The Pennsylvania State University

The Graduate School

College of Education

PARENTS USING EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION TO TEACH READING TO THEIR CHILDREN AT-RISK FOR READING DIFFICULTIES

A Dissertation in

Special Education

by

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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

August 2011

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Abstract

Kindergarten students at-risk for reading difficulties were selected for participation in a reading program. Each parent provided instruction to his or her child using the reading program *Teach Your Child to Read in 100 Easy Lessons (TYCTR)*. Parents were expected to use *TYCTR* with their child 15 minutes a night five nights a week. The intervention consisted of parents teaching 15 letter sounds and phonemic awareness skills within 30 formatted lessons. The experimenter assessed students daily at the school to measure correct words read on sentence list sheets. The experimenter also recorded categories of parents' questions and comments and classification of experimenter response once instruction was over and teaching began. A multi-probe multiple baseline design demonstrated increased words read correctly and decrease words read incorrectly. Parents had a high rate fidelity following the steps of each lesson to their child. Discussion and implications for future research are presented.

Keywords: parent teaching, explicit instruction, at-risk reading, kindergarten, phonics

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Acknowledgements

Dr. Kubina, Your life lessons and edits will always be with me. Thank you for your explicit guidance that I will be able to apply to any situation. I cannot say enough for what I have learned from you during this process.

Dr. Farmer, For pushing me beyond my limits. Your feedback has helped me to make sense of the process. I know many of your ideas continue to make sense long after I have left your office.

Dr. Wolfe, For always asking me "what's the point" and "why does this matter"? These questions will always be with me as I continue down this career path. I thank you for all of your compassion and support.

Dr. Mellin, For your insight into the family dynamic. Your ideas have expanded my views way beyond the literature base.

To my peers, what an extraordinary group to work with and learn from. I thank each and every officemate, cohort member, and those who stopped by to say "hi". I wish you all the best, and that this venture will make you strong and build your fullest life potential.

Doug, that this road has made us stronger. May we have more opportunities because you have been so supportive and understanding throughout this journey. I only hope that I can return this generous favor and you are also able to fulfill your goals. Thank you for being such a great dad!

Derek, my "doc baby" I could not have done this without you being such an amazing little boy. Without even knowing it, you have stirred my curiosity and made me always want more. I also wish that you enjoy every moment and learn from every experience in life.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Over six million students qualify for special education services in the United States (NCES, 2002). Of the students identified for services, almost all have difficulty learning to read and write (Council for Exceptional Children, 1997). Unfortunately, despite ongoing intervention efforts, children with reading problems will most likely remain poor readers into adulthood (Juel, 1988; Scarborough, 1998; Torgesen, 2002). As an effect, students who remain poor readers are less likely to graduate from high school, therefore are more likely to be unemployed, live in poverty, be adjudicated, and qualify for public assistance (Rossi, Herting, Wolman, & Quinn, 1997). It is even more concerning many of these individuals demonstrate average to above average intelligence and have capabilities to be productive members of society (National Reading Panel, 2000). Simply stated, being able to read is the gateway to achievement in our literacy driven society.

Because of the nationwide problem of low levels of literacy along with the subsequent associated negative outcomes, congress asked the National Institute of Children's Health and Development and the US Dept. of Education to form a National Reading Panel. The Panel researched the existent literature for reading and literacy to find effective methods for teaching reading to young students. After reviewing over 100,000 studies on how students learn to read, the Panel outlined methods of reading instruction for use in the classroom and suggested a plan for additional research in reading development and instruction. With the extensive review the National Reading Panel provided evidence showing students need explicit instruction in phonemic awareness, systematic phonics instruction, and methods to improve fluency and comprehension (National Reading Panel, 2000).

With the research highlighted from the National Reading Panel, the United States government passed legislation targeting improvements of literacy instruction in the classrooms nationwide. The No Child Left Behind Act (i.e., Reading First) required schools to implement research-based practices and only use programs having an empirical basis for teaching reading. Two key aspects in early reading skills for beginning readers include: (a) explicit instruction of beginning reading skills such as the alphabetic principle (e.g., phonemic awareness and phonics) and (b) providing support to parents so they can actively participate in their own children's reading development (No Child Left Behind Act, 2007).

There are many important language elements and components necessary in all stages of reading development. The National Reading Panel and other prominent resources in reading show key areas of skill development producing competent readers. Readers must be able to recognize words and spelling patterns, and make the connection each individual letter or letter combinations has to make sounds and words. Readers must also be able to segment words into their constituent sounds. Torgesen and Burgess (1998) noted that phonemic awareness skill levels do not fluctuate for students who do not receive instruction from the beginning of kindergarten through fifth grade. Therefore, if a student does not have phonemic awareness skills, their skill level will remain low unless they receive explicit instruction.

Students who enter kindergarten with poor reading skills continue to separate academically from their peers who are good readers as they progress through school (Stanovich, 1986). There are two factors which can contribute to reading difficulties; developmental lag versus developmental deficit. With a developmental lag students will improve in reading ability as their brain matures. Students with a developmental deficits, continue to have more reading difficulty as they mature and they continue to fall further behind their peers. (Francis, Shaywitz,

Stuebing, Shaywitz, & Fletcher, 1996). Because many critical reading skills can be taught, it is important to intervene with struggling readers upon entering school so beginning readers do not develop poor literacy habits (Santa & Hoien, 1999). Including beginning reading skills such as phonemic awareness and phonics during instruction promotes powerful results for both beginning and struggling readers (Carnine, Silbert, Kameenui, & Tarver, 2010; O'Connor, Jenkins, Leicester, & Slocum, 1993). Phonemic awareness instruction promotes improvement in students' reading and spelling skills, leading to increasing reading sub-skills for struggling readers.

Ideally, all teachers should apply reading skills guided by scientific research. However, there are still thousands of teachers that use reading approaches that have been disproven and/or show limited success (Carnine, Silbert, Kame'enui, Tarver & Jungjohann, 2006; Moats, 2000). Enlisting the help of parents to teach reading has a number of significant advantages. Namely, parents are the first and most important teachers of their children. In recent years researchers have capitalized on parents' singular and unique role with their children and found they are able to help with literacy instruction (Drouin, 2009; Erion, 2006; Reese, Sparks, & Leyva, 2010). Children have been able to learn many pre-skills at home with parents and increase vocabulary and pre-skill sub-tests in school (Fielding-Barnsley & Purdie, 2003; Erion, 2006; Justice, Kaderavek, Bowles, & Grimm, 2005; Resetar, Noell, & Pellegrin, 2006). Many parents want to take on the role of helping their children learn to read, especially families in poverty who are most at-risk for reading failure (Karther, 2002). These families believe reading will help their children achieve academically beyond what the parents possess (Karther, 2002).

It is not safe to assume parents reading more with their children promotes reading achievement, especially when students enter school at-risk for reading failure (Powell-Smith,

Shinn, Stoner, & Good, 2000). To promote positive reading outcomes, parents need to teach specific skills to their children. Currently, research suggests promising results for parents teaching specific reading skills in the home (Fielding-Barnsley & Purdie, 2003; Erion, 2006; Justice, Kaderavek, Bowles, & Grimm, 2005; Resetar, Noell, & Pellegrin, 2006). Many of the studies are positive examples of parents helping their children with pre-reading skills. Very few studies, however, show results of parents using explicit instruction to teach critical beginning reading skills to their children who are at-risk of reading difficulties. Additionally with the parents teaching reading literature, there are questions of treatment fidelity (Aram & Levin, 2009; Erion, 2006) and it is rarely disclosed what level of on-going support parents need when implementing a reading intervention (Fielding-Barnsley & Purdie, 2003; Justice et al., 2005; Leach & Siddall, 1990; Mehran & White, 1988; Regtvoort & van der Leij, 2007).

In one example, parents in a explicit instruction group of an in home parents teaching reading study, were instructed for 3h, and were assigned the program *Teach your Child to Read in 100 Easy Lessons*, (*TYCTR*; Engelmann, Haddox, & Bruner, 1983). Parent instruction consisted of introductions and demonstrations of the lessons. Experimenters had an emphasis on role play with correct letter pronunciation and blending, and error correction procedures. During the intervention the experimenter made one home visit and a telephone call to check treatment fidelity for each family in the study. Students learning from *TYCTR* were able to read text 16 months beyond pre-experimental reading levels after parents taught reading lessons for four months.

TYCTR was framed around the explicit instruction model with a heavy emphasis on academic engaged time and high rates of correct responses. The program was created for parents with each lesson being scripted so parents could use purposeful language for instruction,

corrections, and logical sequencing skills. Reading skills include blending and segmenting sounds, rhyming, sounding out words, sentence and passage reading, comprehension questions and handwriting instruction. The purpose of the program is to teach foundational decoding and comprehension skills critical for beginning reading.

Given the significant support for explicit instruction and parents teaching reading skills some researchers still question the validity of research findings due to lack of treatment fidelity. Skeptical researchers ask how well parents accurately implement (Drouin, 2009; Senechal, LeFevre, Thomas, & Daley, 1998). Examining the literature base for parent studies reveals only one study reporting the percentage of tasks completed (Gang & Poche, 1982) while another measured completion based on order of tasks finished (Resetar et al., 2006). Furthermore, another study had post-test surveys showing many parents completed very little of the actual intervention (Mehran & White, 1998). It has been suggested parents are presumed to have lower treatment fidelity (Aram & Levin, 2009), yet few measures prove or disprove the statement. Additionally, a number of researchers detailed on-going communication with parents, yet the experimenters did not explain questions parents asked or what type of support was provided for the parents to implement and maintain the intervention (Fielding-Barnsley & Purdie, 2003; Justice et al., 2005; Leach & Siddall, 1990; Mehran & White, 1988; Regtvoort & van der Leij, 2007; Resetar et al., 2006; Wedel & Fowler, 1984).

Understanding how parents can provide effective reading instruction with fidelity is very important. Also, with the high-stakes associated with learning to read and the positive results demonstrating parents can teach their students reading skills, research examining parents using sophisticated programs based on explicit instruction appear particularly urgent. Therefore, the present study asks the following questions to address whether parents can use a reading program

to teach their children at risk for reading problems how to read. Specifically, the study asked: (a) Will students increase correct words on sentence list sheets after parents begin teaching reading through explicit instruction?; (b) What percentage of intervention fidelity, as measured by completion and accuracy, can parents complete formatted lessons?; (c) What categories of questions or comments do parents have once instruction is over and parents begin teaching reading?; (d) What classification of experimenter involvement is needed once instruction is over and parents begin teaching reading?

Chapter 2: Method

Participants

Selected students were identified by their kindergarten teacher. The teacher selected students who could not pronounce any letter sounds and identified fewer than 10 letter names in less than 1 min in Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS) letter naming, and letter sound identification subtests (for pre-test scores see Appendix C). The selected students were identified as at-risk because they were not reaching literacy benchmarks upon the first months of kindergarten (Kaminski & Good, 1998; Kamps et al., 2003). Out of the 10 selected students 4 parents completed permission forms to participate in the study. After students were selected, their parents completed a family background and literacy survey for an extensive description of participants (Dickenson & Sprague, 2002; Justice, McGinty, Guo, & Moore, 2009).

Anthony. Anthony was 5-years-old when the study began. He lived primarily with his mother and older brother. Anthony's father, Andy, did not wish to be contacted during the study and he did not fill out a survey at the end of instruction. Anthony's father's level of involvement with the family was unknown.

The teacher described Anthony as an easy going and pleasant student. He usually followed directions given by the teacher and stayed focused throughout the day. Anthony was able to identify several letter names and no letter sounds during a pretest. He was in the lowest reading group upon entering the study. Instruction in his group was framed around identifying letters and being able to write and identify letters within words and sentences. Anthony also worked on sequencing steps in a story. For Anthony's literacy benchmark checklist please see Appendix D.

Amy. Amy was the primary caregiver for Anthony and his older brother. Amy was 30-

years-old and she completed high school. She practiced modeling skills multiple times until they were mastered and had a positive attitude towards the study.

Andy. Andy, Anthony's father, kept Anthony in his home on weekends. During these times Andy would implement the intervention. Andy was 33-years-old and earned a high school diploma. Andy did not ask many questions during parent instruction and was very encouraging when practicing with his son.

Joe. The second participant, Joe was six-years-old when the study began. He lived on a farm with both parents and his older brother. Joe's mother, Gina, was the teacher for each lesson. Joe's teacher reported that Joe had difficulty in most subject areas. Joe knew three letter names and no sounds upon entering the study. Joe's teacher mentioned that Joe had difficulty following simple two-step directions. He needed constant reminders to stay on task. He often liked to help his peers by getting things for them or offering his school supplies to those who need items. Joe liked completing tasks that required putting materials together. Joe also was in the lowest reading group upon entering the study. Classroom instructional goals for Joe were framed around identifying letter names. He often had to refer to an alphabet chart with pictures to identify his letters. For a further description of Joe's literacy benchmark checklist see Appendix E.

Gina. Gina completed each lesson with her son Joe. She earned a two-year degree in nursing after high school. She was 40-years-old. She was very cooperative during instruction and worked very hard to correctly model sounds and words.

Gus. Gus, the third participant, completed all lessons with his father. Gus was the middle child and he was six-years-old when the study began. According to his teacher Gus was a good student who needed very specific directions to stay on task. Gus did well in other subject areas,

but had difficulty staying focused during literacy instruction. Gus knew less than half of his letter names and none of his letter sounds. He was in the second lowest reading group upon entering the intervention. His reading group was working on rhyming words within word families and tracing letters. For a further description of Gus' literacy benchmark checklist see Appendix F.

Sam. Gus' dad, Sam, was a stay-at-home dad who completed the entire intervention with his son. Sam was 37-years-old and earned a degree 4-years beyond a high school diploma. Sam was cooperative during instruction and he asked many questions. Gus appeared motivated to help his son learn to read.

Setting

Data was collected by the experimenter in the students' public elementary school. The school was located in a semi-rural town in the northeastern United States. All parents taught reading lessons at each student's home. Anthony and Amy had no specific location to complete their lessons. They worked wherever it was quiet and with minimal distractions. Sometimes they worked at the dinner table or in Anthony's bedroom. They usually completed lessons in the evening after dinner. Andy did not report where lessons were completed in his home. Joe and Gina completed lessons in Joe's bedroom or in the living room. They completed 1 to 2 lessons during the evening hours. Gus and Sam completed each lesson in Gus' mother and father's bedroom. Lessons were completed each evening before or after dinner. On weekends, Gus and Sam competed two lessons, one in the morning and one in the evening.

Materials

The 30 instructional lessons were taken from *Teach Your Child to Read in 100 Easy Lessons (TYCTR;* Engelmann et al., 1983), which is based on the fast-cycle component DISTAR

Reading I and II (Engelmann & Bruner, 1977) and written specifically for parents. The theoretical basis for DISTAR (students outperform their peers even for years beyond instruction) has been clearly established. The book directs parents to scaffold reading, by working on one step at a time. This assures students master each step before moving on, from beginning skills to complex tasks. The lesson plans control for the details important to successful teaching: feedback and correction procedures. The authors suggest that parents can function effectively as teachers, and this study tested that assumption. All parents were provided with the 30 lessons for their use at home. The lessons were organized with a review of previous material, correct letter pronunciation and sound blending, and directions for error correction procedures.

Parents were given a Sony audiocassette recorder and tapes to record all lessons. Parents also were given a Bruin letter sound device with buttons for all lower-case letters. When the button was pushed the letter sound was produced by a voice recording. A binder containing all 30 lessons, daily checklist for a successful lesson, and pronunciation guide was given to parents.

Dependent Variable

Sounding Out Words in Sentences. Students were assessed with the one of eight different sentence list sheets. Each sentence list sheet contained sentences using all 15-letter sounds, which was eventually taught by the parent. There were 30 words on each sheet, and each letter sound was used at least two times and no more than 12 times. There were 10 sentences with 2 to 4 words in each sentence. The same letters did not appear in the same position for more than two words in a row. The font size and style was closely matched the text *TYCTR*. Sentences were created based on the scope and sequence of sounding out words. Also, all words were "regular words" (Carnine et al., 2010). Students were asked to read for 30 s, and then the

experimenter counted and wrote number of correct and incorrect words on the top of the sentence practice sheet (See Appendix G).

Words were identified as correct if a student sounded out all letters of the word. A student could sound out the word then say the word quickly, as modeled during parent teaching. Any word could be read incorrectly then self-corrected and would not be marked as incorrect. Students also could repeat the word, or pause without being marked as incorrect. Words were not marked as incorrect if the student produced imperfect pronunciation due to dialect, articulation, or second language influence. Insertions, substitutions, and reversals were marked as incorrect. Insertions were when student inserted a word or letters to make a new word. When students substituted they delete a letter sound in the word or word in the sentence. Letter sound correspondence errors, where the student mispronounced the same letter in every word, were marked incorrect. Multiple errors with the same word were marked as incorrect. As an example the student missed several words of a certain pattern (e.g., always reading tap instead of top). Random guessing errors were marked incorrect, when the student pronounced words not closely resembling any form of the words listed. Each time a student said one or several letter sounds or letter names but not sound out the entire word, was also marked as incorrect for each letter name and sound pronounced.

Lesson Checklists. The experimenter created an itemized checklist for each step parents were expected to read in each lesson, to measure intervention fidelity. There was a space for the experimenter to check each task the parent had to accurately complete (see Appendix H). The experimenter completed an itemized checklist for every audio tape recording of lessons for each student and parent. Intervention fidelity was measured by the number of steps accurately

completed divided by the number of steps complete and accurate plus number of steps not complete or accurate and multiplied by 100%.

Qualitative Measures

Categories of parents' questions and comments. The experimenter organized categories of all questions and comments parents asked once parent instruction was over and parents began teaching reading. All questions and comments were placed into categories: scheduling/ motivational, study related, literacy related, and program related. Scheduling/motivational questions were questions that parents had referring to their child and being able to find ways to complete lessons. Study related questions were categorized as any questions relating to study materials or logistical issues. Literacy related questions were all based on letter or word pronunciation. Program related questions were specific to the lesson plans. For fidelity measures, a second observer reviewed the list of categories and classification of questions and comments before intervention began and also reviewed the questions and comments of parent questions once they were sorted by the experimenter (see Appendix I).

Classification of experimenter involvement. After parent instruction and the beginning of intervention, parents were called once each week by the experimenter. Parents were asked "Do you have any questions at this time?" All questions were sorted into different classifications based on support required by the experimenter to answer the questions. Each question fell under the following classification: no questions, answering identification questions, providing examples, and modeling expectations. No questions was defined as parents simply made comments or stated they did not have any questions. Answering identification questions were framed around questions that were answered with yes or no, or only one possible answer. Providing examples included providing answers as options and ideas for parents. Modeling

expectations was defined as parent was requesting for a skill to be modeled or re-taught. For fidelity measures, a second observer reviewed the list of categories and classification of questions and comments before intervention began and also reviewed the categories and classifications of parent questions once they were sorted by the experimenter (see Appendix J).

Independent Variable

Parent implementation of *TYCTR*. Parents used the book *Teach Your Child to Read in 100 Easy Lessons* or *TYCTR (*Engelmann et al., 1983) which consisted of 100 formatted lessons. In the current study the parents taught the first 30 formatted lessons introducing only 15 letter sounds in the program. In the lessons students were introduced to sounds, instructed to produce letter sounds, letter sound blending, sounding out words, rhyming words, and reading words. In every other lesson students were introduced to 1 to 2 new letter sounds, and the letter sounds were reviewed throughout the lessons. Parents followed an instructional method of model, lead, and test. The parents taught students to say words slowly, placing emphasis on each sound. Parents also said compound words slowly and had the students respond quickly. As the lessons continued, students blended sounds together to make words. Words also were put together to make sentences. Writing tasks, picture comprehension, and word finding tasks were all removed, because the present study's primary focus was on decoding and blending. Parents were asked to dedicate 15 min a night for 5 nights a week in the home.

Experimental Design

To measure progress with sentence list sheets the experimenter implemented a multiple-probe multiple baseline across students design (Horner & Baer, 1978; Kennedy, 2005). The design allowed for monitoring any change in student behavior before intervention, while eliminating the necessity for recording continuous baseline of the remaining students who were

not in intervention. As some students remained in baseline for an extended period, multiple sentence list sheets minimized reading practice effects while still showing improvements. The study design also accounted for maturation effects and other instruction going on in the classroom. Additionally, by measuring data and collecting recorded lessons regularly the experimenter was able to compare lesson progress and number of words taught, with the amount of words students were able to sound out on the sentence list sheets. Using the single case experimental design facilitated monitoring growth of each participant as they progressed through the reading program. Visual inspection was used to evaluate the effects of the intervention.

Procedures

Pre-screening. The teacher administered the DIBELS letter naming identification and beginning sound fluency subtests to all students upon entering kindergarten. The test measures phonological awareness, and ability to recognize and produce the initial sound in an orally presented words (Kaminski & Good, 1998). Students were presented with a page of upper- and lower-case letters arranged in a random order and were asked to name as many letters within 1 min, and the score was be tallied as number of letters named correctly in 1 min. The teacher presented four pictures to the child, naming each picture, and then asked the child to identify (i.e., point to or say) the picture that began with the sound the teacher produced. For example, the teachers said, "This is sink, cat, gloves, and hat. Which picture begins with /s/?" and the student would point to the correct picture. The child was also asked to orally produce the beginning sound for an orally presented word that matched one of the given pictures. The teacher calculated the number of letter sounds the student can identify/produce correctly and convert the score into the number of onsets correct in 1 min. Letter sounds were identified as correct if student could sound out the correct letters with the presented question. Assessments

were scored according to DIBELS criteria for correct and incorrect letters and sounds. Test scores were used by the experimenter as a pre-test screening for students at-risk for reading difficulty (See Appendix C). Students who read no letter sounds and identified less than half of the letter names were given parent permission forms.

Based on the students who agreed to participate, the teacher filled out an additional checklist other additional level of screening to select students who were at-risk of reading difficulty. The teacher used the checklist to evaluate each potential participant's current progression measure if a student was at-risk. The checklist provided teachers with a guideline for literacy benchmarks students should perform during daily classroom activity. It helped teachers add structure to their judgment with students who needed additional support with reading. Not only were these skills based on manipulation of letters and sounds, but structure of language and vocabulary usage (McGee & Morrow, 2005).

Any students meeting criteria were given permission forms. After the experimenter gained permission to work with the students the teacher then completed a checklist on each student measuring their current literacy milestones. Any student with less than half of the literacy milestones checked were selected for participation in the study and baseline measures were collected.

Baseline. During baseline the experimenter administered the first 30s timed sentence practice sheet. No error correction followed any of the baseline passages. Students were praised for participation after each assessment. The first student who displayed a flat or decreasing baseline in sounding out words in sentences began the intervention. Because all students were at zero for a period of four days the first student was selected based on parent availability. Then the parent of the first student completed two instructional sessions, and the parent and child

began the first lesson from *TYCTR* (Engelmann et al., 1983). The remaining students continued in baseline and were assessed with weekly sentence list sheets. The experimenter administered a sentence list sheet before each student began intervention phase to assure students had a stable baseline. The second parent completed two instruction sessions once the first student completed seven lessons. Then the second parent and child began Lesson 1. The sequence continued until all students were in the intervention phase of the study. Once in intervention, students completed a minimum of one and a maximum of five sentence list sheets each week.

Parent Instruction. All parent instructional sessions occurred in the school at the parent's convenience. Instructional sessions were formatted to facilitate consistent directions for audiocassette recordings and lesson procedures. The experimenter read formatted directions for the instructional sessions (see Appendix K). Parents also were given checklists for using the audiocassette recorder and implementing components highlighted from instruction.

On the first instructional session parents were asked to complete a sample lesson with the experimenter to assure parents were able to read and were interested in implementing this style of instruction. Parents qualified for the study if they were able to complete 50% of the tasks. All parents were able to complete more than 50% of the tasks in the lesson based on the itemized task list of the lesson, therefore they were able to maintain participation in the study. The experimenter then handed out support materials for instruction: How to have a successful reading session, pronunciation guide, and the audio recording of the letter sounds. Next, the parent watched a 40 min interactive video, *Reading for All* (Haddox, 2002) instructing parents on the book *TYCTR* (Engelmann et al., 1983). The video covered, the importance of following the script, how to sound out each letter, saying words fast and slow, rhyming, and representation of each letter symbol. Parents were given opportunities to model how to say each sound. Next,

there was an overview of feedback and corrections. Again, parents had opportunities to practice skills and receive feedback. Last, parents were given the chance to carry out blending and rhyming skills. At the end of the first instructional session parents were asked to complete a list of questions to share more information regarding family history and the home literacy environment. The experimenter also asked the parents if they had a preference on where gift cards were purchased. Each parent selected Wal-Mart. The parent was then asked what small reward the experimenter could provide (e.g., stickers, bracelets) their child for participating each evening.

On the second instructional session the experimenter reviewed the support materials for instruction. Then the experimenter and the parent reviewed skills previously learned on first instruction session. Next the parent watched another 30 min of *Reading for All* (Haddox, 2002), which modeled the first formatted lesson in the book. Parents again practiced skills and received feedback from experimenter. After watching the video, the experimenter provided more opportunities to role-play and provide feedback. Parent questions were answered at that time. Following the last session parents were given the instructional binder, audiocassette, tapes, and contact information for the experimenter.

Parents Teaching Reading. After each of the first four parent lessons the student brought in the tape for the experimenter to assess for completion and accuracy of each lesson. If the parent was below 90% criteria, based on the itemized checklist of each lesson, parents were provided additional instruction until they reached criterion. To motivate parents to send the tapes for the first four lessons, parents were given a gift card of choice for $5.00 each time the student brought in the instructional tape in the first four lessons. After the first four sessions parents were then expected to send tapes to school with the student each time the student and the

parent completed 5 lessons. To further encourage parents to record and send in tapes after they completed 5 lessons they were given a gift card of choice for $10.00 each time the experimenter collected 5 lessons. These additional tapes were collected to measure intervention fidelity, no experimenter feedback was provided unless parents had questions.

Collecting Parent Questions and Comments. After parent instruction and the beginning of intervention, parents were called once each week by the experimenter. Parents were asked "Do you have any questions at this time?" Parent comments and questions were documented according to categories of parents' questions and comments and classification of experimenter involvement based on parents' questions and comments once parent instruction was over. To see a list the list of parents' questions and comments see Appendix L. Additionally if parents initiated a call to the experimenter questions also were documented. All questions and comments were placed into categories: scheduling/motivation, study related questions, literacy related questions, and program related questions. All experimenter responses were sorted according classification of experimenter involvement: no questions, answering identification questions, providing examples, and modeling expectations.

Maintenance. Four weeks after each student and parent individually finished 30 lessons, the experimenter returned to the school to administer sentence list sheets over three days. Sentence list sheets followed baseline procedures. After the final maintenance, students concluded their participation in the study.

Interscorer Agreement

The experimenter instructed an additional observer to score data. The experimenter and the second observer both scored sample sentence sheets until they attained 90% accuracy for scoring words correct per min. Then the second scorer listened to 25% of randomly selected

sentence list sheets taped recordings for each student throughout the study. The second scorer used practice sentence sheets to calculate the score. Interscorer agreement between the experimenter and the second observer was calculated according to the number of agreements divided by the number of agreements plus disagreements multiplied by 100%. Interscorer agreement for words correct and incorrect was 96% (range=92%-100%).

Procedural Integrity

The experimenter instructed an additional observer to complete the itemized task list for several lessons. The experimenter and the second observer both completed checklists on several sample lessons until they attained 90% accuracy for tallying task completion. Then the second scorer listened to 25% of all audio tape recordings across lessons for each student. Lessons were evaluated for each intervention session using an individualized checklist for each lesson and parent audio recordings. The independent scorer listened to the audio taped lessons and used the itemized checklist. The formula, number for agreements divided by number of agreements plus disagreements multiplied by 100%, was used to calculate percent agreement between experimenter and the independent observer. Interscorer agreement between the experimenter and the second observer was calculated according to the number of agreements divided by the number of agreements plus disagreements multiplied by 100%. Interscorer agreement for steps completed was 95% (range=93%-100%).

Social Validity

To measure social validity, the experimenter used four specific measures. First, the experimenter recorded student response to two questions: (a) Did you like practicing reading with your mom or dad? (b) Do you feel the lessons helped you with reading in school? If so, how? Second, the teacher responded with written answers to three questions: (a) Do you feel

your students benefited from their participation? (b) Can you identify specific changes with any particular student(s)? (c) If possible will you recommend and try to support parents with the following reading program? Third, parents completed a 5-point Likert scale for 10 questions. Parents sent their responses to the teachers in a sealed envelope to maximize confidentiality. Fourth, the experimenter took notes on all parent questions comments and placed into a table. All responses were compared and analyzed for similar questions or feedback. Additionally, any unprompted feedback received during the course of the study from any student, parent, or teacher relating to the study was added to social validity.

Chapter 3: Results

Reading Sentence List Sheets

Figure 1 displays the correct words read per 30 s for Anthony, Joe, and Gus each day for baseline, intervention, and maintenance. The solid dots represent correctly read words for each sentence list sheet. Each student read a minimum of four sentence list sheets during baseline. Figure 2 displays number of incorrect words read for each participant. The x's represent number of words read incorrectly for each sentence list sheet. Both Figure 1 and 2 have an x-axis scaled with calendar days and placed in real-time. The breaks between the data represent weekends and times when the students could not attend the dependent variable condition (e.g., illness, assembly). The y-axis shows the total number of correct or incorrect words read per 30 s.

Words Correct within 30 Seconds. None of the students read any words correct during baseline. Anthony's data points were stable with a zero trend for baseline. Occasionally Anthony stated, "I do not know" for sentences. Other times he did not say anything. During baseline, Joe had a zero trend words correct. Gus also had a stable baseline with a zero of words correct.

Anthony was selected to begin intervention first. The intervention lasted seven weeks. Using the split-middle design (Kazdin, 1982) Anthony's data points showed stable moderate increase in trend over time. One month after completion of the 30 lessons maintenance data were collected for Anthony. He continued a high rate of reading words correctly. His words correct were stable with a maintaining trend for three different reading sheets over a number of days.

The intervention lasted nine weeks for Joe and Gina. Joe's data presented a moderate increasing trend of words correct during intervention. His words correct were stable. One month

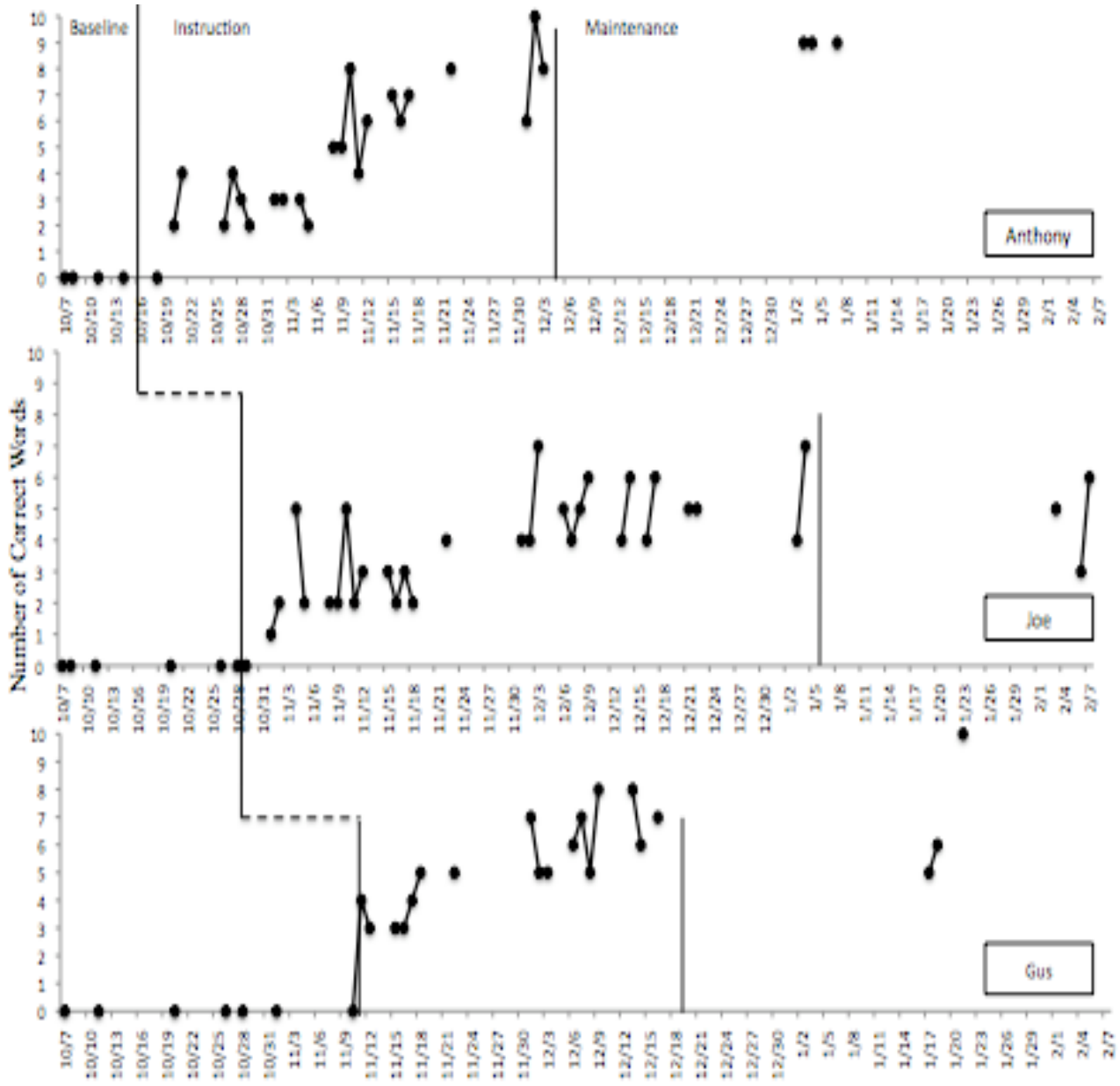

Figure 1. Number of Words Correct. Solid dots represent correctly read words for each sentence list sheet.

after the 30 lessons were completed maintenance data were collected. Data points feel within the high end of the range to data collected during intervention. Words read correctly also showed a moderate amount of variability.

Gus and Sam completed two lessons on the first day of intervention, and Gus and Sam completed more lessons each week as compared to other participants. The intervention phase lasted for five weeks. Gus had a rapid increase in trend of words read correct over time. Data for words read correct were stable. During maintenance Gus was able to continue to read at a rapid increasing trend with stable data points. The instructional phase was over when parents completed 30 lessons.

Words Read Incorrect per 30 Seconds. Anthony's word read incorrect per 30 s were stable with zero trend during baseline. Anthony's data points were stable with moderate but variable decreasing trend during intervention. During maintenance data points for words read incorrect were stable with a maintaining trend for three different reading sheets over a number of days.

Joe's data points during baseline were steady and moderately increasing. The words incorrect were attributed to guessing random words familiar to him (e.g., tractor, horse). He would often guess one word for each sentence. After intervention Joe had a rapid decrease of words read incorrectly. Over time, Joe's words read incorrectly over time were stable with zero trend. During maintenance words read incorrect were stable with a maintaining trend.

Gus pointed out letter names (e.g., n) and said random sight words he had learned previously in class during baseline; words read incorrectly were stable and maintained. During intervention data points for words read incorrect were stable with a slightly decreasing trend. In maintenance the number of words read incorrectly were stable three out of four data points at 0.

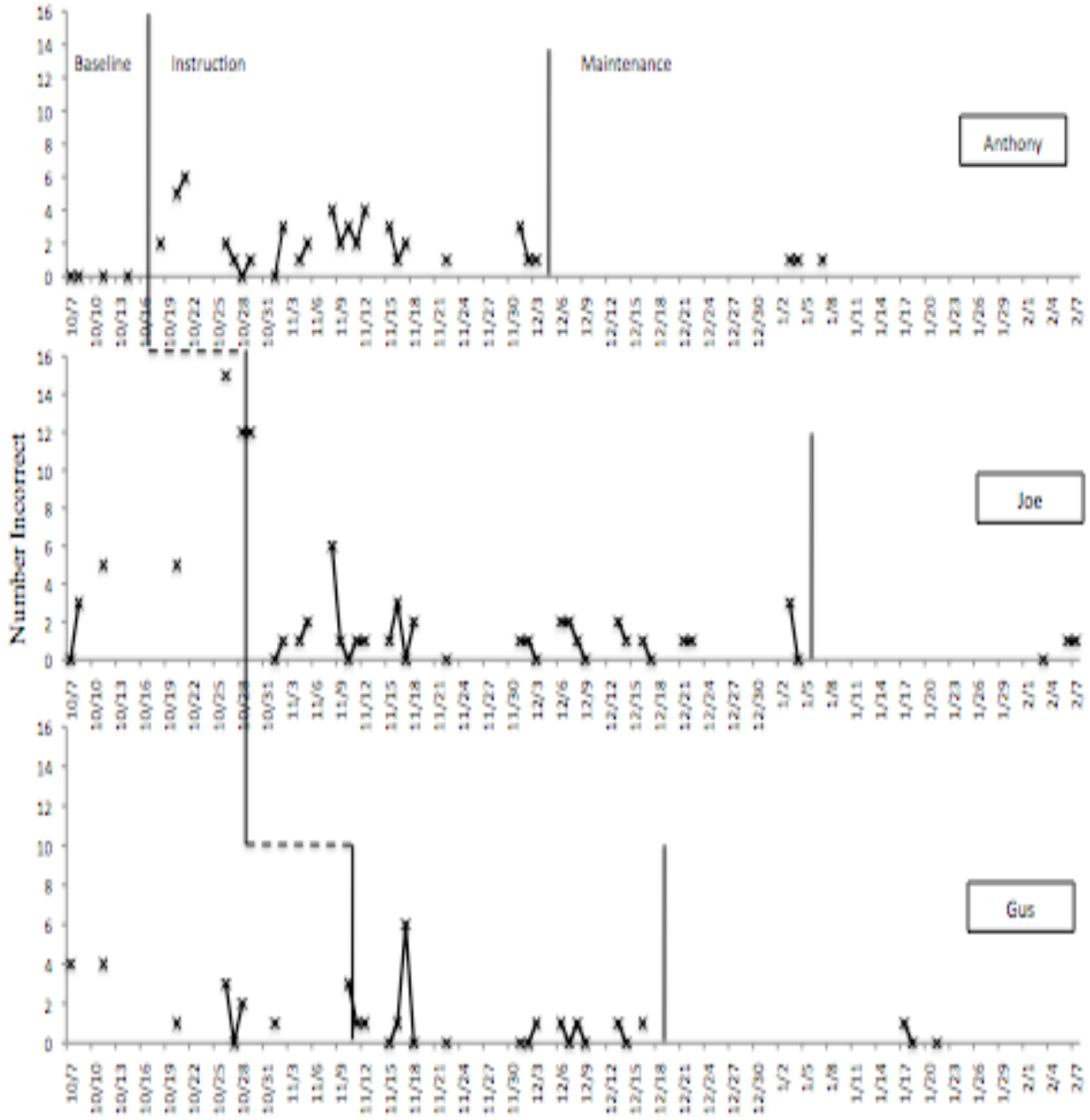

Figure 2. Number of Words Incorrect. The x's represent number of words read incorrectly for each sentence list sheet.

Lesson Completion and Accuracy

Figure 3 displays percentage of the steps completed by parents and accuracy for each lesson. The average percentage of accuracy and completion for all three participants was 88%. Listening to all recordings revealed a consistency among the three participants, they regularly skipped one item in the lessons. Parents rarely repeated sections when the directions stated "Let's read that again." Not repeating words appeared to be the most common error with all parents. Occasionally parents did mispronounce letter sounds. Sam had difficultly with the "th" sound because it is a blended sound and was not on the sound recording. Sam was able to correct his error within two lessons once the pair started sounding out "th" within words. Gus and Sam had the highest average of accuracy and completion, with a rate of 96%.

Gina mispronounced several vowel sounds, but she also was able to correct herself within several lessons when she heard the vowels sounds within words. Joe and Gina's percentage of completion and accuracy was 88%, an average rate for all three pairs. Accuracy and completion varied with Anthony's parents. In Figure 3 Amy's rate is shaded black and Andy's rates are shaded grey. Amy's average percentage was 92% and Andy's average percentage was 79%. Amy's did have errors pronouncing vowel sounds and she was able to correct herself within several lessons. Andy also made errors with vowel sounds, but he never made corrections with letter sounds. Often times when Andy was practicing "Say it Fast" he would practice letter names and not letter sounds. After Amy was able to correct letter sounds Anthony was then able to pronounce correct sounds with his dad.

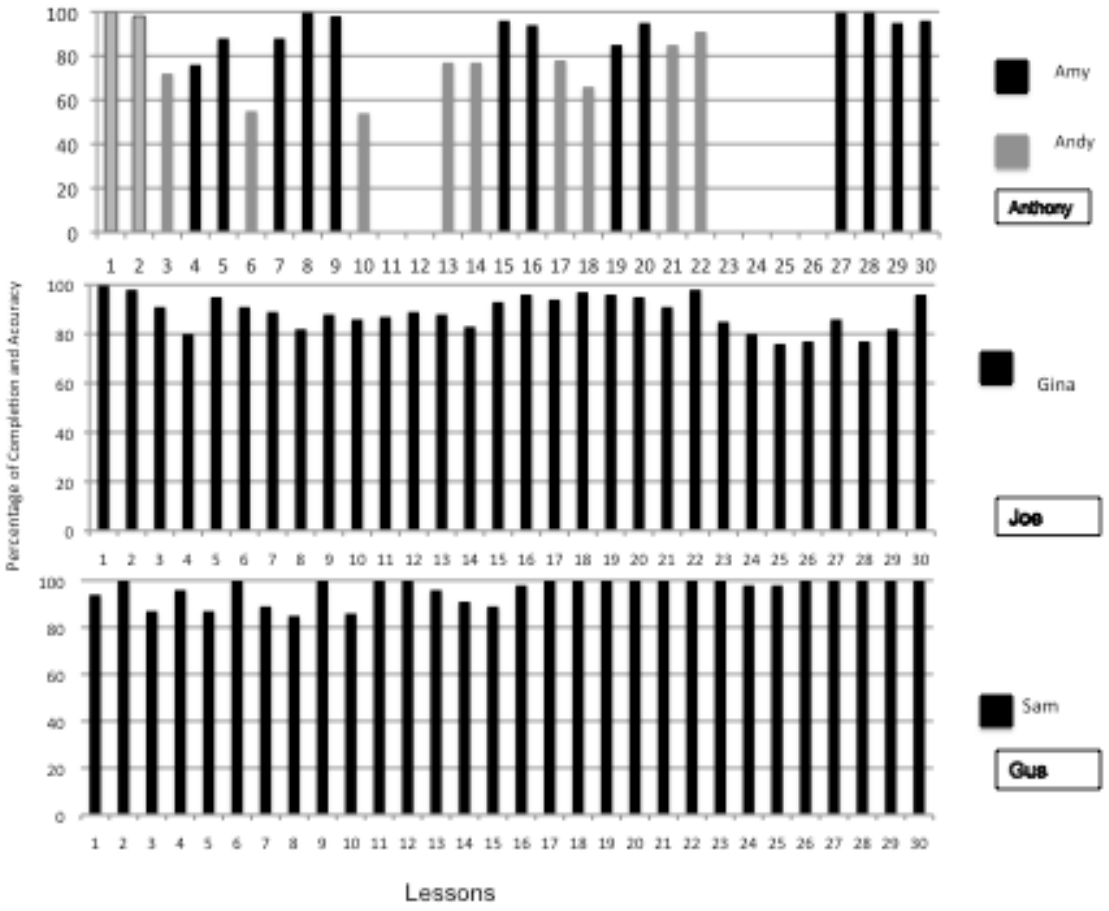

Figure 3. Parents' Percentage of Completion and Accuracy. This figure displays parents' treatment fidelity as measured by percentage of completion and accuracy of each lesson.

Qualitative Measures

Questions parents asked once intervention began were charted and categorized into two different charts, categories of parents' questions and classification of experimenter involvement.

Categories of questions. Most of the questions parents asked were motivational/scheduling (Table 1). The majority of Amy's questions were motivational/scheduling. She regularly shared her schedule and tried to organize times she felt she would be able to complete lessons. With Gina, most comments were also motivational/ scheduling. Because she had a difficult time fitting lessons into her day she regularly talked about the times that she could finish each lesson. Gina's had two study related questions. She

asked about when tapes needed returned and wanted to know when she had to complete all lessons. Amy had two program specific questions. Because of Anthony's progress she wanted to skip sections of the lessons. She also wanted to verify if she could complete two lessons within a day, when time allowed. Sam's questions were mainly motivational/scheduling. He asked a literacy question one time when he wanted to check a letter sound. Then he primarily discussed the progress he was making with each lesson.

Table 1

Categories of Questions

	Scheduling/motivation	Study related	Literacy related	Program related
Amy	7	0	1	2
Gina	7	2	2	1
Sam	5	0	1	0

Classification of Experimenter Involvement. No parents asked questions that required modeling or examples (Table 2). Most conversations with parents involved outlining when they planned on teaching lesson each week. Most parents had comments on how they liked the program or when they planned on completing their lessons. Amy had seven comments or statements that did not require answers, most of her comments were framed around the progress she noticed her son was making in school. She wanted verification on his progress. Both Gina and Sam had four comments or statements that did not require an answer. Most conversations with Gina were regarding timelines of finishing the reading lessons. The majority of Sam's questions required no support, but one time he wanted to confirm that he could complete two lessons in a day.

Table 2

Classification of Experimenter Involvement

	Comments	Yes or No	Example	Model
Amy	7	3	0	0
Gina	4	6	0	0
Sam	4	2	0	0

There were a total of 11 yes or no, or fact based questions. Gina had six of these questions. Many questions required a yes or no answer. In the beginning one of Amy's questions wanted to know if they could skip the format if Anthony already knew what to say. She was told it was very important to follow the format of each lesson. At one point Sam noticed he was making an error in one sound and wanted to check if he was able to sound it out appropriately.

Social Validity

Parents. Each parent believed they were prepared to teach their child after instruction was complete. They also felt they had continuous support throughout the intervention. Every parent noted they enjoyed implementing the reading intervention with their child, and felt they had a closer relationship with their child by working together. One parent stated, "I am grateful to have had one-on-one time with my son and teaching him. I feel more a part of his education and development." All three parents recorded progress in their child's reading ability. One parent added, "Thank you so much. I love that my son is doing so much better with reading and that he learned so much in a little time." Two parents felt neutral regarding reading impact in other academic areas.

Students. Gus reported he did not like practicing reading when it cut into his playtime, but overall he liked reading with his dad. He did feel that he was learning more at school

because of the reading activities (e.g., rhyming) he completed at home. Gus liked the fact that he could sound out bigger words at school. He specifically enjoyed sounding out words quickly with his dad. He also added that he wished there were more pictures in the book.

Anthony liked reading with both parents, but also included he preferred reading with his mom because he believed she was a better reader. He noticed he could read bigger words at school and was able to sound out more words in his favorite books. Joe thought it was fun reading with his mom. Joe loved that she was helping him read the words. He noted when the teacher read words within books at school he could also read the words.

Teacher. The teacher believed the students who took part in the study benefited in several ways. First, she believed the parents felt it was extremely important to be involved in their child's education and they had a specific guide to help. Second, the interaction at home and at school one-on-one created a positive arena to focus successfully and provided a sense of greater self-esteem for each of the students. Each student was very happy to announce his accomplishments each morning upon entering the classroom. Third, she felt these students gained more knowledge and were able to transfer this into their classroom work.

The teacher deemed Anthony benefited most from the reading program. He became aware he was learning and retaining information that was improving his participation in the class. Anthony was able to add meaning to some of the work that he completed at home with the work he had to do in class, and he became excited about the work he did at home. She added "Anthony became a more confident personality and is now a student who volunteers information rather than sitting and listening, as he did prior to the program."

This teacher believed in the program and would implement in her class so more parents could interact with their child and understand how their child learns to identify letters, then

sounds and finally words. She felt the process benefited both parents and children to create a bond for them to work together throughout school. Because she believed reading books to children is not something that is practiced in the home, this program can provide parents with specific skills to help students learn to read.

Chapter 4: Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine if students who were at-risk of reading difficulty could learn to read through parent instruction with a modification of the explicit instruction beginning reading book, *Teach Your Child to Read in 100 Easy Lesson*. Furthermore, the present study examined parents' ability to implement the reading program with fidelity as measured by completion and accuracy of parent implementation. Additional qualitative data were collected by recording parent questions and comments during intervention.

The systematic assessment of students' lessons demonstrated clear student improvements as a result of parent intervention. None of the student could read any words during baseline. Only upon introduction of letters and their corresponding sounds did students begin sounding out these letters and reading words on sentence list sheets. With sound experimental control maturation could not be considered as an explanation to the observed change in behavior (Newman & McCormick, 1995). All progress corresponded with application of the intervention. The stable baseline for all students indicate current teaching methods were not addressing students' needs for building phonemic awareness and decoding words. Thirty days after parent instruction ended maintenance data demonstrated students were still able to read words at a high level with very few words read incorrectly. Indeed, Gus' last maintenance data point was higher than any of his previous data points in the correct words phase. His data suggest that he internalized the reading skills and could apply them at a very high level.

The students' steady decrease in words read incorrect meant their accuracy was improving and they were using decoding strategies. During baseline students either guessed letter names or words. Random guessing can cause frustration and confusion because students who are taught to guess continually practice reading errors rather than applying a strategy for

learning sounds and words (Carnine et al, 2010; Englert, 1984; Torgesen, 2002). Avoiding random guessing is especially important for teaching students who are at-risk for reading difficulty. By teaching students with *TYCTR*, parents gave purposeful feedback for error correction so students would work on connecting letters with sounds rather than relying on random guessing. Joe commonly guessed words during baseline, yet he quickly stopped once he learned the strategy of sounding out words. Often times incorrect words during intervention were the students attempts to sound out letters they recognized, but were unable to blend the entire word because they had not learned all of the letters within the words.

As previously reported (Druin, 2009), students can benefit from parent instruction yet very few studies report the precise level of intervention fidelity as measured by completion and accuracy parents were able to follow a reading program (Gang & Poche, 1982; Regtvoort & van der Leij, 2007) or what categories of questions parents asked and classification of experimenter involvement during reading intervention (Restar et al., 2006). Specifically, the present study indicated parents could implement an explicit reading program with limited support, and with high rates intervention fidelity as measured by completion and accuracy. Most importantly students had marked increase of words read correctly and deceased number of words read incorrectly upon introduction of the intervention.

Parents were able to implement *TYCTR* with high rates intervention fidelity as measured by completion and accuracy. Average scores for all parents were 88%. Despite the perception parents have low rates of implementation of an intervention their completion rate is slightly lower than teacher integrity of 94% (Ziolkowski & Goldstein, 2008) or paraprofessional integrity at 90% (Lane, Fletcher, Carter, Dejud, & DeLorenzo, 2007). Further analysis showed most parents made the same error of not repeating words a section. Parents had a limited amount of

errors with modeling letter sounds. Yet, despite providing parents with auditory versions of letter sounds, modeling certain sounds was still at times difficult for parents. However, because parents were able to hear sounds when practicing familiar words, parents quickly corrected errors of letter sounds in future lessons. With the structure of repetition of few skills in the lessons of *TYCTR* parents were able to make self-corrections and consistently teach lessons.

Although fathers rarely participate in research and reading related activities with their children (Frieman & Berkeley, 2002) Sam, Gus's father, did. Sam attained high levels of completion and accuracy, as compared to other parents. Gus and his father completed lessons daily. They were very motivated to complete lessons and wished to continue with the program after the study was over. Although this was only one example of a father implementing a reading intervention, the results are promising for a dad completing the study.

Once each parent began teaching his or her child no parent initiated contact with the experimenter. Examining the categories of parent questions, most parent statements were advice or scheduling questions. The majority of conversations surrounded the parents' timelines and when they were going to do the lessons for that particular week. The phone calls, perhaps, were a support for parents to outline their week and remind them reading is a priority in the home. Parents' study related questions were framed around when to hand in tapes. Parents occasionally affirmed they realized they were pronouncing letter sounds incorrectly. Program specific questions were specific to the lesson structure and students' needs (e.g., "Anthony is doing so well is it okay if he reads my lines with me?")

Because there were limited questions regarding how to implement *TYCTR*, the experimenter did not provide any examples or model lessons after parents received initial instruction. With *TYCTR*, once parents learned the program, they did not request support with

how to teach their children to read. Most parent responses were comments. As most parents today, the biggest struggle was finding the time to read with their child (Sonnenschein & Munsterman, 2002). Yet, despite these parents' busy lives, backgrounds, and education levels, all participants were able to complete 30 lessons in a range of 5 to 9 weeks.

Even with research suggesting parents motivation for investing in research is based on the incentives maintaining their participation in the study (Kline, Grayson, & Mathie, 1990; Rice & Broome, 2004; Wedel & Fowler, 1984), several parents declined meals for the instructional sessions. Plus, when they were asked about which store they would like gift cards from they reported they thought this was a great bonus, but they did not realize that gift cards were included. Though it cannot be discounted, financial support could have motivated parents to maintain participation in the study. It is common for students to drop out of parent involvement reading studies (Fielding-Barnsley & Purdie, 2003; Justice et al., 2005; Vinograd-Bausell, Bausell, Proctor, & Chandler, 1986; Resetar et al., 2006) for various reasons. Yet in the present study, all three parents who completed initial parent instruction followed through with teaching all 30 lessons to their children.

Study Limitations

The following limitations in this study should be addressed. Though DIBELS is commonly used in the schools as a primary indicator for students who need further reading intervention (Kamps et al, 2003), it is important to consider multiple levels of screenings to avoid an increase in false positives and false negatives (Compton, Fuchs, Fuchs, Bouton, Gilbert, & Barquero, 2010). When using the DIBELS there are issues with considering Letter Naming Fluency (LNF) and Initial Sound Fluency (ISF) subtests for accurately selecting students at-risk (Goodman, 2006). Need to address with the letter naming fluency subtest, it is important

consider some students may take longer to indentify and answer letter names therefore earn a low score which looks similar to a student who only knows a limited number of letters. Yet, both students would still be identified at-risk. Plus, with initial sound fluency these pictures have specific names and sometimes can be identified with multiple names (e.g., bear or cub) and without the exact classification as addressed by the answer booklet, students could have inaccurate scoring based on misidentification of pictures. Additionally, because 5 year-old children are going through brain development it is possible students selected to participate have a developmental lag, therefore reading ability could improve over time (Davis, Barquero, Compton, Fuchs, Fuchs, Gore, & Anderson, 2011).

Future Research

Empirical evidence suggests parents can teach explicit letter sounds and blending skills in the home (Druin, 2009; Erion, 2006; Justice et al., 2005). The present study suggests parents with a range of educational backgrounds could implement explicit lessons at high rates of completion and accuracy with weekly experimenter phone calls. However, it is unknown if these participants will avoid reading difficulties as they continue through school because they completed only 30 lessons. Therefore, it would be beneficial to follow the students through school and determine the impact of the instruction. Additionally, examining the effect of students completing 100 lessons over an extended period of time would offer productive information.

The present study, in particular, focused on parent's ability to complete lessons without feedback on their performance. Because each parent was making similar mistakes throughout their lessons it would be more valuable for the parents to receive immediate feedback on their performance (Coulter & Grossen, 1997) so students would not be practicing errors on a regular

basis. Therefore, having the experimenter or teacher providing contact with all persons responsible for delivering instruction would be important to examine.

Identifying a student with a disability, specifically at-risk for reading difficulty, is often times a difficult task (Schatschneider, 2004). Students in this particular area of research should undergo extensive levels of pre-screening in order to match students in the most need of reading intervention. Sometimes reasoning for students having reading difficulties can be multifaceted. With clear documentation and descriptions of these students and parents within a larger scale controlled study, results of a group design would specify how *TYCTR* could benefit more students and parents. This could help identify which students within different disability categories would benefit from *TYCTR*.

Summary

The present study provided and investigation of the efficacy of an explicit reading program for parents with students at-risk of reading difficulty. By completing parent instruction on *Teach Your Child To Read in 100 Easy Lessons,* students increased sounding out words and decreased incorrect words. With ongoing communication parents were able to complete 30 lessons in a range of 5 to 9 weeks. The present study demonstrated parents could complete lessons with high levels of intervention fidelity as measured by completion and accuracy. The intervention offered in this study provided parents with a scripted program to effectively teach their children at home.

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Appendix A

Literature Review

The introduction of the review provided a rationale for what skills and methods parents should use to teach early readers phonemic awareness and explicit letter sounds. In the following section an outline of what important methods should be included in a study for parents teaching reading, which are articles in the literature review. Topics pertinent to the proposed investigation will be discussed in the following order: (a) beginning reading skills, (b) effective instruction, and (c) research on parent interventions using effective instruction to teach explicit phonics skills at home for students at-risk of reading difficulty.

Beginning Reading Skills

Phonemic Awareness. The research literature highlights critical importance of phonemic awareness for beginning reading success (Torgesen, Wagner, & Rashotte, 1994; Stanovich, 1986; Wagner 1988). Phonemic awareness is an individual's explicit ability to understand all words spoken consisting of a sequence of individual sounds made up of letters (Ball & Blachman, 1991). Yopp (1992) defines phonemic awareness as ability to hear and manipulate sounds in spoken words and the understanding spoken words and syllables are made up of sequences of speech sounds. Phonemic awareness includes many skills requiring sounds manipulation (e.g., blending and segmenting; Ehri, Nunes, Willows, Schuster, Yaghoub-Zadeh, & Shanahan, 2001; Moats, 1999).

There is a substantial research base for reading instructional programs created to improve phonemic awareness. Several studies have established significant results for literacy development through instruction with high levels of phonemic awareness skills (Adams, 1990; Ehri et al., 2001; Torgesen et al., 1994). Simply stated good readers have finely developed skills

in phonemic awareness and poor readers have not yet established phonemic awareness skills (Smith, Simmons, & Kameenui, 1998; Wagner & Torgesen, 1987). The National Reading Panel (2000) suggests students who demonstrate measures of phonemic awareness (e.g., identifying onset-rhyme, grouping words according to common sounds or rhymes, or segmenting sounds or syllables) model better reading skills (e.g., word attack, spelling, decoding) than students who perform poorly on these tasks. One way to identify children who are not attaining these skills and to measure progress due to reading interventions is to assess students with the Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS) tool. Many schools are currently using this measurement tool to identify students and monitor progress (Kamps, Wills, Greenwood, Thorne, Lazo, Crockett, McGonigle, et al., 2003).

Some students develop phonemic awareness naturally through word games and play, yet not all students learn phonemic awareness skills without instruction (Smith et al., 1998). Similar findings suggest phonemic awareness skills can be taught to students who are at-risk or have reading disabilities (O'Connor et al., 1993; van Kleeck, 2007). Phonemic awareness instruction helps students improve reading and spelling skills, suggesting critical literacy skills can be effectively taught to struggling readers.

Decoding skills. There is additional support for including instruction on decoding skills for beginning readers (Carnine, Silbert, Kameenui, & Tarver, 2010). One definition of decoding is the process of using letter-sound correspondences to recognize words, and letter-sound knowledge is prerequisite to effective word identification (Juel, 1991). Chall (1979) solidified the importance of teaching word reading through phonics (i.e., teaching letter-sound correspondence strategies for decoding words) in classroom literacy instruction. Chall's meta-analysis demonstrated the magnitude of importance of "code emphasis" and essential

components of explicit phonics instruction to teach beginning readers to decode single words. There is vast support reflecting the critical need for phonics instruction in the early stages of reading development (Adams, 1990; Carnine et al., 2010; Chall, 1979; National Reading Panel, 2000; Stanovich, 1986), and students who are learning to decode need to be taught strategies for sounding out words (Carnine et al., 2010).

Effective Instruction

It is not only important to consider what skills to teach but how to present instructional materials (Smith et al., 1998). Ongoing evidence in the literature base has defined components of effective instructional practices (Brophy & Good, 1986; Carnine et al., 2010; Gersten, 1998; Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986). Six areas important for effective instruction: review, presentation, guided practice, feedback, independent practice, and review. Each component will be discussed in the following sections outlines skills necessary for effective instruction.

Instructional design strategies. The key to implementing any lesson is having an organized plan before instruction begins (Kameenui & Simmons, 1990). Though each area of instruction will be different as far as content, all instructors should make considerations for the following strategies within their lessons. Teachers must identify relevant pre-skills students need for reading. Then teachers need to provide accurate examples within each lesson. The design for early literacy programs should particularly incorporate strategies to proficiently teach pre-readers skills of phonemic awareness and decoding. Instructional strategies are especially prudent when meeting needs of at-risk learners (Kameenui & Simmons, 1990). For that reason, educators must be able to prepare and present well-organized lessons in phonological awareness and decoding, so all students can attain emergent literacy skills for reading achievement.

Instructional delivery strategies. There is ample evidence regarding instructional

delivery and effective presentation practices. Because young students begin school with a range reading of abilities between each other (Gunn, Simmons, & Kameenui, 1998) there is strong support for small group or individualized instruction for teaching reading (Lonigan, 2006; Rashotte, MacPhee, & Torgesen, 2001). Many key elements encompass effective delivery models regardless of class or group size. Skills represented from effective teachers while presenting a lesson contain organizing skills in an appropriate sequence and allocating appropriate amounts of time for each component (Rosenshine, 1997; Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986).

Distributed practice. As in learning any new material, it is indispensable to apply newly acquired reading skills in multiple settings to help students gain proficiency (Phillips, Clancy-Menchetti, & Lonigan, 2008). Distributed practice is comprised of repeated trials over time for purposes of bringing learners to automaticity (Dempster, 1991; Kameenui & Carnine, 1990). Reading educators need to provide emergent readers with multiple opportunities to practice and apply newly learned skills. Students are able to reach high rates of success when practicing pre-reading skills to a level of automaticity (Brophy,1982; Englert, 1984; Lewis, 1983). Frequency of practice is also important for beginning readers. A great number of trials are required before a beginning reader can complete a task fluently (Rosenshine, 1997). Additionally, reading behaviors need to be measured so progress can be monitored and lessons can be adjusted accordingly.

Unfortunately, sufficient opportunities for reading mastery is not present in classrooms. Parents can provide reading opportunities in the home. Families do want to help and be involved in their child's success. Even parents in low-income homes value books and learning to read (Karther, 2002; McClain, 2000). Low-income families especially want their children to receive a

good education even beyond what they have completed (Karther, 2002). Parents with low levels of education, however, do not always feel confident in playing an active role. A recent review of the literature on parent interventions for preschool students' language and emergent literacy showed the breadth of capabilities parents have as teachers of their children as parents are an "under tapped resource" (Reese, Sparks, & Leyva, 2010). It is well-documented parents reading to their children promotes later school success (Adams, 1990; Scarborough & Dobrich, 1994; Bus, van IJzendoorn, & Pellegrini, 2005). Yet, simply reading is not enough. Parents need planned effective lessons teaching essential pre-reading skills (Sénéchal, LeFevre, Thomas, & Daley, 1998). Ultimately, students need explicit teaching of phonics skills early in life. With support, parents are good resources to promote literacy instruction in the home.

Research on Explicit Parent Teaching of Early Reading Skills

The aforementioned section provided a framework for skills required in reading instruction and an effective way material should be presented to beginning readers. These skills have also been researched as implemented by parents at home setting. Previous research studies have investigated the implementation of explicit parent instruction for phonemic awareness skills (e.g., blending, segmenting) with alphabetic understanding (letter-sound correspondence). Across the studies reviewed phonemic awareness skills varied. Several investigators have examined the application of providing parents with different materials for opportunities ranging from repeated practice (e.g., flash cards, book reading, encouraged strategies) to lesson plans (e.g., computer program, formatted lessons). Investigations for the literature review were selected if parents taught any form of alphabetic understanding through effective instruction.

Studies on parent teaching of early reading skills have established improvements in the emergent literacy skills of young students (Justice & Ezell, 2000; Saint-Laurent, Giasson, &

Couture, 1998). Parents as supporters in intervention is considered to be an alternative to in-class or pull out interventions (Justice, Kaderavek, Bowles, & Grimm, 2005). Interventions taking place in the home are considered to be less time consuming and inexpensive.

Twelve studies were conducted from 1982 to 2009 in which investigators studied the effect of combining explicit parent instruction and phonemic awareness skills with their child. Developments in research support valuable guidance and insight into the arrangement of effective in-home parent teaching reading and phonological awareness skills. Yet, the improvements are only as valuable as knowing the measures of improvements students achieve with reading in multiple settings. Throughout the studies there have been various levels of support and materials for parent instruction, which applies directly to a need to investigate what type and level of questions parents ask when implementing effective reading instruction. Plus, getting a closer look at the level of parent instruction required for parents to be able to effectively implement these interventions. Treatment fidelity is another component with limited documentation recorded during parent teaching reading lessons (Erion, 2006). The 12 studies will be grouped and reviewed by independent variable.

Flashcards. Several of the studies used flash card activities to promote repeated practice in the homes. Parents were provided with flashcards for daily use. Students had opportunities to practice letter sounds and words used in the classroom. For example, one study (Vinograd-Bausell, Bausell, Proctor, & Chandler, 1986) compared two groups of parents: one group used structured activities and one group received no direction for how to teach reading at home. A randomized control trial was completed with 41 parents of their children in special education. Parents were either in an instructional group or a control group. Parents in the instructional group were given flash cards with one-syllable nouns at the first grade reading level. Parents

were also given one page of instructions summarizing the simple whole word teaching procedure frame of modeling, imitation, and word meaning prompts. The experimenter recommended for parents to use the provided flashcards, five times per week over a 2-week period. No additional parent instruction was provided. Parents in the control group were told materials would be coming in the mail. Students in the parent instructional group learned a n of 3 to 7 new words each week. The results were twice as many words learned in the instructional group as the students learned in the control group.

In a similar design another at-risk group, English language learners, were selected to implement an academic practice intervention of letter sounds (Lopez & Cole, 1999). Because the research team believed non-English speaking families were often eliminated from research studies due to the assumption parents were unable to fluently speak and teach the English language, they felt the need to measure second language learner parent's capabilities. Student criteria for participation was the ability of students who identified a minimum number of five letter sounds, yet identify less than 26 letters from a total of 52 upper- and lower- case letters. Parents had to be self-identified as Puerto Rican and a reported ability to recognize and name the letters of the alphabet in English or Spanish. Parents were instructed with a flash card folding technique (i.e., separating cards into piles of known and unknown words). Parents were shown how to present cards and ask letter names. The intervention was explained and modeled by the investigator then practiced by the parent. Parents were instructed to read the letter and use it in a word, if the student did not know the word. The investigator and the parent when through the entire procedure twice before the intervention began. Parents were asked to introduce the strategy four evenings a week presenting the cards five times in each session. Parents completed the intervention for 7 weeks. A multiple-baseline design across five kindergarten students was

used to measure number of known letters and letter-naming rate. At the end of the study two students knew all 52 letters, two students knew 50 letters, and one student knew 48 letters. Each student also significantly increased letter-naming rate.

Both studies had interventions that appeared to be easy for parents implement, and provided opportunities for students to have repeated practice of reading skills. Results proved providing parents with some materials is far better than providing parents with no materials for reading instruction to occur. The results of the Lopez and Cole (1999) showed parents coming from diverse backgrounds and with minimal instruction could teacher their children at-risk of reading difficulty.

Story Book Reading. Another example of practicing letter and sound skills in an everyday activity was by immersing letters and words in shared books. In several studies parents were given specific words and letters to teach each week within various books. The storybook interventions did require parents to receive instruction.

Wedel and Fowler (1984) targeted young students with language delays to implement an intervention on application of letter sounds and words in books. Four parent-child dyads participated in the multiple baseline study design. Parents were instructed to read a story to their child four evenings a week and to tape-record each reading. Tape recordings were used to analyze the amount of time spent on reading and number of trials the student answered correctly. Parents and the experimenter met once each week to receive two or three storybooks and to return tape-records from the week before. The first parent instruction the teacher reviewed the directions with the parents and modeled the reading tutoring procedure. The parent instructions sessions lasted for 15 min. Parents were also provided with lists of different words or letters to be taught each week. Books were preselected to assure there were sufficient examples of words

and letters. Parents were asked to stop at the end of each page and ask the child to identify the letter or word. When the child identified the word correctly parents were to repeat the word and confirm with praise. Each student was at 0 % accuracy for correct identification of letters and words during baseline, but shortly after parent teaching all students were able to reach 100% accuracy with words or letters parents presented in teaching.

In another phonics intervention through books experimenters worked with families having a history of a reading disability (Fielding-Barnsley & Purdie, 2003). A total of 49 students in kindergarten and their parents participated in a randomized control trial. Parents in the experimental group watched an instructional video in their home. Parent instruction consisted of modeling effective reading practices. Examples emphasized rhyme, rich vocabulary, alphabet knowledge, and alliteration. Parents also were given a pamphlet highlighting all content presented in the instructional video. At the end of parent instruction families received eight books that provided opportunities for implementing skills taught in instructional sessions. Parents were asked to read each of the eight books five times over the eight-week intervention. Students in the experimental group scored significantly higher in picture vocabulary, initial consonant, rhyme, and concepts about print. Students were tested at the end of the year and the experimental group maintained significant improvements on final consonants and concepts about print.

Similarly, 22 students with language impairment participated in a randomized control trial for Justice et al. (2005). Parents in the experimental group were given 10 storybooks and a reading schedule to follow for a 10-week period. Parents were then taught how to complete tasks at the end of each book. Tasks included finding rhyming words and finding beginning words that sounded similar to the other sounds. Parents in the control group were asked to read

the books as they normally would at home, and complete the tasks at the end of the storybook. Tasks in the control group were framed around questions to expand the student's vocabulary. Parent instruction with the experimenter occurred in homes every other week for 15 min for both groups. Parents practiced skills until they reached 100% accuracy. Experimenters encouraged parents to provide supports to allow students to achieve success. Examples included, modeling the correct response, providing wait time, and withdrawing support over time when students achieve success. Though both groups had some growth, there was very little difference between experimental and control groups with measurements of rhyme and alliteration. Although parents in the experimental group had instruction for the reading activity, the instruction had little impact on the difference in reading ability for students in the experimental group than students of the parents in the control group who did not receive instruction.

Each study framed parent instruction around book reading. In the two studies, during parent training, experimenters modeled skills for parents and measured parents' ability to apply teaching strategies with precision before parents were able to begin teaching their children independently (Fielding-Barnsley & Purdie, 2003; Justice et al., 2005). Instructional skills in the interventions required more teaching while helping students to decode, blend, and segment sounds. Parents in each of the studies had on-going contact with the experimenter during the study.

Reading Skills. Three of the reviewed studies were grouped together because parents were provided with structured lessons and scheduled times to teach each week. With more organized outlines for lessons, parents received longer instructional sessions than the previously described studies. Additionally skills taught were more directly associated with decoding and blending of letter sounds.

One study targeted parents of kindergarten students who were labeled at-risk for reading difficulty (Mehran & White, 1988). Parents in the experimental group were asked to complete instruction during the summer for two 4 h sessions and follow-up meetings twice a week during the summer and once a month during the school year. Parents were asked to implement the reading program with their child 15 min, three times a week, for 36 weeks in the new school year. The program provided procedures for teaching sounds and letters, basic sight words, and teaching strategies for blending sounds and decoding words. Parents were also asked to submit teaching logs every two weeks. During parent instruction, any parent who did not master teaching techniques was given additional help until achieving mastery criteria of 100%. Students in the control group were only used for comparison and no intervention was implemented for the control group. Students in the experimental group had statistically significant results in the Woodcock Johnson sub-tests for pre-reading skills. Students in the experimental group had a mean score of 19.58 in total reading cluster whereas students in the control group only had a mean score of 14.06. Students in the experimental group also outperformed students in the control group in a posttest months after instruction.

In the same year, another study was conducted over a shorter intervention time span, again highlighting the importance of instructing parents with effective strategies to help their children improve their reading ability (Wilks & Clarke, 1988). Participants consisted of 42 child-parent pairs who were randomly assigned to one of three groups: parent instruction, encouraged, and control. Parents in the instruction group met once a week for 4 weeks with an experimenter for ongoing parent instruction in learning good reading habits, book selection, and teaching procedures. Experimenters taught parents how to implement wait time and provide specific praise. Parents were then given an opportunity to practice and receive feedback from the

experimenter. After each lesson parents were given instructional notes and encouraged to implement strategies from the instructional session with their children at home. Mothers in the encouraged group met for 1 h in each of the first 2 weeks, and they were taught good reading habits and effective ways to select books. Mothers in the control group had no instruction. Pre and posttest reading accuracy scores (i.e., ability for student to read words without prompting or providing the words) were compared between the three groups before and after intervention within a five-month time span. Students in the control group improved 2.9 months of reading accuracy. Students in the encouraged group improved 6.6 months of reading accuracy. Students in the parent instruction group increased 9.2 months of reading accuracy.

More recently, van Otterloo, van der Leij, and Hendrichs (2009) examined parents with a reported diagnosis of dyslexia and their ability to teach their children to read. A randomized control trial was completed with 48 students and their parents, reporting an identification of dyslexia. The group of parents met at the beginning of the program. During the meeting materials were presented, program aims were discussed, and exercises were demonstrated. The experimenter urged parents to read directions before each lesson. Parents were also given opportunities to ask questions in the first 2 weeks of instruction. After four weeks experimenters held two additional meetings to provide additional material. Parents in the control group were given themed books each week along with reading comprehension questions, language exercises, and games which focused on morphology, syntax, and vocabulary. Students in the experimental group worked with a phoneme awareness and letter sound knowledge teaching program 10 min a day, 5 days a week for 10 weeks. Exercises included phoneme blending and sound identity of both initial and final sounds. Over time students in the experimental group made slightly more

progress in measures of fluency of word reading with a mean score of 21 as compared to the control group 17.

In the previous studies where parents learned specific reading skills, experimenters were able to measure students' ability to read. Because there were more skills for parents to learn in the reading interventions, experimenters provided support through teaching reading. In the Mehran and White (1988) study, experimenters worked with the parents to make sure they were able to reach mastery with all teaching skills before working with students. During one study parents had several opportunities to ask questions.

Computer Assisted Instruction. Only one study examined the effects of an in-home computer program, which was a structured program with parents and students. Though parents supported their children, parents did not present lessons on the computer. A total of 73 students completed the randomized control trial with a 14-week home and computer based instruction in phonemic awareness and letter-sound relationship (Regtvoort & van der Leij, 2007). Parents were asked to spend 10 min a day, 5 days a week for 14 weeks on computer instruction. Lessons covered areas of teaching strategies for letter identification, segmenting, blending, and decoding in word reading. All directions were provided for the parents on the top of the computer screen in a colored box. Students were required to respond with the mouse and parents answered with the keyboard. Introductory parent instruction was provided by the experimenter, and parents were expected to meet after six weeks of teaching to share experiences. Parents were also asked to keep a log to summarize teaching and then send in the summary each time 10 lessons were complete. The parent instruction group who were at-risk group succeeded to keep up with their peers not at risk of reading difficulties in the areas of phonemic awareness, letter knowledge, and naming speed. Students in the parent instruction program at-risk of reading difficulties were able

to identify more letters and sounds and decode more words than the students whose parents were not in instruction.

The study shows an example of how students can maintain improvements with peers not at-risk of reading difficulties. Another advantage of the program is students who are at-risk can receive additional support at home without the stigma of leaving the classroom for extra support (Drouin, 2009). With the in-home computer program, the experimenter could regulate lessons to assure treatment fidelity. Having a computerized format could assure students were not practicing errors. Additionally, because students were an at-risk population having computerized instruction would allow parents to be involved with teaching though they had dyslexia. The computer program not did require parent instruction. Experimenters also met with parents in the middle of the program to share experiences and parents did provide experimenters with a log.

Reading Program. Three studies implemented instructional designs where parents taught their children with explicit teaching of phonological awareness and alphabetic understanding skills. The programs all contained lessons for parents to implement each evening. Parent instructional sessions provided parents with skills for teaching reading to their children.

High rates (90%) of teaching behaviors were evident in an 11-week study for implementation of a sound and symbol blending program (Gang & Poche, 1982). Three mothers of three students, reading below their peers in third grade were instructed for 5 h on a scaffolding model to teach new reading skills. Instruction consisted of preparing healthy reading environments free of distractions. Experimenters also taught parents how to implement a reinforcement schedule for students learning new behaviors. Then parents also had to master letter sounds and blending skills. Lastly, the experimenter discussed design and sequence of lessons. Once teaching sessions began the experimenter observed the first four sessions to assure

parents were teaching at 90% criterion. The experimenter did not plan on intervening; simply re-teaching skills until the parent again reached a 90% criterion. However, re-teaching was not required for any of the parents. Mothers taught for 25 min four times a week. Teaching lasted for seven weeks over summer break. A multiple baseline design was used to measure four reading skills: blending sounds, accurate letter sounds, pick out letter combinations, and pronounce letter combinations. All three students were averaging 40% accuracy with each of the reading skills, but during instruction each student reached 100% accuracy with each skill. Additionally, a pre and posttest measuring improvement in grade level of word attack skills showed each student improved at least one year of reading ability with the intervention, three times the expected rate of students their age.

A parent instruction and parent teaching reading program was conducted with five first-grade students who were reading below grade level (Resetar et al., 2006). Parents were instructed to implement a teaching procedure including modeling, practice, phonics, fluency building, accuracy building, comprehension, and reinforcement components. Parent instruction lasted for 1 h. All steps of teaching procedures were modeled for parents. Instruction consisted of: model, correct, offer feedback, and reinforce during teaching session. An opportunity was given for parents to practice with the experimenter and ask any questions. Parents were then directed to implement a different reading lesson once every school day for 15 to 20 min for three weeks. Parents and the research team maintained communication throughout the intervention so parents could exchange data and ask questions. A multiple baseline across participants was used to assess the results. Students were tested on words read correctly per min. Four of the five students tripled words read per min on taught reading passages from baseline to intervention phase.

Another study compared a Direct Instruction model specifically designed for parents in a randomized control trial, with three other instructional reading programs to measure effects (Leach & Siddall, 1990). Parents of students from two first-grade classrooms were randomly assigned to receive brief instruction in 1 of 4 instructional methods to implement with their child at home. Teaching methods were "hearing reading", paired reading, pause, prompt, praise, and Direct Instruction. The Direct Instruction program was specifically designed to teach phonics with a reading program and graduated materials. The purpose of the study was to compare the Direct Instruction model with comparable curriculums, rather than just control groups as in other studies.

Parents of the "hearing reading" group received no formal instruction. Parents in the paired reading group spend 90 min in instruction. Parents were given a description of paired reading, demonstration, opportunity for role play, and a summary sheet of techniques to take home. Parents in the pause, prompt praise group were also in instruction for 90 min. Similarly, parents were given a description of pause, prompt, praise reading. Then the experimenter demonstrated procedures, gave an opportunity for role play, and provided a summary sheet of techniques to take home. Conversely, parents in the Direct Instruction group instructed twice as long, three 1 h sessions, totaling 3 h. They were assigned the program *Teach your Child to Read in 100 Easy Lessons*, (*TYCTR*; Engelmann, Haddox, & Bruner, 1983). Parent instruction consisted of introductions and demonstrations of the lessons. Experimenters had an emphasis on role play with correct letter pronunciation and blending, and error correction procedures. During the intervention the experimenter made one home visit and a telephone call to check treatment fidelity for each family in the study.

All parents were asked to implement the instructional program for 15 min, five nights a week. Instruction lasted for 10 weeks. At the end of the study students' progress in reading accuracy were measured for growth in reading accuracy. Students in "hearing reading" gained 4.1 months in reading accuracy. Students in the pause, prompt, praise group increased an average of 9.9 months in reading accuracy. Students receiving the paired reading intervention gained 12.6 months in reading accuracy. Lastly, students in the Direct Instruction group gained the most significant average of 16.8 months of reading accuracy.

Each study provided parents with the opportunities to teach their children key skills directly linked to increased reading ability. Each study required parents to spend a longer time in parent instruction to assure they could implement the skills. One study measured treatment fidelity for experimenters to check accuracy and completion of each lesson (Gang & Poche, 1982). Each parent was able to maintain 90% criterion throughout the study. Additionally, the other study showed an example of an experimenter maintaining communication throughout the duration of the study (Restar et al., 2006).

Summary

Researchers in each of the studies concur, parents are capable of providing effective instruction with a range of explicit teaching skills at home. Additionally, students significantly benefit from supplemental practice of reading skills. Though many studies have used direct instruction practices in the home only one study to date has used the Direct Instruction model in the home with all components of effective instruction. It would be beneficial to measure progress (words correct in sentence list sheets) with a multiple-probe multiple baseline design of at-risk readers while going through the parent-child teaching program. By measuring daily progress data and collecting recorded lessons there will be documentation to compare lesson

progress and number of words taught. Using this study design facilitates monitoring growth of each participant as they progress through the reading program. From a review of the literature there appears to be a need for research encompassing providing parents with support (Erion, 2006), as they use an explicit instruction approach to teach their child letter sounds.

Studies show students taught from parents who had instruction and modeling of an intervention have shown more significant positive effects over time as compared to students taught from parents who did not have instruction (Druin, 2009). Many of the studies reviewed (Fielding-Barnsley & Purdie, 2003; Gang & Poche, 1982; Justice et al., 2005; Leach & Siddall, 1990; Lopez & Cole, 1999; Mehran & White, 1988; Resetar et al., 2006; van Otterloo et al., 2009; Wedel & Fowler, 1984; Wilks & Clarke, 1988) required parent instruction before parents could teach in their homes. Study experimenters worked with parents to make sure parents were able to reach mastery with all teaching skills before beginning teaching in the home (Gang & Poche, 1982; Mehran & White, 1988). Many of the studies do not report ongoing measures during the study there to support the notion parents were capable of accurately teaching and practicing intervention skills with high treatment fidelity. No measure of treatment fidelity, poses a greater risk of parents practicing errors and inaccurate implementation while teaching in the home. Additionally there are many studies that do not measure how frequently parents worked with their children.

In several studies (Fielding-Barnsley & Purdie, 2003; Justice et al., 2005; Leach & Siddall, 1990; Mehran & White, 1988; Regtvoort & van der Leij, 2007; Resetar et al., 2006; Wedel & Fowler, 1984) parents were provided with on-going communication, which could help parents to effectively implement instruction. Despite regular contact with the experimenter, there is no detail of what categories of questions parents asked if they needed help. Furthermore,

there is no record of experimenter classification of assistance parents requested. With many positive components which significantly improved students reading ability, Still no recording of what level and type of questions parents ask when parents teach their children in beginning reading.

Based on the review of parents teaching reading, effective practices will be used to guide parents through *TYCTR*. The current study is also organized to answer the questions of the extant literature. Specifically the following experimental questions will be asked: (a) Will students increase correct words on sentence list sheets after receiving parent teaching reading through explicit instruction?; (b) What percentage of intervention fidelity, as measured by completion and accuracy can parents complete formatted lessons? (c) What categories of questions or comments do parents have once instruction is over and parents begin teaching reading?; (d) What classification of experimenter involvement is needed once instruction is over and parents begin teaching reading?

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Appendix B

Literacy Checklist for Teacher

____ Writes name with few recognizable letters.

____ Recognizes 1-13 alphabet letters.

____ Writes 1-5 recognizable letters.

____ Pretends to write during dramatic play.

____ Attempts to pretend read using memory and pointing at words for tracking.

____ Recognizes rhyming words.

____ Uses phonics to spell and decode.

____ Retells and reenacts stories without support.

____ Answers why questions about stories.

____ Able to speak in complete sentences.

____ Memorizes predictable patterns in stories.

Appendix C

Letters and Sounds Identified with DIBELS Pre-test

	Letter sounds	**Letter names**
Anthony	0	9
Joe	0	3
Gus	0	18

Appendix D

Anthony's Literacy checklist

____ Writes name with few recognizable letters.

____ Recognizes 1-13 alphabet letters.

____ Writes 1-5 recognizable letters.

__x__ Pretends to write during dramatic play.

__x__ Attempts to pretend read using memory and pointing at words for tracking.

____ Recognizes rhyming words.

____ Uses phonics to spell and decode.

__x__ Retells and reenacts stories without support.

____ Answers why questions about stories.

__x__ Able to speak in complete sentences.

____ Memorizes predictable patterns in stories.

X= Denotes student's ability to complete as measured by teacher.

Appendix E

Joe's Literacy checklist

____ Writes name with few recognizable letters.

____ Recognizes 1-13 alphabet letters.

____ Writes 1-5 recognizable letters.

__x__ Pretends to write during dramatic play.

__x__ Attempts to pretend read using memory and pointing at words for tracking.

____ Recognizes rhyming words.

____ Uses phonics to spell and decode.

__x__ Retells and reenacts stories without support.

____ Answers why questions about stories.

____ Able to speak in complete sentences.

____ Memorizes predictable patterns in stories.

X= Denotes student's ability to complete as measured by teacher.

Appendix F

Gus' Literacy checklist

__x__ Writes name with few recognizable letters.

__x__ Recognizes 1-13 alphabet letters.

____ Writes 1-5 recognizable letters.

____ Pretends to write during dramatic play.

____ Attempts to pretend read using memory and pointing at words for tracking.

____ Recognizes rhyming words.

____ Uses phonics to spell and decode.

_x___ Retells and reenacts stories without support.

_x__ Answers why questions about stories.

____ Able to speak in complete sentences.

__x__ Memorizes predictable patterns in stories.

X= Denotes student's ability to complete as measured by teacher.

Appendix G

Sentence List Sheet

Probe 1

tim is mad.

sam is full.

thē cod.

nēd adds a fēē.

tēll mē.

thē nut fēll.

that old rock.

run in to dad.

sit fat ram.

ma cut tom.

Appendix H

Itemized Lesson Checklist

Lesson 1

Task 1 Sounds introduction

_____ 1
_____ 2
_____ 3
_____ 4
_____ 5
_____ 6

Task 2 Say it fast
_____ 1
_____
_____ 2
_____
_____ 3
_____
_____ 4
_____
_____ 5
_____
_____ 6
_____
_____ 7
_____

Task 3 Say the sounds
_____ 1
_____ 2
_____
_____
_____
_____ 3
_____ 4
_____
_____ 5
_____
_____

Steps completed	Out of total
#1 _____/38	_____%
#2 _____/38	

Task 4 Sounds review
_____ 1
_____ 2

Task 5 Say it fast
_____ 1
_____
_____ 2
_____
_____

Appendix I

Categories of Questions/Comments from Parents Examples

Motivation/Scheduling	**Study related**
These questions relate to parents asking for opinionated tips. What should I do when my child will not participate? Can I skip a night my child is sick?	These questions pertain to the study. When do I send in materials (tapes)? Could I have a new checklist? What setting should letter sound game be on? When will we receive the gift cards? How is my child reading in school?
Literacy related	**Program related**
These questions are specific to reading or letter sounds. How do I teach my child to follow along with his or her finger? How do I work with my child to read slowly? Can we skip letter sounds my child already knows? Does it matter if my child is unable to pronounce the letter sound? How should we pronounce “the”?	These questions address topics specific to the reading program. I am not sure how to complete the rhyming section. Should I cover the picture if my child is relying on it to read? Does it matter if we skip the reading slow section? Can we do 2 lessons in a day? How many times should we repeat the sentences? How long should the review take?

APPENDIX J

Classification of Experimenter Involvement Examples

No Questions	**Answering identification questions**
Things appear to be going well No help needed at this time We were well prepared for this	These questions require a factual answer, or a yes or no answer. When do I send in materials (tapes)? Can I skip a night my child is sick? Could I have a new checklist? What is the setting should letter sound game? How long should the review take? How should we pronounce "the"? When will we receive the gift cards? How is my child reading at school?
Providing examples	**Modeling expectations**
These questions require more information from the experimenter in order to provide an appropriate answer. What should I do when my child will not participate? Should I cover the picture if my child is relying on it to read? Does it matter if we skip the reading slow section? Can we do 2 lessons in a day? Can we skip letter sounds my child already knows? Does it matter if my child is unable to pronounce the letter sound? How many times should we repeat the sentences?	These questions require the experimenter to meet with the parent to review material and provide additional modeling. How do I work with my child to read slowly? I am not sure how to complete the rhyming section. How do I teach my child to follow along with his or her finger?

Appendix K

Experimenter Script

Parent Instruction session 1

Experimenter: Thank you so much for participating in this study. I must let you know that I am reading from a script so that I am consistent with my directions to for each parent training. As you read, you will be explicitly teaching letter sounds to your child in the coming weeks.

First we will start with a brief introduction of the style of instruction you will be teaching, so we can take this time to eat dinner.

Some of the ideas I would like you to take note of:

* Consider yourself an actor, and you get to learn a script.
* Also the importance of this bond you will reach through doing this together each evening.

[watch video]

Did you have any questions with the introduction, or did anything catch your attention? It is also critical that you are able to dedicate 15-20 minutes for 5 days each week (at least 4 if necessary). Are you able to make this commitment? To compensate you for this each week you send me a tape with 5 lessons, you will get a $10 gift card.

Where would you like to receive a gift card from?_____ You can even select multiple locations. Would it be okay for me to send this home in an envelope with your son, or would you like me to send it in the mail _____

If something comes up and you have to miss a night, it would be helpful to take a night during the weekend to complete a lesson. However, I do understand if you have to miss a lesson on occasion. Just keep in mind, your child will achieve more favorable results if you are consistent with instruction. Plus, doing 5 lessons a week you will be finished with instruction in 6 weeks.

As a motivation for your son I would like to provide you with a prize box for cooperation each evening. What are some simple prizes that I could provide for you that XX would work for each evening? Some examples a sticker, silly bandz, pack of M&Ms _____

Please know that you will receive scripted lessons, so no planning is expected on your part. It will be like you and your child are the staring roles in a play. You can be comfortable knowing I will provide audio recordings of the letter sounds so that you can hear the sounds to be sure they are being pronounced correctly. There will be no expense to your family. We will also meet 1 more time to train on the instruction. We will practice together so you are comfortable with the lessons. I am here to support you in any way and will provide my contact information so that you can call with questions.

At this point do you have any questions [pause]

First I would like to do a brief training on using the audiocassette. [Follow procedures according to the script.]

Do you have any questions with the audiocassette? [pause]

I will ask you to record all lessons and mark the lesson numbers. This is so I will be able to go through and listen to you follow the steps through each lesson. In the beginning I will ask you to send me the lessons each day to make sure that the lessons are being followed. Because this is very important I will give you a gift card for the first 4 lessons. So for example, if you could do a tonight & Thursday night the weekend and send the tape in on you will get another $5.00 for each lesson. Then at the end of each week I will ask you to send the tape to school with XX time you complete 5 lessons, and again each time you send me 5 lessons you will get a $10.00 gift card of your choice. **[Show the chart]**

At this time I would ask that we complete a sample lesson. Because this is a unique style of instruction I want you to have an opportunity to be sure this is something you are comfortable doing. Please keep in mind I want you to do your best, and know that we will practice these skills in the following days until you are comfortable completing this independently.

[Complete task analysis to assure parent is able to complete 50% of the lesson]

Again I cannot thank you enough for your dedication as a parent. Please be aware that you can contact me at any time with questions regarding this study. I will begin collecting data on your child weekly in school. Your child's teacher and I have set up a non-instructional time that I can meet to measure his progress.

Parent Instruction Session 1 Script (cont)

Now I will begin teaching "Teach your Child to Read in 100 Easy Lessons." You will be expected to go over 30 lessons, you are more than welcome to compete the entire text.

Now I would like to go over the checklist for an effective reading lesson (blue sheet). Follow script.

Are there any questions with this part? It will be helpful for you to glance at this list before you begin each lesson.

Next, this is a recording of the letter sounds this will be a helpful tool to be sure that you and your child are accurately pronouncing the letter sounds. Before you start the lesson you can hear the sounds before you practice with your child. Turn the arm to the letter sound (marked with a pen) to review the sounds you will be covering in the lesson. At the end of the lesson you can select a game to play. **[Refer to pronunciation guide]**

Now we will begin the training video. This video is performed by Phyllis Haddox, who is one of the authors of the book we will be using. We will have opportunities to pause and practice the steps. I ask you to interact with the video so that you are comfortable with the style of instruction.

<u>Beginning Reading Skills</u>
Some of the pieces I would like you to pay close attention to:
* Describe these activities as playing games
* Notice the importance of saying sounds slowly (to hear each sound- you can use the pronunciation guide and sound recorder to help)
* How to provide specific praise

I ask when there is a purple dot on the screen that we complete the material aloud.

[View the video, pause as directed to allow for practice and feedback.]

Pause @ 13:50 [any questions]

<u>General Training Sounds</u>

Just as a preview:
* It is helpful to listen to the description of how to perform sounds
* Keep in mind you will only be expected to teach 15 sounds
[View the video, pause as directed to allow for practice and feedback.]

Stop @ 20:40 we will only cover the first 15 sounds

Review:
* remember the symbols for the quick sounds, and avoid adding any sounds
* Begin saying each sound for 5 sec. then, decrease to at least 3 secs. (this helps with blending)
*Be sure to use the toy to review the sound

Start @ 42 Here Phyllis will discuss specific praise, which is an important component to the program.

[Any questions]

Chapter 9

Preview:
* Pay close attention to the model: I do, we do, you do
* When you see the purple dot answer aloud
* In this section you will have opportunities to practice with me.

Review:
Specific examples "keep your motor running"

[STOP video 57:30]

Some key points from the end:
Get comfortable with the specific praise. Use the chart I've provided.
Stick to the script.
Always ask questions, I have provided my contact information. A large part of my study is looking at how can I use this strategy to support parents. So feel free to call, or write down questions you may have for when I call each week.

Any questions

Good days/times to call? #

At this time if you do not have any more questions I will ask you to complete this family survey. If you feel any question is too personal, please do not feel obligated to answer.

I look forward to our next training session.

Breakfast requests for Wednesday??

Parent Instruction Session 3 Script

Thank you for coming once again.

As a review I would like to go over how to record the lesson. You will be expected to all lessons. This is so I can listen to your lessons and be sure all steps are followed (orange). Again at the end of each week please send the tape to school with XXX. Quick review. Do you have any questions with the audiocassette?

Do you have any questions at this point? Even regarding the provious training?

Now let's review the steps for a successful reading lesson (blue). [Follow script]

So we have an opportunity to eat we will begin with the FAQ session (2:08)
[Watch video and pause as directed to practice and provide feedback.]

Did this bring up any questions you have thought of?

It is now time to practice Lesson 1. Be prepared to participate and follow through the steps of the lesson. 57:26

[Watch video and pause as directed to practice and provide feedback.]

When Phyllis talks about red words, ours are highlighted in yellow. Here is your personal binder. And we can go along.

Key points:
* Personalize your praise
* If you have any questions please ask at any time.

Here are the parts we will go over
1:04 Say it fast [notice student does not have to look at words- auditory practice]
1:14 Say the sound
1:19 How to correct (this box is available if your child makes an error, but if he does not- you don't have to use this box)

* Notice how they continue to give specific praise

1:27 Practice errors
CH 17 sound review
CH 18 say it fast

STOP 1:42-1:45 (we are not going to focus on the writing, so I am going to skip this part)

1:45 All of lesson 1

1:46 Lesson 3 Task 4 Sounds

1:47 Lesson 3 Task 5 Say the sounds

1:50 Lesson 5 Task 6

1:52 Lesson 5 task 7

1:59 Rhyming- model, lead, test

2:02 Lesson 5 Task 7

2:07 STOP

Now that we have finished the training are there any additional questions?

I will now distribute all training materials.

- Binder: 30 lessons, daily checklist for a successful lesson, guidelines for sounding out words, checklist for each lesson, and contact information for experimenter
- Audiocassette with tapes
- Audio recording of letter sounds (bruin)

Please remember send the first 4 lessons each morning with XXX (show chart). Then each time you complete lessons send the tape in with XXX and you will get your gift card. Of course for this week you will only have 2 lessons by Friday morning. I will be coming to pick up these tapes, to review for accuracy and completion, plus if you have questions I will be able to refer to the tapes. (Highlight so I know that I have recorded the lesson, take it once it's full). Also for the most promising results have 5 lessons within each week.

I look forward to talking with you soon, and I can't wait to see the progress you and your child

make in the path of learning to read!

Appendix L

Parents' Questions and Comments

	Question/ Comment	Category	Classification
Amy			
	Before I say the word Anthony knows it, show I still model the sound for him?	P	I
	No questions	M	N
	Things are going well	M	N
	Are you noticing differences with his school work?	L	I
	We plan on doing lessons over the weekend	M	N
	He has been reading his homework all by himself.	M	N
	Can we do 2 lessons in a day	P	I
	We have been a little behind.	M	N
	We will take advantage of the time during the holiday break	M	N
	Things are going well.	M	N
Gina			
	Could you check to make sure we are doing the correct a sound?	L	I
	I am very impressed no questions now.	M	N
	How are we doing pronouncing the sounds?	L	I
	We will take advantage of the time during the holiday break	M	N
	Do you have the tape, is it okay if we move on to a new tape?	S	I
	When should we be giving a tape?	S	I
	We have a lot going on right now.	M	N
	When do we have to be done with the lessons.	M	I
	Can we do 2 lessons in a day?	P	I
	My goal is to finish while we are on break.	M	N
Sam			
	No questions yet.	M	N
	Things are going well.	M	N
	I think we can do a lesson a night.	M	N
	Is it okay if we complete lessons over the break.	M	I
	I caught myself making errors on the "th" sounds	L	I
	We hope to be done before the holiday.	M	N

Note. M= Motivation/Scheduling, S= Study Related, P= Program Related, L= Literacy Related, I= Identification Questions, N= No Questions

Vita

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Education

2008- 2011	Doctoral Student in Special Education	The Pennsylvania State University
2004-2005	Masters of Inclusion in Special Education	Johns Hopkins University
2000-2003	Bachelor of Arts in Education	Saint Francis University
2000-2003	Bachelor of Arts in Special Education	Saint Francis University

Publications

Irvin, M. Farmer, T., Weiss, M., Meece, J., Byun, S., McConnell, B., & Petrin, R., (2011). Perceptions of school and aspirations of rural students with learning disabilities and their nondisabled peers. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice.*

McConnell, B. M. & Kubina, R. M., (submitted). Using parental interventions to improve student's school attendance: a review of the literature. *Preventing School Failure.*

McConnell, B. M. & Kubina, R. M., (submitted). Increasing Parent-Teacher Communication to Improve School Attendance for a Student with a Learning Disability: A Case Study. *Education & Treatment of Children*.

Professional Experience

2010-present	Course Instructor	The Pennsylvania State University
2008-present	Graduate Assistant	The Pennsylvania State University
2009-present	Pre-student Teaching Supervisor	The Pennsylvania State University
2004-2008	Special Education Teacher	Montgomery County Public School