

Bethel University

Spark

All Electronic Theses and Dissertations

2022

Increasing Multilingual Parent Engagement: A Literature Review

Erin Elizabeth Boettcher

Bethel University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://spark.bethel.edu/etd>

Recommended Citation

Boettcher, E. E. (2022). *Increasing Multilingual Parent Engagement: A Literature Review* [Master's thesis, Bethel University]. Spark Repository. <https://spark.bethel.edu/etd/889>

This Master's thesis is brought to you for free and open access by Spark. It has been accepted for inclusion in All Electronic Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Spark. For more information, please contact kent-gerber@bethel.edu.

INCREASING MULTILINGUAL PARENT ENGAGEMENT:

A LITERATURE REVIEW

A MASTER'S THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY

OF BETHEL UNIVERSITY

BY

ERIN BOETTCHER

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS

FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF ARTS

NOVEMBER 2022

BETHEL UNIVERSITY

INCREASING MULTILINGUAL PARENT ENGAGEMENT:

A LITERATURE REVIEW

ERIN E. BOETTCHER

NOVEMBER 2022

APPROVED

Advisor's Name: John Bergeland, Ph.D.

Program Director's Name: Molly Wickam, Ph.D.

Acknowledgments

I will forever be grateful to the many people, named and unnamed, who have supported me on my journey to finishing this thesis. To my mom, Deb, and friend, Frederike, I am sincerely grateful to each of you for being the perfect level of “on my case” about starting and finishing this work. To my thesis buddy, Beth, thank you for celebrating the victories and commiserating when it got tough. To my thesis advisor, Dr. John Bergeland, and my friend, Gina, thank you for believing in me and giving me pep talks along the way. And to the ones it impacted the most, my husband John and our two girls, Chloe and Olivia, my deepest gratitude to all three of you for encouraging me, believing in me, and giving me the space and time I needed to write. I love you immensely!

Abstract

This literature review investigated the question: How can educators increase parental involvement for multilingual learners? The thesis identified barriers to involvement for parents of multilingual learners. It also discussed the importance of strengthening family-school relationships. The review explored how parent engagement affects students' learning and how schools affect the level of parent engagement. Additionally, parent engagement frameworks and individual parent engagement strategies were reviewed. Overall, the data in this thesis shows the importance of using strategies to increase multilingual parent engagement because welcoming school environments and positive relationships with multilingual families support their students' learning.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgments	3
Abstract	4
Table of Contents	5
Chapter I: Introduction	6
Definition of Terms	10
Research Question	10
Chapter II: Literature Review	12
Parent Engagement and Student Learning	13
How Schools Affect Parent Engagement	19
Frameworks for Parental Engagement	25
Methods of Parent Engagement	30
Chapter III: Discussion and Conclusion	60
Parent Engagement and Student Learning	60
How Schools Affect Parent Engagement	61
Frameworks for Parental Engagement	62
Methods of Parent Engagement	62
Professional Application	63
Limitations of the Research	64
Implications for Future Research	65
Conclusion	65
References	67

Chapter I: Introduction

Before a child ever steps foot into a school and meets their school teacher, they have already learned many things with the help of their first teachers – their parents. The importance of parents in the educational life of students is well established. Parents help students get to school, have the correct materials, and complete homework. They teach the skills their children will need outside the school walls. They celebrate their children’s success and work through learning moments. No matter where people are in the world or what language they speak in their homes, parents help with the education of their children. However, not all parents have the same access to resources in order to join the team of professionals who supports their child at school. This is often evidenced in families of multilingual learners. They may not know the social and cultural norms of getting involved with the school, or they might not even receive school messages in a language they understand. Whatever the case, it is important for educators to find ways to include every family.

In this review of the literature, my intent is to find approaches that administrators and educators can use to be ready to engage with multilingual parents in the school. Chapter I provides an introduction, defines key terms, and poses the guiding question. Chapter II reviews recently published literature based on parent engagement. The selected articles explore why parental involvement is important and discuss barriers to involvement for parents of English learners. They also provide ideas for strengthening family/school relationships. Chapter III highlights findings from the research that answer the guiding research question, along with ideas for future application.

As a parent, I am acutely aware of how often parents are expected to be involved in their children’s schooling. For example, I review homework, sign planners, and check for notes sent home on a nightly basis. I also check emails, calendars, and websites for information about events, enrichment opportunities, and activity registrations. I know that at various points in the school year, parent-teacher conferences will be held and I will need to register for an appointment. However, I was never explicitly

taught these practices and expectations or how to meet them. Rather, they are what I know from growing up attending public education in the United States, observing what my parents did, and now being a teacher.

That is not the case for many Multilingual Learners' families. As a teacher of English Learners, I think of the families of my students when I receive and respond to emails from the school, sign my children up for activities, or make an appointment for conferences. I often wonder if they received and understood the same information I did. Although some of my students' parents have the background and resources to involve themselves in traditional ways which fit with mainstream culture, some parents do not or are nervous about trying and making mistakes. A few years ago, I had a parent apologize for not being able to read his child's homework to be able to help, and then he expressed his regret for not speaking English fluently. He had the impression that he was not fit to help with his children's formal education, and he was unsure of how to engage and be helpful. Coady (2019) and Mapp and Kuttner (2013) indicated a need for better preparation in teacher programs for engagement with diverse families. Educators should be prepared to respond to such situations and create bonds with parents to assure them that they can always be helpful to their children and to demonstrate how they can assist their children with academics.

Beyond being prepared to work in schools with linguistically diverse families, there also needs to be a variety of approaches for non-traditional parental engagement that fit the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse families (Coady, 2019). Housel (2020) notes that one such approach is having childcare available at events, which would eliminate a barrier to engagement by helping families who have younger children to participate. Additionally, he states that all linguistic barriers should be taken down. A linguistic barrier I have witnessed in my school district is the use of nearly 100% of communication being written in English and shared electronically, excluding parents who are not literate in English or do not have an email for receiving the information. Though the district's English Learner

population is only approximately 2 percent of the total student population, there are still over 100 students and their families who are not getting equal access to communication. Using a combination of voice messages and emails in a variety of languages could help to bridge that gap.

ML parents have high aspirations for their children's futures and want to do what they can to help and be involved (Davis & Maximillian, 2017; Vera et al., 2012). As well, once barriers to engagement are removed and expectations are made clear, ML parents are more likely to be involved in their children's education (Protacio et al., 2021). I have witnessed this in my time teaching. When parents did not know about upcoming activities or did not realize there would be interpreters available at events, they did not participate. However, after being informed about events in their home languages and/or being told interpreters were available, free of charge, they were involved. One example was as simple as translating a note saying the students were having a special day when they could wear pajamas and bring a stuffed animal and their favorite book. Some of my students had never participated in this day because their parents did not understand why they were trying to leave the house in pajamas. However, with a simple translation, the parents understood, and the kids were able to participate in that fun day.

Another example was parent-teacher conferences. In the days leading up to conferences, I had asked students if their parents were coming and if they had successfully signed up for a conference time. Most of the students said no. I asked more questions to try to understand what needed to change to help parents come to conferences. I found out that some parents did not know what conferences were or how to go online to sign up for a meeting time. Others were unaware that interpreters would be available and figured it would be a waste of time to go and not understand or be understood. This combination of factors caused the ML parents' attendance at conferences to be low. After being provided with translated information about conferences, having a phone number to call or message if they were unable to sign-up for a conference online, and being assured that an interpreter would be available, we started seeing many more ML parents at conferences.

In the state of Minnesota, 76,361 K-12 students were identified as English Learners in the 2020-2021 academic year. That was 8.5% of all K-12 students, and the number of ELs had increased by 2.3% from the previous year (Minnesota Department of Education, 2021). Nationally, there were 5.1 million students who qualified as English Learners in the fall of 2019 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2022). This means there are a significant number of EL students with great potential for the future. It also means schools need to work to make sure their families feel comfortable in the schools. Alexander et al. (2017) found a negative correlation between student GPAs and the level of comfort parents felt in their children's schools. On the other hand, Vera et al. (2012) and Rivera and Li (2019) both emphasized that families who feel more comfortable in the schools engage more with their children's education. This extends from talking about their school work and what they have learned to attending events and activities.

Once families are comfortable with their children's schools and teachers, there are many opportunities for collaboration to help students' in their academic journeys. Teachers can connect with the families to ask what educational practices they are already using at home. For example, the family might read a favorite book or tell a culturally traditional tale. Maybe their student helps run a family business and is great at counting money. Once the educators know more information from home, they can include and build upon those practices, creating an inclusive environment within their classroom (Morita-Mullaney et al., 2019).

Multilingual families should also be encouraged to take leadership roles such as running for school board or being involved in groups like the Parent Teacher Organization (Vera et al., 2016). Shufflebarger and Snell also suggested asking multilingual parents to help create and plan events and activities (2018). Many of the articles reviewed highlighted a variety of ideas such as family literacy projects, cultural sharing opportunities, and culturally sustaining show and tell time (Louie & Davis-Welton, 2016; Protacio et al., 2020; Protacio & Edwards, 2015). A number of the parents of my

students are friends and acquaintances. If some of them were asked to help plan events, it is probable that they would be attuned to the needs and wants of other multilingual families due to their personal connections. That knowledge would help to plan better engagement opportunities that families were able to and wanted to attend. Having multilingual families in planning and leadership roles would also provide opportunities and ideas for improving the advertising of events. Families have so many resources to help their children succeed when they are given the opportunity to be engaged with the schools.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this thesis, the following key terms were used. Their definitions are provided here.

Multilingual Learner (ML)

Multilingual Learners (MLs) are students who have or are developing proficiency in more than one language (Catalano et al., 2020). Although some state and local education agencies use ML in replacement of or interchangeably with EL, for the purpose of this review, ML refers to all students who speak more than one language.

English Learner (EL)

English Learners (ELs) refers to a subgroup of ML students. ELs are students who have consistent and meaningful exposure to a language other than English. They have not yet reached proficiency in English as measured by a valid English proficiency assessment (Minnesota Department of Education, 2021).

Statement of Research Question

The guiding research question of this thesis is as follows: How can educators increase parental involvement for multilingual learners? I will explore why parental involvement is important and discuss barriers to involvement for parents of English learners. I will also research how family/school relationships can be strengthened.

Chapter II: Literature Review

The literature included in this review examined the importance of parent engagement in the multilingual community, barriers that prevent parent engagement, and the means by which schools can help parents overcome said barriers. The articles were found using search databases in Bethel University's library catalog: ProQuest Education Database, ERIC, Sage Premier, Wiley Online Library, EBSCOhost Academic Search Premier, Jstor Journals Open Access, SEDL Archive, Taylor and Francis Journals Complete, and Google Scholar. The keywords and phrases used in the search included the following: English learners, Multilingual learners, ESL, K-12, parent engagement, parent involvement, English learner families, and increasing parent engagement. The search was narrowed to allow only peer-reviewed articles that were published in 2011 or thereafter.

After selecting and reviewing the articles, I wrote brief summaries of each article to look for the commonalities between them and how they answered the guiding questions. I organized the summaries into categories based on these commonalities. Four articles answered why parent engagement is important by discussing ways in which parents were engaged or disengaged with their children's learning and the effects of parent engagement on learning. Three articles focused on what schools were doing or neglecting that had a direct impact on Multilingual Learners (ML) parents' level of engagement. These articles identified strengths and areas of growth for schools and some of the barriers that ML families face. Another three articles provided frameworks for schools to use to build a parent engagement model that is inclusive of ML parents. The remaining 20 articles explored a variety of traditional and non-traditional methods that were used explicitly for increasing engagement. As such, Chapter II is divided into the following four main sections: parent engagement and student learning, how schools affect parent engagement, frameworks for parental engagement, and methods of parent engagement.

Parent Engagement and Student Learning

Morita-Mullaney et al. (2019) conducted a collective case study from two rural communities in Indiana that examined how emergent bilingual parents recognized and used different forms of literacy (multiliteracies) in their daily lives. The researchers collected data from a 32-item questionnaire that was completed by 316 families in one town and 302 families in another. Morita-Mullaney et al. (2019) also oversaw semi-structured interviews of 10 families from each town. The families were given a choice of being interviewed at home, in their local community center, or at their local school so that the setting was familiar to each family. After analyzing the data, Morita-Mullaney et al. (2019) presented material that showed how literacy is more than just reading and writing, and how students and their families use a variety of forms of literacy to learn. They then argued that educators need to reflect on how they can use the idea of multiliteracies to be more responsive to multilingual learners and their families.

The four modes of literacy Morita-Mullaney et al. (2019) examined were “1) print literacies; 2) media literacies; 3) school literacies; and 4) created literacies” (p. 38). Print literacies were materials like books, newspapers, and magazines. Media literacies were any type of messages that were delivered through technology, including information from television, radio, cellphones, and social media. School literacies included all of the materials that came from the school. Examples included homework, teacher newsletters, and permission slips. Created literacies were literacies the families use for their personal lives. The two concrete examples Morita-Mullaney et al. (2019) gave were literacy used for religious practices and literacy used for cooking.

Through the interviews and questionnaires, Morita-Mullaney et al. (2019) observed how families worked together to make meaning of the different forms of literacy and then used it to learn. This practice allowed students to connect to their heritage languages and supported the development of their English proficiency. Students already understood many concepts through visuals, music, dance, and technology. Morita-Mullaney et al. (2019) stressed the importance of recognizing the literacy students

and their families used and suggested that educators use different forms of literacy in the classroom to scaffold learning for their students and connect with families. They argued that when educators harnessed all those formats to help students learn, the students learned more. Also, when educators recognized the multiliteracies students used at home, it helped to validate what families can do instead of focusing on language and education gaps.

Vera et al. (2012) investigated the relationships between school involvement, barriers to school involvement, parents' aspirations for their children, and demographic factors of the parents of English Learners. The research team created a 31-item survey with a 5-point Likert scale for responses. The questions regarded four categories: 1) educational aspirations; 2) school climate concerning parent engagement; 3) six barriers to participation; and 4) six types of parental involvement. Each survey was sent in the families' home languages and English, and they were mailed with self-addressed and stamped envelopes to be returned to the research team. The participants were 239 parents of English Learner students from elementary schools in four different districts in a metropolitan area of the Midwestern United States. The participants had lived in the United States from 1-28 years with an average of 12.6 years. They represented 28 different cultural backgrounds.

Five questions guided the research of Vera et al. (2012). The first question asked which types of school involvement were the most and least commonly used. The two most common types of involvement reported were parents talking to their students about school and monitoring children's homework. The least commonly reported type of involvement was using community resources such as museums and libraries. The next question regarded barriers to parental participation. Participants were asked about six potential barriers. Of the six, a language barrier was the most commonly reported. Parents also said they did not want to interfere with the teachers' work, they felt overwhelmed by other responsibilities, and they were unfamiliar with the educational system in the United States.

Vera et al.'s (2012) third research question was, "Are there significant relationships between educational aspirations, reported barriers, and specific types of involvement, as reported by parents of EL children?" (Vera et al., 2012, p. 187). The survey results did not show a relationship between aspirations and forms of parental involvement. However, the results did show that when families felt welcome in the schools, they had more communication with the school ($r = .267, p < .01$), fewer negative experiences ($r = -.196, p < .05$), more communication with their children about school ($r = .209, p < .01$), and used community resources less ($r = -.169, p < .05$). The data also showed a correlation between language barriers and types of parent involvement. When parents felt uncomfortable with their English proficiency, they were less likely to use community resources ($r = -.216, p < .01$), read to their children ($r = -.191, p < .01$), have set homework routines ($r = -.17, p < .01$), and have conversations about school with their children ($r = -.22, p < .01$). The other relationship shown in the data was parents who did not understand the educational system in the U.S. were less likely to read with their children ($r = -.193, p < .01$).

The fourth research question asked about the relationship between demographic variables and parents' aspirations for their children, barriers to parental involvement, and how parents were involved with their children's education. When interpreting the results, Vera et al. (2012) conducted an analysis of variance. They also used dummy coding to group ethnicity (Latino or non-Latino) and work status (full-time or less than full-time). The data did not show demographic differences in respect to parental aspirations for their children. There were differences noted in parents' perceptions of the school climate based on both levels of education and ethnicity. Parents with lower levels of education had more positive perceptions of the schools' climates than parents with higher levels of education ($F(6, 201) = 5.60, p < .01$), and Latino parents had more positive perceptions of the schools' climates than non-Latino parents ($F(1, 200) = 55.41, p < .01$). When looking at the relationship between demographics and barriers to involvement, Vera et al. (2012) found that parents with higher education levels had fewer

language barriers ($F(1, 226) = 11.8, p < .01$) and a better understanding of the educational system in the United States ($F(1, 201) = 7.07, p < .01$). They also noted ethnic differences. Latino parents reported more language barriers ($F(1,222) = 33.8, p < .01$) and less knowledge of the education system ($F(1, 201) = 21.78, p < .01$). Non-Latino parents reported higher levels of stress from their responsibilities ($F(1, 215) = 5.17, p < .01$). Regarding types of educational involvement and demographics, Vera et al. (2012) found the only gender difference was mothers read to their children more than fathers ($F(1, 231) = 4.6, p < .01$). Parents with higher levels of formal education talked more about school ($F(6, 216) = 2.08, p < .05$), used community resources more often ($F(6, 216) = 7.38, p < .001$), and read to their children more ($F(6, 221) = 3.23, p < .05$). Non-Latino parents used community resources more often ($F(1,222) = 14.3, p < .01$) and had more set routines at home ($F(1, 227) = 11.88, p < .01$). Parents with full-time jobs talked to their children about school more than parents who worked less than full-time ($F(1, 205) = 4.18, p < .01$).

Vera et al.'s (2012) final research question was, "What are the most significant predictors of specific types of parental involvement in schools as reported by parents of EL children?" (Vera et al., 2012, p. 187). A series of multiple-regression analyses were used to look at the data for each of the six types of parental involvement. The researchers found parents' education levels to be a significant predictor of reading with their children. The two predictors found for using routines to support children's education were aspirations and ethnicity (non-Latino group). Logistics and ethnicity (non-Latino group) were the two significant predictors for monitoring children's homework. School climate, aspirations, and negative school experiences were significant predictors of parents talking to their children about school. Significant predictors for using community resources were not wanting to interfere with teachers, school climate, and parents' education levels. School climate and language barriers were significant predictors of parental communication with the school.

Rivera and Li (2019) examined the relationship between educational culture and parental involvement in the Hispanic community, teacher professional development and empowerment, and the

academic performance of Hispanic students identified as English Learners. They conducted their study in a city in the southwest of the United States. The participants included 339 Hispanic students, 339 parents of the students, and 40 teachers. The students were in third through seventh grade, and all participated in a bilingual dual language program. The participants were from seven schools in one school district.

To collect data, Rivera and Li (2019) created separate surveys for students, parents, and teachers. The three different surveys each consisted of 74 closed-items. The survey items were triangulated to gather information in four main areas, "(a) basic background information, (b) systematic information on classroom/home teaching/learning environments, (c) systematic information on resources in the home learning environment, and (d) beliefs and attitudes toward bilingual education across the three data samples" (Rivera & Li, 2019, pp. 219-220). The student and parent surveys were bilingual (i.e., English and Spanish), and the teacher surveys were in English. Student surveys were administered during class by a bilingual member of the research team, parent surveys were sent by mail, and teacher surveys were left with the teachers at the schools.

After analyzing the data using structural equation modeling, Rivera and Li (2019) found parents' perceptions of their child's school and teacher were strongly positively correlated (.75) with the parents' level of involvement in their child's education. The data further showed that parental involvement was moderately positively correlated (.53) with their student's attitudes toward learning. Rivera and Li (2019) noted that this data emphasized the importance of parents having a positive perception of their child's school. In regard to teachers' level of empowerment affecting student learning, the data showed a strong positive correlation between teacher knowledge and teacher empowerment (.78). However, there was a moderately negative correlation between teacher empowerment and students' attitudes toward learning (-.43). This data shows that teacher empowerment alone is not enough to positively affect

student achievement. Overall, the data showed that teacher empowerment and parental involvement had a statistically significant impact ($R^2=.47$, $p<.05$) on students' learning attitudes.

Alexander et al. (2017) further expanded the research on the relationship between parental involvement and student achievement by asking why some students whose parents are less involved with their schooling still achieve high academic marks. They chose to focus on the Latinx population due to its growth and research that stated Latinx parents are less involved at school than parents of other ethnic minority groups within the United States. Alexander et al. (2017) also used research that was based on the Theory of Rationality to question whether students who had high grade point averages (GPAs) despite low parental involvement were students who believed their parents' reasons for being less involved with schools were rational.

To gather empirical evidence, Alexander et al. (2017) sent surveys to the teachers of all secondary English Learner (EL) classrooms in North Carolina. The surveys were also available at a North Carolina Society of Hispanic Professionals youth conference. A total of 343, 13 to 19-year-old Latinx students completed the surveys. Data gathered included grade point average (GPA), demographic information, information about parents' and students' expectations, length of time the family had lived in the United States, and which parents were involved in the respective student's life. Students also expressed their perceptions about why their parents were not involved. They were asked to use a Likert scale (1 = low; 4 = high) to rate whether parents thought school was unimportant, had issues finding childcare, did not feel welcome at the school, could not secure transportation, had language barriers, and had conflicting work schedules. The most common reason for parents being unable to participate at school was work schedule conflicts. Interestingly, 64.9% of students agreed that work schedule conflicts were a barrier for their parents. The least common response (11.4%) was that parents thought school was unimportant.

Alexander et al. (2017) used a two-step hierarchical multiple regression process to analyze whether students' GPAs were affected by their perceptions of parents' reasons for low involvement. They found that when students believed the conflict was due to work schedules, there was a positive association with GPA. However, when students perceived the barrier to parental involvement was either due to 1) parents feeling uncomfortable at the school, 2) thinking school was unimportant, or 3) not having transportation, there was a negative impact on students' GPAs. In this research, Alexander et al. (2017) did not find an association between parents' language barriers or lack of childcare and students' GPAs.

How Schools Affect Parent Engagement

The relationship between schools' staff and parents is an important foundation for schools having an engaged parent population. The following articles were based on research examining various schools and how their programs and policies affected EL parent engagement. This includes information about principals' roles in promoting parent engagement, encouraging parents to take leadership roles, and building school and home relationships.

Shufflebarger Snell (2018) conducted a small qualitative study that examined the relationships between an elementary public charter school in southern Arizona and immigrant and refugee parents whose children attended the school, and then provided suggestions for helping schools to work collaboratively with immigrant and refugee parents. When the study was conducted, 85.1% of students qualified for free or reduced lunch. There was also a high percentage of students who spoke a language other than English at home. Of those languages, Spanish was the most commonly spoken home language. There were also multiple refugee families, mostly from Africa and the Middle East, who spoke a number of languages other than English.

Shufflebarger Snell's (2018) purpose for this study was to perform it in collaboration with parents from the school in order

(a) to understand parents' needs and perspectives as shared in native language interviews, (b) to use the information parents shared in order to develop approaches to better meet the needs of parents that speak a language other than English at home, and (c) to develop democratic home-school engagement in the school community. (p. 118)

The study was open to parents who spoke a home language other than English. Sixteen parents participated in the interviews and focus groups; these parents were from Russia, Sudan, Iraq, Democratic Republic of Congo, and Mexico. They were able to choose to participate in either a small group interview or an individual interview. The interviews consisted of semi-structured questions created to help understand the strengths of the participants. They were administered in a small, private room at the school. When the interviews were in English or Spanish, Shufflebarger Snell (2018) conducted them herself. When they were in another language, the interviews were conducted through an interpreter. Shufflebarger Snell (2018) ended with a total of 11 family interviews, one formal interview with a teacher, and notes from different conversations with teachers.

Once the interviews were completed, Shufflebarger Snell (2018) identified themes that emerged from the answers and organized the information accordingly. The themes included home and strengths, school engagement, concerns, school and community relationships, parent perspectives on school-family engagement, and teacher perspectives on family-school engagement. Overall, parents thought they were involved in their children's education and collaborated with the teachers, although teachers did not always agree. This difference in opinions typically stemmed from a situation in which parents valued teaching skills that teachers did not teach at the school such as their home languages, respect for others, and appreciation of family. The parents did not focus on academic subjects, and they saw this as a way of showing respect for the teachers' profession by not interfering. Many parents attended and enjoyed the school activities when their students showed skills they had learned, but not as many parents attended typical parent-teacher conferences or took part in the Parent Teacher Organization. Parents expressed

concerns about language barriers, fearing they might miss important information about school or emergency situations. There were also concerns about bullying, finding employment, and labeling food clearly for students who had dietary needs for health or religious observations. Both parents and teachers spoke highly of the relationship that the school had with members of the community. The parents felt that their students were well cared for and loved, and they were grateful for the school. Many parents expressed that they were always available to help in any way possible but did not always know how to help.

Shufflebarger Snell (2018) gave many suggestions in response to the interviews. To help increase families' engagement with school events, she suggested planning events in collaboration with parents and hosting more events where students showcased their talents. Shufflebarger Snell (2018) also suggested that the school immediately remedy concerns that had easy solutions and address parents' other concerns so the parents knew they had been heard. For example, in response to concerns about language barriers, the author suggested the school send communication in the families' home languages and specifically ask for the help they wanted parents to give their students. Another suggestion was to use drop-off and pick-up times to talk with parents who were at the school to deepen their relationships. Shufflebarger Snell (2018) saw that both parents and teachers wanted the best for the students and encouraged both groups to be vulnerable together in order to grow.

Vera et al. (2016) collected information to examine which factors encourage or discourage parents of multilingual learners to take leadership roles within their students' schooling (e.g., involvement in Parent Teacher Associations, participation on school boards, membership in other school decision-making groups). For this study, a survey was sent to 609 parents of elementary EL students who attended schools in an urban, Midwestern district. The surveys were in each family's primary language and in English, and they were sent in the mail with a self-addressed, pre-paid envelope. The survey included questions regarding parents' interest in leadership involvement within the school, previous

encouragement by school staff to become involved with the school, negative experiences, educational expectations for their students, teachers' investment in the students, and logistical barriers preventing involvement. Responses were received from 129 of the 609 parents (21%). The parents represented a wide variety of ethnicities. In all, 79% of the respondents were female and 21% male. Respondents used a Likert scale (1 = low; 5 = high) to indicate their agreement with each question.

To analyze the data about leadership interest, Vera et al. (2016) determined a hierarchical regression equation with predictor variables that included (1) actions that promoted parental involvement; (2) individual barriers; and (3) school barriers. The data showed there were three predictors of leadership interest that were most significant. One predictor, parents being encouraged by teachers to be involved, had a positive correlation ($\beta = .184$, $p < .10$). Two predictors, parents having lower levels of formal education ($\beta = -.179$, $p < .10$) and parents having high expectations for their children's education ($\beta = -.161$, $p < .10$) had negative correlations.

It was noted that the findings concerning parents who were encouraged by teachers and school staff to be involved resulted in higher levels of involvement in leadership roles, and parents with lower levels of formal education were less involved in leadership roles; both were consistent with previous research findings. However, the data that showed parents with higher expectations for their children had less involvement in leadership roles was inconsistent with previous research. Vera et al. (2016) speculated that this surprising finding could have been due to concerned parents who wanted to become involved and advocate for their students.

Epstein and Sheldon (2016) carried out research to understand the degree that district and principal support of school programs for parent engagement affected the development of the programs, family engagement levels, and student attendance. All of the schools that participated in the study were members of the National Network of Partnership Schools (NNPS), a program at Johns Hopkins University created to help schools implement strategies to increase community and family engagement in a manner

that leads to higher student success. The researchers drew on three theories: socio-cultural learning theory, organizational learning theory, and the theory of overlapping spheres of influence, to guide their research questions. The questions that resulted asked: 1) how school factors affect both basic and advanced parent outreach programs; 2) how district factors affect basic and advanced programs; 3) how basic and advanced programs affect the percentage of parents that partner with the schools in their students' education; and 4) how basic programs, advanced programs, and the number of parents partnering with the schools affect students' attendance.

Epstein and Sheldon (2016) collected data through surveys of 347 schools from 21 districts in rural (20.3%), suburban (26.6%), small urban (32.2%), and large urban (20.9%) areas across the United States. Of the 347 schools, 67.7% were elementary level, 18.4% were middle schools, and 13.9% were high schools. The size of the schools ranged from under 50 students to more than 3,000 students, with an average of 628 students per school. The majority of the schools (69.9%) were Title I schools, and an average of 67.8% of the students per school received free or reduced lunch. Regarding race and ethnicity, 41.1% of students were white, 39.9% African American, 14.9% Hispanic/Latino, 2.6% Asian American, and 1.5% from other backgrounds. There was an average of 5.1 languages other than English spoken in the schools with a range of only English to English plus 38 other languages. The variety of school locations, sizes, and demographics of the sample schools reflected the diversity of the schools across the United States.

There were four dependent variables measured. Twelve survey items ($\alpha = 0.92$) measured the organization of schools' basic components of their parent partnership programs, such as if they wrote an action plan and if they implemented the plan. The scoring scale was from 1 to 4 ("did not do" to "did very well"). The average score was a 3.22 with a standard deviation of 0.59. A nine-item scale ($\alpha = 0.85$) was used to measure the quality of implementation of advanced outreach strategies that included communication with families who speak languages other than English and recruitment of volunteers.

Each question was scored from 1 (not yet working on this) to 4 (challenge solved). The average score was 2.76 with a standard deviation of 0.56. Epstein and Sheldon (2016) measured the percentage of involved parents with five survey items ($\alpha = 0.82$) that included information about parent-teacher conference attendance and monitoring of students' homework. Each item was scored in six increments from 0% to 100% and the data was averaged. Students' attendance rates ranged from 31% to 100%.

The surveys measured three independent variables - two school variables (level 1) and one district variable (level 2). A ten-item scale ($\alpha = 0.92$) measured principal support of the parent partnership teams. The scoring scale was 1 (never) to 4 (always). The average score was 3.5 with a standard deviation of 0.54. A seven-item scale ($\alpha = 0.90$) was used to measure the partnership teams' reports on the helpfulness of their district leaders in developing and implementing their action plans. The scoring scale was 1 (no district support provided) to 4 (very helpful). The average score was 3.12 with a standard deviation of 0.75. District facilitation was measured with a seven-item scale ($\alpha = 0.89$) and looked at the district leaders' reports of their aid and support of the parent partnership programs. The average score was 3.05 with a standard deviation of 0.80.

The survey data was then analyzed using two-level hierarchical linear models. Regarding how school and district factors affect both basic and advanced parent outreach programs, Epstein and Sheldon (2016) found that individual school principals' support affected the quality of both basic implementation ($B = 0.466, p \leq 0.000$) of the programs and advanced strategies to reach all families ($B = 0.361, p \leq 0.000$). The data also indicated that the level of support from the district leaders affected basic program implementation ($B = 0.550, p \leq 0.000$). To answer the third and fourth research questions, Epstein and Sheldon (2016) examined the data using ordinary least squares regression analyses to discover if the levels of district and school support affected the level of parent engagement and students' attendance. They found that the quality of basic program implementation in a school was significantly and positively linked to advanced engagement of all parents ($\beta = 0.471, p \leq 0.000$), and schools that

implemented more advanced program strategies had higher levels of parent engagement ($\beta = 0.286$, $p \leq 0.000$). The data also indicated that higher levels of parent engagement was associated with higher average attendance rates ($\beta = 0.172$, $p \leq 0.023$).

Frameworks for Parental Engagement

Coady (2019) reviewed studies discussing family engagement with multilingual families and the schools their students attend. Coady specifically wanted to assess multilingual families living in rural areas and dissect the literature to demonstrate how families interact with schools differently depending on their locations and the resources available in their communities. The reviews were a mixture of studies based in the United States and abroad. Coady then created a new framework for family engagement, all the while keeping rural families and educators as the focus.

Coady (2019) noted that schools must take into account the cultures, migration patterns, and languages of families in their schools. Each of these factors affect how and how much families engage with their student's formal education. Worthy of note, one piece of families' cultural backgrounds for schools to think about is the cultural norms surrounding formal education. In some cultures, families who are involved with schools and homework are valued. In other cultures, teachers are considered the master experts, and teaching academic content at home is considered interfering. The author contended that because of these differences between families and cultures, there could not be a static, singular format to make schools culturally relevant for all.

Even though educators need to have a nuanced approach to engaging multilingual and multicultural families, Coady (2019) identified different pieces of educational research that can be used to increase family engagement across schools, cultures, and families. Henderson and Mapp (2002) found that how welcomed families felt had a big influence on the level families engaged with the school and their children's formal education (as cited in Coady, 2019, p. 6). In WIDA A, B, Cs: Six Essential Areas (2017), the importance of brokers' ability to bridge the cultural and linguistic barriers between families

and schools and to build trusting relationships between the two were explored (as cited in Coady, 2019, pp. 6-7). They noted that these brokers and interpreters need to be someone other than the multilingual children of the families.

After reviewing research based on parent engagement, Coady (2019) created a framework to specifically address rural schools and their multilingual families. The physical representation of this framework is a circle with “reflection” on one side and “action” on the other to show that educators need to constantly reflect on their work and then change their practice and take actions in response to their reflection. The framework is broken into five assets-based pieces that are each intentionally broad to allow for the differences in a variety of situations. Coady (2019) suggested that first educators should build relationships with families by listening to them and learning about their backgrounds. Then, educators need to reflect on the family's strengths and what they add to their children's education. After that, educators should continue to strengthen relationships with families and remain mindful of the families' culture and preferred language. The next piece is to use the information gathered in the academic space to support students. The final part of Coady's (2019) framework focus is for educators to become advocates for multilingual families, both in and out of the classroom.

Mapp and Kuttner (2013) presented The Dual Capacity-Building Framework for Family-School Partnerships. The framework was based on research and best practices regarding effective family engagement strategies, home-school partnerships, leadership development, and adult learning and motivation. The authors recognized that there were differences and unique challenges in each school and community; thus the framework was created to be a general guide.

The first component of the framework named stakeholders' capacity challenges that needed to be addressed. The authors acknowledged that districts, schools, and parents wanted positive relationships, however, there were challenges in building those relationships and creating true partnerships. Mapp and Kuttner (2013) identified a lack of effective, accessible opportunities for parents

and schools to develop relationships, and noted the need for professional development for both pre- and in-service educators. They also suggested more training and workshops for families to learn about the educational system and effective strategies for helping students at home.

The second framework component named the conditions needed for successful partnerships between families and schools. Mapp and Kuttner (2013) divided the conditions into two groups, process conditions and organizational conditions. For the process conditions, they said the effective procedures, actions, and operations of any partnership initiative were collective and collaborative; interactive and gave time to practice new skills; linked to learning about goals for the students; focused on building trusting, respectful relationships; and developed the social, human, and intellectual capital of parents and school staff. Mapp and Kuttner (2013) stated successful, sustained family engagement required organizational conditions that were systemic, integrated into the training and curriculum, and sustained with adequate resources.

The third component of the framework focused on policy and program goals. It was noted that family engagement attempts that solely focused on how parents can improve have often led to tension between schools and families. Mapp and Kuttner (2013) recommended schools focus on building the capacity of both parents and school staff to create successful partnerships. Finally, the fourth component was the outcomes of building confidence and relationships. Once staff was prepared for partnering with families, they saw and honored the knowledge and skills families already possessed, created welcoming environments that promoted family engagement, and developed family engagement activities that were connected to students' learning. Families that were prepared to partner with the schools supported their children's learning, monitored their children's time, behavior, and resources, encouraged a positive self-image, modeled excitement for life-long learning, made educational decisions for their children, advocated for better learning opportunities, and collaborated with the schools and communities for continued improvements.

To demonstrate specific ways the framework could be applied, Mapp and Kuttner (2013) also highlighted two case studies of schools that exhibited principles of the framework. The first case study looked at Stanton Elementary School in Washington, D.C.; the school had struggled with behavior, academic growth, and distrust between parents and teachers for years. After the 2010-2011 school year, Stanton Elementary School was chosen for a pilot program to initiate parent engagement. The staff was trained to do home visits and be involved in parent-teacher teams. By October 1, 2011, the teachers and staff completed 231 home visits, and by the end of the school year, they had completed 450 home visits. In interviews, multiple parents and teachers commented on the immediate impact the home visits made on their relationships with each other. Once relationships were formed, the parent-teacher teams began to meet. The meetings were interactive and collaborative, and they were designed to build teachers' capacity to effectively partner with parents and parents' confidence to support their children's education. In one year, parent teacher conference attendance rates rose from 12% to 55%, math scores improved by 18 percentage points, and reading scores increased by 9 percentage points.

The second case-study was from Boston Public Schools. The district had worked to improve family engagement levels for decades, but never had district-wide success. Instead, many staff assumed the district's 22-employee Office of Family and Student Engagement (OFSE) took care of all family engagement. In 2008, a four-pronged approach was created to: 1) build families' capacity to be partners in their students' education, 2) build school staffs' capacity to see the benefits of parent engagement and create individual and school-wide practices, 3) build students' capacity to engage in their learning, and 4) build the district's capacity to make family engagement a core value and develop and implement accountability for family engagement. For the families, the district already had Family Resource Centers and launched Parent University. The OFSE created tip sheets for talking to parents and a 12-hour professional development for teachers. Teachers and principals worked with the OFSE to create

integrated and sustainable parent engagement strategies, and the different departments of the district partnered to build a district-wide culture of responsibility for family engagement.

Han and Love (2015) presented Stages of Immigrant Parent Involvement, an immigrant-parent engagement model and reference for schools. This model was designed in response to one-size-fits-all parent engagement strategies. The authors noted the cultural, educational, and linguistic diversity of immigrant families in the United States school districts, and emphasized how those differences present unique challenges for families and schools. Stages of Immigrant Parent Involvement consists of four stages which align with parents' unique strengths and challenges: cultural survivors, cultural learners, cultural connectors, and cultural leaders. Cultural survivors are often refugees or immigrants who have recently moved to the United States. The cultural survivors' energy was focused on their families' survival and basic needs, and they typically did not have remaining resources to navigate and engage with the schools. Cultural learners were ready to learn more about the U.S. school system. Through interpreters and translations, they navigated their childrens' schools and communicated with teachers. Cultural connectors understood educational terminology and knew the policies and procedures of the school. Connectors helped cultural survivors and cultural learners navigate the school system and encouraged them to be engaged in their childrens' education. Cultural leaders advocated for the needs of immigrant families and participated in parent leadership roles in the school.

Han and Love (2015) also gave three examples of how educators from Prince George's County, Maryland school district used the stages to understand and meet parents' needs. The first example was KinderConnect workshops. This program engaged cultural survivors, cultural learners, and their pre-kindergarten children in early learning and kindergarten-readiness skills. Parents worked with their children to do skill-building activities that were easily replicated at home. Over 600 students and their families participated in the program annually. The second example was International Family Day at Camp Schmidt, an outdoor education center. Camp Schmidt was the site of a fifth-grade overnight STEM field

trip that had historically low participation from immigrant families. International Family Day was created to teach cultural learners, cultural connectors, and their children about the camp and show them the lessons their students would learn on the field trip. Since hosting International Family Day, Han and Love (2015) noted that many immigrant families now send their students on the fifth-grade field trip. The final example was the International Parent Leadership Consortium. This six-week training program taught cultural connectors and cultural leaders about the intricacies of the school system, such as acronyms and ways to partner with the school. After the six weeks, parents felt more confident about their understanding of the school system and were empowered to seek parent leadership roles in the school.

Methods of Parent Engagement

Louie and Davis-Welton (2016) described a family literacy project that was an assignment for 40 teachers who took a university course concerning literacy for Multilingual Learners. The students involved were in Kindergarten through sixth grade. The parents were included by being asked to share a traditional story from their culture or a personal family story. The students then wrote bilingual books in their home languages and in English; in addition, they illustrated the books. The project was used with a linguistically and culturally diverse group of students, showing that it has the possibility of being used in many different schools. The process used for this project created space for students to highlight their heritages, students to have exposure to or practice with biliteracy, and teachers and parents to build their relationships.

This project was divided into five different phases with multiple steps per phase. In the first phase, story gathering, teachers read picture books about families and their heritage to their students. They then explained the project to the students, sent home letters, and made follow-up phone calls to parents. Louie and Davis-Welton (2016) stated the phase of building relationships with the parents was identified as the biggest challenge of the project. In the beginning, there were parents who were hesitant to participate. However, once time was spent explaining what the project was and the goals of

the project (through phone calls from teachers, paraprofessionals, and community members who were helping in the project) many parents were excited to assist. Stories from parents and family members were sent back in written or oral form, and students obtained the stories in English and their home languages.

The next three phases, prewriting, writing and illustrating, and finishing, were all done at school by the students and teachers with the help of community members for translating. At the end of the finishing phase, students completed bilingual books with their own illustrations. For the final phase, presenting, the students practiced by presenting their stories to the class. Afterward, they participated in a family literacy night where parents were invited to come to the school to listen to their children's stories and celebrate their work.

To finish the project, all 40 teachers picked one book to turn in with an essay reflecting on the project. After analyzing the essays, Louie and Davis-Welton (2016) noted five different accomplishments of the project. Of those accomplishments, three were related to strengthening school and family relationships. First, the project "facilitated communication among students, parents, teachers, and community members" (Louie & Davis-Welton, 2016, p. 603). Second, the project "built a culturally inclusive schools community by integrating heritages into schoolwork" (Louie & Davis-Welton, 2016, p. 604). Last, this project showed families the importance of their home languages and promoted biliteracy.

Protacio and Edwards (2015) reviewed a variety of research concerning the importance of parental involvement in schools, the growth of the English Learner population in the United States, the importance of the opportunity for oral language development for multilingual learners, and how sharing time (also commonly named show and tell or circle time) can be improved with more structure. They then conducted a qualitative study to look at the effect of a modified sharing time on meaningful interactions between multilingual learners and their parents. The sharing time was modified by explaining sharing time to the parents and specifically requesting the parents to help their children find

artifacts from their culture to share with the class. The resulting article focused on two families' experience planning and preparing for sharing time for their first-grade multilingual students.

One of the families consisted of Pia (mother), Rico (father), and Aiza (first-grade daughter) from the Philippines. The first time Aiza participated in sharing time, there had not been any guidelines or explanations of expectations. Aiza had told her mom she needed to bring three things to school, and she quickly grabbed a doll and two books. There was very little parental engagement in this instance. After Pia and Rico understood what sharing time was and once they had been told to bring three cultural artifacts, they took time to engage in their daughter's education by meaningfully helping Aiza plan what to bring and what to tell her classmates. Aiza chose to share Filipino currency, the flag of the Philippines, and traditional clothing worn for celebrations. Pia and Rico taught Aiza about the currency, and they discussed the difference between U.S. dollars and Filipino pesos. They also taught Aiza about the flag and the meaning of the stars and sun rays. Aiza chose to wear the traditional dress, the Filipiniana, to school for sharing time. She asked Rico to model his traditional clothing, a barong, and he agreed to go to school with her.

The other family included Madihah (mother) and Nasih (first-grade son) from Eritrea. Like Aiza, Nasih had also participated in a previous sharing time with no parental engagement. In fact, he had borrowed a kaleidoscope from a friend to share. However, once Nasih and Madihah knew the expectations, they created a poster for Nasih to share. The poster included a map of eastern Africa highlighting Eritrea, a picture of the Eritrean flag, Eritrean currency, and the Tigrinyan syllabary. Nasih also brought a poster of the capital city, Asmara. Protacio and Edwards (2015) recounted how looking at the syllabary led to Madihah and Nasih's conversation about the different sounds of their home language. The mother and son were also excited to speak about their favorite foods from Eritrea and the meanings of the symbols on the Eritrean flag. Once they had planned and prepared for Nasih's sharing time, Madihah chose to accompany him to see him present. In both cases, Protacio and Edwards (2015)

noted how much the amount of parental engagement increased once the parents understood the practice of sharing time and knew the expectations.

Torres and Hurtado-Vivas (2011) discussed how public schools' family literacy and homework practices could be altered to be more culturally responsive and better engage Latino parents, specifically those who speak limited English. Through their work with family literacy projects in Texas and New Mexico and teaching graduate level education courses in New Mexico, they used participatory action research and hosted culture circles to gather testimonies from parents' and teachers of public school students regarding each group's expectations and wishes. They identified issues with current homework practices, and then made research-based suggestions to create better home-school relationships with Latino families.

Torres and Hurtado-Vivas (2011) found nine domains, which they called strikes, in which the parents and their children's teachers had differing expectations regarding homework and literacy practices. The first was teachers' expectations of Latino families to use culturally mainstream home literacy practices. Teachers commonly made comments about the parents not being able to read or not taking time to read to their children. Although this is a common expectation in mainstream schools, it is not a common expectation in Latino culture. The second strike was that teachers asked parents to do homework with their children, such as practice spelling words or help as needed, but many parents felt overloaded with other responsibilities. The third strike was that some homework was more difficult for some families due to economic inequalities. Specific examples were buying materials for a science fair project and finding a computer for research and typed work. The fourth strike was the negative effect of homework on parents' relationships with their children. Teachers expected parents to ensure homework was completed accurately, but parents did not always know how to do the homework. This led to frustration and arguments between the parents and their children. The fifth strike was that parents felt pressured to be their children's teacher instead of their parents. Many parents noted their job as parent

was to teach their children a myriad of values and other lessons in the home, and the teachers job was to teach academics. The sixth strike was the use of only English in the schools. Parents said they felt intimidated by the school system, could not help with the homework in English even when they tried, and felt that the school did not care about their opinions because they did not speak English. The seventh strike regarded what constituted literacy. Teachers overlooked home literacy practices like reading religious texts, storytelling, community newspapers, folk stories, and conversations. Instead, they looked solely for reading and writing. The eighth strike was that homework took too long after a full day of school and did not allow children to rest and play. The ninth strike was parents feeling unwelcome in the schools.

Parents' testimonies indicated that they wanted what was best for their children and actively encouraged learning, but they did not want to act as the teacher or physically do homework together. Schools needed to engage parents in a culturally sustainable manner. To do this, Torres and Hurtado-Vivas (2011) suggested that schools move away from the idea of reading and writing in English being literacy, and instead embrace the multiple literacies families used to make sense of the world and incorporate those forms of literacy into the curriculum. They also asked that teachers learn and understand what caused parents to be disengaged with the school, then remedy the issues by rethinking their own parent engagement strategies and working with parents instead of telling parents what they need to do.

Protacio et al. (2021) presented three examples of middle school parent engagement events planned specifically to increase the number of Multilingual Learners' parents involved. Although the examples were different, Protacio et al. (2021) noted that each event shared certain characteristics. The educators who planned the events paid special attention to details, such as event time or type of participation required, that would work for the parent population of their school. The educators also made sure that the communication promoting the event and at the event was accessible to families,

regardless of their home languages. Finally, the educators planned events where parents could not only learn about the school, but also educators could learn from the parents.

The first example was a modified Open House night. In an urban school where 5% of the students were EL students, two educators realized the attendance rate of Multilingual Learner parents for their fall Open House was approximately 45%, while the attendance rate for their spring Literacy Night was approximately 65%. They hypothesized that the reasons for the difference in attendance rate were the fast-paced nature and less interactive format of the Open House night. Thus, the educators introduced Diversity Night, an open house with time and space for families and educators to share their cultural experiences. They asked parents to volunteer to bring a dish from their culture and fill out a form with the name of the dish and its ingredients, which culture it was from, and how their family connected to the dish or when they typically ate it. The students created invitations for Diversity Night. They also made posters to display during the event that highlighted a culturally specific practice, ritual, or interest of their family. On the night of the event, 35 Multilingual Learner families were in attendance. Protacio et al. (2021) reported this was a higher number than typical for Open House night. The families who gave feedback all agreed that Diversity Night was a success and mentioned that they liked seeing their children's posters and the relaxed atmosphere of the evening.

The second example Protacio et al. (2021) discussed was from an urban school where 8% of the total population was classified EL students. A teacher at the middle school first attempted to increase parent engagement through a back to school literacy night in the schools' library, but only one-third of the Multilingual Learner parents attended the event. The teacher asked the Multilingual Learners why their parents did not attend, and many said they did not come because they did not understand English. Although there had been interpreters at the literacy night, that information had not been communicated with the families who would have used the interpreters. The teacher decided to try again to increase ML parent engagement during parent-teacher conferences. Leading up to conference night, the teacher sent

invitations in each family's home language and called each family with an interpreter to extend a personal invitation. She assured the families that interpreters would also be available for parent-teacher conferences. For the first time at that school, 100% of the multilingual learners' families attended conferences.

The final example took place in a district where 29% of the students were classified as EL students and families had immigrated from over 50 countries. One teacher wanted to help increase cultural sharing between students, teachers, and families. To do this, she displayed a world map in her classroom and had students talk about their country of origin. The students also created videos about their country, culture, and family customs. During parent-teacher conferences, a new map was displayed, and families were asked to place a sticker on the country from where they immigrated. The teacher had 15 students volunteer to stand near the maps and engage in conversation with parents about their home countries and cultures. Families could also watch the students' videos that were playing on a laptop next to the map. The teacher reported to Protacio et al. (2021) that she heard many good conversations between parents, students, and staff as the parents explained their home countries and told stories about childhood.

As part of the development of a culturally sustaining literacy framework, Louie and Sierschynski (2020) interviewed three Arabic-speaking mothers with the intention of understanding their perceptions of award-winning children's books, their valuation of reading, and their input on how literature can be used in the classroom. One participant was born in the United States to Kuwaiti parents, and the other two participants were born and raised in Kuwait. All of the interviews were conducted by Louie (first author), and the interviews lasted 120 to 150 minutes. During the interview, the mothers read three children's books in Arabic and three children's books in English. The English books were books that the interviewees' children had read in their EL classrooms. After reading each book, Louie interviewed the

mothers. There were ten interview questions designed to determine the mothers' perceptions of each book, how they chose books for their children, and how they hoped teachers would teach reading.

The interviews were recorded and transcribed; then each author read and coded the interview transcripts. Louie and Sierschynski (2020) worked together to create and integrate themes, and then shared the themes with a participant for verification. They discovered three main themes. First, the participants all wanted their children to read books that promote family values. Specifically, they named the values of kindness, trust, care, and respect for family. The second theme was the appearance and illustrations of the books. Each of the participants said the books with colorful illustrations were most appealing for kids. They noted that it was best when the illustrations were simple and clearly accompanied the story. They also liked stories and illustrations that represented their culture. The third theme was about the power of books' messages. They criticized one of the stories they had read during the interview because the story was about a fish who stole a hat from another fish. The mothers all felt this story was not teaching a clear message, and the children might think it is okay to steal if nobody catches them. The participants said books should instead have messages that clearly communicate the story's lesson.

Protacio et al. (2020) conducted an action research study in midwestern states of the United States. The study followed six elementary teachers who developed five different intentional events and activities to increase family engagement in the multilingual learners population. These teachers had all participated in an ESL endorsement program. One of the classes within the program was taught by one of the authors, Selena Protacio. A requirement for the course was for the participants to develop a Family and Community Engagement plan with special attention to how EL families were included.

The authors discussed each of the five events along with reflections from the six teachers. The first teacher hosted a bilingual game night at the Spanish-English dual immersion school where he taught; 50% of the students and families attended it. The teacher attributed the high attendance rate to

the inclusion of games in both English and Spanish to all families. The second teacher held a cultural celebration where families could tell about their own cultures and share food if they wanted. Seeing the students and families delight in telling about their own cultures made this teacher realize how important it is to let her students teach about their own cultures and make cultural connections with one another. The third teacher sent home a family book project for the parents to work on with their students; this allowed the families to help with homework at their own pace and without needing a formal education. The teacher also liked how much she learned about each of her students and their families through the family book assignment. The fourth teacher conducted home visits with her families who were willing and able to have her in their homes. This teacher noted that she only scheduled each visit to last twenty minutes, but some of them lasted as long as ninety minutes. Although none of the families that she visited spoke English natively, they were able to communicate and share valuable information about their students. The fifth and sixth teachers collaborated to modify the Kindergarten Round-Up at their school. They focused on the inclusivity of linguistic and cultural differences amongst the families. This was significant in their school, as it had high Asian and Middle Eastern populations and represented 24 different home languages. One of the ways these teachers made the Kindergarten Round-Up more inclusive was by asking about favorite books and other learning experiences in each of the homes. The teachers then used this information within their classroom curriculum throughout the year.

The findings from this study emphasized the variety of parent engagement opportunities that can be used by educators. Although there are traditional school events like parent teacher conferences that request parental involvement, there are plenty of other family events that educators can use to revamp practices and partner with parents more. The authors discussed the importance of inviting families to provide input, and then educators using the input to create a stronger, more inclusive curriculum. The researchers understood that schools' practices of engaging EL families would not change instantly.

Nonetheless, they called for more work from schools and educators to create partnerships with families to best serve the children (Protacio et al., 2020).

Georgis et al. (2014) conducted a case study investigating refugee parents' engagement in their children's school with the aid of a transition supports program. This was a three-year study that took place in an urban area of Alberta, Canada. It included a school with high refugee and immigrant populations; most of the population was from Somalia. The school worked with ten agencies from the community to provide support for the families both in and out of school. The support provided for students included classes for students with limited formal education, classroom support for students learning English, and after school activities such as sports and homework help. For the parents, there were information meetings, formal classes to teach subjects such as English and computer skills, and support with navigating daily tasks like applying for jobs or interpreting for doctor appointments. To collect data, Georgis et al. (2014) conducted 33 semi-structured interviews with school personnel, cultural brokers, members of the agencies involved in the transition support program, parents, and students. They also kept observation notes, meeting notes, and focus group input notes (13 parents were consistently involved).

Georgis et al. (2014) grouped the findings of this study into three categories. The first category was "Barriers to Refugee Parent Engagement" (p. 24). The first barrier noted was language. Without the help of interpreters and translators, families could not have communicated with the school. However, because part of the transition supports program was the presence of cultural brokers in the school, the refugee families were able to communicate and build relationships. The second barrier discussed was cultural. The school system in Canada was different from the school system in Somalia. One difference between the two school systems was that teachers in Somalia took care of education and discipline without consulting the parents, while in Canada, teachers called home about discipline and academic issues. This confused many parents. Other cultural differences in the school that needed to be discussed

were the Multilingual Learner program, punctuality, and communication norms. The third group of barriers to being engaged in the school were the practical; those that refugees faced during their resettlement process. Many of the parents were busy working and taking English classes, so it was hard for them to come to the school. There were also difficulties finding childcare and transportation. Despite these challenges, all of the parents wanted to be involved in their children's education. After the school and transition supports program had helped lift these barriers, parents were able to participate.

The second theme that emerged from the case study was "The Importance of Cultural Brokers" (Georgis et al., 2014, p. 25). Once parents developed a relationship with the cultural brokers, there was trust and a willingness to ask questions and give suggestions to the school. The cultural brokers were present in the school daily, which provided interpreting services that allowed both parents and school staff to be able to communicate with each other in a more timely and effective manner. Georgis et al. (2014) referred to the cultural brokers as critical in "helping the school acknowledge parents' cultural capital and finding ways to engage them meaningfully" (p. 25). Cultural brokers also proved to be the necessary link between school and home. They were able to help the refugee families address the barriers discussed previously, plus help the parents feel valued and respected by the school.

The third and final category Georgis et al. (2014) discussed was "Principles of Inclusive Parent Engagement Practices" (p. 25). When thinking about what parent engagement in school meant, the school and transition supports program included all ways in which parents could participate in the school. Georgis et al. (2014) emphasized that parent engagement must be meaningful for both the school and the parents. This happened when parents were allowed to give their own ideas of how they could interact with the school. The school also valued a relationship with the parents, which allowed both parties to be comfortable enough to express their thoughts and needs. The school had to be respectful of families' culture and language. They also had to respond to families' needs and strengths. All parents came to the school with valuable cultural capital that needed to be recognized; they also had

needs that were addressed. This made the school an all-inclusive place for families to socialize, receive an education, and have support as they settled in a new country.

Tarasawa and Waggoner (2015) reviewed literature about the barriers that often prevent parents from being involved in their students' schooling and then looked at a case-study that highlighted approaches to parent engagement that were more inclusive to all families. Tarasawa and Waggoner (2015) stressed that it was important for school personnel to know the families they served and to understand the barriers parents faced when it came to being engaged in their students' formal education. Common barriers parents faced included transportation needs to events, comfort speaking English, concern about their immigration status, and adequate time.

Tarasawa and Waggoner (2015) recognized the benefits of traditional forms of parent engagement and also encouraged schools to create new ways for parents to become involved. They articulated that the non-traditional forms of parent engagement needed to address the barriers families faced. One suggestion was transitioning from only using written communication to providing both written and oral communication in languages that families comfortably used. Another suggestion was for schools to work with community programs to reach families in spaces where they had already spent time. The last suggestion Tarasawa and Waggoner (2015) gave was to increase the amount of events schools hosted and diversify what was offered at these events.

He et al. (2018) provided a review of a two-generation program developed for parents and children learning English. This qualitative study began after a parent liaison asked the local school for permission to hold EL classes for adults. The parent liaison then requested help from a local university to develop and run this program. After receiving feedback from many stakeholders, the parent liaison joined EL teachers to plan the program. Parents were able to take differentiated EL classes with a choice of level 1, 2, or 3 based on language proficiency. While parents took classes, their children attended a STEAM-focused (science, technology, engineering, art, and math) program. The research was based on

interviews with and observations of nine participants, including the program leader, five adult EL instructors, one children's program instructor, a children's program volunteer, and the parent liaison.

Through the discussion of the development of this program, He et al. (2018) highlighted how to empower the families of multilingual learners and help to increase families' engagement with their students' learning using a non-traditional platform. They stressed the importance of working with both parents and children through educational programs to support the whole family in their success. Some examples they gave of educational topics covered in the classes for adults were the school system in the United States, how to help children with homework, and how to participate in the community. There were also challenges faced during the program. Three challenges highlighted were 1) the focus of the program and how to differentiate for the varying needs, 2) sustaining engagement amidst varying work and family schedules, and 3) finding funding to continue running the program. These challenges were countered by a variety of methods. The different needs of adult students were addressed by the students giving input about topics of instruction to their instructors. To address the challenge of multiple work schedules and transportation needs, teachers were flexible with students who had missed classes and helped them to learn the material they had missed. The program leaders also found that looking to the community at large to help support such a program was critical for funding.

Although the program directors faced challenges, there were also many positive outcomes. The authors found that using the two-generation approach to the program helped emphasize the importance of ELs' families' home languages and aspirations. Adults attending the program to further their education was a great example to their children. The adults were also able to become a part of new communities that encouraged their learning. He et al. (2018) found that it is imperative to provide programming to EL students and their parents to help them succeed in their lives.

In a mixed-methods study at a Title I elementary school of approximately 400 students, Giboney and Musetti (2018) researched varying, holistic approaches for teaching primarily Latinx multilingual

learners and their families. The central research question for this study was, “What are the greatest challenges to Latinx ELs’ overall success?” (Giboney & Musetti, 2018, p. 3). Two additional questions examined the methods of support provided to help Latinx students succeed and the types of support that students, families, and school staff want to aid the children in their success. Data was collected for over a year. The researchers obtained the information from parent and teacher interviews, observations at school events and in the classroom, surveys, focus groups, and school data that was available to the public. After collection, the researchers grouped similar data to find themes and refined their research.

Regarding the students’ greatest challenges to their success, Giboney and Musetti’s (2018) research found many challenges. Not only did the school have a large population of students and families facing economic instability, but also there were struggles with language barriers, cultural misunderstandings, legal worries, and social-emotional challenges. One of the social-emotional challenges often noticed was the students feeling like strangers to their parents due to the parents having come to the United States years before they were able to have their children join them. To help the families, the school began providing weekend EL classes for parents and connecting families with resources for food, clothes, and school supplies. Although there were many positive means of intervention and outreach in use at that time, the school was not seeing much growth in the students’ academics. The principal of the school then stressed the importance of teachers building strong, loving relationships with their students to help address these challenges. They began using specific programs like “The Leader in Me” to address the trauma and emotional health of the students and families.

After being asked about what types of support people wanted to see at the school, people gave a variety of responses. Students wanted their teachers to listen to them more and have a closer relationship. Parents wished to know more about what was being taught to their students, so they would be able to support the learning at home. Teachers asked for an English curriculum that placed more emphasis on reading and writing skills. There were also requests for professional development focused

on building stronger relationships with the families of the school. Another hope was for even more social-emotional support, including on-site therapists and staff development surrounding self-care. The authors noted the importance of schools choosing to listen to the input and make positive changes to increase the support of the Latinx students and their families (Giboney & Musetti, 2018).

Davis and Maximillian (2017) looked through a multitude of educational data from the state of Idaho. They found that Idaho's schools had seen a dramatic increase in the number of Hispanic students in the last two decades. In the 2000-2001 school year alone, the number of enrolled Hispanic students increased by 75%. Davis and Maximillian (2017) noted that in 2015 the median income of Hispanic families was approximately three times lower than the average income in Idaho. This meant those students were often living in lower socioeconomic situations than their peers. It was also common that the parents had a lower amount of formal education than adults from other racial or ethnic groups. In a statewide survey conducted as part of the research, Davis and Maximillian (2017) had participants identify as white, Hispanic, or other racial or ethnic background, and also say what level of education they had attained. They found that 70% of male Hispanic parents and 53% of female Hispanic parents had less than a high school diploma. Conversely, just 2% of white male parents and 4% of white female parents had less than a high school diploma, and only 7% of male parents and 8% of female parents who identified as not white or Hispanic had less than a high school diploma. Davis and Maximillian (2017) also noticed that on the yearly state assessment, Hispanic students scored lower in both math and science than their peers of other racial and ethnic groups. With the general notion that higher levels of education often lead to better job opportunities, and because there were many job opportunities in fields related to science, technology, engineering and math (STEM) than other areas, the researchers wanted to find ways to help students and their families increase their involvement with and interest in science and math.

After conducting a statewide, random sampling survey with 407 people responding, Davis and Maximillian (2017) chose 12 counties in which they conducted their second survey. These two surveys asked about the attitudes toward education in general and STEM education in particular. The research team then chose one high school, one middle school, and one elementary from each of the second survey's 12 counties. In each of the schools, Davis and Maximillian (2017) surveyed a total of 1559 students in fourth, seventh, and tenth grades. Their fourth survey was sent to 3,183 teachers from the 12 focus counties, and they received responses from 47.5 percent of the surveys sent.

After reviewing the data gathered from the four surveys they conducted, Davis and Maximillian (2017) chose to lead a bilingual STEM camp for Hispanic preschoolers and their caregivers in Jerome County. To measure the success of the camp, the researchers made direct observations of students and their caregivers and their participation in the camp activities, plus they conducted interviews and assessments with the preschoolers. The researchers also administered a survey to parents and guardians after the camp. Of the 37 parents/guardians that participated in the camp, 30 responded. The head start teachers that worked with the students were also surveyed. A year later, the researchers again gathered information through a survey to understand what knowledge the students had retained long-term. In this survey, the Head Start teachers reported that parent involvement had notably increased. There were more parents both volunteering for special activities in the classroom and having conversations with the teachers about their children's education. Some parents had even become involved with the Head Start policy council.

Overall, the STEM camp for preschoolers was successful. However, it also led to more discussions and questions about closing the academic and economic gaps between Hispanic families and families of other ethnicities. One suggestion was to continue similar camps for preschoolers and their families to both continue the research of the long-term effect of early childhood interventions and to provide more frequent interventions. Davis and Maximillian (2017) also noted the importance of understanding the

knowledge and communication gaps that exist between teachers and parents and learning how to address those gaps. For instance, addressing parents' concerns about their time and ability to help with their students' education is important. From 208 surveys gathered, Davis and Maximillian (2017) reported that while all of the parents who responded had high aspirations for their students' educational and professional lives, there was cultural and religious complexity and some distrust of science. They suggested further exploration with families to understand the scientific ideas that are in conflict with the families' beliefs, how the conflicts can be addressed, and the parts of their culture that might be utilized to help understand scientific information.

Housel (2020) based his concrete examples of ways to engage multilingual families on his background in teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) working with adult literacy programs. Housel (2020) recognized that family engagement that is robust, beneficial to all, and authentic is a consistent challenge for many schools. He also acknowledged the added challenge that is present with immigrant families, including differences in cultural norms and languages spoken. During his career, Housel (2020) learned that many parents of multilingual learner (ML) students felt uncomfortable going into schools and asking for interpreters, but also felt that their English was not proficient enough to talk with the school staff alone. Housel (2020) encouraged school personnel to first discover why some parents feel intimidated by the school, and then work toward a remedy to help all families, regardless of background, to feel comfortable, respected, and valued in their children's schools. According to Housel (2020), part of working toward a remedy should include teachers, administrators, and staff examining any of their own biases and questioning whether or not the school culture is one that values and accepts families from outside the mainstream culture.

Housel (2020) stated that regardless of the type and frequency of family engagement programs, "collaboration and reciprocity must be their guiding tenets" (p. 191). To build the best family programs, there must be support from administration, teachers, staff, and community organizations. One of the

community spaces that Housel (2020) suggested using was public libraries. He noted they are great neutral places for families who are hesitant to come to the school, and they naturally lend themselves to literacy events with all of the books available. Housel (2020) also proposed that school staff, with the aid of cultural liaisons and/or interpreters, could work with pre-existing programs to give presentations about school information, school expectations, and school and community resources that would be beneficial to immigrant families. Since immigrant parents may not know specific U.S. customs around educational engagement, it is important for the presenter to provide explicit explanations of how parents are expected to interact with their children's formal education. School staff must also be willing to be flexible with the parents' and their engagement level, working to make expectations of parent engagement practices culturally responsive.

As important as community support for immigrant families in places like libraries is, Housel (2020) claimed it is also important for schools to host programs geared toward immigrant families. This would help the families know that they are supported and important to the school, and it would help the parents feel comfortable being in the school. Housel (2020) proposed four different formats to use that invite immigrant parents into schools. The first format was professional development. Housel (2020) suggested inviting immigrant parents to give presentations about their personal stories to all staff and non-immigrant parents. After the presentations, there would be guided discussions in groups that include at least one staff member, one non-immigrant parent, and one immigrant parent. The purpose of this format was to build relationships and promote better understanding between all parties involved. The second school program idea that Housel (2020) recommended was hosting bilingual classes for students and their families. According to Housel (2020) the benefits of bilingual classes included demonstrating that the school values linguistic diversity, helping parents to learn English, helping students to maintain their first language, potentially helping any parents who were not able to attend school in their home countries to gain literacy skills in their first language, and promoting lifelong

learning. Finally, Housel (2020) promoted hosting conversation groups that focus on a community service project for immigrant and non-immigrant families together and holding community resource fairs at the school.

Meyer et al. (2011) conducted a follow-up study of teachers who had done home visits to meet their students before the start of each school year for the five previous years. This was done in a rural school district in the midwest; 29 Kindergarten through second-grade teachers participated. Seventeen of the 29 teachers participated in the first study, and the average number of years that these teachers had conducted home studies was 4.04 years.

To gather data, Meyer et al. (2011) asked the teachers to complete questionnaires that requested demographic information, how the teachers thought the home visits had impacted the students and their families, and the benefits and challenges of implementing home visits. Meyer et al. (2011) used a one to five rating scale for the eight questions that were centered around the impact of home visits on families and students. The questions addressed these variables: "student attendance, student's school attitude, academic performance, classroom behavior, parent's school attitude, parent's attitude toward teacher, parent's school involvement, parent's involvement in child's learning" (Meyer et al., 2011, p. 193). Of the areas concerning parents, all of the teachers marked a four or five in the area of "parent's school attitude" and 97% marked a four or five in the area of "parent's attitude toward teacher" (Meyer et al., 2011, p. 193). Although the other two areas were not rated as high, the home visits did not have negative effects. In the area of "parent's school involvement," 39% of teachers marked a four or five, and in the area of "parent's involvement in a child's learning," 57% marked a four or five (Meyer et al., 2011, p 193).

The portion of the questionnaire that asked about benefits and challenges of home visits was open-ended questions. Common themes that emerged from the answers written were reported. Forty-eight percent of teachers said the home visits were beneficial in creating positive relationships,

and 41% said the parents were more comfortable getting to know the teachers in their own homes. Twenty-seven percent of the teachers stated parents were able to ask more questions and gather information about school during the home visit. In regard to the teachers' perception of the impact of home visits on communication with the parents, 51% of teachers said they were able to find parents' preferred contact methods, and 55% of teachers said they were more easily able to positively communicate with parents. Two challenges were most often acknowledged by teachers: 1) some parents were not available or altogether avoided home visits, and 2) parents did not want to have unfamiliar people in their homes (Meyer et al., 2011).

Fasching-Varner et al. (2019) focused on how multilingual children and their families helped teachers and teacher candidates embrace diversity, especially the diversity of multilingual learners. Kenneth Fasching-Varner and Michaela Stone each grew up in bilingual, bicultural homes, and each recalled times when speaking two languages was seen as detrimental to their education. This led to their awareness of how multilingual learners can be marginalized in schools and their desire to help teachers learn to embrace multilingual families. This teacher education was done by creating an internship program based in Concepción, Chile. Fasching-Varner et al. (2019) have highlighted empirical information from this 15-year-long program in this article.

For the program, teachers from the United States traveled to Chile for a three-week, 120-hour internship at a Pre-Kindergarten through 12th-grade school. This program took place from 2004 through 2018. During that time, 239 teachers from the United States participated. The majority of the teachers were monolingual (either English or Spanish speakers), but the students were bilingual. Because of the different languages, teachers had to rely on the students to be their interpreters. For records and data collection, the research team used many methods. They conducted interviews with the teacher participants before, during, and after the teachers' three week stay. During the program, teacher

participants blogged on a weekly basis. They also kept two-way journals, had daily meetings with program leaders, were interviewed, and had lessons observed.

By looking at the collected data, Fasching-Varner et al. (2019) observed that participants' attitudes toward multilingual learners changed over the course. In interviews conducted before teachers went to Chile, many participants referred to "English language learners as "challenging," "time consuming," and "diverse"" (p. 6). However, in the post-program interviews there were more comments referring to the students with respect for their ability to navigate multiple languages and cultures, and regarding the parents as an active and valuable part of their students' education. Due to the intimate nature of living with host families and witnessing parents' involvement in their children's schooling, 80 participants changed their thoughts about parents' perceived lack of educational engagement. Fasching-Varner et al. (2019) understood that sending every pre-service teacher to an internship abroad was not a feasible option for creating empathy toward diverse learners and their families. Nevertheless, they hope that their discoveries, the teachers who took part in the program, and the ensuing article gave educators points on which to reflect.

Gonzalez et al. (2013) reviewed the Hoover-Dempsey et al. (2005) model of parents' involvement (as cited in Gonzalez et al., 2013) along with empirical evidence of the model being used with Latino families. The authors then used the literature to suggest a collection of culturally appropriate practices for school counselors to use to involve immigrant parents from Latin American countries. They concluded the article with an example of a Latino family night that included all the suggestions of culturally appropriate engagement strategies.

Gonzalez et al. (2013) divided their suggestions into three categories: 1) invitations to families from teachers and counselors; 2) construction of partnership roles for parents; and 3) flexibility of formats for parent engagement. They first addressed the importance of effective invitations. This included creating bilingual (i.e., Spanish and English) invitations that were written in a respectful tone

and included information regarding access to interpreters. It was noted that invitations needed to make the expectations of the parents clear and give a clear purpose for a meeting or event. Gonzalez et al. (2013) also suggested that invitations to school events come from school counselors, because they often had pre-existing relationships due to working with the same students for multiple years.

In regard to the construction of partnership roles, Gonzalez et al. (2013) noted that Latino parents may have had lower involvement in schools due to cultural norms from their home countries. Consequently, it was important for parents to understand the significance of their involvement in regard to the success of their students. One suggestion was to collect information about how parents were engaged in schools in their home countries, and to help parents find or create similar roles in the U.S. schools. However, none of these proposals are useful if families are unable to be involved due to other barriers. Gonzalez et al. (2013) encouraged schools to be flexible when they engaged with parents. They highlighted creating events or office hours on weekends or evenings, using community locations that are accessible to the families, taking advantage of drop-off and pick-up times for communication, and sending bilingual messages (physically or electronically) to families.

The Latino family night was included as an example of a culturally-appropriate event to help increase parent engagement. Gonzalez et al. (2013) encouraged schools to send written, bilingual invitations to families, then follow-up the invitations with phone calls from counselors, teachers, or cultural brokers. They also said the event should be held in a convenient location and include childcare, food, presentations highlighting the importance of parental engagement in the schools, and opportunities for further involvement.

Rivera and Lavan (2012) highlighted the most impactful elements of a family literacy program in Chelsea, Massachusetts. The authors collected data from 2005 to 2008 for their evaluation. There was a high population of Latino families who were English learners in the school district, thus the goal of the program was to reach Latino families. The participants were 55 Latina mothers who had at least one

child in Kindergarten through third grade in one of the district's five elementary schools. Forty women were from Central American countries, and the other 15 were from Mexico, Colombia, Puerto Rico, or Cuba. The program was open to all parents; however, in the years that data was collected, only mothers participated.

The Chelsea Family Literacy Program was started in 2005 with grant money from the National Center for Family Literacy. The program consisted of four components: 1) Once per week, the group had a two-hour parent time; 2) Twice a week parent participants visited their children's classrooms for 20-30 minutes (referred to as Parent and Child Together, or PACT); 3) Once a week all the mothers met for an hour to debrief on what they observed in the classrooms and ask any questions they had; and 4) English classes for a total of 12 hours per week for the participants to increase their English and literacy skills. Rivera and Lavan (2012) gathered information from the program records and through direct observations of the four different components of the program. They also interviewed the participants and the schools' principals, teachers, and staff.

After reviewing both qualitative and quantitative data, Rivera and Lavan (2012) regarded the PACT and PACT debriefing sessions as the most impactful portions of the Chelsea Family Literacy Program on the participants' engagement levels in their children's education. The program helped to increase the participants' knowledge of the school system in the United States. The mothers discussed differences between their home countries' education systems and the U.S., and were able to ask questions about grading, school terms, and expectations. According to Rivera and Lavan (2012), previous to the program's implementation, the mothers wanted to help their children with school work and be able to communicate effectively with the schools, but often did not know how. After PACT sessions and observing their children's classrooms, the participants saw what their children were learning in the classroom. If there was confusion about classroom activities, the mothers asked questions during the

debriefing sessions. Some mothers reported taking notes while in their children's classrooms to remember how to help with their homework.

The PACT sessions also helped create a welcoming environment in the schools, and the participants developed relationships with teachers, staff, and principals. Multiple mothers talked about feeling like they could communicate with school personnel due to their increased comfort levels in the school. During an interview, one principal told Rivera and Lavan (2012) how the school had changed since the start of the program. He stated,

The culture of our school is very much "open door" from the office to the classrooms. Teachers are very accustomed to having other people come into the room ... that's not always the case in every school. There are places where you are trespassing if you enter a teacher's classroom. In our school, teachers see that culture as a place where we learn from one another, and how to improve the school is part of it. (Rivera & Lavan, 2012, p. 256)

Teachers also commented on the program participants feeling like a part of the school community. One teacher mentioned that the mothers in her classroom had seemed shy during the first few PACT sessions, but had become very comfortable in the classroom since the beginning. Another teacher talked about some of the mothers regularly eating breakfast with their children. She recounted how the teachers and other students from the school all knew the mothers and enjoyed interacting with them.

Kim and Song (2019) described a multilingual family storybook project that took place in 2017 at an elementary Spanish immersion school in a Midwestern city as part of a research project headed by a university research team. In collaboration with the school, the researchers created and facilitated a schoolwide storytelling event with a family story-writing workshop on the same day. Thirteen families attended the workshop. For the next four months, one workshop per month was held for families who wanted to finish their books. Five families that included eight children, five mothers, and one father participated in these workshops and published their books.

The researchers explored the idea of using community translanguaging within the context of creating family stories as a way to validate all families' literacy practices. Kim and Song (2019) defined community translanguaging as collaboratively making meaning of multimodal interactions. They recognized that meaning was found not only in monolingual speaking, reading and writing, but also in gestures, drawings, other visual representations, and multilingual speaking, reading, and writing. Kim and Song (2019) argued that community translanguaging, "does more than tolerate or acknowledge students' languages and cultures; rather, it supports students in developing, using, and sustaining linguistic and cultural competency built from their homes and communities" (p. 269). In this project, families were encouraged to use any and all languages they knew along with other manners to express themselves. Due to the project being held at a Spanish immersion school, each of the families had English and Spanish as part of their language backgrounds. In addition, one family also used Mandarin, and another family used Japanese.

Throughout the workshops, parents were encouraged to actively participate in creating the stories. Each family worked together to brainstorm ideas. Kim and Song (2019) reported hearing multiple rounds of multilingual discussions as the families chose which idea to make into a book. The families began creating their stories once an idea had been chosen. In each family, the children led the effort to create visuals to illustrate the stories. Then, the members of each family worked together to create the written portion of the story with some help from Google Translate. Each participant had varying degrees of proficiency in different languages. Nonetheless, they were all able to contribute to their story. The next step was for the families to check the comprehensibility of their stories with people who had higher proficiency levels in each language. For example, one family who had written their story in Spanish and English was unsure of the phrasing for one of the parts in Spanish. The dad called his mom, a Mexican woman, to ensure that it was written correctly. Other families also worked with the program facilitators, extended family, and friends to check language, create better illustrations, and/or record an audio

version. To finish the project, each family read their book to the child's classmates. The families had fully engaged in creating their own stories.

Kandel-Cisco et al. (2020) partnered with the Indianapolis Immigrant Welcome Center to meet with immigrant and refugee families. With the assistance of volunteers from the center (Natural Helpers) who acted as cultural brokers, they interviewed 113 families to gain an understanding of how the families' school experiences had been to that point and how the families wanted to engage with the schools going forward. Kandel-Cisco et al. (2020) then invited a group of practicing educators in the process of attaining an ESL license to spend time with the families and Natural Helpers. Using the information gathered from the interviews and conversations, the cohort of teachers collaborated with Natural Helpers and developed three projects that supported intentional family engagement.

The first project Kandel-Cisco et al. (2020) described was story circles. Two adult EL teachers developed this project and collaborated with their students to host the first story circle. Before the event, the adult English learners chose and developed stories to share during the event. At the beginning of the event, families conversed, became comfortable with each other, and enjoyed a potluck meal. Then one of the teachers (who was an immigrant) and multiple students shared about their immigration, struggles since moving to the United States, and educational experiences. After listening to the stories, families reflected on the stories, their educational goals, and their hopes for their children's education. Kandel-Cisco et al. (2020) praised the story circle for providing a space for families, community members, and educators to share with each other and learn together. They noted that the host needed to consider all families' home languages and proficiency levels, and have the necessary support available.

The next family engagement idea was living room conversations, an approach that focused on civil conversations on a variety of controversial topics. This was led by a high school teacher from a charter school. The topic of the evening was the improvement of education for Multilingual Learners, and five high school students who were immigrants shared their opinions and had an open conversation

about the topic. Kandel-Cisco et al. (2020) stressed the importance of intentionally inviting people with diverse ideas and opinions to foster a robust discussion.

The final event shared was monthly multilingual story-sharing hosted by a public library. This idea came from two teachers from a rural school who collaborated with their school and the local library to reframe their traditional storytime. At the beginning of the event, there were 30 minutes for families to gather, converse, have a snack, and make a small craft. This time was intentionally planned to build community and to provide extra time for people who ran late to the event. Then the story of the month was read by two family members, one read in English and the other in their home language. The facilitators chose the stories based on the languages and cultures represented in the community. Next, the story time attendants discussed the story, and everyone was able to take home a copy of the book. Kandel-Cisco et al. (2020) stated other families who had not initially been at the library for multilingual story-sharing stopped to listen and returned in the following months. In this way, multilingual story-sharing became a way to build community relationships as well as family-school relationships.

Stauss et al. (2021) conducted a mixed-methods study to evaluate the effectiveness of OneCommunity Reads (OC Reads), a community literacy and parent engagement program for Kindergarten through third graders in Arkansas. The program consisted of two parts: Parents Taking Leadership Action (PTLA), which focused on engaging parents through empowerment, and Feed Your Brain (FYB), a summer program that used community-based, culturally relevant methods to teach literacy skills. Data were collected for families and students from three elementary schools. The quantitative data consisted of Measures of Academic Progress (MAP) reading scores of the 42 students whose parents participated in PTLA and 36 students who participated in FYB. The qualitative data included information from a parent focus group consisting of four PTLA and FYB parents, a five-member student focus group, and interview answers from two school literacy specialists, one school principal, and two OC Reads administrators.

For the 42 students whose parents were in PTLA, Stauss et al. (2021) collected and compared fall 2015 MAP scores to spring 2016 scores. They then examined the score change using OC Reads' three definitions of success: 1) grade-level reading maintained, 2) moved from below grade level to grade level, and 3) score increased at a rate higher than growth norm showing significant improvement. The growth norm points were 10.3 for Kindergarten, 10.8 for first grade, 9.5 for second grade, and 7.3 for third grade. The program was considered successful for 34 students; 14 students maintained grade-level reading scores; 10 students moved from reading below grade level to reading at grade level, and 10 students showed significant improvement. The program was not considered successful for the remaining eight students; whereas, five had scores that remained below grade level and made little growth, two had scores that both remained below grade level and decreased, and one scored at grade level in the fall and below grade level in the spring.

For FYB students, Stauss et al. (2021) collected and compared their spring 2016 and fall 2016 MAP scores. Using the same definitions of success, they examined whether the summer program was helpful for the students. Of the 36 FYB students, 26 students' scores indicated the program was successful. Nine students remained at grade level; 13 students' scores moved from below grade level to grade level, and four made significant improvement. Of the remaining ten students, six students' scores remained below grade level with little improvement; one student's score remained below grade level with a decreased score, and three students' scores were at grade level and decreased to below grade level.

Stauss et al. (2021) recorded and transcribed the focus group sessions and individual interviews. Each member of the research team then analyzed the data and identified themes. The research team then analyzed the individually identified themes and developed collective themes of data divided into two categories: program impact and program strengths and challenges. In regard to the impact of OC Reads, Stauss et al. (2021) identified four themes: empowerment, shared responsibility, increased

respect and understanding for schools and families, and students' reading improvement. Both families and school personnel mentioned parents' increased empowerment from understanding the school system. The parents then felt confident to approach teachers and principals, and parents understood specific ways to aid their students. This, along with growing mutual respect as parents and staff became comfortable with each other, led to everyone understanding their shared responsibility to the students. Regarding the program's strengths and challenges, Stauss et al. (2021) identified two strengths and a challenge. As for strengths, parents consistently noted the OC Reads program taught literacy in culturally relevant ways. Both students and parents liked the activities used to teach and promote reading skills and the incentives used to keep kids engaged. The commonly identified challenge was the poor marketing of the program. Parents commented that many of the parents thought OC Reads was an adult ESL program or did not know about the program at all. The parents of the focus group suggested advertising the program better.

Lopez et al. (2021) highlighted Project Recuerdo, a family journaling activity designed by an educator pursuing a master's degree to fulfill the requirement of planning a linguistically and culturally appropriate family engagement activity. Throughout the academic year, the fourth-grade teacher gave six journal prompts to her students and their families and also integrated the information from the journals into the classroom curriculum. This project took place at a Spanish-English bilingual school where 85% of the student population was Hispanic. Lopez et al. (2021) gathered data from 13 journals with responses to all six prompts, along with teaching artifacts and other student writing for Project Recuerdo. Lopez et al. (2021) also conducted two focus groups with a total of seven family members to evoke the participants' perceptions of the project's impact on families' relationships with the teacher and school.

To analyze the data, the authors utilized Yosso's (2005) Community Cultural Wealth framework to identify the familial, aspirational, linguistic, and social capital represented (as cited in Lopez et al., 2021,

p. 429). Lopez et al. (2021) defined familial wealth as, “cultural knowledge nurtured by family that carries a sense of community history, memory, and cultural intuition,” aspirational wealth as, “a sense of possibility that enables one to foster hopes and dreams, even in the face of real and perceived barriers,” linguistic capital as, “engaging in storytelling tradition-including listening to and recounting oral histories, parables, stories and proverbs,” and social capital as, “the use of social networks and connections to rely on and provide emotional and instrumental support in order to navigate society and instructions” (p. 433). One journal prompt asked students to share an experience from celebrating Mexican Independence Day. The families were able to show their linguistic capital via storytelling, and the students were able to strengthen their linguistic skills by re-telling the story and writing it in the journal. Another prompt highlighted familial capital by asking families to document which rituals they used to remember their deceased loved ones. Families showed their familial and aspirational capital when asked to remember a challenge they had faced over the previous year and reflect on how they had overcome that challenge as a family. Finally, Project Recuerdo helped to build social capital as families built community with each other through their shared journals. The members of the focus groups shared that Project Recuerdo was a different kind of family engagement activity and it had successfully engaged families in their children’s education while honoring their cultures and home languages. The families emphasized the importance of the teacher beginning with a relationship built on trust and respect, and then families were willing to be vulnerable and share their stories.

CHAPTER III: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Summary

The research for this literature review was completed to identify effective methods to increase parental engagement with the ML population. After evaluating the literature, the articles were grouped into four themes: parent engagement and student learning, how schools affect parent engagement, frameworks for parental engagement, and methods of parent engagement. This thesis analyzed both traditional and non-traditional strategies to increase parental engagement at the classroom, school, and district levels.

Four studies discussed the importance of parent engagement and its effect on students' learning (Alexander et al., 2017; Morita-Mullaney et al., 2019; Rivera & Li, 2019; Vera et al., 2012). Three articles analyzed how schools directly impacted Multilingual Learners (ML) parents' level of engagement (Epstein & Sheldon, 2016; Shufflebarger Snell, 2018; Vera et al., 2016). Three more articles suggested parent engagement frameworks (Coady, 2019; Han & Love, 2015; Mapp & Kuttner, 2013). The remaining 20 articles evaluated individual strategies to increase engagement (Davis & Maximillian, 2017; Fasching-Varner et al., 2019; Georgis et al., 2014; Giboney & Musetti, 2018; Gonzalez et al., 2013; He et al., 2018; Housel, 2020; Kandel-Cisco et al. 2020; Kim & Song, 2019; Lopez et al., 2021; Louie & Davis-Welton, 2016; Louie & Sierschynski, 2020; Meyer et al., 2011; Protacio & Edwards, 2015; Protacio et al., 2020; Protacio et al., 2021; Rivera & Lavan, 2012; Stauss et al., 2021; Tarasawa & Waggoner, 2015; Torres & Hurtado-Vivas, 2011).

Parent Engagement and Student Learning

For the first theme, a total of four articles analyzed how parents engaged with their students' education and the impact of the respective parent engagement. Morita-Mullaney et al. (2019) discovered that families used a multitude of literacy practices that were different from the typical format of reading a book to their children. They highlighted the importance of validating the use of multiple

forms of literacy in multiple languages and recognizing that students came to school with an abundance of background knowledge learned from their parents. In a study by Vera et al. (2012), a common form of engagement was parents talking to their students about school and ensuring homework was done. They also noted that when parents felt welcome in their children's school, there was more communication and fewer negative experiences. Rivera and Li (2019) reported similar findings, and expanded on those findings noting that the parents' positive perceptions of the school led to more involvement, and more parental involvement led to students' having positive attitudes toward school and learning. Alexander et al. (2017) examined why some secondary Latinx students had high GPAs despite their parents' low engagement with the schools. They found that the students' perceptions of the reason why parents could not be engaged were important in affecting student learning. When students believed their parents were not engaged because they did not feel comfortable at the school, did not have access to transportation, or thought school was unimportant, their GPAs were affected negatively. Contrarily, when students thought work schedule conflicts affected their parents ability to be engaged in their education, the students' GPAs were affected positively.

How Schools Affect Parent Engagement

The second theme looked at both positive and negative ways that schools affected levels of parent engagement. Epstein and Shedon (2016) discovered the level of support from district leaders and school principals affected the level of success of parent engagement programs. Vera et al. (2016) found that parents who were encouraged by their students' teachers to take leadership roles, such as involvement in the parent teacher organization or running for school board, were more likely to do so. The research also made clear that when schools welcomed all families and created positive relationships, parents were more likely to be involved in their children's education (Epstein & Sheldon, 2016; Shufflebarger Snell, 2018; Vera et al., 2016).

Frameworks for Parental Engagement

The third section presented three frameworks for schools to use to increase parents' engagement. Coady (2019) created a framework based on action and reflection specifically for rural schools with multilingual populations, noting that the physical distance to multilingual resources is different in rural than urban locations. She emphasized the importance of building strong relationships, collaborating, and using an assets-based approach when working with families. Mapp and Kuttner's (2013) framework focused on building the capacity of both the educators and the parents to increase parental involvement. Kuttner highlighted the importance of training and workshops for teachers to be prepared to work with families in meaningful ways and for quality policies and program goals from school districts to support family-school partnerships. Han and Love (2015) presented a framework specifically for parents who were immigrants. They discussed four stages of involvement and how to support parents at each stage. They also acknowledged that dependent on the past and current outside stressors for families, parents' engagement would look different.

Methods of Parent Engagement

The last theme looked at specific methods for schools and teachers to use to increase parental involvement. There were a variety of suggestions for modified versions of traditional events and activities. Open house nights and parent-teacher conferences can be modified by creating multilingual, multimodal invitations, ensuring interpreters are present, allowing students to present their work, and having a space for parents to share about their own lives and cultures (Gonzalez et al., 2013; Protacio et al., 2021; Protacio et al., 2020). Four articles highlighted the success of family literacy projects such as creating a book or family journal (Kim & Song, 2019; Lopez et al., 2021; Louie & Davis-Welton, 2016; Protacio et al., 2020). Protacio and Edwards (2015) created a sharing time format for parents and students to work together to share important cultural aspects of their lives.

The articles also provided a variety of non-traditional methods to increase parent engagement at the schools. Protacio et al. (2020) and Meyer et al. (2011) highlighted how home visits at the beginning of the school year aided in forming strong, positive relationships between teachers and parents. Georgis et al. (2014), He et al. (2018), and Housel (2020) suggested schools collaborate with community partners to provide both academic and wrap-around support for students and their families. New programs can be created to engage with parents and students together. These programs could be academic-based, such as STEM camps or literacy programs, or be used to build social connections and stronger relationships (Davis and Maximillian, 2017; Kandel-Cisco et al., 2020; Rivera & Lavan, 2012; Stauss et al., 2021).

Professional Application

Based on this literature, there is a plethora of strategies that help increase Multilingual parent engagement. Different strategies require participation from different groups of school personnel. School and district leaders can encourage parent engagement by implementing parent engagement frameworks which are inclusive of ML parents and their needs. They can also ensure that the faculty partakes in regular, quality in-service trainings that focus on ML learners and their families. Having valuable relationships with community partners will allow schools to offer more resources to ML families, and eliminating language barriers will remind families that they are a part of their children's learning no matter what language they speak at home. When entire schools and districts are aware of ML families, they will help to make the schools welcoming to all people so that families feel invited to be engaged in their children's education.

While schools and districts have the ability to affect engagement levels through large-scale programs, teachers have the privilege of building relationships and differentiating engagement strategies based on the needs of the individual students and families they serve. Advocating for the needs of their ML families builds trusting relationships over time. Teachers can help increase ML parent engagement

with simple modifications to events and activities that they already use. For teachers who are ready to go beyond traditional parent engagement, they can collaborate with families to create programs based on interests and needs. Regardless of the engagement strategy used, building positive relationships with parents has to be the foundation of the efforts to produce positive outcomes.

This research will help guide me as I continue to develop relationships with the families of my students and collaborate with them to better understand their needs and wishes. Within the school, I will promote the importance of tweaking communication and events to aid multilingual families' engagement in their children's formal education. I will continue to advocate for district and school communication in the home languages of our students and the presence of interpreters for school events. This will help to eliminate language barriers, allow parents to feel more comfortable communicating and collaborating with the school, and know their message is understood (Housel, 2020).

Educators can validate the many forms of engagement that parents have at home with their children's education. Tarasawa and Waggoner (2015) discussed the importance of using traditional and non-traditional forms of parent engagement. Through holding conversations with other teachers and leading professional development, I hope to help people understand that parent engagement is more than parent-teacher conference attendance. We can also work with parents to develop new ways in which to be engaged.

Limitations of the Research

Although much of the research acknowledged that cultural differences helped dictate how families engaged in their children's education, only nine studies examined culturally specific ideas for increasing parent engagement. In the research for this thesis, 1 out of 30 articles focused on Kuwaiti parents, and 8 out of 30 articles focused on increasing Latinx parent engagement in the schools. The remaining 21 articles grouped all ML families together. Just within the groups of people that identify as

Latinx or Hispanic, there are many cultures. As well, ML families grouped together represent vast cultural diversity.

Implications for Future Research

Due to the lack of culturally specific parent engagement strategies, it would be interesting to investigate whether different strategies to increase engagement did or would obtain different results based on family cultural backgrounds. Additionally, there are many cultural groups that speak languages other than English represented in the schools throughout the United States. In Minnesota specifically, after English and Spanish speakers, the next 11 most commonly spoken languages are Somali, Hmong, Karen, Vietnamese, Arabic, Oromo, Mandarin, Russian, Amharic, Cambodian/Khmer, and Lao/Laotian (Minnesota Department of Education, 2021). Researchers could certainly examine which strategies work best for people from different cultural backgrounds. Different articles talked about parents not participating because in their culture parent engagement in education would be interpreted as challenging the teacher's profession. It would be beneficial to know to which specific cultural backgrounds this applies. Another strategy presented was using family literacy projects. Researchers could examine whether family literacy projects have different levels of parental involvement from the lens of cultural backgrounds.

Conclusion

Although parent involvement in schools is important, not all parents demonstrate the same level of engagement with their children's education due to a variety of reasons. As the ML population continues to grow, it is important to ensure students and their families are invited and encouraged to participate in the school system. Parent engagement programs and frameworks need to be supported by the district and school administrators. Educators should strive for meaningful relationships to help all families feel welcomed and ready to engage. As their relationships with families develop, teachers can learn how the parents are already engaging with their students at home. The parents might be sharing

their educational aspirations with their children, making sure the students have time and space set aside for homework, or teaching the students skills that are not taught in school. Educators can also share strategies for engagement that they would like parents to use, such as reading together or coming to parent-teacher conferences. Teachers and staff must make the effort to bridge cultural gaps and break language barriers in order to support all students by partnering with all families.

References

- Alexander, J. D., Cox, R. B., Jr., Behnke, A., & Larzelere, R. E. (2017). Is all parental “noninvolvement” equal? Barriers to involvement and their relationship to Latino academic achievement. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 39(2), <https://doi.org/10.1177/0739986317700837>
- Catalano, T., Kananu Kiramba, L., & Viesca, K. (2020). Transformative interviewing and the experiences of multilingual learners not labeled “ELL” in US schools. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 43(2), <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2020.1738287>
- Coady, M. (2019). Rural multilingual family engagement: Review of research and model of engagement. *The Rural Educator*. 40(3), 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.35608/ruraled.v40i3.545>
- Davis, M., & Maximilian, J. (2017). The influence of family engagement on Hispanic youth science education. *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice*, 17(4), 10-23. <https://articlegateway.com/index.php/JHETP/article/view/1543/1473>
- Epstein, J. L., & Sheldon, S. B. (2016). Necessary but not sufficient: The role of policy for advancing programs of school, family, and community partnerships. *RSF: Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences*, 2(5), 202–219. <https://doi.org/10.7758/rsf.2016.2.5.10>
- Fasching-Varner, K. J., Stone, M. P., Mora Mella, R., Olave Henríquez, F., & Yacomán Palma, M. (2019). “...4542 miles from home...”: Repositioning English language learners as power brokers and teachers as learners in the study abroad context. *Education Sciences*, 9(2), <https://doi.org/146.10.3390/educsci9020146>
- Georgis, R., Gokiert, R. J., Ford, D. M., & Ali, M. (2014). Creating inclusive parent engagement practices: Lessons learned from a school community collaborative supporting newcomer refugee families. *Multicultural Education*, 21(3/4), 23-27. <https://ezproxy.bethel.edu/login?url=https://www-proquest-com.ezproxy.bethel.edu/publication/33246?accountid=8593>

Giboney Wall, C., & Musetti, B. (2018). Beyond teaching English: Embracing a holistic approach to supporting English learner students and their families. *The Catesol Journal*, 30(2), 1-17.

<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1206491.pdf>

Gonzalez, L. M., Borders, L. D., Hines, E. M., Villalba, J. A., & Henderson, A. (2013). Parental involvement in children's education: Considerations for school counselors working with Latino immigrant families. *Professional School Counseling*, 16(3), 185-193.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/2156759X1701600303>

Han, Y., & Love, J. (2015). Stages of immigrant parent involvement - survivors to leaders. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 97(4), 21-25. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0031721715619913>

He, Y., Wilson, D., Scott, A., & Zhao, X. (2018). Working with English Learners using a two-generation approach. *The School Community Journal*, 29(2), 63-80.

<https://search.proquest.com/docview/2331806130>

Housel, D. A. (2020). Supporting the engagement and participation of multicultural, multilingual immigrant families in public education in the United States: Some practical strategies. *School Community Journal*, 30(2), 185-209. <https://www.adi.org/journal/2020fw/HouseIFW2020.pdf>

Kandel-Cisco, B., Brooks, K., Bhatena, C. D., Abdulahad, H., Pimentel-Gannon, M., & Fessahaie, H. (2020). From the mouths of experts: Relationship-building advice from immigrant and refugee families. *Multicultural Education (San Francisco, Calif.)*, 27(3-4), 45-47.

<https://www.proquest.com/scholarly-journals/mouths-experts-relationship-building-advice/docview/2460799849/se-2>

Kim, S. & Song, K. H. (2019). Designing a community translanguaging space within a family literacy project. *The Reading Teacher*, 73(3), 267-279. <https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.1820>

Lopez, M., Butvilofsky, S. A., Le, K., & Gumina, D. (2021). Project Recuerdo: Honoring Latinx families'

- knowledge within the school. *The Reading Teacher*, 75(4), 429-440.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.2062>
- Louie, B., & Davis-Welton, K. (2016). Family literacy project: Bilingual picture books by English Learners. *The Reading Teacher*, 69(6), 597-606. <https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.1444>
- Louie, B. & Sierschynski, J. (2020). Culturally sustaining instruction for Arabic-speaking English learners. *The Reading Teacher*, 74(2), 159-167. <https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.1920>
- Mapp, K. L., & Kuttner, P. J. (2013). Partners in education: A dual capacity-building framework for family-school partnerships. SEDL.
- Meyer, J., Mann, M. B., & Becker, J. (2011). A five-year follow-up: Teachers' perceptions of the benefits of home visits for early elementary children. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 39, 191-196.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10643-011-0461-1>
- Minnesota Department of Education. (2021). *English Learner Education in Minnesota: 2020-21 Report*.
https://education.mn.gov/mdeprod/idcplg?IdcService=GET_FILE&dDocName=MDE035523&RevisionSelectionMethod=latestReleased&Rendition=primary
- Morita-Mullaney, T., Li, H., & Renn, J. (2019). Multiliteracies in rural communities: The revuelto y mezclado of home and community literacy practices of midwestern emergent bilingual families. *The Rural Educator*, 40(3), 35-48. <https://search.proquest.com/docview/2374199412>
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2022). *Report on the condition of education 2022*.
<https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/>
- Protacio, M. S., & Edwards, P. A. (2015). Restructuring sharing time for English learners and their parents. *The Reading Teacher*, 68(6), 413-421. <https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.1327>
- Protacio, M. S., Piazza, S. V., & David, V. (2021). Family engagement in the middle: Reaching out to families of English learners. *Middle School Journal*, 52(1), 30-39.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00940771.2020.1840268>

- Protacio, S., Piazza, S., David, V., & Tigchelaar, M. (2020). Elementary teachers' initiatives in engaging families of English learners. *The School Community Journal*, 30(2), 211-227.
<https://search.proquest.com/docview/2479493072>
- Rivera, H., & Li, J. (2019). Hispanic parents' involvement and teachers' empowerment as pathways to Hispanic English Learners' academic performance. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, 41(2), 214-230. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0739986319834931>
- Rivera, L., & Lavan, N. (2012). Family literacy practices and parental involvement of Latin American immigrant mothers. *Journal of Latinos and Education*, 11(4), 247-259.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/15348431.2012.715500>
- Shufflebarger Snell, A. M. (2018). Parent-school engagement in a public elementary school in southern Arizona: Immigrant and refugee parent perspectives. *School Community Journal*, 28(2), 113-135.
<http://www.schoolcommunitynetwork.org/SCJ.aspx>
- Stauss, K., Koh, E., Johnson-Carter, C., & Gonzales-Worthen, D. (2021). OneCommunity Reads: A model for Latino parent-community engagement and its effect on grade-level reading proficiency. *Education and Urban Society*, 53(4), 402-424. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124520928612>
- Tarasawa, B., & Waggoner, J. (2015). Increasing parental involvement of English Language Learner families: What the research says. *Journal of Children and Poverty*, 21(1), 129-134.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10786126.2015.1058243>
- Torres, M. N., & Hurtado-Vivas, R. (2011). Playing fair with Latino parents as parents, not teachers: Beyond family literacy as assisting homework. *Journal of Latinos and Education*, 10(3), 223-244.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/15348431.2011.581108>
- Vera, E., Heineke, A., Camacho, D., Susman Israel, M., Goldberger, N., Clawson, A., Hill, M., & Carr, A. (2016). Prediction school leadership interests in parents of English Learners: An exploratory study. *TESOL Journal*, 7(3), <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.236>

Vera, E. M., Israel, M. S., Coyle, L., Cross, J., Knight-Lynn, L., Moallem, I., Bartucci, G., & Goldberger, N.

(2012). Exploring the educational involvement of parents of English learners. *School Community*

Journal, 22(2), 183–202. <https://www.adi.org/journal/2012fw/VeraEtAlFall2012.pdf>