screening

Eligibility

Full text articles assessed for eligibility
(N = 51)

Full-text articles excluded
(N = 23)

Included

Studies included in Qualitative synthesis
(N = 28)

Appendix G

Systematic Review of Literature
Systematic Review of Literature

Item 1

*Journals, Other Sources, A to Z, Number, and Authors of Studies*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal Name</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Study Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Journal of the New York State Reading Association</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Brown, 2014.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Psychological Association</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cook, 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDC- Center for Disease Control</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>U. S. Government, 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early Child Development and Care</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Saracho, 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Treatment of Children</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>McConnell, 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erikson Institute</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bromer, 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Lucas Educational Foundation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Minero, 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government Report</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Coleman, 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Humanities and Social Science</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Watson, 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of the Social Sciences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Harris, 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Teacher Education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Patton, 1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Center for Family Literacy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Senechal, 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Center for Children in Poverty</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Smith, 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parenthood in America</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Graue, 1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Psychology</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Samiei, 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Institute of Maine- Policy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Thompson, 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research to Practice Brief</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Caspe, 2017</td>
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<td>Robert Wood Johnson Foundation</td>
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<td>Bierman, 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers College Record</td>
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<td>Auerbach, 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Elementary School Journal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Powell, 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Journal of Educational Research</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Crosby, 2015</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Language and Literacy Spectrum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Brown, 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The School Community Journal</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>McKenna, 2013; Kuo, 2016;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author and Date, Title of Study</td>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Source Design</td>
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<td>Auerbach, 2012 Bringing High Stakes from the Classroom to the Parent Center: Lessons From an Intervention Program for Immigrant Families</td>
<td>Multiple Case Study of Title 1, Latino Immigrant Parents</td>
<td>Interviews focus groups Surveys</td>
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<td>Bierman, 2017 Parent Engagement Practices Improve Outcomes for Preschool Children</td>
<td>Findings on Parent Engagement models that improve school readiness</td>
<td>Research brief of recent studies</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bromer, 2014 Going above And Beyond: Striving for High-Quality Family &amp; Community Engagement in Early Care and Education</td>
<td>Focus group Studies on best practices for family engagement in early education.</td>
<td>Journal article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>Study Focus</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brown, 2014</td>
<td>Analyzed synthesis of effective early literacy instruction of kindergarten students.</td>
<td>Journal articles</td>
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<td>Caspe, 2017</td>
<td>Seven Research-Based Ways That Families Promote Early Literacy</td>
<td>Journal brief investigated kindergarteners and parents family engagement in literacy programs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDC 2013 Parent Engagement: Strategies for Involving Parents in School Health</td>
<td>Research report on Parent Engagement and strategies to involve parents in school health.</td>
<td>Expert review Journal Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coleman, 2006</td>
<td>It Takes A Parent: Transforming Education in the Wake of the No Child Left Behind Act</td>
<td>Vital Role of Parents and Guardians in Achieving Student and School success</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors, Year</td>
<td>Study Title</td>
<td>Design</td>
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<td>Cook, 2017</td>
<td>School Transition Practices and Children's Social and Academic Adjustment in Kindergarten</td>
<td>Explored transition practices of kindergarten teachers to ease students transition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crosby, 2015</td>
<td>A 3-Year Study of a School-Based Parental Involvement Program in Early Literacy</td>
<td>Examines the Effectiveness of a school-based parent involvement program- 3 yr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edgeger, 2014</td>
<td>Strengthening Parental Engagement In Low-Income</td>
<td>Correlational study to see links between parent engagement in leadership programs in school supporting literacy</td>
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</table>
| Graue 1999 | To theorize theories of parents and education | Journal article | N = 4 scholars work | Studies were using tool for answerability and addressivity to frame links between parents and school to support literacy. | Theorization | To understand home-school relationships and actions to support literacy.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Study Title</th>
<th>Journal Type</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
<th>Study Design</th>
<th>Methodology</th>
<th>Findings</th>
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<tr>
<td>Harris 2016</td>
<td>Propose a framework on how parent involvement operates.</td>
<td>Journal</td>
<td>N = 63</td>
<td>Coleman study, and previous</td>
<td>integrative literature</td>
<td>Reported benefits of parental support were highest for younger children 5-10.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A new Framework for Understanding Parental Involvement: Setting the Stage for</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>studies four data sets:</td>
<td>analysis Qualitative</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Academic Success</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>social class &amp; race.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kuo 20013</td>
<td>To examine how the five elements influence pre-service teachers' knowledge</td>
<td>Journal</td>
<td>N = 11</td>
<td>family literacy course,</td>
<td>Qualitative purposeful</td>
<td>Found that the five pillars of FACE inform and promote family literacy through teacher preparation programs.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Through the Five Pillars of Family Literacy of and practices in family</td>
<td></td>
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<td>tutoring, survey</td>
<td>sample</td>
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<td></td>
<td>And Community Engagement (FACE)</td>
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<tr>
<td>McConnell 2016</td>
<td>The relationship between teaching parents a reading program linked to their</td>
<td>Journal</td>
<td>N = 49</td>
<td>interviews</td>
<td>randomized control group,</td>
<td>Parents could implement an explicit instruction reading program with high rates intervention fidelity as measured by completion and accuracy.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Explicit Reading Instruction with Their Children At-Risk for Reading</td>
<td></td>
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<td>kindergarten students and</td>
<td>multi-probe design</td>
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<td>Difficulties</td>
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<td>their parents (at-risk</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>students)</td>
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<tr>
<td>McKenna 2013</td>
<td>To analyze parent perception of involvement and parent voice.</td>
<td>Journal article</td>
<td>N = 8 mothers multiple children</td>
<td>focus groups parent participation purposeful theoretical sampling triangulation Qualitative</td>
<td>Parent engagement is associated with positive literacy outcomes in early years.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Minero 2017</td>
<td>To explore effective ways parents communicate with school to support student literacy.</td>
<td>Journal article</td>
<td>N = 440 families surveys</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>Found that technology for communicating with parents on their child’s literacy was positive for Black and Hispanic parents both at home and for the Hispanics at school too.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newman 2013</td>
<td>Investigates home-school partnerships between the families of English language learners (ELLs) and the Educational System.</td>
<td>Journal article</td>
<td>N = Literature Review peer-reviewed research articles</td>
<td>Qualitative literature review</td>
<td>Found that understanding elements of engaging ELL parents and families increased home-school relations and supported literacy outcomes.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Research Question</td>
<td>Study Type</td>
<td>Sample Size</td>
<td>Data Sources</td>
<td>Findings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Patton 1999</td>
<td>To look at family literacy and bridging family involvement for refugee students and families</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>documented contacts, interviews, observations</td>
<td>Found that intercultural, communication, and teacher education is critical to parent involvement for refugee families</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Powell 2012</td>
<td>To analyze conceptualization of parent involvement by looking at stability and changes in PI.</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td>N = 90 children and their parents</td>
<td>interviews, parent participation, composite scores of dichotomized items</td>
<td>Found that parent involvement either increased or decreased substantially depending on the out-of-home experiences parents created for their children.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reece 2013</td>
<td>Examines low-income parents and programs that educate them to support their child’s literacy</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>N = 71 parents, grandparents, or caretakers</td>
<td>meetings, programs, focus groups, transcription coding</td>
<td>Found two paths for parent engagement: door-to-door canvassing and invitation by a friend or family member.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Findings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Samiei 2016</td>
<td>To evaluate early childhood family reading habits that support literacy.</td>
<td>Journal research study</td>
<td>Found that the Imagination Library and K Readiness program does support literacy due to provisional reading materials to families with young children.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Saracho 2016</td>
<td>To examine parents' shared reading and children's literacy.</td>
<td>Journal article</td>
<td>Found that parent engagement in the form of shared storybook reading impacts a child's literacy in many ways.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seaman 1991</td>
<td>To examine family literacy and parent-child development in literacy acquisition.</td>
<td>Publication report</td>
<td>Found that the Kenan Trust family literacy model is a successful intervention to break illiteracy of at-risk families with parent participation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Research Question</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Findings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Senechal 2006</td>
<td>The Effect of Family Literacy Interventions on Children's Acquisition of Reading</td>
<td>Goal of this report was to review scientific literature on parent involvement of child's acquisition of literacy.</td>
<td>N = 14 intervention studies, 1174 families</td>
<td>Found that parent involvement does support literacy, but interventions vary because of needed resources to follow through in order to educate the parents.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith 2006</td>
<td>Parental Involvement In Education Among Low-Income Families: A Case Study</td>
<td>To explore parental involvement among low-income families.</td>
<td>N = parents, educators, administrators of Clark Elem.</td>
<td>Found that the development and implementation of intentional parental involvement strategies increased the level of parent involvement.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Smith 2013</td>
<td>Parent Engagement from Preschool through Grade 3</td>
<td>To use research to inform policy and practice on strategies and solutions of family engagement for Title 1 parents.</td>
<td>N = research studies, Survey study=623 parent participants</td>
<td>Found that parent involvement has beneficial affects for children's literacy.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thompson 2014</td>
<td>Effective Strategies for Engaging Parents in Students' Learning to Support Achievement</td>
<td>To improve parent engagement as a means for student literacy and assess PE strategies.</td>
<td>N = 18 articles literature review, statewide survey</td>
<td>Found that Parent Engagement at home has consistently greater impacts on student literacy, more so than P.E. at school.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source</td>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>Type</td>
<td>N = expert literature</td>
<td>Literature Reviews</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
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<tr>
<td>Watson 2012</td>
<td>To examine literature on the evolution of parent involvement in America and policy.</td>
<td>Journal article</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>Overall the findings show the purpose for parent involvement and policies impact parents participation in parent involvement in schools.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix H

Analytic Map of Data Retrieved
Parent Engagement
1. Parent Presence
2. Parent Voice
3. Reading Skills and Strategies

Parent Involvement
Family Engagement
Student Reading Outcomes

1. Parent Programs
   a. Teach Interventions for Reading Skills
   b. Phonic awareness, listening skills, vocabulary and spelling, decoding skills, and comprehension skills.
   c. Teach Reading Skills to Parents
   d. Transition Class for Parents of Kindergarteners
2. Understand Parents needs and align them with their child’s reading needs.
   a. Socioeconomic level
   b. Child’s reading knowledge
   c. Parents reading knowledge
   d. Parent relationship status and household set up
   e. Time available to volunteer
3. Family Literacy
   a. Parents are helped with any barriers or challenges related to their understanding of the reading literacy program at school.
   b. Parents have reading resources in their home such as books, magazines, and word labels.
   c. Parents spend at least 20 minutes quality reading time with their child each day.
   d. Parents play word games with their child at home
2. Out of Home Experiences
   Parents can do with their child.
   a. Go to the Library
   b. Go to Museums
   c. Go Shopping
1. Parents take the time to support reading literacy such as helping with homework.
2. Parents build a relationship with The teacher and school in order to understand reading literacy and the skills needed to read.
3. Parents learn to communicate for understanding of their child’s reading literacy.
4. Parents learn about the reading program at school.
5. Parents make reading at home fun.

Teacher Professional Development
1. Understand the parents time availability.
2. Build trust, respecting their culture, with each parent.
3. Educate the parent about the reading program used in school.
4. Make resources to encourage Adult Reading Literacy.
5. Use technology to communicate such as Texting, Facebook, Dojo, and the School Web-site.
Appendix I

Balanced Parent Engagement Through Accountability
Balanced Parent Engagement Through Accountability

(McDonald, S., Original work 9,18,17)