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Journal of General Education and Humanities
Vol. 5, No. 6, December 2026, pp. 7753 – 7774, https://doi.org/10.58421/gehu.v5i6.2255
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Not What Families Have, but What They Do Together: A Scoping Review of Parent–Child Practices in the Home Literacy Environment of Young Children

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Article Info

Article history:

Received 2026-10-19
Revised 2026-11-19
Accepted 2026-11-21

Keywords:

Early childhood literacy
Home literacy environment
ORIM framework
Parental support
Parent–child interaction
Scoping review

ABSTRACT

Home literacy practices contribute to young children's literacy development through parental support, literacy resources, and parent–child interactions. However, previous research has primarily emphasized resource availability and shared reading frequency, leaving the pedagogical dimensions of parental support and diverse literacy practices underexplored. This study aimed to map empirical research on home literacy practices and examine their representation through the Opportunities, Recognition, Interaction, and Modelling (ORIM) framework and four literacy strands. A scoping review was conducted following Arksey and O'Malley, Levac et al., and PRISMA-ScR guidance. The review included 25 empirical studies published between 2021 and 2026 and indexed in Scopus. Data were analyzed descriptively and thematically using deductive ORIM coding. The findings show that Interaction, particularly shared book reading, dominates the literature, whereas Recognition is rarely explicitly examined and Modelling receives limited attention. Literacy practices also remain predominantly book-oriented, with writing and environmental print underrepresented. This review contributes an integrated mapping of parental support and literacy practices, identifying gaps for future research and family engagement programmes. However, its findings are limited by the inclusion of English-language Scopus-indexed publications.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The home is the first setting in which young children encounter written and spoken language, and the ways in which families support early literacy have long been a central concern of early childhood research. Home learning environments encompass not only material resources but also the practices, activities, and beliefs through which parents

support their children's learning [1]. Within this broader environment, the home literacy environment (HLE) refers to the resources, activities, and interactions that give children literacy experiences at home. Meta-analytic evidence indicates that home-based shared book reading is associated with young children's developmental, language, and vocabulary outcomes [2], and a meta-analysis of 18 studies found that parents' literacy teaching behaviours were more strongly associated with children's English as a second language performance than parental beliefs or home learning resources [3]. According to the home literacy model, parents support early literacy through two partly independent routes: formal teaching about print, for instance of letter names and written words, and informal experiences centred on the meaning of stories [4]. Taken together, these findings suggest that early literacy development is shaped not only by the availability of literacy resources but also by the ways parents organize and participate in literacy-related experiences with their children. Understanding HLE therefore requires attention to both the conditions that make literacy experiences possible and the interactions through which children engage with language, print, and meaning in everyday family life.

Despite this growing body of evidence, much HLE research has operationalized the home environment through counts of books, frequencies of activities, or aggregate scores. Large-scale studies have relied predominantly on parent self-report measures of the home learning environment [5], which capture how often activities occur but say little about how parents and children engage with one another during those activities. Although these measures provide useful information about the availability and frequency of home literacy experiences, they offer a more limited understanding of the pedagogical processes underlying those experiences. For example, the frequency of shared reading does not necessarily indicate whether parents encourage children to express ideas, recognize their literacy attempts, explain unfamiliar words, or invite them to participate in discussions. Treating the HLE mainly as a set of resources risks overlooking what families actually do together, that is, the pedagogical character of everyday literacy at home. This distinction is important because similar literacy activities may involve different forms of parental guidance and different levels of child participation. Consequently, examining the enactment of home literacy practices, rather than simply their presence or frequency, is necessary to understand how literacy learning is supported through everyday parent–child interactions.

A sociocultural perspective provides a lens for examining this pedagogical character. Vygotsky [6] argued that children's higher psychological functions develop through social interaction with more experienced partners, who support children in accomplishing what they cannot yet do alone. From this perspective, literacy development is a socially mediated process in which parents provide guidance, language, cultural tools, and opportunities for children to participate in activities that gradually become more independent. The quality of parent–child interaction is therefore central to understanding how literacy experiences contribute to children's developing knowledge and abilities. In the field of family literacy, Hannon's ORIM framework [7] specifies four ways in which parents can support early literacy: providing Opportunities (materials, time, and space), showing Recognition of children's literacy efforts, Interacting with children in literacy

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activities, and serving as Models of literacy use. These four components can be understood as complementary expressions of sociocultural support in the home. Opportunities establish the conditions and access through which children encounter literacy; Recognition acknowledges children's efforts and encourages their continued participation; Interaction provides opportunities for guided participation, dialogue, and assistance; and Modelling exposes children to literacy practices that they can observe and gradually appropriate. Thus, ORIM translates the broader sociocultural emphasis on socially mediated learning into observable forms of parental support within everyday family activities. Kumar [8] recently operationalized ORIM across four literacy strands (books, environmental print, oral language, and writing) in the 16-item Questionnaire of Home Environment Literacy Practices (Q-HELP), which offers a structured way to describe home literacy as a set of caregiver practices rather than as a stock of materials. The combination of ORIM support types and literacy strands provides an analytical perspective for examining not only how parents support literacy but also the areas of literacy in which such support occurs. It also makes it possible to consider children's participation as part of the interactional processes through which parental support is enacted.

Existing reviews have mostly asked whether HLE components are associated with child outcomes [2], [3]. Less is known about how recent empirical studies describe the enactment of home literacy practices: which forms of parental support they examine, which literacy strands they cover, and how children take part. In particular, the extent to which empirical evidence represents the four ORIM support types across different literacy strands remains insufficiently mapped. This limitation makes it difficult to determine whether research has adequately examined the interactional and pedagogical dimensions of family literacy or has continued to emphasize particular activities and resources. Such a map is needed to judge whether the field's evidence base reflects the full range of practices described by frameworks such as ORIM. It is also relevant to contexts that remain underrepresented in international research. In Indonesia, for example, a qualitative study of parents of children aged 3–6 years described how parents provide literacy resources and activities at home and noted that these practices varied with families' educational and socioeconomic backgrounds [9]; such evidence, however, appears mainly in national journals. This context deserves particular attention because early literacy experiences in Indonesia take place within diverse family, educational, and sociocultural circumstances. Differences in parental educational backgrounds and socioeconomic conditions may shape the resources available to families as well as the ways parents participate in children's literacy activities. Understanding the forms of support provided at home can therefore offer relevant insights for strengthening collaboration between families and early childhood education institutions, particularly in recognizing that literacy development is not solely the responsibility of formal schooling. In a previous scoping review, we mapped empirical studies on home literacy practices in early childhood families broadly and organized them into six descriptive themes, while noting that no included study was conducted in Indonesia [10]. Although that review provided a broad overview of the empirical literature, it did not systematically examine parental support through a theoretically informed classification of interactional practices and literacy strands. The present review addresses

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this limitation by moving beyond the general categorization of home literacy activities to examine how parental support is enacted and represented in empirical research.

This scoping review therefore mapped recent empirical research on home literacy practices in families of young children. It was guided by the main review question: How are home literacy practices enacted in families of young children, as reported in empirical studies published between 2021 and 2026? Three sub-questions were addressed: (1) What are the characteristics of the included studies? (2) What forms of practice and parent–child interaction do the studies describe? (3) How do the reported practices map onto the ORIM support types and the four literacy strands? Compared with the previous review [10], the present review uses a new search that explicitly targets pedagogical interaction, applies a 2021–2026 window, and adds a deductive ORIM analysis; seven of the 25 reports included here were also included in that review. Its novelty lies in the integration of an interaction-focused examination of recent empirical evidence with a deductive analytical mapping based on the four ORIM support types and four literacy strands. Rather than simply updating the scope of the previous review, this approach provides a more specific account of the pedagogical dimensions of home literacy practices and identifies which forms of parental support and literacy experiences have received greater or less empirical attention. The review is limited to journal articles indexed in Scopus and forms part of a larger mixed-methods study that uses Q-HELP to examine home literacy practices among families of young children in Indonesia. The findings are expected to contribute theoretically by clarifying how sociocultural perspectives and the ORIM framework can inform the analysis of parental support in home literacy research. Practically, the review can inform parents, early childhood educators, and researchers about the range of literacy-support practices that may be encouraged in family learning environments. It also provides an international evidence-based reference for the subsequent examination of home literacy practices in Indonesian families, where context-sensitive approaches to strengthening family engagement in early literacy remain important.

2. METHOD

2.1. Research Design

This study employed a scoping review design because its aim was to map how home literacy practices have been studied rather than to estimate pooled effects. The review followed the methodological framework of Arksey and O'Malley [11], as refined by Levac et al. [12], and was reported according to the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR) [13]. This design was appropriate because the review sought to identify the characteristics, scope, and conceptual coverage of empirical research on home literacy practices, including the forms of parental support, parent–child interactions, and literacy strands examined across studies. The unit of analysis was the published report; no human participants were involved.

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2.2. Data Sources and Search Strategy

The search was deliberately restricted to Scopus, a large multidisciplinary abstract and citation database of peer-reviewed literature, so that only Scopus-indexed journal articles were considered and the search could be reproduced with documented limits. Records were exported on 17 October 2026. The search combined three concept blocks (home literacy, early childhood, and pedagogical interaction): TITLE-ABS-KEY (("home literacy environment" OR "home literacy" OR "home literacy practices" OR "home literacy practice" OR "family literacy practices" OR "family literacy practice" OR "home environment literacy") AND ("early childhood" OR "early childhood education" OR preschool OR "preschool children" OR "young children" OR "early years") AND (pedagog* OR "parent-child interaction" OR "parent child interaction" OR "parental support" OR "parental involvement" OR scaffolding OR modeling OR modelling OR "shared reading" OR "shared book reading" OR "guided participation")). Database limits were then applied for subject area (Social Sciences), document type (article), language (English), indexed keyword (Home Literacy Environment), publication stage (final), and source type (journal). The search strategy was designed to identify studies addressing not only the presence of literacy resources and activities but also the pedagogical and interactional dimensions of home literacy practices. The use of a single database and the specified indexing and publication limits, however, means that the resulting evidence represents a defined subset of the available literature rather than an exhaustive collection of all research on home literacy practices. Relevant studies indexed exclusively in other databases, published in languages other than English, or not classified under the selected indexed keyword may therefore not have been captured.

2.3. Eligibility Criteria and Study Selection

Reports were included if they (1) were published between 2021 and 2026; (2) reported primary empirical data (quantitative, qualitative, mixed-methods, or intervention designs); (3) involved children in early childhood, defined as approximately 3–7 years of age, or reported results separately for this age group; and (4) examined home literacy practices or parent–child literacy interaction as a central focus. Studies involving children with disabilities, language impairment, or familial risk of dyslexia were retained when they met these criteria. Reports whose eligibility could not be confirmed from the available information were excluded.

The search identified 192 records, of which 147 were removed by the database limits, leaving 45 records for title and abstract screening. At this stage, 13 records published before 2021 were excluded. The remaining 32 articles were assessed for eligibility. Full texts were retrieved for 16 of these articles; the remaining articles were assessed on the basis of their abstracts and bibliographic information. Seven articles were excluded: one was not a primary empirical study, three involved children outside the target age range, two did not report child age in a way that allowed eligibility to be confirmed, and one did not examine home literacy practice as a central focus. Twenty-five reports were included (Figure 1). Two included reports shared the same authors, sample size, and constructs and appear to draw on the same dataset; they were retained as linked reports and

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are interpreted together. Screening and eligibility decisions were made by the first author against the pre-specified criteria.

The use of abstracts and bibliographic information for some eligibility decisions was necessary because full-text versions could not be retrieved for all potentially relevant articles. Consequently, the level of detail available for assessing eligibility was not uniform across the 32 articles. This procedure may have limited the identification of methodological and contextual details that were not reported in the abstracts or bibliographic records. To maintain transparency, reports were retained only when their eligibility could be established from the available information; articles for which the required information remained unclear were excluded. Furthermore, screening and eligibility assessment were conducted by a single reviewer, which may have increased the possibility of selection bias and subjective interpretation. The application of pre-specified inclusion and exclusion criteria provided a consistent basis for the decisions, although independent duplicate screening was not undertaken. These limitations are considered when interpreting the coverage and completeness of the included evidence.

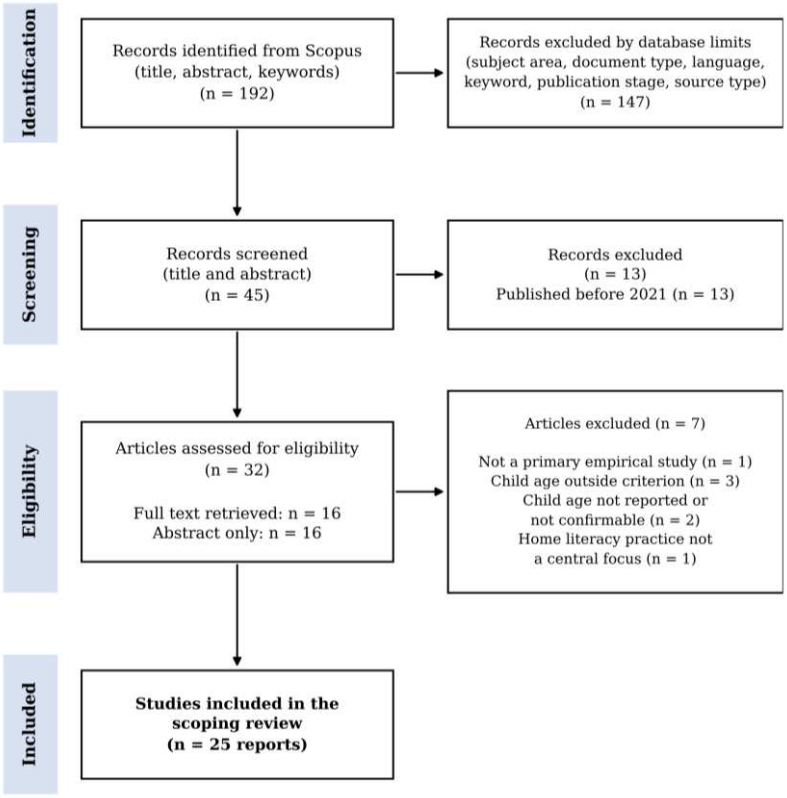


Figure 1. PRISMA-ScR flow diagram of study selection

2.4. Data Charting, Coding, and Synthesis

Data were charted using a structured form covering author, year, country, research design, sample, child age, HLE dimensions examined, practices and interactions described, and main findings. The published reports constituted the secondary data sources, while the structured charting form served as the instrument for extracting and organizing the relevant

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information. Charted data were first summarized descriptively and then synthesized thematically. The descriptive analysis identified the distribution and characteristics of the included reports, whereas the thematic synthesis organized the reported home literacy practices according to recurring forms of parental support and parent–child interaction.

In addition, the practices examined in each report were coded deductively against the ORIM framework [7], [8]: provision of materials, access, time, or language exposure was coded as Opportunities; joint activities such as shared reading, storytelling, talk, teaching, and media co-use were coded as Interaction; praise or explicit valuing of children's literacy efforts was coded as Recognition; and parents' own visible literacy behaviour was coded as Modelling. The coding process involved examining the descriptions of home literacy practices and identifying the specific parental behaviours or forms of support reported in each study. Each reported practice was assigned to an ORIM category according to its described function rather than solely according to the activity's name. For example, access to books was classified as Opportunities because it concerned the availability of literacy resources, whereas reading books together was classified as Interaction because it involved joint parent–child engagement. Similarly, praise or acknowledgement of a child's literacy attempts was classified as Recognition, while parents reading or writing in front of their children was classified as Modelling. This distinction was intended to maintain conceptual consistency when categorizing practices that could involve similar literacy activities but different forms of parental support.

Literacy strands (books, writing, environmental print, oral language) were coded only when explicitly reported, and digital literacy was recorded as an additional category. The four literacy strands were treated as distinct analytical dimensions rather than as mutually exclusive categories. Accordingly, a study could contribute evidence to more than one literacy strand when multiple forms of literacy engagement were explicitly described. Digital literacy was recorded separately to capture technology-mediated literacy experiences without treating it as a replacement for the four established strands. Practices and literacy strands were not inferred when the available descriptions did not provide sufficient evidence. Consistent with scoping review methodology, no formal quality appraisal was conducted, and correlational findings were not interpreted as causal.

2.5. Methodological Transparency and Ethical Considerations

The review relied exclusively on published research reports and did not involve direct recruitment, intervention, or data collection from human participants. Therefore, the analysis focused on the reporting and synthesis of existing empirical evidence. The absence of a formal quality appraisal is consistent with the mapping purpose of the scoping review; accordingly, the inclusion of a study should not be interpreted as an endorsement of its methodological quality. The use of a single database, partial full-text retrieval, and single-reviewer screening also represents methodological limitations that may influence the comprehensiveness and reproducibility of the review.

Generative AI tools were used only in a supporting role, to help summarize retrieved full texts and organize the charted data; all eligibility, coding, and interpretive

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decisions were made by the authors, who checked the charted data and citations against the original sources (see the AI Disclosure Statement).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Characteristics of the Included Studies

The 25 included reports were published between 2021 and 2026, with 16 of them appearing in 2025 or 2026, suggesting an increase in recent research attention to home literacy practices. The studies were conducted in China (n = 5), Singapore (n = 2), the United States (n = 2), and one each in Malaysia, Israel, the United Arab Emirates, Türkiye, Portugal, Ireland, Greece, Germany, Luxembourg, Denmark, and Kenya; five reports did not state the country in the information available. No included study was conducted in Indonesia. This geographical distribution indicates that the available evidence is concentrated in a limited number of national contexts, particularly China, while several regions remain represented by only one study. Most reports used quantitative designs: 13 were cross-sectional surveys or correlational studies, five were longitudinal quantitative studies, three were mixed-methods studies, three relied on coded observation of parent–child interaction, and one was a family-mediated intervention. No report used a purely qualitative design. Sample sizes ranged from three parent–child dyads [14] to 7,110 children in a national cohort [15]. Four reports focused on children with disabilities, speech or language impairment, attentional difficulties, or familial risk of dyslexia [14], [16]–[18]. The characteristics of each report are presented in Table 1.

Three patterns are particularly evident in the characteristics of the included studies. First, quantitative approaches predominate, indicating that recent research has largely examined home literacy through measurable activities, parental reports, and associations with children's developmental outcomes. Second, studies using direct observation of parent–child interaction remain relatively limited, despite the importance of interactional processes in understanding how literacy support is enacted. Third, the geographical distribution reveals a substantial gap in the representation of different sociocultural contexts. The absence of Indonesian studies is particularly relevant because family literacy practices may vary according to household language use, parental educational backgrounds, socioeconomic circumstances, and culturally embedded literacy activities. These characteristics provide the context for interpreting the thematic findings and the distribution of ORIM support types.

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Table 1. Characteristics of the included reports

No	Author (year)	Country	Design and sample	Practices examined	ORIM	Strand
1	Meoded Karabanov & Aram (2026) [19]	Israel	Mixed methods; 121 parents and preschool children	Joint digital and traditional literacy activities; parental selection of digital content	O, I	B, W, D
2	Peixoto et al. (2022) [21]	Portugal	Longitudinal observation; 57 mother–child dyads (end of preschool to Grade 1)	Maternal interactive behaviour during storybook reading; maternal literacy beliefs	I	B
3	Li et al. (2026) [22]	China	Survey, SEM; 490 children aged 3–7	Home literacy resources and screen exposure	O	B, D
4	Huo et al. (2025) [23]	NR	Longitudinal; 197 preschoolers	Maternal and paternal HLE; children's reading attitudes	NS	NS
5	Lu et al. (2026) [24]	China	Longitudinal; 416 preschoolers	HLE, screen time, joint media engagement	I	D
6	Li et al. (2025) [20]	China	Survey, PLS-SEM; 405 caregivers	Parental beliefs; English learning activities and resources	O, I	B
7	Rahn et al. (2023) [16]	USA	Correlational; 57 children aged 3–6 with disabilities	Parent beliefs; modelling writing; communication	I, M	W, OL
8	Conica et al. (2023) [15]	Ireland	National cohort; 7,110 children (HLE at age 3)	Formal and informal home literacy activities	I	B
9	Skibbe et al. (2025) [17]	NR	Survey, CFA; 1,046 children aged 3–6 (with and without speech/language impairment)	Print-related activities, shared reading, literacy games	I	B
10	Abiyo et al. (2025) [25]	Kenya	Mixed methods; 40 preschoolers and parents	Shared reading, book access, guided questioning	O, I	B, OL
11	Haktanir & Ivrendi (2026) [26]	Türkiye	Survey; 316 parents	Home support for literacy and mathematics	I	NS
12	Li et al. (2024) [27]	China	Survey, PLS-SEM; 405 caregivers (linked to [20])	Formal and informal English activities; resources	O, I	B
13	Zhang et al. (2025) [28]	UAE	Survey, SEM; 242 parents of children aged 4–6	Parent expectations, practices, and home resources	O, I	NS

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No	Author (year)	Country	Design and sample	Practices examined	ORIM	Strand
14	Avcı & Yalman Polatlar (2026) [14]	NR	Intervention; 3 parent–child dyads	Family-mediated home literacy program; interaction patterns	I	NS
15	Grigorakis et al. (2025) [29]	Greece	Longitudinal; 160 children (kindergarten to Grade 2)	Code-related and meaning-related activities; resources	O, I	B
16	Dan & Mahfoodh (2025) [30]	China	Survey; 975 parents	Bilingual resources; parental reading habits; shared reading	O, I, M	B
17	Hamilton et al. (2021) [18]	NR	Coded observation; 31 mother–child dyads, ages 3–4	Talk and affective quality during shared reading	I	B, OL
18	Valcárcel Jiménez et al. (2026) [31]	Germany	Longitudinal; 500 preschoolers	Quantity and quality of formal and informal activities	I	NS
19	Aleksic & Duruș (2025) [32]	Luxembourg	Mixed methods; 595 parents and 32 interviews	Books, parent involvement, shared reading in home languages	O, I	B, OL
20	Turco et al. (2023) [33]	USA	Coded observation; 65 families of 3-year-olds	Dialogic talk and engagement during e-book reading	I	B, D
21	Højen et al. (2021) [34]	Denmark	Survey; 5,791 children aged 4–6	Book exposure and preliteracy activities	O, I	B
22	Jin et al. (2026) [35]	Malaysia	Survey; 523 parents of children aged 4–6	Resources; shared reading, storytelling, conversational scaffolding	O, I	B, OL
23	Kim et al. (2022) [36]	NR	Correlational; 45 parent–child dyads	Parent questions and repeated reading; child participation	I	B
24	Sun et al. (2024) [37]	Singapore	Survey; 185 preschoolers (and 233 primary pupils)	Shared book reading; parental literacy involvement	I	B
25	Cheng & Sun (2026) [38]	Singapore	Survey; 39 families of children aged 5–6	Shared reading quantity, language allocation, reading orientation	O, I	B

Note. NR = country not reported in the information available; NS = not specified. ORIM: O = Opportunities, R = Recognition, I = Interaction, M = Modelling. Strand: B = books, W = writing, EP = environmental print, OL = oral language, D = digital.

3.2. Shared Book Reading as the Dominant Form of Interaction

Interaction was the most frequently examined form of parental support, appearing in 23 of the 25 reports, and shared book reading was its most common form. This pattern indicates that shared reading functions as the principal empirical context through which researchers have examined parent–child literacy interaction. Nevertheless, the studies differed considerably in how they conceptualized and measured interaction, ranging from

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https://doi.org/10.58421/gehu.v5i6.2255 7763

the frequency of shared activities to the quality of parental language, questioning, and children's participation. Several studies went beyond the frequency of reading to examine what happens during it. Observational studies coded maternal interactive behaviour during storybook reading [21], the meaning-related and print-related talk that mothers and children produced around familiar and unfamiliar books [18], and the dialogic talk and engagement of parents reading e-books with three-year-olds [33]. Hamilton et al. [18] found that mothers offered more concrete meaning-related talk when introducing an unfamiliar book, whereas children contributed more talk when the book was familiar, which suggests that the interactional texture of shared reading shifts with the material and with children's growing ownership of it. Turco et al. [33] identified three distinct parent profiles during e-book reading, showing that a single activity label can conceal very different interactional practices.

These observational findings provide an important distinction between the occurrence of an activity and the pedagogical quality of the interaction within it. Studies that separated the quantity and quality of home literacy activity point in the same direction. In a German longitudinal sample, both the quantity of formal and informal activities and the quality of parent–child interaction were partly associated with preschool vocabulary, phonological awareness, and letter knowledge [31]. Kim et al. [36] reported that parents' use of questions during book reading correlated with children's receptive vocabulary, while frequent and repeated reading correlated with expressive vocabulary. In an Irish cohort, informal home literacy activities at age three, rather than formal teaching, showed positive associations with later language and numeracy outcomes [15]. Findings were not uniform, however: shared book reading predicted early literacy skills only for typically developing children and with modest effects [17], and among Singaporean bilingual children, shared reading was the only significant HLE predictor of receptive vocabulary for preschoolers [37].

The differences across these findings suggest that the relationship between shared reading and children's literacy outcomes is not uniform across developmental and linguistic contexts. The relevance of shared reading may depend on the nature of parental engagement, children's developmental characteristics, language exposure, and the literacy outcome being examined. Taken together, these studies indicate that the effectiveness of shared reading cannot be inferred from its frequency alone. Rather, the evidence points to the importance of examining how parents communicate, provide explanations, ask questions, and respond to children's contributions during shared literacy activities.

3.3. Beyond What Families Have: Resources and Interaction

Opportunities, mostly in the form of books and other literacy materials, were examined in 12 reports, typically alongside interaction. The findings show that material access and parental engagement are related but analytically distinct dimensions of the home literacy environment. Resources were consistently relevant: home literacy resources mediated the association between maternal education and children's vocabulary [22], book exposure was related to Danish language and preliteracy skills, especially for children learning a minority language at home [34], and low-income families in China faced greater

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challenges in access to bilingual materials [30]. In rural Kenya, children who had experienced shared reading produced longer and more detailed narratives than children without book access, and guided questioning further enriched their storytelling [25].

These findings indicate that access to literacy resources can provide an important foundation for children's literacy experiences, although access alone does not describe how those resources are used. Where resources and interactional practices were examined together, interaction was often the more direct correlate of children's outcomes, while resources operated indirectly. In multilingual Malaysian households, interactional strategies such as shared reading, bilingual storytelling, vocabulary explanation, and conversational scaffolding were more strongly associated with parent-reported English proficiency than material access alone [35]. In Greece, code-related parent activities had a direct effect on children's morphological awareness, whereas access to literacy resources contributed indirectly through emergent literacy skills [29]. In the United Arab Emirates, parent practices carried the effect of parent expectations on children's learning dispositions, and home resources in turn mediated the effect of practices [28].

Although these studies differ in their analytical approaches and outcome measures, they collectively suggest that the relationship between literacy resources and children's development may operate through the activities and interactions that resources make possible. This interpretation is consistent with a sociocultural perspective, in which learning opportunities are mediated through participation in socially organized activities rather than through exposure to materials alone [6]. These patterns support the central argument of this review: what families do together appears to matter at least as much as what they have, although the predominantly cross-sectional and correlational designs do not permit causal conclusions.

3.4. Parental Beliefs and Expectations as Drivers of Practice

A third group of findings concerned the beliefs and expectations that shape parents' practices. Maternal literacy beliefs contributed to both the quantity and the quality of home literacy experiences beyond maternal education [21]. Parental expectations influenced children's learning dispositions through parent practices [28], and parental beliefs about early English learning shaped the HLE, which in turn related to Chinese preschoolers' attitudes towards English [20], [27]. In families of children with disabilities in Appalachia, children's literacy screening scores were associated with parents' modelling of writing and communication rather than with parents' reading beliefs [16]. Paternal HLE variables also uniquely predicted the development of preschoolers' reading attitudes [23], yet this was the only report to distinguish fathers' from mothers' contributions. Family language decisions are a related consideration: Singaporean Chinese parents valued Chinese reading but read mainly in English, so that their ideal language allocation exceeded their actual practice [38].

Taken together, these findings suggest that parental beliefs and expectations are important contextual factors in understanding differences in home literacy practices. However, beliefs do not necessarily translate directly into everyday behaviour. The discrepancy between parents' preferred and actual language allocation in Singaporean

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families [38], for example, illustrates how language expectations may be shaped by practical family circumstances and language-use patterns. Similarly, the distinct contribution of paternal HLE variables [23] highlights the importance of considering multiple caregivers rather than treating parental involvement as exclusively maternal.

The limited number of studies examining fathers and the emphasis on parental beliefs as predictors also reveal an opportunity for more detailed research into how different caregivers negotiate literacy responsibilities, select literacy activities, and respond to children's interests. Such research would provide a more comprehensive account of family literacy as a shared process involving different members of the household.

3.5. Digital Media as an Emerging Literacy Space

Four reports addressed digital literacy. Joint parent–child digital literacy activities were the strongest predictor of Israeli preschoolers' interest in digital literacy, and digital and traditional practices were positively related [19]. In China, screen exposure was negatively associated with vocabulary growth, but a rich HLE buffered this association and joint media engagement supplemented vocabulary development in low-literacy families [24]; screen exposure also formed a negative pathway between maternal education and vocabulary [22]. During e-book reading, parent interaction profiles differed in speech quality, dialogic talk, and engagement [33].

These findings distinguish passive screen exposure from digitally mediated literacy activities involving parental participation. Although screen exposure was associated with less favourable vocabulary patterns in some studies, joint engagement and the quality of parent–child interaction represented different dimensions of digital literacy experiences. Across these studies, the presence of digital media mattered less than whether parents and children used it together, which extends the interactional view of home literacy to digital contexts.

However, the limited number of studies addressing digital literacy suggests that its role in contemporary home literacy environments remains underexplored. Future investigations should distinguish between different types of digital activities, the literacy content accessed, parental mediation, and children's active participation. This distinction is important because screen exposure, shared e-book reading, and joint digital storytelling should not automatically be treated as equivalent literacy experiences.

3.6. Children as Participants in Home Literacy

Ten reports considered children's side of home literacy, through measures of interest, attitude, participation, or agency. Children's positive and active participation during book reading explained receptive vocabulary [36], children contributed more extra-textual talk with familiar books [18], and parent interviews in Luxembourg highlighted children's agency and described shared reading as a well-being moment that mostly took place in home languages [32]. A small family-mediated intervention reported gains in children's task engagement alongside improvements in parents' literacy-supportive behaviour [14]. Children's own perspectives, however, were collected directly in only one

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study [19]; in the remaining reports, children's participation was inferred from parent reports, observation, or child outcomes.

This pattern reveals an important imbalance in the way children's roles have been represented in home literacy research. Although several studies recognized children's participation, interest, and agency, relatively few directly examined how children themselves experienced and interpreted literacy activities at home. Most evidence was derived from parental reports, observational records, or developmental outcomes. Consequently, children's perspectives may remain less visible than the practices and beliefs of their caregivers.

From a sociocultural perspective, children should not be understood merely as recipients of parental literacy support. They actively contribute to interactions through questions, responses, preferences, and emerging literacy attempts. The findings on children's increased contributions during familiar book reading [18] and their agency in multilingual family reading practices [32] illustrate this reciprocal dimension of home literacy. More direct attention to children's voices and choices would therefore help clarify how parental support is negotiated and how children participate in shaping everyday literacy experiences.

3.7. Mapping Practices onto ORIM and the Literacy Strands

Table 2 summarizes how the 25 reports map onto the ORIM framework and the four literacy strands. The distribution is markedly uneven. Interaction was examined in 23 reports and Opportunities in 12, whereas Modelling appeared in only two [16], [30] and Recognition of children's literacy efforts was not examined explicitly in any report. Books were the dominant strand (18 reports), followed by oral language (5) and writing (2); no report examined environmental print. Digital literacy, which is not a separate strand in the original framework, appeared in four reports. Code-related activities such as teaching letters and sounds were reported in four studies [17], [29], [31], [34].

The distribution indicates that recent empirical research has concentrated primarily on Interaction and Opportunities, with substantially less attention to Modelling and Recognition. This imbalance is also evident across the literacy strands, where books dominate the empirical evidence while writing and environmental print receive limited or no explicit attention. The pattern suggests that the current evidence base represents only part of the broader range of parental support and literacy experiences described by the ORIM framework and the Q-HELP literacy dimensions [8].

Importantly, the absence of an explicitly coded ORIM category does not establish that the corresponding parental practice is absent from family life. Rather, it indicates that the included reports did not explicitly operationalize, measure, or describe that form of support in sufficient detail to be classified under the category. For example, Recognition may occur during everyday reading and writing activities without being identified as a distinct research construct. Similarly, Modelling may be embedded in parents' routine literacy behaviour but remain unmeasured when studies focus primarily on shared activities.

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Table 2. Distribution of the included reports across ORIM support types and literacy strands (n = 25)

Category	Reports (n)	How the category appeared
Opportunities (O)	12	Books and literacy resources, digital content, language exposure
Recognition (R)	0	Not examined explicitly
Interaction (I)	23	Shared reading, storytelling, talk, questioning, co-use of media
Modelling (M)	2	Modelling writing; parental reading habits
Books (B)	18	Shared book reading, book exposure, e-books
Writing (W)	2	Modelling writing; children's digital writing
Environmental print (EP)	0	Not examined
Oral language (OL)	5	Storytelling, conversation, home-language talk
Digital (D)	4	Joint media engagement, e-books, screen exposure
Not specified (NS)	1 (ORIM); 5 (strand)	HLE reported without detail

Note. A report can be coded in more than one category; categories are therefore not mutually exclusive.

The absence of Recognition and the limited representation of Modelling warrant particular attention because these dimensions capture aspects of parental support that are not fully represented by the frequency of shared activities. Recognition concerns how parents acknowledge and respond to children's literacy attempts, whereas Modelling concerns how children observe literacy being used by adults in everyday situations. Their underrepresentation may partly reflect the dominant use of surveys and activity-frequency measures, which are more readily suited to recording the occurrence of shared reading or access to books than to documenting subtle interactional processes and parental literacy behaviour.

The same issue applies to environmental print and writing. The concentration on books may reflect the established position of shared reading as a conventional indicator of HLE, while other literacy experiences, such as reading labels, signs, packaging, household notes, and producing written messages, may be less frequently operationalized in research instruments. This imbalance suggests that future studies should broaden the measurement of home literacy beyond book-centred activities.

3.8. Discussion

3.8.1. Home Literacy as a Sociocultural and Pedagogical Process

The central finding of this review is that recent research largely treats home literacy as something parents and children do together, but within a narrow band of practice. Consistent with a sociocultural view in which children learn through guided interaction with more experienced partners [6], the included studies repeatedly located the most informative variation in the quality of talk, questioning, and scaffolding during shared activities rather than in the mere presence of materials [18], [31], [35], [36]. This supports reframing the HLE as a pedagogical practice.

The findings extend this perspective by showing that the pedagogical dimension of home literacy is not captured adequately by the frequency of activities alone. Parents may engage in the same activity, such as shared reading, but differ in how they explain

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vocabulary, ask questions, respond to children's contributions, and encourage independent participation. These variations are consistent with the sociocultural emphasis on learning through guided participation and social mediation [6]. The relevant unit of analysis is therefore not simply the activity itself but also the interactional processes through which children participate in it.

The ORIM framework [7] provides a useful way of translating this theoretical perspective into observable dimensions of family literacy support. Opportunities establish the conditions for literacy engagement, Interaction enables shared meaning-making and guidance, Recognition acknowledges children's efforts, and Modelling exposes children to literacy practices in everyday life. The present findings suggest that empirical research has concentrated on the first two dimensions, while the latter two have received substantially less explicit attention. Thus, although existing research recognizes the importance of parent–child engagement, it does not yet represent the full range of sociocultural support that may occur in family literacy environments.

3.8.2. Underrepresentation of Recognition, Modelling, and Non-Book Literacy Practices

At the same time, the ORIM mapping shows that two of Hannon's four forms of support [7], recognition of children's literacy efforts and parental modelling, are almost invisible in the recent evidence base, and that writing and environmental print, two of the four strands operationalized in Q-HELP [8], are rarely or never examined. Everyday practices such as praising a child's attempt to write a name, reading signs and labels together, or letting children see parents read and write therefore remain largely unexamined.

This underrepresentation should be interpreted as a limitation of the available research and its measurement approaches rather than evidence that these practices are uncommon in families. Recognition may be difficult to capture through general frequency-based questionnaires because it involves the specific ways parents respond to children's emerging literacy efforts. Similarly, Modelling may occur incidentally in everyday routines, such as reading instructions, writing shopping lists, or using written communication, and may not be recognized as a distinct literacy-support activity by either researchers or respondents. These practices may therefore require more detailed observational methods, interviews, and context-sensitive measurement instruments.

The limited coverage of writing and environmental print also indicates that the empirical concept of home literacy remains strongly book-centred. Although shared reading is an important literacy activity, children's encounters with written language extend beyond books into household objects, signs, labels, digital communication, and everyday writing. Expanding research to these experiences would provide a more comprehensive representation of the literacy opportunities available within family environments.

3.8.3. Geographic Representation and the Indonesian Context

Several features of the evidence base qualify these conclusions. First, most studies relied on parent reports, which echoes earlier concerns about self-report measurement of the home learning environment [5], and only three reports were built around coded

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observation of parent–child interaction [18], [21], [33]. Second, the predominance of cross-sectional and correlational designs means that associations between interaction and child outcomes cannot be interpreted causally; the single intervention study involved only three dyads [14]. Third, the geographic distribution was uneven, and no study was conducted in Indonesia.

The geographical imbalance has implications for the transferability of the evidence. Home literacy practices are embedded in family language use, cultural expectations, educational experiences, and socioeconomic conditions. Findings from multilingual and bilingual settings demonstrate that the language in which parents read, the availability of reading materials, and the ways families organize literacy activities may differ across household contexts [32], [34], [35], [38]. Consequently, patterns identified in studies conducted in other countries should not be assumed to represent the experiences of Indonesian families without further empirical examination.

Given that home literacy practices are shaped by language ecologies, family beliefs, and socioeconomic conditions, as the multilingual and bilingual studies in this review illustrate [32], [34], [35], [38], findings from other contexts cannot be transferred directly to Indonesian families, whose practices have so far been documented mainly in national journals [9].

The Indonesian context is particularly relevant because family literacy may involve interactions between formal literacy practices, oral traditions, home languages, and culturally situated everyday activities. Differences in parental educational backgrounds and socioeconomic resources may also influence access to books and digital materials, as well as opportunities for parents to participate in literacy activities. Therefore, the absence of Indonesian studies from the present Scopus-indexed corpus should be interpreted as a gap in the internationally indexed evidence examined by this review, not as proof that empirical research on Indonesian home literacy does not exist.

This distinction is important for early childhood education in Indonesia. Research that examines how parents support children's literacy through storytelling, conversation, shared reading, recognition of literacy attempts, and everyday writing could provide a more context-sensitive understanding of family engagement. Such evidence could also help early childhood educators develop family literacy initiatives that acknowledge different household resources, language practices, and cultural experiences rather than relying exclusively on book provision.

3.8.4. Implications for Research and Early Childhood Education Practice

These findings have implications for research and practice. For research, studies of home literacy should measure the full range of parental support, including recognition and modelling, and should cover writing, oral language, and environmental print as well as books. Instruments structured around ORIM, such as Q-HELP [8], offer one way to do so, and mixed-methods designs that combine such instruments with interviews or observation could capture how practices are enacted in different families.

Future measurement approaches should distinguish the availability of literacy resources from the ways parents and children use them. Researchers could, for example,

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assess whether parents provide access to books and writing materials, recognize children's attempts to read or write, engage in joint literacy activities, and demonstrate literacy use through everyday behaviour. Combining structured questionnaires with observations and parent interviews would allow researchers to examine both the frequency and the quality of these practices. Directly including children's perspectives would further strengthen understanding of their interests, choices, and participation.

For practice, early childhood educators working with families may find it more useful to support how parents read, talk, and write with their children than to focus only on providing books, a conclusion consistent with the book-access and interaction findings reviewed here [25], [35].

At the family level, practical support could include encouraging parents to ask open-ended questions during shared reading, discuss pictures and unfamiliar words, invite children to retell stories, acknowledge their attempts to recognize letters or write words, and involve them in reading everyday print such as labels and signs. Parents can also model literacy by allowing children to observe routine reading and writing activities, including reading messages, making lists, and writing notes. These activities do not necessarily require expensive materials and may be adapted to different household resources and language backgrounds.

At the institutional level, early childhood educators can strengthen home–school collaboration by providing practical demonstrations of interactive reading, suggesting accessible home literacy activities, and encouraging parents to use familiar household materials and home languages as literacy resources. For Indonesian early childhood education institutions, such approaches may help connect classroom literacy experiences with the linguistic and cultural practices of families.

3.8.5. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

By design, this review was limited to journal articles indexed in Scopus and written in English. Relevant studies indexed only in other databases, such as ERIC or Web of Science, and studies published in Indonesian national journals may therefore have been missed, which partly explains the absence of Indonesian studies in the corpus. Full texts could be retrieved for only part of the eligible articles, and eligibility decisions and data charting for the remaining articles relied on abstracts. Coding against ORIM and the literacy strands was based on how the reports described their measures and may underestimate practices that were measured but not reported in detail. Screening and coding were conducted by a single reviewer, whereas independent double screening is recommended for scoping reviews [12]. Finally, seven included reports overlap with our previous review [10], although the search, period, and analytic framework differ.

These limitations should be considered when interpreting the completeness and distribution of the mapped evidence. The single-database and English-language restrictions may have reduced the representation of research conducted in non-English-speaking contexts. The partial availability of full texts may also have limited access to detailed methodological information and descriptions of parental practices. Furthermore, single-reviewer screening and coding may have introduced subjective decisions, while the

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deductive ORIM classification depended on the level of detail provided by the original reports. The reported frequencies therefore reflect explicitly documented practices rather than the actual prevalence of those practices in families.

Future research should expand database coverage and include studies published in national and regional journals to improve geographical representation. Empirical studies in Indonesia are particularly needed to examine how household language practices, parental educational backgrounds, socioeconomic circumstances, and cultural activities shape home literacy experiences. Longitudinal and intervention studies with larger and more diverse samples could also help clarify how different forms of parental support relate to children's literacy development over time. In addition, observational and qualitative approaches are needed to investigate Recognition, Modelling, writing, and environmental print, which remain underrepresented in the current evidence base. Independent screening and multiple-reviewer coding would also strengthen the methodological transparency and reproducibility of future reviews.

4. CONCLUSION

This scoping review mapped empirical research on home literacy practices among families of young children, focusing on parental support, parent–child interactions, and literacy strands. The findings show that home literacy research predominantly emphasizes Interaction, particularly shared book reading, while Recognition and Modelling remain underexplored. Literacy activities are also largely book-centred, with limited attention to writing and environmental print. This review contributes an integrated mapping of parental support through the ORIM framework and four literacy strands, revealing gaps that extend beyond the availability of resources and frequency of activities. These findings highlight the need for family engagement programmes that encourage parents to recognize children's literacy efforts, model reading and writing, and engage in diverse everyday literacy interactions. Nevertheless, the findings are limited by the use of English-language Scopus-indexed articles, partial full-text availability, and single-reviewer screening and coding. Future research should examine Indonesian families, considering parental education, socioeconomic circumstances, home languages, and cultural practices, while investigating underrepresented dimensions through longitudinal, observational, and mixed-methods approaches. Overall, understanding home literacy requires greater attention to the quality, diversity, and cultural context of everyday parent–child interactions.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank the Teacher Education Study Program, School of Postgraduate Studies, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, for its academic support. The full data-charting table is available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

AI DISCLOSURE STATEMENT

The authors were responsible for the conception and design of this review, the formulation of the research question, the Scopus search, the screening and eligibility assessment, the retrieval of the included articles, the selection of the ORIM framework and

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literacy strands as the analytic lens, and all final analytical and interpretive decisions. During the preparation of this work, the authors used ChatGPT (OpenAI) to help summarize the retrieved full texts and Claude (Anthropic) to support data organization, drafting, and English-language editing. After using these tools, the authors reviewed and verified the content against the original sources, revised it as needed, and take full responsibility for the content of the publication.

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