

Préface

Le but de ce travail était de faire l'inventaire des publications les plus significatives en regard de la problématique de l'éveil à l'écrit en milieu familial incluant les relations entre les familles et l'école. Les 312 publications incluses dans le document ont été sélectionnées parmi plus de 800 références répertoriées principalement dans les bases de données ERIC et Psych Info. Le choix a été fondé sur 8 critères :

1. La pertinence par rapport aux trois grands thèmes couverts par la problématique :
 - a. la littératie familiale
 - b. l'éveil à l'écrit en milieu extra-scolaire
 - c. les relations écoles-familles
2. La validité scientifique
3. La validité pratique
4. La renommée des auteurs mesurée par
 - a. le nombre de publications reconnues
 - b. la fréquence de citations dans d'autres publications
5. L'importance du projet décrit mesuré par :
 - a. l'inclusion dans des programmes gouvernementaux
 - b. le support d'organismes reconnus
 - c. le nombre de familles et ou d'enfants touchés
 - d. la durée du projet
6. L'accessibilité des références
7. L'accessibilité d'une description suffisante pour pouvoir juger de la pertinence de la référence
8. L'accessibilité des documents

Les références ont été regroupées dans les trois grands thèmes puis à l'intérieur de sous-thèmes que l'on retrouvera dans la table des matières. Lorsqu'un article touchait différents thèmes ou sous-thèmes, il était classé selon le thème dominant.

Table des matières

Préface.....	1
Littératie familiale	3
<i>A. Conceptualisations et définitions.....</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>B. Interventions</i>	<i>16</i>
<i>C. Even Start.....</i>	<i>37</i>
<i>D. Évaluation.....</i>	<i>47</i>
<i>E. Livres et collectifs</i>	<i>55</i>
Éveil à l'écrit.....	66
<i>A. Conceptualisations et définitions.....</i>	<i>66</i>
<i>B. Relations langage oral-langage écrit</i>	<i>75</i>
<i>C. Lecture de livres.....</i>	<i>80</i>
<i>D. Jeu et éveil à l'écrit.....</i>	<i>91</i>
<i>E. Interventions en milieu familial</i>	<i>93</i>
<i>F. Interventions en contexte préscolaire</i>	<i>96</i>
<i>G. Head Start.....</i>	<i>100</i>
<i>H. Livres et collectifs</i>	<i>103</i>
Relations école-famille.....	106
<i>I. Interventions</i>	<i>106</i>
<i>J. Livres et collectifs</i>	<i>112</i>

Littératie familiale

A. Conceptualisations et définitions

Concepts clés : *Littératie; littératie familiale; littératie intergénérationnelle; modèles; définitions; synthèse de recherches*

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

The author argues that programs teaching parents to assist children with homework practice the «deficit hypothesis» are not based on sound research. He proposes a broader definition of family literacy that acknowledges the family's social situation, focuses on the family's strengths, and uses a social-contextual approach to curriculum development.

2. Auerbach, E. R. (1995). *Which way for family literacy: Intervention or empowerment*. L. M. Morrow. Family literacy: Connections in schools and communities. Newark, DE, International Reading Association. p.11-28.

Based on her study of family literacy, which included the examination of current models of family literacy programs, ethnographic literature, and interactions with immigrant and refugee students, Auerbach proposes a broadening of the definition for family literacy, and a reevaluation of the family literacy model. Instead of a family literacy model that attempts to transmit school practices to the home, Auerbach supports a socio-contextual approach that incorporates family, culture, and community. The author discusses this new model of family literacy and provides examples and suggestions for its implementation.

3. Auerbach, E. R. (2002). *What is a participatory approach to curriculum development?* V. Zamel and R. Spack. Enriching ESOL pedagogy: Readings and activities for engagement, reflection, and inquiry. Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers. 59. p.269-293.

Aimed to examine participatory approach program designs and the assumptions they were based on and the rationale that informed them. The author embarks on this investigation process by doing 3 things: (1) reviewing studies of home literacy contexts and family contributions to literacy development of children from different classes and cultures (ethnographic research); (2) looking at existing family literacy program models; and (3) learning from students, investigating with them their own family literacy contexts. The most important finding of the author is that existing programs were often not informed by research findings.

4. Brice Heath, S. (1991). *The sense of being literate*. R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. Mosenthal and P. D. Pearson. Handbook of Reading Research. N.Y., Longman. II. p.3-26.

This chapter considers the very broad question of what having a sense of being literate means historically and cross-culturally. In this chapter, being literate goes beyond having *literacy skills* that enable one to disconnect from the interpretation or production of a text as a whole, discrete elements, such as letters, graphemes, words, grammar, main ideas, and topic sentences. The sense of being literate derives from the ability to exhibit *literate behaviours*. Through these, individuals can compare, sequence, argue with, interpret, and create extended chunks of spoken and written language in response to a written text in which communication, reflection, and interpretation are grounded.

5. Benasich, A., L., J. Brooks-Gunn, B.C. Clewell (1992) *How do mothers benefits from early intervention programs*. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 13, 311-362.

Extant reviews of early childhood intervention programs for the disadvantaged focus on the benefits that accrue to the children. Programs also may influence the parents (typically the mother), as most programs provide services to the mother as well as the child. In this article, the efficacy of a particular set of programs is reviewed. Early interventions that are educationally oriented, that are at least six months in duration, that begin prior to age 3, and that serve disadvantaged families were reviewed. Of the 27 programs, 11 offered regular, substantive, center-based-programming (mode = 40 hr/week; M = 25.7 hr/week), and 16 offered home visits and/or center-based programs on a less frequent basis. Maternal benefits are re-viewed for maternal employment and education, fertility, mother-infant interaction, home environment, maternal mental health and self-esteem; maternal attitudes and knowledge about child rearing. The programs had the most impact on maternal employment and education, on subsequent fertility, and on mother-infant interaction. Implications of these findings for programs for poor families are considered.

6. Brooks-Gunn, J., L. J. Berlin, et al. (2000). *Early childhood intervention programs: What about the family?* J. P. Shonkoff and S. J. Meisels (eds).Handbook of Early Childhood Intervention. New York, Cambridge University Press.

The authors note that discussion pertaining to parent and family roles in early childhood initiatives appear to be missing or distorted. To address this omission, the authors depict ways in which families are critical to early childhood program access and how the programs influence parents' well being. This chapter also highlights how child outcomes are mediated through program effects on parents. It also shows how parents involvement is contingent on the relationships among parents, staff, and children. The authors review four types of programs: parent-focused home-based programs, parent-focused combination center- and home-

based programs, intergenerational family literacy programs, and parent focused literacy programs. These programs are discussed in relation to parent and family outcomes. The authors also examine the role of parents as catalysts of change in early intervention programs. The final two sections focus on policy, implications for practice, and recommendations for programs and their evaluations.

7. Brown, B. L. (1998). Family literacy: Respecting family ways. *ERIC Digest no. 203*. Columbus, OH., ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education.

Family literacy programs must acknowledge the family as the primary place of learning, and developers of family literacy programs and curricula must focus on the family unit as a whole, building upon the cultural and knowledge capital of the entire family and acknowledging gender and age power relationships within the family. Educators must redefine the relationship of literacy to poverty and socioeconomic status and acknowledge that families who lack English proficiency can offer other family members their languages, multiple approaches to literacy, and ability to deal with life events. Most educational approaches to family literacy recognize parents as a child's most important teachers but fail to recognize the value of literacy transmission from adult to adult, child to adult, or sibling to sibling that occurs in various community cultures. When designing programs and curricula, family literacy practitioners must realize that power issues, particularly those that are education related, can influence a family's literacy practices. Practitioners must also determine how the workplace fits into families' lives. Family literacy programs must be centered in the context of family literacy's real-world application in the home, and they must draw on the experiences and strengths of the families being served. (MN)

8. Crowter, J., Tett, L. (1997) *Literacies not literacy*. Adult Learning, april.207-209.

This paper presents the project *Connect* which is located in a working class school in Edinburgh, Scotland. *Connect* emphasises the fact that people have different literacies which they make use of in different domains of life, but not literacies are equally valued. It challenge the deficit views in practice and demonstrates that if cooperation between school and home can raise educational achievement, children learn more effectively through participation in learning in which they are helped by a member of their own culture.

9. Daisey, P. (1991). *Intergenerational literacy programs: rationale, description, and effectiveness*. Journal of Clinical Psychology 20: 11-17.

Educators have acknowledged that a continuing focus on the mechanics of reading will not alleviate the literacy problem. As a result, the focus of attention has shifted to the family and the critical role it plays in the acquisition of reading skills. This article discusses the rationale behind the growing number of intergenerational literacy programs and how they target adult strengths to

facilitate the literacy of an entire family. The three intergenerational projects evaluated were the Family Literacy Center at Boston University, the Parent Readers Program at the City University of New York, and the Kenan Trust Family Literacy Project. In addition, Daisey describes the Even Start legislation that provides funding for the continuing evaluation of family literacy programs.

10. Ferdman, B. M. (1990). *Literacy and cultural identity*. Harvard Educational Review 60(2): 181-204.

In this article, Bernardo Ferdman argues that cultural diversity has significant implications for the processes of becoming and being literate. He explores these connections by analyzing the relationship between literacy and cultural identity in a multiethnic society such as the United States. Ferdman asserts that literacy is culturally framed and defined: therefore, members of different cultures will differ in what they view as literate behavior. This, in turn, can influence how individuals engage in literacy acquisition and activity. He further argues that the type and content of literacy education that individuals receive can influence their cultural identity. He concludes by arguing that the connections between literacy and culture must be fully acknowledged and better understood in order to achieve the goal of literacy acquisition for all.

11. Foster, P. and A. Purves (1991). *Literacy and society with particular reference to the non-western world*. R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. Mosenthal and P. D. Pearson (eds.) Handbook of Reading Research. N.Y., Longman. II. p.26-46.

This chapter considers the very broad question of what having a sense of being literate means historically and cross-culturally. In this chapter, being literate goes beyond having *literacy skills* that enable one to disconnect from the interpretation or production of a text as a whole, discrete elements, such as letters, graphemes, words, grammar rules, main ideas, and topic sentences. The sense of being literate derives from the ability to exhibit *literate* behavior. Through these, individuals can compare, sequence, argue with, interpret, and create extended chunks of spoken and written language in response to a written text in which communication, reflection, and interpretation are grounded.

12. Gadsden, V. L. (1993). *Literacy, education, and identity among African Americans: The communal nature of learning*. Urban Education 27: 352-369.

The acquisition of literacy and uses of knowledge are tied to the transitions that people make and to understanding life and work in communities. They are intertwined with the community members' sense of self; history, and hopes for educational achievement. This article focuses on the dualism of literacy and education as an individual possession and communally embedded commodity within many segments of the African-American community. The discussion is based on the premise that literacy should be seen as a continuous, ever-changing activity, transformed by critical life events, translated as a result of life-span

transitions, and defined and shaped by cultural and community beliefs about the price of education and the expected rewards of learning.

13. Gadsden, V. L. (1994). *Understanding family literacy: Conceptual issues*. Teachers College Record 96: 58-86.

This article examines the current research in the field of family literacy. The first of the article's four sections identifies major sources of influence on current literacy research, such as cross-cultural and social issues, intergenerational literacy, and parent-child literacy, as well as the influence of practice. The second section, about the nature of families and family support, describes five assumptions as the foundation of a conceptual framework. Gadsden then discusses the recent policy impetus for family support efforts and explains how it serves to link literacy to family support. She argues that before this link can be successful, literacy research and practice must catch up in the areas of family functioning and development. She concludes by stressing that family literacy learning be conceptualized broadly and as an ongoing activity that varies alongside changing life needs.

14. Gadsden, V. L. (2000). *Intergenerational literacy within families*. M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson and R. Barr (eds) Handbook of Reading Research. Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. III. p.871-887.

This chapter focuses on the conceptual and theoretical issues of intergenerational literacy in families. The first section discusses the issues associated with a more expansive and critical framework to study intergenerational literacy. For example, Gadsden suggests that a need exists to identify different features of learning, literacy, families, human development, and intergenerationality in order to fully understand how families acquire, use and value literacy. The second section considers the theoretical context in which this framework is emerging. Four areas of research are suggested to contribute to this context: parent-child book reading, family literacy and parent-child interactions around print, intergenerational learning, and the family life course. The chapter ends with a discussion on the use and importance of having an expanded framework on intergenerational literacy.

15. Hannon, P. Nutbrown, C., Fawcett, E. (1997) *Taking parent learning seriously*. Adults Learning, November, 19-22.

In recent years adult educators and early childhood educators have come together in various kinds of family literacy programmes in which adult basic education for parents is combined with literacy-oriented early education for children. Early childhood educators need to recognize that assisting adult learning requires different attitudes and skills from those they use in respect to children's learning.

16. Hannon, P. (2000). *Rhetoric and research in family literacy*. British Educational Research Journal 26(1): 121-38.

Hannon examines the rhetoric of family literacy focusing on restricted programs (family literacy programs that combine adult basic education for parents and early literacy) in relation to five issues: (1) the usage of the term family literacy; (2) targeting restricted programs to selected families; (3) program accessibility; (4) educational effects; and (5) socio-economic effects. (CMK)

17. Kerka, S. (1991). *Family and intergenerational literacy*. Eric Digest 111. Columbus, OH, ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Career and Vocational Education.

This article provides a brief overview of family literacy through a discussion of current program designs, definitions of literacy, the need for research on program effectiveness, perspectives of and issues related to literacy, and suggestions for program development. Kerka highlights and gives examples of four types of family intergenerational literacy programs. Drawing on research from related fields, Kerka suggests that literacy should be taught comprehensively, with the involvement of the whole family, and within a community context. The author discusses issues in family literacy such as the “deficit” perspective which emphasizes transmitting literacy skills from the school to the family versus the perspective of building on the strength of parents’ knowledge and experience. Finally, Kerka makes five recommendations for program development: these include using a broad definition of literacy and being sensitive to cultural differences.

18. Morrow, L. M. (1993). *Family literacy: Perspective and practices*. Reading Teacher 47(3): 194-200.

In this article, the authors discuss current views, practices, and applications in family literacy. Because literacy activities at school and at home are sometimes seen as incongruent with one another, the authors suggest that the term family literacy be viewed in the broadest sense. The authors categorize family literacy initiatives into three areas (home-school partnership programs, intergenerational literacy programs, and research examining literacy use in families) and provide a description of each. Community collaboration and partnerships are noted as integral to the future of family literacy. Examples of collaboration in federal and state level family literacy programs are described. The need for evaluation of family literacy initiatives is stressed and methods of disseminating information regarding family literacy are presented.

19. Padak, N., C. Sapin, et al. (2002). *A decade of family literacy: Programs, outcomes, and future prospects*. *Information series*. Colum Van Ijzendoornjzendoorn, OH, ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education, Columbus, OH.

This paper reviews and synthesizes reports about family literacy programs and practices, focusing on outcomes for adult learners. Emphasis is on resources

available in the ERIC database beginning in 1990. Section 1 on programs reviews sometimes conflicting definitions of family literacy and finds that a common thread is strengthening intergenerational literacy and preparing parents and caregivers for their role as children's first teachers. It discusses policy and funding issues at federal and state levels and addresses these three issues critical to family literacy program success: staff quality, curricular assumptions and instructional practices, and collaboration within and outside programs. Section 2 describes kinds of assessment models used for participants and programs and discusses these outcomes documented in research: increased adult academic, social, and job skills and employment possibilities; higher enrolment in early childhood education; gains in school readiness; parents as positive role models for doing academic work and persisting in the face of difficulties; children's increased interest in literacy activities; improved home literacy environments; and closer family relationships. Section 3 summarizes the findings by describing a prototype of a successful family literacy program and highlighting areas needing additional research. Appendixes include a research matrix with purpose, scope, and design of 35 studies; an annotated list of 21 family literacy websites; and a map of Even Start programs. (Contains 58 references.) (YLB)

20. Pellegrini, A. D. (1997). *Bridges between home and school literacy: Social bases for early school literacy*. Early Child Development & Care 127-128: 99-109.

Defines early literacy in terms of literate language, a register of language typified by verbally explicated meaning and talk about talk. Explores various social arrangements which support children's use of literate language. Examines the roles of diverse and close social contacts, and the ways in which individual differences mediate these factors, with regard to children's use of literate language. (MOK)

21. Pierre, R. (1991). *De l'alphabétisation à la littératie: Pour une réforme en profondeur de l'enseignement*. Scientia Paedagogica Experimentalis XXVIII(II): 151-186.

Le but de cet article est de montrer que grâce à la démocratisation de l'école, l'alphabétisation est devenue un objectif de société et est maintenant considérée comme un droit incontestable. Toutefois, l'accès à ce droit est encore limité par les inégalités sociales et si le problème apparaît si grave aujourd'hui, c'est que la maîtrise de l'écrit est devenue une nécessité non seulement pour fonctionner dans la vie quotidienne mais aussi et surtout pour s'intégrer sur le marché du travail où les exigences de littératie ne cessent d'augmenter de sorte qu'aujourd'hui, il n'est pour ainsi dire plus possible de travailler sans un certain niveau de littératie.

22. Pierre, R. (1992). *Influence du médium et du niveau de littératie sur la compréhension de textes écrits et télévisuels*. Scientia Paedagogica Experimentalis vol. XXIX(I): 23-44.

Les objectifs de la présente recherche étaient de voir dans quelle mesure d'une part, le médium par lequel sont transmises les connaissances, d'autre part le type de littératie des apprenants défini par la plus ou moins grande importance accordée à l'écrit ou à la télévision, influencent les processus de mémorisation et d'apprentissage. Les résultats obtenus auprès de 90 enfants de sixième année primaire confirment que l'écrit est un médium plus efficace que la télévision pour l'apprentissage de connaissances nouvelles et que plus le niveau de littératie des enfants est élevé meilleur est l'apprentissage.

23. Pierre, R. (1993). *Littératie et éducation en milieux minoritaires*. M. Lebrun and M. C. Paret (Eds). L'hétérogénéité des apprenants : Un défi pour la classe de français. Genève, p.314-319. Neuchatel/Paris. Delachaux et Niestlé.

Le but de l'article est de montrer l'importance de l'enseignement de l'écrit, et plus particulièrement de la lecture, en milieux minoritaires au Canada. Compte tenu du taux d'assimilation des francophones à la langue anglaise, l'auteure s'interroge sur la pertinence d'adopter une approche communicative fonctionnelle centrée sur l'oral pour enseigner le français dans un contexte sociolinguistique défavorable à son usage. Elle soutient que pour fonctionner dans une société de plus en plus technologisée, le niveau de littératie requis implique des habiletés de traitement des informations écrites de haut niveau qui débordent la seule communication. Même si le langage écrit entretient des relations étroites avec le langage oral, notamment en contexte bilingue d'apprentissage, il demeure que l'écrit impose des contraintes plus fortes sur le traitement de l'information qui dépendent des connaissances linguistiques du lecteur et de ses habiletés à reconstruire la structure d'ensemble d'un texte. Ainsi, l'apprentissage de l'écrit ne peut résulter du simple transfert à la lecture des compétences acquises à l'oral mais suppose un enseignement systématique axé sur les processus de compréhension.

24. Pierre, R. (1992). *Introduction. La compréhension de textes écrits face au rehaussement des standards de littératie*. R. Pierre (ed.). Numéro thématique. La compréhension de textes écrits en langue maternelle et en langue seconde: perspectives cognitives, Scientia Paedagogica Experimentalis. Vol. XXIX, p.23-44.

Le but de ce numéro spécial est de montrer que, face à la complexification des sociétés et à l'accroissement des connaissances, le rôle de l'écrit comme outil d'apprentissage prend de plus en plus d'importance aussi bien à l'école qu'en dehors de l'école. On commence pourtant seulement à comprendre les processus de compréhension de texte surtout dans les pays francophones où le domaine est encore embryonnaire. La complexité des modèles cognitifs et la sophistication des approches méthodologiques caractéristiques de ce type de recherche les rendent difficilement accessibles aux enseignants et aux professionnels de l'éducation pour lesquels pourtant, elles constituent des connaissances fondamentales. C'était un des objectifs de ce numéro spécial que de rendre compte de l'état d'avancement de ces recherches dans un discours et une forme que nous voulions accessibles à

des étudiants gradués en éducation et à des non-spécialistes du domaine que la question intéresse, tout en préservant les exigences de scientificité sur lesquelles sont fondées ces recherches.

25. Pierre, R. (1994). *De l'alphabétisation à la littératie : le défi du XXI^e siècle*. Conférence d'ouverture du colloque mondiale : Citoyens de demain : Quelle éducation ? Paris, UNESCO. p.37-51.

L'auteur rappelle qu'il ne peut y avoir de véritable démocratisation sans une participation active des individus aux affaires d'État et au fonctionnement de la société. Cette participation active ne peut s'exercer, aujourd'hui, *sans une maîtrise de l'écrit à un niveau élevé*: c'est ce qu'on appelle la «littératie». Il convient donc de repenser le concept traditionnel d'alphabétisation qui ne suffit plus. L'écriture a un rôle trop important dans nos sociétés marquées par des technologies de plus en plus sophistiquées. C'est vrai pour les pays développés, c'est encore plus vrai pour les pays en voie de développement.

Régine Pierre expose ici les raisons pour lesquelles, à l'aube du XXI^e siècle, il est indispensable d'arriver à un niveau élevé de la maîtrise de l'écrit

- l'ampleur des changements dans les sociétés, et les échecs essuyés dans les campagnes antérieures d'alphabétisation
- une nouvelle conception de l'école et de la pédagogie;
- une meilleure compréhension des facteurs qui déterminent le fonctionnement de l'écrit dans nos sociétés actuelles.
- l'explosion des frontières et l'accélération des développements technologiques
- les enjeux linguistiques et culturels

26. Pierre, R. (1994). *Savoir Lire aujourd'hui. De la définition à l'évaluation du savoir-lire*. J. Y. Boyer and M. Lebrun (eds).Évaluer le savoir-lire. Montréal, Les éditions Logiques. p.275-317.

Le but de cet article est de montrer en quoi le concept de littératie permet d'élargir la définition traditionnelle du savoir-lire en tenant compte des facteurs socio-historiques et socioculturels qui déterminent les contextes d'utilisation et les fonctions que l'écrit exerce à chaque époque. L'auteur cherche à monter que l'introduction du concept de littératie permet de situer ce qui constitue le point majeur de la problématique de l'évaluation soit la distinction entre savoir-lire et être lecteur ou dit en d'autres termes: l'enseignement du savoir-lire (tel que conçu traditionnellement) est-il une condition suffisante pour devenir lecteur? Loin d'être banale, cette question a de tout temps marqué les débuts de l'apprentissage de la lecture et, sous le couvert de concepts différents, elle est encore au coeur des débats actuels.

27. Pierre, R. (2000). *Prévenir l'illettrisme: la responsabilité de l'école du XXI^e siècle*. M. Ebrahimi. La mondialisation de l'ignorance. Montréal, IQ. p.69-88.

Il y a moins de cinquante ans, cela prenait 4 ans pour être alphabétisé c'est à dire

pour apprendre les mécanismes de base de la lecture. Aujourd'hui les enfants qui ne savent pas lire dès la première année commencent à accumuler du retard dans toutes les matières scolaires, car quelle que soit la matière, il faut savoir lire pour apprendre. Et cela fait boule de neige. Les enfants ayant moins de connaissances ont moins de vocabulaire, comprennent moins les textes et butent davantage sur les mots. C'est pour cette raison que le terme d'alphabétisation n'est plus utilisé dans le contexte scolaire. Comme le montre cet article, apprendre à lire aujourd'hui n'a plus la même signification qu'il y a cinquante ans, alors qu'il suffisait de connaître le b-a-ba pour être reconnu comme alphabétisé. Les enfants d'aujourd'hui doivent apprendre à lire plus vite et atteindre des niveaux de littératie plus élevés que leurs parents et leurs grands-parents. Pourtant plus de 30% des jeunes finissent leur secondaire sans avoir atteint les niveaux de littératie qui sont requis aujourd'hui pour s'intégrer dans le marché du travail et fonctionner dans les sociétés à haut niveau de littératie. Dans la mesure où, depuis cinquante ans, la scolarisation est obligatoire jusqu'à l'âge de seize ans, c'est à dire jusqu'à la fin du secondaire, l'école est en grande partie responsable de cette situation.

28. Pierre, R. (2003). *Entre alphabétisation et littératie: les enjeux didactiques*. Revue française de linguistique appliquée, VIII (1), 121-136.

Il a fallu plus de vingt ans pour que l'on reconnaisse le concept de littératie en français. Outre des arguments de terminologie et d'orthographe, les opposants faisaient généralement valoir la redondance avec le concept d'alphabétisation que l'usage avait établi comme la traduction de *literacy*. Paradoxalement cette position était soutenue par certains qui, par ailleurs, faisaient la promotion de l'approche *Whole-Language*. Or, l'un des fondements de cette approche est justement le rejet des conceptions traditionnelles d'enseignement de l'écrit qui dérivent du concept d'alphabétisation. Aujourd'hui que l'approche *Whole-Language* est remise en question, doit-on donner raison à ses opposants et revenir aux conceptions traditionnelles? Comme nous tenterons de le montrer dans cet article, ce serait là méconnaître les fondements épistémologiques qui sous-tendent le débat des méthodes et ignorer les leçons de l'histoire.

29. Puchner, L. D. (1997). *Family literacy in cultural contexts: Lessons from two case studies*. Philadelphia, PA, National Center on Adult Literacy.

Three sets of assumptions usually generalize across numerous models of family literacy programs in the U.S. First, these programs assume that literacy flows in a unidirectional path from parent (usually mother) to child. Second, programs assume certain literacy interactions occur in the home. For example, children develop strong literacy skills in the home because parents provide children with opportunities to engage in school-like activities. Third, these programs assume that becoming literate affects families positively. However, Puchner argues that the ability to become literate in a language can significantly impact, change, and may even breakdown existing community and family structures. In two case studies—one of Southeast Asian immigrants in the U.S. and another of four

villages of southern Mali—the author provides empirical evidence to question the appropriateness of these assumptions. Puchner concludes with recommendations for flexible approaches to family literacy, the understanding of positive and negative effects of literacy programs on communities, and the need to integrate and implement evaluation into family literacy program components.

30. Purcell-Gates, V. (1993). *Issues for family literacy research: Voices from the trenches*. Language Arts 70: 671-677.

This article explores issues researchers of family literacy must address to achieve valid study results. These issues include better understanding the relationship among poverty, families with low literacy levels, and emergent literacy; finding effective methods for understanding the ways in which families contribute to future school success; attempting to gain more congruence between the results of studies and the perceptions and experiences of the families and communities being studied; and refraining from inferring causal relationships from correlations. Purcell-Gates illustrates these issues with an example of an ongoing family literacy study.

31. Purcell-Gates, V., S., L'Allier, et al. (1995). *Literacy at the Harts' and the Larsons': Diversity among poor, innercity families*. The Reading Teacher 48(7): 572-578.

Describes four inner-city families and the ways in which they use print in their daily lives. Finds wide variation in the degrees to which print permeates the lives of inner-city children, in both the extent to which family members use print and the types of print being written and read. (SR)

32. Purcell-Gates, V. (1995). *Family literacy*. M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson and R. Barr (eds). Handbook of Reading Research. Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. 3. p.853-870.

Family literacy, as an educational construct considered relevant as a focus of research relatively new. Although the practice of literacy within families is recognized to having existed over the centuries, it is only within the last few decades that it has emerged from the background of schooling and literacy development to appear highlighted and foregrounded for educational theorists, policymakers, teachers, and researchers. Suddenly, the ordinary has become extraordinary and special, and the subject of family literacy has become a topic of national attention and concern. As we have begun to recognize and focus on the phenomenon of family literacy, its very definition has become elusive. At the moment, there is real lack of agreement as to what family literacy is, what it means for schooling, what it means for literacy development, and how, or if, we should go about researching it, instituting it, promoting it, (even «doing it,» whatever «it» may be! Given this ambiguity, however, I attempt in this chapter to characterize the construct of family literacy as it now is viewed by researchers in the field of literacy and to synthesize the research that has been done with it as its focus,

across the different perspectives. The reader must be aware, however, that this topic is a constantly evolving one and this synthesis is only a snapshot of that evolvment at this moment in time.

33. Purcell-Gates, V. (2000). *Family literacy*. M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson and R. Barr (eds) Handbook of Reading Research. Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum.

This chapter divides into three parts. The first part reviews the research that provides the foundation on which family literacy is based. These areas include the family as a foundation for learning, language and literacy development; emergent literacy; written, vocabulary/language, print, phonological awareness and letter-sound knowledge; as well as motivation. The second part discusses two different approaches to family literacy. Descriptive approaches to family literacy focus on how families use literacy. Pedagogical approaches focus on the kinds of family literacy programs. Family literacy programs range from teaching or training families specific literacy practices to beliefs that approaches need to incorporate mutual respect and collaboration with families. The third part reviews the effectiveness of family literacy programs on the impact of children's skills, achievement, and attitudes; the impact on parents' academic skills, literate behaviors, and confidence/ self-esteem; and the impact on parent/child literacy interactions. The chapter ends with conclusions based on the family literacy research and with suggestions for future research in family literacy.

34. Sticht, T. G. (1995). *Adult education for family literacy*. Adult Learning 7(2): 23-24.

Looks at the increasing rate of illiteracy in developing countries and the role of family literacy programs in combating the trend. Describes family literacy programs as different from traditional literacy programs in that they are designed to maximize the probability that adults will succeed in transferring their new beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, and skills to their children. (JOW)

35. Tracey, D. H. (1994). Family literacy: Research synthesis. Annual meeting of the National Reading Conference (44th), San Diego, CA.

Despite the growing prominence of programs and funding related to family literacy, a comprehensive review of the professional literature on the topic has yet to be published. The need for such a document is great, both from the point of view of researchers, policy decision makers and those new to the field. For this study, two primary indexes within the ERIC system, Resources in Education (RIE) and Current Indexes to Journals in Education (CIJE) were searched using the descriptor «family literacy». In all, 409 abstracts were read and reviewed and 135 primary articles were analyzed. The abstracts and papers sorted themselves easily into three main categories: research emphasis (19%), program descriptions (33%), and position papers (38%). Additionally, 10% of the files either did not open, or were found to be completely unrelated to the topic under study. Three

primary findings result from the synthesis of article and abstracts within the area of research emphasis. They are: (1) that many of the studies in this area have addressed highly focused areas as opposed to broad ones; (2) that many of the studies focused on areas that have been well-documented in other disciplines; and (3) that few of the studies concentrated on program efficacy. Of the 73 articles and abstracts in this category, 35 were found to have a primary focus well-documented in other fields of literature. Review of this literature reveals therefore problems, strengths, and needs within the discipline. One of the most prominent problems is the absence of well-agreed-upon definitions within the field. Another problem is the extremely small percentage of publications examining family literacy initiatives from an academic research perspective. And a third and related problem is that academic researchers are choosing questions of narrow focus. (Contains 33 references.) (TB)

36. Venezky, R. L. (1991). *The development of literacy in the industrialized nations of the west*. R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. Mosenthal and P. D. Pearson (eds.). Handbook of Reading Research. N.Y., Longman. II. p.46-68.

The goal of this chapter is to trace the complex changes within the histories of the Western industrialized nations; primarily from the rise of feudalism until the end of the first quarter of this century, when most of these nations had attained--or were close to attaining--universal literacy. This is not intended to be a comprehensive chronicle of literacy within the countries of interest, but instead a perspective for viewing literacy development, with emphasis on those issues of theory and methodology that are of interest to readers of this text. The primary focus here is the practice of literacy, its expansion over time, and the evidence for both the quantity and quality of literacy at different periods in Western history. Little attention is given to speculations on the consequences of literacy (e.g., Goody & Watt, 1968; Stock, 1983; Eisenstein, 1979) or on conspiracy theories, particularly those that posit manipulation of children through reading practices or of the masses through literacy expectations (e.g., Graff, 1979).

37. Wasik, B. H., R. D. Dobbins, et al. (2001). *Intergenerational family literacy: Concepts, research and practice*. S. B. Neuman and D. K. Dickinson (eds.). Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press. p.3-10.

Wasik and her colleagues discuss family literacy programs and the complex issues that surround such programs. They review research on programs that strives to foster children's development by enhancing the literacy skills of parents and conclude that there is only limited evidence for the effectiveness of these efforts. However they point to hopeful findings that program intensity and direct child services are consistently important aspects of family literacy programs. Then using a typology of approaches to work with, they describe those programs that coach families in valued practices and those that strive to understand a family's world view and create interventions that build on parents strengths.

38. Weinstein-Shr, G. (1992). Family and intergenerational literacy in multilingual families. ERIC Q&A. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics, National Clearinghouse on Literacy Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 378 848).

In this document, the author addresses five questions related to family and intergenerational literacy programs and the multilingual families enrolled in these programs. Weinstein-Shr first addresses the subtle difference between family and intergenerational literacy programs by explaining that the first term focuses primarily on the parent and child while the second term more broadly includes other adults. She identifies the goals of these programs to be promoting parental involvement; improving of skills, attitudes, values, and behaviors associated with reading; increasing the social significance of literacy; and addressing the unique problems of relocated families. The author suggests that programs build on family strengths, emphasize collaboration, and acknowledge both the native culture of the participants as well as the new culture. In addition, she suggests continuing ethnographic research because the functions and uses of language and literacy in specific communities is becoming increasingly important.

B. Interventions

Mots clés : *Projets; programmes; approches; littératie familiale; littératie inter générationnelle; stratégies d'intervention; ressources communautaires; matériel éducatif; guides*

39. Alamprese, J. A. and F. Tao (2001). *Family independence initiative (FII): Lessons learned about developing and delivering family literacy services to welfare recipients*. Bethesda, MD, Abt Associates, Inc.

The National Center for Family Literacy (FCFL) began the Family Independence Initiative (FII) to address the needs of welfare recipients and their families for literacy services. During the FII's development phase in 1997-1998, NCFL funded five family literacy program grantees to develop models of work-focused family literacy services. To satisfy welfare requirements, the grantees ensured that the onsite family literacy services offered were central to developing participants' basic and work preparedness skills, and they infused career awareness and work preparedness activities in the adult education, parent time, and early childhood component of services. Based on the lessons learned in the development phase, NCFL implemented a pilot phase (1998-2000) in which 11 grantees in 6 cities were funded. The pilot phase established the importance of the following elements to program success: (1) a solid organizational infrastructure; (2) identification of target populations so that core program components can be tailored to them; (3) internal program coordination and coordination with other agencies; (4) adequate time for the planning and coordination that are critical to successful integration of curricular activities; and (5) technical assistance in areas

such as developing core services and collecting and interpreting data. A follow-up study of FII participants is planned in order to understand the FII's long-term outcomes. (MN)

40. Auerbach, E. R. (1990). Making meaning making change: A guide to participatory curriculum development for adult ESL and family literacy. Boston, University of Massachusetts, Bilingual/ESL Graduate Studies.

This guide offers ideas for adult literacy curriculum development using a participatory approach. Its intent is not to prescribe a curriculum but to raise issues associated with the varied needs of limited-literacy students and with development of curricula to address these needs. An introductory section discusses how the guide evolved and can be used. Chapter 1 explains the principles behind the participatory approach to curriculum development. Chapter 2 discusses program structure, including the relationship between structure and practice, the institutional context, staffing, site selection, student population, admission, orientation, and support services. The third chapter moves into the classroom, looking at the participatory cycle in action. Chapter 4 discusses how to find student themes, including establishment of a participatory atmosphere, practice of conscious listening for issues, problems, and concerns, and use of catalyst activities to elicit these issues and concerns. The fifth chapter discusses how to develop curriculum around themes, and recurring issues arising in the process are examined in chapter 6. Chapter 7 looks at how students can and do use literacy to make meaningful change in their lives. The eighth chapter outlines issues and methods in student evaluation. A list of additional resources is appended.

41. Barbara Busch Foundation (1989). First Teachers: A family literacy handbook for parents, policy-makers, and literacy providers. Washington, DC, Barbara Bush Foundation for Family Literacy.

This handbook presents annotated «snapshots» of 10 innovative family literacy programs, almost all of which were begun by an individual with a vision of a new way to solve a demanding educational problem. Profiles depict, in terms of background, characteristics, evidence of success, and advice to policymakers and practitioners, the: (1) Parent and Child Education (PACE) Program; (2) Kenan Trust Family Literacy Project; (3) SER Family Learning Centers (FLCs) of SER-Jobs for Progress, Inc.; (4) Parent Readers Program; (5) MOTHEREAD, Inc.; (6) Mothers' Reading Program; (7) Arkansas Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters (HIPPY); (8) Parents as Partners in Reading: A Family Literacy Program for Teachers and Administrators; (9) Parent Leadership Training Project; and (10) Avance Family Support and Education Program. A chart summarizes program characteristics, including goals, target population, outreach, funding, support services, materials, special features, and outcomes. Contact information for programs and a list of additional sources of information and assistance are provided. (RH).

42. Darling, S. and A. E. Hayes (1989). The William R. Kenan, Jr. charitable trust family literacy project, final report 1988-1089. Louisville, KY, National Center for Family Literacy.

This document reports on the Kenan Trust Family Literacy Project carried out in seven sites in Kentucky and North Carolina in 1988–89. The goal of the project was to improve the educational outcomes of children and their parents labeled “at risk” by combining efforts to provide quality early-childhood education with efforts to improve the literacy and parenting skills of undereducated parents. The children participated in a preschool program while their parents received education and vocational training. The project also included Parent and Child Together (PACT), when parents and children worked and played together, and group Parent Time (PT), where parents met to discuss personally significant topics and problems. Research revealed seven types of parents with unique characteristics related to program participation, motivation, capability, needs, and the likelihood of accomplishment. In two groups, the majority of parents did not expend sufficient time or effort to make progress in their own or their children’s lives. In the other groups almost all of the parents and their children made significant gains. The report lists recommendations for adoption of the model.

43. Darling, S. (1992). *Family literacy: Parents and children learning together*. Principal 72: 10-12.

Darling states that a mother’s literacy is the best predictor of a child’s academic success. In addition, parents who are undereducated or intimidated by schools often do not become involved in their child’s learning. Darling states that the most effective literacy programs are intensive and include the whole family. The author discusses the Kenan Family Literacy Model and how its goal of breaking the intergenerational cycle of illiteracy is addressed by the program’s components. The literacy programs based on the Kenan Model include the following four components: adult basic skills instruction; early childhood education; parent time; and PACT (parent and child together). Preliminary results indicate that this model is effective for both the children and the adults. Darling reports that parents are more likely to continue with family literacy programs than with other adult education programs.

44. Dever, M. T. (2001). *Family literacy bags: A vehicle for parent involvement and education*. *Issues in education*. Journal of Early Education & Family Reviews 8(4): 17-28.

Describes the Family Literacy Bags program, objectives of which include engaging parents and children in reading and emphasizing parent education by providing instruction on effective ways to support literacy development. Offers recommendations for program implementation and improvement. Notes that the program has been a success and has continued to grow and develop. Also

provides funding ideas for implementation. (SD)

45. Elish-Piper, L. (1997). *Literacy and their lives: Four low-income families enrolled in a summer family literacy program*. Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy 40: 256-268.

This article describes a qualitative study of 13 low-income families who participated in a summer family literacy program. In her examination of families, the author was guided by the socio-contextual perspective that calls for looking at strengths and intact literacy patterns in families, (see Taylor, 1983; Taylor & Dorsey-Gaines, 1988; and Heath, 1983). Multiple data collection methods were used to obtain information through parent interviews, dialogue journals done by parents, field notes taken by the researcher and literacy artifacts. This article highlights four family profiles thought to represent the range of situations within the families. The four profiles include families in which (a) literacy was used to handle personal issues and challenges, (b) literacy activities emerged as the source of competition between parent and child, (c) reevaluation of literacy activities took place, and (d) literacy activities were used to show nurture and support for one another. The author concludes that the families in the study all used literacy for meaningful purposes and these purposes differed based on the social-contextual factors within each family at that point in time. She further concludes that the activities around literacy used by families were not necessarily the school-types of literacy that dominate family literacy curriculum.

46. Enz, B. J. and L. W. Searfoss (1995). *Let the circle be unbroken: Teens as literacy learners and teachers*. L. M. Morrow. Family literacy : Connections in schools and communities chapitre 8. New Brunswick, NJ, Rutgers University.

On présente un programme qui s'adresse à des adolescents dans une école secondaire et qui propose un cours de littératie familiale en collaboration avec une classe de première année d'une école primaire. Une adolescente sur 10 aux États-Unis devient enceinte. Ces jeunes mères ont plus de chances d'avoir eu des difficultés scolaires, d'être de faibles lecteurs, sont souvent seules avec leur enfant et rencontrent de nombreuses difficultés dans leur éducation. On met de l'avant l'importance de la relation affective entre parent et enfant dans la lecture de livre comme base de la littératie. Les jeunes parents n'ont souvent pas vécu ce type d'expérience et sont donc moins en mesure de le vivre avec leurs enfants. Ce sont les raisons qui ont mené à l'élaboration de ce cours pour les ados, parents ou non.

47. Gelfer, J., K. Higgins, et al. (2001). *Literacy education and families: A program and its progress*. Early Child Development and Care 167: 39-50.

The author describe the development, implementation, and evaluation of Project Literacy Education and Families (LEAF), a family literacy program that provides experiences for parents to develop their skills and confidence that will enable them to see possibilities instead of limitations. Details four Program components:

adult literacy, early childhood education, parent education and parent-child literacy, and play interaction time. (Author/KB)

48. Grumm, M. and B. Van Horn (1998). *Adult competencies resources guide 1998*. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania State Univ., University Park. Inst. for the Study of Adult Literacy. Pennsylvania State Dept. of Education.

The resource guide presents educators' reviews of instructional materials and resources related to adult and family literacy education, including workplace literacy. Materials reviewed include commercially available classroom materials, Internet sites, computer software, videotapes, and audiotapes. The materials reviewed were drawn from a survey of adult educators, commercial sources, and a scan of Internet resources. The guide has four main sections covering materials for family literacy, workplace literacy, community and citizenship education, and personal growth and daily living skills. A final section reviews materials appropriate for instructor use but incorporating materials for learners. Information contained in the reviews includes instructional level, availability of a teacher's guide, material types, reviewer rating, and availability, in addition to basic bibliographic information, publisher, and competencies targeted. A scan of a single page form the materials may also be included. An explanation of ratings and sample rating forms are included. (MSE) (Adjunct ERIC Clearinghouse on Literacy Education)

49. Janes, H. and H. Kermani (2001). *Caregivers' story reading to young children in family literacy programs: pleasure or punishment?* Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy 44(5): 458-66.

Focuses on some of the ways in which literacy program participants from immigrant cultures take up the literacy information and procedures offered to them by their host culture. Demonstrates ways in which institutional responses to nontraditional forms of literacy can be accurately identified and program implementation effectively modified to better serve nonmainstream children and their caregivers. (SG)

50. Kerka, S. (1992). *Family literacy programs and practices: Practice application brief*. ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career and Vocational Education.

This Practice Application Brief serves as an overview of some of the basic components of family literacy programs. The brief begins by discussing the philosophy that underlies family and intergenerational literacy programs and perspectives from which the programs are modeled. The author exposes programs based on an empowerment model (drawing on family strength) rather than those based on the "deficit" model. The author classifies effective family/intergenerational literacy programs into four categories based upon Nickse's model. The four models (adult direct-children direct, adult indirect-children indirect, adult direct-children indirect, and adult indirect-children

direct) are discussed with a description and example provided for each type. Also included in this brief are strategies for effective program implementation. Topics discussed with regard to implementing and maintaining an effective program are audience, recruitment and retention, subject matter, and recognition.

51. Langley, L. P., D. P. Brady, et al. (2001). *Family literacy in action: The prime time family reading time program*. Public Libraries 40(3): 160-61, 164-65.

Presents an overview of the Prime Time Family Reading Time program, a family literacy program that is based in public libraries and incorporates the presentation of children's literature with the discussion of humanities-based questions for low literacy, at-risk parents and their children aged six and older. (Author/LRW)

52. Le Tendre, M. J. (1997). *Strengthening the ties between title and family literacy*. Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk 2: 3-5.

The author of this article provides suggestions on how Title I can support initiatives such as family literacy to enhance parent involvement. Because Even Start limits family involvement to families with children between the ages of 0 to 8, Title I funds can target family literacy initiatives for families with children older than 8 years. Schools can also use Title I monies to implement family literacy models or supplement existing programs. For example, Title I funds can be used for preschool services.

53. Levesque, J. and K. Hinton (2001). *Show me family literacy! Missouri's guide for establishing family literacy*. St. Ann, LIFT-Missouri, St. Ann.

This guide is designed to lead program planners through the course of building and implementing a family literacy program. It provides planning teams with an orientation to a four-component model of family literacy, community resources, planning strategies, examples of programs in Missouri, recent research findings, case study vignettes, and checklists for designing quality programs that achieve their intended goals. The 11 chapters of the program are organized in four parts. Following a glossary, Part One provides a conceptual framework for family literacy programs, including background on family literacy, the Even Start family literacy program, and program planning. Part Two examines these four components of family literacy: adult literacy education, early childhood education, parenting education, and parent and child together time. Part Three offers ideas for program operation and evaluation, including how to establish a home base and a program evaluation process. Part Four contains a chapter listing resources for assistance with program components, related World Wide Web sites, Missouri organizations and foundations, and a list of 21 references. (KC)

54. Monsour, M. and C. Talan (1993). Library-based family literacy projects. Chicago, IL, American Library Association.

The connection between the public library and family literacy programs is becoming increasingly stronger as a result of the Bell Atlantic/ALA Family Literacy Project and the Families for Literacy program initiatives. This publication serves as a directory of library-based family literacy programs, and reports on their development as a legitimate approach to the problem of low literacy. It describes twelve outstanding library-based family literacy programs and identifies certain program components that can be replicated in libraries everywhere to facilitate program expansion.

55. Muro, A. (1997). *Taking the «K.E.A.D.» in family literacy: Literacy education action for the deaf; Final report*. Texas, El Paso Community Coll.

This paper describes the activities and outcomes of a program in literacy education for the deaf funded by the Barbara Bush Foundation for Family Literacy. The «L.E.A.D.» program began in El Paso, Texas, on September 1, 1995, and ceased operations on July 31, 1997. The program was designed to improve communication in economically disadvantaged families with parents who are deaf and who have hearing children in order to enhance the children's future social interactions and the reading, writing, and oral/sign skills of family members. A total of 18 parents and 30 children participated in the program. The program was divided into two components: classroom instruction and home visits. Classroom instruction was further divided into three components: family literacy, computer literacy, and academic literacy. Results from the program indicate the classes and home visits had a very positive effect on the families. There has been considerable increase in communication between parents and children and families looked forward to coming to the classes and to the home visits. Often the children looked for guidance in hearing adults and the classes served as a mechanism for children to ask their parents for guidance. This also encouraged the entire families to learn a standardized form of communication. (CR)

56. National Center for Family Literacy (1995). *Family literacy : Putting the pieces together (participant's manual)*. Louisville, KY, National Center for Family Literacy.

This manual serves as a training guide for instructors of family literacy programs. The guide focuses on component integration, teambuilding, and collaboration, which together foster effective family literacy programs. The component integration section of the manual defines the term, provides examples, lists what individual program components have to offer in integration, discusses ways to address curriculum integration, offers a list of guidelines for implementing component integration, and demonstrates sample planning worksheets for component integration. The teamwork section of the manual describes what teamwork is, who are considered members of the team in family literacy programs, attributes of effective teams and team members, and a description of the Four Stage Model of Team Development. The manual also offers examples of ways to help build teamwork. The collaboration section discusses the importance

and process of collaborating. The manual provides a checklist of strengths and barriers to successful collaboration and a sample collaboration chart which tracks the benefits of collaborative relationships between a program and the various agencies with which it interacts.

57. National Center for Family Literacy (1995). Family literacy: Parent/child interaction time (participant's manual). Louisville, KY, National Center for Family Literacy.

This manual, focusing on parent/child interaction time, serves as a part of the training for family literacy programs. It discusses the importance of parent/child interaction, outlines the definition and structure of parent/child interaction time, and promotes ways in which this interaction time can be successfully transferred to the home. Included in the manual is a typical example of parent/child interaction time, in addition to a listing of what is and is not considered to be parent/child interaction time. The importance of parents learning to facilitate their child's learning is discussed by means of listing characteristics of emergent literacy and describing the role of parents and play in a child's learning process. The manual includes a list of common problems and solutions for implementing parent/child interaction time and a list of suggested questions to be examined during the planning of a program to foster parent/child interaction.

58. National Center for Family Literacy (1995). *Family literacy : Parent groups (participant's manual)*. Louisville, KY, National Center for Family Literacy.

This manual serves as a guide for programs intending to develop and implement parent groups. Included are sections discussing the purposes of parent groups, the definition and examples of parent groups, issues targeted by parent groups, and the role and responsibilities of a staff member involved with a parent group. The manual provides a sample session plan, a parent survey, and a sequencing of topics for parent groups. Group dynamics and facilitating skills are addressed by underlining the importance of communication, involvement, and respect among group members. Methods used to empower families are also discussed. In addition, strategies for facilitating personal growth for parents (e.g., self-esteem and problem solving) and questions that should be examined while developing a parent group are included.

59. National center for family literacy (1997). *The family literacy answer book*. Louisville, KY, National Center for Family Literacy.

The objective of this book is to address many of the questions that are often asked about implementing family literacy programs, developing curriculum, and meeting the needs of families. Another intention of this guide is to provide resources for effective family literacy programs such as lesson plans and a bibliography. This guide is divided into 10 chapters covering the following topics: collaboration, curriculum development, adult education, early childhood education, infants/toddlers, parent and child together time, parent groups, home

visits, and component integration. The guide includes over 70 lesson plans involving adult education, early childhood education, parent and child together time, and parent groups.

60. National Center for Family Literacy (1997). Funding a family literacy program. Louisville, KY, National Center for Family Literacy.

Funding a family literacy program is a 12-page guide offering a step-by-step process to secure funding. These steps include (1) developing a mission statement, (2) identifying the funding sources available to you, (3) presenting your case, (4) asking for support, (5) managing your funding, and (6) asking your funding agency for more support. This guide offers a beginning framework valuable to a family literacy program starting to think about funding.

61. National Center for Family Literacy (2000). *Connecting families and work: Family literacy bridges the gap*. Louisville, KY., National Center for Family Literacy.

Noting that the need for basic skills education among the current labor force cannot be easily met by vocational training alone, this booklet presents the case for family literacy education to improve the skills of unemployed workers and describes the work of the National Center for Family Literacy (NCFL). Family literacy is defined as having four components: (1) adult education; (2) parent time; (3) children's education; and (4) parent and child together time. The booklet argues that family literacy has been shown to be an effective strategy for helping families gain self-sufficiency and presents findings from NCFL research comparing the effectiveness of family literacy programs with that of adult or early childhood education programs delivered in isolation. Further, the booklet discusses how family literacy programs are becoming more work-focused and more infused with practical work experiences to increase their effectiveness for families leaving welfare for work and presents results of studies supporting the work-literacy connection. Descriptions from various family literacy programs across the country highlight how these programs are working to provide outcomes that sustain families and meet the needs of today's employers. The booklet concludes by asserting that family literacy is a welfare-to-work strategy that focuses on strengthening the family unit while helping parents become economically stable. (KB)

62. National center for Family Literacy (2001). *Creating partnerships for learning: Family literacy in elementary schools*. Louisville, KY., National Center for Family Literacy.

Building on the link between parents' education and children's academic achievement, the Families in Schools model of family literacy brings at-risk elementary school students and their parents together to learn in the elementary school setting. This book describes the model, presents the federal definition of family literacy, and argues that incorporating the Families in Schools model

would be an effective strategy for improving student achievement and enhancing parent participation in their children's education. Further, the booklet details the components of the model and discusses how they are applied in the elementary school setting: (1) children's education; (2) adult education; (3) parent time; and (4) parent and child together time. Suggestions are given for developing successful family literacy programs at the elementary school level, including setting the school climate, integrating family literacy into the school culture, eliciting staff enthusiasm, planning teamwork, and recruiting and retaining families. Key roles for a high-quality Families in School program are described, including the district coordinator, school principal, elementary school teacher envoy, adult education teacher, and the parent liaison. The booklet concludes by asserting that current school reform efforts work to capitalize on a subtle but long-held tradition of family literacy and parent involvement and that this tradition must be at the forefront of public education to enrich the lives of today's children. (KB)

63. National Center for Early Development & Learning. (2001). *Family literacy bibliography, NCEDL Spotlights, no. 32*. Chapel Hill, NC, National Center for Early Development & Learning.

This report announces the publication of an annotated bibliography on family literacy and family literacy programs. The bibliography summarizes writings and research on family literacy and on topics directly relevant to family literacy programs. Directed toward program staff, researchers, community leaders, and policymakers, the publication covers topics in the areas of conceptual issues, studies related to family literacy programs and practices, program development, assessment, and curriculum and instruction. Also included are topics that have implications for family literacy, including emergent literacy, adult literacy, parent-child interaction, and intergenerational programs. Three sample entries from the bibliography are presented, in addition to information on how to order copies. (KB)

64. National Institution for Literacy (2002). *Eff voice, winter 2002*. Washington, DC, National Institution for Literacy.

This newsletter reports on the activities of Equipped for the Future (EFF), which is a National Institute for Literacy initiative. EFF helps Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) recipients build the skills needed to balance work and home and make a successful transition to work. The article «EFF Frames Family Literacy Programs» defines family literacy as services integrating the following activities: (1) interactive literacy activities between parents and their children; (2) training for parents regarding how to be the primary teacher for their children and full partners in the education of their children; (3) parent literacy training that leads to economic self-sufficiency; and (4) an age-appropriate education to prepare children for success in school and life experiences. The article «EFF in a Family Literacy Classroom» explains how teachers and learners can use the 16

EFF literacy education content standards for the following purposes: (1) design meaningful, real-world learning activities; (2) observe and document evidence of mastery of the standards in class; and (3) collect evidence of transferring skills into real-life contexts. Other articles in the newsletter examine the following topics: the role of reading in EFF; EFF activities in Hawaii, Maine, Missouri, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Washington; and services and online resources available from EFF. (MN)

65. Neuman, S. B. (1997). *Guiding young children's participation in early literacy development: A family literacy program for adolescent mothers*. Early Child Development & Care 127-128: 119-29.

Describes intervention approach designed to enhance intersubjectivity between adolescent mothers and children. Proposes that model based on the theory of guided participation enhances mothers' sensitivity to children's learning processes. Based on observation during implementation of the model, claims that engaging parents and children in mutual activities that include book reading may constitute richest potential for supporting literacy development. (MOK)

66. Neuman, S. B., T. Hagedorn, et al. (1995). *Toward a collaborative approach to parent involvement in early education: A study of teenage mothers in an African American community*. American Educational Research Journal 32: 801-827.

This study addresses the challenge of creating a collaborative approach to parent involvement. As part of a family literacy program, participants in the study were 19 African-American adolescent parents from low-income backgrounds whose children attended an early intervention program. Parents' beliefs about learning and literacy were sought through a series of peer group discussions. The data revealed a continuum of perspectives ranging from behavioral to constructivist beliefs, suggesting important intragroup variability within this particular sociocultural group. The discussions also revealed shared goals that may be used to forge collaborative relationships between parents and professionals in the interest of improving African-American children's early education. Illustrations from a family literacy program are used to show how parent beliefs may be incorporated into programmatic changes, building constructive relationships that work toward supporting children's success in schools.

67. Neuman, S. B., D. Celano, et al. (1996). *The children's literature hour: A social-constructivist approach to family literacy*. Journal of Literacy Research 28(4): 499-523.

Reports the results of a series of peer group discussions with adolescent mothers enrolled in a family literacy program. Finds that literacy was seen as important because it served as a tool to address economic and social concerns; and parents' goals for themselves focused on independence, being a role model to their

children, and self-respect. (RS)

68. Neuman, S. B., B. J. Caperelli, et al. (1998). *Literacy learning, a family matter*. Reading Teacher 52(3): 244-52.

The author analyzes successful family literacy projects. Finds defining characteristics and key features of practice that can be used to establish effective family literacy programs: offers literacy instruction to families, broadly defined; creates strategic recruitment plans; emphasizes retention; creates a supportive environment; and includes ongoing monitoring of program quality from multiple stakeholders and participants.

69. Nickse, R. S., A. M. Speicher, et al. (1988). *An intergenerational adult literacy project: A family intervention/prevention model*. Journal of Reading 31: 634-642.

This article discusses the effectiveness of the *Collaborations for Literacy program*, an intergenerational adult basic education and literacy program at Boston University. Two important research questions are examined: (1) Does the intergenerational approach have a positive impact on beginning adult readers; and (2) What are the benefits to the children of parents enrolled in an intergenerational program? In addition to its basic teaching curriculum, various other intervention techniques were used in the study, including weekly consultation for tutors and learners, literacy “socials” for parents and their children, and in service training for tutors on literacy-related topics and techniques. Preliminary data on adult participants suggest that vocabulary and comprehension reading gains were made as a function of the number of hours spent in tutoring. No results were available yet for children. Based on the preliminary analyses, the authors report ten important suggestions to keep in mind in the development of a successful intergenerational literacy program.

70. Nickse, R. S. (1990). *Family literacy programs: Ideas for action*. Adult Learning: 9-13 28-29.

In this article, Nickse addresses factors that perpetuate illiteracy. She then discusses benefits of family literacy programs, including improved attitudes, behavior, and reading skills for parent and child. Although there has been some empirical evidence supporting the effectiveness of programs, there needs to be more research in the field. For example, she found no evidence of changes in achievement for participants in family literacy programs. Nickse describes four basic models for delivering family literacy services and provides examples of each type of program. Suggestions for designing programs that address local needs, as well as ways to secure funding for programs are discussed. Nickse also addresses issues related to program design effectiveness (e.g., collaboration and parent participation) and administration and management of programs (e.g., staff, funding, and sites). The author then covers some matters associated with teaching (e.g., collaborative approaches and multiculturalism). The article concludes with

tips for program evaluation (e.g., techniques and information dissemination).

71. Nickse, R. S. (1990). *Family and intergenerational literacy programs: An update of «the noises of literacy»*. Columbus, Ohio, ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career and Vocational Education, The Ohio State University Center on Education and Training for Employment.

This report serves as a comprehensive overview of family and intergenerational literacy programs for a wide audience, including policymakers, legislators, program administrators and staff, and individuals interested in family literacy education. The first section of this report provides background information such as definitions, purposes, federal legislation, and sponsorships that have produced literacy initiatives, program expectations, and reasons and motivations for validating program development. The second section of the report discusses research from related fields of study that justify family and intergenerational literacy program growth. In the third section, the author describes family and intergenerational literacy programs in the following five sectors: (1) adult basic education; (2) libraries; (3) family English literacy; (4) preschool and elementary education; and (5) corporations and businesses. A table is included in the report that depicts strengths and challenges for each sector. A typology for classifying family and intergenerational literacy programs based upon the intervention type and target is presented. The result is four models of programs (direct adults-direct children, indirect adults-indirect children, direct adults-indirect children, and indirect adults-direct children) for which the author provides examples and discusses advantages and disadvantages for each.

72. Nurss, J. R. (2000). *Intergenerational literacy: The use of story in family literacy instruction*. ELT Journal 54(4): 362-68.

Describes an intergenerational literacy English-as-a-Second-Language program. Stories were used to foster language and literacy development in English and participants' native language. Activities were built on the oral tradition. (Author/VWL)

73. Packard, B. W. L. (2001). *When your mother asks for another book: Fostering intergenerational exchange of culturally relevant books*. Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy 44(7): 626-33.

Packard explores the bi-directional benefits of family literacy practices involving English as a Second Language (ESL) immigrant parents and their children. Discusses the literature on family literacy and culturally relevant texts. Shares and analyzes the case of a shared reading practice. Suggests that this informal family literacy practice could help to further discussions about ESL learners and their children. (SG)

74. Padak, N. and D. Cook (1990). Family literacy programs training manual. Columbus,

OH, Ohio State Dept. of Education, Division of Adult Basic Education.

This manual is comprised of nine 1-hour training sessions for adult participants in family literacy programs. The authors note that the sessions can be combined or used individually. This feature allows a trainer greater flexibility in customizing the program to the needs of the participants. The training sessions focus on the following topics: (1) the process of literacy learning; (2) emerging literacy; (3) environments for literacy learning; (4) children's literature; (5) promoting reading fluency; (6) environmental print; (7) promoting writing growth; (8) language-experience activities; and (9) reading-reasoning activities. For each section, the authors provide goals, procedures for implementation, and a reference list for further learning on the session's topic. Also included are worksheets for activities that promote active participation among group members. Two sessions include handouts with suggestions for language activities that parents can engage in with their children. The training session on children's literature provides a handout with questions, answers, and recommendations for reading with children. A listing of appropriate books for designated grades (1–4) is included. There are two reference lists, one focusing on parents and reading, and the other on intergenerational literacy.

75. Padak, N., C. Sapin, et al. (2002). *A decade of family literacy: Programs, outcomes, and future prospects. Information series*. Columbus, OH, ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education, Columbus, OH.

This paper reviews and synthesizes reports about family literacy programs and practices, focusing on outcomes for adult learners. Emphasis is on resources available in the ERIC database beginning in 1990. Section 1 on programs reviews sometimes conflicting definitions of family literacy and finds that a common thread is strengthening intergenerational literacy and preparing parents and caregivers for their role as children's first teachers. It discusses policy and funding issues at federal and state levels and addresses these three issues critical to family literacy program success: staff quality, curricular assumptions and instructional practices, and collaboration within and outside programs. Section 2 describes kinds of assessment models used for participants and programs and discusses these outcomes documented in research: increased adult academic, social, and job skills and employment possibilities; higher enrollment in early childhood education; gains in school readiness; parents as positive role models for doing academic work and persisting in the face of difficulties; children's increased interest in literacy activities; improved home literacy environments; and closer family relationships. Section 3 summarizes the findings by describing a prototype of a successful family literacy program and highlighting areas needing additional research. Appendixes include a research matrix with purpose, scope, and design of 35 studies; an annotated list of 21 family literacy websites; and a map of Even Start programs. (Contains 58 references.) (YLB)

76. Palmer, B. C., S. M. Leiste, et al. (2000). *The role of storytelling in effective family*

literacy programs. Reading Horizons 41(2): 93-103.

Notes how the family literacy movement, which emphasizes respect for diversity and the cultural heritage of participants, is gaining momentum. Considers how the art of storytelling provides an excellent vehicle for promoting and enhancing language and literacy development within families. (SG)

77. Peyton, T., M. G. Wheeler, et al. (1998). *States can use family literacy programs to support welfare reform goals. Issue brief*. Washington, DC, National Governors' Association, Washington, DC. Center for Best Practices.

Studies have shown an inextricable link between under-education and chronic, intergenerational welfare dependency. With welfare reform focusing on moving individuals into the workforce more quickly, state welfare reform efforts to assist low-income parents and their children are needed. Incorporating family literacy instruction into welfare-to-work programs is one of the strategies that states can use. Family literacy facilitates the transition from welfare to work, raises rates of adult employment and child school readiness, improves children's learning, and can help welfare recipients get and keep jobs. States can implement the following activities that tie family literacy to welfare-to-work programs: (1) define family literacy as an allowable activity under the state's work requirements; (2) have family literacy instructors serve as case managers; (3) add family literacy programs to the post-employment support system; (5) use existing resources to support family literacy programs; (6) use block grant funds to encourage the provision of multiple services to serve the family unit; (7) designate family literacy programs as allowable sites for child care funds; (8) use Department of Labor Welfare-to-Work formula grants to serve families in family literacy programs; (9) use federal funds to strengthen the father figure's role in the family; and (10) create family literacy programs targeted to teen parents. An appendix provides information on the National Center for Family Literacy Funds Family Independence Initiative Demonstration Projects. (Contains 12 endnotes.) (KC)

78. Philliber, W. W., R. W. Spillman, et al. (1996). *Consequences of family literacy for adults and children : Some preliminary finds. Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy* 39: 558-565.

This study describes the Toyota Families for Learning Program which employs the Kenan Model developed by the National Center for Family Literacy. This family literacy program is compared to both adult-focused education programs and child-focused education programs to determine whether family literacy programs are more effective than those programs that focus on just one generation. Although these results are preliminary, in all the outcomes measured for both adults and children, more gains were made in the family literacy program. The author also offers insight into why this difference may exist.

79. Ponzetti, J. J. and W. J. Bodine (1993). *Family literacy and parent education*. Adult Basic education 3(2): 106-114.

Family literacy programs are a collaborative effort of adult basic education, early childhood/elementary education, and parent education. The key factor is parent education, focusing on application and generalization of learned skills to family life and providing services to minimize barriers to participation. (SK)

80. Popp, R. J. (1991). Past and present educational experiences of parents who enrolled in Kenan trust family literacy programs. Louisville, KY, National Center for family literacy.

This document examines the education, both past and present, of 34 parents who had dropped out of high school and were enrolled in 5 Kenan Trust Family Literacy programs in Kentucky and North Carolina. More than half of the respondents had been previously enrolled in adult education courses from which they had dropped out before completing the high school equivalency certificate. The study was conducted to determine the reasons participants had dropped out of high school and why they had subsequently enrolled in adult education programs. Results indicated that the main underlying cause of school dropout was a process of disengagement from schooling that the respondents began to experience as early as the transition from elementary to middle school. This alienation also played a large role in the dropout of participants from adult education programs, in which they had enrolled primarily to get their GED. The author of this document states that a chief reason participants remained in family literacy programs was that these programs addressed their sense of alienation, enabling them to identify with schooling.

81. Purton, D. (2000). Family literacy standards, Saskatchewan Literacy Network, Saskatoon.

This document presents and discusses the 12 family literacy standards for family literacy programs in Saskatchewan, Canada, that were developed during a 2-year process by Saskatchewan's Family Literacy Best Practices committee. The document is: (1) an educational tool to develop greater understanding of effective literacy practices; (2) a program evaluation tool; and (3) an aid for family literacy program and project development. The introductory section defines family literacy as encompassing the many ways and everyday situations in which adults engage in and use literacy and language and the emergent literacy of children. Ten examples of family literacy practices outside school settings are listed. The benefits of family literacy are explained along with the philosophy guiding family literacy work. The remainder of the document is a questionnaire containing between 5 and 21 questions on each of 12 family literacy standards pertaining to the following aspects of family literacy programs/projects: (1) effective communication; (2) philosophy; (3) participant and community involvement; (4) content; (5) access; (6) recruiting and supporting participants; (7) staffing; (8)

working with volunteers; (9) family support services; (10) assessment; (11) administration; and (12) funding. An alphabetical listing of standards and list of Best Practices Committee members are appended. (MN)

82. Quezasa, S. and R. Nickse (1992). Community collaboration for family literacy handbook. Boston, MA, Massachusetts State Board of Library.

This handbook is the result of a 16-month project in which six Massachusetts communities worked on the development and implementation of a collaborative plan for family literacy. The goal of the project was to enable the public libraries in the participating communities to serve at-risk families through the development of a family literacy program. The handbook is divided into three major sections. The first provides general background on the history of family literacy and the family literacy initiative, as well as a discussion on the importance of collaboration and steps to consider when designing a collaborative project. Part two takes a more in-depth look at the collaboration process and makes specific suggestions on ways to best facilitate progress. Part three helps the reader through the step-by-step process of writing a successful literacy proposal. Appendixes include an analysis of the Massachusetts Community Collaborations for Family Literacy Project Model (the motivation behind this handbook). Also included is an extensive annotated family literacy resource guide for parents, teachers, and family literacy and community collaboration program development.

83. Quintero, E. and M. C. Velarde (1990). *All in the family: Bilingualism and biliteracy*. The Reading Teacher 44(306-312).

This article discusses several aspects of the Family Initiative for English Literacy (FIEL) project employed by the El Paso Community College Literacy Center. It includes the rationale for the model on which the project is based, a description and assessment of the project's goals, the content of the curriculum, and implications for classrooms with language minority students. A detailed account of one family's progress within the program is also provided.

84. Rodriguez-Brown, F. V. and M. M. Mulhern (1993). *Fostering critical literacy through family literacy : A study of families in a mexican-immigrant community*. Bilingual Research Journal 17: 1-16.

This article presented a study on Project FLAME (Family Literacy Aprendiendo, Mejorando, Educando [Learning, Improving, Educating]), a family literacy program aiming to increase the literacy skills of 3- to 5-year-old children by working with their Mexican-immigrant parents. This program offered four components. Literacy modeling helped parents become literacy models for their children. The literacy opportunity component showed parents how to increase the availability of literacy materials for their children and the literacy interaction component assisted parents in learning how to engage their children in literacy activities. Last, the home school relationships component encouraged parent

involvement with the school. Through case studies, interviews, and anecdotal evidence, the authors demonstrated that Project FLAME assisted parents in helping with their children's literacy skills. The authors argue that through helping parents develop their functional literacy skills (literacy skills to meet individual needs for functioning in society), critical literacy is fostered so that families can become empowered to make changes in their lives and their community.

85. Rogers, R. (2002). *Between contexts: A critical discourse analysis of family literacy, discursive practices, and literate subjectivities*. Reading Research Quarterly 37(3): 248-77.

The author draws on a study of the literate lives of two African Americans living in urban poverty. Suggests that the nonalignment between home and school discourse communities is not the only, or even perhaps primary problem for the subjects. Suggests that explanations must account for the complexity of literate subjectivities through the process by which split and fragmented subjectivities are acquired. (SG)

86. Saracho Olivia N. (1997) *Home literacy program and children's development of literacy*. Perceptual & Motor Skills. Vol 85(1) 185-186.

This study assessed the relation between family's involvement in a home literacy program and children's development of literacy. Differences in outcomes between 48 kindergarten children whose parents participated in a parent program and 54 whose parents did not were examined by multivariate analysis of variance which indicated significantly higher scores for the children whose parents participated in the program. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

87. Saracho, O. N. (1997). *Perspectives on family literacy*. Early Child Development and Care 127-128: 3-11.

For more than a decade, research has demonstrated the importance of parent-child interactions in developing literacy. Language and literacy theories have been generated and research has been conducted on home literacy strategies. Evidence confirms that parent literacy programs are effective in the children's literacy development. Research on the value of extensive interventions can suggest ways to improve the parents' interactions with their children during literacy experiences.

88. Saracho, O. N. (2002). *Family literacy: Exploring family practice*. Early Child Development and Care 172(2): 113-22.

Reviews literature on family influence on children's acquisition of literacy. Discusses the ambivalence regarding family literacy theories and the lack of family literacy theoretical frameworks. Identifies types of family involvement and

effective literacy strategies for families. Finds that most studies suggest that family literacy contributes to young children's literacy development. (Author/KB)

89. Schwartz, W. (1999). *Building on existing strengths to increase family literacy*. New York, NY, ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education.

This digest focuses on strategies for reaching families and increasing family literacy that reflect the strengths families already have. The Federal Even Start Family Literacy Program, authorized in 1988, is the catalyst for much of the family literacy activity nationally. Funded programs must adhere to Even Start's core organizational curriculum, and evaluation requirements and goals, but program models vary greatly and the degree to which programs reflect and involve the families they serve varies, although multisite programs tend to be more generic in organization and curriculum. Recruitment strategies that reflect cultural diversity and local norms, stress personnel contact, and use former program participants are most effective. Considering themselves partners in the learning process both engages and empowers parents. Some curriculum components have been shown to increase family literacy program effectiveness with diverse learners. Especially effective are those that create opportunities for developing traditional literacy skills while showing participants that their native ways of communication are also valid literacy activities. Developing parental skills is the goal of all family literacy programs, and those that build on participants' strengths also build participants' self-esteem. (Contains 12 references.) (SLD)

90. Schwartz, W. (1999). *Family literacy strategies to support children's learning*. ERIC Digest number 144. New York, NY, ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education.

To help guide family literacy program developers in shaping their curriculum, and educators and community leaders in creating independent parenting programs, this digest describes the parenting education component of successful urban programs. In general, family literacy programs have three basic components: adult education, parenting education, and early childhood education for preschoolers. The parenting skills component of family literacy programs generally includes training parents to be their children's primary teachers and full partners in the children's education and interactive literacy activities involving parents and their children. Usual places of service, curricula, staffing, and ancillary services are described. Ongoing evaluation that includes the perspectives of participants helps ensure the efficacy of a program. (Contains 11 references.) (SLD)

91. Segel, E. and J. B. Friedberg (1991). «*Is today liberty day?*»: *Community support for family literacy*. Language Arts 68: 654-657.

This article discusses Beginning with Books, a literacy agency affiliated with the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh. The authors describe three family literacy programs implemented by Beginning with Books to promote children's and

adults' literacy: (1) the Gift Book Program, which draws on existing community services to help distribute picturebook gift packets to families with young children; (2) READ TOGETHER, a program that provides child care and one-on-one storybook reading sessions for children while their parents partake in literacy tutoring; and (3) Read-Aloud Parent Clubs for Head Start parents in which parent-child storybook reading is discussed and modeled and books are given out at each meeting for parents to read to their children at home. The authors believe that all three program can easily be replicated and provide sources to obtain additional information on Beginning with Books.

92. Shanahan, T., M. M. Mulhern, et al. (1995). *Project FLAME: Lessons learned from a family literacy program for linguistic minority families*. The Reading Teacher 48: 586-93.

This family literacy program has been successful in helping Latino/parents support their children's school learning. On the basis of experiences in this program, the article answers a series of practical questions concerning the design and implementation of family literacy instruction for linguistic minority families

93. Taylor, D. (1981). *The family and the development of literacy skills and values*. Journal of Research in Reading 4(2): 92-103.

Presents initial findings of three years of research with six families in which the children were considered by their parents to be successfully learning to read and write. Suggests that multigenerational family literacy patterns mediated by personal experiences are important to the development of a child's reading and writing skills. (FL)

94. Tett, L. and R. St. Clair (1997). *Family literacy in the educational marketplace: A cultural perspective*. International Journal of Lifelong Education 16(2): 109-120.

The authors discuss two recent developments, the spread of family-centered approaches to literacy education and the view of the family as a consumer of education. They argue that the view of families as consumers of education has led to a school centered dominance of family literacy programs. They highlight a number of problems they see as associated with the implementation of family literacy programs that espouse school-centered approaches to literacy. By contrast, they advocate programs that are responsive to the family's culture and that support home-based literacy uses. They also argue against a deficit-based view thought to be guiding current beliefs in the field of family literacy.

95. Tett, L. (2000). *Excluded voices: Class, culture, and family literacy in Scotland*. Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy 44: 122-28.

Examines a family literacy program based in a disadvantaged area of Scotland, to show how deficit views of children and their parents (feeling that one's own ways

of speaking and writing are «wrong») might be challenged and overcome so that real learning can take place, learning that focuses on people's strengths and different types of language and literacy. (SR)

96. Tice, C. J. (2000). *Enhancing family literacy through collaboration: Program considerations*. Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy 44: 138-45.

Presents findings from a two-year evaluation of a family literacy program in rural Appalachian Ohio. Demonstrates positive results for both impact/outcome and process objectives. Highlights an extensive network of interpersonal and interagency relationships that maximized resources and supported families as they changed. Suggests the importance of collaboration and nurturing a sense of community in fostering a successful learning environment. (SR)

97. Whitehouse, M. and C. Colvin (2001). *Reading families: Deficit discourse and family literacy*. Theory into practice 40(3): 212-219.

Describes family literacy, examining how families are already read by teachers, researchers, policymakers, and the media and arguing that the rhetoric of family literacy has defined the family in somewhat pathological terms. The paper examines the continued pervasiveness of deficit discourses to describe families, noting why it prevails in the language of those who believe they are rejecting it. (SM)

98. Wolter, D. L. (1995). *Becoming family literacy advocates in early childhood education*. Early Education Journal 23(2): 89-91.

This article discusses the important role that early childhood educators can play in promoting family literacy. Ways are addressed for early childhood educators to be sensitive and supportive of family literacy. Wolter emphasizes the need to (1) "Recognize that family literacy is highly individualized;" (2) "Provide nonjudgmental and confidential support;" and (3) "Use strengths as resources for literacy enrichment in the classroom."

99. Winter, M. and J. Rouse (1990). *Fostering intergenerational literacy: The Missouri parents as teachers program*. The Reading Teacher 43(6): 382-386.

There is growing agreement among educators that interventions targeting child literacy must more broadly recognize the entire family as the client, and must respect the culture and value system of that family. The Missouri Parents as Teachers program (PAT) employs this family-centered approach and has become the model for early childhood family education in Missouri. This paper describes the services the program offers, their curriculum, how PAT promotes literacy, and the variety of parent-child activities. Implications for local school districts are discussed. A general evaluation of the project is also included.

100. Wolter, D. L. (2000). *Embracing family literacy*. Early Childhood Education Journal 33(2): 52-54.

Offers ways for early childhood and elementary teachers to explore a family's use of and priorities for literacy. Includes ethnographic vignettes emphasizing strategies for viewing families neutrally and avoiding assumptions and judgment. Asserts that to understand the family's literacy experiences and priorities will more closely connect curriculum and children's literacy growth. (KB)

101. Zakaluk, B. L. and B. J. Wynes (1995). *Book bridges: A family literacy program for immigrant women*. Journal of Reading 38: 550-557.

The first phase of Book Bridges, an English-as-a-Second Language literacy project for immigrant women and their children, was evaluated. Fifteen clients completed the first 10-week, 60-hour program designed to increase English vocabularies, give clients opportunities to express ideas in English, and provide a framework for facilitating comprehension and memory both for stories and informational text. Each class had the following format: literature circle, writer's workshop, reading, and dialogue journals. Results of the Gates-MacGinitie standardized test, informal reading inventory, and other program data indicated that comprehension performance increased significantly, and although vocabulary growth was not significant, students were more confident as learners and found reading to their children beneficial. When costs were related to benefits gained by participants, the program was found to be cost effective. A number of questions and concerns arose in terms of managing the program. Key issues involved the target group, housing the program, program duration, volunteer recruitment and training, program orientation and assessment, refreshments, and publicity. (Recommendations in three categories--instruction and assessment, cost effectiveness, and program management--are provided throughout the report. Appendixes include 32 references, data tables, materials used and developed in the program, informal reading inventory, and standardized test results.) (YLB)

C. Even Start

Nous avons regroupé sous cette rubrique les publications recensées qui se situaient par rapport au programme Even Start, le programme fédéral américain de support à la mise en place d'intervention en littératie familiale.

«Even Start programs integrate early childhood education, adult literacy or basic education, parenting education and support, and parent and child time to help break the cycle of poverty and illiteracy.»

102. Anderson, A. B. (1999). *Colorado Even Start progress report, 1999-2000*. Denver, Colorado State Dept. of Education.

Even Start programs integrate early childhood education, adult literacy or basic education, parenting education and support, and parent and child time to help

break the cycle of poverty and illiteracy. This report describes the Even Start program in Colorado, and includes evaluation questions and methods. The report presents evaluation findings from the third year of implementation of a system of coordinated local evaluations, with both quantitative findings and family stories to illustrate the educational and self-sufficiency gains made by Even Start families. Key findings of the program evaluation include the following: (1) family participation has steadily increased over the preceding 3 years, with 63 percent of parents attending 80 percent or more of program activities; (2) 35 percent of parents seeking to pass the GED exam did so; (3) 84 percent of Even Start teen parents enrolled in high school stayed in school; (4) the percentage of Even Start parents graduating from English as a Second Language classes and moving into adult basic education classes increased over the preceding 3 years; (5) 95 percent of Even Start infants and toddlers and 85 percent of preschoolers were functioning at age-appropriate levels; (6) 80 percent of preschoolers were enrolled in early childhood education; (7) the percentage of parents who improved their employment status increased each year over the preceding 3 years; and (8) almost \$145,000 in taxes were saved by a decrease in the amount of assistance Even Start families qualified for and received this year. The report concludes with recommendations for improving Even Start in Colorado. Appendices provide summary data from the 1999-2000 progress report and a directory of Colorado Even Start programs. (Contains 13 references.) (KB)

103. Anderson, A. B. (2001). Colorado Even Start progress report, 2000-2001. Denver, Colorado State Dept. of Education, Denver.

Even Start programs integrate early childhood education, adult literacy or basic education, parenting education and support, and parent and child time together to help break the cycle of poverty and illiteracy. This progress report describes the Even Start program in Colorado, and includes evaluation questions and methods. The report presents evaluation findings from the 2000-2001 year of implementation, including information on educational gains of adults and children, parenting goals, self-sufficiency goals of families, and cost effectiveness of the program. Key findings of the program evaluation include the following: (1) there were some decreases in family outcomes as compared to the 1999-2000 year in the areas of family program attendance, parents continuing education beyond high school, preschoolers' enrollment in preschool programs in addition to Even Start, parent employment, and families leaving welfare rolls; (2) the GED pass/high school graduation rate was 53 percent, the highest for the past 4 years; (3) 93 percent of eligible teen parents graduated from high school; (3) the percentage of Even Start children promoted to the next grade level in the primary grades has remained at 90 percent or above for the past 4 years; (4) public school attendance increased this year compared to the last 2 years; and (5) the average cost of serving an Even Start family fell below the national average from 3 years ago. The report's 3 appendices contain the 2000-2001 progress report data collection form, list the state performance measures and 2000-2001 *outcomes*, and give contact information for each Colorado Even Start program. (Contains 15

references.) (KB)

104. Dimidjian, V. J. (2001). *Helping vulnerable families give their children an Even Start toward school success: One rural community's efforts*. Childhood Education 77(6): 379-85.

Describes the Even Start Family Literacy Program in Immokalee, Florida, which has helped parents gain language skills, find community connections and services, and learn parenting and job skills, while also providing their children with positive educational experiences. Includes case studies of four families, as well as listing program accomplishments and continuing challenges. (SD)

105. Dimidjian, V. J. (2001). *Helping vulnerable families give their children an Even Start toward school success: One rural community's efforts*. Childhood Education 77(6): 379-85.

Describes the Even Start Family Literacy Program in Immokalee, Florida, which has helped parents gain language skills, find community connections and services, and learn parenting and job skills, while also providing their children with positive educational experiences. Includes case studies of four families, as well as listing program accomplishments and continuing challenges. (SD)

106. Gamse, B. C., D. Conger, et al. (1997). Follow-up study of families in the Even Start in-depth study, final report. Cambridge, MA, Abt Associates, Inc.

This report discusses the findings of a study designed to follow-up the children of families studied in the original In-Depth Study (IDS) done in the first National Even Start Evaluation. In the IDS, families from five sites were randomly assigned to either Even Start programs or a comparison group. For the follow-up study, data was collected on 128 of the 179 children (72 percent) included in the random assignment group of the IDS. The majority of the children in the follow-up study were in the first or second grade. Data was collected from school records and included attendance rates, grades and achievement tests. In addition, information was obtained from school staff on school-level policies. The authors report that the school environments attended by both the intervention and comparison groups were relatively homogenous. There were no significant differences between the Even Start and comparison group for level of participation in special programs. There was great variation in the type of achievement tests given as well as the purpose of administering the test. However, when children were given the same test, no significant differences were found. No grade differences were found between the two groups when controlling for a number of child and family variables. While the average rate of participation did not differ for children in Even Start and the comparison group, the average tardy rate was significantly less for the Even Start children. The authors conclude by explaining that these findings are not surprising, because programs demonstrating significant effects used a wider variety of measures and had a longer duration

between completion of the program and follow-up studies. They suggest that with a longer interval and more comprehensive measures, “meaningful differences” may emerge.

107. Hugues, S. and R. Botkins (2001). National Forum on family literacy. Collaboration and quality proceedings. Arlington, VA., National Center for Family Literacy, Louisville, KY.

The National Forum on Family Literacy was convened to encourage and facilitate collaboration among programs at the state level to improve the quality of family literacy services. This forum provided an opportunity for state-level representatives of Head Start, Even Start, Even Start Statewide Family Literacy Initiatives, and Adult Education to share common priorities, identify promising strategies and practices, and develop approaches to sharing resources and services. These proceedings capture the «sense» of presentations from the 2001 meeting. Presentation topics range from creating successful collaborations to implementing the latest findings from research. Included are states' experiences in establishing collaborations and building a family literacy infrastructure. Researchers' presentations of implications of their findings on collaboration and on adult education, early childhood education, parent education, and English Speakers of Other Languages are also summarized. The appendix includes shared information from participants on vision statements and reflections, biographies of presenters, the federal statutory definition of family literacy services, a list of general resources, and a list of attendees, with contact information. (KB)

108. Johnson, R. L., M. J. Willke, et al. (1998). *Stakeholder collaboration in the design and implementation of a family literacy portfolio assessment*. American Journal of Evaluation 19(3): 339-53.

Describes the collaborative process and the lessons learned when the staff of a family-literacy program and an evaluator worked together to design and implement a portfolio assessment that was used to collect program-evaluation information for the Even Start program over two years. Discusses opportunities to collaborate in the development of this assessment. (SLD)

109. Johnson, R. L., F. I. McDaniel, et al. (2000). *Using portfolios in program evaluation: An investigation of interrater reliability*. American Journal of Evaluation 21(1): 65-80.

Studied the interrater reliability of a portfolio assessment used in a small-scale program evaluation. Investigated analytic, combined analytic, and holistic family literacy portfolios from an Even Start program. Results show that at least three raters are needed to obtain acceptable levels of reliability for holistic and individual analytic scores. (SLD)

110. Levesque, J. and K. Hinton (2001). *Show me family literacy! Missouri's guide for establishing family literacy*. St. Ann, LIFT-Missouri, St. Ann.

This guide is designed to lead program planners through the course of building and implementing a family literacy program. It provides planning teams with an orientation to a four-component model of family literacy, community resources, planning strategies, examples of programs in Missouri, recent research findings, case study vignettes, and checklists for designing quality programs that achieve their intended goals. The 11 chapters of the program are organized in four parts. Following a glossary, Part One provides a conceptual framework for family literacy programs, including background on family literacy, the Even Start family literacy program, and program planning. Part Two examines these four components of family literacy: adult literacy education, early childhood education, parenting education, and parent and child together time. Part Three offers ideas for program operation and evaluation, including how to establish a home base and a program evaluation process. Part Four contains a chapter listing resources for assistance with program components, related World Wide Web sites, Missouri organizations and foundations, and a list of 21 references. (KC)

111. Levin, M., B. C. Gamse, et al. (1997). *National evaluation of the Even Start family literacy program: Report on migrant Even Start projects*. Bethesda, M.D., Abt Associates and Fu Associates.

This report evaluates three Even Start Migrant Education Programs: the Arizona Migrant Even Start Project, the Pennsylvania Migrant Even Start Project, and the Wisconsin Migrant Even Start Project. Discussion of each project includes: program structure and administration, characteristics of the communities served, family recruitment, content and delivery of services, staff characteristics, service component coordination, participation and follow-up strategies, evaluation of Even Start Information System, and conclusions. The challenges faced by programs are as follows: hiring qualified staff, adapting service delivery to families' schedules, interagency collaboration, continuity of services between home base and receiving site, providing support services, dealing with isolation in the community, and obtaining Spanish language curriculum. Recommendations from this report include: increase collaboration across Even Start sites, encourage communication between migrant Head Start and Even Start programs, provide more technical assistance, and provide opportunities for Migrant Even Start projects to share experiences with other Even Start Projects.

112. Levin, M., G. Moss, et al. (1997). National evaluation of the Even Start family literacy program: Report on Even Start projects for indian tribes and tribal organizations. Bethesda, MD, Abt Associates and Fu Associates.

This report presents an evaluation of three tribal Even Start projects: The Cherokee Nation Even Start Project, Makah Even Start Project, and Pascua Yaqui

Even Start Project. The Cherokee Nation Even Start Project was based on home-based services and the Makah Pascua Even Start Projects implemented a combination of home-based and center-based services. The report covers the following: community characteristics (economics, education, health), family recruitment, staff characteristics, content and delivery of services, coordination of service components, participant and follow-up strategies, project impacts, and features important to success and challenges faced.

113. McCarthy, S. J. (1997). *Making the invisible more visible: Home literacy practices of middle-class and working-class families*. Early Child Development & Care 127-128: 179-89.

Interviews with eight families showed that literacy materials and goals for using literacy differed between middle and working class families, with middle class families drawing on more resources to learn about the child's classroom. However, all families expressed value for literacy activities, challenging the myth that working-class families do not value literacy nor understand the nature of classroom activities. (MOK)

114. Ponzetti, J. J. and W. Dublin (1997). *Parent education in Washington State Even Start Family Literacy Programs*. Early Childhood Education Journal 25(1): 23-29.

The authors argue that parent education is the most critical component of family literacy yet it is the most elusive in the literature. The purpose of this study was to understand and document parent education practices in Even Start Family Literacy Programs. In 1991-92, the 24 Even Start Programs in Washington state were asked to complete a survey on the educational preparation of instructors, the content of parenting education classes, as well as the methods used by parent education teachers. The findings are based on responses from 16 sites. The programs focused on parents and their unique needs, provided services in a variety of settings for easy access, and educated parents about their influences in the practices of family literacy. The authors discuss the importance of state mandates to guide parenting education efforts. They conclude by noting that quality parenting education efforts need not be to the detriment children's education programs. The programs that responded appeared to be able to provide parent education without neglecting the education of children.

115. Riedinger, S. (1997). *Even Start : Facilitating transitions to kindergarten*. Washington, DC, US Department of Education, Planning and Evaluation Service, Office of the Undersecretary.

The purpose of this report was to document and describe effective kindergarten strategies used by Even Start projects, as well as to develop recommendations for the U.S. Department of Education, other federal agencies, and early childhood and parenting education programs who have an interest in the

transition to kindergarten. Data was analyzed through the Even Start Information System. Qualitative data was also collected and analyzed through visits to five Even Start projects with transition programs perceived as being high quality. The transition services described were specifically designed to support families as children moved to kindergarten and included such approaches as kindergarten orientation, educating parents about transition services, and meeting with school staff about children's strengths and needs. Approaches considered successful across the Even Start projects include emphasizing family strengths, developing and maintaining long-term relationships with families, empowering families to identify their needs, and being flexible in providing services. Difficulties of transition projects are also discussed, as well as recommendations.

116. Schwartz, W. (1999). Building on existing strengths to increase family literacy. New York, NY, ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education.

This digest focuses on strategies for reaching families and increasing family literacy that reflect the strengths families already have. The Federal Even Start Family Literacy Program, authorized in 1988, is the catalyst for much of the family literacy activity nationally. Funded programs must adhere to Even Start's core organizational curriculum, and evaluation requirements and goals, but program models vary greatly and the degree to which programs reflect and involve the families they serve varies, although multisite programs tend to be more generic in organization and curriculum. Recruitment strategies that reflect cultural diversity and local norms, stress personnel contact, and use former program participants are most effective. Considering themselves partners in the learning process both engages and empowers parents. Some curriculum components have been shown to increase family literacy program effectiveness with diverse learners. Especially effective are those that create opportunities for developing traditional literacy skills while showing participants that their native ways of communication are also valid literacy activities. Developing parental skills is the goal of all family literacy programs, and those that build on participants' strengths also build participants' self-esteem. (Contains 12 references.) (SLD)

117. Seaman, D. F., V. Hoffman, et al. (2000). «Families First» family literacy project annual report, 2000. Texas, Texas A and M Univ., College Station. Texas Center for Adult Literacy and Learning. p. January 2001.

The Texas «Families First» project was started to accomplish the following: (1) strengthen the capacity of local family literacy projects to design, support, and administer high quality programs by leveraging resources from several agencies in the state; and (2) finalize the indicators of program quality (IPQs) in early childhood education for Even Start family literacy programs. The three institutions of higher education involved in the project during the first year identified instruments for assessment in early childhood education and provided opportunities for staff in Head Start and Even Start programs to learn to use the

instruments and to conduct follow-up meetings with Even Start programs. Findings from the meetings included the following: (1) only 51 percent of Even Start programs were represented at the focus group meetings; (2) although participants learned a great deal about the instruments, they did not feel they were able to administer them properly without more training; (3) three assessments were identified as used most often in Even Start; (4) participants identified strengths and weaknesses for the five instruments demonstrated in the training meetings; and (5) some programs plan to add at least one of the instruments to their assessment package. Recommendations were made for improvements in the timing of assessment training, cost of assessment instruments, standardization of assessment across the state, program accountability, input from early childhood specialists in the development of the IPQs, accountability based upon factors beyond a local program's control, and standardization versus the unique needs of each program. (KC)

118. Seaman, D. F. (2000). *Effects of selected Even Start family literacy programs in Texas on participating children and parents.*

Even Start family literacy programs in Texas were evaluated by outside evaluators. Data were gathered from two groups. The first group consisted of 631 families who were enrolled in 11 Even Start programs in Texas during the 1998-99 and 1999-2000 program years. A survey, in English or Spanish, was administered to all parents in attendance on two days in late spring and academic gains were measured by standardized tests. The second group consisted of 582 families who had exited the same Even Start programs during the 1996-1999 program years. From this second group, about 25 families per program were contacted for data. Some of the findings of the study were the following: (1) parents have definite goals when enrolling in Even Start; (2) parents learn about Even Start from a variety of sources; (3) parents in Even Start increase their reading and writing activities and their academic abilities; (4) participating in Even Start increases the amount of time parents read to their children, help their children with learning activities, and spend with their children's teacher; (5) children in Even Start increase their academic abilities and improve in school; (6) parents are more likely to become employed after participating in Even Start programs; (7) parents in Even Start programs believe they have become good role models for their children; (8) parents who participate in Even Start programs become better consumers; and (9) families who participate in Even Start become more involved in their communities, become healthier, and feel more in control of their lives. (Contains 20 tables.) (KC)

119. Seaman, D. F. and C. Y. Yoo (2001). *The potential for Even Start family literacy programs to reduce school dropouts.* Preventing School Failure 46(1): 42-46.

A study involving 313 parents participating in 13 Even Start family literacy programs found parents gained self-confidence in their ability to learn, engaged in more literacy activities as they progressed, began to visit their children's teachers

regularly, and had high expectations of their children succeeding in school. (Contains references.) (CR)

120. St-Pierre, R., A. Ricciuti, et al. (2000). Synthesis of state and local Even Start evaluation. Washington, DC, US Department of Education.

Commissioned by the U.S. Department of Education, the objective of this synthesis was to report on the presence and nature of Even Start Family Literacy Program state and local evaluations that exist. Specifically, this study reviews state and local evaluation through describing the types of evaluations conducted, summarizing the findings of these evaluations, and developing recommendations for improving state and local evaluation practices. Information for the evaluations was requested during the 1996–97 school year. Because the process of obtaining evaluation reports proved to be difficult, this study had a sample of convenience which examined closely 24 “high quality” evaluations. This report found a diversity of local evaluation methods, an indication that projects used evaluation funds for primary concerns to the local project. The authors also discussed the inherent conflict of multilevel (i.e., local, state, and national) evaluation that Even Start faces. Further, the authors discuss the influences of the evaluation’s design (i.e., age of project, amount of funds). This report concludes with a list of recommendations for local and state evaluations.

121. St-Pierre, R. G. and J. P. Swartz (1995). *The Even Start family literacy program*. I. E. Sigel and S. Smith (eds). Advances in applied developmental psychology. Two generation programs for families in poverty : A new intervention strategy. Advances in applied developmental psychology. Norwood, NJ, Ablex Publishing Corporation. Volume 9. p.37-66.

This article provides a well-detailed overview of the Even Start program and the Even Start National Evaluation conducted by ABC Associates. After describing the history of the development of family literacy programs, the authors define core components as well as describe a comprehensive model placing Even Start in the context of population, community, and service characteristics. A description of the National Even Start Evaluation is also provided. Some highlighted areas from the Evaluation include: characteristics of Even Start participants, descriptions of core services (early childhood education, adult education, and parent and child time together), home-based services, support services and special events, service integration, program participation, recruitment strategies, retention strategies, and participation rates.

122. St-Pierre, R., J. P. Swartz, et al. (1995). The Even Start family literacy program: Final report. Bethesda, MA, Abc Associates Inc.

(from the introduction) [examined] the Even Start Family Literacy Program / discuss a number of design and implementation issues, based on early analyses of

program operations and family participation / include the challenges of integrating the 3 main components of the program--early childhood education, adult education, and parent education--and meeting the social service needs of high-risk families / provide a . . . comparison of the characteristics of Even Start participants with families served by 2 other programs discussed in this volume, the Comprehensive Child Development Program and Head Start (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

123. Tao, F., J. P. Swartz, et al. (1997). National evaluation of the Even Start family literacy program : 1995 Interim Report. Washington, DC, US Department of Education Planning and Evaluation Service.

This report discusses the second national 4-year (1993–97) evaluation of the Even Start Family Literacy Program at the completion of its second year (1994–95). Data from a sample of 57 out of 513 programs across the U.S. operating during 1994–95 were used for the evaluation. The report addresses several key issues in its 10 chapters, beginning with an introduction to the Even Start Program and description of both the previous and current evaluation. A comprehensive description of the Even Start families is included as well as ways in which these families are served by the program and participant use of services. One chapter addresses whether or not those families in greatest need were served by and benefited from Even Start. Next, educational and developmental outcomes are provided for the 57 projects in the Sample Study. A discussion of how the findings relate to the results of the first 6 years of the program and ways in which these outcomes vary as a function of participant and project characteristics are included. The report concludes with a discussion of technical, administrative, and other issues involved in the implementation of Even Start programs as well as important evaluation findings.

124. Tao, F., B. C. Gamse, et al. (1998). National evaluation of the Even Start family literacy program 1994-1997 final report. Washington, DC, U.S. Department of Education, Planning and Evaluation Service.

This final report for the second national Even Start evaluation covers the program years 1993–97. During this time period, the number of projects participating increased from 439 to 605. At least 90 percent of projects submitted data on participant characteristics, services, implementation, costs and participant outcomes for analysis in the Universe Study for each year of the study. For the most part, the programmatic trends reported in the first evaluation remained constant. In addition, 57 Even Start projects were selected to submit more comprehensive data on child cognition, adult educational progress, and parenting education. Following new families for up to 3 years beginning in 1993, participant outcomes were determined based on pretest-posttest differences and growth curve analysis. Children continuing to participate in Even Start made greater gains than expected on the basis of development alone. The educational gains for adults in Even Start were modest and comparable to those seen in the first evaluation and

other adult education programs. Positive gains were seen in scores in parenting education for parents with children between birth and 3 years of age and parents with children ages 3 through 6.

125. Yaffe, D. and C. L. Williams (1998). *Why women chose to participate in a family literacy program and factors that contributed to the program's success*. Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy 42(1): 9-19.

Finds that the supportive environment of «women helping women» was the hallmark characteristic of a local Even Start family literacy program and that participants were not consciously thinking about family literacy but joined the program for themselves and gave no indication of seeing the connection between the adult literacy component and the early childhood component. (SR)

126. Zulmara, C. (2001). *Reading parties: Helping families share the joy of literacy*. Reading Teacher 55(3): 236-37.

Recognizes the critical role parents play in helping young children become successful readers and writers. Describes how the Even Start program encourages families to host a party for a small group of friends and family in their home to help families gain access to the knowledge, skills, and resources they need to create a literate environment in the home. (SG)

D. Évaluation

Mots clés : *Méthodologies d'évaluation; modalités d'évaluation; instruments; résultats; efficacités des interventions; critiques*

127. Association for community based education (1993). Effective practices in community based family literacy: Results of a national research and evaluation projects. Washington, DC.

A field evaluation of 14 community-based family and intergenerational literacy programs identified the most effective strategies, structures, and approaches to reach and teach the «hardest to reach.» Information was collected through 90-minute telephone surveys with program coordinators and/or executive directors. Although different in structural design, the programs had similar philosophies and approaches in improving family and intergenerational literacy. Literacy skills development had the following characteristics: it addressed learners' needs, issues, and interests; it focused on practical application; it was participatory; and it supported parents in assuming and enhancing their roles as children's «first teachers.» Life skills and/or parenting education were a critical component of each program. All programs provided supportive services, a nonthreatening learning environment, broad-based and learner-centered literacy education,

traditional and innovative nontraditional instructional approaches, and traditional and nontraditional assessment methods. An outcome of the project was recommendations for program improvement in three major areas--education and service delivery, staffing, and overall administration--and for research, policy, and staff development. (The 25-page report is followed by these appendixes: survey; field research protocol, interview process, and interview questions; program case studies and profiles; and sample program documents. Contains 13 references.) (YLB)

128. Brooks, G., T. Gorman, et al. (1996). Family literacy works. London, England, The Basic Skills Agency.

This book reports on the evaluation of The Basic Skills Agency's Family Literacy Demonstration Programs by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER). The first part of the book describes the family literacy initiative in general and the various programs and their evaluations. The latter half is devoted to answering the following questions: (1) How effective were the Family Literacy Demonstration Programmes?; (2) Why were they effective?; and (3) What lessons and recommendations can be drawn from this information?

129. Baker, L., S. Sonnenschein, et al. (1999). *A five-year comparison of actual and recommended parental practices for promoting children's literacy development*. I. K. Roskos. Early literacy at the crossroads: Policy, practice, and promise, National Reading Research Center, College Park, MD. National Inst. of Child Health and Human Development (NIH), Bethesda, MD.

This report details a 5-year study comparing family literacy practices of families from preschool to Grade 3 with recommendations from the position statement of the National Association for the Education of Young Children and the International Reading Association (NAEYC-IRA). Participating were African- and European-American families of children attending Baltimore public schools. At the end of 5 years, the sample totaled about 54 families. Data were collected through yearly parent interviews regarding literacy-related beliefs and practices, periodic observations of parent-child literacy interactions, a week-long parent diary detailing their child's everyday experiences, and yearly testing of children on literacy tasks. Recommendations for parental practices and emerging literacy include: (1) engage in shared book reading; (2) provide frequent and varied oral language experiences; (3) encourage self-initiated print interactions; (4) visit the library regularly; (5) demonstrate the value of literacy in everyday life; (6) promote reading motivation; (7) foster pride and self- efficacy in reading; and (8) communicate with teachers and be involved in school. The report concludes that there is evidence that parents from diverse sociocultural backgrounds do follow the NAEYC-IRA guidelines. However, the report also notes that the guidelines do not give advice for what parents ought not do, for example, using drill and practice to develop reading abilities. Appendixes include 9 tables that detail

family practices recommended in the NAEYC/IRA Position Statement.

130. DeBruin-Parecki, A., S. G. Paris, et al. (1997). *Family literacy: Examining practice and issues of effectiveness (In Michigan)*. Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy 40: 596-605.

The authors of the article work on the assertions that the field of family literacy struggles to define goals and practices and that single descriptions of family literacy are not possible because individual programs must tailor goals and services to the target population. To address these issues, the purpose of this study was to examine the broad range of family literacy programs throughout Michigan. Of 700 literacy programs contacted, only 50 programs fit criteria selected by the authors as family literacy programs, and 11 programs were selected for further in-depth analysis. Information on program processes was collected through classroom observations, interviews, and surveys. This article elaborates on two case studies to describe how family literacy program processes are implemented under different circumstances. This article ends with four factors important for the design of an effective family literacy program: access to participation, curriculum with meaning in participant's lives, collaborating staff and administration with varied backgrounds, and stable funding.

131. Gamse, B. C., Conger, D., Eison, D. & McCarthy, M. (1997). Follow-Up study of families in the Even Start In-depth Study. Final report. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates.

This report discusses the findings of a study designed to follow-up the children of families studied in the original In-Depth Study (IDS) done in the first National Even Start Evaluation. In the IDS, families from five sites were randomly assigned to either Even Start programs or a comparison group. For the follow-up study, data was collected on 128 of the 179 children (72 percent) included in the random assignment group of the IDS. The majority of the children in the follow-up study were in the first or second grade. Data was collected from school records and included attendance rates, grades and achievement tests. In addition, information was obtained from school staff on school-level policies. The authors report that the school environments attended by both the intervention and comparison groups were relatively homogenous. There were no significant differences between the Even Start and comparison group for level of participation in special programs. There was great variation in the type of achievement tests given as well as the purpose of administering the test. However, when children were given the same test, no significant differences were found. No grade differences were found between the two groups when controlling for a number of child and family variables. While the average rate of participation did not differ for children in Even Start and the comparison group, the average tardy rate was significantly less for the Even Start children. The authors conclude by explaining that these findings are not surprising, because programs demonstrating significant effects used a wider variety of measures and had a longer duration between completion of the program and follow-up studies. They suggest that

with a longer interval and more comprehensive measures, "meaningful differences" may emerge.

132. Griffin, E. A. and F. J. Morrison (1997). *The unique contribution of home literacy environment to differences in early literacy skills*. Early Child Development & Care 127-128: 233-43.

Evaluated the psychometric utility of a home literacy environment measure. Examined the measure's accuracy in predicting unique variance in children's performance on academic achievement measures after accounting for other important sources of variance, such as IQ and maternal education. Claims that this measure is psychometrically strong and uniquely predictive of differences in early literacy (but not numeracy) skills. (MOK)

133. Hoffman, J. L. (1995). *The family portfolio: Using authentic assessment in family literacy programs*. The Reading Teacher 48 (7): 1995.

Advocates the family portfolio as a more authentic assessment tool for evaluation in family literacy programs than standardized testing. Discusses the purpose and content of the portfolio, portfolio conferences, portfolio analysis, and what happens to the portfolio at the end of the program. (SR)

134. Holt, D. D. (1994). Assessing success in family literacy projects : Alternative approaches to assesment and evaluation. McHenry, IL, Ashton Scholastic.

This handbook serves as a resource for staff members interested in evaluating family literacy projects as it presents alternative approaches to assessing and evaluating family literacy projects. Alternative approaches are defined as those that are flexible, represent the curriculum, are relevant to learners, and indicative of the abilities and knowledge acquired. Chapter two offers a model for integrating program planning, implementation and evaluation activities. Chapter three presents the use of initial assessments at intake of a family literacy project. Chapter four demonstrates the use of alternative assessment and evaluation for documenting learners' progress. Chapter five presents four alternative approaches to assessment and evaluation, and discusses the processes involved with collecting data, analyzing data, using data, and reporting data and findings. Chapter six provides a description of the process used to design this handbook.

135. Johnson, R. L., M. J. Willeke, et al. (1998). *Stakeholder collaboration in the design and implementation of a family literacy portfolio assessment*. American Journal of Evaluation 19(3): 339-53.

Describes the collaborative process and the lessons learned when the staff of a family-literacy program and an evaluator worked together to design and implement a portfolio assessment that was used to collect program-evaluation information for the Even Start program over two years. Discusses opportunities to

collaborate in the development of this assessment. (SLD)

136. Johnson, R. L., F. I. McDaniel, et al. (2000). *Using portfolios in program evaluation: An investigation of interrater reliability*. American Journal of Evaluation 21(1): 65-80.

Studied the interrater reliability of a portfolio assessment used in a small-scale program evaluation. Investigated analytic, combined analytic, and holistic family literacy portfolios from an Even Start program. Results show that at least three raters are needed to obtain acceptable levels of reliability for holistic and individual analytic scores. (SLD)

137. Landerholm, E., J. Karr, et al. (2000). *A collaborative approach to family literacy evaluation strategies*. Early Child Development and Care 162: 65-79.

Describes a federally funded partnership between Northeastern Illinois University and Chicago Public Schools to provide an inner-city family literacy program. Details program components, highlighting use of computers, video technology, and photography as tools to develop literacy and to document progress of parents and children. Notes evaluation strategies, including questionnaires, observations, photo collections, portfolios, information reading inventories, and parent self-evaluations. (KB)

138. Levin, M., B. C. Gamse, et al. (1997). National evaluation of the Even Start family literacy program: Report on migrant Even Start projects. Bethesda, M.D., Abt Associates and Fu Associates.

This report evaluates three Even Start Migrant Education Programs: the Arizona Migrant Even Start Project, the Pennsylvania Migrant Even Start Project, and the Wisconsin Migrant Even Start Project. Discussion of each project includes: program structure and administration, characteristics of the communities served, family recruitment, content and delivery of services, staff characteristics, service component coordination, participation and follow-up strategies, evaluation of Even Start Information System, and conclusions. The challenges faced by programs are as follows: hiring qualified staff, adapting service delivery to families' schedules, interagency collaboration, continuity of services between home base and receiving site, providing support services, dealing with isolation in the community, and obtaining Spanish language curriculum. Recommendations from this report include: increase collaboration across Even Start sites, encourage communication between migrant Head Start and Even Start programs, provide more technical assistance, and provide opportunities for Migrant Even Start projects to share experiences with other Even Start Projects.

139. Levin, M., G. Moss, et al. (1997). National evaluation of the Even Start family literacy program: Report on Even Start projects for Indian tribes and tribal organizations. Bethesda, MD, Abt Associates and Fu Associates.

This report presents an evaluation of three tribal Even Start projects: The Cherokee Nation Even Start Project, Makah Even Start Project, and Pascua Yaqui Even Start Project. The Cherokee Nation Even Start Project was based on home-based services and the Makah Pascua Even Start Projects implemented a combination of home-based and center-based services. The report covers the following: community characteristics (economics, education, health), family recruitment, staff characteristics, content and delivery of services, coordination of service components, participant and follow-up strategies, project impacts, and features important to success and challenges faced.

140. National Center for Family Literacy (1996). Outcomes and measures in family literacy programs. Louisville, KY, National Center for Family Literacy.

This publication serves as a resource guide for the evaluation of family literacy programs. Developed by the National Center for Family Literacy, this manual focuses on evaluating those goals that are the embodiment of family literacy programs. To assist with planning program evaluation, the manual is divided into six sections. The first section is entitled "Important Terms and Concepts" and defines literacy, as well as family literacy, in order to identify the outcomes of family literacy programs. The second section, "Assessment Issues," describes the purpose and types of assessments. To aid in the selection of measures, the manual provides lists of advantages and disadvantages associated with different types of assessment. Section 3, "Participant Outcomes and Measures," provides a list of short- and long-term participant outcomes for each of the four components in a comprehensive family literacy program. Sections 4 through 6 provide lists of published instruments accompanied by summaries for measures pertaining to adult learner outcomes, parent and parent-child outcomes, and preschool child outcomes, respectively.

141. Popp, R. J. (1992). Family portfolios: Documenting the change in parent-child relationships. Louisville, KY, National Center for Family Literacy.

This guide proposes a method for family literacy programs to document the evaluation of parent-child relationships. The National Center for Family Literacy advocates the use of portfolios because this method enables parent-child relationships to be examined within a context that encompasses not only the change but how and why the change occurred. The purpose of this guide is to introduce and describe portfolio assessment, explain how to begin this type of assessment, and suggest how it can be implemented in family literacy programs. The author also includes a description of the three problems the National Center of Family Literacy has encountered in implementing portfolio assessment and suggestions for solving these problems. In addition, methods for analyzing and summarizing portfolios are discussed. Included in this guide is a reference list of articles discussing portfolio assessment as well as programs using portfolio assessment.

142. Powell, D. R., D. D'Angelo (2000) Guide to improving parenting education in Even Start family literacy programs. US Department of Education.

The *Guide* provides a framework and suggestions for strengthening the quality and impact of parenting education services in Even Start. It is aimed at Even Start state coordinators and local program administrators responsible for supporting and monitoring the quality of parenting education services in Even Start, and at local program staff responsible for designing and implementing parenting education services.

143. Quint, J. (2001). An evaluability assessment of the Toyota families in schools program. New York, NY., Manpower Demonstration Research Corp.,.

The Toyota Families in Schools (TFS) Program is a new family literacy initiative that was developed by the National Center for Family Literacy (NCFL) with support from the Toyota Motor Corporation. TFS is based on a previous NCFL model calling for providing literacy activities to preschoolers and parents from low-income families. NCFL wanted to conduct a definitive evaluation of TFS's impacts. Because the program is just getting started and is still operating on a small scale, however, a decision was made to prepare an evaluability assessment of the program rather than a full-fledged evaluation. The evaluability assessment was prepared by reviewing program documents and statistics on the characteristics of program enrollees and their participation in program activities and by conducting site visits to three first-year TFS sites. The conclusion reached through the document review and site visits was that TFS is not likely to produce the medium-sized effects required to make a rigorous experimental evaluation of the program feasible. However, the family literacy concept was deemed promising, and it was concluded that ongoing process evaluation could provide much-needed information about ways to boost demand, sustain participation, and enhance service quality. (Contains 12 references and 5 tables.) (MN)

144. Riedinger, S. (1997). Even Start : Facilitating transitions to kindergarten. Washington, DC, US Department of Education, Planning and Evaluation Service, Office of the Undersecretary.

The purpose of this report was to document and describe effective kindergarten strategies used by Even Start projects, as well as to develop recommendations for the U.S. Department of Education, other federal agencies, and early childhood and parenting education programs who have an interest in the transition to kindergarten. Data was analyzed through the Even Start Information System. Qualitative data was also collected and analyzed through visits to five Even Start projects with transition programs perceived as being high quality. The transition services described were specifically designed to support families as children moved to kindergarten and included such approaches as kindergarten orientation, educating parents about transition services, and meeting with school staff about

children's strengths and needs. Approaches considered successful across the Even Start projects include emphasizing family strengths, developing and maintaining long-term relationships with families, empowering families to identify their needs, and being flexible in providing services. Difficulties of transition projects are also discussed, as well as recommendations.

145. Ryan, K. E. (1991). An evaluation framework for family literacy programs. Chicago, IL, Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association.

This article presents a definition of family literacy programs, a conceptual framework by which components and goals of family literacy programs can be identified, and an evaluation model for family literacy programs. The evaluation outlined by the author includes a five-step approach: (1) needs assessment; (2) accountability; (3) process evaluation; (4) progress toward objective; and (5) program impact. The article applies this evaluation process to a family literacy program. Ryan argues for constructing a portfolio for assessments, which can include work samples selected by an instructor, samples selected by the participant, and universally required samples that can be compared against a normative sample. The author recommends using this portfolio instead of relying solely on standardized test results.

146. Seaman, D. F. and C. Y. Yoo (2001). *The potential for Even Start family literacy programs to reduce school dropouts*. Preventing School Failure 46(1): 42-46.

A study involving 313 parents participating in 13 Even Start family literacy programs found parents gained self-confidence in their ability to learn, engaged in more literacy activities as they progressed, began to visit their children's teachers regularly, and had high expectations of their children succeeding in school. (Contains references.) (CR)

147. Tadros, L. C. (1997). *Parents go back to school to help their children*. Early Child Development & Care 127-128: 167-78.

Evaluated an Even Start project in Maryland, using results from the National Evaluation of the Even Start Family Literacy Program for comparison. Found that participants significantly improved in their literacy skills, and that children of parents in the project were much more likely to be exposed to literacy activities such as library visits. (MOK)

148. Tao, F., J. P. Swartz, et al. (1997). National evaluation of the Even Start family literacy program : 1995 Interim Report. Washington, DC, US Department of Education Planning and Evaluation Service.

This report discusses the second national 4-year (1993-97) evaluation of the Even Start Family Literacy Program at the completion of its second year (1994-95).

Data from a sample of 57 out of 513 programs across the U.S. operating during 1994–95 were used for the evaluation. The report addresses several key issues in its 10 chapters, beginning with an introduction to the Even Start Program and description of both the previous and current evaluation. A comprehensive description of the Even Start families is included as well as ways in which these families are served by the program and participant use of services. One chapter addresses whether or not those families in greatest need were served by and benefited from Even Start. Next, educational and developmental outcomes are provided for the 57 projects in the Sample Study. A discussion of how the findings relate to the results of the first 6 years of the program and ways in which these outcomes vary as a function of participant and project characteristics are included. The report concludes with a discussion of technical, administrative, and other issues involved in the implementation of Even Start programs as well as important evaluation findings.

149. Tao, F., B. C. Gamse, et al. (1998). National evaluation of the Even Start family literacy program 1994-1997 final report. Washington, DC, U.S. Department of Education, Planning and Evaluation Service.

This final report for the second national Even Start evaluation covers the program years 1993–97. During this time period, the number of projects participating increased from 439 to 605. At least 90 percent of projects submitted data on participant characteristics, services, implementation, costs and participant outcomes for analysis in the Universe Study for each year of the study. For the most part, the programmatic trends reported in the first evaluation remained constant. In addition, 57 Even Start projects were selected to submit more comprehensive data on child cognition, adult educational progress, and parenting education. Following new families for up to 3 years beginning in 1993, participant outcomes were determined based on pretest-posttest differences and growth curve analysis. Children continuing to participate in Even Start made greater gains than expected on the basis of development alone. The educational gains for adults in Even Start were modest and comparable to those seen in the first evaluation and other adult education programs. Positive gains were seen in scores in parenting education for parents with children between birth and 3 years of age and parents with children ages 3 through 6.

E. Livres et collectifs

Mots-clés: *Livres- Numéro thématique de revues- rapports-Compte-rendus de colloques-comptes-rendus de téléconférences*

150. Benjamin, L. A. and J. Lord (1996). Family literacy: Directions in research and implications for practice. Washington, DC, Department of Education-Office of Educational Research and Improvement, Office of Vocational and Adult Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education's Even Start Program.

This document is a compilation of papers presented at a national symposium that focused on family literacy. This compilation represents an important step in the development of a family literacy research agenda. Papers include the following: Integrated Services, Cross-Agency Collaboration, and Family Literacy (Alamprese); English Immigrant Language Learners: Cultural Accommodation and Family Literacy (Duran); Designing and Conducting Family Literacy Programs That Account for Racial, Ethnic, Religious, and Other Cultural Differences (Gadsden); Family Literacy Programs: Creating a Fit with Families of Children with Disabilities (Harry); Longitudinal Study of Family Literacy Program Outcomes (Hayes); Family Literacy: Parent and Child Interactions (Mikulecky); Teaching Parenting and Basic Skills to Parents: What We Know (Powell); Intergenerational Transfer of Literacy (Snow and Tabors); Informing Approaches to Serving Families in Family Literacy Programs: Lessons from Other Family Intervention Programs (St. Pierre and Layzer); and Meeting the Needs of Families in Family Literacy Programs (Strickland).

151. Brizius, J. and D. S. Foster (1993). Generation to generation: Realizing the promise of family literacy. Ypsilanti, MI, High/Scope Press.

This book provides a good overview of the family literacy movement. It explains the need for family literacy programs, provides a comprehensive definition of family literacy, and traces the history of such programs. Guidelines and suggestions on how to anticipate and deal with the issues of family literacy are offered to policymakers and practitioners. Finally, key issues about the future of the family literacy movement are addressed. The book is divided into the following eight chapters: (1) Family Literacy: The Need and the Promise; (2) Defining Family Literacy; (3) The History of Family Literacy; (4) The Research: How Do We Know If Family Literacy Works?; (5) Building a Community Family Literacy Program; (6) Developing a State Family Literacy Initiative; (7) Challenges for the Family Literacy Movement; and (8) The Future of Family Literacy.

152. DeBruin-Parecki, A. and B. Krol-Sinclair (2003). *Family Literacy: From Theory to Practice*. Newark. International Reading Association. p.336.

This book fills an important voice in the largely unstudied field of family literacy, providing teachers and teacher educators with much-needed theoretical perspectives underlying family literacy and their links to effective instructional practice and outcomes. Four areas of focus address the full scope of family literacy issues: theoretical perspectives related to family literacy; specific practices and strategies used to promote family literacy in collaboration with schools and communities; a close look at a variety of family literacy programs; and evaluating family literacy programs and their participants. With increased emphasis on the role of parents and adult caretakers in helping young children learn to read, this book will be a valuable tool for educators and community organizations setting up effective family literacy programs.

153. Drake, A. (2000). Gathering voices: Building an alliance for family literacy. St. John's Canada.

This document contains the proceedings of a conference on family literacy that was attended by representatives of community-based literacy and family literacy programs in Newfoundland and Labrador. The document begins with an executive summary of the conference activities. The texts of the following keynote addresses are presented: «A Thousand Cups of Tea» (Mary Gordon); «The Basic Skills Agency» (Elizabeth Hanson); and «Roots of Empathy» (Mary Gordon). The conference workshops, which dealt with the following topics, are summarized: extending families; supporting family literacy through community-based programs; development of a strategic literacy plan; early brain development and literacy; early intervention and the role of the reading specialist; overcoming barriers through innovative literacy practices; reading as a family affair; strategic literacy funding; Canada's National Adult Literacy Database; building community capacity through intergenerational learning; parent involvement in lifelong learning; and factors underlying successful literacy programs. Presented next is a summary of the final plenary session, during which participants split into four groups and examined the question of how to further develop family literacy in the Province of Newfoundland. Concluding the document are results of the conference evaluation, a list of conference publications, the publication distribution list, and a list of conference participants. (MN)

154. Hugues, S. and R. Botkins (2001). National Forum on family literacy. Collaboration and quality proceedings. Arlington, VA., National Center for Family Literacy, Louisville, KY.

The National Forum on Family Literacy was convened to encourage and facilitate collaboration among programs at the state level to improve the quality of family literacy services. This forum provided an opportunity for state-level representatives of Head Start, Even Start, Even Start Statewide Family Literacy Initiatives, and Adult Education to share common priorities, identify promising strategies and practices, and develop approaches to sharing resources and services. These proceedings capture the «sense» of presentations from the 2001 meeting. Presentation topics range from creating successful collaborations to implementing the latest findings from research. Included are states' experiences in establishing collaborations and building a family literacy infrastructure. Researchers' presentations of implications of their findings on collaboration and on adult education, early childhood education, parent education, and English Speakers of Other Languages are also summarized. The appendix includes shared information from participants on vision statements and reflections, biographies of presenters, the federal statutory definition of family literacy services, a list of general resources, and a list of attendees, with contact information. (KB)

155. King, R. and J. McMaster (2000). Pathways: A primer for family literacy, program

design and development. Louisville, KY, National Center for Family Literacy.

Noting that family literacy can work effectively to break the cycle of under education, this book examines the history of the national family literacy movement, discusses the role of the National Center for Family Literacy (NCFL), and presents guidelines for designing and developing a family literacy program. The book's introductory section presents a historical overview of family literacy. The remainder of the book is presented in seven chapters: (1) «Why Family Literacy?,» defining family literacy, describing components of a family literacy program, and outlining program goals; (2) «Assessing the Need for Family Literacy in Your Community,» including sample phone surveys, and the link to welfare reform; (3) «Creating Collaborative Partnerships»; (4) «Program Design and Anticipated Outcomes»; (5) «Elements of Design: Putting the Pieces in Place»; (6) «Strategies for Success»; and (7) «Journey to Success,» highlighting testimony before a Senate committee from a former family literacy student. Three appendices describe NCFL projects and program adaptations, provide case study examples of how family literacy programs meet the needs of the welfare-to-work population, and present questions to guide the development of a family literacy action plan. (KB)

156. McIvor, M. C. (1990). Family literacy in action : A survey of successful programs. Syracuse, NY, New Readers Press.

This book intends to cover a variety of family literacy programs that value the adult role in shaping a child's literacy development. The author highlights eight innovative intergenerational and/or family literacy programs: Marion County Library Family Literacy Program; Beginning with Books; Parent Readers Program; Motherread; Project WILL; The Kenan Family Literacy Project; Mothers' Reading Program; and Take Up Reading Now. Included is a list of the funding sources, participants, and outcomes for each program.

157. Morrow, L. M. (1993). Literacy development in early years. Helping children read and write. Neshaminy Heights, MA, Allyn and Bacon, Simon and Schuster Education Group.

Intended for teachers, reading specialists, administrators, students in teacher education programs, and parents, this book contains descriptions of strategies for fostering emergent literacy and steps for carrying them out. An underlying theme is the merging of the art and the science of teaching. Chapters in the book begin with questions to focus on while reading the text and conclude with suggested activities and questions and a case study activity for use by preservice and inservice teachers. Chapters in the book are: (1) Foundations of Early Literacy Development; (2) The Home and Family Literacy Development; (3) Language and Literacy Development; (4) Reading and Literacy Development; (5) Developing Positive Attitudes toward Reading through the Use of Children's Literature; (6) Developing Concepts about books and Comprehension of Text; (7)

Developing Reading through Learning about Print; (8) Writing and Literacy Development; and (9) Organizing and Managing the Learning Environment for Literacy Development at School. A 25-page bibliography of children's literature arranged into 23 categories, additional literature resources, resources for teachers, resources for parents, a list of quality television programs associated with children's books, and a bibliography of approximately 300 items are attached. (RS)

158. Morrow, L. M. (1995). Family literacy: Connections in schools and communities. New Brunswick, NJ, Rutgers University.

Intended for practitioners from preschool to college whose major interest is literacy development, this book presents 20 essays that discuss multiple perspectives of the varied definitions of family literacy and provide ideas for schools, community agencies, and families by presenting different types of programs to put into practice. Essays in the book also explain the meaning of family literacy in the United Kingdom and explore the uses of literacy in families. Essays are: «Family Literacy: New Perspectives, New Practices» (Lesley Mandel Morrow); «Which Way for Family Literacy: Intervention or Empowerment?» (Elsa Roberts Auerbach); «Implementing an Intergenerational Literacy Project: Lessons Learned» (Jeanne R. Paratore); «Combining Parents' and Teachers' Thoughts about Storybook Reading at Home and School» (Patricia A. Edwards); «The Family Writing and Reading Appreciation Program» (Lesley Mandel Morrow with others); «Have You Heard Any Good Books Lately?: Encouraging Shared Reading at Home with Books and Audiotapes» (Patricia S. Koskinen and others); «Enhancing Adolescent Mothers' Guided Participation in Literacy» (Susan B. Neuman); «Let the Circle Be Unbroken: Teens as Literacy Learners and Teachers» (Billie J. Enz and Lyndon W. Searfoss); «The Reading Is Fundamental Motivational Approach to Family Literacy» (Ruth Graves and James H. Wendorf); «Helping First Graders Get a Running Start in Reading» (Linda B. Gambrell and others); «The Even Start Family Literacy Program» (Patricia A. McKee and Nancy Rhett); «A Comprehensive Approach to Family-Focused Services» (Meta W. Potts and Susan Paull); «Parents and Children Reading Together: The Barbara Bush Foundation for Family Literacy» (Benita Somerfield); «Linking Families, Childcare, and Literacy: 'Sesame Street' Preschool Educational Program» (Iris Sroka and others); «The Family Literacy Alliance: Using Public Television, Book-Based Series To Motivate At-Risk Populations» (Twila C. Liggett); «Family Literacy Practice in the United Kingdom--An International Perspective» (Colin Harrison); «Opportunities for Literacy Learning in the Homes of Urban Preschoolers» (Linda Baker and others); «Children Practicing Reading at Home: What We Know about How Parents Help» (Diane H. Tracey); «Shared Lives and Shared Stories: Exploring Critical Literacy Connections among Family Members» (Daniel Madigan); and «Representations of Literacy: Parents' Images in Two Cultural Communities» (Vivian L. Gadsden). Includes an author index and subject index. (RS)

159. Morrow, L. M., D. H. Tracy, et al. (1995). A survey of family literacy in the United States. Newark, DE, International Reading Association.

This book, intended for use by teachers, parents, and policymakers, describes the historical development of the field of family literacy, as well as a current picture of family literacy in the United States. It offers detailed information about specific programs in the field in its more than 100 sources concerning family literacy. In addition to an Overview section, there are several other sections providing informative entries: Parent Involvement Programs; Intergenerational Programs; Research on Naturally Occurring Literacy in Families; Agencies and Associations Dealing with Family Literacy; and Further References About Family Literacy.

160. Morrow, L.M., Neuman, S. (eds) (1995) *Family Literacy. Thematic issue. The Reading Teacher*, vol.48, No 7.

In 1991, The Board of Directors of the International Reading Association formed a Family Literacy Commission to study issues and initiatives in family literacy from a broad perspective. The Commission has assumed the following goals: 1) to describes initiatives in schools and communities agencies, 2) to heighten awareness about the significance of the families role in children's literacy development, and to stimulate new activity in family literacy initiatives. This themed issue should help with this goal. This issue of *The Reading Teacher* has seven articles and one piece for the Teaching Reading department. These articles present different perspectives. The first article, by Cynthia Unwin, describes how an adult's developing literacy skills influence those around her and her day-to-day living. The next piece, by Patricia Edwards, describes a school-based program where low-income mothers and fathers learn to share books with their young children. The third article, by Barbara Cone and Anthony Fredericks, describes another school-based program with at-risk children in which parents are taught many strategies that they will enjoy, to work with their children to increase reading achievement, attitudes about reading, parental involvement in school, and the quality time families spend together. In the next piece, Victoria Purcell-Gates, Susan L'Allier, and Dorothy Smith report on the literacy events that were observed in low- literacy and high-literacy families from similar socioeconomic backgrounds. The activities were very different for children from these different types of homes. Susan Akroyd presents a parent reading-writing class in which she connects cultures through writing. She found that the experience had a strong impact on the families as they explored avenues for writing among family members. Timothy Shanahan, Margaret Mulhern, and Flora Rodriguez- Brown describe a family literacy program that offers simultaneous and connected education for Latino adults and children. Loraine Hoffman's article describes how portfolio assessment may be used to examine adults' and children's progress in literacy. This approach encourages parents, children, and teachers to participate actively in the assessment process. Finally, in the Teaching Reading department we include an annotated bibliography by Isabel Schon of books for families to read together. The books are multicultural, with particular interest for Latino families.

161. Morrow, L. M. (1997). Literacy development in early years: Helping children read and write. Nodham Heights, MA, Allyn and Bacon, Simon and Schuster Education Group.

Children develop language-related abilities simultaneously from infancy onward, and the conditions that promote first language learning are the same conditions that promote total literacy development: a social context involving immersion, approximation, opportunity to practice, feedback, and modeling. Intended for teachers, reading specialists, administrators, students in teacher education programs, and for parents, this book presents descriptions of strategies for fostering emergent literacy and steps for carrying them out. An underlying theme is the merging of the art and the science of teaching. Chapters in the book are: (1) «Foundations of Early Literacy Development,» including past practices, the whole-language movement, thematic instruction, and professional associations and related journals dealing with early literacy; (2) «Observing and Assessing the Needs of Children: Multicultural and Special Learning Needs,» including various methods of assessment, and multicultural and language concerns; (3) «Family Literacy Partnerships: Home and School Working Together,» exploring why family literacy is important, how to include a family literacy component in the literacy program, and multicultural considerations related to literacy; (4) «Language and Literacy Development,» examining how children acquire language and formats for promoting language in the classroom; (5) «How Young Children Learn to Read and Write: An Emerging Literacy Perspective,» including developmental trends in literacy acquisition and the place of play in the curriculum; (6) «Motivating Reading and Writing through the Use of Children's Literature,» including preparing a literacy-rich environment and creative techniques for story telling; (7) «Developing Concepts about Books and Comprehension of Text,» including repeated story readings, webbing and mapping, and authentic assessment of concepts and comprehension; (8) «Developing Reading through Learning about Print,» including sight vocabulary, the language experience approach, and strategies for developing sound-symbol relationships; (9) «Writing and Literacy Development,» examining how early writing is acquired and authentic assessment of children's writing development and the writing environment; and (10) «Organizing and Managing the Learning Environment for Literacy Development at School,» including integrating literacy learning into content areas and strategies for meeting individual special needs. Each chapter includes two case-study activities. Four appendices list children's literature, quality television programs with associated children's books, computer software designed to promote literacy development and creativity, and suggestions for instructors. (HTH).

162. Neuman, S.B. and D. K. Dickinson (eds) (2001) Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York. The Guilford Press. p.3-10.

This handbook represents what we would consider the now-and-future phase of

work in early literacy. Perhaps less dazzling than the changes in perspective of the last century, yet no less important, researchers are beginning to fine-tune their understandings of literacy and development. Whereas once there were perspectives. Now researchers are generating theory-complicated understandings of cognitive processing models in oral and written language, sociocultural models that focus on the integration of context and cognition, and ecological and environmental theories that examine children's formal and informal learning of written language development in school and non school settings. And, theory development in early literacy is not a minor accomplishment. Unlike the perspectives of the past, these theories have provided us with an understanding of the complexity of literacy learning as well as some tangible evidence for better understanding how it can be developed, nurtured, and taught. At this same time, it provides us with a daunting list of challenges for understanding how literacy achievement can be a right and not a privilege for all children.

163. Padak, N. and T. Rasinsky (1995). *Family literacy*. A themed issue. The Reading Teacher 47(7).

This issue is dedicated to the topic of family literacy. An introduction is followed by seven articles regarding various aspects of family literacy. The topics addressed in the articles include the importance of the family in literacy development; the Parents as Partners Reading Program; school out-reach programs; the varying use of print in families; creating cultural connections between parents and their children; project FLAME and family literacy programs for latino families; and the use of family portfolios to evaluate family literacy programs.

164. Paratore, J. and C. Harrison (1995). *A themed issue on family literacy*. Journal of Reading 38(516-17).

This themed issue is a collection of articles that present broad and diverse views of family literacy. The authors challenge educators to reexamine the deficit hypothesis, which they believe derives from a lack of congruence between home and school literacy experiences and a lack of understanding about the practice of literacy in linguistically and culturally diverse families. The authors' goal is for readers to reformulate their ideas about family literacy programs and practices in order to promote home/school partnerships.

165. Roskos, K. (2000). Play and Literacy in Early Childhood: Research from Multiple Perspectives. Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Noting that an examination of play from diverse perspectives deepens understanding and opens up new avenues for research and educational practice, this book brings together studies, research syntheses, and critical commentaries that examine play-literacy relationships from cognitive, ecological, and cultural perspectives. Each set of chapters is followed by a critical review. The chapters

are: (1) «Bringing Books to Life: The Role of Book-Related Dramatic Play in Young Children's Literacy Learning» (Deborah Wells Rowe); (2) «The Narrative Connection: Stories and Literacy» (Greta G. Fein, Alicia E. Ardila-Rey, and Lois A. Groth); (3) «Symbolic Play, Phonological Awareness, and Literacy Skills at Three Age Levels» (Doris Bergen and Daria Mauer); (4) «Commentary--Cognitive Development, Play, and Literacy: Issues of Definition and Developmental Function» (A. D. Pellegrini and Lee Galda); (5) «Incorporating Literacy Resources into the Play Curriculum of Two Icelandic Preschools» (Johanna Einarsdottir); (6) «Supporting Literacy in Early Childhood Programs: A Challenge for the Future» (Lorraine Dunn, Sara Ann Beach, and Susan Kontos); (7) «Reading Is a Source of Entertainment: The Importance of the Home Perspective for Children's Literacy Development» (Susan Sonnenschein, Linda Baker, Robert Serpell, and Diane Schmidt); (8) «Through the Bioecological Lens: Some Observations of Literacy in Play as a Proximal Process» (Kathleen A. Roskos); (9) «Commentary--Play, Literacy, and Ecology: Implications for Early Educational Research and Practice» (James E. Johnson); (10) «Social Contexts for Literacy Development: A Family Literacy Program» (Susan B. Neuman); (11) «'It Would Be as Good as Snow White.': Play and Prosody» (N. Amanda Branscombe and Janet B. Taylor); (12) «Literacy, Play, and Authentic Experience» (Nigel Hall); (13) «Sociocultural Contexts of Dramatic Play: Implications for Early Education» (Jaipaul L. Roopnarine, Meera Shin, Bridget Donovan, and Preeti Suppal); and (14) «Commentary--Constructing Sociocultural Approaches to Literacy Education» (Artin Goncu and Eleni Katsarou).

166. Saracho, O. N. (1999). *Families' involvement in their children's literacy development*. Early Child Development and Care. Vol 153, 121-126

Examined the involvement of families in the literacy development of their 1st grade children. Members of 100 families with a child (aged 6-7 yrs) attending 1st grade completed interviews concerning the types of literacy activities and materials used in the home. Results show 4 categories of involvement in literacy development, including: (1) reading at home; (2) reading outside the home; (3) using other literacy activities and materials; and (4) writing activities. Examples of literacy activities other than reading included playing board games, completing crossword and word-search puzzles, and going to the public library. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

167. Saracho, O. N. (2000) *Literacy development in the family context*. Early Child Development & Care. Vol 163. 107-114.

Examined types of literacy activities used by parents to promote children's literacy development at home. 36 parents of Kindergarten students completed questionnaires concerning literacy activities and materials used in the home. Results show that all Ss read to their child at home, with approximately a third of Ss reading daily. Most common reading materials included storybooks, comic books, notes sent home by school or teachers, and labels on food or other

consumer products. Literacy activities other than reading were board games, writing shopping lists, playing word games, writing notes or phone messages, writing personal letters to friends or family, and reading road and billboard signs. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

168. Saracho, O. N. (2002). *Family literacy: Exploring family practice*. Early Child Development and Care 172(2): 113-22.

Reviews literature on family influence on children's acquisition of literacy. Discusses the ambivalence regarding family literacy theories and the lack of family literacy theoretical frameworks. Identifies types of family involvement and effective literacy strategies for families. Finds that most studies suggest that family literacy contributes to young children's literacy development. (Author/KB)

169. Smith, S. (1995). Two generation programs for families in poverty : A new intervention strategy. Norwood, NJ, Ablex Publishing Corporation.

This volume examines two-generation interventions as models that represent a new approach to assisting families in poverty. Five of the chapters examine current programs--their design, characteristics of participants, implementation issues, and in one case, evaluation outcomes. Other chapters offer a research and policy context for this intervention strategy, describe current evaluations, and suggest directions for further research. Chapter 1 provides the theoretical base by reviewing research on risk factors associated with poor developmental outcomes in children. Chapter 2 examines the Even Start Family Literacy Program. Chapter 3 examines the Advance Parent-Child Education Program. Chapter 4 reports on the early implementation of a comprehensive and highly structured program, New Chance, that serves young welfare-dependent women and their children. Two major Head Start initiatives, the Comprehensive Child Development Programs and the Head Start Family Service Centers, are described in chapter 5. Chapter 6 reports on a two-generation Head Start demonstration, Project Step-Up. Chapter 7 provides a review of research on previous welfare-to-work experiments as a context for considering the potential effectiveness of different types of adult job readiness services in two-generation programs. Chapter 8 considers differences in two-generation models from a child development perspective, focusing on the early childhood education, child care, and parent education components of the programs. Chapter 9 discusses current research on two-generation interventions, highlighting advances in design and methods found in these studies. Each chapter includes references. (AA)

170. Taylor, D. (1983). Young children learning to read and write. Portsmouth, NH, Heinemann Educational Books.

Focusing on family interaction, this book discusses a study designed to develop systematic ways of looking at reading and writing as activities that have

consequences in and are affected by family life. Topics of the seven chapters are as follows: the six families involved in the research, conservation and change in the transmission of family literacy styles and values, family literacy and the social organization of everyday life, relationships between family literacy and children's emerging awareness of written language, family literacy in a cultural context, family literacy and learning in school, and fieldwork approaches to the study of literacy and the family. Illustrations are included. (EL)

171. Taylor, D. (1997). Many families, many literacies: An international declaration of principles. Portsmouth, NH, Heinemann Educational Books.

In an effort to counter what is described as the prevailing deficit-based view of family literacy, a group of 50 participants from around the world gathered at the International Forum on Family Literacy to set up principles for redefining family literacy. The intent was to have a broad spectrum of professionals address issues related to the family literacy movement, especially issues related to ethical and human rights concerns. This book, a result of that conference, identifies a set of principles for family literacy and presents a compilation of articles on family literacy by researchers, teachers and parent learners. Challenging the reader to question practices based on a deficit view of family literacy, the articles cover the many different types of families served in family literacy programs, the general principles of language and literacy, ethics in research and program development, and principles for assessment, funding agencies and policymakers.

172. Venezky, R. L., D. A. Wagner, et al. (1990). Toward defining literacy. Newark, DE, International Reading Association.

This collection of four papers (each with a response) given at a 1987 symposium focuses on a renewed consideration of literacy in America and its implications for national, state, and local policy. The papers include «Definitions of Literacy» (Richard L. Venezky); «Literacy for What Purpose?» (Larry Mikulecky); «Measuring Adult Literacy» (Irwin S. Kirsch); and «Policy Implications of Literacy Definitions» (Jeanne S. Chall). A concluding section summarizes the basic issues raised in the papers and gives an interpretation of the positions presented on each. (RS)

Éveil à l'écrit

A. Conceptualisations et définitions

Concepts clés : *éveil à l'écrit; émergence de la littératie; niveaux de littératie; littératie familiale; facteurs de développement; débuts de l'apprentissage de la lecture; dimensions de l'éveil à l'écrit; modèles d'apprentissage; modèles d'enseignement*

173. Baker, L. (1997). *Parental beliefs about ways to help children learn to read: The impact of an entertainment or a skills perspective*. Early Child Development & Care. 127-128: 111-118.

The Early Childhood Project is a longitudinal investigation of the contexts in which children from different sociocultural groups learn to read. The data discussed here were collected from 41 families when the focal children were in prekindergarten and kindergarten. 31 of the Ss were from low income families, and 10 of the Ss were from middle income families. Data sources were diary reports of children's activities, parental answers to interview questions, and children's performance on a broad-based battery of literacy-related tasks. Parents' responses to a question about the most effective way to help their child learn to read were coded for an entertainment perspective or a skills perspective. Parents having an entertainment perspective spontaneously reported in their diaries that their child engaged in more such activities. Taking the view that literacy is a source of entertainment was positively related to children's scores on the literacy-related tasks.

Baker, L., S. Fernandez-Fein, et al. (1998) *Word recognition in beginning literacy*. J. L. Metsala and L. C. Ehri (eds). Home experiences related to the development of word recognition. Maryland, MD, University Maryland, MD, US. 403. p.263-287.

Focuses on the role of home experiences in promoting the development of word recognition skills, a topic that has not been systematically explored either empirically or theoretically. In the 1st section, we present descriptive evidence about children's home experiences that might be relevant to the development of word recognition. In the 2nd section, we examine relations between children's home experiences and their emergent competencies in areas relevant to beginning reading. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the implications of the research for providing sound guidance for parents.

174. Baker, L. and D. Scher (2002). *Home and family influences on motivations for reading*. Reading Psychology 23(4): 239-269.

Examined 65 6-yr-old first grader's motivation for reading in relation to parental beliefs and home literacy experiences. Each child completed an individually administered

Motivations for Reading Scale that assessed several theoretical dimensions of reading motivation, including enjoyment/interest in reading, perceived competence as a reader and sense of the value of reading. Mothers were interviewed regarding their beliefs about reasons for reading, their beliefs about their child's interest in learning to read, and their ratings of the frequency of their child's experiences with printed materials. Results revealed that the beginning readers had generally positive views about reading and that no differences in motivation were associated with income level, ethnicity, or gender. Empirical support was provided for the distinctness of the dimensions of value, enjoyment, and perceived competence. Parental identification of pleasure as a reason for reading predicted children's motivation for reading, as did parents' reports that their child took an active interest in learning to read. Children's motivation for reading was not associated with frequency of storybook reading or library visits, but frequent use of basic skills books (ABC books) was negatively associated with motivation.

175. Dickinson, D. K., L. Cote, et al. (1993). *Learning vocabulary in preschool : Social and discourse contexts affecting vocabulary growth*. New Directions for Child Development 61: 67-78.

In this chapter, we discuss social factors that have an impact on children's acquisition of vocabulary in early childhood settings. First, we consider why vocabulary is of great interest to educators. Next, we present a socially contextualized model of word learning. Finally, drawing on data from a longitudinal study of language and literacy development of low-income children, we discuss early childhood classrooms as lexical environments.

176. Dickinson, D. K. and A. McCabe (2001). *Bringing it all together: The multiple origins, skills, and environmental supports of early literacy*. Learning Disabilities Research & Practice 16(4): 186-202.

Relates the authors' work to research done by others and use the findings to provide an integrated description of some of the major strands of research being done on early literacy. The discussion is organized around three questions: (1) What are the interrelationships among language and literacy skills at different points in development? (2) What environmental factors support children's acquisition of early literacy-related abilities? and (3) How can preschool teachers be helped to more effectively support children's early literacy development? Based on review of the research, it is noted that literacy emerges from a variety of abilities. The authors argue that the varied abilities that are recruited for literacy tasks develop in systems that are mutually facilitating and that, over time, these systems become increasingly closely intertwined. It is suggested that this perspective on development has implications for interventions because, if literacy-related skills emerge as interrelated systems, then optimal interventions will be those that bolster all relevant abilities rather than focusing only on a single skill area. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

177. Crone, D. A. and G. J. Whitehurst (1999). *Age and schooling effects on emergent literacy and early reading skills*. Journal of Educational Psychology: 604-614.

This study examined the effects of age and schooling on emergent literacy and early reading skills of 337 children from low-income backgrounds. Children were followed longitudinally from the end of Head Start to the end of 1st grade. A subset of the sample (n = 183) was followed through the end of 2nd grade. The oldest children in preschool and kindergarten had significantly stronger emergent literacy skills than classmates who were younger by 10 months. These differences did not translate to differences in reading skill at the end of 1st or 2nd grade. Children who began school a year earlier than same-age peers outperformed these peers on measures of both emergent literacy skills and early reading skills. The impact of a year of schooling on emergent literacy skills was 1.7 times greater than the impact of other processes associated with age. The impact of a year of schooling on early reading was 4.3 times stronger than the effect of age. (PsycINFO Database Record

178. Hugues, S. and R. Botkins (2001). *National Forum on family literacy. Collaboration and quality proceedings*. Arlington, VA., National Center for Family Literacy, Louisville, KY.

The National Forum on Family Literacy was convened to encourage and facilitate collaboration among programs at the state level to improve the quality of family literacy services. This forum provided an opportunity for state-level representatives of Head Start, Even Start, Even Start Statewide Family Literacy Initiatives, and Adult Education to share common priorities, identify promising strategies and practices, and develop approaches to sharing resources and services. These proceedings capture the "sense" of presentations from the 2001 meeting. Presentation topics range from creating successful collaborations to implementing the latest findings from research. Included are states' experiences in establishing collaborations and building a family literacy infrastructure. Researchers' presentations of implications of their findings on collaboration and on adult education, early childhood education, parent education, and English Speakers of Other Languages are also summarized. The appendix includes shared information from participants on vision statements and reflections, biographies of presenters, the federal statutory definition of family literacy services, a list of general resources, and a list of attendees, with contact information. (KB)

179. Fitzgerald, J., D. L. Spiegel, et al. (1991). *The relationship between parental literacy level and perceptions of emergent literacy*. Journal of Reading Behavior 23(2): 191-213.

Examines parental perceptions of young children's literacy development. Explores the relationship between parental literacy level and perceptions of the importance of literacy artifacts and events in preschoolers' literacy development. Finds that parents with lower literacy levels think literacy artifacts and events are even more important than do parents with higher literacy levels. (MG)

180. Giasson, J., M., Baillargeon, R. Pierre et al. (1985). *Le lecteur précoce au Québec : caractéristiques individuelles et sociales*. Revue internationale de psychologie appliquée 34(4): 455-476.

La recherche a tenté de vérifier les hypothèses suivantes: 1) il est prévu de dépister environ 1% de lecteurs précoces; 2) les quotients intellectuels des lecteurs précoces seront répartis également mais seront supérieurs à ceux du groupe contrôle; 3) il ne devrait pas y avoir de lien entre le sexe des lecteurs et la lecture précoce; 4) le niveau de littéracie sera plus élevé dans les familles de lecteurs précoces: l'aspiration des parents et les stratégies qu'ils utilisent pour provoquer l'intérêt des enfants seraient les facteurs environnementaux les plus importants. Les principaux tests utilisés étaient: un test de dépistage (36 mots choisis au hasard dans les sept premiers échelons de l'échelle Dubois-Buyse), un test d'habileté en lecture qui évalue le décodage et la compréhension de la 1ère à la 6e année et un test d'intelligence (2 sous-tests du WISC). Pour identifier les caractéristiques familiales, un questionnaire a permis de regrouper les réponses selon 5 facteurs: le modèle de lecture, le niveau d'aspiration des parents, l'environnement éducatif, les loisirs et les stratégies. Il ressort que les trois premières hypothèses se sont vues confirmées: les lecteurs précoces québécois présentent des caractéristiques individuelles comparables à d'autres études. Au plan des caractéristiques familiales, le milieu socio-économique semble exercer un rôle plus important que prévu, les lecteurs précoces provenant surtout de milieu favorisé. Par ailleurs, les deux facteurs pressentis comme déterminants se révèlent comme étant très importants (plus grande implication, meilleure adaptation aux besoins, intérêt plus soutenu).

181. Lesar, S. (1997). *Maternal teaching behaviors of preschool children in Hispanic families: Does a home intervention program make a difference?* Journal of Research in Childhood Education 11(2): 163-70.

Examined whether home intervention program for Hispanic low-income families would increase maternal teaching behaviors typical of school environment. Found that when controlling for pretest scores and maternal education, program mothers used questions and descriptions more and negative motivation less in comparison to control group; the pattern of highly correlated teaching behaviors was different for the two groups over time. (KB)

182. Lonigan, J. C., B. G. Bloomfield, et al. (1999). *Relations among emergent literacy skills, behavior problems, and social competence in preschool children from low-and middle-income backgrounds.* Topics in Early Childhood Special Education 19(1): 40-53.

Research has indicated a substantial overlap between reading disability (RD) and attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). However, few studies concerning this overlap have been conducted with preschool children. This study examined the overlap between behaviors associated with ADHD and emergent literacy skills in preschool children. One group of 44 children (mean age = 48 months, SD = 11.3) was from middle-income families, and one group of 41 children (mean age = 53 months, SD = 8.1) attended Head Start. Results demonstrated that attention problems were substantially, consistently, and uniquely associated with emergent literacy skills in both groups; however, the effect was strongest for the middle-income group. These findings indicate that the association between reading skills and behaviors associated with ADHD is

present in preschool children and that emergent literacy skills may mediate the link between ADHD and RD found in older children.

183. Morais, J., R. Pierre, et al. (2003). Du lecteur compétent au lecteur débutant: apports des *recherches en psycholinguistique cognitive et en neuropsychologie à la didactique de la lecture*. R. Pierre (ed.) L'enseignement de la littérature au XXI siècle: Nouveaux enjeux; nouvelles perspectives. Montréal, Numéro thématique de la Revue des Sciences de l'éducation. XXVIII.

S'appuyant sur les recherches les plus récentes en psycholinguistique et en neuropsychologie cognitives, les auteurs dégagent les principales caractéristiques du système de lecture du lecteur adulte compétent, qui constitue l'aboutissement normal du processus d'apprentissage de la lecture. Ils examinent ensuite les lignes générales du processus d'apprentissage menant à l'installation de ce système hautement automatisé. Le facteur crucial de ce processus serait l'utilisation intensive et de plus en plus efficace, par l'apprenti-lecteur, de la procédure de décodage phonologique séquentiel et contrôlé, fondée sur l'apprentissage des correspondances graphophonologiques. Les recherches sur les difficultés d'apprentissage de la lecture et de la dyslexie appuient cette interprétation. Les auteurs concluent par six idées majeures dont il faudrait tenir compte dans l'élaboration des programmes et des méthodes d'enseignement de la lecture.

184. New, R. S. (2001). *Early literacy and developmentally appropriate practice: rethinking the paradigm*. S. B. Neuman and D. K. Dickinson (eds) Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press. p.3-10.

New emphasize a situated perspective, viewing literacy as a context-specific, socio-cultural activity. Spending much time in Italy, she supports her image of early childhood education with the Italian belief of schooling as a system of relations with parents and communities. Literacy is not viewed as an end in itself but, rather as a starting point to consider individual and social educational goals and actions. Thus literacy activity is a dynamic process not to be defined as achievement on tests scores.

185. Pellegrini, A. D. (1991) *A critique of the concept of at risk as applied to emergent literacy*. Language Arts, vol.68. 380-385.

All labels carry with them assumptions. With these assumptions go consequences. The term at risk is no exception; the assumptions behind the term have real consequences for children. In this article the author outline some of the not-so-implicit assumptions behind the term as it is applied to children in schools, generally, and to children becoming literate in schools, specifically.

186. Perez, B. (1997). *Constructs children use in developing first and second language literacy*. Early Child Development & Care 127-128: 157-65.

Reviews current understanding of the process of emergent literacy development for linguistically diverse children. Claims that process of literacy development can be viewed

as a sequential developmental task. Also explains that children create principles or hypotheses to develop literacy specific to their understanding of their native language and then bring these experiences to the task of learning English literacy. (MOK)

187. Pierre, R., J. Giasson, et al. (1984). *Processus d'acquisition de la lecture chez les enfants de trois à cinq ans. Les actes de lecture* 6: 69-89.

L'article présente le cadre théorique d'une recherche dont l'objectif est de vérifier l'influence relative des facteurs conceptuels et fonctionnels dans l'apprentissage de la lecture. L'originalité du projet tient à la clientèle à laquelle il s'adresse. Pour éliminer l'effet inextricable de la méthode pédagogique, la recherche portera, en effet, sur une catégorie de lecteurs qui n'a d'aucune façon été touchée par une méthode pédagogique déterminée, soit ce qu'il est convenu d'appeler le lecteur précoce, c'est-à-dire l'enfant qui a appris à lire avant son admission en 1ère année. Le projet prendra en considération quatre dimensions de l'apprentissage de la lecture peu explorées jusqu'ici, soit: 1) l'influence des relations langage oral-langage écrit; 2) le rôle respectif des mécanismes de décodage et des mécanismes conceptuels; 3) l'importance du niveau de conscience linguistique; 4) les stratégies employées par les parents et leur influence relative.

188. Pierre, R. (2003). *Décoder pour comprendre: le modèle québécois en question*. R. Pierre. L'enseignement de la littératie au XXI^e siècle: nouveaux enjeux, nouvelles perspectives. Revue Des Sciences de l'éducation.

La recherche présentée vise à tester l'un des fondements du modèle d'enseignement de la lecture préconisé au Québec depuis 1979. Ce modèle suppose que les enfants apprennent à lire par la reconnaissance globale des mots. Des enfants de la région montréalaise ont été enregistrés sur vidéo, à la fin de la première année, pendant qu'ils lisaient un texte à haute voix. Les résultats invalident le modèle québécois en montrant que tous les enfants utilisent des stratégies de décodage. Des différences majeures apparaissent, par ailleurs, entre les lecteurs forts qui ont automatisé les mécanismes de décodage de base et les lecteurs faibles qui affichent des retards importants. L'analyse confirme, en outre, que tous les types de lecteurs sont davantage influencés par les caractéristiques orthographiques des mots

189. Pierre, R. (2003). *L'enseignement de la lecture au Québec : 1980-2000. Fondements historiques, épistémologiques et scientifiques*. R. Pierre. L'enseignement de la littératie au XXI^e siècle. Nouvelles perspectives, Numéro thématique. Revue des sciences de l'éducation.

Ce texte d'introduction installe le contexte qui a présidé à la conception de ce numéro thématique. La première partie vise à démontrer, par un rapide survol historique, que, malgré les prétentions de ses concepteurs, le curriculum 2000 s'inscrit dans la continuité de la réforme de 1979 qui a marqué le véritable virage épistémologique au Québec. Cela est particulièrement évident en ce qui concerne l'enseignement de la lecture alors que l'on ne fait que reporter le modèle *Whole-Language* qui est généralisé depuis 20 ans, au

Québec. Tout en réaffirmant l'importance de renforcer l'enseignement de la compréhension, le but de cette publication est de démontrer pourquoi cette approche est maintenant rejetée dans la plupart des autres pays où elle était également en vigueur.

190. Sénéchal, M. and J. A. Lefebvre (2002). *Parental involvement in the development of children's reading skill: A five year longitudinal study*. Child Development 73(2): 445-460.

This article 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.

191. Sénéchal, M., J. A. Lefebvre, et al. (2001). *On refining theoretical models of emergent literacy: The role of empirical evidence*. Journal of School Psychology 39(5): 439-460.

Children's emergent literacy has received considerable attention in the last decade. The modal view of emergent literacy is that it encompasses all aspects of children's oral and written language skills. The present article proposes an alternative view whereby emergent literacy is a separate construct from oral language and metalinguistic skills. It is also proposed that emergent literacy is composed of two distinct components; children's conceptual knowledge (e.g., knowledge of the functions of print) and children's early procedural knowledge of writing and reading (e.g., invented spelling). Evidence is presented that supports this differentiated view of language and emergent literacy by showing that distinct patterns of relations exist among emergent literacy, oral language, and metalinguistic skills. It is concluded that separating the constructs of language and emergent literacy is an interesting alternative to current conceptions of emergent literacy. In time, such theoretical fine tuning will serve as better guides for policy and practice.

192. Sonnenschein, S., L. Baker, et al. (2000). *Reading is a source of entertainment: The importance of the home perspective for children's literacy development*. K. Roskos and J. F. Christie. Play and literacy in early childhood: Research from multiple perspectives. p.107-124.

Presents research demonstrating how parental beliefs are related to the activities children engage in at home, and how parental beliefs and children's activities affect literacy development. Evidence is drawn from The Early Childhood Project, an investigation of reading development in 40 children (aged 4-9 yrs), which examined how children

experienced literacy at home and at school emphasizing both ecological and sociocultural factors. Information was collected from parents about children's engagement in literacy-related activities through open-ended diaries and a more structured ecological inventory. Parents were also interviewed about their beliefs regarding children's literacy acquisition. Results indicate that children's literacy development is influenced by their parent's beliefs about learning and by the activities the children engage in. Therefore, children benefit when their parents have the belief that reading is enjoyable and communicate, by their actions, their own enjoyment to their children.

193. Storch, S. A. and G. J. Whitehurst (2001). *The role of family and home in the literacy development of children from low-income backgrounds*. P. R. Britto and J. Brooks-Gunn. The role of family literacy environments in promoting young children's emerging literacy skill, New directions for child and adolescent development. p.53-71.

Proposed and tested a model of individual differences in the development of emergent literacy. 367 4-yr-olds and their caregivers were the Ss. The children's language and literacy skills were assessed 4 times--in the spring of Head Start, kindergarten, 1st grade, and 2nd grade--on inside-out skills, outside-in skills, reading measures, and home and family measures. The 3 factors constituting the home and family characteristics domain have a strong and significant influence on children's outside-in skills in Head Start. Outside-in skills have a strong and significant influence on inside-out skills during the preschool period. There was a strong continuity from preschool to 2nd grade in both the outside-in (language) and inside-out (prereading and reading) skill domains. The results suggest that early connections between home, language, and emergent literacy are important to later reading achievement. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

194. Sulzby, E. and W. H. Teale (1991). *Emergent literacy*. R. Barr, M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal and P. D. Pearson (eds.). Handbook of Reading Research. New York, Longman. 2. p.727-757.

In this chapter, Sulzby & Teale take previous reviews further (Mason, 1986; Teale & Sulzby, 1986; Teale, 1987) by casting new light on studies previously reported, adding newer researches, and framing all of the researches in light of what was currently known and its significance to the research and practice communities. The chapter divides into four parts: Emergent literacy: definitions and background; storybook reading as an emergent phenomenon; emergent writing; Emergent literacy and the home; metalinguistic awareness.

195. Wasik, B. H., R. D. Dobbins, et al. (2001). *Intergenerational family literacy: Concepts, research and practice*. S. B. Neuman and D. K. Dickinson (eds). Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press. p.3-10.

Wasik and her colleagues discuss family literacy programs and the complex issues that surround such programs. They review research on programs that strives to foster children's development by enhancing the literacy skills of parents and conclude that there

is only limited evidence for the effectiveness of these efforts. However they point to hopeful findings that program intensity and direct child services are consistently important aspects of family literacy programs. Then using a typology of approaches to work with, they describe those programs that coach families in valued practices and those that strive to understand a family's world view and create interventions that build on parents' strengths.

196. Whitehurst, G.J; Lonigan, C. J. (1998) *Child development and emergent literacy*. Child Development. Vol. 69(3) 848-872. Blackwell Publishers, US

Emergent literacy consists of the skills, knowledge, and attitudes that are developmental precursors to reading and writing. This article offers a preliminary typology of children's emergent literacy skills, a review of the evidence that relates emergent literacy to reading, and a review of the evidence for linkage between children's emergent literacy environments and the development of emergent literacy skills. We propose that emergent literacy consists of at least 2 distinct domains: inside-out skills (e.g., phonological awareness, letter knowledge) and outside-in skills (e.g., language, conceptual knowledge). These different domains are not the product of the same experiences and appear to be influential at different points in time during reading acquisition. Whereas outside-in skills are associated with those aspects of children's literacy environments typically measured, little is known about the origins of inside-out skills. Evidence from interventions to enhance emergent literacy suggests that intensive and multifaceted interventions are needed to improve reading achievement. Successful preschool interventions for outside-in skills exist, and computer-based tasks designed to teach children inside-out skills seem promising. Implications for public policy are discussed. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

197. Whitehurst, G. J. and C. J. Lonigan (2001). *Emergent Literacy: Development from pre-readers to readers*. S. B. Neuman and D. K. Dickinson (eds.). Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press, p.11-29.

In Chapter 2, Grover J. Whitehurst and Christopher J. Lonigan discuss the development of literacy from the emergent literacy period into the primary grades. Adopting a cognitive perspective, they identify two clusters of skills: inside-out, phonological and print-related knowledge from the printed word that is employed to translate sounds to print and print to sounds, and outside-in, lexical and conceptual knowledge that is brought from outside the written text: and used to construct meaning. They trace the developmental pathways of these clusters and describe high levels of stability within clusters and, using these data, stress the need to intervene during the preschool years.

B. Relations langage oral-langage écrit

Mots clés : *Développement du langage oral; habiletés langagières; langage décontextualisé; contexte langagier; oralité vs littérature*

198. Dickinson, D. K. and C. E. Snow (1987). Interrelationships among prereading and oral language skills in kindergartners from two social classes. Early Childhood Research Quarterly 2(1): 1-25.

Thirty-three kindergartners from two social classes were tested on an array of prereading and oral language skills. Prereading test results were clustered into composite scores reflecting skill interpreting environmental print, understanding how print functions, producing and decoding print, isolating phonemes, and comprehending stories. Several decontextualized language skills were assessed with a picture description task and a word definition task. Prereading skills were found to be highly intercorrelated and to relate to the ability to provide decontextualized definitions for words. Oral language measures of decontextualized skill correlated within task, but not across tasks. Social class differences were found for the prereading measures and for those oral language measures that correlated with the prereading measures. Social class differences were not found on measures of ability to provide communicatively adequate definitions or for receptive vocabulary.

199. Dickinson, D. K. and K. E. Sprague (2001). *The nature and impacts of early childhood care environments on the language and early literacy development of children from low income family*. S. B. Neuman and D. K. Dickinson (eds) Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press. p.3-10.

Dickinson and Sprague examine the nature of care children receive in the preschool years, and the impact quality has on children's language and literacy development. Converging results from three studies suggest that deficits in language can be improved in preschool settings. High quality language experiences in preschool classrooms affect the vocabulary and early literacy development, especially for those children from low-income families; thus quantitative changes in that settings may have enduring effects possibly lasting well into the middle school years.

200. Payne, A. C., G. J. Whitehurst, et al. (1994). *The role of home literacy environment in the development of language ability in preschool children from low-income families*. Early Childhood Research Quarterly 9(3-4): 427-440.

Examined the relations between home literacy environment (HLE) and child language ability for 323 children (aged 45-66 mo) attending Head Start and their mothers or primary caregivers. Overall frequency of shared picture book reading, age of onset of picture book reading, duration of shared picture book reading during one recent day, number of picture books in the home, frequency of S's requests to engage in shared picture book reading, frequency of S's private play with books, frequency of shared trips to the library, frequency of caregiver's private reading, and caregiver's enjoyment of

private reading constituted the HLE. Depending on the form of regression analysis employed and depending on whether primary caregiver IQ and education were entered into the prediction equations, 12% to 18.5% of the variance in S language scores was accounted for by HLE. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

201. Peterson, C., B. Jesso, et al. (1999). *Encouraging narratives in preschoolers: An intervention study*. Journal of Child Language 26: 49-67.

20 economically disadvantaged preschoolers (mean age 3.7 yrs) were randomly assigned to an intervention or a control group, and their mothers' styles of eliciting narratives from their children were assessed before and after intervention. Mothers of intervention children were encouraged to spend more time in narrative conversation, ask more open-ended and context-eliciting questions, and encourage longer narratives through back-channel responses. Children's narrative and vocabulary skills were assessed before and after the year-long intervention and 14 children participated in a follow-up assessment 1 yr later. Narrative measures included the number and length of narratives as well as how decontextualized and informative they were. Intervention children showed significant vocabulary improvement immediately after intervention terminated, and 1 yr later they showed overall improvements in narrative skill. Intervention children also produced more context-setting descriptions about where and when the described events took place.

202. Pierre, R. and D. Bourcier (1985). *Apprendre à lire sans école*. Vivre le français 27: 181-191.

Compte-rendu d'une conférence donnée dans le cadre du Congrès mondial de la Fédération internationale des professeurs de français tenu à Québec en juillet 1984. L'article décrit une étude menée auprès de 30 lecteurs précoces jumelés à 30 non lecteurs en fonction du sexe, du QI et du milieu socio-économique. Fondée sur les travaux de Olson et de Snow, l'hypothèse qui sous-tendait cette recherche était que les lecteurs précoces manifesteraient une maîtrise plus élevée du langage décontextualisé que les non lecteurs précoces.

203. Pierre, R., D. Bourcier, et al. (1990). *The acquisition of the systems of determiners by early readers*. M. Spoelders. Literacy acquisition. A contribution to the international literacy years. Grand, Belgique, C & C. p.71-91.

The three researches presented in this paper lean on the hypothesis that children, like early readers that are read to written texts very early and more often than other children of the same age must develop the mechanisms of decontextualized language earlier. There are, in fact, important differences between everyday spoken language, to which a five-year-old child is most often exposed, and written text. Written text is more than just a juxtaposition of sentences: it is a complex semantic unit that results from the concatenation of blocks of sentences in a hierarchical structure called a schema. This structure is determined both by the semantic content and the pragmatic conditions induced by the situation of communication. The relationships between the semantic blocks are identified by linguistic surface markers which establish reference links

between the entities of the text and the context of production (deictic and exophoric function) and co-reference links between the various units of text (anaphoric function), thus assuring its cohesion. Cohesion and Coherence rules all involve the system of determiners, the acquisition mechanisms of which is related to the acquisition of reading as shown by the results of the three researches.

204. Snow, C. E. (1983). Literacy and language: Relationships during the preschool years. Harvard Educational Review 53: 165-189.

Drawing upon recent research findings and upon a case study of a child learning to talk and to read, Catherine Snow outlines the important similarities in the development of both language and literacy. The characteristics of parent-child interaction which support language acquisition semantic contingency, scaffolding, accountability procedures, and the use of routines-also facilitate early reading and writing development. The author dismisses the explanation that variations in the level of literacy in the home are responsible for social class differences in school achievement, To explain such differences, Snow emphasizes distinctive ways in which middle-class families prepare preschoolers to understand and produce decontextualized language.

205. Snow, C. E. (1991). The theoretical basis for relationships between language and literacy in *development*. Journal of Research in Childhood Education 6: 5-10.

Considerable research now suggests that, in addition to the phonemic awareness skills which support early decoding, skilled reading also requires more general oral language competencies, particularly those involving the use of decontextualized language. The basic hypothesis of the Home-School Study of Language and Literacy development is that early development of skill with decontextualized language will be related to reading comprehension abilities when children are in the middle grades of school. A model is presented which illustrates this theory and an overview of the sample the data collection techniques, and the types of analyses are described.

206. Tabor, O. and C. E. Snow (2001). Young bilingual children and early literacy development. S. B. Neuman and D. K. Dickinson (eds). Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press. p.159-179.

Patton o. Tabors and Catherine E. Snow, in Chapter 12, describe bilingual development for children from birth to age 8 and examine the multiple pathways and multiple influences for literacy acquisition. Their research indicates that some approaches involve consistent support for a child's bilingualism while others, although leading to the acquisition of English language and literacy skills, may be dead-ends for bilingualism or biliteracy. They offer guidelines for educators in developing programs for young bilingual children.

207. Tabors, P. O., K. A. Roach, et al. (2001). *Home language and literacy environment: Final results*. D. K. Dickinson and P. O. Tabors (eds). Beginning literacy with language: Young children learning at home and school, p.111-138.

(from the chapter) This chapter discusses the final results of the preceding chapters regarding the Home-School Study of Language and Literacy Development. The authors discuss how they were able to identify 4 specific types of extended discourse related to 3 conversational settings: nonimmediate talk during book reading, pretend talk during toy play, and narrative and explanatory talk during mealtimes. Furthermore, the authors were able to identify the quality of the vocabulary, as measured by the density of rare words, in these different conversational settings. Finally, the authors were able to gather information about the types of literacy activities that the mothers reported doing with their children in order to gauge each family's home support for literacy. This chapter reports on the further analyses that were used to answer the questions about the home language and literacy environments of the children in the Home-School Study. This chapter covers (1) magnet task and science process talk, (2) home language and literacy environment, (3) and home language and literacy environment and kindergarten skills. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

208. Tabors, P. O., D. E. Beals, et al. (2001). «*You know what oxygen is?*»: *Learning new words at home*. D. K. Dickinson and P. O. Tabors (eds) Beginning literacy with language: Young children learning at home and school. xx. p.93-110.

(from the chapter) The purpose of this chapter is to investigate the vocabulary that children in the Home-School Study were exposed to in the different conversational settings that the authors recorded in their homes, and to look for relationships between that exposure and children's receptive vocabulary in kindergarten. Looking at vocabulary acquisition, the authors wanted to answer 3 questions: (1) What new vocabulary words were being introduced during conversations that the children in the study were involved in? (2) How were these words used in different conversational settings such as toy play, book reading, and mealtimes, and how did the conversational contexts help the children to learn at least some sense of a new word? (3) Are there relationships between vocabulary use by family members and children's later vocabulary skills? The topics covered are (1) learning new words, (2) support for rare-word use in the different conversational contexts, (3) the relationship between rare words and kindergarten vocabulary, and (4) suggestions for parents. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

209. Scarborough, H. S. (2001). *Connecting early language and literacy to later reading (Dis)abilities: Evidence, theory and practice*. S. B. Neuman and D. K. Dickinson (eds). Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press. p.97-111.

Hollis S. Scarborough examines continuities and discontinuities in language skills and links between language and reading ability from the preschool years into the early grades. She points to data illustrating clear evidence of long-term stability in language skills and argues that current conceptions of the causes of reading difficulties need to be reconsidered. Drawing on medical analogies, she outlines two alternatives to the causal chain models typically employed. She also argues that we need to recognize that development may occur in fits and starts and that this uneven pattern of growth may have

important consequences for researchers and diagnosticians.

210. Vernon-Feagans, L., C. Scheffner Hammer, et al. (2001). *Early language and literacy skills in low-income African American and Hispanic children*. S. B. Neuman and D. K. Dickinson (eds). Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press. p.192-210.

Chapters 14 and 15 focus on the challenges we face in making schools work for all children. Lynne Vernon-Feagans and her colleagues, in Chapter 14, describe the skills and experiences of children in poverty, highlighting research from the preschool Abecedarian project. Their findings cut across many of the issues described in other chapters, related to the causal factors related to poor school achievement. Like Tabors and Snow, they argue that any causal explanation of the poor performance in reading of poor children must take into account multiple factors, including the biological health factors, the environments in which poor children live, and the discrimination created by the schools and larger society. Following on this theme, Claude Goldenberg, in Chapter 15, suggests that although progress has been made, achievement remains elusive for far too many children from low-income families. His research examines the home and neighbourhood of urban and rural children from African American and Hispanic families, examining similarities and differences that exist cross-cultural and between socioeconomic groups with respect to the preliteracy language experience and skills most privileged in these cultures. Both of these chapters emphasize the importance of looking beyond educational interventions to the integration of programs, policies, and services in the community, with the schools being one of but many agencies to serve families and children.

211. Whitehurst, G. J. and J. E. Fischel (2000). *Reading and language impairments in conditions of poverty*. [Chapter]. D. V. M. Bishop and L. B. Leonard (eds) Speech and language impairments in children: Causes, characteristics, intervention and outcome. 13. p.53-71.

Children raised in economic poverty have below average development of language and are over represented among children with reading difficulties. What is the relation between language and literacy development for this population? Do children from low-income families fail at reading for the same reasons as children from middle-class families? Are there subgroups of children among readers from low-income backgrounds whose reading is impaired because of unique disabilities? Results from longitudinal research with a sample 338 of children (4-5 yrs old, and 7-8 yrs old at follow-up) in poverty support the conclusions that a) the connection between language and literacy skills is present strongly during the pre-kindergarten period but language and literacy develop independently during the first years of formally learning to read; b) the same skills factors predict reading success and failure in a low-income sample as have been identified for middle-income samples; c) a subgroup of 20-25% of children in a low-income sample may suffer from dyslexia and be distinguishable from their peers. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

C. Lecture de livres

L'influence de la lecture orale de livres sur le développement de la littératie est le thème qui a été le plus étudié, d'où notre décision de le distinguer

Mots clés : *lecture de livre; interactions parents-enfants; stratégies de lecture; effets sur le développement du langage oral; effets sur l'apprentissage de la lecture*

212. Arnold, D. H., C. J. Lonigan, et al. (1994). *Accelerating language development through picture book reading: Replication and extension to a videotape training format*. Journal of Educational Psychology 86(2): 235-243.

G. J. Whitehurst et al (see record 1989-02401-001) taught mothers specific interactive techniques to use when reading picture books with their preschool-age children. This intervention program, called dialogic reading, produced substantial effects on preschool children's language development. However, the costs of one-on-one training limit the widespread use of dialogic reading techniques. In this study the authors aimed to replicate and extend the results of the original study of dialogic reading by developing and evaluating an inexpensive videotape training package for teaching dialogic reading techniques. Mothers were randomly assigned to receive no training, traditional direct training, or videotape training. Results supported the conclusions of Whitehurst et al: Dialogic reading had powerful effects on children's language skills and indicated that videotape training provided a cost-effective, standardized means of implementing the program. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

213. Baker, L., K. Mackler, et al. (2001). *Parents' interactions with their first-grade children during storybook reading and relations with subsequent home reading activity and reading achievement*. Journal of School Psychology. 39(5): 415-438.

This study examined parents' (mothers) verbal and affective interactions with their first-grade children (n = 61) during shared storybook reading and how these interactions relate to growth in children's reading activity and achievement. Participants varied in income level and ethnicity. The Word Identification, Word Attack, Passage Comprehension, and Reading Vocabulary tests from the Woodcock-Johnson Tests of Achievement B Revised were administered. The nature and amount of meaning-related talk was similar regardless of whether the parent or child assumed primary responsibility for reading, but there was more talk about the reading process itself (word recognition) when the child read. Talk that went beyond the immediate content of the story was more common among middle-income families. Positive affective interactions were associated with meaning-related talk, and negative interactions were associated with parental attempts to have the child use decoding strategies to identify unknown words. Affective quality was an important contributor to children's reading of challenging materials in third grade but not to their reading achievement. Implications for advising parents on reading with their children are considered.

214. Burgess, S. (1997). *The role of shared reading in the development of phonological awareness: A longitudinal study of middle to upper class children.* Early Child Development & Care 127-128: 191-99.

Tested assumption that variability in home literacy environments has no effect on individual differences in reading development. Found that variability in shared reading interactions was significantly related to growth in phonological awareness even after accounting for the effects of age, oral language, and phonological awareness at the beginning of the study. Also found support for cumulative exposure as an important aspect. (MOK)

215. Bus, A. G., M. H. Van Ijzendoorn, et al. (1995). *Joint book reading makes for success in learning to read: A meta-analysis on intergenerational transmission of literacy.* Review of Educational Research 65: 1.

Results of a quantitative analysis of empirical evidence related to parent-preschooler reading support the hypothesis that parent-preschooler reading is related to outcome measures such as language growth, emergent literacy, and reading achievement. Book reading apparently affects acquisition of the written language register. (SLD)

216. Bus, A. G. (2001). *Joint caregiver-child storybook reading: a route to literacy development.* S. B. Neuman and D. K. Dickinson (eds) Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press. p.3-10.

Adrian; G. Bus examines the rich research base for reading aloud to children frequently and conversationally. From the theoretical lens of the attachment hypothesis, she describes how relationships between caregiver and child, secure or insecure, influence the types and qualities of the conversation in storybook reading. These qualitative differences are related to children's developing understanding of decontextualized language and their motivation to read.

217. Crain-Thoreson, C. and P. S. Dale (1999). *Enhancing linguistic performance: Parents and teachers as book reading partners for children with language delays.* Topics in Early Childhood Special Education 19(1).

Instructed parents and early childhood special education staff in Dialogic Reading, an interactive language facilitation technique to explore the effects of this instruction on adult and child language during shared book reading and on children's vocabulary growth. 32 children (3-5 yrs old) with language delays were randomly assigned to 1 of 3 groups: (a) parent instruction with one-on-one shared book reading practice, (b) staff instruction with one-on-one shared book reading practice, (c) staff instruction without one-on-one shared book reading practice (control group). Children were given standardized tests of vocabulary and were videotaped during shared book reading before and after the 8 wk intervention period. After adult instruction in Dialogic Reading, children in all 3 groups spoke more, made longer utterances, produced more different

words, and participated more in shared book reading. The magnitude of change in the children's linguistic performance from pre- to post-test was positively correlated with the magnitude of change in adult behavior. Results are consistent with a Vygotskian model in which children's linguistic performance can be enhanced by a supportive social context.

218. Dickinson, D. K., J. M. de Temple, et al. (1992). *Book reading with preschoolers: Coconstruction of text at home and at school*. Early Childhood Research Quarterly 7(3): 323-346.

Examined the home and preschool book-reading experiences of 25 low-income children when they were 3 and 4 yrs old. When children were 3 yrs old, reading experiences in the home were dominated by talk dealing with immediately present information, with efforts to extend and clarify talk also common. At 4 yrs old, there was a large decrease in the amount of extending talk by adults, a drop in immediate talk, and a decline in the overall amount of talk by adults. School book experiences at 3 yrs old were dominated by immediate and organizational talk. At 4 yrs old, considerable time was spent talking about immediate and nonimmediate topics. It is suggested that a partnership model best describes the nature of the relationship between the home and the preschool. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

219. Dickinson, D. K. and M. W. Smith (1994). *Long-term effects of preschool teachers' book readings on low-income children's vocabulary and story comprehension*. Reading Research Quarterly 29(2): 105-22.

Finds 3 patterns of book-reading experiences in 24 classrooms of 4-year olds: coconstructive; didactic-interactional; and performance-oriented. Finds larger gains (one year later) by children in the performance-oriented classrooms than by those in the didactic-interactional rooms. Reveals strong effects of child-involved analytic talk on vocabulary and modest effects on story understanding. (SR)

220. Dickinson, D. and M. Smith (1994). *Long-term effects of preschool teachers' book readings on low-income children's vocabulary and story comprehension*. Reading Research Quarterly 29: 104-122.

Examined patterns of talking about books in 25 classrooms serving low-income children (aged 4 yrs) and studied relationships between book-reading experiences and children's vocabulary growth and story understanding at a 1-yr follow-up. Data were collected from videotaped book-reading sessions, teacher interviews, 25 individual target children's spontaneous language use, and Ss' follow-up tests on vocabulary and story-understanding skill. Three distinct patterns of reading books were identified: co-constructive, in which teachers and children engaged in cognitively challenging conversations; didactic-interactional, in which children responded to questions about factual details; and performance-oriented, in which reading was followed by extended discussion. Ss in performance-oriented classrooms indicated larger vocabulary gains than other Ss. Child-involved analytic talk also affected vocabulary.

221. Edwards, P. A. and C. P. Panofsky (1989). *The effect of two training procedures on the book reading of lower-SES mothers and children*. S. Mc Cormick, J. Zutell, P. L. Scharer and P. R. O'Keefe (eds). Cognitive and social perspectives for literacy research and instruction. Chicago. p.135-142.

Examined whether short-term interventions for introducing book reading (BR) would promote understanding of BR as the school-preferred approach to literacy. Ss were 14 Head Start mothers of lower socioeconomic status (SES) and their 4 yr olds. Training consisted of 3 1-hr sessions, in which Ss participated in either (1) importance training that involved discussions of the importance of literacy and reading to children or (2) modeling (MDL) training that presented BR strategies. Mothers in the MDL condition increased their level of initiatives in the use of questions and comments, and the primary function of these changes was referential. Children's participation was generally low, but children's responding in the MDL condition was referential. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

222. Edwards, P. A. (1995). *Empowering low-income mothers and fathers to share books with young children*. The Reading Teacher 48(7): 558-564.

Describes how one school-based program (Parents as Partners in Reading) continued to influence the ways in which a group of low-income mothers assisted other low-income mothers and fathers in sharing books with their children after the program developer was no longer actively involved in monitoring the book-reading program. (SR)

223. Feitelson, D. and Z. Goldstein (1986). *Patterns of book ownership and reading to young children in Israeli school-oriented and non school-oriented families*. Reading Teacher 39: 924-930.

Compared 51 kindergarten children in Israeli schools in which children tend to succeed to 51 kindergarten children in Israeli schools in which children tend not to succeed on the amounts of books owned by the Ss and the amount of time Ss were read to at home. It was found that Ss in the succeeding schools owned far more books and were read to at home far more often than were Ss in the less successful school environments.

224. Hardgrave, A. and M. Sénéchal (2000). *A book reading intervention with preschool children who have limited vocabularies: The benefits of regular reading and dialogic reading*. Early Childhood Research Quarterly 15(1): 75-89.

The authors 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 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.

225. Heath, S. B. (1982). *What no bedtime story means: Narrative skills at home and school*. Language in Society 11: 49-76.

Studied patterns of language use related to books on 3 literate communities in the southeastern US, focusing on such «literacy events» as bedtime story reading. The 3 communities differed in their patterns of language use and in the paths of language socialization of their children. The differences in preschoolers' language use were reflected in 3 different patterns of adjustment to school. This comparative study shows the inadequacy of the prevalent dichotomy between oral and literate traditions and also points to the inadequacy of unilinear models of child language development and dichotomies between types of cognitive styles. It is argued that the study of the development of language use in relation to written materials in the home and community requires a broad framework of sociocultural analysis.

226. Lancy, D. F. and C. Bergin (1992). *The role of parents in supporting beginning reading*. San Francisco, CA, Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Research Associates.

A study examined parents' contributions to the emerging reading abilities of kindergarten and first-grade children by documenting the variation in parent-child interaction during joint storybook reading and the specific interaction patterns associated with children's reading fluency and affect. Subjects, 32 white, working-class parent-child pairs were videotaped for 30 to 40 minutes while reading to each other from a varied collection of picture books. An elaborate coding scheme was developed to analyze both parent and child behaviors. Results indicated that: (1) parents interpreted the mandate to read to their children in a wide variety of ways; (2) the way parents corrected reading errors and their apparent purpose for reading was associated with both the child's reading fluency and affect; (3) the number of error corrections and questions answered were not related to reading fluency or affect; and (4) the number of comments made while reading was not related to fluency. Results showed that parent-child pairs who view the child's reading as fun, keep the story flowing by using semantic-oriented rather than decoding-oriented correction tactics, encourage questions about the story and express humor while reading have children who are more fluent and more positive about reading. Findings underscore the need for educators to convey information to parents about how to be a good coach to the beginning reader, rather than just telling parents and children to read at home more. (Three tables and two figures of data are included; 37 references are attached.) (RS)

227. Lonigan, C. J. and G. J. Whitehurst (1998). *Relative efficacy of parent and teacher involvement in a shared-reading intervention for preschool children from low-income backgrounds*. Early Childhood Research Quarterly 13(2): 263-290.

The effects of an interactive shared-reading intervention were evaluated with 3- to 4-year-old children from low-income families who attended subsidized child care. The children entered the program with oral language skills that were significantly below age-level as measured by standardized tests. Children were pretested and randomly assigned to 1 of 4 conditions: (a) no treatment control, (b) a school condition in which children were read to by their teachers in small groups, (c) a home condition in which children were read to by their parents, and (d) a combined school plus home condition. Parents and teachers were trained in a specific form of interactive reading via an instructional videotape. The intervention was conducted for 6 weeks, after which children were posttested on standardized measures of oral language, and language samples were obtained during a shared-reading assessment. Significant effects of the reading intervention were obtained at posttest and were largest for children in conditions involving home reading. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

228. Neuman, S. B. (1996). *Children engaging in storybook reading: The influence of access to print resources, opportunity, and parental interaction*. Early Childhood Research Quarterly 11: 495-513.

Examined an intervention strategy designed to provide access to literacy materials and opportunities for parent-child storybook reading in 3 Head Start Centers. There were 3 specific objectives (1) to examine the influence of text type (highly predictable, episodic predictable, and narrative) on patterns of interaction between parents and children; (2) to examine whether there were differences in these patterns of interaction between low proficiency and proficient parent readers; and (3) to examine gains in receptive language and concepts of print scores for children of low proficiency and proficient parent readers. 41 parents and their children (mean age 40.7 mo) participated in the study. 18 parent Ss were low proficiency readers and 23 parent Ss were proficient readers. All Ss were involved in a 12-wk book club. Results indicate that text type affected patterns of interaction and that parents' reading proficiency influenced conversational interactions, with different text types serving as a scaffold for parent-child interaction. Regardless of parental reading proficiency, however, children's receptive language and concepts of print improved significantly, providing further evidence for the importance of parental storybook reading on children's emerging literacy.

229. Quiroa, R. E. (2001). *The use and role of multiethnic children's literature in family literacy Programs: Realities and possibilities*. New Advocate 14: 43-52.

Reviews the recent professional literature on family literacy programs, with a focus on the use and role of children's literature, specifically multiethnic texts, within those programs. Describes children's literature in family literacy and discusses the role of multiethnic literature in family literacy. Presents three examples of family literacy programs for which the literature component has been more fully documented. (SC)

230. Reese, D. A. and V. J. Harris (1997). *"Look at this nest!" The beauty and power of using informational books with young children*. Early Child Development & Care 127-128: 217-31.

Examines why fiction books have usually been the genre of choice for reading aloud; research challenging the fiction-only approach; benefits of nonfiction books in the literacy experience of children; and how specific nonfiction books may be used to provide knowledge and an aesthetic experience comparable to that obtained with fiction. (MOK)

231. Roskos, K. and S. B. Neuman (1994). *Of scribbles, schemas and storybooks : Using literacy albums to document young children's literacy growth*. Young Children 49: 78-85.

Discusses the observation and assessment of literacy development of young children in child care settings, and describes literacy goals and performance indicators for three- to five-year-old children. Introduces the «literacy album» as a means of gathering, observing, and interpreting information about children's literacy behaviors; and gives suggestions for using the literacy album to observe and assess literacy development. (BB)

232. Sénéchal, M., E. H. Cornell, et al. (1995). *Age-related differences in the organisation of parent-infant interactions during picture book reading*. Early Childhood Research Quarterly 10: 317-337.

These observations indicate how the organization of book reading events differs when middle- to upper-class suburban parents read picture books to preverbal and verbal infants. Twelve parent-infant dyads for each group of 9-, 17-, and 27-month-old infants were videotaped in their homes. On each of three visits, two different books were read. The books either contained sentences describing the illustrations or did not contain any sentences. The quality of parent verbalizations changed with the age of the infant; parents reading to younger infants used more attention-recruiting verbalizations and more elaborations, whereas parents reading to older infants used more questions and more feedback. Analyses of sequential dependencies between categories of behaviors suggest that, across these age groups, parents monitor and attempt to maximize their infants' attention to the book. Parents' verbalizations expand from labelling comments, to sequences of labeling questions, to dialogues that exercise the growing linguistic competencies of the infant. Finally, interactions with books containing no sentences led to more verbal behaviors by the parent and more vocalizations by the infant.

233. Sénéchal, M., E. M. Thomas, et al. (1995). *Individual differences in 4 year-old children's acquisition of vocabulary during storybook reading*. Journal of Educational Psychology 87(2): 218-229.

Two experiments were conducted to assess how children who differ in vocabulary knowledge learn new vocabulary incidentally from listening to stories read aloud. In both experiments, 4-year-old children were classified as having either high or low word knowledge on the basis of a median split of their Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-Revised (PPVT-R) standard scores. In Experiment 1, children either listened passively or labelled pictures using novel words during the book readings. We found that children with larger vocabularies produced more novel words than did children with smaller

vocabularies, and children who answered questions during the book readings comprehended and produced more words than did children who passively listened to the story. In Experiment 2, children either listened to readings of a book, pointed to pictures during the readings, or labelled pictures during the readings. Children with larger vocabularies comprehended more novel words than did children with smaller vocabularies. Children who actively participated by labelling or pointing learned more words than did children who listened passively to book readings. The findings clarify the role of active responding by demonstrating that verbal and nonverbal responding are effective means of enhancing vocabulary acquisition.

234. Sénéchal, M., J. A. Lefebvre, et al. (1996). *Knowledge of storybooks as a predictor of young children's vocabulary*. Journal of Educational Psychology 88: 520-536.

Shared book reading provides a rich source of linguistic stimulation for young children. The authors examined whether variations in knowledge of storybooks (assumed to index factors such as frequency of shared reading) were related to vocabulary scores for 3- to 6-year-olds. In Experiment 1, parents' knowledge of storybooks explained unique variance in children's receptive vocabulary scores after controlling for children's analytic intelligence, parents' exposure to adult reading material, and parents' education. In Experiment 2, children's knowledge of storybooks explained unique variance in their receptive and expressive vocabulary scores after controlling for parents' exposure to print and socioeconomic status level. Children's knowledge of storybooks indexed cognitive factors as well as exposure. The findings obtained in the 2 experiments suggest that storybook experiences during the preschool years may be an important influence on the development of children's language skills.

235. Sénéchal, M. (1997). *The differential effect of storybook reading on preschoolers acquisition of expressive and receptive vocabulary*. Journal of Child Language 24: 123-138.

The present study was conducted to assess the effect of didactic techniques used during storybook reading on young children's acquisition of new vocabulary introduced in storybooks. Thirty children for each group of three- and four-year-old children were read one storybook individually. The study included three storybook reading conditions: single-reading, repeated-reading and questioning. In both the repeated-reading and the questioning conditions, the storybook was read three times. Children in the questioning condition were asked, during each reading of the storybook, to label target items with the novel words. Listening to multiple readings of a storybook facilitated children's acquisition of expressive and receptive vocabulary, whereas answering questions during the multiple readings was more helpful to the acquisition of expressive than receptive vocabulary. These findings suggest that, under certain conditions, didactic techniques used by adults have differential effects on preschoolers' receptive and expressive vocabulary.

236. Sénéchal, M., J. Lefebvre, et al. (1998). *Differential effects of home literacy experiences on the development of oral and written language*. Reading Research Quarterly 13: 96-116.

The present study was conducted to assess the effect of didactic techniques used during storybook reading on young children's acquisition of new vocabulary introduced in storybooks. Thirty children for each group of three- and four-year-old children were read one storybook individually. The study included three storybook reading conditions: single-reading, repeated-reading and questioning. In both the repeated-reading and the questioning conditions, the storybook was read three times. Children in the questioning condition were asked, during each reading of the storybook, to label target items with the novel words. Listening to multiple readings of a storybook facilitated children's acquisition of expressive and receptive vocabulary, whereas answering questions during the multiple readings was more helpful to the acquisition of expressive than receptive vocabulary. These findings suggest that, under certain conditions, didactic techniques used by adults have differential effects on preschoolers' receptive and expressive vocabulary.

237. Sénéchal, M. (2000). *Examen du lien entre la lecture de livres et le développement du vocabulaire chez l'enfant d'âge préscolaire*. Enfance 2: 169-186.

Cette recherche porte sur l'étude du lien entre la lecture de livres et le développement du vocabulaire chez des enfants préscolaires. Dans ce but, trois nouveaux outils ont été développés pour mesurer la connaissance qu'ont les parents et leur enfant de la littérature enfantine. Ainsi, ces outils sont des mesures indirectes de la fréquence et la variété de lecture aux enfants. Notre méthodologie s'appuie sur l'idée que les parents qui lisent beaucoup et les enfants à qui on lit beaucoup devraient avoir des connaissances plus grandes que ceux qui lisent moins. Les parents ont aussi répondu à des questions portant sur leurs habitudes de lecture aux enfants. Un échantillon de 80 parents et enfants a participé. Les résultats montrent clairement que les nouveaux outils prédisent mieux le vocabulaire des enfants que les questions habituellement utilisées en recherche. Enfin, il existe toujours un lien entre la lecture et le vocabulaire des enfants même lorsque le niveau d'éducation des parents, leurs propres habitudes de lecture et le niveau d'intelligence des enfants sont contrôlés statistiquement. Ces résultats sont en accord avec l'hypothèse que la lecture est bénéfique au développement du vocabulaire des enfants.

238. Sénéchal, M. and J. A. Lefebvre (2001). *Storybook reading and parent teaching: Links to language and literacy development*. New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development, 92: 39-52.

Cette recherche porte sur l'étude du lien entre la lecture de livres et le développement du vocabulaire chez des enfants préscolaires. Dans ce but, trois nouveaux outils ont été développés pour mesurer la connaissance qu'ont les parents et leur enfant de la littérature enfantine. Ainsi, ces outils sont des mesures indirectes de la fréquence et la variété de lecture aux enfants. Notre méthodologie s'appuie sur l'idée que les parents qui lisent beaucoup et les enfants à qui on lit beaucoup devraient avoir des connaissances plus grandes que ceux qui lisent moins. Les parents ont aussi répondu à des questions portant sur leurs habitudes de lecture aux enfants. Un échantillon de 80 parents et enfants a participé. Les résultats montrent clairement que les nouveaux outils prédisent mieux le

vocabulaire des enfants que les questions habituellement utilisées en recherche. Enfin, il existe toujours un lien entre la lecture et le vocabulaire des enfants même lorsque le niveau d'éducation des parents, leurs propres habitudes de lecture et le niveau d'intelligence des enfants sont contrôlés statistiquement. Ces résultats sont en accord avec l'hypothèse que la lecture est bénéfique au développement du vocabulaire des enfants.

239. Shapiro, J., J. Anderson, A. Anderson (1997) *Diversity in parental Storybook reading*. Early Child Development and Care, vols 127-128, p.47-59.

Reading picture storybooks to preschool age children has long been a major component of early childhood classrooms and is now commonly recommended to parents. The benefits of this practice are thought to include exposure to rich language experiences, the development of narrative, and the development of book and print-related concepts. These views have become accepted and extended to culturally diverse segments of society, even though most of the research has been conducted with small samples of predominantly white, upper-middle class families. The present study finds diverse storybook interactions within a static sample and questions the practice of generalizing findings about storybook reading to dissimilar populations.

240. Sonnenschein, S. and K. Munsterman (2002). *The Influence of home-based reading interactions on 5-year-olds' reading motivations and early literacy development*. Early Childhood Research Quarterly 17(3): 318-337.

In order to understand the impact of home-based reading practices on young children's literacy development, it is important to consider both the types of comments made while reading as well as the affective quality of the reading interaction. Five-year-olds were observed reading both a familiar and an unfamiliar book with a member of their family. 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. Comments about the content of the storybook were the most common type of utterance during reading interactions. Reported reading frequency was the only significant correlate of children's early literacy-related skills. In contrast, the affective quality of the reading interaction was the most powerful predictor of children's motivations for reading. These results emphasize the importance of the affective quality of reading interactions for fostering children's interest in literacy.

241. Sulzby, E. (1985). *Children's emergent reading of favourite story-books : A developmental study*. Reading Research Quarterly 20: 458-481.

Children in literate societies have been found to have knowledge about written language long before reading conventionally from print. It is suggested that they are sorting out oral and written language relationships in activities like storybook reading with parents and that what they are learning can be detected by asking them to «read» to an adult from

familiar, or «favorite» books. In Study 1, the emergent reading attempts of 24 children at the beginning and end of their kindergarten year (during which there was no formal instruction in reading or writing) were content-analyzed in light of theoretical considerations about general and language development. The reading attempts appeared to fall into a classification scheme with developmental properties. This scheme documented significant improvement in children's emergent reading over the kindergarten year. Study 2 examined reading attempts of two-, three-, and four-year-olds; each child read two books per session for four sessions spaced over a year. Children's storybook reading attempts were stable over different storybooks read in the same session. A comparison with data from Study 1 revealed a developmental progression across age-levels. Results are discussed in light of the need for future research in emergent literacy and of implications for parents, schools, and instructional/assessment design.

242. Valdez-Meschaca, M. C. and G. J. Whitehurst (1992). *Accelerating language development through picture book reading: A systematic extension to Mexican day care*. Developmental Psychology 28: 1106-1114.

Previous research demonstrates linguistic advances in middle-class 2-year-olds in the United States resulting from training parents to read with their children following a particular style. This style, called dyadic reading, encourages children to talk about picture books and gives them models and feedback for progressively more sophisticated language use. This research extends these procedures to a day-care setting using 20 Mexican 2-year-olds from low-income backgrounds. Children in the intervention group were read to individually by a teacher using dialogic reading techniques. The control group children were given individual arts and crafts instruction by the same teacher. Effects of the intervention were assessed through standardized language tests and by comparing the children's spontaneous language while they shared a picture book with an adult who was unaware of their group assignment. Differences favouring the intervention group were found on all standardized language post-tests and on some measures of language production.

243. Wasik, B. A. and M. A. Bond (2001). *Beyond the Pages of a Book: Interactive Book Reading and Language Development in Preschool Classrooms*. Journal of Educational Psychology 93(2): 243-50.

The effects of a book reading technique called interactive book reading on the language and literacy development of 4-year-olds from low-income families were evaluated. Teachers read books to children and reinforced vocabulary in the books by presenting objects that represented the words and providing opportunities to use the words. (BF)

244. Whitehurst, G. J., F. Galco, et al. (1988). *Accelerating language development through picture book reading*. Developmental Psychology 24(4): 552-59.

We experimentally assessed a 1-month, home-based intervention, designed to optimize parental reading of picture books to young children. Parents in the experimental group received instructions to increase their rates of open-ended questions, function/attribute

questions, and expansions; to respond appropriately to children's attempts to answer these questions; and to decrease their frequency of straight reading and questions that could be answered by pointing. Control-group parents were instructed to read in their customary fashion. All families audio taped their reading sessions at home. Analysis of these tapes demonstrated that the experimental-group parents complied with the intervention instructions. Children in the experimental group scored significantly higher than children in the control group on standardized post-tests of expressive language ability. On the basis of Z analysis of audiotapes, children in the experimental group also had a higher mean length of utterance (MLU), a higher frequency of phrases, and a lower frequency of single words. Follow-up 9 months after the completion of treatment disclosed continued, although statistically diminished, differences between the two groups.

245. Whitehurst, G. J., D. S. Arnold, et al. (1994). *A picture book reading intervention in day care and home for children from low-income families*. Developmental Psychology 30.

The effects of an interactive book reading program were assessed with children from low-income families who attended subsidized day-care centers in New York. The children entered the program with language development in standard English vocabulary and expression that was about 10 mo behind chronological age on standardized tests. Children were pretested and assigned randomly within classrooms to 1 of 3 conditions: (1) a school plus home condition in which the children were read to by their teachers and their parents, (2) a school condition in which children were read to only by teachers, and (3) a control condition in which children engaged in play activities under the supervision of their teachers. Training of adult readers was based on a self-instructional video. The intervention lasted for 6 wks, at which point children were posttested on several standardized measures of language ability that had been used as pretests. These assessments were repeated at a 6 mo follow-up. Educationally and statistically significant effects of the reading intervention were obtained at posttest and follow-up on measures of expressive vocabulary.

D. Jeu et éveil à l'écrit

Même si ce thème a encore été peu exploité, son importance dans la problématique de l'éducation préscolaire nous a incité à en faire un thème distinct.

246. Korat, O., E. Bahar, et al. (2003). Sociodramatic play as opportunity for literacy development: *The Teacher's Role*. Reading Teacher 56(4): 386-393.

Reports on an educational project that focused on the nature of the support one teacher gave to the children in her kindergarten class while engaging with them in literacy play. Contends that the project revealed that young children have their own assumptions about and knowledge of the written language, which they actively use in their play.

247. Neumann, S. B. and K. Roskos (1990). *Play, print and purpose: Enriching play environments for literacy development*. The Reading Teacher 44: 214-221.

Describes how play centers can be enriched in the functional uses of print. Details some of the effects observed on the frequency and quality of literacy activities in the spontaneous play of 37 preschoolers. (MG)

248. Neuman, S. B. and K. Roskos (1992). *Literacy objects as cultural tools: Effects on children's literacy behaviors in play*. Reading Research Quarterly, 27: 202-225.

A study examined the effects of literacy-enriched play settings on preschoolers' literacy behaviors in spontaneous free play. Subjects were 91 children, ages 3-5, from 2 urban day care centers. Prior to, and following the intervention, the frequency of each child's handling, reading and writing behaviors in play was assessed through direct observation. Videotaped samples of play areas, collected throughout the study, examined the nature of children's play themes and their uses of literacy objects in play. Following baseline observations, the physical environment of one of the day care centers was enriched with literacy objects in three distinct play centers: kitchen, office, and library. Significant differences were recorded for the experimental group in the frequency, duration, and complexity of literacy demonstrations in play. Further, children in the experimental group incorporated literacy objects in more diverse and functional ways in their play using more explicit language than the control group. Findings suggests that, with literacy-enriched settings, play may become an increasingly important context for children to discover and explore the nature of written language. (Seven tables of data and 4 figures are included; 45 references are attached.) (Author/MG)

249. Neuman, S. B. and K. Roskos (1997). *Literacy knowledge in practice : Contexts of participation for young writers and readers*. Reading Research Quarterly 32: 10-32.

Investigates young children's literacy activity within play settings designed to reflect authentic literacy contexts in children's real-world environment. Finds that, in the course of play activities, children demonstrated declarative knowledge about literacy (e.g. names of literacy objects), procedural knowledge, and strategic knowledge. Suggests that the children demonstrated a rich repertoire of literacy knowledge and inventive heuristics.

250. Roskos, K. and S. B. Neuman (1993). *Descriptive observations of adults' facilitation of literacy in young children's play*. Early Childhood Research Quarterly 8: 77-97.

Using a qualitative research approach, this article examined adults' literacy-assisting behaviors, role taking during the spontaneous play of 3- and 4-year-old children in three literacy-based play settings. Six early childhood caregivers participated in the study as informants. Based on ethnographic interviews with them, their journal entries, and observations of their behaviors (actions and language) during free playtime, characteristic behaviors and roles supportive of literacy in play were identified and described. Qualities of the adults' role taking in the flow of children's literacy-related play were also observed. The descriptive observations point toward commonalities among adults' facilitation of literacy in play, accepted play intervention techniques, and adult behaviors in storybook-reading contexts. Implications for further research and practice are also discussed.

251. Saracho, Olivia N. (2001) *Exploring young children's literacy development through play*. Early Child Development & Care. Vol 167, 103-114.

Conducted a study to determine the effects of literacy-oriented materials and interactions on emergent literacy behaviors of 5 classrooms of 5-year-old kindergarten children. Over an 8-wk period, play centers were enriched with literacy-oriented materials and play activities that promote reading and writing were integrated in play centers in the early childhood curriculum. Qualitative analysis of the data indicated that a language or literacy component can be integrated in the play activities of kindergarten children. Play activities were used to promote the inventing symbols and messages in children's writing. The teachers in the kindergarten classrooms created a literate environment to promote the children's literacy development. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

E. Interventions en milieu familial

Mots clés: *stratégies d'interventions; critères d'efficacité; facteurs d'influence; dimensions de l'apprentissage; influence sur la réussite scolaire*

252. Baker, A. J., C. S. Piotrkowski, et al. (1998). *The effects of the Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngster (HIPPY) on children's performance at the end of the program and one year later*. Early Childhood Research Quarterly 13: 571-588.

The Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters (HIPPY) is a 2-years home based early childhood education and parent involvement program for parents with limited formal education. The key program features are bimonthly home visits and bimonthly group meetings during which parents use HIPPY story books and educational activities with their preschool children. This report presents findings on the effectiveness of HIPPY programs for children in the early school years. A two cohort experimental design with a randomized control group was implemented. Children were assessed at baseline, at the end of the program and 1 year later on cognitive skills, adaptation to the classroom, and standardized achievement. HIPPY Children from Cohort 1 performed significantly better than comparison group children on all measures of school performance both at the end of the program and one year later. However, no effects were found for Cohort 2. No significant differences between groups or cohorts account for this lack of replication. The authors also report on a concurrent evaluation that was conducted in a different state. Although the design differed and the study was quasi-experimental, the same pattern was found significant effects were found for cohort 1 but not cohort 2. The authors interpret these findings as mixed support for HIPPY.

253. Baker, L., S. Sonnenschein, et al. (1999). *A five-year comparison of actual and recommended parental practices for promoting children's literacy development*. I. K. Roskos. Early literacy at the crossroads: Policy, practice, and promise., National

Reading Research Center, College Park, MD. National Inst. of Child Health and Human Development (NIH), Bethesda, MD.

This report details a 5-year study comparing family literacy practices of families from preschool to Grade 3 with recommendations from the position statement of the National Association for the Education of Young Children and the International Reading Association (NAEYC-IRA). Participating were African- and European-American families of children attending Baltimore public schools. At the end of 5 years, the sample totalled about 54 families. Data were collected through yearly parent interviews regarding literacy-related beliefs and practices, periodic observations of parent-child literacy interactions, a week-long parent diary detailing their child's everyday experiences, and yearly testing of children on literacy tasks. Recommendations for parental practices and emerging literacy include: (1) engage in shared book reading; (2) provide frequent and varied oral language experiences; (3) encourage self-initiated print interactions; (4) visit the library regularly; (5) demonstrate the value of literacy in everyday life; (6) promote reading motivation; (7) foster pride and self-efficacy in reading; and (8) communicate with teachers and be involved in school. The report concludes that there is evidence that parents from diverse sociocultural backgrounds do follow the NAEYC-IRA guidelines. However, the report also notes that the guidelines do not give advice for what parents ought not do, for example, using drill and practice to develop reading abilities. Appendices include 9 tables that detail family practices recommended in the NAEYC/IRA Position Statement.

254. Dickinson, D. K. and P. O. Tabors (1991). *Early literacy: Linkages between home, school and literacy achievement at age five*. Journal of Research in Childhood Education 6(1): 30-46.

Reports the findings relating the predictor variables identified through analyses to the outcome measures of early literacy from the test battery administered to children in the Home-School Study of Language and Literacy Development study at age 5 yrs. The test battery, called the School Home Early Language and Literacy Kindergarten Battery, uses a variety of assessment procedures to develop a componential view of each child's language and literacy development. Results demonstrate that both home and school measures contribute to children's literacy achievement at age 5 yrs. Profiles of 3 selected children are presented to demonstrate the variability in the experiences and outcomes of these children. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

255. Neuman, S. B. and P. Gallagher (1994). *Joining together in literacy learning: Teenage mothers and children*. Reading Research Quarterly 29(4): 383-401.

Examined whether existing interactive patterns between 6 19-22 yr old mothers and their children (aged 3.2-4.3 yrs) could be enhanced for greater responsiveness and, if so, the potential effects on the child's literacy-related activity and cognitive growth. The children were administered the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT). Literacy-related play settings were then created in their homes. Mothers were coached to (1) draw attention to and label the objects of interest to children, (2) "scaffold" children's efforts through

demonstrations and modeling, and (3) challenge children's interpretations through responses contingent to the child's previous utterance. After a 6-wk period, new materials were provided to measure transfer, followed by a maintenance period with no additional materials or coaching. Posttest gains on the PPVT were significant. (French, Spanish & German abstracts) (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

256. Purcell-Gates, V. (1996). *Stories, coupons, and the TV guide: Relationships between home literacy experiences and emergent literacy knowledge*. Reading Research Quarterly 31: 406-428.

The article documents the range and frequency of literacy practices in 20 low-socioeconomic-status homes. It shows great variability in type and frequency of literacy events: children knew more about the alphabetic principle in homes where literate members read and wrote for their own entertainment and leisure; and parents' involvement was higher when children began formal literacy instruction in school. (RS)

257. Snow, C. E. (1993). *Families as social contexts for literacy development*. W. Damon and C. Daiute. New directions in child development: The development of literacy through social interaction. San Francisco, CA, Jossey-Bass. 61. p.11-24.

Reviews three studies that focused on ways in which social interactions within the family support literacy acquisition. Suggests that parents' most important contributions to their children's literacy development may come through language interactions, such as storytelling and interactions that foster vocabulary development, rather than through print-related activities. (MDM)

258. Tabors, P. O., K. A. Roach, et al. (2001). *Home language and literacy environment: Final results*. D. K. Dickinson and P. O. Tabors. Beginning literacy with language: Young children learning at home and school. p.111-138.

(from the chapter) This chapter discusses the final results of the preceding chapters regarding the Home-School Study of Language and Literacy Development. The authors discuss how they were able to identify 4 specific types of extended discourse related to 3 conversational settings: nonimmediate talk during book reading, pretend talk during toy play, and narrative and explanatory talk during mealtimes. Furthermore, the authors were able to identify the quality of the vocabulary, as measured by the density of rare words, in these different conversational settings. Finally, the authors were able to gather information about the types of literacy activities that the mothers reported doing with their children in order to gauge each family's home support for literacy. This chapter reports on the further analyses that were used to answer the questions about the home language and literacy environments of the children in the Home-School Study. This chapter covers (1) magnet task and science process talk, (2) home language and literacy environment, (3) and home language and literacy environment and kindergarten skills. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

259. Tabors, P. O., C. E. Snow, et al. (2001). *Homes and schools together: Supporting language and literacy development*. D. K. Dickinson and P. O. Tabors. Beginning literacy with language: Young children learning at home and school. p.313-334.

In this chapter the authors combine the information that has been found about the home and the preschool environments of the children in the Home-School Study of Language and Literacy Development to begin to understand how homes and schools together may shape the skills that children bring to the literacy challenges of the early grades in school. Furthermore, the authors discuss implications of their findings for parent education, staff development of teachers, and overall public policy support for children's early language and literacy development. Before investigating these important topics, however, the authors take advantage of the fact that they have longitudinal data on the children in the study well beyond kindergarten. First, therefore, the authors look at the relationships between the kindergarten scores and later language and literacy scores of the children in 4th grade and in 7th grade, to see how critical the skills that children have in kindergarten may be for lasting school success. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

260. Westheimer, M. (1997). *Ready or not: One home-based response to the school readiness dilemma*. Early Child Development & Care 127-128: 245-57.

Describes a parent-focused, home-based early intervention program known as HIPPY, the Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters. Explains the program's basic philosophy and elaborates on programmatic tensions as it gains a national scope and presence. Offers an insider's view into a few inherent tensions and issues associated with home visiting programs. (MOK)

F. Interventions en contexte préscolaire

Mots clés: *stratégies d'interventions; critères d'efficacité; contextes d'interventions; facteurs d'influence; dimensions de l'apprentissage;*

261. Baker, A. J. L. and C. S. Piotrkowski (1996). *Parents and children through the school years : The effects of the home instruction program for preschool youngsters*. Los Altos, CA, Final report to the David and Lucile Packard Foundation.

The Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters (HIPPY) is a free 2-year family oriented early childhood education and parent involvement program for parents with limited formal education to help them provide educational enrichment for their 4-year-old and 5-year-old children. As of 1996, HIPPY programs serve over 15,000 economically disadvantaged families in the United States. This report presents the findings on the effects of participation in the HIPPY program through children's early elementary school years. It expands an earlier study to include an examination of the impact of HIPPY on home educational environment as well as school performance. While the original model validation report only evaluated effects at the end of the program, this report presents

findings on the children 1 year later. Study sites were chosen in cities in Arkansas and New York. Sample and comparison sample sizes varied from 63 to 38 families in Arkansas depending on the time sampled, and from 25 to 66 in New York. Positive results for the first cohort studied in both cities were impressive. HIPPO students outperformed their peers in school as measured through objective tests and teacher ratings. These findings were not replicated in the cohort from the second study, and attrition analyses did not reveal a compelling explanation for this failure to replicate the results. Appendixes include the program manual, information and follow up forms, and attrition analyses for both sites. (Contains 8 tables and 45 references.) (SLD)

262. Barnett, W. S. (2001). *Preschool education for economically disadvantaged children: effects on reading achievement and related outcomes*. S. B. Neumann and D. K. Dickinson (eds.). Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York. The Guilford Press. P.3-10.

Steven Barnett provides a review of the literature on the impact of child care, preschool, and early-intervention programs on children's development. After briefly discussing evidence of short-term effects, Barnett examines in more detail 37 studies that meet stringent criteria, including that children be followed from the preschool years beyond age 8. He argues that what appears to be a fading out of effects in the later primary grades actually reflects methodological weaknesses. Rather than fading effects, he claims that available evidence points to enduring impact of early care environments on children's reading skills and achievement without continuing school-age interventions.

263. Beals, D. E., J. DeTemple, et al. (1994). *Talking and listening that support early literacy development of children from low-income families*. D. K. Dickinson (ed.). Bridges to literacy : Children, families, and schools. Cambridge, MA, Blackwell Publishers. p.19-42.

from the chapter) present data from an ongoing long-term study of language and literacy development [the Home-School Study of Language and Literacy Development] with low-income children [age 3 through early school years] and the various ways in which home and preschool experiences affect their emerging literacy skills / because the study is based on a theory that emphasizes the importance of oral language skills, we examine settings that include but are not limited to book reading / describe book reading in homes and preschools, mealtimes in the home, and teacher-child interactions throughout the day in preschools / report links between variations in the type of interaction in these settings and children's emerging literacy skills in kindergarten / these portraits should be of interest to program developers because they reveal patterns of interaction that exist prior to intervention efforts [the authors] have 3 major points to make / literacy draws upon oral language abilities as well as print-specific skills / literacy skills are nurtured both in homes and in preschools through events that include but are not restricted to book reading / homes and preschools differ in the kinds of support they provide for early literacy development (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

264. Burns, S., L. Espinoza, et al. (2003). *Début de la littérature, langue et culture: perspective socioculturelle*. R. Pierre (ed.). L'enseignement de la littérature au XXI^e siècle: Nouveaux

enjeux - nouvelles perspectives. Numéro thématique de la Revue des Sciences de l'éducation. vol.29, no 1.

Le présent article fait suite au rapport *Preventing Reading Difficulties in Young Children* auquel deux des co-auteurs ont participé. La principale conclusion de ce rapport est que l'apprentissage de l'écrit, du préscolaire à la troisième année du primaire, est déterminant pour l'avenir des enfants. Les auteurs présentent dans cet article, les fondements scientifiques qui sous-tendent les recherches sur lesquelles le rapport s'est appuyé pour dégager ses conclusions et ses recommandations d'intervention. Il complète les données du rapport par une revue des recherches sur les enfants allophones et l'efficacité des mesures d'éducation préscolaire mises en place pour favoriser l'apprentissage de la langue d'enseignement et leur intégration dans le système scolaire.

265. Dickinson, D. K. and J. Moreton (1991). *Predicting specific kindergarten literacy skills from three-year olds' preschool experiences*.

A study examined the association between specific features of the preschool language context and the development of children's literacy-related language skills. Teachers were interviewed about the frequency with which they read to student groups during the school day; their preferences about literature; and the nature of their curriculum. Teachers were also observed in the class, and spontaneous talk by target children was recorded. From the observations, five hypotheses were formed: (1) the amount of time spent in different preschool activities would relate to performance on kindergarten measures of language and literacy development; (2) the amount of time spent in extended talk with adults would correlate positively with children's language and literacy development; (3) the content of children's talk would relate to language and literacy outcome measures; (4) teachers' pedagogical attitudes would help predict children's language and literacy development; and (5) variables such as financial status, availability of a network of family and friends, and access to child care would be related to literacy outcomes. Findings revealed that multiple sources nurtured literacy; both homes and preschools made important contributions to literacy development; and skills such as those involved in language analysis, vocabulary development, and print knowledge develop in tandem to lead to literacy. (SAK)

266. Durkin, D. (1987). *A classroom observation study of reading instruction in kindergarten*. Early Childhood Research Quarterly: 275-300.

This study of 42 kindergarten classes was designed to answer three questions: (a) What is done and for what amount of time to prepare kindergartners for reading and to teach reading itself? (b) What accounts for what is or is not done? (c) How do differences in children's abilities affect what is done? To help answer the last two questions, interviews were held with teachers and their principals. Teachers used 21.6% of the 233 classroom observation hours for reading and reading-related activities. Phonics instruction was most apparent because (a) what was taught came directly from workbooks supplemented: with ditto-sheet exercises; and (b) subject matter in the workbooks was reflected on report cards and in first grade teachers' expectations for entering first graders. Whereas

differences in kindergartners' abilities had little effects on content of instruction, interest in identifying differences was the reason cited for using Gesell-like developmental tests. Poor scores resulted in a year's delay in entering kindergarten or placement in a «special» developmental kindergarten. Neither teachers nor principals referred to the possibility that reliance on one method and whole-class instruction May have combined to make some kindergartners appear «unready. « Instead, interest was expressed in having transitional first grades to help kindergarten «failures.»

267. Goldenberg, C. (2001). *Making schools work for low income families in the twentieth century*. S. B. Neumann and D. K. Dickinson. (eds). Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press. p.3-10.

Claude Goldenberg, in Chapter 15, suggests that although progress has been made, achievement remains elusive for far too many children from low-income families. His research examines the home and neighbourhood of urban and rural children from African American and Hispanic families, examining similarities and differences that exist cross-culturally and between socioeconomic groups with respect to the pre- literacy language experience and skills most privileged in these cultures. As chapter 14, chapter 15 emphasizes the importance of looking beyond educational interventions to the integration of programs, policies, and services in the community, with the schools being one of but many agencies to serve families and children.

268. IRA/NAEYC (1998). *Position statement. Learning to read and write: Developmentally appropriate practice*. The Reading Teacher 52: 193-216.

Learning to read and write is critical to a child's success in school and later in life. One of the best predictors of whether a child will function competently in school and go on to contribute actively in our increasingly literate society is the level to which the child progresses in reading and writing. Although reading and writing abilities continues to develop throughout the life span, the early years –from birth to age eight – are the most important period for literacy development. It is for this reason that the International Reading Association (IRA) and the national Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) joined together to formulate a position statement regarding early literacy development. The statement consists of a set of principles and recommendations for teaching practices and public policy.

269. Pierre, R. and M. Lachance (1985). *Maman... qu'est-ce que ça veut dire? Québec français*.

Lorsqu'on analyse les différents aspects de l'apprentissage précoce de la lecture, un facteur ressort comme déterminant et ce n'est ni le quotient intellectuel ni la personnalité des enfants mais le milieu familial. Ce qui semble jouer un rôle primordial, c'est le niveau de "littéracie" des parents (expériences, attitudes, comportements), et plus particulièrement le niveau d'aspiration des parents pour eux-mêmes et leurs enfants et les stratégies utilisées pour initier l'enfant à l'écrit. Les parents éveillent leurs enfants à l'écrit de façon naturelle, dans des situations spontanées en respectant leur rythme. Ils servent d'intermédiaire entre l'enfant et l'écrit. Ils aident à dégager le sens, à anticiper les

séquences de l'action, à reconstituer l'histoire, etc. Ils contribuent ainsi à mettre en place les premiers apprentissages de la lecture tant au plan de la structure du récit qu'au plan de certaines conventions de l'écrit.

270. Pierre, R. (1992). *L'éveil à l'écrit à la maternelle: un nouveau défi pour l'école*. Dimensions 14 (1).

Texte de la conférence d'ouverture donnée dans le cadre d'un colloque sur l'éveil à l'écrit. Le texte situe la problématique dans le contexte de l'évolution de la littératie et de l'impact que cette évolution a sur le développement des enfants. L'argument central est que la majorité des enfants d'aujourd'hui sont nés avec l'écrit dans des familles qui ont intégré l'écrit dans leur fonctionnement et qui les éveillent à l'écrit dès leur plus jeune âge. Un nombre de plus en plus important d'enfants sont donc introduits à l'écrit en même temps qu'ils apprennent à parler et sont prêts à entreprendre l'apprentissage de la lecture et de l'écriture dès leur arrivée en maternelle. Ce n'est toutefois pas le cas des enfants qui viennent de milieux à faible niveau de littératie d'où l'importance de faire de l'éveil à l'écrit un objectif prioritaire au préscolaire si on ne veut pas que se creuse le fossé entre les enfants.

271. Yaden, D. B., A. Tam, et al. (2000). *The effects of reading and writing interventions in english and spanish during the preschool years*. Reading Teacher 43: 186-189.

Finds very encouraging results on the effectiveness of a preschool emergent literacy intervention in a "skid row" child-care facility in downtown Los Angeles. Shows that both preschool teachers and parents established regular habits of shared book reading and numerous ways for children to write and display their work. (SR)

G. Head Start

Head Start est un programme américain fédéral mis en place à la fin des années soixante sous l'administration Johnson pour contrer les effets de la défavorisation sur la réussite scolaire en intervenant avant la rentrée scolaire. À l'origine il ne s'agissait que d'un programme d'été dont l'objectif premier était de compenser les déficits linguistiques des enfants de milieux défavorisés. Le programme s'est par la suite étendu à différentes mesures d'intervention préscolaire. Aujourd'hui, il recoupe les objectifs du programme Even Start, en appuyant des interventions sur l'éveil à l'écrit en contexte préscolaire.

272. Cronan, T. A., S. G. Cruz, et al. (1996). *The effects of a community-based literacy program in young children's language and conceptual development ; Project PRIMER*. American Journal of Community Psychology 24: 251-272.

Effects of a community-based literacy program on 1-, 2-, and 3-year-old children's language and conceptual development were assessed. University students were trained to teach Head Start parents effective methods for reading to their children. Families were randomly assigned to receive 18, 3, or 0 instructional visits. Results indicated that parents

in the 18-instructional-visit program increased their participation in appropriate literacy behaviors such as reading to their children, teaching concepts to their children, and using the library, more than parents in the 0-instructional-visit groups. Children in the 18-instructional-visit program showed greater gains in language and conceptual development than children in the 0-instructional-visit group. Few differences were found between children in the 3-visit and 0-instructional-visit groups. Thus, only a high-intensity community-based intervention designed to train parents was effective in increasing emergent literacy in low-income ethnic 1 children. KEY WORDS: literacy; language development; conceptual development.

273. Mantzicopoulos, P. Y. (1997). *The relationship of family variables to Head Start children's preacademic competence*. Early Education and Development 8(4): 357-75.

Examined contribution of family variables such as parenting and literacy activities to the pre-academic competence of 93 Head Start children. Found that maternal educational expectations, home literacy variables, and maternal school involvement were predictive of children's competence even after accounting for the effects of maternal education, child IQ, and daily stress. (HTH)

274. Nespeca, S. M. (1995). *Parental involvement in emergent literacy skills of urban Head Start children*. Early Child Development and Care 111: 153-180.

Explored the impact of parental involvement and of public libraries on Head Start children's emerging literacy skills. Found differences in the amount of parental involvement in literacy activities and the types of activities. Library use was minimal for fear of damaging books, transportation problems, or lack of time or effort. Suggested improvements include home book delivery and parent workshops. (AA)

275. Neuman, S. B. (1996). *Children engaging in storybook reading: The influence of access to print resources, opportunity, and parental interaction*. Early Childhood Research Quarterly 11: 495-513.

Examines an intervention strategy designed to provide access to literacy materials and opportunities for parent-child storybook reading in 3 Head Start Centers. There were 3 specific objectives (1) to examine the influence of text type (highly predictable, episodic predictable, and narrative) on patterns of interaction between parents and children; (2) to examine whether there were differences in these patterns of interaction between low proficiency and proficient parent readers; and (3) to examine gains in receptive language and concepts of print scores for children of low proficiency and proficient parent readers. 41 parents and their children (mean age 40.7 mo) participated in the study. 18 parent Ss were low proficiency readers and 23 parent Ss were proficient readers. All Ss were involved in a 12-wk book club. Results indicate that text type affected patterns of interaction and that parents' reading proficiency influenced conversational interactions, with different text types serving as a scaffold for parent-child interaction. Regardless of parental reading proficiency, however, children's receptive language and concepts of print improved significantly, providing further evidence for the importance of parental

storybook reading on children's emerging literacy.

276. Strickland, D. S. (2001). *Early intervention for African American children considered to be at risk*. S. B. Neuman and D. K. Dickinson (eds). Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press. p.322-332.

Dorothy S. Strickland, in Chapter 21, examines the shift in emphasis from remedial programs for educating young African American children to early-intervention programs. She describes a number of research-based representative programs and argues, as others in this volume, that the coordination of social services along with the quality of learning experiences with clear and focused guidelines is necessary to improve instruction, not only for young African American children but for all children judged to be at high risk for academic difficulty.

277. Vellutino, F. R. and D. M. Scanlon (2001). *Emergent literacy skills, early instruction, and individual differences as determinants of difficulties in learning to read: The case for early intervention*. S. B. Neuman and D. K. Dickinson (eds). Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press, p.295-321.

Chapter 20 take a cognitive perspective, viewing literacy impairment as a result of limitations in early reading experiences or quality instruction, which is highly amenable to early intervention. They argue that the majority of children who experience early reading difficulties can become functional readers if they are provided with early and intensive remediation tailored to their individual strengths and needs, providing confirmation that reading difficulties are caused by experiential and instructional deficits rather than by neurodevelopment deficits.

278. Whitehurst, G. J., J. N. Epstein, et al. (1994). *Outcomes of an emergent literacy intervention in Head Start*. Journal of Educational Psychology 86(4): 542-555.

Classrooms of 4-year-olds attending Head Start were randomly assigned to an intervention condition, involving an add-on emergent literacy curriculum, or a control condition, involving the regular Head Start curriculum. Children in the intervention condition experienced interactive book reading at home and in the classroom as well as a classroom-based sound and, letter awareness program. Children were pretested and posttested on standardized tests of language, writing, linguistic awareness, and print concepts. Effects of the intervention were significant across all children in the domains of writing and print concepts. Effects on language were large but only for those children whose primary caregivers had been actively involved in the at-home component of the program. One linguistic awareness subtest, involving the ability to identify the first letter and first sound of words, showed significant effects.

279. Whitehurst, G. J., A. A. Zevenbergen, et al. (1999). *Outcomes of an emergent literacy intervention from Head Start through second grade*. Journal of Educational Psychology 91(2): 261-272.

The present investigation is a replication of an emergent literacy intervention in Head Start with a new cohort of children and includes a follow-up of both the original cohort and the replication cohort through the end of 2nd grade. Positive effects at the end of Head Start obtained in the original study were replicated, and effects on emergent literacy skills in both cohorts were maintained through the end of kindergarten. Effects of the emergent literacy intervention did not generalize to literacy outcomes at the end of 1st and 2nd grades. Growth in emergent literacy skills and literacy skills from year to year was strongly influenced by variation in the Head Start centers and school districts attended by children in the sample. Although children in the sample began formal reading instruction with relatively low levels of emergent literacy skills, they showed substantial gains with respect to national norms by the end of 2nd grade. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved) (journal abstract)

280. Zevenbergen, A. A., G. J. Whitehurst, et al. (2003). *Effects of a shared-reading intervention on the inclusion of evaluative devices in narratives of children from low-income families*. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology 24(1): 1-15.

The impact of a shared-reading program on the narrative skills of children from low-income families was examined. Participants in the study were 4-year-old children enrolled in Head Start. Fifty-eight percent of the sample participated in a 30-week shared-reading intervention conducted in Head Start classrooms and homes. The remainder of the sample experienced the regular Head Start curriculum. The shared-reading intervention was found to have a significant effect on children's inclusion of evaluative devices in their narratives. Specifically, children who participated in the intervention program were significantly more likely to include references to internal states of characters and dialogue in their narratives at the end of the Head Start year than children who did not participate in the intervention program. This study adds to the growing experimental literature demonstrating that preschool literacy interventions can have a positive impact on the language skills of children from low-income families. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2003 APA, all rights reserved)

H. Livres et collectifs

281. Adams, M. J. (1990). Beginning to read : Thinking and learning about print. Cambridge, MIT Press.

Drawing on an array of research on the nature and development of reading proficiency, this book argues that educators need not remain trapped in the phonics versus teaching-for-meaning dilemma and offers instructional alternatives. The book proposes that phonics can work together with the whole language approach to reading and provides an integrated treatment of the knowledge and processes involved in skillful reading, the issues surrounding their acquisition, and the implications for reading instruction. Developing the new connectionist theory as it relates to reading and its acquisition, the book underscores the automatic nature of print perception in skillful readers, while contrasting it with the attentive thought required for conceptual learning and understanding. The book reviews the history of the debate over approaches to reading

instruction as well as the research on their effectiveness. The book stresses the importance of preschool language and literacy experiences and includes descriptions of those that will best prepare children for reading instruction.

282. Dickinson, D. K. and P. O. Tabors (2001). Beginning literacy with language: Young children learning at home and school. Baltimore. Paul Brookes Publishing.

(from the cover) In this book, early childhood professionals, educators, and parents will travel into the homes and schools of more than 70 young children from diverse backgrounds and observe parent-child and teacher-child interactions. This book explores both the home and the school environments of children at ages 3, 4, and 5. Shows how families talk to their young children during everyday activities like book reading, toy play, and mealtimes. It also examines children's conversations throughout the school day and consider how teachers strive to support children's development. Readers will (1) see how the children's home and school environments correlate to their later reading success, (2) read transcripts of parent-child and teacher-child interactions that illustrate how everyday interactions relate to later development, (3) get suggestions for enhancing children's language and literacy development at home and school, and (4) learn how conversations and activities play out in the lives of 4 children in the study. Professionals and parents will come to understand how much their interactions with young children make a difference in the children's later language and literacy skills. They will also learn what they should be doing to give young children the best possible start in literacy. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

283. Neuman, S. B. and D. K. Dickinson (eds) (2001). Handbook of Early Literacy Research. New York, The Guilford Press. p.3-10.

This handbook represents what we would consider the now-and-future phase of work in early literacy. Perhaps less dazzling than the changes in perspective of the last century, yet no less important, researchers are beginning to fine-tune their understandings of literacy and development. Whereas once there were perspectives, Now researchers are generating theory--complicated understandings of cognitive processing models in oral and written language, sociocultural models that focus on the integration of context and cognition, and ecological and environmental theories that examine children's formal and informal learning of written language development in school and nonschool settings. And, theory development in early literacy is not a minor accomplishment. Unlike the perspectives of the past, these theories have provided us with an understanding of the complexity of literacy learning as well as some tangible evidence for better understanding how it can be developed, nurtured, and taught. At this same time, it provides us with a daunting list of challenges for understanding how literacy achievement can be a right and not a privilege for all children.

284. Roskos, K. (2000). Play and Literacy in Early Childhood: Research from Multiple Perspectives. Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Noting that an examination of play from diverse perspectives deepens understanding and opens up new avenues for research and educational practice, this book brings together studies, research syntheses, and critical commentaries that examine play-literacy relationships from cognitive, ecological, and cultural perspectives. Each set of chapters is followed by a critical review. The chapters are: (1) «Bringing Books to Life: The Role of Book-Related Dramatic Play in Young Children's Literacy Learning» (Deborah Wells Rowe); (2) «The Narrative Connection: Stories and Literacy» (Greta G. Fein, Alicia E. Ardila-Rey, and Lois A. Groth); (3) «Symbolic Play, Phonological Awareness, and Literacy Skills at Three Age Levels» (Doris Bergen and Daria Mauer); (4) «Commentary--Cognitive Development, Play, and Literacy: Issues of Definition and Developmental Function» (A. D. Pellegrini and Lee Galda); (5) «Incorporating Literacy Resources into the Play Curriculum of Two Icelandic Preschools» (Johanna Einarsdottir); (6) «Supporting Literacy in Early Childhood Programs: A Challenge for the Future» (Lorraine Dunn, Sara Ann Beach, and Susan Kontos); (7) «Reading Is a Source of Entertainment: The Importance of the Home Perspective for Children's Literacy Development» (Susan Sonnenschein, Linda Baker, Robert Serpell, and Diane Schmidt); (8) «Through the Bioecological Lens: Some Observations of Literacy in Play as a Proximal Process» (Kathleen A. Roskos); (9) «Commentary--Play, Literacy, and Ecology: Implications for Early Educational Research and Practice» (James E. Johnson); (10) «Social Contexts for Literacy Development: A Family Literacy Program» (Susan B. Neuman); (11) «'It Would Be as Good as Snow White.': Play and Prosody» (N. Amanda Branscombe and Janet B. Taylor); (12) «Literacy, Play, and Authentic Experience» (Nigel Hall); (13) «Sociocultural Contexts of Dramatic Play: Implications for Early Education» (Jaipaul L. Roopnarine, Meera Shin, Bridget Donovan, and Preeti Suppal); and (14) «Commentary--Constructing Sociocultural Approaches to Literacy Education» (Artin Goncu and Eleni Katsarou).

285. Snow, C. E., M. S. Burns, et al. (1998). Preventing reading difficulties in young children. Washington, DC, National Academy Press.

This book explores how to prevent reading difficulties in the context of social, historical, cultural and biological factors. It identifies the group of children at risk, outline effective instruction for preschool and early grades and examines approaches to dialects and bilingualism. Contrasting the impaired progress of children with reading difficulties with so-called normal progress, this book examines the factors that put children at risk of poor reading. It explores in detail how to foster literacy from birth through kindergarten and the primary grades, including the evaluation of philosophies, systems and materials commonly used to teach reading.

286. Strickland, D. S., Ed. and L. M. Morrow, Ed. (2000). Beginning Reading and Writing. Language and Literacy Series. Newark, DE., International Reading Association.

In this essay collection, scholars in the area of early literacy provide concrete strategies for achieving excellence in literacy instruction. The collection presents current, research-based information on the advances and refinements in the area of emerging literacy and

the early stages of formal instruction in reading and writing. Following a foreword (Alan Farstrup) and an introduction (Dorothy S. Strickland and Lesley Mandel Morrow), chapters in the collection are: (1) "Beginning Reading and Writing: Perspectives on Instruction" (William H. Teale and Junko Yokota); (2) "Becoming a Reader: A Developmentally Appropriate Approach" (Susan B. Neuman and Sue Bredekamp); (3) "Literacy Instruction for Young Children of Diverse Backgrounds" (Kathryn H. Au); (4) "Enhancing Literacy Growth through Home-School Connections" (Diana H. Tracey); (5) "Children's Pretend Play and Literacy" (Anthony D. Pellegrini and Lee Galda); (6) "Talking Their Way into Print: English Language Learners in a Prekindergarten Classroom" (Celia Genishi, Donna Yung-Chan, and Susan Stires); (7) "Organizing and Managing a Language Arts Block" (Lesley Mandel Morrow); (8) "Classroom Intervention Strategies: Supporting the Literacy Development of Young Learners at Risk" (Dorothy S. Strickland); (9) "Teaching Young Children to Be Writers" (Karen Bromley); (10) "Phonics Instruction" (Margaret Moustafa); (11) "Reading Aloud from Culturally Diverse Literature" (Lee Galda and Bernice E. Cullinan); (12) "Fostering Reading Comprehension" (Linda B. Gambrell and Ann Dromsky); (13) "Assessing Reading and Writing in the Early Years" (Bill Harp and Jo Ann Brewer); (14) "Sign of the Times: Technology and Early Literacy Learning" (Shelley B. Wepner and Lucinda C. Ray); and (15) "Still Standing: Timeless Strategies for Teaching the Language Arts" (Diane Lapp, James Flood, and Nancy Roser). (NKA)

Relations école-famille

Les publications regroupées dans cette section présentent différents projets expérimentés pour améliorer les relations entre la famille et l'école au-delà du préscolaire en vue d'améliorer le rendement en lecture auprès des enfants qui éprouvent des difficultés mais également auprès des parents qui ont un faible niveau de littératie.

Mots clés : *Littératie familiale; enfants à risques; enfants en difficultés; niveaux de littératie; familles de milieux défavorisés; familles d'origines ethniques différentes; partenariat;*

I. Interventions

Baker, A. J. L. and C. S. Piotrkowski (1996). *Parents and children through the school years : The effects of the home instruction program for preschool youngsters*. Los Altos, CA, Final report to the David and Lucile Packard Foundation.

The Home Instruction Program for Preschool Youngsters (HIPPY) is a free 2-year family oriented early childhood education and parent involvement program for parents with limited formal education to help them provide educational enrichment for their 4-year-old and 5-year-old children. As of 1996, HIPPY programs serve over 15,000 economically disadvantaged families in the United States. This report presents the findings on the effects of participation in the HIPPY program through children's early elementary school

years. It expands an earlier study to include an examination of the impact of HIPPY on home educational environment as well as school performance. While the original model validation report only evaluated effects at the end of the program, this report presents findings on the children 1 year later. Study sites were chosen in cities in Arkansas and New York. Sample and comparison sample sizes varied from 63 to 38 families in Arkansas depending on the time sampled, and from 25 to 66 in New York. Positive results for the first cohort studied in both cities were impressive. HIPPY students outperformed their peers in school as measured through objective tests and teacher ratings. These findings were not replicated in the cohort from the second study, and attrition analyses did not reveal a compelling explanation for this failure to replicate the results. Appendixes include the program manual, information and followup forms, and attrition analyses for both sites. (Contains 8 tables and 45 references.) (SLD)

287. Baker, L., J. Allen, et al. (1996). *Connecting school and home: Constructing partnerships to foster reading development*. L. Baker, P. Afflerbach and al. Developing engaged readers in school and home communities. p.21-41.

Authors argue that home-school partnerships can have a positive impact on literacy and learning if families and schools together develop ways of communicating and building meaningful curricula that extend the insular classroom community / introduces the theoretical perspectives on home-school relations and the conceptual models of parental involvement that provide a foundation for [the authors'] thesis / briefly discuss the impact and efficacy of parent involvement programs and describe 2 approaches [they] believe are exemplary / focuses on the compatibility of parents' and teachers' beliefs and goals and the implications for parental contributions to children's literacy development 1st-grade teacher B. Shockley describes how she created a partnership with families by engaging them in parallel home-school literacy practices / A. Pellegrini, L. Galda, and S. Stahl present their analysis of the impact of one of these practices on children's literacy development.

288. Baker, L. (2003). *The role of parents in motivating struggling readers*. Reading & Writing Quarterly: Overcoming Learning Difficulties. 19(1): 87-106.

Interest is currently high among researchers and practitioners on the role of the family and the value of home-school collaborations in promoting children's motivation for reading. The purposes of this article are (1) to inform practitioners working with struggling readers of the latest research on home influences on reading motivation, and (2) to provide research-based suggestions to teachers as to how they might enlist the assistance of parents in motivating struggling readers. Research has shown that supportive home environments foster motivation for reading, which leads to more frequent voluntary reading, which improves reading achievement. Many collaborative interventions involving home and school have enhanced the reading motivation of struggling readers as they enhanced comprehension.

289. Cairney, T. H. (1997). *Acknowledging diversity in home literacy practices: Moving towards partnership with parents*. Early Child Development and Care 127-128: 61-73.

Parent involvement in their children's literacy learning has long been recognized as an important factor in school success. As a result, schools have frequently attempted to build programs that assist parents to support their children's literacy. Unfortunately, many of these initiatives are based on deficit views of learning and fail to acknowledge the diverse background and needs of all children. In this paper the author provides an overview of major initiatives in family literacy, and argues for a fundamental change in the way schools relate to the parents and the community. It is suggested that schools and communities need to develop more effective partnerships that provide the opportunity for parents and teachers to develop a greater sense of shared understanding. The author argues that such initiatives will encourage parents and teachers to enter into dialogue based on a shared commitment to improving children's learning, and that this will lead to positive outcomes for all students.

290. Cairney, T. H. (2002). *Bridging home and school literacy: In search of transformative approaches to curriculum*. Early Child Development and Care 172(2): 153-72.

Reviews family literacy initiatives, arguing that many well-intentioned initiatives are driven by poor assumptions and definitions, are limited in scope, have not been evaluated fully, and fail to achieve genuine collaboration between home, school, and community. Suggests that initiatives should consider how they meet needs of all students and that teachers should understand their role in the cultural process. (Author/KB)

291. Come, B. and A. D. (1995). *Family literacy in urban schools: Meeting the needs of at-risk children*. The Reading Teacher 48: 566-70.

This article presents the strategies and guidelines upon which effective school outreach programs can be built and offers a look into one school's efforts to involve parents in an inner city district.

292. Connors, L. J. (1993). *Project self-help: A family focus on literacy*. Baltimore, MD, Johns Hopkins University, Center on Families, Communities, Schools, and Children's Learning.

This document describes Project Self-Help, a school-based family literacy program serving parents and grandparents and their preschool and elementary-aged children. During the year, adult literacy classes and child classes met 2 times a week. During the summer, families had the opportunity to participate in a summer reading program that included educational field trips. The author describes the program in detail and provides information regarding the gains of both adults and children while enrolled in the program. Three case studies are included to highlight the different outcomes of adults depending upon their individual situations. The last part of the document includes a section about the lessons the program coordinator was able to learn from the implementation of Project Self-Help and is useful for individuals implementing school-based or other types of family literacy programs. Issues related to implementing family literacy programs and discussion of further research needed are also presented in this article.

293. Cook-Cottone, C. P. (2001). *D'Youville College, West-side Buffalo literacy project: Community and families together*. April 2001, D'Youville College.

Within the past decade, the movement toward family and community empowerment in literacy has grown dramatically. It is readily accepted that students' academic performance at school is closely related to the family literacy environment. Community-based programs that celebrate diversity and personal strength while strongly supporting literacy have been quite successful in fostering family literacy growth. Within the past decade, the movement toward family workshop that gives practicing school psychologists a basic understanding of the process of designing a home, school, or community literacy partnership. It includes guidelines for effective goal and objective design; an outline of a family literacy curriculum; and a review of key components that ensure participation and program success. The workshop utilizes an active and successful family literacy program as a model to highlight key points. The workshop aims to provide participants with the information necessary to design a family reading program that suits their school's and community's needs. (Contains 29 references.) (JDM)

294. Covarrubia, J. (2000). *Family literacy: Sharing classrooms with parents*. Principal 80(1): 44-45.

A Tucson, Arizona elementary school is one of 45 development sites for the Toyota Families in Schools Program, which brings in parents to learn alongside their children and in their own classrooms for 4 hours daily. Parents also receive vocational instruction aligned with local job opportunities. (MLH)

295. Department of Education, W., DC (2001). Ready To Read: Laying the Foundation for School Success. Washington, DC.

This interactive teleconference (in VHS format, Spanish language version) presents renowned national experts, local educators, and community leaders who share ideas on how to improve schools and reach the National Educational Goals. The 60-minute Satellite Town Meeting focuses on laying the foundation for school success through readiness to read. It offers an opportunity for networking with people across the nation who share a commitment to building community partnerships and a common vision of educational excellence for all children. It features programs with strong parent involvement, well-qualified teachers, a wealth of language activities, and ongoing, meaningful communication between adults and children. Secretary of Education Rod Paige and guest panelists Lue Alma Sumlin, Reid Lyon, Dea Salter, Sharon Darling, and Norma Garza address such questions as: Why emphasize reading and language with young children? What does a quality early learning environment look like for pre-school children? What activities can parents do to help lay the foundation for reading? What types of professional development should early childhood professionals undergo to ensure students are prepared for elementary school? How can family literacy programs help children to be ready to read as they help to break the inter-generational cycle of literacy? What role can public schools play in assuring all 3- to 5-year-old children have

quality learning experiences? and How can schools build partnerships with local childcare providers, businesses, social service agencies, and others to strengthen early learning? (RS)

296. Goldenberg, C., L. Reese, R. Gallimore (1992) *Effects of literacy materials from school on latino children's home experiences and early reading achievement*. American Journal of Education, August, p. 407-526.

Yearlong case studies of 10 Hispanic kindergartners were conducted. Findings indicated that (1) the school had a large impact on children's home literacy experiences, (2) photocopied storybooks and work sheets sent home by children's teachers stimulated literacy experiences that were unique to each in some ways but similar in others, (3) although children in classrooms using photocopied storybooks had higher literacy test scores, the use of booklets in the home was not related to literacy achievement, whereas work sheet use at home was strongly and positively related to achievement. The study's implications for home-school literacy connections to support children's academic achievement are discussed.

297. Jongsma, K. (2001). *Literacy links between home and school*. Reading Teacher 55(1): 58-61.

Focuses on materials that would be appropriate for use in campus after-school programs; in programs at neighbourhood, community, or church resource centers; or in the home for family literacy. Discusses the value of creating literacy backpacks or writing suitcases that go back and forth between the home and the school. (SG)

298. Jordan, G. E., C. E. Snow, et al. (2000). *Project EASE: The effect of a family literacy project on kindergarten students' early literacy skills*. Reading Research Quarterly 35(4): 524-46.

Investigates effectiveness of the Project Early Access to Success in Education, which includes parent education sessions on assisting their children's developing literacy abilities, at-school parent/child activities, and at-home book-mediated activities. Finds improvement in language skills, with a strong impact on the children who scored low at the pre-test. Finds high levels of participation and high levels of satisfaction. (SR)

299. Flood, J. and D. Lapp (1995). *"I never knew I was needed until you called!" : Promoting parent involvement in schools*. The Reading Teacher 48(7): 614-617.

Discusses how to create an effective working partnership between parents and teachers. Discusses parents as part of their children's literacy development, as teaching partners in the classroom, as resource persons in the classroom, and as teachers at home. (SR)

300. Landerholm, E. (1998). *Computers in Even Start*. School Community Journal 8(1): 31-41.

A parent-involvement program was set up in a black, inner-city public school in South Chicago through a partnership sponsored by an Illinois Board of Education Even Start

grant. The program, with after school home-visiting, adult-literacy, and field-trip components, proved rewarding for participants. (23 references) (MLH)

301. Le Tendre, M. J. (1997). *Strengthening the ties between title and family literacy*. Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk 2: 3-5.

The author of this article provides suggestions on how Title I can support initiatives such as family literacy to enhance parent involvement. Because Even Start limits family involvement to families with children between the ages of 0 to 8, Title I funds can target family literacy initiatives for families with children older than 8 years. Schools can also use Title I monies to implement family literacy models or supplement existing programs. For example, Title I funds can be used for preschool services.

302. Morrow, L. M. and J. A. Young (1997). *A family literacy program connecting school and home : Effects on attitude, motivation, and literacy achievement*. Journal of Educational Psychology 89: 736-742.

This study investigated the effects of connecting home and school literacy by involving parents in developmentally appropriate and culturally sensitive literacy activities with their children. Fifty-four children in first, second or third grades were randomly assigned to either a combined home and school based or school-based intervention. The school based program included classroom literacy centers, teacher modeled literacy activities, and WRAP (Writing and Reading Appreciation for Students) time. The home based program provided additional parent-child literacy activities similar to the school based activities. Differences between pre- and post-test achievement and motivation data favoured children in the combined school and home based program. Home and school literacy contexts were connected in a study that involved parents of 28 inner-city primary school children in developmentally appropriate and culturally sensitive literacy activities. pretest and posttest data determined achievement and motivation differences favouring children in the family program over the 28 comparisons not participating in the literacy program. (SLD)

303. Nuckolls, M. (1991). *Expanding students' potential through family literacy*. Educational Leadership 49: 45-46.

This article describes Parents and Literacy (PAL) family literacy program in Tucson, Arizona. PAL began with parent classes and has evolved into a home visitation model. The author discusses three findings from this project that have implications for those who are interested in implementing a family literacy program within a conventional educational system: all staff members must feel ownership over the program; recruitment and retention of parents must be central; and evaluation of the program cannot be measured merely quantitatively.

304. Quintero, E. and M. C. Velarde (1990). *Intergenerational literacy: A developmental, bilingual approach*. Young Children 45(10-15).

Quintero and Velarde describe the development and implementation of El Paso Community College's model Intergenerational Literacy Project. The project uses a developmental approach to teach Spanish-speaking parents and their children together to improve their literacy skills in both Spanish and English. In addition to a general overall description of the project, the article discusses important assumptions regarding literacy development upon which the program is based as well as key curriculum components. A brief explanation of the program's effect on parents and children concludes the article.

305. Richardson, M. V., K. Sacks, et al. (1995). *Intergenerational literacy leads to empowerment of families and schools*. Reading Improvement 32: 85-91.

In this article, the authors discuss the importance of families and schools working together to improve the literacy skills of both children and adults. Definitions of family literacy and intergenerational literacy are examined. The authors propose broadening these definitions to include shared experiences among family members in which something new is learned. The importance of and suggestions for including the family in the planning and implementation of literacy programs is noted. The authors describe strategies for promoting literacy in the home and strengthening the family-school connection. The authors view collaboration between families and schools as a tool for empowering both and as a way to satisfy the National Goals 2000.

306. Tett, L. (2001). *Parents as problems or parents as people? Parental involvement programmes, schools and adult educators*. International Journal of Lifelong Education 20(3): 188-98.

Case studies of four Scottish schools with family literacy programs depicted collaboration among school staff, parents, and adult literacy educators. Programs that conceptualized parents as "people" rather than "problems" challenged the deficit perspective of family literacy and enabled parents' full participation in educational development. (Contains 33 references.) (SK)

J. Livres et collectifs

307. Delgado-Gaitan, C. (1996). Protean literacy: Extending the discourse on empowerment. London, Falmer Press.

This book focuses on a discussion of empowerment related to the author's earlier ethnography (Delgado-Gaitan, 1990). Emphasis is placed on the researcher's role of facilitator and advocate in helping families participate in the school community. Using critical ethnographic techniques, Delgado-Gaitan helped parents to establish COPLA (Comite de Padres Latinos), an organization to empower parents by representing their interests with the school system. Because of the concern with reading underachievement of Spanish-speaking children, one activity initiated by COPLA was the Family Literacy Project. This project intended to have children read at home with their parents and have the family report to the teacher in order to monitor literacy performance. Delgado-Gaitan argues that families were not empowered in their children's education with the Family

Literacy Project. She suggests that claiming “cultural space and political voice and utopian visions” through activities like those conducted by COPLA are not enough to counter inequalities embedded in political and economic structures, although these activities offer potential for transformation.

308. Handel, R. D. (1999). Building family literacy in an urban community. New York, NY, Teachers College Press.

This book reports on the Partnership for Family Reading, an intergenerational literacy program developed by the author and implemented through a collaboration between Montclair State University and the Newark, NJ school system. Handel first discusses the “multiple meaning of family literacy” and provides descriptions of a variety of family literacy programs before discussing the development and implementation of the Partnership for Family Reading. Based on interviews conducted by the author, narratives are provided to give the reader insight into the women who participated in the program. Individual chapters focus on the teachers of the family literacy program as well as homeschool connections. Further, Handel discusses issues such as gender, class, race, and new welfare regulations in relation to family literacy and family literacy programs.

309. Handel, R. (1999). Building family literacy in an urban community. Language and literacy series. New York, NY, Teacher College Press.

This book offers educators and parents who work to forge authentic partnerships between home and school new insights based on the author's experiences with family literacy projects. During an 8-year study, the author examined the experiences of adult participants in school-based family literacy programs, exploring what accounted for sustained teacher and parent interest; the benefits, limitations, and consequences of their participation; how the program meshed with personal history and out-of-school lives; and guidelines for family literacy practice. The 12 chapters are: (1) "The Multiple Meaning of Family Literacy"; (2) "Development of Family Literacy Programs"; (3) "Family Literacy in Schools"; (4) "The Partnership for Family Reading"; (5) "The Women of Family Reading"; (6) "Voices of Mothers"; (7) "Literacy Resources in the Home Environment"; (8) "Home and School Relationships"; (9) "Teachers as Family Literacy Learners"; (10) "Reflections on Gender, Class, and Race"; (11) "Small Wins and Large Circumstances"; and (12) "What's in a Name?" The author provides a list of children's books most frequently used in the Partnership for Family Reading program. (Contains 146 references.) (SM)

310. Hannon, P. (1995). Literacy home and school. Washington, DC, The Falmer Press.

This book discusses what can be done to extend literacy and raise literacy standards for all sections of the population, the relationship between home learning and school learning, and the role of parents in their children's education, focusing on the situation in England. It is designed to assist teachers who work cooperatively with parents in the education of their children. The book brings together several lines of research and offers new ways of thinking about parental involvement which will interest both researchers and

practitioners. Eleven chapters focus on: (1) the meaning of literacy; (2) the changing role of parental involvement in their children's literacy education; (3) the case for significant parental involvement in their children's education; (4) working with parents of preschool children; (5) working with parents of school-aged children; (6) the importance of having parents hear their children read; (7) prescriptive approaches to hearing reading, behaviorist programs, in-school activities, and family literacy; (8) the need for evaluation and research; (9) evaluation by tests; (10) evaluation by participants; and (11) an assessment of the research on parental involvement in literacy education. Contains approximately 220 references. (MDM)

311. Snow, C. E., W. S. Barnes, et al. (1991). Unfulfilled expectations: Home and school influences on literacy. Cambridge, MA, Harvard University Press.

(from the jacket) "Unfulfilled Expectations" examines the home and family characteristics, school teaching practices, and family-school relationships that affect the literacy development of low-income children. Eschewing comparisons across social class, the authors focus exclusively on an ethnically diverse group of low-income children in grades two, four, and six, the thirty-two subjects of an intensive two-year study and a follow-up study five years later. Catherine Snow and her colleagues pinpoint the diverse home factors that can explain differential achievement by youngsters from the same socioeconomic background. These include the family's own uses of literacy, their attitudes toward and communication with the schools, their social networks, their rules and schedules, and their susceptibility to economic and psychological stress. This book also examines influences on literacy progress within the classroom, including the nature of the curriculum, the teachers' instructional emphases, the availability of varied literacy materials, and the teachers' expectations for children's achievement. "Unfulfilled Expectations" challenges assumptions about low-income families' commitment to and interest in their children's schooling. The authors' original two-year study generated a relatively optimistic picture of the children and their progress in elementary school. The findings of their follow-up study are more disturbing; it documents declining achievement and lowered expectations for the children as they continue through secondary school. This book offers valuable recommendations for parents, teachers, and administrators to ensure that low-income children fulfill their early promise. (PsycINFO Database Record (c) 2002 APA, all rights reserved)

312. Thomas, A.; Fazio, L.; Stiefelmeyer, B. (1999) Families at School: A Guide for Educators Newark. International Reading Association

This hands-on guide shows how parents and children use literacy to strengthen their reading and writing abilities while building stronger family relationships. It includes background information on family literacy, suggestions for establishing a family literacy program, and ideas about program structure. You'll also find sample lesson plans, a list of recommended books and resources, suggested classroom activities, examples of parents' work, and numerous student handouts. Drawn from the authors' experience of what works with parents, these ideas can be adapted for use in many program settings.

