CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, NORTH RIDGE

TRAINING PARENTS IN READING REMEDIATION TECHNIQUES: 
THE EFFECT ON SILENT READING SCORES OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

A thesis submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in
Education, Secondary Reading Improvement

by

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Dedicated to:

Jane T. Sprague
My friend and teacher.
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ABSTRACT

TRAINING PARENTS IN READING REMEDIATION TECHNIQUES:
THE EFFECT ON SILENT READING SCORES OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

by

Helen Appel Holt

Master of Arts in Education

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between parent training in reading remediation techniques and students' silent reading scores. The experimental group was eleven students whose parents received training in reading remediation techniques. The control group was eleven students whose parents had indicated an interest in receiving training but had been unable to do so. Students from both the experimental and control groups were enrolled in the researcher's remedial reading classes in a Salinas, California, junior high school. The parents who received training attended four weekly consecutive sessions. The topics were as follows:

Session I: Discussing the factors related to reading disability.
Session II: Making the environment conducive to reading improvement.
Session III: Using the newspaper as a tool to improve reading skills.
Session IV: Reading aloud with your child.

This research study was conducted over a twenty-one week period beginning September 6, 1977. The Nelson Reading Test was administered to both the experimental and control groups. Form A was used as the pretest during the second week of the semester and Form B was used as
the posttest during the last week of the semester. An analysis of covariance was used to compare the mean gains of the experimental and control groups. The results of this analysis were not significant at the .05 level. It was concluded that parent training in reading remediation techniques was not a significant factor in improving silent reading scores for this group of junior high school students.
CHAPTER I
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

INTRODUCTION

In today's world, the printed word is still a basic form of communication. Thus the ability to read well is a prerequisite for meeting the minor challenges of daily living as well as the major hurdles of life's goals. Reading skills are used daily in every facet of life, beginning with a name on the birth certificate and ending with an inscription on the tombstone. Reading is not merely a school subject, rather it pervades our lives. Therefore, educators cannot overlook the importance of using non-school personnel and materials to help children master the reading skills. Specifically, educators need to recruit actively and then to train significant others, such as the parents, to help teach children to read.

Parent involvement in their children's education is not a new concept. Historically parents taught their children the basic skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic in the home, or else hired a local school teacher from the community to do the job. However, as formal education became more complex and structured it was removed from the home to the formalized school setting. Concurrently there developed an attitude among educators at all levels that instruction and administration involved matters beyond the comprehension of the layman and as a result parent involvement in educating children was discouraged (Durkin, 1971).

Beginning in the 1920's, two other factors contributed to the decline of parent participation. One was the idea that beginning
reading problems were a result of reading instruction that had started too early. This attitude led to an interpretation of reading readiness that supported later rather than earlier starts, and thus parents were discouraged from teaching their pre-schoolers reading related skills. The second factor was that educators believed that there was one best way to teach beginning reading. This viewpoint was communicated to parents who in turn came to believe that school was the place where children's reading instruction was expected to begin and that instruction at home would interfere with the methodology of the school and thus confuse rather than assist their children (Durkin, 1971). Since the 1960's, however, there has been a change in this attitude (Bloomberg, 1971); where once before educators tried to discourage parent involvement, they now began trying to encourage it.

Importance of the Problem

Research findings have indicated that involving parents in the education of their children is a step in the right direction. In a large scale study, Coleman (1966) found that variation among students in school achievement was more a result of home differences than differences among schools. Other studies also provided evidence that home environmental factors were related to reading achievement (Miller, 1972).

The strong effect of the home environment on junior high school students was clearly shown in studies by Brookover (cited in Brookover and Erickson, 1975). In an effort to determine who were the significant others in students' academic achievement, Brookover questioned 561 eighth graders, almost all of whom indicated that their
parents were important in their lives and concerned about their academic achievement in school throughout their junior and senior high school years. Brookover (1975) concluded that "from grades seven through twelve, the impact of parental evaluation on self-concept of ability was greater than that of teacher evaluation" (p. 309). He further concluded that for grades seven through ten "the parental evaluations of students' academic ability were more highly related to students' self-conception of academic ability than were friends' evaluations of students" (Brookover, 1975, p. 309). In other words, junior high school students were influenced more by their parents than either their teachers or their peers. Thus involving the parents as the partners in the children's education would have desirable and positive results.

The beneficial effect of parent influence is only one side of the coin. Equally important is the desire and willingness of parents to use this influence to improve their children's reading ability. Research has indicated that parents are anxious to help their children read better and that even parents with a low socio-economic level are eager to supplement the school program by helping their children with reading at home (Allen, 1974).

The conclusion can be reached that not only do parents have an important role in their children's reading achievement, but that parents also want to help their children improve their reading skills. However, many parents are often reluctant to act upon their desires to help because they feel incompetent due to a lack of special training.
The question, then, appears not to be can the parents help, or do the parents want to help, but rather, how might the schools assist the parents in helping their children read better.

According to Anselmo (1977), there are three general ways in which parents can be involved in the educational process. First, the schools can help the parents in their role of preparing the child for school. For example, the parent is advised of ways to provide a good learning environment in the home. Second, parents can be involved so that they become partners in the educational process; albeit, their work is done at home. For example parents are taught ways in which to help their children learn to read better. Third, parents can be involved in the classroom itself as volunteers, aides, or clerical help.

This present study was concerned with the second method of parent involvement; that is, involving the parents as partners in the educational process. The specific aspect was to train parents of eighth grade students in reading related activities. Students whose parents received training in reading remediation techniques became the experimental group and students whose parents received no training became the control group. It was hoped that a comparison of the reading scores of a trained/experimental group and the reading scores of an untrained/control group would demonstrate a positive and significant correlation between parent training and children's reading achievement.

Purposes

The purposes of this study were:
1. To determine the relationship between parent training in reading remediation techniques and students' silent reading scores.

2. To measure the above relationship as a reading gain or a reading loss as reflected by the difference between pretest and posttest scores on The Nelson Reading Test, for students whose parents participated in the training/experimental group with an untrained control group.

Hypothesis

The following hypothesis was formulated and tested by a comparison of the experimental and control student groups:

There is no significant difference at the .05 level of significance in silent reading growth as measured by The Nelson Reading Test between the experimental group of students whose parents participated in the training program and the control group of students whose parents received no training.

Assumptions

In the initial organization of this study it was necessary to make the following assumptions:

1. That parents were concerned about their children's lack of proficiency in reading and that they would participate in a parents' class to learn reading remediation techniques.

2. That these parents would implement with their children at home the skills they learned at the training session.

3. That the teacher involved in this study would work equally with children whose parents participated in the training
program as with children whose parents did not participate.

4. That The Nelson Reading Test selected as a basis for measurement was valid for this population.

5. That the effects of parent training would be reflected on a standardized silent reading test score.

Definitions

The Nelson Reading Test

This term is used to refer to a group-administered standardized reading test that measures a student's silent reading ability in vocabulary and comprehension.

Parent Training

This term is used to indicate that parents attended the researcher's classes and received instruction in the use of reading remediation techniques to be used at home.

Reading Disability

This term is used to refer to students of normal intelligence who score one year or more below grade level on the reading section of the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills. (CTBS)

Reading Proficiency

This term is used to describe students who score at or above grade level on the reading section of the CTBS.

Reading Scores

This term is used to indicate the grade level equivalent of the combination of raw scores for the vocabulary and comprehensive sections of The Nelson Reading Test.
Remedial Reading Class

This term is used to identify a class of students who scored one year or more below grade level on the CTBS administered in May of the previous school year. Students are programmed into these classes on the basis of both test scores and teacher recommendation.

Limitations

The limitations of this study were as follows:
1. The study was confined to one teacher's eighth grade students and so the results should not be considered conclusive for the general school population.
2. The study was limited to the effects of parent training on the child's silent reading ability.
3. The instruction of both parents and students was done by the researcher.
4. The tests were administered and scored by the teacher/researcher.
5. It was not possible to ascertain the socio-economic level of the junior high students. The school district considers the students to be from a "working class" background.

Delimitations

The delimitations of this study were as follows:
1. In this junior high only three reading classes were part of this study. Enrollment in one of these classes was the only criteria for the researcher's initial contact with the parents.
2. The period of student instruction was one school semester from September to January.

3. The extent of parent training was weekly meetings over a four week period of time.

Organization of the Study

Chapter One has dealt with the history of parent involvement in education as well as the importance of parent training in ameliorating reading achievement. Chapter Two has reviewed the literature in the area of parent training and its influence on reading achievement. Chapter Three has concerned itself with the methodology used in this study. Chapter Four has reported the findings and analyzed the data by use of an analysis of covariance. Chapter Five has summarized the findings of this study and drawn conclusions based on those findings. Recommendations for future research were also made. The final chapter was followed by a selective bibliography and by the appendices.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Reading achievement and instruction do not occur only within the confines of the classroom. On the contrary, reading achievement and progress involve all persons who have contact with children, with the most important individuals outside the classroom being the children's parents. The importance of the parents' influence as compared to the school's influence can be seen by the amount of time children spend in school. Generally speaking, the school has children for only one-fourth to one-third of each day during five days of approximately forty weeks in a year. The rest of the time the children are involved with their parents and their community (Harrington, 1970). In addition to considering the quantity of time children spend with their parents it is important to consider also the quality of that time. Parents and children have an intimate, day to day relationship, continuing over a long period of time, a relationship which most teachers never achieve with their students. Educators can take advantage of this parent-child relationship by actively recruiting the parents' participation in the task of supplementing the school's academic efforts. Dr. Wilson Riles, California State Superintendent of Public Instruction, has stated that parents should be considered partners in the educational process and furthermore that they should be trained to work with their children as well as being provided with materials that will help in educating their children (Riles, 1969).

This interest in involving parents in the formal, school-based
education of their children is not a new idea. The practice of parent involvement, however, has grown substantially since the 1960's with the advent of federally-funded Head Start and Follow-Through programs which have actively trained parents to assist in their children's educational development (Murray, 1972; and Anselmo, 1977).

An example of such a parent involvement program is that developed by Dorothy Rich of the Home and School Institute. The program used "recipes" to guide the parents in ways to use effectively the home environment to supplement school learning. After using the program for sixteen weeks, Washington, D. C. students showed significantly improved reading scores ("HSI and Parent-Community Involvement," 1976).

This program was also used successfully in Fowler, California. John Taylor, the Fowler District superintendent, said a practical application of his philosophy demonstrated that "a common characteristic of children doing well in school, cutting across racial, linguistic, and economic lines, was a family that reinforced basic skills at home" ("HSI and Parent-Community Involvement," 1976).

Educators are not the only individuals who believe that parent involvement is important. A recent Gallup poll showed that parents realized that their children were not motivated and that motivating them was the responsibility of both the parents and the school. In addition to accepting part of the blame for the lack of student achievement, parents also indicated that they felt they needed to take an active part in supporting the school in educating their children (Gallup, cited in Burks, 1977).
Not only is it important that parents want to support the schools, but it is also a valuable contribution to children's education. Empirical evidence has indicated that open communication between the school and the home has led to increased academic achievement as well as to better adjustment for students (Anchor and Anchor, 1974; Gabel et al., 1977). Other research also has shown that there may be a strong relationship between what parents do in the home and the school achievements of their children (Dave, 1963; Wolf, 1966; Kifer, 1975). Therefore, once the channels of communication between school and home have been established, educators can assist the parents in creating the best possible learning environment that will complement the school's goals, especially those goals pertaining to reading achievement.

The effect of parent behavior on reading skills cannot be ignored. Research has shown that in homes where reading is emphasized by activities such as child-parent library trips, reading aloud and silently, and discussing school-related activities, the children tend not only to be better readers but also more successful in school (Schiff, 1964; Artley, 1975; Kifer, 1977).

A survey of the literature has revealed many studies that seek to analyze the relationship between parent involvement and reading achievement. One aspect of parent involvement was simply to orient parents to the reading program by having them observe and participate in the classroom. In the lower primary grades, it was found that when parents participated throughout the school year, their children had higher reading scores, read more books both at home and in the
classroom, and mastered word analysis skills better than the students whose parents did not participate (Hoff, cited in Narang, 1954). This would indicate that even though parents were not specifically trained to supplement the school's reading activities, they learned enough through observation and participation to employ some of the same techniques at home.

The next level of parent involvement was to actually train the parents to perform various types of reading activities as used in the classroom and then have them follow through at home. A study of this type involved thirty, second grade, low-income children in Seattle whose parents were trained to play reading games. Results indicated that the group which had played games had significantly higher scores for vocabulary and composite reading, although there was no significant difference for reading comprehension scores (Clegg, 1973). Due to the design of this study, however, these results did not conclusively prove that parent involvement meant higher reading scores. The higher scores might have been due to either playing the games or parent involvement or a combination of both.

Another study of this type had parents supervising their children in a structured home reading program. This was done during the summer prior to entering first grade. Results showed that post-summer reading achievement by participants was higher than their pre-summer test scores, a reversal of the normal trend (Sullivan, 1970). However, it should be noted that initially poorer readers did not participate in the program to the extent that better readers did and that similar results might not have been obtained had poorer readers participated.
equally. It could also be said that the reading gains were due to the enrichment program and not necessarily to the fact of parent involvement.

The third level of parent involvement incorporated both aspects from the first two levels and added one more variable. At this level, parents and teachers met throughout the study to discuss progress and exchange ideas. Experiments that have had these three factors have shown disparate results. Rosenquist (1972), in a study of first graders found that the children whose parents attended orientation meetings and followed through on the school recommended activities of reading to the child, parent-child library visits, reading games, and providing praise and encouragement, scored significantly higher than the students whose parents did not participate in the program. Murray (1972), working with second graders, found a significant drop in oral reading errors, a gain in fluency, and an increased level of difficulty on which children could adequately perform, for those students whose parents participated in the training program. Breiling (1976) also found that a majority of first grade students showed more gain on sight-word recognition than ordinarily would be expected after parents had been trained as tutors.

Crosset (1972), in a study of first graders, also showed positive gains from parent involvement. However, these gains were not statistically significant and thus did not support the hypothesis that children's reading scores would significantly improve through parent training. However, Crosset felt that the study was valuable because it showed that parents of low socio-economic levels would participate
in a program to improve their child's reading.

A larger study involving first, second, and third grade students compared the performance of three groups of children reading at least one year below grade level. Two of the groups used an instructional guide for a ten week period. One of the groups of parents received weekly instruction while the other did not. The third group was not tutored. Once again the results indicated that although parent tutoring was effective in increasing children's scores in some reading subskills, there was not a significant difference on reading achievement scores of students whose mothers had been trained in the use of programmed reading instruction and those students whose mothers did not use the home instruction (O'Neil, 1975).

While the above studies showed either significant or positive gains in reading scores due to parent training other studies showed different results. Hirst (1972) used the parents of second graders as home tutors for sixteen weeks. Analysis of his pretest and posttest data showed no significant differences between the two groups for vocabulary, comprehension, and word study skills. Similarly, Izzo (1976), working with third grade children, found no significant differences between reading achievement scores of students whose mothers had been trained in the use of programmed reading instruction and those students whose mothers did not use the home instruction.

Another comparative study that involved parent training throughout the program was done by Della-Piana et al. (1967). This study differed from the ones previously mentioned in two aspects. First, it dealt with students in the upper primary grades; and second, it
differentiated between oral and silent reading abilities. Results of this study showed a significant growth for oral reading abilities but not for silent reading skills.

Given the data available it has not been possible to make a definitive statement concerning the effect of parent training on reading achievement scores in the primary grades, or to interpolate and apply those conclusions to junior high students. In addition, while there have been many articles describing parental involvement programs for the primary grades, there was little comparative research available for such programs dealing with junior high students. The present study sought to determine the relationship between parent training and reading achievement scores of eighth grade students.
CHAPTER III
PROPOSED SOLUTION

The review of the literature and research presented in Chapter Two has demonstrated the relationship between parent training and children's reading ability (Clegg, 1973; Murray, 1972; O'Neil, 1975; Breiling, 1976). A closer look at these studies showed that almost all of them have been conducted during the past ten years. This was indicative of the renewed interest in the important role that parents play in the education of their children. This recognition has stimulated a reaching out to the home to help parents understand their important role and to teach them ways in which they can help their children obtain the maximum benefits from their schooling (Mangieri, 1977).

Most studies, however, have stressed parent training in the early primary grades and have overlooked the influential role of the parent in the lives of junior high school students (Brookover and Erickson, 1975). Based on this knowledge, this study was then undertaken to attempt to assess the relationship between parent training and reading achievement for eighth grade remedial reading students.

Research Population

There were two groups in this study, an experimental group and a control group. The subjects in both groups were limited to students enrolled in the researcher's remedial reading classes. There were a total of fifty-nine students enrolled in the researcher's three remedial reading classes. Of those fifty-nine students whose parents
were contacted, twenty-seven of the parents indicated an interest in participating in the parent training program. Of those twenty-seven parents, however, only eleven were able to attend the parent training program. The children of those eleven parents became the subjects in the experimental group. The subjects in the control group were chosen from the children whose parents had indicated an interest in attending the parent training session but were unable to do so. Each student in the experimental group was paired with a student from the interested parents' group on the basis of sex and similar pre-test reading scores. There were four girls and eleven boys in each group.

Description of the Research Methodology

This was a comparative study with two groups of eleven students each. Both the control and experimental groups were limited to students enrolled in the researcher's remedial reading classes from September 6, 1977, through January 27, 1978, a period of one semester. This study was based on the data measuring the reading growth of students during this 21 week period.

There were a total of five meetings with the parents. The first was an informal meeting of all interested parents during which the researcher described the classroom procedures and expectations. It was at this meeting that parents were invited to participate in the parent training program. The remaining four meetings were the actual parent training sessions for parents of the experimental group. Parents met for the first session on September 29, 1977, and continued to meet once a week for the following three weeks. Each meeting was scheduled from 7-9 p.m. There was no further effort to train
parents during the remainder of the semester.

The first step in this study was to establish contact with the parents of all students enrolled in the researcher's three remedial classes. In making the initial contact the researcher took care to be direct, positive, and non-threatening. This approach was deemed necessary due to the fact that the parents of remedial readers were generally anxious, over-protective, disappointed, and guilt-ridden about their children's reading performance. Furthermore, it has been shown that contacts between the school and the parents of remedial readers have generally had negative overtones and parents have become conditioned to be apprehensive of a school initiated communication (Reich, 1962). By personally phoning the parents during the first two weeks of the school year, the researcher was initiating a direct communication that did not go via the children. She was also calling the parents before any problems had arisen and was, in effect, expressing her willingness to work with the parents at all times and not just when there were problems. It has been shown that this type of immediate, personal contact has the effect of assuring parents that they were important to their children's schooling and that they could understand and help facilitate the school's program (Wartenberg, 1970).

During the initial phone conversation, the researcher invited the parents to meet with the teacher and other interested parents in order to get to know the teacher better, to learn what activities were taking place in the classroom, and to learn a few things they could do at home to reinforce the teacher's reading goals. Meetings
were scheduled for three different week nights and parents had the option of choosing whichever date was most convenient for them. For those parents who were not contacted by phone, a letter was sent directly to the home containing the pertinent information. Both the letters and phone calls were made in Spanish for those parents whose primary language was Spanish.

A total of fifty-nine parents were contacted; forty received phone calls and nineteen received letters. All of the forty parents contacted by phone indicated their interest and committed themselves to attend a particular informational meeting on one of the three dates. However, only thirty-one of those forty actually attended one of the meetings. Of the nineteen letters mailed only three parents responded by attending a meeting. This was about a fifty percent response which was congruent with the parent response of a similar study in which only letters were used to contact the parents (Della-Piana et al., 1967).

The first meeting was not a training session, but took the format of an Open House or Back-to-School Night. For this first meeting every effort was made to make the parents feel welcome. Parents were met at the front door of the school and shown the way to the classroom. Coffee and cake were served to allow for a relaxed atmosphere. Then the teacher explained how the classroom functioned and the philosophy behind the classes. Parents were also given an opportunity to view the classroom materials and ask questions. At the end of the evening, parents were offered the opportunity to participate in a series of four classes taught by the teacher that would teach them
specific skills useful in helping their children read better. A sign-up sheet was passed around on which parents indicated which night they were interested in attending or that they were not interested at all. A total of twenty-seven parents indicated they were interested in participating in the parent training sessions.

Research Design

All students in the researcher's classes were given a pretest and a posttest, using two different forms of a standardized reading test in order to avoid test-wise distortion of the reading scores. The pretest was administered during the second week of school and the posttest was administered during the last week of the semester. The Nelson Reading Test was used to measure the students' reading growth.

A comparison of the pretest and posttest scores for the experimental and control groups was to reveal either a net gain, net loss, or no change in vocabulary and comprehension skills over the five month period.

The procedure consisted of the following steps:

1. Initial contact with the parents during the first two weeks of school.

2. Administering The Nelson Reading Test, Form A as the pretest during the second week of school.

3. Parent training classes meeting for the following four weeks while the regular classroom activities continued for the semester.

4. Administering The Nelson Reading Test, Form B as the posttest during the last week of the semester.
The Nelson Reading Test

The Nelson Reading Test, Forms A and B (Nelson, 1969) was first published in 1939. It was revised and republished in 1969. The norms of the revised Nelson Reading Test are based upon a nationwide standardization sample designed for use in grades three through nine. Forms A and B of the test are comparable and thus it is possible to use one form for the pretest and the other form for the posttest. Each form contains a total of 175 test items. One hundred items measure vocabulary and seventy-five items measure reading comprehension. The vocabulary section is standardized for a test time of ten minutes and the paragraph comprehension is standardized for a test time of twenty minutes. Each reading comprehension paragraph is followed by three questions, one concerning the general significance of the paragraph, one relating to the detailed information presented in the paragraph, and one that measures the ability to predict probable outcomes and draw conclusions based on the material presented in the paragraph.

Selection of Subjects

The subjects in this study were all eighth grade students in a Salinas, California, junior high school who had already completed one year of reading class. The junior high school had both seventh and eighth grades. The students' day was organized into class periods, with each subject being taught by a different teacher. The students in this study all had the same teacher for reading but were distributed in three different class periods.

Students were programmed into the reading classes by the counse-
lors on the basis of reading achievement scores on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills. All students who tested below grade level (8.0) in May of the preceding school year were enrolled in a reading class. Students were programmed into their classes for the entire school year. In the researcher's classes the reading achievement scores ranged from third to seventh grade.

As reported earlier, twenty-seven parents indicated their interest in attending the parent training classes. However, only eleven of those were able to attend all four of the classes. The children of those eleven parents who participated in the training program became the experimental group.

In choosing students for the control group the researcher chose an equal number of students (11) whose parents were among the group of parents who were interested in participating in the training program but were unable to do so. The eleven students chosen for the control group were paired with the eleven students in the experimental group on the basis of sex and similar raw scores on The Nelson Reading Test that was administered the second week of the school year. No attempt was made to control for ethnic origin in either group. Thus, the control and experimental groups had approximately the same beginning reading level and parents who were interested in helping them read better. The variable was parent participation in the training program.

Parent Training Procedures

The training sessions met weekly for two hours every week for four weeks. Each week a different topic was discussed. Following are
the topics for each of the four sessions:

Session I: Discussing the factors related to reading disability.

Session II: Making the home environment conducive to reading improvement.

Session III: Using the newspaper as a tool to improve reading skills.

Session IV: Reading aloud with your child.

The tone of all four sessions was kept informal but informational. Each session began with a review of what had been previously discussed. Parents were encouraged to add their own comments, to share their experiences, and to ask questions at any time during the session. The researcher stayed after each meeting for those parents who wished to discuss personally the progress of their children. Detailed discussion of the material presented at each session is provided in Appendix A.

No further attempt was made to work with the parents of the experimental or control groups. The researcher continued to teach her classes, treating all students in a like manner. During the last week of the semester, all students were posttested using The Nelson Reading Test, Form B.

Data Collection and Recording

The necessary data for the control and experimental groups was the pretest and posttest scores from The Nelson Reading Test. Individual scores were recorded in vocabulary, comprehension, and total, reflecting a combination of both vocabulary and comprehension scores. This data was reported in Chapter Four. An analysis of covariance was employed to test the research hypothesis.
CHAPTER IV
FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH

The findings of the research conducted with the junior high school parents are reported in this chapter. The researcher presented the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference at the .05 level of significance in silent reading growth between the experimental group of students whose parents participated in the training program and the control group of students whose parents received no training. The data used to test this hypothesis was derived from a comparison of the pretest and posttest scores of The Nelson Reading Test, Forms A and B, respectively. The statistical test used to analyze the raw data was analysis of covariance. The results of this analysis indicated that there was no significant difference at the .05 level in the silent reading growth between the experimental and control groups. The means of the total reading scores for the pretest and posttest, as well as the standard deviations for each group, are summarized in Table I.

Table I
Summary of Pretest and Posttest Scores on The Nelson Reading Test of Control and Experimental Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>71.0909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>67.9091</td>
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</table>
An analysis of covariance was used to evaluate the data. The results of this evaluation are summarized in Table 2 which presents a comparison of pretest and posttest data for the control and experimental groups. The analysis of covariance resulted in a significance of .172 which is greater than the postulated level of significance of .05.

Table 2

Analysis of Covariance for the Control and Experimental Groups as Measured by The Nelson Reading Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1296.855</td>
<td>1296.855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>171.502</td>
<td>171.502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explained</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1468.356</td>
<td>734.178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1642.416</td>
<td>86.443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>21</td>
<td><strong>3110.773</strong></td>
<td><strong>148.132</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ F = 8.493^* \quad * p > .05 \]
Although the difference in silent reading growth between the control and experimental groups was not statistically significant at the .05 level, the experimental group did show greater gains than the control group. This difference is presented graphically in Figure 1 which compares the mean gains of the experimental and control groups.

Figure 1
A Comparison of the Gain From Pretest to Posttest Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Comprehension</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C = Control</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>E = Experimental</td>
<td>6</td>
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CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purposes of this study were:

1. To train parents of reading disability students in the use of reading techniques they could use at home to help their children improve their reading.

2. To compare the gain or loss of reading growth as reflected by the difference between pretest and posttest scores on The Nelson Reading Test for students whose parents participated in the training with an untrained control group.

The review of the literature and research showed that the majority of studies conducted during the past ten years have dealt with students in the lower primary grades and that the role of the parents with regard to the junior high school students' reading achievement had not been the subject of much research. The results of what studies had been conducted were non-conclusive. Some of the research showed that children whose parents received training in teaching reading skills showed greater growth than for those students whose parents were untrained. Other studies showed no significant differences between trained and untrained groups.

This study sought to contribute to the current body of knowledge regarding the effect of parent training on junior high school students' reading achievement. The experimental group of eleven junior high school students' parents received four weeks of training in reading improvement techniques that could be used at home. The gain in reading achievement for both the control and the experimental groups was
measured by a comparison of pretest and posttest scores on The Nelson Reading Test with an interval of one semester between testing.

The data were analyzed using an analysis of covariance which compared the means of the total reading achievement scores for the experimental and control groups. The difference between the gains of the two groups was .172. Thus the research findings were not statistically significant at the .05 level and the research (null) hypothesis was accepted.

Conclusions

From the data presented it can be seen that there was a greater gain in silent reading achievement for the experimental group than for the control group. This study indicated, however, that this gain was not statistically significant. Thus, it was concluded that training parents in reading remediation techniques was not a significant factor influencing silent reading growth for this group of junior high school remedial reading students.

Recommendations

The research findings for this study indicated that parent training was not a significant influence, for this group, on silent reading growth. Before these findings can be generalized to other populations, this researcher feels that further study must be done. The following five recommendations are made for those who will pursue this line of research:

1. The number of students involved in the study should be greater than eleven. This would provide a wider base from which to draw valid conclusions.
2. The duration of the study should be longer than one semester. This would allow time for the parents to become proficient at implementing the techniques learned during the parent training sessions and for the effects of such implementation to be reflected in the test scores.

3. There should be more than four parent training sessions and they should be supplemented with home visits. This would help the parents to better implement the reading techniques discussed at the training session.

4. Records should be kept by the parents indicating how frequently the instructional techniques were implemented in the home.

5. Both oral and silent reading should be used as a basis of comparison of reading gains. It might also prove valuable to assess the changes in attitudes towards reading and school as a result of the parent training program.
References


Appendix A
Parent Training Sessions

Appendix A includes a detailed discussion of the material presented in the four parent training sessions. Following are the topics for each session:

Session I: Discussing the factors related to reading disability.

Session II: Making the home environment conducive to reading improvement.

Session III: Using the newspaper as a tool to improve reading skills.

Session IV: Reading aloud with your child.

Session I

The broad topic for session one was the psychology of dealing with the disabled reader. It also included ways in which parents could effectively communicate with their children and the use of a positive approach to reading.

The researcher began this first meeting with the parents introducing themselves to the group. Part of the introduction was to include what their major concern was as regarded their children's reading. This was done so that parents knew their concerns were taken seriously. In addressing the parents the following points were made:

1. In attempts to help their children read better, parents need to understand the social stigma attached to being in a remedial reading class. Research has shown that the disabled reader usually has social and emotional problems. An inability to learn to read well can mean severe frustration and feelings
of insecurity for the disabled reader. Frequently, the poor readers avoid reading altogether rather than subject themselves to situations in which they are going to encounter difficulties. In some cases these children actually become convinced that they are stupid (Bond and Tinker, 1967). Therefore, parents were advised to avoid making statements that would contribute to their children's feelings of inadequacy. For example, they should not compare them unfavorably to another child, nor should they make disparaging remarks about their intellectual abilities. Instead, parents should attempt to build a strong self-concept in their children by the use of positive comments. More specifically, parents were told to reward their children's positive statements of ability or achievements by use of commendatory remarks, prizes, tokens, or smiles. This relationship between positive reinforcement and academic achievement was experienced by the parents through participation in role-playing in which both positive and negative statements were made in order to elicit feelings of self-worth or worthlessness.

2. Research has also shown that both actual parent surveillance of student performance and the student's perception of that surveillance are related to the effects that parental achievement expectations have on student achievement (Brookover and Erickson, 1975). Thus, parents were encouraged to be emphatic in their expectations and to clearly communicate, both in words and actions, what they expected from their children. For
example, it was not enough to say, "I expect you to read a half hour every day." Rather, the parents should set aside a specific time during which the children would read and then see to it that the children were not interrupted during that reading time.

3. Open and meaningful communication between the school and the parents was also important. Brookover and Erickson (1975) showed that the effectiveness of parents and the effectiveness of schools are each facilitated or impeded by what the other does. Thus, if the schools required one thing and the parents another, the children had no satisfactory way of resolving the conflict. Therefore, parents were encouraged not only to find out what occurred in the school, but to actively support the school's and the teachers' standards. For example, parents could check daily to see that their children's homework was done or they could practice spelling assignments with them.

4. Reading skills and school achievement do not exist independently of other aspects of the student's life. Rather, they are an integral part of the student's activities. Thus in order to help ameliorate reading skills parents needed to see the relationship between other aspects of their children's lives and their reading activities. Parents were encouraged to discuss activities, feelings, and opinions with their children and to take time daily to listen to their children talk about themselves. The parents were also encouraged to solicit their children's opinions and to let their children know that their
feelings and thoughts were worthwhile. Role-playing was used to demonstrate various techniques, especially skills used in active listening and the use of non-judgemental statements, to establish and maintain open communications between the parents and their children.

5. Brookover and Erickson (1975) have shown that decision making is an important condition which helps shape and determine academic achievement. Thus parents were advised to encourage their children to think for themselves and to allow their children to make their own decisions when reasonable. For example, the parents could limit daily television viewing to one hour but allow their children to decide which programs would be watched during that time.

6. In conclusion it was pointed out that not all students learn the same way (Dechant, 1973) and that the parents were the ultimate judge of what techniques worked with their children. They were cautioned not to do something they felt uncomfortable with or to engage in an activity they felt was worthless because their children would recognize and respond to those feelings and attitudes (Brookover and Erickson, 1975). Most important, parents were advised not to be disappointed if their children did not respond immediately and/or enthusiastically to their parents' efforts as changes in their children's reading behavior and achievement were more likely to be gradual than sudden.

The session ended with the distribution of the "Instant Words" list,
(Fry, 1972), a list of the most common 600 words used in the English language (Appendix B). Parents were encouraged to use this list to diagnose their children's recognition and spelling of sight words. The researcher explained that this list could be used for children of all ages but that their eighth graders should be able to instantly recognize and spell all six hundred words.

Session Two

Educators generally assume that parents know what to do to encourage and stimulate their children's reading activities. However, after conversations with many parents, this researcher came to the conclusion that parents really did not understand the vital role of the home environment nor did they know what actions to take to have a "reading" home. Thus the topic for this session was how to create a home environment that was conducive to reading. Many studies have shown that both the type and extent of home reading and reading-related experiences were very influential on subsequent reading achievement (Miller, 1972). Based on these studies the following suggestions were made to the parents:

Parents were told to:

1. Have books and magazines in the home. When reading materials are readily available, children are more apt to read than if they must first search for them. It was suggested that books and magazine subscriptions be given as gifts as a way to make reading more personal.

2. Read themselves. Parents are role-models for their children and children imitate their actions. Therefore, when child-
ren see their parents reading, they will infer that reading is valuable and useful to adults and they will emulate their parents' behavior and read themselves. Parents could also read the same books their children did and this would give them something to discuss. Furthermore, the parents could then give encouragement to finish reading the book by dropping hints about the good parts to come.

3. Provide physical stimuli, such as pictures, knicknacks, and so forth, in the home. These will stimulate children's curiosity and will lead to discussions that provide opportunities to build conceptual development and vocabulary.

4. To listen carefully and with interest to their children. They were also instructed to emphasize new ideas and words in an effort to broaden their children's horizons. The importance of communicating with their children was reviewed again.

5. Read to your children. Too often parents stop reading to their children after they finish grammar school. It was pointed out that sometimes older children enjoy being read to and that this was an opportunity to share books with their children that their children might not be able to read on their own due to a lack of reading proficiency. As a variant, the older children could read to the younger children, an activity that would benefit both readers plus have the added advantage of enhancing the poorer reader's self-concept.

6. Establishing a time and place for reading. This important point was stressed again. It was emphasized that the reading
spot should be well-lighted and that there should be no distractions, such as television or conversations. It was suggested that the whole family participate daily in a silent reading period.

7. Use the library as a source for books and information. Frequently, children will ask questions parents can't answer. This is an excellent opportunity to take advantage of the local library. In addition, the librarian is well-trained in the field and can make recommendations as to what books children might be interested in, and capable of, reading. It was suggested that trips to the library become a regularly scheduled activity.

8. Take children on potentially educationally worthwhile trips. An activity questionnaire was filled out by the parents for their own benefit (Appendix C). A discussion ensued which resulted in a list of local and nearby educational offerings. It was stressed that parents must discuss these trips with their children in order to obtain the maximum benefit from them. It was also pointed out that this type of activity should be fun as well as educational.

9. Limit television viewing. Parents readily admitted that their children watched too much television but previous attempts to discourage television viewing were unsuccessful. The researcher suggested that they begin by limiting their children's viewing to half the time currently spent in that activity and to continue in that fashion until their goal was
Parents were advised to have alternate activities at hand so their children did not become bored. Some of the suggestions were books to read, models to build, and indoor and outdoor games to play. The positive uses of television viewing were also discussed. When parents watched a program and then discussed it with their children they could do several things. First they could emphasize the differences between fantasy and reality. Second, they could discuss different values reflected and their importance and how people get their values. Third, they could stimulate thinking by devising alternate ways to end the program. Fourth, they could expand their children's awareness of the world around them by watching the news as well as other educational-type programs. This could be followed up by reading more about the places and topics mentioned.

During this session the researcher also discussed the different reading levels of books. Parents were shown books on various levels and were instructed as to what to look for to determine the difficulty of a book. Those factors were: (1) width of margins; (2) size of print; (3) pages of pictures as compared to pages of print; (4) length and complexity of sentences; (5) vocabulary; and (6) subject matter. The three levels of reading were also defined for the parents as follows: (1) Independent or Free Reading Level: At this level the reader can function without outside help. Comprehension is about ninety percent and word recognition is about ninety-nine percent. (2) Instructional Reading Level: At this level the reader has to work some-
what at de-coding new words and understanding new concepts and may need some outside help. Comprehension is about seventy-five percent and word recognition is about ninety-five percent. (3) Frustration Reading Level: At this level the reader is having difficulty and becomes frustrated and may give up altogether in the effort to read. Comprehension is about fifty percent and word recognition is ninety percent or less (Eckwall, 1970).

Parents were also given a book list, compiled by the researcher, that listed books most teen-agers enjoy (Appendix D). The titles were briefly discussed and the researcher made specific suggestions to each parent in regards to which books their children were able to read and likely to enjoy. In choosing books parents were advised to let their children be the judge of what they were interested in and able to read. It is well known that "practice makes perfect," and reading is no exception. If children read daily, they are practicing their reading skills and thus will become better readers. At first children may start out on books too easy for them; but as their confidence builds, they will move on to more challenging and stimulating material (Fader, 1968). One way to encourage children to read books on their instructional level was to focus on their interests. For example, a motorcycle enthusiast will have more incentive to read a difficult motorcycle magazine than a difficult horse story.

Session Three

The main thrust of the third training session with the parents was to demonstrate ways in which comprehension and vocabulary skills could be improved. This was done by using examples from the local
newspaper as a basis for explanation. The newspaper was chosen rather than books for the following reasons: (1) The daily newspaper is written on about the sixth grade level; (2) It is readily available and relatively inexpensive; (3) It is of topical interest and presents new information daily; (4) It presents opportunities for development of comprehension and vocabulary skills on every level and for every interest; (5) Reading the newspaper demonstrates the practical application of reading skills outside of the school milieu.

The discussion began with a review of the various types of comprehension skills (Appendix G). This was followed by selecting articles from the paper and using them to practice the comprehension skills. As regards vocabulary development, parents were advised to tell their children the meaning of unknown words, to use new words frequently, and to consult a dictionary when the meaning was unknown to themselves. Parents were also urged to use the newspaper as a way to expand their children's awareness of the world around them, particularly as relates to careers. Newspapers frequently report on people in different careers as well as publishing the "help wanted" columns in the classified sections. Consistent use of these items would help children begin to think about their own choice of careers as well as the qualifications needed to secure their chosen future. It would also demonstrate the necessity to read well in almost any career.

The secondary topic of discussion for this meeting was the administration and interpretation of a standardized reading test. The following points were made:

1. Students' performances on the test depend on many factors,
such as physical health, mental and emotional attitude on test day, attitude towards the examiner, and also what importance the students attached to the tests.

2. Raw scores are correlated to grade-equivalent scores according to a chart that is based on test results of students across the nation, that is, these are standardized scores. Also, one or two points on the raw score can make a big difference in grade equivalent scores.

3. The test measured how well students did in a limited amount of time. This is part of the standardized test procedures, but penalizes the slower readers. Results from these tests were used to program students into their classes so parents should make an effort to impress upon their children the importance of doing their best on the test. It was also pointed out however, that some students just don't test well and that the test scores are not an accurate reflection of scholastic ability. Therefore, if the parents felt that their children were misplaced on the basis of test scores, they should discuss this with the school counselors.

5. These scores are not permanent. They will fluctuate up or down, depending not only on how much students learn between tests, but also on the factors discussed in point one and on luck when students guess at the answers they don't know.

6. One way to improve their children's performance on these tests was to practice improving vocabulary and comprehension skills at home. It was important to do this on a regular,
daily basis. Reading speed would develop when children read books at their independent level. Vocabulary and concept development would be strengthened by reading books at their instructional level.

After this discussion the researcher shared with the parents their children's reading scores on both the CTBS and The Nelson Reading Test. This had not been a planned activity but rather was a result of parent interest.

Session Four

Session four was designed to be a practical application of what had been learned in the previous three sessions. Children accompanied their parents for this last session. A short story was selected to be read aloud in turn by both parents and their children. The reason for involving the parents was to give them an opportunity to experience the feelings that students encounter when called on to perform in class. It was thought that this technique, more than anything else, would develop the parents' empathy for their children's plight.

With the researcher acting as moderator, each individual read a few sentences. At this time no corrections were made, or questions asked, as the intent was to make everyone feel comfortable. The second time around the researcher made corrections and asked questions of the readers, explaining the rationale behind the questions, corrections, and non-corrects. The third time around the parents played the role of teacher. For fun, the next time around, roles were reversed and the children had a chance to teach their parents. The session ended with a summary and review of what had transpired during the training session.
Appendix B

Fry Word List

This appendix is a list of the most common 600 words (Fry, 1972) in reading material. The first 100 words are those generally known by the end of the first grade. The second 100 words are those generally known by the end of second grade. The third 100 words are those generally known by the end of the third grade, and so on until the last sixth list of 100 words. This list was distributed at the second parents' training session.
## INSTANT WORDS--FIRST HUNDRED

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<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
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<td>76. which</td>
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<td>75. make</td>
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SECOND HUNDRED

1. saw 26. morning 51. use 76. ran
2. stand 27. live 52. these 77. five
3. first 28. four 53. right 78. read
4. came 29. last 54. present 79. over
5. girl 30. color 55. tall 80. such
6. house 31. away 56. next 81. way
7. find 32. red 47. please 82. too
8. because 33. friend 58. leave 83. shall
9. made 34. pretty 59. hand 84. own
10. could 35. home 60. more 85. most
11. look 36. box 61. why 86. sure
12. look 37. cat 62. better 87. thing
13. mother 38. want 63. under 88. only
14. run 39. year 64. while 89. near
15. school 40. white 65. should 90. than
16. people 41. got 66. never 91. open
17. night 42. play 67. each 92. kind
18. into 43. found 68. soon 93. must
19. say 44. left 69. upon 94. high
20. think 45. men 70. best 95. far
21. back 46. bring 71. another 96. both
22. big 47. wish 72. seam 97. and
23. where 48. black 73. tree 98. also
24. am 49. may 74. name 99. until
25. ball 50. let 75. dear 100. call
| 1. ask | 26. hat | 51. off | 76. fire |
| 2. small | 27. car | 52. sister | 77. ten |
| 3. yellow | 28. write | 53. happy | 78. order |
| 4. show | 29. try | 54. once | 79. part |
| 5. goes | 30. myself | 55. didn't | 80. early |
| 6. clean | 31. longer | 56. set | 81. fat |
| 7. buy | 32. those | 57. round | 82. third |
| 8. thank | 33. hold | 58. dress | 83. same |
| 9. sleep | 34. full | 59. fall | 84. love |
| 10. letter | 35. carry | 60. wash | 85. hear |
| 11. jump | 36. eight | 61. start | 86. eyes |
| 12. help | 37. sing | 62. always | 87. door |
| 13. fly | 38. warm | 63. anything | 88. though |
| 14. don't | 39. sit | 64. around | 89. second |
| 15. fast | 40. dog | 65. close | 90. water |
| 16. cold | 41. ride | 66. walk | 91. town |
| 17. today | 42. hot | 67. money | 92. took |
| 18. does | 43. grow | 68. turn | 93. pair |
| 19. face | 44. cut | 69. might | 94. now |
| 20. green | 45. seven | 70. hard | 95. keep |
| 21. every | 46. woman | 71. along | 96. head |
| 22. brown | 47. funny | 72. bed | 97. food |
| 23. coat | 48. yes | 73. fine | 98. yesterday |
| 24. six | 49. ate | 74. sat | 99. clothes |
| 25. gave | 50. stop | 75. hope | 100. o'clock |
| 1. told | 26. time | 51. word | 76. wear |
| 2. Miss | 27. yet | 52. almost | 77. Mr. |
| 3. father | 28. true | 53. thought | 78. side |
| 4. children | 29. above | 54. send | 79. poor |
| 5. land | 30. still | 55. receive | 80. lost |
| 6. interest | 31. meet | 56. pay | 81. wind |
| 7. government | 32. since | 57. nothing | 82. Mrs. |
| 8. feet | 33. number | 58. need | 83. learn |
| 9. garden | 34. state | 59. mean | 84. held |
| 10. done | 35. matter | 60. late | 85. front |
| 11. country | 36. line | 61. half | 86. built |
| 12. different | 37. remember | 62. fight | 87. family |
| 13. bad | 38. large | 63. enough | 88. began |
| 14. across | 39. few | 64. feel | 89. air |
| 15. yard | 40. hit | 65. during | 90. young |
| 16. winter | 41. cover | 66. gone | 91. ago |
| 17. table | 42. window | 67. hundred | 92. world |
| 18. story | 43. even | 68. week | 93. without |
| 19. sometimes | 44. city | 69. between | 94. kill |
| 20. I'm | 45. together | 70. change | 95. ready |
| 21. tried | 46. sun | 71. being | 96. stay |
| 22. horse | 47. life | 72. care | 97. won't |
| 23. something | 48. street | 73. answer | 98. paper |
| 24. brought | 49. party | 74. course | 99. airplane |
| 25. shoes | 50. suit | 75. against | 100. outside |
| 1. business | 26. begin | 51. cost | 76. low |
| 2. summer | 27. mind | 52. note | 77. arm |
| 3. certain | 28. pass | 53. past | 78. hair |
| 4. hour | 29. reach | 54. room | 79. class |
| 5. curtain | 30. month | 55. flew | 80. quite |
| 6. brother | 31. point | 56. office | 81. dinner |
| 7. several | 32. rest | 57. cow | 82. spell |
| 8. evening | 33. sent | 58. visit | 83. sick |
| 9. teacher | 34. talk | 59. wait | 84. cry |
| 10. picture | 35. went | 60. bird | 85. finish |
| 11. ground | 36. bank | 61. company | 86. catch |
| 12. afternoon | 37. ship | 62. egg | 87. floor |
| 13. return | 38. whole | 63. feed | 88. stick |
| 14. dinner | 39. short | 64. boat | 89. great |
| 15. question | 40. fair | 65. plan | 90. guess |
| 16. beautiful | 41. fill | 66. fish | 91. bridge |
| 17. became | 42. grade | 67. sir | 92. church |
| 18. tomorrow | 43. remain | 68. fell | 93. lady |
| 19. cousin | 44. milk | 69. hill | 94. snow |
| 20. wrong | 45. war | 70. wood | 95. whom |
| 21. hour | 46. able | 71. add | 96. women |
| 22. glad | 47. charge | 72. ice | 97. among |
| 23. follow | 48. either | 73. chair | 98. road |
| 24. company | 49. less | 74. watch | 99. farm |
| 25. believe | 50. train | 75. alone | 100. age |
SIXTH HUNDRED

1. became 26. nine 51. whose 76. law
2. already 27. baby 52. study 77. moment
3. themselves 28. minute 53. fear 78. person
4. important 29. ring 54. move 79. result
5. increase 30. wrote 55. stood 80. price
6. suppose 31. happen 56. himself 81. serve
7. husband 32. appear 57. strong 82. wife
8. continue 33. heart 58. knew 83. aunt
9. national 34. swim 59. often 84. lie
10. system 35. felt 60. toward 85. cause
11. possible 36. fourth 61. wonder 86. marry
12. thousand 37. I'll 62. twenty 87. supply
13. condition 38. kept 63. demand 88. pen
14. consider 39. wall 64. however 89. perhaps
15. president 40. herself 65. figure 90. produce
16. whether 41. idea 66. case 91. twelve
17. body 42. drop 67. enjoy 92. rode
18. chance 43. river 68. rather 93. uncle
19. act 44. smile 69. sound 94. labor
20. die 45. son 70. eleven 95. public
21. real 46. bat 71. music 96. thus
22. speak 47. fact 72. human 97. least
23. doctor 48. sort 73. court 98. power
24. step 49. king 74. force 99. mark
25. itself 50. dark 75. plant 100. voice
Appendix C

Parent Questionnaire

This appendix is the questionnaire parents were asked to complete at the second parent training session. The questionnaire was then used as a beginning point from which to discuss educational activities that parents can do with their children.

MAKE A CHECK NEXT TO EVERYTHING YOU DID WITH YOUR CHILD WITHIN THE LAST 12 MONTHS.

1. We went to the zoo.
2. We went to the museum.
3. We went to Great America.
4. We went to a children's movie.
5. We went to the beach.
6. We went to the forest.
7. We went to San Francisco.
8. We went to the airport.
9. We went to the library.
10. We went for a walk around the neighborhood.
11. We watched television together.
12. We talked about a book.
13. I read to my child.
14. We went to a fancy restaurant for dinner.
15. My child helped prepare a meal.
17. I helped my child with his homework.
18. My child had a tutor.
Appendix D

Books for Junior High School Students

This appendix is the book list, compiled by the researcher, of popular teen-age titles. This list was distributed to the parents at the second parent training session. The titles were briefly discussed and the researcher made specific suggestions to each parent in regards to which books their children were able to read and likely to enjoy.
General Guidelines

1. If your child finds an author he-she likes, encourage him to read more books by the same author.

2. If your child has a hard time getting into books, try books that are based on movies and T.V. programs.

3. Most of these books will be found in the children's section of the library. But they are books for everyone. Even adults enjoy them—in fact why not read them along with your children? Then you can talk about them with each other.

4. These books are only suggestions. Your child may like some of them and not others. There are many more books not on these lists. The rule of thumb to follow is: IF YOUR CHILD LIKES THE BOOK LET HIM/HER READ IT.

5. Some of these books are harder than others. Again, let your child be the judge. If your child thinks he can read the book, let him try.

6. Reading books should be a pleasurable experience. You can help make it fun for your child by doing the following:
   A) Don't disturb your child while he is reading.
   B) Provide a quiet, well-lit place for your child to read.
   C) Read a book yourself while your child reads. After all, if you do it, it must be important.
   D) If your child asks what a word is, or means, tell him simply.
   E) Talk about the book with your child.
# Books About Teenagers

1. The Boy Next Door  
   **Cavanna, Betty**

2. The Pigman  
   **Zindel, Paul**

3. They'll Never Make a Movie Starring Me  
   **Bach, Alice**

4. Then Again, Maybe I Won't  
   **Blume, Judy**

5. Deenie  
   **""**

6. Are You There God? It's Me, Margaret  
   **""**

   *Note: Judy Blume has written many books. They are all good reading.*

7. The Outsiders  
   **Hinton, S. C.**

8. Rumble Fish  
   **""**

9. That Was Then, This Is Now  
   **""**

10. Lisa, Bright and Dark  
    **Neufeld, John**

11. Edgar Alan  
    **""**

12. Where the Lilies Bloom  
    **Cleaver, Vera & Bill**

13. Cool Cat  
    **Bonham, Frank**

   *Note: Frank Bonham has written many books.*

14. The Cat Ate My Gymsuit  
    **Danziger, Paula**

15. Mom, The Wolfman, and Me  
    **Klein, Norma**

16. Dinky Hocker Shoots Smack  
    **Kerr, M. E.**

17. Blowfish Live in the Sea  
    **Fox, Paula**

18. It's Not the End of the World  
    **Blume, Judy**

19. The Fog Comes on Little Pig Feet  
    **Wells, Rosemary**

20. Jennifer  
    **Sherburne, Zoa**
Note: Zoa Sherburne has written many books. They are all good.

21. Ask Me If I Love You Now
   Laing, Frederick

22. Cloris and the Creeps
   Platt, Kin

23. Leap Before You Look
   Stolz, Mary

24. Two People
   Boyd, Alice

25. I Will Go Barefoot All Summer
    For You
   Lyle, Letcher

26. My Darling, My Hamburger
    Zindel, Paul
Fun Books About Young People

1. Beezus & Ramona  
   Cleary, Beverly
2. Henry & The Clubhouse  
3. Henry & Ribsy  
   " "

Note: Beverly Cleary has written many, many books. All make good reading.

4. Danny Dunn Series  
   Williams, Jay
5. Terrible, Horrible Edie  
   Spykman, E. C.
6. Queenie Peavy  
   Burch, Robert
7. The Secret Summer of L.E.B.  
   Wallace, Barbara
8. Confessions of an Only Child  
   Klein, Norma
9. The Four-Story Mistake  
   Enright, Elizabeth
10. Roosevelt Grady  
    Shotwell, Louisa
11. The Noonday Friends  
    Stolz, Mary
Mystery

1. Mystery & More Mystery
   Arthur, Robert
2. Judy Bolton Series
   Sutton, Margaret
3. Nancy Drew Series
   Keene, Carolyn
4. Alfred Hitchcock 3 Investigator Stories by:
   Arden, William
   Arden, William
   Carey, M. V.
   West, Nick
5. The Hardy Boys Stories
   Dixon, Franklin
6. The Warner Mysteries (many titles)
   Warner, Gertrude C.
7. Encyclopedia Brown
   Sobel, Donald
8. Fire House Mystery, Fox Hollow Mystery, etc.
   Adrian, Mary
9. Desmond Series
   Best, Herbert
10. (Several titles)
    Corbett, Scott
11. " "
    Jane, Mary C.
12. " "
    Seaman, Augusta H.
13. Cherry Ames Stories
    Wells, Helen
14. Ghost Town Mystery (and others)
    Jane, Mary C.
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<td>1</td>
<td>The Harlem Globetrotters</td>
<td>Vecsey, George</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>No-Hitter</td>
<td>Pepe, Phil</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>The Cycle Jumpers</td>
<td>Spiegel, Marshall</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>The World's Greatest Athlete</td>
<td>Gardner, Gerald</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Great Quarterbacks Series</td>
<td>Gutman, Bill</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>I Always Wanted to be Somebody</td>
<td>Gibson, Althea</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Big A: The Story of Lew Alcindor</td>
<td>Cohen, Joel</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Strange But True Football Stories</td>
<td>Hollander, Zander</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Stop-Action</td>
<td>Butkus, Dick</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Brian's Song</td>
<td>Blinn, William</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Call Me Charlie (and others)</td>
<td>Jackson, Jesse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Goal to Go (and others)</td>
<td>Neigoff, Mike</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Adventure

1. The Raft  Trumball, Robert
2. Johnny Texas  Hoff, Carol
3. Snow Bound  Mazer, Harry
4. Weak Foot  Cline, Linda
5. Marco Polo  Komroff, Manuel
6. Mrs. Mike  Freedman, Nancy
7. The Witch of Blackbird Pond  Speare, Elizabeth
8. Street Rod, Hot Rod (and others)  Felsen, Henry
9. The Black Tiger (and others)  O'Connor, Patrick
10. The Year of the Bloody Sevens  (and others)  Steele, William O.
Books About Animals

1. Incident at Hawk's Hill  Eckert, Allan
2. Brighty of the Grand Canyon  Henry, Marguerite
3. Benji  Camp, Joe
4. Blitz  Reatty, H. B.
5. Black Beauty  Sewell, Anna
6. The Call of the Wild  London, Jack
7. White Fang  "  "
8. Sounder  Armstrong, William
9. Where the Red Fern Grows  Rawls, Wilson
10. Black Stallion Stories  Farley, Walter
11. (dog stories)  Clark, Billy C.
12. Dog Stories and Horse Stories  Henry, Marguerite
13. "  "  Kjelgaard, Jim
14. Clarence Stories (dog)  Lauber, Patricia
15. (Horse title)  Bulla, Clyde R.
16. ("  "  )  Rounds, Glen
Science Fiction

1. House of Stairs
   Sleator, William

2. Day of the Drones
   Lightner, A. M.

3. ECO-Fiction
   Stadler, John (ed)

4. The Terminal Man (mature)
   Crichton, Michael

5. On the Beach (mature)
   Shute, Nevil

6. The Swarm
   Herzog, Arthur

7. Exiled from Earth
   Bova, Ben

8. Out There
   Stoutenberg, Adrien

9. Science Fiction
   Barjavel, Rene

10. The Larner Science Fiction Library
    Elwood, Roger

11. Tom Swift Stories
    Appleton, Victor

12. Matthew Looney Stories
    Beatty, Jerome

13. Mr. Boss-Mushroom Planet Stories
    Cameron, Eleanor

    Schealer, John

15. A Wrinkle in Time
    L'Engle, Madeline
**Fantasy**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Title</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mary Poppins</td>
<td>Travers, P. L.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The Borrowers</td>
<td>Norton, Mary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The Narnia Series</td>
<td>Lewis, C. S.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Oz Stories</td>
<td>Baum, L. Frank</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Magic Stories</td>
<td>Eager, Edgar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Freddy Stories</td>
<td>Brooks, Walter R.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The Court of the Stone Children (and others)</td>
<td>Cameron, Eleanor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Chitty-Chitty-Bang-Bang</td>
<td>Fleming, Ian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Charlie and the Chocolate Factory (and others)</td>
<td>Dahl, Roald</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Dr. Doolittle Stories</td>
<td>Lofting, Hugh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Books that Give You Something to Think About

1. Light in the Forest                 Richter, Conrad
2. The Planet of Junior Brown         Hamilton, Virginia
3. The Autobiography of Miss Jane Pittman Gaines, Ernest
4. A Day No Pigs Would Die            Peck, Robert
5. Karen                              Killilea, Marie
6. The Story of Helen Keller          Hickock, Loren
7. Of Mice and Men                    Steinbeck, John
8. Lisa & David                       Rubin, Theodore
9. The Pearl                          Steinbeck, John
10. Too Near the Sun                  Hall, Lynn
11. The Learning Tree                 Parks, Gordon
12. The Heart is a Lonely Hunter      McCullers, Carson
Magazines

Baseball Digest 5 separate magazines all Published by:
Basketball Digest Century Publishing Co.
Football Digest P.O. Box 5031
Hockey Digest Des Moines, Iowa 50340
Auto Racing Digest $8.95/yr. published
Appendix E

Comprehension Skills

This is a list of comprehension skills that was distributed to the parents at the beginning of the third parents' training session.
COMPREHENSION SKILLS

EXAMPLE PARAGRAPH:

Jane and Bob played with the dog in front of the house. They were
glad it had stopped raining and they were able to play outside. How-
ever, they wished that their father was able to play with them.
There are three levels of comprehension.

DETAILS:

These kinds of questions can be answered just by reading the
material. The answers are stated in the text. This is the simplest
level of comprehension.
Examples: Who was playing?
   Where were they playing?
   What were they playing with?

SECOND LEVEL: (literal)

This level of comprehension involves some thinking. That is, the
reader must take the given information and draw some conclusions.
Examples: What was the weather like?
   Does the dog like children?
   Did they miss their father?

THIRD LEVEL: (inference)

This level of comprehension involves more thinking. That is, the
reader must make some inferences and some choices. The answers may
not necessarily be given in the text.
Examples: Where was father?
   Are Jane and Bob friends, siblings, other?
   How old are Jane and Bob?
SEQUENCE:

This means putting things in the order that they happened. These questions are usually phrased in the following manner.

Example: Here are 3 things that happened in the story. Put a 1 by the thing that happened first. Put a 2 by the thing that happened next, etc.

This is an important skill especially when reading factual material in the sciences and history.

MAIN IDEA:

This is sometimes called the topic or topic sentence. Basically what you're looking for is the bare bones—no details. In the paragraph above the main idea is that Jane and Bob are playing. The rest of the information is just details. Usually the main idea of a paragraph is found in the first sentence. The next most popular place is the last sentence.

CAUSE AND EFFECT:

This skill teaches what comes as a result of an action. In the example paragraph the rain is the cause and the children not being able to play outside is the effect.

DRAWING CONCLUSIONS:

This means that you are given certain information and that you must combine this information, think about it, and then come to a conclusion. Most of the time this can be done by asking, "What do you think will happen next?"

FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS:

This is an important skill to survive in day to day living.
SPECIALIZED SKILLS:

In this category you have the skills needed to read maps and graphs. Also included are the ability to use a dictionary, an encyclopedia, an index, a table of contents, and a thesaurus.

USING CONTEXT CLUES:

This means using the context to figure out an unknown word or a special meaning of the word.

Example: The child was idle. He just sat around and did nothing.

A good reader can figure out the meaning of idle from the next sentence.