Chapter – II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
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A literature review is a body of text that aims to review the critical points of current knowledge including substantive findings as well as theoretical and methodological contributions to a particular topic. A summary of the writings of recognized authorities and of previous research provides evidence that the researcher is familiar with what is already known and what is still unknown and untested. Since effective research is based upon past knowledge, this step helps to eliminate the duplication of what has been done and provides useful hypotheses and helpful suggestions for significant investigation. Citing studies that show substantial agreement and those that seem to present conflicting conclusions help to sharpen and define understanding of existing knowledge in the problem area, provide a background for the research project, and make the reader aware of the status of the issue.

Review of literature for the present study is classified under the following topics:

1. Importance of literary intervention in preschool years
   a. Preschoolers reading abilities
   b. Care giver training and preschoolers literary abilities
   c. Influence of Intervention on Language Development:
   d. Influence of Intervention on phonological awareness
   e. Influence of Intervention on print knowledge
   f. Influence of Intervention on vocabulary development
   g. Influence of intervention on Literary and reading Skills Development
2. **Parental involvement in their children’s literary development**
   a. Parental involvement in shared reading and language development  
   b. Parental involvement in shared reading and phonological development 
   c. Parental involvement in shared reading and vocabulary development 
   d. Parental involvement in shared reading and literacy development 

3. **Home literary environment**
   a. Influence of home literary environment and Language development 
   b. Influence of home literary environment and Print awareness 
   c. Influence of home literary environment and Vocabulary development 
   d. Influence of home literary environment and Reading awareness 

1. **Importance of literary intervention in preschool years**

The path to literary development begins long before children begin formal reading instruction, and experiences occurring in the home influence the later course of children's reading success. Thus, parents play an important role in helping children acquire the pre-literary skills that lay the foundation for subsequent literary acquisition. There are a number of ways that parents can help children acquire relevant pre-literary skills. These parent-child activities include helping
children acquire phonological awareness and print knowledge, fostering vocabulary growth, reading to children (both standard story-reading as well as dialogic reading of picture books), and helping children develop narrative skills through frequent talk about past events in the children's lives.

The most important activity the parents can encourage children at home is reading. Children who are exposed to more books not only have better vocabulary, but they become better readers, particularly in later elementary school (Bus, van Ijzendoorn, Pellegrini, 1995; Sénéchal, 2006; Sénéchal & LeFevre, 2002).

The National Education Goals Panel (1994) found early, regular reading to be one of the most important activities parents can do with their children to prepare for school. Children who start out slowly in literacy skills fail to catch up and this early failure continues throughout adult years. So it is very important to expose children to early language and literacy skills. Hart and Risley (1995), stress the importance of early literacy intervention, especially for those children living in low socioeconomic status who are at great risk for failure in school.

a. Preschoolers reading abilities

Mol and Bus (2011), examined whether the association between print exposure and components of reading grows stronger across development. They meta-analyzed 99 studies (N = 7,669) that focused on leisure time reading of (a) preschoolers and kindergartners, (b) children attending Grades 1-12, and (c) college and university
students. For all measures in the outcome domains of reading comprehension and technical reading and spelling, moderate to strong correlations with print exposure were found. The outcomes support an upward spiral of causality: Children who are more proficient in comprehension and technical reading and spelling skills read more; because of more print exposure, their comprehension and technical reading and spelling skills improved more with each year of education. For example, in preschool and kindergarten print exposure explained 12% of the variance in oral language skills, in primary school 13%, in middle school 19%, in high school 30%, and in college and university 34%. Moderate associations of print exposure with academic achievement indicate that frequent readers are more successful students. Interestingly, poor readers also appear to benefit from independent leisure time reading. They conclude that shared book reading to pre-conventional readers may be part of a continuum of out-of-school reading experiences that facilitate children's language, reading, and spelling achievement throughout their development.

Shamir, Segal-Drori, Korat & Klein (2010) investigated the effects of electronic book (e-book) and printed book reading on children's emergent reading with and without adult instructions. One hundred twenty-eight 5- to 6-year-old kindergarten children from low SES families were randomly assigned to one of four groups (32 children each): (1) independently reading the e-book (EB); (2) reading the e-book with adult instruction (EBI); (3) reading the printed book with adult instruction (PBI); and (4) receiving the regular kindergarten
program (control). The three intervention groups included four book-reading sessions each. Pre- and post-intervention emergent reading measures included concept about print (CAP), word reading, and phonological awareness. The results showed that the EBI group achieved greater progress in word reading and CAP than all other groups. The EBI group also achieved greater progress in phonological awareness than the EB and the control groups.

Bracken & Fischel (2008), investigated the family reading behavior of 233 preschool children from low-income backgrounds who were attending Head Start. Parents completed a survey of their family reading behavior, including Child Reading, Parent Reading Interest, and Parent-Child Reading Interaction, and provided demographic data on their educational level, parent and child age, and family size. Children's receptive vocabulary, story and print concepts, letter knowledge, and general emergent literacy skills were assessed in the fall of their preschool year. Analyses focused on the variation in family reading behavior, the relationship between different dimensions of family reading behavior, and the contribution of family reading behavior to early literacy skills. Results indicated that Parent-Child Reading Interaction and Child Reading Interest were significantly related to children's early literacy skills. In addition, multiple regression analyses indicated that Parent-Child Reading Interaction was a small yet significant predictor of children's receptive vocabulary, story and print concepts, and general emergent literacy skills, above and beyond the influence of demographic variables.
Child Reading Interest was a significant, albeit small, predictor of letter knowledge above and beyond these demographic controls.

**Aram (2006)** examined the differential contributions on vocabulary and alphabetic skills of three literacy programs: (a) storybook reading program; (b) alphabetic skills program; and (c) a combined program. It was expected that storybook reading would enhance primarily vocabulary while alphabetic skills training would promote primarily alphabetic skills. Program by age interactions were examined in two age groups (3-4 and 4-5 years old) to test whether the storybook reading program may be more productive for the younger children whereas alphabetic skills program more productive for the older children. Twelve low-SES preschools participated in the study, three in each program and three as a comparison group. Results indicated that the children in the three intervention programs progressed significantly more than the comparison group on "name writing, letter knowledge and phonological awareness". Further, the alphabetic skills program outperformed the other groups on "word writing, letter knowledge and initial letter retrieval", whereas the storybook reading program outperformed the comparison group.

**Bergin (2001)**, addressed the affective quality of the parent-child relationship during shared book reading with kindergarten and first-grade children. Research has emphasized the frequency, rather than quality, of parent-child reading with beginning readers. However, frequent shared reading may not be beneficial if parents are hostile and critical as their child struggles to read. Thirty-two parent-child dyads were videotaped reading to each other. Interaction was coded
for several affective dimensions: praise, hostility, criticism, support, positive affect, emotional spontaneity, physical proximity, and affection. MANOVA analyses indicated that there was a significant difference in the affective quality of the parent-child relationship related to both the child's attitude toward reading and the child's reading fluency. Dyads who were affectionate during shared reading had children who were less frustrated with and more engaged in reading and who read more words per minute earlier, than less affectionate dyads. Educators may need to help parents make joint reading a pleasurable experience rather than just encouraging them to engage in more frequent joint book reading.

**Hargrave and Senechal (2000)**, examined the effects of storybook reading on the acquisition of vocabulary of 36 preschool children who had poor expressive vocabulary skills, averaging 13 months behind chronological age. The authors tested whether the beneficial effects of storybook reading would be greater when children were active participants as compared to children who participated in a regular shared book-reading situation. Book reading occurred in groups of eight children, and all children were exposed to the same books, read twice. The results of this study revealed that children with limited vocabularies learned new vocabulary from shared book-reading episodes. Children in the dialogic-reading condition made significantly larger gains in vocabulary introduced in the books, as well as gains on a standardized expressive vocabulary test, than did the children in a regular book-reading situation.
b. Care giver training and preschoolers literary abilities

Graham, McNamara & VanLankveld (2011), stated that emergent literacy programs for young children are significantly more effective when caregivers are integral components of program delivery. This is particularly important when designing programs for vulnerable children such as those with lower academic achievement due to learning and language disabilities, lower socioeconomic environments, or learning in a language other than their native language. Including caregivers in program delivery will impact not only the effectiveness of the program but also its stability. This exploratory study investigated the efficacy and stability of a summer family literacy program on the reading achievement of 14, four-year-old children completing their pre-kindergarten year. Children were assessed prior to, immediately proceeding, and 6 months following the summer program. The results of the study indicated that children demonstrated significant gains in all aspects of emergent literacy and furthermore, sustained these gains 6 months after the program.

La Cour (2010) examined if, by providing caregivers with a workshop regarding effective storybook reading coupled with the receipt of storybooks, Pre-Kindergarten students' emergent literacy development would significantly increase. Pre-Kindergarten children attending two Head Start centers in the Southeastern U.S. participated in the study. Twelve Pre-Kindergarten children comprised the experimental group while ten Pre-Kindergarten children were subjects of the control group. The BRIGANCE CIBS-R Readiness for Reading assessment was used to determine the emergent literacy development
of the subjects. The ANCOVA statistical method indicated no significant gain between the experimental group and the control group. A paired samples t-test revealed a significant gain in emergent literacy development for both the experimental group and the control group. On a survey regarding reading interest, caregivers indicated an improvement in student attitude and interest in reading following the workshop. Therefore, this study found that a caregiver workshop on storybook reading may lead to a possible positive influence on student attitude and interest in reading while indicating no significant difference in emergent literacy development for the students whose caregivers attended the workshop.

**Boyce & Innocenti (2010)**, studied 75 Spanish-speaking preschoolers (M age = 41.43 months, SD = 10.78 months; 30 girls) attending a Migrant Head Start program who were randomly assigned to receive the Story telling for the Home Enrichment of Language and Literacy Skills (SHELLS) in addition to their Head Start services (n = 32) or to continue to receive their typical Head Start services (n = 43). Mothers' language-supporting behavior and home language and literacy environment as well as children's total number of words and total number of different words used during a shared narrative were assessed before and after the intervention. Mothers in the SHELLS group, compared with mothers in the comparison group, were significantly more likely to increase their use of language elicitation strategies and the quality of their home language and literacy environment. Children in the SHELLS group, compared with children in the comparison group, were significantly more likely to increase
the number of total words and different words in the shared narratives from pretest to posttest. These results suggest that this culturally sensitive, strengths-based family intervention can be successful in supporting children's language and literacy with families who face multiple challenges related to poverty, language, and migration.

Zhang (2010), examined promising effects of a bilingual family literacy program: to track the changes of families' literacy activities through a bilingual family literacy intervention, and to examine the children literacy gains in both Chinese and English across socioeconomic sub-groups. The intervention was an eight-week, two hours per week, literacy program in three Chinese communities in Toronto. Parents, with their children, participated in the program. The extremely high attendance rate provided evidence that families enjoyed the family literacy intervention and felt that the sessions were worthwhile. For their families' literacy activities, the three sites followed the same trend: reaching the peak of activity at week four, slightly dropping down at weeks five and six, and then increasing to a second peak at week seven or week eight. Results also showed that across the three groups, children of mothers with lower education levels made fewer gains in their English expressive vocabularies and their Chinese expressive vocabularies, than children whose mothers had a higher level of education.

Senechal & Young (2008), focused on intervention studies that tested whether parent-child reading activities would enhance children's reading acquisition. The combined results for the 16 intervention studies, representing 1,340 families, were clear: Parent involvement
has a positive effect on children’s reading acquisition. Further analyses revealed that interventions in which parents tutored their children using specific literacy activities produced larger effects than those in which parents listened to their children read books. The three studies in which parents read to their children did not result in significant reading gains. When deciding which type of intervention to implement, educators will have to weigh a variety of factors such as the differences in effectiveness across the different types of intervention, the amount of resources needed to implement the interventions, and the reading level of the children.

**Bevan, et al., (2001),** studied a program for improving home-school relationships concerning literacy development. The targeted population consists of parents and students from one first- and one second-grade classroom in an elementary school in a small mid-western city. Parent and student interaction and feelings about reading were measured by weekly reading logs and parent and student attitude surveys. Analysis of a probable cause data revealed that parents reported a low level of understanding of current strategies for assisting their children at home. Review of the home-school relationship also revealed insufficient home-school communication and a lack of understanding of the amount of at-home reading required for the enhancement of early literacy. A review of solution strategies suggested by knowledgeable others, combined with an analysis of the problem setting, resulted in the selection of interventions: a series of parent workshops for the two targeted classrooms; weekly reading logs; and parent communication newsletters related to home-school
partnerships. Post-intervention data indicated an increase in at-home reading, an improvement in school/home communication, and an increase in parent knowledge of at-home reading strategies. There was also an improvement in parent and student attitudes toward reading and an increase in parental involvement with students' literacy experiences.

Justice and Ezell (2000), examined the efficacy of a home-based book reading intervention program for enhancing parents' use of print-referencing behaviors and for stimulating children's early literacy skills in the areas of print and word awareness. Participants included 28 parents and their typically developing 4-year-old children. Each dyad was assigned to a control or experimental group, using a pretest-posttest control group research design. Pretest measures of parents' book-reading behaviors and children's early literacy skills were collected. Each dyad then completed a home-based shared reading program, in which they read two books each week over a 4-week period. Parents in the experimental group were instructed to use nonverbal and verbal print-referencing behaviors in their reading sessions. Control group parents did not receive this instruction. Posttest measures found that parents in the experimental group showed a significant increase in their use of verbal and nonverbal references to print. Results also indicated that parental use of these print-referencing behaviors significantly enhanced their children's early literacy skills in several areas of print and word awareness. Clinical implications of this intervention are discussed.
Jordan, Snow & Porche (2000), conducted a year-long intervention project with 248 kindergarten students, composed of 71 students in a control group and 177 students whose parents participated in an experimental program that included parent education sessions, at-school parent/child activities, and at-home book-mediated activities. The intervention, Early Access to Success in Education (Project EASE), was designed to increase the frequency and quality of language interactions through book-centered activities and to give parents information about and opportunities for engagement in their children's developing literacy abilities. Parents received information about ways to strengthen vocabulary, extend narrative understanding, develop letter recognition and sound awareness, produce narrative retellings, and understand exposition. Measures of home literacy support were collected from parents and a battery of language and literacy tests were administered to intervention and comparison children prior to the intervention and at its conclusion. Children whose families engaged in the at school and at-home activities made significantly greater gains in language scores as measured on subtests of vocabulary, story comprehension, and sequencing in storytelling than comparison children. The greatest gains were found in those low-achieving students who started out with low language skills at pretest and strong home literacy support. Parents in general showed high levels of participation in the prescribed activities, and they reported high levels of satisfaction.
c. Influence of Intervention on Language Development

Dockrell, Stuart and King (2010), report the development of a theoretically motivated oral language intervention, "Talking Time," designed to meet the needs of preschool children with poor language skills in typical preschool provision. One hundred and forty-two 4-year-old children attending three inner city preschools in a disadvantaged area of London, England were identified for the quasi-experimental intervention study comparing children exposed to "Talking Time" with children exposed to a contrast intervention and children receiving the statutory early year’s curriculum. Measures were taken of both targeted and non-targeted language and cognitive skills. Results obtained indicated that the intervention had a significant effect on vocabulary, oral comprehension, and sentence repetition but not narrative skills. As predicted, there were no effects on the skills which were not targeted. The study concluded that regular evidence-based oral language interactions can make significant improvements in children’s oral language.

Bowyer-Crane, Snowling & Duff et al., (2008), compared the efficacy of two school-based intervention programs (Phonology with Reading (P + R) and Oral Language (OL) ) for children with poor oral language at school entry. Following screening of 960 children, 152 children (mean age 4.09) were selected from 19 schools on the basis of poor vocabulary and verbal reasoning skills and randomly allocated to either the P + R program or the OL program. Both groups of children received 20 weeks of daily intervention alternating between small group and individual sessions, delivered by trained teaching
assistants. Children in the P + R group received training in letter-sound knowledge, phonological awareness and book level reading skills. Children in the OL group received instruction in vocabulary, comprehension, inference generation and narrative skills. The children's progress was monitored at four time points: pre-, mid- and post-intervention, and after a 5-month delay, using measures of literacy, language and phonological awareness. Results: The data are clustered (children within schools) and robust confidence intervals are reported. At the end of the 20-week intervention program, children in the P + R group showed an advantage over the OL group on literacy and phonological measures, while children in the OL group showed an advantage over the P + R group on measures of vocabulary and grammatical skills. These gains were maintained over a 5-month period. The study concluded that the Intervention programs designed to develop oral language skills can be delivered successfully by trained teaching assistants to children at school entry. Training using P + R fostered decoding ability whereas the OL program improved vocabulary and grammatical skills that are foundations for reading comprehension. However, at the end of the intervention, more than 50% of at-risk children remain in need of literacy support.

**Wasik, Bond and Hindman (2006),** implemented a language and literacy intervention in 10 Head Start classrooms. Teachers were trained in specific book reading and conversation strategies. The focus of the intervention was to train teachers on how to increase opportunities for language and vocabulary development in young children. At the end of the year, children in the intervention
classrooms performed significantly better than children in the control classrooms on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-III and the Expressive One-Word Vocabulary Test (3rd ed.). In addition, teachers in the intervention classrooms used strategies that promoted language development during book reading and other classroom activities. Head Start teachers can be trained to implement strategies that have positive effects on children's language and literacy development.

**Isbell, Sobol, Lindauer & Lowrance (2004)**, determined how storytelling and story reading influence the language development and story comprehension of young children from 3 to 5 years of age. During the study, two groups of children heard the same 24 stories. Group A heard the stories told and Group B heard the stories read from a book. The language pre- and post-samples were elicited from the participants by retelling a story they had heard and creating a story using a wordless picture book. The language samples were transcribed and analyzed using measures of language complexity and story comprehension. Both storytelling and story reading were found to produce positive gains in oral language. Differences between the two groups indicated that young children who heard the stories told demonstrated improved story comprehension in their retelling, while children in the story reading group improved their language complexity.
d. Influence of intervention on Phonological Awareness

Walter (2010), carried out a quantitative study (a) to determine whether measures of phonemic awareness are predictive of end of kindergarten early reading skills for English Language Learners (ELLs), and (b) to determine whether an English language arts intervention focusing on phonemic awareness has an effect on the early reading skills of English Learners. Twenty ELL kindergarten students were selected as participants for the study based on convenience sampling and at risk Dynamic Indicators of Basic Early Literacy Skills winter benchmark scores. Certificated teachers implemented the literacy intervention, and students received twenty minutes of small group supplemental instruction four days per week for ten-weeks. Participants made moderate to substantial progress on early literacy skills benchmarks and classroom benchmarks as a result of the intervention. A significant percentage of students who participated in the intervention program met both early literacy skills spring reading benchmarks, and district end of the school year reading benchmarks. Repeat measure t-tests on DIBELS assessments showed a statistically significant mean score increase between winter and spring for phoneme segmentation fluency. Study data supports the conclusion that measures of phonemic awareness are predictive of end of kindergarten early reading skills for English Language Learners, and that an English language arts intervention focusing on phonemic awareness has a positive effect on the early reading skills of English Language Learners.
Aram & Biron (2004), compared two interventions: one focusing on language and storybook reading and the other on alphabetic skills and writing. Seventy-one preschoolers aged 3–5 from a low SES township in central Israel (35 in the reading program and 36 in the writing program) participated in evaluation of the interventions. Twenty-four untreated preschoolers served as a control group. The children were tested twice, at the beginning and at the end of the school year, in: phonological awareness, word writing, letter knowledge, orthographic awareness, listening comprehension, receptive vocabulary, and general knowledge. Both programs involved games and creative activities. The writing program encouraged letter knowledge, phonological awareness, and functional writing activities. The reading program utilized 11 children's books for focusing on language and exploring major concepts raised by these books. Results indicated that children in the two literacy programs progressed significantly more than the control group on phonological awareness and orthographic awareness. However, the joint writing group significantly outperformed both the joint reading group and the control group on phonological awareness, word writing, orthographic awareness, and letter knowledge. They also found that children as young as 3–4 years gained from literacy programs as much as did older children, aged 4–5, on all the measures assessed in the program.
e. Influence of intervention on Print Knowledge

Justice (2008), investigated to seek answer to the question “how much do preschool children look at print within storybooks when adult read to them” as well as to examine the effects of adult verbal and nonverbal references to print on children's visual attention to print during storybook reading. Forty-four preschool-aged children participated in this study designed to determine the amount of visual attention children paid to print in 4 planned variations of storybook reading. Children's visual attention to print was examined when adults commented and questioned about print (verbal print condition) or pointed to and tracked the print (nonverbal print condition), relative to 2 comparison conditions (verbatim reading and verbal picture conditions). Results showed that children rarely look at print, with about 5%-6% of their fixations allocated to print in verbatim and verbal picture reading conditions. However, preschoolers' visual attention to print increases significantly when adults verbally and nonverbally reference print; both reading styles exerted similar effects. The authors conclude that explicit referencing of print is one way to increase young children's contacts with print during shared storybook reading.

Levy, Gong et al., (2006), explored the development of children’s early understanding of visual and orthographic aspects of print and how this is related to early reading acquisition. A total of 474 children, ages 48 to 83 months, completed standardized measures of phonological awareness and early reading skills. They also completed experimental tasks that tapped their understanding of what constitutes
“readable” print. The parents of participants completed a questionnaire regarding their children’s home literacy experiences. The data showed systematic development in children’s understanding of print conventions and English orthography and spelling. Regression analyses indicated that print knowledge was related to early reading skill, even after accounting for variance due to age and phonological awareness. Furthermore, parents’ ratings of the extent of their children’s involvement in activities that led to practice in reading and writing most consistently predicted the development of emerging literacy skills, including understanding of the conventions of the English writing system. Little relation between print knowledge and the frequency of story book reading by adults was observed.

Justice and Ezell (2002), evaluated the impact of participation in book-reading sessions with a print focus on print awareness in preschool children from low- income households. A book-reading intervention was conducted for 30 children enrolled in Head Start. Children were matched on chronological age and then randomly placed into an experimental or control group. Pretest measures of children's print awareness were administered. Subsequently, children in both groups participated in 24 small-group reading sessions over an 8-week period. Children in the experimental group participated in shared reading sessions that included a print focus. As an alternate condition, control-group children participated in shared reading sessions with a picture focus. Post-testing indicated that children who participated in print- focus reading sessions outperformed their control- group peers on three measures of print awareness (Words in
Print, Print Recognition, and Alphabet Knowledge) and in terms of overall performance.

f. Influence of intervention on Vocabulary development

Justice and Meier (2005), examined the influence of small-group storybook reading sessions on the acquisition of vocabulary words for at-risk kindergartners, and the impact of word elaboration on learning. An additional goal was to study differential responses to treatment for children with high versus low vocabulary skill. Using a pretest-posttest comparison group research design, 57 kindergartners were randomly assigned to a treatment (n=29) or comparison (n=28) group. Children were also differentiated into high (n=31) versus low (n=26) vocabulary skill groups using scores on a standardized receptive vocabulary test. Children in the treatment group completed 20 small-group storybook reading sessions during which they were exposed to 60 novel words randomly assigned to non-elaborated and elaborated conditions. Pre- and posttest examined the quality of children's definitions for the 60 novel words. Results obtained revealed that the overall, word-learning gains were modest. Children in the treatment group made significantly greater gains in elaborated words relative to children in the comparison group; no influence of storybook reading exposure was seen for non-elaborated words. Children with low vocabulary scores made the greatest gains on elaborated words. Suggestions are offered for using storybooks as a clinical tool for fostering vocabulary development.
g. Influence of Intervention on Literary and Reading Skills Development

Hindin and Paratone (2007), examined the effectiveness of a home repeated-reading intervention on the reading achievement of eight low-performing second-grade children in an urban school by taking into consideration their need to develop automaticity and the role their parents play in this process. A multiple-baseline across-subjects design and a pre-post design were used to assess the effectiveness of the intervention. Results indicated that all participants made substantially fewer reading errors during the intervention as compared to their performance on baseline stories. All participants demonstrated decreased error rates from the first to the last reading of stories, and significant fluency gains were evident in all cases when comparing mean baseline fluency with mean intervention fluency. All participants made considerable gains in fluency from the first to the last reading of each story, and all children improved on an independent reading measure. All participants read more than 10,000 words during the home intervention. Parents monitored their children's home reading. Four parents provided substantial word-level support, and the children who received this support made fewer repeated reading error.

Dieterich, Assel, et al., (2006), examined, via structural equation modeling, early predictors of children's 8 year reading, decoding and 10 year comprehension at later school age. Maternal verbal scaffolding indirectly influenced both decoding and comprehension, through its support of children's language abilities at 3 and 4 years of
age. Additionally, there was a trend for a direct effect of 4 year child language on reading comprehension at 10 years. As maternal verbal scaffolding was assessed during every day routines, this suggests that rich language input in the broad social context of the home promotes language and, in turn, later reading skills. Given that maternal verbal scaffolding can be enhanced through interventions, these results have important educational implications.

**Poe and Burchinal (2004),** said that there is considerable agreement that vocabulary plays a central role in reading acquisition, but there is less agreement about whether this association is direct or indirect through phonological and print-related knowledge. Longitudinal data from 77 African-American children were analyzed to examine the relationship between language skills, phonological knowledge and print processing skills at pre-kindergarten and kindergarten with reading at pre-kindergarten through second grade. Analyses indicated that home and child care experiences were related to reading indirectly through language and that language and phonological knowledge were both directly related to acquisition of reading skill. This study of African-American children and previous studies of lower- and middle-income children indicate both language and phonological skills play an important role in children becoming successful readers, and that experiences at home and in child care during early childhood play a role in the acquisition of reading through their enhancement of early language and phonological skills.
Conclusion

Literary development starts long before a child enters school and literary and reading foundation is what helps a child to succeed in formal schooling. It is important to recognize that some of the children do enter school equipped with the fundamental literary skills to actively participate in the learning process and ultimately be successful. However, it is known that not all parents understand how important it is to begin developing the skills of children from an early age to ensure that they will be ready to learn when they enter kindergarten.

Parents should be educated to stimulate verbal interaction, to enrich children’s vocabulary, encouraged to talk about books, to provide practice with the sound structure of words, to develop knowledge about print, including the production and recognition of letters, to generate familiarity with the basic purpose and mechanisms of reading. Research shows that children who start out slowly in literary skills often fail to catch up and this early failure continues throughout childhood and into the primary grades. So it is important that the educators train parents with literary techniques and strategies to promote literary rich environment at home.
2. Parental Involvement in their Children’s Literary Development

Parents play an important role in the early childhood care and education (Lueng & Lau, 1992). Parent involvement is linked to children’s total learning. The greater parent involvement in children’s learning positively affects the school performance including higher academic achievement (Yan & Lin, 2002).

There is increasing evidence that parental beliefs and attitudes about reading and the opportunities parents provide their children in reading can greatly influence children's reading and literary skills. Parents provide practice in the foundational skills and development that young children need when they begin formal reading instruction in school. Parents can promote their children’s literary learning in many ways. They can involve them in different activities that increase their child's awareness of language and print. Talking with parents is a child's best opportunity for learning new words and ideas. How parents read aloud to their children can significantly affect children's learning experiences and opportunities in literary skills. When parents combine reading out loud with asking and responding to questions they increase learning and comprehension. When parents are taught to use reading techniques and to become more responsive when reading and "dialogic" (dialoguing back and forth about the content) during shared reading, gains in their children's reading skills have been noted.
a. Influence of parental involvement in Shared reading

Saracho and Spodek (2010), said that family literacy studies have shown that the role of parental storybook reading has an impact on children's success in school-based literacy instruction. Storybook reading is when adults read an appropriate text to their children. This review describes studies in which parents and children engage in storybook reading. It specifically reports studies that discuss how parents (1) present formal and informal storybook literacy experiences, (2) engage children in storybook reading, (3) interact with their children during storybook reading, (4) participate in storybook intervention program and (5) relate storybook reading to children's literacy experiences. The results of these studies indicate that storybook reading promotes children's language growth, emergent literacy and reading achievement. Thus, family literacy studies have shown that parental storybook reading has an impact on the children's success in school-based literacy instruction.

b. Parental Involvement in Shared reading and Language development

Reese, Leyva et al., (2010), compared the unique effects of training low-income mothers in dialogic reading versus elaborative reminiscing on children's oral language and emergent literacy. Thirty-three low-income parents of 4-year-old children attending Head Start were randomly assigned to dialogic reading, elaborative reminiscing, or a control condition. Parents in the intervention conditions were trained to implement specific and prescribed conversational
techniques. Children's vocabulary, narrative, and print skills were assessed at the beginning (pre-test) and at the end (post-test) of the school year. Elaborative reminiscing boosted the quality of children's narratives in comparison to dialogic reading. Elaborative reminiscing was also effective in supporting children's story comprehension. These training effects were present regardless of the children's ethnic background and whether they were bilingual. The study concluded that training parents in elaborative reminiscing is a promising alternative to training in shared book reading for enhancing children's narrative development in non-mainstream populations. Parent training programs in elaborative reminiscing may also complement dialogic reading programs that take place in preschool classrooms.

Chow & Chang (2010), investigated the effects of dialogic parent–child reading in English on 51 Hong Kong kindergarteners learning English as a second language. Children were pre-tested on nonverbal IQ, reading interest and receptive vocabulary, word reading and phonological awareness in both Chinese and English. They were then assigned randomly to one of three conditions involving different levels of parent–child interactions: dialogic reading (DR), typical reading (TR) or control. Though inter-group comparisons showed non-significant interaction effects across time among the three groups, intra-group gains across the 12-week intervention suggested that parent–child reading could enhance English word reading skills, while dialogic reading could promote phonological awareness in both Chinese and English. These results highlight the potential benefits of English parent–child reading and dialogic reading on children learning
English as a second language, and the possibility of linguistic transfer from parent–child reading in English as a second language to Chinese as a first language.

**Kalia (2007)**, examined the role of Indian bilingual parents' book reading practices on the development of the children's oral language, narrative and literacy skills in English, their second language. About 24 bilingual children from two preschools in Bangalore, India were tested in schools in English on receptive vocabulary, complex syntax, narrative expression, phonological awareness, and concepts about print. The findings suggest that exposure to book reading in English is associated with bilingual children's oral language, narrative and literacy development in their second language

**Wasik, Bond & Hindman (2001)**, studied effects of a book reading technique called interactive book reading on the language and literacy development of 4-year-olds from low-income families. Teachers read books to children and reinforced the vocabulary in the books by presenting concrete objects that represented the words and by providing children with multiple opportunities to use the book-related words. The teachers also were trained to ask open-ended questions and to engage children in conversations about the book and activities. This provided children with opportunities to use language and learn vocabulary in a meaningful context. Children who were in the interactive book reading intervention group scored significantly better than children in the comparison group on Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-III and other measures of receptive and expressive language.
Book reading and related activities can promote the development of language and literacy skills in young children.

c. Parental involvement in Shared reading and Phonological development

Huennekens & Ellen (2010), examined the effects of a shared reading experience between parent and child in the child's home language, on the emergent literacy and language acquisition in English of preschool-age English Language Learners. Parents of Spanish-speaking four-year-old Head Start students read storybooks in Spanish with their children concurrently with the use of the English language version of the books in the classroom. A single subject design with multiple baselines across subjects and settings was applied. Observed variables included changes in the frequency of utterances, the Mean Length of Utterance-word, and the frequency of spontaneous or child-initiated utterances in various settings within the Head Start classroom. The results indicated that there is a relation between the shared reading experience in the home language and the child's second language acquisition.

Aram and Biron (2004), compared two interventions: one focusing on language and storybook reading and the other on alphabetic skills and writing. Seventy-one preschoolers aged 3–5 from a low SES township in central Israel (35 in the reading program and 36 in the writing program) participated in evaluation of the interventions. Twenty-four untreated preschoolers served as a control group. The
children were tested twice, at the beginning and at the end of the school year, in: phonological awareness, word writing, letter knowledge, orthographic awareness, listening comprehension, receptive vocabulary, and general knowledge. Both programs involved games and creative activities. The writing program encouraged letter knowledge, phonological awareness, and functional writing activities. The reading program utilized 11 children's books for focusing on language and exploring major concepts raised by these books. Results indicated that children in the two literacy programs progressed significantly more than the control group on phonological awareness and orthographic awareness. However, the joint writing group significantly outperformed both the joint reading group and the control group on phonological awareness, word writing, orthographic awareness, and letter knowledge. The study also found that children as young as 3–4 years gained from literacy programs as much as did older children, aged 4–5, on all the measures assessed in our program.

d. Parental Involvement in Shared reading and Vocabulary Development

Lever & Seneschal (2011), tested whether an 8-week shared reading intervention enhanced the fictional narrative skills of children entering formal education. Dialogic reading, a shared reading activity that involves elaborative questioning techniques, was used to engage children in oral interaction during reading and to emphasize elements of story knowledge. Participants were 40 English-speaking 5- and 6-
year-olds who were assigned to either the dialogic reading group or an alternative treatment group. Analysis of covariance results found that the dialogic reading children's posttest narratives were significantly better on structure and context measures than those for the alternative treatment children, but results differed for produced or retold narratives. The dialogic reading children also showed expressive vocabulary gains. Overall, this study concretely determined that aspects of fictional narrative construction knowledge can be learned from interactive book reading.

Collins (2010), investigated the effects of rich explanation, baseline vocabulary, and home reading practices on English language learning (ELL) preschoolers' sophisticated vocabulary learning from storybook reading. Eighty typically developing preschoolers were pretested in L1 (Portuguese) and L2 (English) receptive vocabulary and were assigned to experimental or control groups. Eight books were selected and paired. Experimental participants heard books read three times over a 3-week period with rich explanations of target vocabulary. Controls heard stories read without explanations. Parents completed questionnaires about the frequency, content, and language of home reading practices. Rich explanation, initial L2 vocabulary, and frequency of home reading make significant contributions to sophisticated word learning from story reading. Findings have important implications for L2 vocabulary acquisition in ELL preschoolers.
Tsybinai (2010), examined the feasibility of using a dialogic book-reading intervention for 22-41-month-old bilingual preschool children with expressive vocabulary delays. The intervention was provided in English and Spanish concurrently to an experimental group of six children, while six other children were in a delayed treatment control group. Thirty 15-min sessions using dialogic book-reading strategies were provided in each language in the children's homes, in English by the primary investigator and in Spanish by the children's mothers, who were trained in the techniques of dialogic book-reading. Results showed that the children in the intervention group learned significantly more target words in each language following the intervention than the children in the control group. The children in the intervention group were also able to produce the acquired words at the time of a follow-up test 6 weeks after the end of the intervention. The gains in the overall vocabulary of the two groups of children did not differ significantly. The children's mothers expressed satisfaction with the program, and confirmed the benefits of dialogic book-reading for their children's learning of target words.

Roberts (2008), examined how providing either primary- or English-language storybooks for home reading followed by classroom storybook reading and vocabulary instruction in English influenced English vocabulary acquisition. Participants in the study were preschool children (N = 33), from low socioeconomic status families, whose primary language was either Hmong or Spanish. There were two 6-week sessions of home combined with classroom storybook reading. Children were randomized to either a primary- or English-
language home storybook-reading treatment in the first session. In the second session, children switched treatment and participated in home storybook reading with books written in the alternate language. Children learned a substantial number of words from the combined home and classroom storybook-reading experiences. Home storybook reading in a primary language was at least as effective as home storybook reading in English for English vocabulary learning. Significant gains in vocabulary recognition were documented after home reading and again after classroom experiences in English. Family-caregiver participation in the parent-support part of the program rose from 50% to 80% between the two 6-week sessions. Family caregivers' English oral-language skills and the number of English-language children's books in the home were related to English vocabulary learning.

Senechal & Pagan (2008), tested the contribution of shared reading and parent literacy to a variety of child outcomes including measures of expressive vocabulary, morphological and syntax comprehension, and narrative ability (story grammar, cohesion, and language complexity) for book stories as well as personal stories. A total of 106 English-speaking 4-year-old children and their parents participated. As predicted, shared reading accounted for unique variance in children's expressive vocabulary and morphological knowledge after controlling for child nonverbal intelligence, parent education, and parent literacy (i.e., book exposure). Although shared reading predicted syntax comprehension, the effect was mediated by parents' own level of literacy. Contrary to expectation, shared reading was not
correlated with any of the narrative measures. Interestingly, the narrative measures for telling stories from a book and telling a personal story were not related to each other and were differentially related to the other child measures, suggesting that book and personal stories may represent different genres requiring different skills

**Raikes, Pan & Brooks-Gunn (2006)**, studied 2,581 low-income mothers and half of them reported reading daily to their children. At 14 months, the odds of reading daily increased by the child being firstborn or female. At 24 and 36 months, these odds increased by maternal verbal ability or education and by the child being firstborn or of Early Head Start status. White mothers read more than did Hispanic or African American mothers. For English-speaking children, concurrent reading was associated with vocabulary and comprehension at 14 months, and with vocabulary and cognitive development at 24 months. A pattern of daily reading over the 3 data points for English-speaking children and daily reading at any 1 data point for Spanish-speaking children predicted children's language and cognition at 36 months. Path analyses suggest reciprocal and snowballing relations between maternal book reading and children's vocabulary.
e. Parental involvement in shared reading and literacy development

Stevens, Van meter & Peggy (2010), studied the importance of emergent literacy skills as a foundation for proficient reading has led to the development of interventions to teach these skills. These interventions are particularly important for children from disadvantaged homes because they often lack the home literacy experiences necessary for building foundational literacy skills prior to school entry. While previous interventions have been successful in developing literacy skills, noticeably absent has been instruction to develop comprehension. In this study, teachers explicitly taught the narrative structure to kindergarten and first grade children in high poverty schools to increase their comprehension of children's literature. Instruction was delivered as children listened to stories during daily story time. The findings indicate that children who learned story structures, recalled more ideas from new stories and answered more questions about structural elements of those stories (e.g., who is the main character?). The results suggest that teachers can deliver effective comprehension instruction to emergent and beginning readers in the context of listening comprehension activities.

3. Home Literary Environment

Parents make the greatest difference to achievement through supporting their learning in the home rather than supporting activities in the school (Harris and Goodall, 2007).
According to Leicher (1984) families influence literacy development in three ways (a) Through interpersonal interactions (b) Through the physical environment and (c) Through the emotional and motivational climate. Interpersonal interactions are those interactions between the parents and the child that encourage reading and writing such as regularly reading books together, reading to the children each night before bed time, and similar routines. The physical environment refers to the room arrangements, books and other resources and materials that are made available to children as they grow up and interact on the home environment. Examples include the availability of quantity and quality of books throughout the home creating a library area that is quiet and conducive to reading, and making writing materials and tools available for very young children. The emotional and motivational climate refers to the attitudes and dispositions that are demonstrated by the parents. These are all examples of things that parents can do that positively influence the children’s attitudes towards reading and help to create a positive disposition for school and learning.

Burgess (2011), studied home literacy environment (HLE) provided to very young children. A parent with a child under 19 months of age (N = 262) completed a series of checklists and surveys designed to assess literacy experiences and opportunities within the home. In general, children were exposed to a wide range of literacy activities and experiences, but many had relatively little literacy exposure. Shared reading was the most common literacy activity. Activities specifically intended to teach literacy knowledge or skill were in place
for many children. Children were much more likely to see mothers engaged in literacy activities than fathers

**Rodriguez (2011)**, examined Children's home learning environments in a low-income sample of 1,852 children and families when children were 15, 25, 37, and 63 months. During home visits, children's participation in literacy activities, the quality of mothers' engagements with their children, and the availability of learning materials were assessed, yielding a total learning environment score at each age. At 63 months, children's vocabulary and literacy skills were assessed. Six learning environment trajectories were identified, including environments that were consistently low, environments that were consistently high, and environments characterized by varying patterns of change. The skills of children at the extremes of learning environment trajectories differed by more than 1 SD and the timing of learning experiences related to specific emerging skills.

**Kalai (2009)**, examined home literacy environment for Indian children learning English. Preschool children (N = 50) from Bangalore, India, were assessed for vocabulary, phonological awareness, and print skills in English, their language of schooling. Parents reported on the home literacy environment via questionnaires and a children's book title checklist, adapted for an Indian sample. Parents' book-reading practices moderated the role of English in the home in predicting children's English receptive vocabulary, such that high levels of book reading compensated for low ambient levels of English in the home. English in the home also predicted children's
phonological awareness, whereas parental book reading and teaching of print both predicted children's print skills.

**Weigel, Martin & Bennett (2006),** examined mothers beliefs about literacy development, the association of those beliefs with other aspects of the home literacy environment, and connections between parental literacy beliefs and pre-school aged children's literacy development. Data were collected from 79 mothers and their children over one year, and two profiles of parental literacy beliefs emerged. Facilitative mothers believed that taking an active role in teaching children at home would provide opportunities for their children to gain vocabulary, knowledge, and morals. Conventional mothers expressed the belief that schools, more than parents, are responsible for teaching children and tended to report many challenges to reading with children. Homes with Facilitative mothers tended to be more literacy enriching than homes of Conventional mothers, and children with Facilitative mothers displayed more advanced print knowledge and interest in reading. These findings have implications for understanding the connections among parental literacy beliefs, home literacy environments, and children's literacy outcomes.

**Roberts, Jurgens & Burchinal (2005),** examined how 4 specific measures of home literacy practices (i.e., shared book reading frequency, maternal book reading strategies, child's enjoyment of reading, and maternal sensitivity) and a global measure of the quality and responsiveness of the home environment during the preschool years predicted children's language and emergent literacy skills between the ages of 3 and 5 years. Study participants were 72 African
American children and their mothers or primary guardians primarily from low-income families whose home literacy environment and development have been followed since infancy. Annually, between 18 months and 5 years of age, the children's mothers were interviewed about the frequency they read to their child and how much their child enjoyed being read to, and the overall quality and responsiveness of the home environment were observed. Mothers also were observed reading to their child once a year at 2, 3, and 4 years of age, and maternal sensitivity and types of maternal book reading strategies were coded. Children's receptive and expressive language and vocabulary were assessed annually between 3 years of age and kindergarten entry, and emergent literacy skills were assessed at 4 years and kindergarten entry. The specific home literacy practices showed moderate to large correlations with each other, and only a few significant associations with the language and literacy outcomes, after controlling for maternal education, maternal reading skills, and the child's gender. The global measure of overall responsiveness and support of the home environment was the strongest predictor of children's language and early literacy skills and contributed over and above the specific literacy practice measures in predicting children's early language and literacy development.

Foy & Mann (2003), suggest that the best predictor of early reading ability, phonological awareness, appears to be associated with the acquisition of letter-sound and vocabulary knowledge and with the development of well-defined phonological representations. It further suggests that at least some aspects of phonological awareness
critically depend upon literacy exposure. In this study of 4- to 6-year-olds, they examined whether aspects of the home literacy environment are differentially associated with phonological awareness. Parental responses to a questionnaire about the home literacy environment are compared to children's awareness of rhyme and phonemes, as well as to their vocabulary, letter knowledge, and performance on measures of phonological strength (nonword repetition, rapid naming skill, phonological distinctness, and auditory discrimination). The results showed that a teaching focus in the home literacy environment and exposure to reading-related media are directly associated with phoneme awareness and indirectly associated via letter knowledge and vocabulary. Exposure to reading-related media and parents' active involvement in children's literature were also directly and indirectly linked with rhyme awareness skills via their association with letter and vocabulary knowledge.

a. Influence of Home Literary Environment and Language development

Roberts, Jurgens & Burchinal (2005), examined how 4 specific measures of home literacy practices (i.e., shared book reading frequency, maternal book reading strategies, child's enjoyment of reading, and maternal sensitivity) and a global measure of the quality and responsiveness of the home environment during the preschool years predicted children's language and emergent literacy skills between the ages of 3 and 5 years. Study participants were 72 African American children and their mothers or primary guardians primarily from low-income families whose home literacy environment and
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b. Influence of home literary environment and Print awareness

Weigel, Martin & Bennett (2010), using a developmental assets framework, examined the influences of family resources, routines, and stress on preschool-aged children's emerging literacy development. Data were collected from 85 children as well as from their parents.
Using path analysis, the results revealed that the more regular the routines in the household, the more likely parents were to engage their children in literacy enhancing activities, and in turn the higher the children's print knowledge and reading interest. This was the case both initially and a year later. Results also showed that family resources and stress contributed to aspects of literacy development, although not as strongly as family routines. The findings suggest that interventions should include efforts to promote supportive family contexts as an additional means to enhance children's literacy development.

**Elsea (2001),** describes a literacy program that provides readers with materials and instructions that fit their individual levels of development. The targeted population consists of kindergarten students in a northwest suburb that is characterized by higher than average household earnings, highly educated residents, and a population encompassing all ages, occupations, and incomes. The children enter school displaying a wide range of reading readiness skills. Evidence includes running records that track each child's reading level, writing samples, and checklists that show children's understanding of print concepts and letter-sound relationships. Analysis of probable cause data reveals that a child's environment impacts literacy learning. Literacy development of children begins before formal schooling and is influenced by the quantity and quality of literacy-related experiences in the home environment. Parent involvement, preschool experiences, children's interests and strengths, and available materials are factors in a child's understanding of
literacy. A review of solution strategies suggests a balanced literacy program. Through read-alouds, shared reading, guided reading groups, interactive writing, and independent writing and reading, children will be provided with several kinds of reading and writing experiences. Post intervention data indicate an increase in student letter recognition and knowledge of letter and print concepts. The concepts about print the students learned during shared reading and writing experiences were transferred to journal writing and independent reading time. This is evidenced in the students' increased scores on their writing rubrics and the text levels.

c. Influence of Home Literary Environment and Vocabulary Development

Bracken & Fischel (2008), investigated the family reading behavior of 233 preschool children from low-income backgrounds who were attending Head Start. Parents completed a survey of their family reading behavior, including Child Reading, Parent Reading Interest, and Parent-Child Reading Interaction, and provided demographic data on their educational level, parent and child age, and family size. Children's receptive vocabulary, story and print concepts, letter knowledge, and general emergent literacy skills were assessed in the fall of their preschool year. Analyses focused on the variation in family reading behavior, the relationship between different dimensions of family reading behavior, and the contribution of family reading behavior to early literacy skills. Results indicated that Parent-
Child Reading Interaction and Child Reading Interest were significantly related to children's early literacy skills. In addition, multiple regression analyses indicated that Parent-Child Reading Interaction was a small yet significant predictor of children's receptive vocabulary, story and print concepts, and general emergent literacy skills, above and beyond the influence of demographic variables. Child Reading Interest was a significant, albeit small, predictor of letter knowledge above and beyond these demographic controls.

**Bryant, Peisner & Miller-Johnson (2004),** investigated the relations among family factors, parental involvement in children's learning activities within and outside of Head Start, and children's outcomes related to literacy, numeracy, social skills, and behavior problems. Data were collected by means of Fall and Spring parent interviews, teacher ratings of children's social skills and problem behaviors, and administration of the Woodcock Johnson Math and Letter-Word ID subscales. The findings indicated that in the Fall, parents who were most involved with their children in activities at home and in the community were more likely to include mothers with higher levels of education. Larger families tended to have less involvement in Head Start than smaller families. The level of Fall home activities was highly significantly related to Spring home activities. Parents' participation in Head Start activities over the course of the year was a significant predictor of home activities with the child in the Spring. There were no significant family demographic or activity predictors of the pre-math outcome. Family size and income were significant predictors of the literacy outcome. A family's involvement in activities
with their child at home and in the community was significantly positively related to Letter-Word ID.

**Wood (2002)**, considered the nature of joint (parent–child) pre–school activities in the home, and their potential to contribute to the development of early reading skills. Parents gave details of the nature and frequency of any play–based activities that they routinely completed with their children. Their children were assessed on various aspects of phonological awareness, as well as their receptive vocabulary and short–term memory at four years old. One year later they completed a similar battery that also included measures of reading and spelling ability. Children who engaged in a variety of pre–school, parent–child activities showed the best achievement in reading one year later. The frequency of joint activities was also found to impact on reading attainment, vocabulary, memory and aspects of phonological awareness. The importance of shared storybook reading for later independent reading ability was reiterated by this study of structured enrichments.

**Senechal & Le Fevre (2002)**, presents the findings of the final phase of a 5-year longitudinal study with 168 middle- and upper middle-class children in which the complex relations among early home literacy experiences, subsequent receptive language and emergent literacy skills, and reading achievement were examined. Results showed that children’s exposure to books was related to the development of vocabulary and listening comprehension skills, and that these language skills were directly related to children’s reading in grade 3. In contrast, parent involvement in teaching children about
reading and writing words was related to the development of early literacy skills. Early literacy skills directly predicted word reading at the end of grade 1 and indirectly predicted reading in grade 3. Word reading at the end of grade 1 predicted reading comprehension in grade 3. Thus, the various pathways that lead to fluent reading have their roots in different aspects of children’s early experiences.

d. Influence of home literacy environment and Reading awareness

Khurana & Prema (2011), reports the findings of two surveys that aimed at evaluating the emergent literacy experiences of Kannada-speaking children studying in preschools with English as the medium of instruction. A questionnaire on emergent literacy experiences in the classroom and a questionnaire on books were developed for the purpose of this survey. 28 teachers from 10 preschools in Mysore city participated in the survey. This report is one of the series of surveys conducted to evaluate the emergent literacy experiences of Kannada speaking children studying in preschools with English as their medium of instruction. A total of 140 parents of preschool children studying in 10 schools in Mysore city were surveyed. The survey was conducted using a structured questionnaire method. The results of the survey revealed that 69.1% of parents provided adequate emergent literacy experiences to their children through different kinds of books (95.7%), storybook reading (87%), storytelling (79.2%) print awareness (74%), letter knowledge (73.9%), and oral language activities (97.4%). Since the native language of most parents in the
sample was Kannada, they used Kannada for oral activities like daily conversation and storytelling and used English for reading storybooks and other reading and writing activities. The results indicate that preschool children who participated in the study were exposed to good emergent literacy experiences at home. Results of the study indicated that 83.32% of teachers reported that children in their school were exposed to literacy rich experiences through activities such as storybook reading.

Merlo (2007), examined the contribution of parental nurturance to literacy development during the transition from preschool to elementary school. Participants were 77 children attending Head Start, their primary caregivers, and their teachers. A variety of methods were used to measure nurturance (e.g., self-report, laboratory observation, home observation) and reading achievement (e.g., standardized testing and teacher report). Approximately 3 1/2 years later, 52 families and 39 teachers were available for repeat assessments of children's reading achievement. After controlling for the variance accounted for by prior reading ability, phonological awareness, verbal reasoning ability, and home academic stimulation, parental nurturance made a significant unique contribution to children's growth in reading achievement. Results supported the hypothesis that caregiver nurturance can be an important ingredient in the recipe for literacy.
Hindin & Paratore (2007), examined the effectiveness of a home repeated-reading intervention on the reading achievement of eight low-performing second-grade children in an urban school by taking into consideration their need to develop automaticity and the role their parents play in this process. A multiple-baseline across-subjects design and a pre-post design were used to assess the effectiveness of the intervention. Results indicated that all participants made substantially fewer reading errors during the intervention as compared to their performance on baseline stories. All participants demonstrated decreased error rates from the first to the last reading of stories, and significant fluency gains were evident in all cases when comparing mean baseline fluency with mean intervention fluency. All participants made considerable gains in fluency from the first to the last reading of each story, and all children improved on an independent reading measure. All participants read more than 10,000 words during the home intervention. Parents monitored their children's home reading. Four parents provided substantial word-level support, and the children who received this support made fewer repeated reading errors.

Senechal (2006), examines the longitudinal relations among early literacy experiences at home and children's kindergarten literacy skills, Grade 1 word reading and spelling skills, and Grade 4 reading comprehension, fluency, spelling, and reading for pleasure. Ninety French-speaking children were tested at the end of kindergarten and Grade 1, and 65 were followed until the end of Grade 4. Parents reported in kindergarten that storybook reading occurred frequently
and that they sometimes taught their child to read words. The results of hierarchical regression analyses that controlled for parent education as well as concurrent and longitudinal relations among literacy behaviors reveal that parent teaching about literacy in kindergarten directly predicted kindergarten alphabet knowledge and Grade 4 reading fluency, whereas storybook exposure directly predicted kindergarten vocabulary and the frequency with which children reported reading for pleasure in Grade 4. Moreover, storybook exposure predicted Grade 4 reading comprehension indirectly.

Senechal (2006), reviewed the scientific literature on parent involvement in the acquisition of reading from kindergarten to grade 3. Method: In the present review, parent involvement in literacy acquisition was narrowly defined to include parent-child activities that focus on reading. Moreover, the 14 studies that were analyzed were those that included an intervention where researchers tested whether parent involvement enhanced children's literacy. Standard meta-analytic procedures were used to analyze the study outcomes.

Findings: Overall: The combined results for the 14 intervention studies, representing 1174 families, were clear: Parent involvement has a positive impact on children's reading acquisition. The mean effect size for the combined studies was moderately large (effect size = .68). This effect size corresponds to a 10-point gain on a literacy test (with a standard deviation of 15) for the intervention children as compared to the control children. Findings: Intervention type: The three types of parent involvement represented in the review differed in their effectiveness. Having parents teach specific literacy skills to
their children was two times more effective than having parents listen to their children read and six times more effective than encouraging parents to read to their children. In the present review, providing supportive feedback to parents during the intervention did not alter effectiveness. Also, the duration of the intervention did not moderate its effectiveness. Findings: Participant characteristics: Parent involvement had a positive impact from kindergarten to grade 3. In addition, the interventions were as effective for children experiencing reading difficulties as they were for normally-developing children.

**Sonnenschein & Munsterman (2002),** studied the impact of home-based reading practices on young children’s literacy development, we need to consider both the types of comments made while reading as well as the affective quality of the reading interaction. Five-year-olds, during the summer prior to kindergarten, were observed reading both a familiar and an unfamiliar book with a member of their family, usually a parent but in one-third of the cases, an older sibling. Children came from either African-American or European-American families. Most of the children (about 83%) came from low income families. Both the nature of comments made about each book and the affective quality of the interactions were coded. Parents also were interviewed about the frequency with which their children engaged in reading activities at home. Children’s phonological awareness, orientation toward print, and story comprehension were assessed during the spring of kindergarten; their motivations for reading were assessed at the start of first grade.
Colgan (2002), researched on parental involvement in activities that support academic areas is directly correlated with reading achievement and development. This study stresses the importance of reading aloud to your child, the connections between reading aloud at home and at school, the value of implementing hands-on literacy based activities that integrate across the curriculum, and the impact of a good parent-teacher partnership. The study took place over a six-week intervention period for 20 interested first grade students and their parents/guardians. The participants were able to listen to a story which was read aloud, complete accompanying hands-on activities, and share feelings and attitudes in the "Author's Chair," in order to enhance reading and language development and skills. The results have indicated that through the family literacy intervention, the children's reading skills have improved, as well as the enhancement of their interest in reading and completing literacy based activities.
Conclusion

One of the effective approaches to help young children develop literary skills is having a home environment that supports literary development. A literate home means more than just having books and writing materials on hand. To be effective, parents need to plan for how these materials will be used effectively. Families don’t have to invest a lot of money in materials to have a rich literary environment at home they do however have to invest their time and involvement.

In fact, the influence of a child’s home language environment can be observed within the first few months after birth. The language and literary environment of the child’s home and early learning and child care settings are therefore strong determinants of early language and literary skills. As parents are their children’s first teachers, they need to be aware of the importance of creating a language- and literary-rich environment in the home.