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## ABSTRACT

This annotated bibliography, a project undertaken by graduate students enrolled in a comparative reading course at Northern Illinois University, supplements and updates E. Malmquist's annotated bibliography, "Handbook on Comparative Reading." The bibliography contains 188 annotations drawn from a range of articles, chapters, and texts addressing cross-cultural, cross-national education from various philosophical and pedagogical viewpoints. The bibliography is divided into 9 sections: (1) "Adult Literacy in the Third World"; (2) "Social, Cultural and Economic Issues"; (3) "Beginning Reading around the World"; (4) "Reading in Africa"; (5) "Reading in China"; (6) "Reading in Great Britain"; (7) "Reading in Japan"; (8) "Reading in Scandinavia"; and (9) Reading in the Soviet Union." At the end of each section there is a cross reference to other abstracts that relate to the respective section. In a few cases, sources are abstracted twice to reflect the subject or country serving as the section head. An appendix of a course reference list is attached. (MS)

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College Reading and Learning Assistance

Technical Report No. 88-05

Comparative Reading: An Annotated Bibliography

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## INTRODUCTION

International cross-cultural interest in reading pedagogy has been of importance to reading researchers and educators for a period of nearly 35 years. W.S. Gray (1956) demonstrated the feasibility of the world-wide view of reading with his classic text, The Teaching of Reading and Writing. During the next decade the I.R.A. further promoted the international perspective via the introduction of the World Congress. Then in 1968 the international perspective began to take on the nature of an academic speciality as John Downing coined the term "comparative reading" to label this emerging area of research and study.

During the early 1970's international organizations such as the I.E.A. sponsored large scale comparative reading studies (e.g., Purves, Foshay & Hanson, 1973; Thorndike, 1973) and at least one group of independent scholars (Downing, 1973) joined together to undertake "a critical and an empirical" analysis of comparative reading studies.

Numerous studies of lesser breadth, but of no less importance, were reported by Malmquist (1982) in the I.R.A. annotated bibliography entitled Handbook on Comparative Reading. In this annotated bibliography the contributors presented listings that centered on (1) the "Methodology of Comparative Education and Comparative Reading," (2) "Studies and Descriptive Reports" and (3) "Reviews and Descriptions of the State of Art Regarding Research and/or the Teaching of Reading."

Building upon this foundation are new cross-national, cross-cultural investigations. These new generation comparative studies are designed to update past findings, to investigate new areas of interest and to involve national groups not involved previously with such research. The new reports may also be viewed from a more politicized vantage as the works of Paulo Freire and Ivan Illich, among others, have lead us into an era of cross-cultural equality in philosophy and practice as opposed to the educational version of Kipling's "white man's burden" so prevalent in the earlier years. Indeed the field has come full circle so that as Downing had hoped, we have come to understand that it is through the cross-cultural, cross-national investigation of educational factors that we can often view our respective national practices from new vantage points.

Graduate students enrolled in CIRE 613: Comparative Reading at Northern Illinois University had just such an opportunity during the Summer of 1988. The following annotated bibliography is one of the projects undertaken by those enrolled in the course. It was the contributors' desire both to supplement and to update Malmquist's (1982) earlier work. As you read through this new reference work you will find annotations drawn from a range of articles, chapters and texts addressing cross-cultural, cross-national education from various philosophical and pedagogical viewpoints. In a sense, this work serves as a bridge between two eras. We trust that you will find this annotated bibliography to be of value to you.

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Section I: Adult Literacy

Arnové, R. (1981). The Nicaraguan national literacy crusade of 1980. Comparative Education Review 25, 244-260. (1)

This article describes the implementation and outcomes of the National Literacy Campaign in Nicaragua in 1980. 60,000 tutors of all ages served in Sandinista Literacy Units nationwide. The program has generated impressive results.

Arnové, R. & Graff, H. (Eds.). (1987). National literacy campaigns: Historical and comparative perspectives. New York: Plenum Press. (2)

This text is a comprehensive collection of essays dealing with literacy efforts worldwide, past and present. The editors believe that contemporary literacy campaigns can be better understood in an historical and comparative perspective. Six of the essays are historical treatments; seven profile relatively recent efforts. In each, the focus is on the contexts, goals, mechanisms, organization, materials and methods, teachers, and consequences of campaigns.

Bataille, L. (Ed.). (1976). A turning point for literacy. Oxford: Pergamon Press. (3)

This book collects the proceedings of the International Symposium for Literacy held in Persepolis, Iran, in 1975. Papers are arranged around four themes: a review of the preceding ten years; the functionality of literacy; changes in living conditions and in social structures as a requisite of literacy undertakings; and the innovative role of literacy experiments and their integration into the global educational process.

Berube, M. (1984). Education and poverty: Effective schooling in the United States and Cuba. Westport, CT.: Greenwood Press. (4)

This comparative study of the American effective schools movement and a socialist educational system examines the successes of the Cuban literacy campaign and subsequent changes made in Cuban urban education as they can impact the effective schools movement in the U.S. Changes in U.S. educational and political policy are recommended.

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\*At the end of each section there is a cross reference to other abstracts that relate to the respective section. The numbering scheme first lists the section and then the abstract's number in that section (e.g., 1.2 refers to section 1, article #2). In a few cases, sources are abstracted twice to reflect the subject or country serving as the section head.

Bhola, H. (1983). The promise of literacy: Campaigns, programs and projects. Report to the International Seminar on Campaigning for Literacy, Udaipur, India, 1982. Bonn, West Germany: German Foundation for International Development. (5)

Reports on successful literacy campaigns in Somalia, Tanzania, Burma, Vietnam and Cuba and on emerging campaigns in Botswana, Ethiopia, Iraq, Kenya, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Zambia, Bangladesh, India, Thailand and Nicaragua. Possibilities of transfer of experiences across the various countries, plans of individual nations, and possibilities of international cooperation are discussed. Bibliography included.

Cardenal, F., & Miller, V. (1982). Nicaragua, 1980: The battle of the ABCs. Harvard Educational Review 51, 1-26. (6)

This article is a first-hand account of the massive Nicaraguan literacy campaign. The political rationale and organizational tasks of the National Literacy Crusade are described. Commitment to literacy and liberation by both the people and the government is noted as the critical factor in the success of the program.

Carron, G., & Bordia, A. (Eds.). (1985). Issues in planning and implementing national literacy programmes. Paris: UNESCO. (7)

This is a collection of papers presented at the Workshop on Planning and Implementing Literacy and Post-Literacy Strategies in Madrid, Spain, in 1982. Papers deal with specific programs in China, Nicaragua, Vietnam, Kenya, India, Indonesia, Tanzania, Nepal and Brazil. In addition, general international trends and issues are discussed.

De Jardon, L. (1983). Mexico's national literacy programme. Media in Education and Development 16(1), 13. (8)

The author of this article works for PRONALF, Mexico's Programa Nacional de Alfabetización, established in July, 1981. She discusses PRONALF's success in the first year (serving 700,000 adults), and its evolution as part of the National Institute of Adult Education. The main thrust of the article is the description of how printed media, television and radio are used to further literacy efforts for adults.

Given, N. (1984). The British concept of success in adult literacy. Adult Literacy and Basic Education 8(2), 102-107. (9)

This article describes the author's observations of the Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit (ALBSU) opening in London. The British approach to literacy training places a high value on the student's self-concept, on student responsibility and on learner

participation. There are twenty-seven centers all over England serving a target population of over two million.

Haas, J. (1986). Education for development: Notes from Indonesia. Adult Literacy and Basic Education 10, 129-137. (10)

Many problems face a developing nation in deciding upon an educational policy which addresses both education for development and education for personal growth. This article describes the barriers Indonesia faces--large population, cultural problems, lack of skills, the guardianship syndrome, the time-lapse problem, the economic bind, the ethical problem, the fallacy of foreign expertise, and fallacy of serial learning, and the problem of retroactive planning. The author suggests a blend of indigenous cultural strengths to meet these challenges.

Hopkins, D. (1986). China's successful adult literacy campaign. Adult Literacy and Basic Education 10, 101-116. (11)

This article provides a comprehensive of the efforts to eliminate illiteracy beginning with the founding of the People's Republic in 1949. The author traces historical contexts and describes various designs of literacy education programs which have operated in China, including curriculum, methods, materials, and evaluation procedures. Literacy efforts are analyzed using a model developed by Paul Illsley. Impact and implications of the programs are discussed.

Huang, Y.K. (1985). International adult basic education. Adult Literacy and Basic Education 11, 49-56. (12)

This article presents in annotated form several ERIC resources dealing with international adult basic education. They are organized in four categories: UNESCO conference reports, regional reports, monographs, and directories and resource lists. This is a valuable source for further research.

Junge, B., & Tegegne, D. (1985). The effects of liberation from illiteracy on the lives of thirty-one women: A case study. Journal of Reading 28, 606. (13)

The Ethiopian literacy campaign began in 1979. For the first time, women as a group were targeted as being necessary for national growth, thus requiring that they become literate. Nearly half the enrollment in the program was women. The campaign has been conducted in Amharic, the main language in the modern sector, as well as in fourteen other languages. This article reports results of a questionnaire administered in interview form to thirty-one women from rural urban areas who had passed the national literacy test. Results showed the arduousness of the task of becoming literate when combined with other family/job responsibilities.



Kazemek, F., & Rigg, P. (1984). Adult literacy: An annotated bibliography. ED# 248-484. (14)

This annotated bibliography brings together writings about adult literacy education available in journals, books, and ERIC documents. The entries are arranged in five sections: 1) the state of adult literacy in the U.S. and worldwide; 2) ways of looking at literacy; 3) critiques of current philosophical assumptions about literacy; 4) literacy related research; and 5) teaching methods.

Kozol, J. (1980). Literacy and the underdeveloped nations. Journal of Education 162(3), 27-39. (15)

This article describes the successful literacy campaign in Cuba and makes specific suggestions for application of Cuban strategies to the literacy initiative in the U.S.

McCall, C. (1987). Women and literacy: The Cuban experience. Journal of Reading 30, 318-324. (16)

Reviews the Cuban literacy campaign of 1962 and describes its specific impact on the social and economic opportunities currently available to women in Cuba.

Omolewo, M. (1984). The first year of Nigeria's mass literacy campaign and new prospects for the future. Convergence 27, 55-65. (17)

This paper presents an overview of the current mass literacy campaign in Nigeria. Acknowledging the failure of earlier campaigns, the author examines the importance of the role of government, the issues of planning, funding, ideology, politics, patronage, and mobilization in relation to the Nigerian and other Third World literacy efforts. He concludes that a mass literacy campaign has little chance of success in a country such as Nigeria with its complex political setting, its multiplicity of ideological orientations, and its lack of a truly popular approach to the elimination of literacy.

Ouane, A. (1986). The experience of Mali in training literacy workers. Convergence 19(1), 13-17. (18)

The large and successful literacy initiative in Mali began in 1965 and is conducted in four languages. The program has resulted not only in improved literacy, but also in the testing of an adult training system, the development of a national policy on basic skills training, and an assessment of the country's training needs. The National Directorate of Functional Literacy and Applied Linguistics was created to coordinate literacy activities and also provides consulting and counseling functions, carries out linguistic

and pedagogical research, produces instructional and post-literacy materials, and evaluates individual programs.

Prieto, A. (1981). Cuba's national literacy campaign. Journal of Reading 25, 215-221. (19)

This article describes Cuba's literacy crusade of 1961 and provides examples of methods and materials used.

Rojo, E. (1984). Literacy and politics in Latin America: The case of Brazil, Peru, and Nicaragua. Convergence 27(2), 24-32. (20)

The author examines the relationship among various socio-economic and political factors and the degree to which community organization is (or is not) built into literacy training. She compares/contrasts literacy campaigns in Brazil, Peru and Nicaragua and concludes that because Brazil made the least effort to involve learners in the creation and maintenance of the goals of the literacy campaign, it was the least successful.

Sunanchai, S. (1982). Thailand's functional literacy program. A case study of activities in Educational Region 8. The struggle against illiteracy in Asia and the Pacific. ERIC# ED 212-761. (21)

This paper presents an overview of literacy efforts in northern Thailand since World War II. The program there concentrated on increasing literacy education in rural areas by establishing provincial lifelong learning centers using mobile units, walking teachers, radio correspondence, and village-level interest groups and reading centers. It also attempted to expand functional literacy offerings for non-native speakers, to stress the functional nature of literacy education, and especially to stress short-term vocational courses intertwined with literacy training.

Wells, A. (1985). Adult literacy and basic education: The British experience. Adult Literacy and Basic Education 9, 1-10. (22)

Wells traces the literacy effort in Great Britain from 1974-1985. He profiles the Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit (ALBSU), detailing the circumstances which generated its inception, its rationale, clientele, methods and funding. ALBSU has served over 350,000 adults all over the country since it began. Much of its success can be linked to a philosophical base which emphasizes liberation over enslavement, which values the importance of the individual and the self-concept, and which recognizes that education is a part of social policy.

White, K. (1983). Conflict, principles and practice in adult literacy. Australian Journal of Reading 6, 117-127. (23)

The author suggests that adult literacy practitioners must, among other things, (1) respect students; (2) reject the labeling and classifying of students; (3) establish good personal relationships with them; (4) be open to varied teaching techniques; (5) help students experience success; and (6) support preservice and inservice staff development. (ERIC abstract)

[Also see 4.2, 5.12, 8.5, 8.13 & 9.23]

## Section II: Social, Cultural and Economic Issues

Anderson, J. (1984). How do cultural and motivational factors affect reading difficulty? International Research in Reading 1(1), 5-8. (1)

Describes an attempt to assess some factors which affect the readability of materials developed for use with nonnative speakers of English in the Pacific region. Materials were originally written by teachers following constraints which would permit passages to be written at 10 different levels. Ten groups of children from whom standardized reading test scores were available were given tests to obtain cloze estimates of difficulty for each of 192 selections. Passages showing a marked difference between cloze difficulty level and constraint readability level were then presented to children who were asked what they thought about the passages. Comments were analyzed and seven factors emerged as influencing readability: 1) writing style, 2) reading interests and preferences, 3) the immediate and familiar, 4) teacher's knowledge of children, 5) abstract and descriptive writing, 6) cultural conflict, and 7) the story's appeal.

Barnitz, J.G. (1982). Orthographics, bilingualism and learning to read English as a second language. Reading Teacher 35(5) 560. (2)

In examining basic properties of selected orthographies of various languages, the author suggests that the differences in orthographies play a crucial role in transferring reading ability across languages. It is also suggested that cultural and syntactic variables affect passage interpretation and comprehension. These factors must be considered in teaching English as a second language.

Behrstock, J. (1981). Reaching the rural reader. Journal of Reading 24(8), 712. (3)

This article consists of a discussion of events of the 1980's that contribute to a movement to bring printed materials to rural people. Somewhat more than 60% of the people of the world live in rural areas and most of the world's illiterate adults live in rural areas. This discussion of several campaigns for literacy includes methodology for bringing appropriate printed material to villages and farms.

Bloome, D., & Green, J. (1981). The social contexts of reading: A multi-disciplinary perspective. In B.A. Hutson (Ed.), Advances in Reading/Language Research, Vol. 1. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 309-338. (4)

Argues from a research basis that reading should be considered a cognitive linguistic process embedded in multiple social contexts, some of them operating simultaneously and some related hierarchically. Research from a number of disciplines is cited to support this conceptualization and to illustrate the kinds of social contexts which have been studied. Additionally, the paper describes research on reading as a social activity. One body of literature in this latter vein suggests that when patterns of social organization used for classroom reading instruction match those found in the culture of the home, learning is facilitated.

Carceles, G. (1979). "Development of education in the world: A summary statistical review." International Review of Education 25, 147-166. (5)

An examination of population changes particularly of school level age, drop-out rates, public expenditures on education and the percentage of GNP devoted to education in developed and developing countries is examined. In summary, developing countries are increasing at a higher rate their percentage of GNP spending on education. The result is that higher numbers of students in developing countries are enrolling in schools. However, developing countries have a higher drop-out rate and enroll a lower percentage of females in their schools. Carceles predicts these trends to continue.

Durkin, D. (1984). Poor black children who are successful readers: An investigation. Urban Education 19, 53-76. (6)

Collects school and family data on 23 poor black children identified as successful readers (scoring at or above grade level on the SRA Assessment Survey at the end of grade five) to see what factors might be contributing to the children's school success. Subjects were administered the WISC-R and were interviewed for their perceptions of their success. Interviews were conducted with teachers, principals, and parents, classrooms were observed, and

school records were also examined. Among the many findings were: subjects were of average intelligence (mean full-scale IQ of 101.6); subjects had frequently transferred schools; principals knew little about the subjects or their families unless the subjects had been in trouble; parents were supportive of schools and concerned about their children; subjects were helped at home by parents or other family members; subjects liked reading, especially reading stories; parents and other family members had helped subjects learn to read at home; and parents and subjects anticipated the subjects' attending college.

Eliou, M. (1987). Equality of the sexes in education: And now what? Comparative Education 23(1), 59-67. (7)

Eliou contends that discrimination of women is still very prevalent even in countries that allow an "equal" education.

Greaney, V., & Neuman, S.B. (1983). Young people's view of the functions of reading: A cross-cultural perspective. Reading Teacher 37(2), 158. (8)

A study comparing the reading behaviors of pupils in Dublin, Ireland, and Windham, Connecticut, suggests that reading activities are not necessarily a reflection of interests. Rather the function of reading from these two cultural perspectives suggests that certain reading behaviors are universal and that certain differences between cultures exist. Three distinct reasons for reading were identified: enjoyment, utility, escape. The findings are based on a very small sample. However, it is suggested that children's selectivity operates within an environmental framework.

Johnson, D.D. (1975, May). Cross-cultural perspectives on sex differences in reading. Reading Teacher, 747-752. (9)

The study reported in this article was designed to investigate sex differences in reading ability among elementary school pupils in four English-speaking nations: Canada, England, Nigeria, and the United States. The findings support Preston's conclusion that sex differences in reading are more cultural than physiological. Possible factors include different parental and societal expectations for boys and girls among nations, the possibility that the content of beginning reading material is cultural and sex-related, and the sex of teachers in countries differs.

Johnson, L.S. (1975). Bilingual-bicultural education: A two-way street. Reading Teacher 29(3), 231. (10)

Johnson presents an overview of the mandates and requirements for providing bilingual education to students. Suggestions are made for obtaining resources non-English speaking students. Johnson particularly stresses the importance of the teacher trying to under-

stand the culture of the student, as well as teaching the student English. He concludes that educating non-English speaking students is a two-way street.

Klein, H.A. (1979). A closer look at cross-cultural sex differences in reading. Reading Teacher 32(6), 660. (11)

In discussing the Preston study comparing sex differences in reading within Germany and the United States, the author suggests that the findings may have been over-generalized. Klein suggests that the differences between sexes in Germany may not be quite so pronounced as they are in the United States and that one must reconsider to what extent Preston's findings and conclusions are in argument for the influence of culture.

Manning, M.M., & Manning, G.L. (1984). Early readers and nonreaders from low socioeconomic environments: What their parents report. Reading Teacher 38, 32-34. (12)

Attempts to identify some differences between early readers and nonreaders from low socioeconomic backgrounds. Subjects were 10 kindergarten early readers paired by age, sex, and race with 10 kindergarteners who were not reading. Early readers were identified by teachers by means of the Classroom Reading Inventory. Structured interviews were conducted with parents to obtain data about each child's development. The two groups did not differ in age of walking and talking. Nine early readers were reported as liking quiet games but only three nonreaders' parents indicated their children liked quiet activities. Eight early readers' parents and two nonreaders' parents stated that their children like to look at books or magazines; all early readers but only four nonreaders were reported as liking to play with older children. Nonreaders watched TV an average of 17.4 hours per week and preferred cartoons and Sesame Street; early readers average 13.2 hours per week and tended to select different types of programs. Eight parents of early readers checked books out of the library; only one of the nonreaders' parents did so. Educational background of the two groups of parents was similar. Eight parents of early readers and four of the nonreaders' parents reported that they read for pleasure.

Niles, F.S. (1981). Social class and academic achievement: A third world reinterpretation. Comparative Education Review, 419-430. (13)

Consensus in Western belief today is that family environment and the kind of support it gives will influence the success or failure of a child. This paper discusses a study examining the relationship between social class (SES) and academic achievement via the school system in a Third World country, Sri Lanka. Some of the significant variables suggest that a child's educational and cultural background had a greater contribution to make toward achievement than father's

occupational status of financial position. Several explanations to support the finding are proposed.

Ogbu, J. (1982). Equalization of educational opportunity and racial/ethnic inequality. In P. Altbach, R. Arnove, & G. Kelly, Comparative Education. New York: Macmillan. (14)

Ogbu asserts that caste-like minorities are offered an inferior education. His study of minority education in Britain, India, Japan, New Zealand and the United States led him to conclude that a "job ceiling" exists for these minorities which assigns them the lowest level jobs with limited status, power and income. This allows the dominant group to compete more easily for desirable jobs.

Ogbu, J. (1983). Minority status and schooling in plural societies. Comparative Education Review 27(2), 168-190. (15)

Ogbu describes the three different types of minority status that he contends exist in most plural societies. These are 1) autonomous minorities, primarily minorities due to numerical strength, 2) immigrant minorities, these groups have voluntarily become a part of the society to better themselves, and 3) caste-like minorities, these minorities have been incorporated into their societies involuntarily and permanently. Caste-like minorities disproportionately experience school failure. Ogbu examines an exception to this, the Chinese immigrants to the United States as well as a prime example of it, black Americans.

Pumfrey, P.D. (1984). Monitoring the reading attainments of children from minority ethnic groups: Summary of a survey report. Remedial Education 19, 129-133. (16)

Describes the extent to which LEAs in England and Wales are assuming authority-wide monitoring of reading standards. In addition, the author sought to discern whether LEAs were able to relate children's reading test scores to their parents' country of origin. In particular, the study was concerned with British West Indies (BWI) pupils. A five-item questionnaire was sent to all 104 LEAs in England and Wales, of which all were returned. It appeared from the data collected that although most LEAs had organized authority-wide testing of reading attainment, most were not able to compare the reading achievement of BRI pupils with the population reading standards in the LEA. Only four of the 104 LEAs both organized testing and were able to make the comparison. These four LEAs indicated they collected such data in the interest of pupils who experienced reading difficulties. Overall, there appeared to be no uniform system to identify pupils' ethnic origins, and only a small number of LEAs collect such data.

Saha, L. (1983). Social structure and teacher effects on academic achievement: A comparative analysis. Comparative Education Review 27(1), 69-88. (17)

Saha finds that teacher effect is more pronounced in developing countries. In developed countries innate abilities and students' social and material environment have greater effects on student learning than teachers do. In developing countries better trained and more experienced teachers produce higher academic achievements. It is argued that the determinants of educational attainment vary from society to society and are formed by a web of economic, political and cultural ties that exist.

Shields, P, Gordon, J.G., & Durprey, D. (1983). Influence of parent practices upon the reading achievement of good and poor readers. Journal of Negro Education 52, 436-445. (18)

Describes the knowledge, beliefs and practices related to reading of low income black parents and their children, and determines the relation between those opinions and practices and children's reading achievement. Thirty-two low income adults, ages 29 to 36, comprised the parent sample. In addition, 20 male and 15 female children, ages 8 to 13, were designated as good or poor readers according to their scores on the Spache Diagnostic Reading Scales, the Howard University Phonics Test, and the Morrison-McCall Spelling Scale. Data were collected through parent interview, child interview, and parent questionnaire. Survey questions were designed to tap parents' knowledge, beliefs, and practices concerning their children's reading achievement, home activities related to reading, and home resources which support academic achievement. Children's perceptions of themselves as learners and of their parents' practices were also obtained. The variables from parents' responses that were significantly related to children's success were parents' knowledge about whether or not their child was a good reader, and the parents' practices of buying educational materials, praising, sacrificing time, and fostering responsibility. Only the parent belief in the importance of owning reference tools significantly related to practice and the child's reading level. Successful readers were significantly more aware of their reading strength than poor readers. Significant parental practices according to the children's ratings were giving books and giving rewards for good grades (for good readers), and making school visits (for poorer readers).

Sutherland, M. (1987). Sex differences in education: An overview. Comparative Education 23(1), 5-9. (19)

Globally, progress is being made in developed and developing countries to give females all the educational opportunities of males.



Tilak, J.B. (1982). Educational planning and the international economic order. Comparative Education 18(2), 107-121. (20)

Based on economic analysis Tilak asserts there is evidence that the role of producing a more literate society results in economic growth, a reduction in poverty and an improved income distribution. He also contends that developing nations must spend their education dollars where needed the most - at the elementary level, even though political pressure may exist to spend the dollars on higher education.

[Also see Section I, 4.6, 4.11, 4.12, 4.25, 5.5, 5.10, 7.7, 8.2, 8.7, 9.11, 9.13, 9.18 & 9.25]

### Section III: Beginning Reading Around The World

Biglmaier, F. (1973). Germany. In J. Downing (Ed.), Comparative reading: Cross national studies of behavior and processes in reading and writing (pp. 342-359). New York: MacMillan. (1)

Compulsory schooling begins at age six, in the first grade. However, the number of children attending preschool, where they engage in specific listening and speaking skills, is increasing. The majority of basal readers utilized favor the analytic approach to instruction which is divided into three stages. They are pre-analytic, analytic and synthetic.

Caputo, J.S., & Durkin, K. (1985). Initiation into literacy: A comparison of practices in the United States and England. In M.P. Douglass (Ed.), Claremont Reading Conference: Forty-Ninth Yearbook (pp. 118-130). Claremont, CA: Claremont Reading Conference. (2)

In this truly comparative chapter, the authors present methods of teaching beginning reading in the United States and England. Foremost in English primary schools is the development of language as an integral part of the total education process. During instruction, children's natural language is the basis for the "language experience" approach. Writing and speaking are necessary components of the language arts program. In contrast, the American approach to teaching reading relies mainly on the use of a basal reading series. Children are taught numerous letter-sound relationships before they are ready to read, and the majority of time is spent on practice of skill development. Concerning writing, children initially learn the formation of each alphabet letter. Little attention is given to writing original material or to communicating orally.

George, J.E. (1971). Variables in beginning reading instruction. In D.S. Braken, & E. Malmquist (Eds.), Improving reading ability around the world (pp. 28-37). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (3)

Mr. George provides general information concerning four factors that strongly influence the success or failure of beginning readers. He lists these as the teacher, the approach, the child and the environment. Under the subheading "the approach itself", the author clearly labels and discusses the various methods of teaching early literacy in a helpful overview. (U.S.A.)

Jansen, M. (1973). Denmark. In J. Downing (Ed.), Comparative reading: Cross national studies of behavior and processes in reading and writing (pp. 285-307). New York: MacMillan. (4)

In this chapter, Jansen informs the reader of the following areas related to beginning reading: age of pupils, reading readiness, the classroom teacher tradition, division of the classes, reading methodology, and the phases of reading development. Also, it briefly touches on writing and second language learning as related to reading.

Mehrotra, P.V. (1979). Issues in developing materials for beginning reading in Hindi. In D. Feitelson (Ed.), Mother tongue or second language? On the teaching of reading in multilingual societies (pp. 74-80). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (5)

Although Hindi is the official language of India, it is not used consistently as the standard medium of instruction in the country. It is introduced at various stages across the curriculum. Traditionally, an alphabetic approach to beginning reading has been used. However, many issues called for reform, which are stated and discussed. A new primer and five graded readers were developed. (India)

Miller, R. (1981). Public primary reading instruction in Mexico. In L.O. Ollila (Ed.), Beginning reading instruction in different countries (pp. 69-78). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (6)

An introduction, a brief review of the history of Mexican education is provided followed by a discussion of reading instruction. The technique utilized to teach reading is three fold: global system, structural analysis, and an integration of the language arts. A high correlation between the grapheme-phoneme relationships in Spanish should be noted. In conclusion, the article presents a summary of material content and the skills emphasized for grades one to six respectively.

Mystkowska, H. (1978). The significance of the form of communication in introducing the child to literary work. International Journal of Early Childhood 10(1), 44-45. (7)

This article discusses two different methods of presenting literature to children and relates the effects they have. Children who listened to clear communication with differentiation in sound patterns of the voice were able to retell the story with accurate literary elements. However, those who heard a monotonous presentation could only reproduce small isolated fragments of the total plot. These findings have implication for kindergarten classes that lay the foundations for reading readiness. (Poland)

Nurss, J.R. (June, 1988). Written language environments for young children: Comparison of Scandinavia, British and American kindergartens. International Journal of Early Childhood 20(1), 45-53. (8)

Nurss explains that young children acquire written and oral language skills naturally by interactions in their environment in the form of social play. For the study, cross-cultural observations were made in kindergarten classes. The findings which discuss the strengths and weaknesses of each program are presented and compared. In conclusion, possible improvement plans are suggested.

Ruthman, P. (1973). France. In J. Downing (Ed.), Comparative reading: Cross national studies of behavior and processes in reading and writing (pp. 319-341). New York: MacMillan. (9)

Ruthman reports on the place of reading in the French elementary schools. Children begin first grade at age six. Instructional time devoted to reading and all other subjects is set by the Ministry of Education and must be strictly followed (First grade teachers are required to teach reading for ten hours per week.). The whole word method incorporated with experience charts is used. Two extensions of the reading program are writing and language, which are also mandatory. Heavy concentration of reading in the curriculum is clearly evident through the fifth grade. Three methods for teaching reading currently in use are the synthetic, the analytic and the mixed. The article explains materials used for the teaching of reading.

Wallace, C. (November, 1987). A functional approach to early reading in multilingual classrooms. Reading 21(3), 144-151. (10)

Wallace promotes her approach to early language acquisition and beginning reading. She suggests methods that are related to presenting reading in its situational contexts and its function within these contexts. She states that bilingual children may develop a rich "literary awareness."

[Also see 4.7, 4.8, 4.9, 6.1, 6.8, 6.9, 6.10, 7.4, 7.10, 7.11, 7.18, 7.19, 8.6, 8.10, 8.17, 9.3, 9.5, 9.12, 9.14, 9.26 & 9.30]

#### Section IV: Reading In Africa

Abiri, John O.O. (1977). Reading in Nigeria. The Reading Teacher 30, 509-514. (1)

Children are taught to be literate in both the vernacular and in English. One of three major languages--Hausa, Igbo or Yoruba--is taught as the native language. This article discusses the various methods used for reading instruction of each indigenous language. A section on English reading instruction is also included.

Abiri, John O.O. (1976). Using w.i.t.a. and standard orthography in teaching English reading in Nigeria. The Reading Teacher 30(2), 137-140. (2)

The author states that the English language is one unifying factor as a country with numerous different languages and dialects. This article highlights the implementation of Sir James Pitman's World Initial Teaching Alphabet (w.i.t.a.) to teach English efficiently in Nigeria. When w.i.t.a. was used in conducting an experiment, findings indicated "that w.i.t.a. helped to improve the English pronunciation of pupils who learned to read through it, and for first year students it hastened their progress through the reading books."

Adeniran, A., & Unch, S.O. (1975). A comparative study of reading achievement in English and Yoruba. West African Journal of Education 19(3), 391-401. (3)

This article reports on an investigation of reading achievement in English and Yoruba to discover whether native speakers of Yoruba read English texts faster and more efficiently than similar texts in Yoruba. Problems of this type of comparison are discussed with regard to language differences. A reading efficiency index was calculated for each participant using a formula based on reading rate and comprehension. The results are reported and discussed.

Akinde, C., & Omolewa, M. (1982). Background issues relating to the proposed mass literacy campaign in Nigeria. International Review of Education 28, 71-93. (4)

The objectives of the Mass Literacy Campaign of 1982 were to eradicate illiteracy by the end of the decade, to make all adults functionally literate, to provide remedial education for school drop-outs, to strengthen the higher education program, to institute vocational training and to enlighten the public. The biggest barrier to these proposals is the existence of approximately 300 different languages and dialects spoken in Nigeria.

Awoniyi, A. (1983). The development of Yoruba studies in Nigeria at the university level, 1948-1980. Africana Journal 14, 18. (5)

Mr. Awoniyi was the consultant for Ife Six-Year Primary Yoruba Project from 1971 until this article was written. First, he explains the historical reasons for Yoruba's low status as a language. Awoniyi also describes the current rise in the use of Yoruba in the media, in literary works and in the performing arts. The author mentions further work that is necessary through the expansion of Yoruba to other fields of study.

Bamgbose, A. (1983). Education in indigenous languages: The West African model of language education. Journal of Negro Education 52, 57-64. (6)

Formal education in the colonized countries of Africa was governed by the goal of the colonial power and those goals were based on either a policy of assimilation or separate development. If assimilation was desired, the colonized Africans were instructed in the colonial language. When separate development was the goal, the native language was the teaching means. This article examines the successes and failures of various MTM (mother tongue medium) and FM (foreign medium) programs in West Africa.

Biniakunu, D.D. (1980). Learning to read Kikongo: A primer makes a difference. The Reading Teacher 34, 32-36. (7)

In 1975, a shift was made by the government of Zaire to replace French with one of four major native languages to be taught in the schools. The author informs us of the need for the development of reading primers written in the mother tongues amidst this major educational reform. This article reports on the creation, implementation and effects of using a new primer entitled Finkanda Fiantete fia Kikongo to teach the indigenous language Kikongo.

Fafunwa, A.B. (1975). Education in the mother-tongue: A Nigerian experiment--the six-year (Yoruba medium) primary education project at the University of Ife, Nigeria. West African Journal of Education 19(2), 213-227. (8)

This article discusses the need for the use of the mother tongue as the means for instruction throughout the six years of primary school in Nigeria. The writer argues in favor of this plan and supplies many reasons in support of the theory. The formation and implementation of the Six-Year Yoruba-English Primary Project is described as it was utilized with 400 primary students in Ile-Ife and the surrounding villages. The curriculum development for six subject areas is explained. Finally, observations noted for both control groups and experimental groups are reported.

Gbenedio, U.B. (1986). Two methods of teaching reading in Nigerian primary classes. ELT Journal 40(1), 46-51. (9)

Gbenedio stresses the importance of learning to read English in Nigeria. A problem lies in the fact that English is not used as the means for instruction until the fourth grade. As teachers were observed in teaching English reading, two principle methods of training were noted: a reading-while-listening approach or a combination of the alphabetic, phonic and sentence methods. A study evolved to measure the effectiveness of each method on children's reading comprehension. The findings are reported.

James, S., & Odejide, A. (1981). A survey of English language literature available to Nigerian children. The Reading Teacher 34, 809-814. (10)

Aware of the growing need for literature available to Nigerian children with both text and illustrations relevant to their culture, the authors provide a survey of a controlled sampling of 146 children's books. The books were chosen using three criteria: "suitability to the target population, availability and literary quality." The authors comment on the genre of books of this type that did not come into being until the early 60's.

McKenna, M.C., & McClarty, A.H. (1987). Secondary reading in Black South Africa. Journal of Reading 31, 44-48. (11)

This article focuses on the problems that exist for Black South African students in the realm of education as they are required to read and study in English. Among the primary influential elements that are addressed are economic, linguistic and cultural factors along with teacher training and the rejection of critical reading.

Nweke, K.M.C. (1987). Promoting the reading habit among the literate in Nigeria. The Reading Teacher 40(7), 632-638. (12)

The author discusses the strengths and weaknesses of implementing the Readership Promotion Campaign in Nigerians. This program was designed to instill reading as a valuable, lifelong, educational process. Factors working against this goal include a communal nature of society reflected in oral and performing arts, effect of the mass media, a conflict between language learning at home and at school, the expense of books, and the lack of books written by native people. The devised remedies of these problems are described.

O'Halloran, G. (1979). Indigenous literacy among the Mandinko of West Africa. Journal of Reading 22, 492-497. (13)

Mr. O'Halloran concentrates on the literacy education of Mandinko youngsters which is based upon the Muslim faith and the holy book

called the Koran. Three different techniques used to teach reading in the Koranic schools are syllabic, abajada, and babibu, which may be implemented individually or eclectically. Teacher training is also described here.

Obah, T.Y. (1982). Reading in higher education in Nigeria: Problems and progress. Journal of Reading 25, 315-321. (14)

Obah describes the problems she has encountered as a teacher and researcher in high schools, colleges and universities of Nigeria. She notes three distinctive problems. First, a lack of support for the value of reading exists. Second, a culture-concept gap is evident when comparing the students' background to the textual content. Third, the reinforcement of newly gained skills is inadequate.

Odejide, B., & Sybil, L.J. (1982). Nigerian children's books for intercultural understanding in the English speaking world. Journal of Reading 25(6), 516-524. (15)

This article is a survey of Nigerian children's literature which can contribute to intercultural reading and appreciation. Characteristics of the following literary genre are discussed: traditional literature, fantasy, realistic fiction, historical fiction and informational books. These books depict life in Nigerian society both in the past and the present. The themes of these books have universal appeal.

Odejide, A. (1987). Children's biographies of Nigerian figures: A critical and cultural assessment. Reading Teacher 40(7), 640-644. (16)

The author presents a current dilemma concerning the incohesiveness of Nigerian biographies. Odejide points out various series of books which attempt to provide literature that preserves cultural history while meeting modern literacy needs. The desire for creative and more accurate writing is stressed.

Odejide, A. (1987). Education as quest: The Nigerian school story. Children's Literature in Education 18, 77-87. (17)

The author discusses the theme of acquiring education as it is variably portrayed in children's literature from precolonial days to the present. Various changes have reflected transformations in culture and society. These include education as quest, boarding school as a rite of separation, desire for western education, relationship between home and school, and the fusion of traditional and western values. Specific examples of children's books which contain each of these themes are examined.

Ogunlade, J.O. (1974). Family environment and educational attainment of some school children in western Nigeria. West African Journal of Education 17(3), 429-432. (18)

A study was conducted with 120 fourth graders as the subjects to determine the effects of parental education on academic achievement test scores of their children. For purposes of the study, family environments were defined as literate or illiterate. The most noteworthy findings indicated that children from literate families performed significantly better on the educational attainment tests and that generally boys scored higher than girls.

Osa, O. (1984). Contemporary Nigerian children's literature. The Reading Teacher 37, 594-597. (19)

The author explains the prominence of oral tradition in the Nigerian culture as the foundation and springboard for children into the world of literature. Until recently most books for children in Nigeria have been incomprehensible to young readers because they lacked true reference to African culture. Currently, the movement is toward action-loaded and/or didactic works that depict child characters acting in plausible situations about life in Nigeria. The books are brief and the vocabulary is simple.

Osa, O. (1985). The rise of African children's literature. Reading Teacher 38(8), 750-753. (20)

Until the early 20th century, children's literature had been neglected in Africa. Currently, it is becoming more prominent. This article reviews advancements that have been made in the field and problems that still exist. Osa recaps conferences that have been held concerning children's literature and discusses picture books, themes and genre.

Osa, O. (1987). The growth of African children's literature. Reading Teacher 41(3), 316. (21)

The author describes the history of language practices in Africa, the changes in African society that affect the traditional language practices, and the impact of those changes on the increasing amount of published literature. Reading has become more accepted and more necessary in Africa. Osa further describes the field of children's literature in Nigeria.

Pienaar, P. (1977). Using the language experience approach in special classes in South Africa. The Reading Teacher 31, 60-66. (22)

In this article, Mr. Pienarr reports on the use of the language experience approach (LEAP) to teaching reading in South African Indian schools. With this method, an individual's own words are



used to teach reading and writing concurrently and may be effectively integrated with any number of other subject areas. The author notes five advantages to the utilization of the LEAP techniques.

Tawari, O. (1987). Problems of implementing educational reforms in Nigeria: The case of the 6-3-3-4 structure. New Education 9(1 & 2), 41-47. (23)

In October of 1982, the implementation of a 6-3-3-4 structure of education in Nigeria was to be complete, but as of early 1987 this still had not been accomplished. Tawari discusses the criticisms of the old 6-5-2-3 system, the five national objectives for the new system, and the problems Nigeria has faced in implementing the 6-3-3-4 program.

Unoh, S.O. (1975). The relationship between reading ability and experiential background in reading. Nigerian Libraries 11, 101-110. (24)

An experimental study of the relationship between reading ability and experiential background in reading was conducted by comparing 115 "efficient" readers with 158 "inefficient" readers. The method of determining "efficient" and "inefficient" readers is explained. Then, the following areas are analyzed: access to a school or public library during pre-university education, extracurricular or recreational reading, reading of local or foreign newspapers and reading of local or foreign magazines. Findings are reported and recommendations are made.

Unoh, S. (1985). Bilingual education in a multilingual school system--Nigeria. Journal of Reading 29, 124-130. (25)

In this article, the author points to the need for language arts programs in Nigeria, which is operating on an unstable bilingual education system. Mr. Unoh expresses the urgency for receptive language arts, expressive language arts and applied language arts each in the realm of bilingual education--English and the mother tongue.

[Also see 1.5, 1.7, 1.8, 1.12, 1.13, 1.17, 1.18, 2.9, 2.14 & 9.23]

#### Section V: Reading in China

Butler, S., Kuo, W., & Kuo, M. (1976). Reading problems of Chinese children. In L. Tarnapol, Reading Disabilities (pp. 115-130). Baltimore: University Park Press. (1)

In this article the authors report that children who have difficulties in learning Chinese characters, receive coaching from their peers in school or at home. Children with learning disabilities have not yet been identified in the People's Republic of China.

Greene, F. (1984). Language Reform. In M. Coye, J. Livingston, & J. Highland (Eds.), China Yesterday and Today (p. 326-328). New York: Bantam Books. (2)

This article relates the complexity of the traditional Chinese characters and the complications of dialect in China.

Hui, W., Chunru, Z., Xuelan, L., & Deshan, Z. (1987). An investigation into the current status of primary and secondary school principals in Tiajn City. Chinese Education 20(1), 10-30. (3)

The results of a survey of 114 principals in China is reported in this article. Some interesting results include the following: 75% are male, 87% are Party members, 21% are college graduates and 20% have had no teaching experience. A principal is required to have a good grasp of Marxist-Leninist theories, and ability to implement the Party's policies, be well versed in culture and science and be educated in the science of administration.

Jiang, S. (1985). A glimpse at reading instruction in China. Reading Teacher 38(8), 762-766. (4)

The system of Chinese character reading and writing is reviewed by Jiang in this article. The complexity of this system is discussed as well as means to rectify the "awkward situation." One approach to help ease the complexities of the problem is pinyin. A clear explanation of pinyin is presented.

Kwong, J. Changing political culture and changing curriculum: An analysis of language textbooks in the Peoples Republic of China. Comparative Education 21(2), 197-208. (5)

This paper ascertains that in China, a country with government run publications, control and censorship are the norm. Political content is pronounced. Textbooks in China reflect political "reality as the leaders would like the young to view it."

Leong, C. (1973). Hong Kong. In J. Downing, Comparative Reading (pp. 383-402). New York: Macmillan. (6)

This article discusses the complicities of Chinese characters and provides many examples. Reforms and primary schooling in Hong Kong are briefly discussed.

Liu, S. (1978). Decoding and comprehension in reading Chinese. In D. Feitelson, Cross-Cultural Perspectives on Reading and Reading Research (pp. 144-154). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (7)

The author discusses the nature of decoding the traditional Chinese characters and pinyin. This article also very briefly discusses the fact that phonetic orthographies are easier to comprehend than character languages.

Lofstedt, J. (1987). Education for national minorities in China: Comparative Education 20(1), 57-65. (8)

In this article Lofstedt delineates the educational administrative organization in China. The role of the Ministry of Education, which is the highest level of educational administration in China, is discussed along with the educational roles of departments, municipalities, prefectures/counties.

Martin, R. (1982). The socialization of children in China and on Taiwan: An analysis of elementary school textbooks. In P. Altbach, R. Arnove, & G. Kelly, Comparative Education (pp. 137-157). New York: Macmillan. (9)

The diversity of two sets of textbooks, grades 1-5, one from China and one from Taiwan is discussed. Of particular interest are the distinct features of these texts regarding family relationships and social virtues.

Petri, A.E. Elementary education in the People's Republic of China. A paper presented at the Meeting of Council for Exceptional Children, Washington, D.C., 1984. (10)

A brief historical view of the development of education from 1949-1976 is presented. The tonal language of Mandarin, its system of character writing and pinyin are reviewed. The organizational & curriculum of schools in the People's Republic of China is described. It is noted that there is no special education for handicapped children except for those who are severely blind or deaf.

Pope, L. (1982). Reading instruction in modern China. Reading Teacher 35(6), 688-694. (11)

A brief historical view of education in China is provided in this article. Chinese reading texts, reading methodology and problems that beginning readers of Chinese exhibit are also reviewed.

Sheridan, E.M. (1981). Literacy and language reform in the People's Republic of China. The Reading Teacher 5(7), 804-808. (13)

The development of common speech in China, the simplification of traditional Chinese characters and the development of pinyin is reviewed in this article.

Sheridan E.M. (Ed.) (1983). Reading disabilities: Can we blame the written language? Journal of Learning Disabilities 16(2), 81-86. (14)

Sheridan resists concluding in this article that an ideographic, syllable or alphabetic system is easier to learn to read. Japanese Kana and the Korean alphabet are easier, but, cultural factors make generalization impossible.

Sheridan, E.M. (1985). The continuing debate of Chinese characters. Chinese Education 18(2), 3-20. (15)

In this article Sheridan outlines the debate that has developed in the last 20 years regarding the use of pinyin. The issue of reading disabilities for American, Japanese and Chinese students is also briefly examined.

Stevenson, H., Stigler, J., Lucker, G., & Lee, S. (1982). Reading disabilities: The case of Chinese, Japanese and English. Child Development 53(5), 1164-1181. (16)

A comparative study of 453 5th grade students in Minneapolis, 956 in Taiwan and 775 in Japan is described in this article. The researchers concluded that orthography is not the major factor in determining reading disabilities. Poor readers were found in all three groups. The Japanese and Chinese poor readers received lower cognitive verbal scores as well. Poor American readers could not be predicted on the base of cognitive verbal scores. "These data tend to support the notion that severe difficulties in reading constitute a more distinctive attribute among children reading English than among those reading Japanese and Chinese."

Siu, P.I. (1986). Understanding Chinese prose: Effects of number of ideas, metaphor, and advance organizer on comprehension. Journal of Educational Psychology 78(6), 417-423. (17)

In this article Siu reports a study of 999 Chinese students' ability to construct macrostructures in Chinese texts with advance organizers, metaphors and a controlled number of ideas. The processing of Chinese texts was found to be similar to that of English.

Unger, J. (1977). Post-cultural Revolution primary-school education: selected texts. Chinese Education 10(2), 4-99. (18)

A look at reading materials in the primary grades and a review of the teaching methods employed in post-cultural revolution primary schools education in China is provided in this article.

Zhigong, Z. (1985). Chinese characters and reading: An outline. China Education 18(2), 41-56. (19)

In this article the author discusses the advantages and disadvantages of reading Chinese characters, the author advocates the adoption of a dual system of language, i.e., education in Chinese characters and pinyin.

[Also see 1.11, 1.12, 7.13, 7.16, 7.17 & 9.23]

#### Section VI: Reading in Great Britain

Anning, A. (1987). Hang on in there. Times Educational Supplement (pp. 45-52). (1)

This article discusses pros and cons for reading schemes (basals). Anning quotes both Frank Smith and Marie Clay and gives the reaction publishing companies to the growing discontent with the reading schemes.

Caputo, J.S., & Durkin, K. (1985). Initiation into literacy: A comparison of practices in the United States and England. In M.P. Douglass (Ed.), Claremont Reading Conference: Forty-Ninth Yearbook (pp. 118-130). Claremont, CA: The Claremont Reading Conference. (2)

The authors of this article present methods of teaching beginning reading in the United States and England. Foremost in English primary schools is the development of language as an integral part of the total education process. During instruction, children's natural language is the basis for the "language experience" approach. Writing and speaking are necessary components of the language arts program. In contrast, the American approach to teaching reading relies mainly on the use of a basal reading series. Children are taught numerous

letter-sound relationships before they are ready to read, and the majority of time is spent on practice of skill development. Concerning writing, children initially learn the formation of each alphabet letter. Little attention is given to writing original material or to communicating orally.

Cookson, P., & Persell, C. (1985). English and American residential secondary schools: A comparative study of the reproduction of social elites. Comparative Education Review 29, 283-98. (3)

The English public school has long been accused by Americans of catering to the elite. This study found that the manner of education and socialization is similar between certain American residential schools and English residential schools. Among other findings, the researchers found the schools to produce conservative, self-confident students who are very protective of the past.

Czerniewska, P. (1987, January). The English teacher's dilemma. English Today 9, 13-15. (4)

The reviews and critiques reaction to the consultative document produced by Her Majesty's English Inspectors entitled English from 5 to 16. The document had been produced two years prior to the writing of this article and promoted the view that children should develop their abilities as speakers, listeners, readers and writers such that they use language appropriately and for a wide variety of purposes. Although the writing of the specific objectives is criticized, the author supports the direction suggested by the proposed document and commends it as being a good starting point for teachers. She suggests that the proposals call for a major change in philosophical basis for language learning and in the role of the teacher and pupil. The role of teacher as facilitator is encouraged. As the objectives are applied to the realities of the classroom, the author describes important issues and questions that are considered and discovered.

Eisner, E. (1974). English Primary Schools. Washington D.C.: NAEYC. (5)

Elliot describes an American's view of the Plowden-oriented schools. These types of schools were the basis for the open education movement in American during the 1970's. Eisner discusses the pros and cons of this type of school. He also gives a clear description of the English school system.

Harrison, C. (1986). Readability in the United Kingdom. Journal of Reading 29, 521-529. (6)

This article is primarily a literature review of recent work on readability in the United Kingdom and how that work reveals major

trends in theory and practice there over the last five years. In practice, readability issues have come into play in connection an effort to "codify" the criminal law into a single coherent set of provisions. The commission charged with reporting on the codification process stipulated that the aims of that process included making the law more comprehensible. Other government agencies have also responded to the need for "considerate, 'reader-based' prose," including the Department of Environment and the Department of Transport, responsible for driver tests and safety materials. Finally, the Department of Health and Social Security also examined its publications and found that some of its pamphlets were rated more difficult to read than the London Times.

In the theoretical domain, the author reviews recent research done in the United Kingdom on four factors related to readability: analyzing difficulty of language, layout and illustrations; the use of the microcomputer in assessing readability, the cloze procedure and readability; and lastly, some work on children's rewriting of school texts.

Hartnett, A., & Naish, M. (1986). Education and Society Today. London: Falmer Press. (7)

This book includes a compilation of articles about the government and schools. It can best be described by the words from the Preface: "This is not a happy book but it is a good one. In a large part it seeks to answer from a variety of standpoints a sobering question: When a government loses patience with its educational system and the system loses faith in its government, what then?" (ix) It also describes some of the problems of the British school system.

Morris, J. (1968). Beginning reading in England. Reading: A Human Right and A Human Problem. Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (8)

Gives the "official view" of beginning reading as espoused by the Plowden Report.

Paisley, G. (1984). The education and culture of children from 4 to 8 years of age in the UK. Early Child Development and Care 15, 367-83. (9)

This article gives detailed information about pre-schools in the UK including information on staffing, attendance, regulations, and fees. Anyone doing a comparison study of pre-schools would find this article useful.

Richmond, W.K. (1978). Education in Britain Since 1944.  
London: Methuen and Co. (10)

A short, readable book giving a good examination of the primary, secondary, and higher education systems in England. Specifically of interest is the chapter on primary education. Gives the background for the famous child-centered infant schools as well as some opposing views for that informal method of teaching.

Smith, P. (1987). Handwriting in the United Kingdom. Reading Teacher 41, 27-31. (11)

The author describes common practices in the teaching of handwriting in the United Kingdom. Emphasis is placed on formation with early emphasis on process rather than product. Demonstration is considered important, as is close supervision in the early states of learning. Students are taught print first and then, at about ages 7 or 8, children progress to cursive writing. This cursive writing is usually introduced to whole classes. Consistency is not a major concern. The author presents a new form of cursive writing developed by himself in cooperation with Alexander Inglis. The cursive form encourages learning to write and practice letters in families according to movement patterns whereby like letters would be taught as families.

Times Educational Supplement. July 1, 1983, 37-44. (12)

A "Reading Extra." Includes several articles on reading including an approach using parental involvement, reading and computers, and creating a language environment.

[Also see 1.9, 1.12, 1.22, 2.9, 2.16, 3.2, 3.8 & 9.23]

#### Section VII: Reading in Japan

Chichii, K. (1981). Encouraging broad reading among junior high students in Japan. Journal of Reading 24, 587-590. (1)

Chichii reported on a program that taught students extensive reading (e.g., skimming and scanning). The Oriental culture tends to emphasize intensive reading, so teachers often spend too much time teaching reading skills. The Japanese are concerned that their students are not reading enough. Of 236 junior high students surveyed, 38% had not read a book in several months. In a 1976 survey, it was reported that Japanese students read for only 30 minutes per day but they study for 4 hours 30 minutes. Reading educators would like the children to spend a higher proportion of time reading.



"Education in Japan" (1986). Special issue of Comparative Education 22. (2)

This issue includes articles on the organization of the Japanese schools, administration, curriculum, student achievement, problems in education, reform, women in education, kindergarten, and comparative education.

Furulawa, J., & Sakamoto, T. (1980). Differences in the rates of reading problems in the United States and Japan: A search for causes. Paper presented at I.R.A. World Congress on Reading. Manila. (3)

This paper reports on a joint study between the United States and Japan to identify the possible cause for the difference in the number of students with reading problems in the respective countries. It is estimated that Japan identifies 1% of their student population to have reading problems while the United States identifies 15% of their students. The findings suggest that the reason for these differences is a failure to provide adequate instruction. A model of teaching is suggested to reduce the reading difficulties in the United States.

Izammoji, T. (1981). The use of picture books for the education of children in kindergarten and nursery school in Japan. In D. Strickland (Ed.), The Role of Literature in Reading Instruction: Cross-Cultural Views. Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (4)

This article suggested that students go through stages of adjustment upon entering school that can be eased through the use of picture books. It lists five stages and gives suggestions for using picture books as each stage.

Matsuyama, M. (1983). Can story grammar speak Japanese? The Reading Teacher 36, 666-669. (5)

Although story grammar has been shown to be helpful for American students to improve reading comprehension, Japanese stories often have a different model from the Western one so cannot be judged with the traditional story model. Matsuyama discusses the differences in goal structure in Japanese folktales and points out that teachers should be aware of the potential differences in both culturally different students and stories.

Namekama, M. (1974). Children's literature and reading. In J. Merritt (Ed.), New Horizons in Reading: Proceedings of the International Reading Association World Congress on Reading. Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (6)

The author describes the two levels of reading taught in Japanese schools--comprehension and interpretation. The article also discusses the necessity of developing students' interest in reading and forming a reading habit.

Namekawa, M (1977). Reading in the Oriental way of thinking. Journal of Reading 20, 482-489. (7)

Namekawa explains some of the differences in the Oriental cultural background that pertain to reading. He describes silent reading as a mental discipline where the reader must concentrate on each word and then contemplate the idea. Intensive reading is considered more important than extensive reading. Copying books and recitation are also valued in the Oriental culture. The Orientals also believe that reading is a way of life, not a technique.

Neville, M. (1978). Learning to read in Japan. Reading Teacher 12, 21-28. (8)

This article reviews the literature that describes the success of Japanese children in learning to read Japanese. Japanese children learn the Kana script very quickly, possibly because of the highly predictive sound-symbol relationship of the language. Another reason for their success may be because Japanese mothers view helping their children read as their job.

Pieronek, F.T. (1978). Teaching reading in Japanese elementary schools, The Reading Teacher 31, 411-513. (9)

Pieronek reports on Japanese school visitations. Japanese children are reported to learn to read before American children, possibly because of their phonetic-based language and the national interest in education. The author describes the five-step method used to teach reading: motivation, vocabulary development, oral reading and questioning, silent reading, and integrating the lesson with other subjects. With class sizes of 45-50 children, educators are concerned about the wide range of reading levels with a single lesson.

Sakamoto, T. (1966). The scope of reading in Japan. In M. Jenkinson (Ed.), Reading Instruction: An International Forum. Proceedings of the First World Congress Held at UNESCO House. Paris. (10)

Sakamoto explains some of the reasons for the success of Japanese preschool students in reading. He claims that 91% of the four-

year-olds in Japan can read syllables in Hiragana. He explains the difference between the Hiragana system of reading (which is phonetic) and the reading of Kanji (which are ideographs). He states that though most preschool children can read before entering school, the individual differences of the students' achievement is a problem.

Sakamoto, T. (1978). Beginning reading in Japan. In L. Ollila (Ed.), Beginning Reading Instruction in Different Countries. Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (11)

This chapter describes the beginning reading practices of students in Japan. Most mothers read picture books to their children and teach them the letters of their alphabet. Most children know the Hiragana letters by age four.

Sakamoto, T., & Makita, K. (1973). Japan. In J. Downing (Ed.), Comparative Reading. New York: Macmillan. (12)

The article gives description of the writing systems used in Japan and how students learn to read. The chapter includes reasons for the 99% literacy rate in Japan, information on the reading habits of the Japanese, beginning reading, methods of teaching, textbook information, research on readability and legibility, bibliotherapy, reading disability, and problem children in reading.

Sheridan, E.M. (1979). Ideographs, syllabaries, and alphabets: Reading as information processing in different writing systems. ED# 192-263. (13)

This paper reviews the history of Japanese, Chinese, and Korean. Their characteristics are examined regarding the ease people have in learning to read with their symbol systems.

Sheridan, E.M. (1982). Early reading in Japan. Reading World 21, 326-330. (14)

Sheridan discussed possible reasons for the rarity of reading disabilities in Japan. The three main reasons were the phonetic language, parental interest, and the availability of publications. Most Japanese families have "family reading" one hour per week where everyone reads plus 20 minutes per day where the child reads to the mother.

Steinberg, D.D., & Yamade, J. (1978). Are whole word Kanji easier to learn than syllable Kana? Reading Research Quarterly 14, 88-96. (15)

The authors discuss a research student that found kanji easier to read for preschoolers than the traditional kana. Kana is a phonetic syllable system and kanji is an ideograph. Though

virtually all four-year-olds have been able to learn to read kana, the researchers found kanji to be easier for the children to remember. Tzeng and Singer critique the Steinberg-Yamada study in an article on page 661, and Steinberg and Yamada respond to their criticism on page 668.

Stevenson, H. (1983). Making the grade: School achievement in Japan, Taiwan, and the United States. Rockville, MD.: National Institute for Mental Health. (16)

This book reports on a study done on first and fifth grade students to determine if any major differences between achievement occurred in the reading and math scores of American, Taiwanese, and Japanese students. The students were tested, parents were interviewed, and classrooms were observed. Major differences appeared in the time spent in school, the proportion of school time spent in instruction, and time spent at home with school work.

Stevenson, H., Stigler, J., Lee, S.Y., Lucker, W., Kitamura, S., & Hsu, C.C. (1985). Cognitive performance and academic achievement of Japanese, Chinese, and American children. Child Development 56, 718-34. (17)

This study tried to determine if there are different relationships between measures of cognitive ability and achievement in reading and mathematics of Japanese, Chinese, and American first and fifth grade children. Prediction of achievement scores from the cognitive tests showed few differences between the children of the three countries. The authors suggested that the high achievement of Japanese and Chinese children is related to their experiences at home and at school.

Takagi, K. (1980). Interests in picture books of Japanese five-year-olds. The Reading Teacher 33, 442-445. (18)

Takagi reported on a study done with Japanese kindergarten children to determine what types of books five year olds liked best. The researchers chose books with a variety of stories and asked the children's mothers to read the stories to them. The researchers then interviewed the mothers and the children. They found the most popular books to be stories with happy yet complicated plots and clear pictures.

Takeuchi, M. (1981). Controversial issues in contemporary early childhood education in Japan. ED# 227-940. (19)

This article reports on the controversial issues about early childhood in Japan. A lack of continuity between programs, a lack of parental involvement, ambiguity about the purposes, and a lack of trained teachers have been identified as some of the issues Japanese educators wish to resolve.

Tzeng, O., & Singer, H. (1978-79). Failure of Steinberg and Yamada to demonstrate superiority of Kanji over Kana for initial reading instruction in Japan. Reading Research Quarterly 14, 661-67. (20)

This article analyzes Steinberg and Yamada's research that investigated which of the types of Japanese scripts are easiest to use.

Yamada, Y. (1983). How much can children learn from a single book? Reading Teacher 36, 880-83. (21)

This article describes the directed group reading technique used a middle grade teacher in Japan to help her students understand a work of historical fiction.

Yao, E., & Kierstead, F. (1984). Can the Asian educational system be a model for American education? An appraisal. NASSP Bulletin 68, 82-89. (22)

The authors found five basic differences between the Asian model of education and the American model: centralized educational planning, the perception of teachers, the students, the parent-teacher team, and the school day. They stated that the Asian model would not fit the American needs because Americans are not a uniform people; they respect the dignity of the individual; they have many cultures; they encourage equality; and they no longer have strong extended families.

[Also see 1.12, 2.14, 5.14, 5.16 & 9.23]

#### Section VIII: Reading in Scandinavia

Blake, M.E. (1984). Reading in Denmark: A relaxed atmosphere is the key. Reading Teacher 38, 42-47. (1)

This article reports findings of a study conducted in the spring of 1983. Data was gathered concerning the approaches to reading instruction in Denmark during a two week stay. Three main similarities between all classes observed were revealed. They include: (1) students appeared to be very interested in school, (2) there was a relaxed atmosphere in the classes, and (3) students appeared to have input on the topics to be studied in class. Also noted is the fact that the Danish approach has bred a predominantly literate society. Concluding comments attribute the success of Danish reading instruction to the fact that it is matched to the society itself.

Csapo, M. (1982). Concerns related to the education of Romany students in Hungary, Austria and Finland. Comparative Education 18(2), 205-218. (2)

This article is concerned with the educational development of Romany students, a minority group of untouchable Gypsies from North India, who are present throughout Europe today. Historical background of the Roms is provided, but the discussion concentrates on the education of Roms in Hungary in terms of physical, socioeconomic and sociocultural conditions. Some consideration is also given to issues regarding the education of Roms in Austria and Finland, two none-socialist states. Two possible reforms of treatment are suggested.

Ellehammer, M. (1966). Assessing progress in reading in Denmark. In M.D. Jenkinson (Ed.), Reading Instruction: An International Forum (pp. 289-297). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (3)

The author discusses a study conducted in Denmark that investigated the connection between severe reading deficiencies and badly developed auditory span. The findings of the study support the finding that auditory and visual handicaps are very prominent with severely retarded readers.

Engberg, E. (1985). Mogens Jansen: An interview with a Danish reading educator. Reading Teacher 38(4), 396. (4)

Engberg interviews Jansen, president of the Danish Association of Reading Teachers, and discusses the founding of the Danish Association of Reading Teachers, which was founded two years before IRA. Also discussed is Jansen's work in promoting international cooperation in reading education. The third part of the discussion deals with Danish reading instruction and Jansen mentions the importance of the use of libraries and life-long attitudes towards reading in the success of Danish reading instruction.

Engberg, E. (1983). Gunnar Tingbjorn: A vignette. Journal of Reading 25, 702-706. (5)

Engberg interviews Gunnar Tingbjorn, a Swedish linguist and head of the SPRINS Project. In this interview Tingbjorn discusses his research and his work with the SPRINS Project. This project has been concerned with immigrant education in Sweden and is affiliated with the University of Goteberg. Tingbjorn encourages teaching second languages through a method called contrastive preparedness and supports the philosophy that elementary reading and writing instruction be done in the pupil's native tongue.

Gjessing, H. (1966). The concepts of reading readiness in Norway. In M.D. Jenkinson (Ed.), Reading Instruction: An International Forum (pp. 70-79). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (6)

This article discusses a common practice in Norway regarding reading instruction which involves a brief period of preparing students for reading prior to actual reading instruction. This concept of reading readiness in Norway has been based on what is known from research conducted outside of Norway, except for one study conducted in 1951-56. In that study a connection was found between poor reading readiness and delayed language development. It is believed that reading readiness cannot be separated from general school readiness, which was supported by the Norway study. Also supported by the study was the finding that high scores in tests emphasizing "reasoning factor" indicated rapid achievement of good reading ability, while low scores on tests emphasizing "language factor" involve significant risk of development of a reading disability.

Goransson, B. (1984). Immigrants, school, and society. Scandinavian Review 72(2), 31. (7)

This article is concerned with the education of the 9% (1983) of students in Swedish schools who speak a language other than Swedish at home. An immigrant and minority policy was established in 1975, and a home language reform was passed in 1977. The home language reform offered children the opportunity of retaining and developing their own language, and, at the same time, striving toward integrating Swedish language and society. Students are offered options for instruction. However, in senior school (7th to 9th years), students are taught primarily in Swedish.

Haugen, O. (1984). 'Pa norsk'--A multimedia project in Norwegian. Educational Media International, pp. 24-25. (8)

The author describes a course designed to give adult immigrants conversational training and language practice in Norwegian as well as basic information about Norwegian life. The course is designed for television and will be aired prior to the daily evening news program.

Jansen, M. (1966). The scope of reading in Scandinavia. In M.D. Jenkinson (Ed.), Reading Instruction: An International Forum (pp. 24-32). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (9)

Jansen discusses the philosophy of reading instruction in Scandinavian countries and indicates that the focus for teaching reading is not only as a mechanical skill but as an intellectual experience as well. Reading instruction includes educating pupils for use of increasing leisure time. Functional reading is taught from the very beginning of reading instruction.

Jansen points out that the Scandinavian emphasis on literacy is rooted in the belief that the small Scandinavian countries do not have a large enough population to provide enough people capable of running a modern community if the best systematic education is not made available to every member of the community. Therefore, everyone should be made to continue to the highest educational level possible. The sequence for instruction used involves the following steps: (1) understand the language, (2) speak the language, (3) read the language, and (4) express yourself in writing.

Jansen, M. (1986). Why children can learn to read and yet comprehend poorly what is read--a Scandinavian perspective. In M.P. Douglass (Ed.), Claremont Reading Conference Fiftieth Yearbook (pp. 56-70). Claremont, CA: The Claremont Reading Conference for Developmental Studies. (10)

Jansen's discussion is concerned with improving the quality of instruction of comprehension. Three levels of reading proficiency are identified: rebus readers (approximately grades 1-3), traditional readers (approximately grades 2-4), and content readers (approximately grade 4 and up). The author suggests that many children have difficulty moving from the learning to read to reading to learn stage which results in a number of people known as functional illiterates. Suggestion is made that improvement would be seen if more consideration was given to the ecology of reading, the total reading background of the individual.

Jansen, M. et. al. (1979). Reading instruction in Danish schools. Reading Teacher 33(1), 15. (11)

This article describes Danish reading instruction which begins in the first year of school and continues throughout the student's schooling. The key to the program is individualization and teaching the child at his/her level. Danish teachers are also allowed to choose the method of instruction, and the common belief is that no one method is best. A great deal of the responsibility for teaching is placed with the classroom teacher who might stay with a student for his nine years of schooling.

Jansen, M. et. al. (1978). Special education in Denmark. In L.T. & M.T. Tarnopol (Eds.), Reading Disabilities: An International Perspective (pp. 155-174). Baltimore: University Park Press. (12)

Special education in Denmark is based with an emphasis on the child and the situation rather than on the test results. Approximately 10% of the student population receives special attention. Most pupils are integrated and their special needs are handled while they still have some access to a regular classroom. However, some disabilities are handled in a segregated manner. Teachers work side-by-side with psychologists in determining the best program for students. Programs are based on student's strengths with a look at



the entire child and situation. The program is always adapted to the child. Interestingly, a behavior disorders program is in place and a very high percentage of boys are placed in that program.

Johansson, E. (1987). Literacy campaigns in Sweden. In R.F. Arnove, & H.J. Graff (Ed.), National Literacy Campaigns: Historical and Comparative Perspectives (pp. 65-98). New York: Plenum Press. (13)

The author begins this chapter with an overview of Scandinavian literacy from a historical and cultural perspective. The main body of the discussion deals with results from a broad research project on two literacy campaigns in Sweden. The first campaign considered is the late school campaign around and after 1850. The old church reading campaign involved reading, singing, and praying the "Word" in the parish. The modern school reforms started as a campaign for reading, writing, and reckoning the "world" in modern daily life.

Kies, C. (1983). The child's world, books, and libraries in Denmark: Growing up in a social-welfare state. Top of the News 39, 162-171. (14)

This article gives an overview of the Danish social-welfare system as it relates to the lives of children, with an emphasis on education, culture and library services. The author gathered information while on a professional study tour of Denmark in 1982. Her report is not intended as a critique of the Danish system, but rather as a medium for sharing information on a system that works.

King, E.J. (1973). Denmark--great and small. In Other Schools and Ours: Comparative Studies for Today (pp. 77-114). (15)

This chapter provides a good overview of the system of education in Denmark. The author discusses the history and culture on which this system is based. Also discussed are the problems of the system and implications for comparative study. The author particularly emphasizes the reforms in Danish education that have promoted more equal educational opportunity for all. Particularly noteworthy is the author's comment that describes the Danish educational system as inseparable from Danish life.

Kyostio, O.K. (1980). Development of reading skills during elementary school in Finland. Reading Teacher 33(5), 519. (16)

This article describes a longitudinal study conducted at the University of Oulu in Finland. The aim was to follow students through the basic school period and examine the development of their literacy skills and its relationship to environmental factors. Findings pointed out some geographic differences that could be addressed in Finnish schools. The investigation is known as the PSK-irvestiga'ion and points out that there is great variation in

literacy skills of students when they enter school. Also interesting in the findings was a high correlation between later reading attainment and intelligence and initial math tests.

Larsen, C.A. (1966). Approaches to beginning reading in Denmark. In M.D. Jenkinson (Ed.), Reading Instruction: An International Forum (pp. 134-141). Newark: International Reading Association. (17)

This brief discussion points out that beginning reading instruction in Denmark involves the use of several approaches. An analytic approach in the beginning is believed to be essential. It is then followed by a synthetic approach. Language awareness is an important part of early instruction.

Low, A. (1979). The soft start of the Danish schools: Learning to read--slowly. In M.P. Douglass (Ed.), Claremont Reading Conference Forty-third Yearbook (pp. 92-97). Claremont, CA: The Claremont Reading Conference Center for Developmental Studies. (18)

This American author discusses the Lyngby-Taarbaek investigation conducted in Denmark in 1972-73. This investigation compared standardized reading scores of students in second through fifth grade from 1966 and 1972 and found that students were acquiring reading proficiencies at a slower rate and that there were more good readers and also more poor readers in the latter years of the investigation. The reaction to these studies was not one of concern in Denmark, and the author suggests that Americans might learn several things about reading instruction and about reading test scores from the Danish.

Malmquist, E. (1970). Problems of reading and readers: An international challenge (59-81). In Improving Reading Ability Around the World. Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (19)

This article is concerned with a discussion of reading disability and remedial instruction. The author supports the view that reading disability is not generally caused by word blindness or minimal brain dysfunction, but, rather, the verbal environment in which the child is raised plays the greatest role. The author mentions a six year longitudinal study completed in 12 Swedish cities which indicated that potential reading disability cases identified at the beginning of Grade 1 can be prevented from developing. Eighty percent of the children who received instruction did not have reading disabilities later in their school experiences.

Malmquist, E. (1966). Provisions made for children with reading disabilities in Sweden. In M.D. Jenkinson (Ed.), Reading Instruction: An International Forum, pp. 109-124. (20)

This discussion includes a description of the program for reading disabled children in Sweden, and some research is presented. In Sweden, reading disabilities have been believed to be medically based and were referred to as word-blindness. Malmquist presents information that shows the trend is changing to a more psychological based belief.

Mitchell, P.M. (Winter, 1983). Fare well, Scandinavian literature. Journal of Aesthetic Education, pp. 139-154. (21)

The importance of literature as part of the Scandinavian culture is described in detail. The history of literature and the richness of the quality of what is written is discussed. Concerns are mentioned for the future of Scandinavian literature as Scandinavian countries become more individualized.

Peters, E. (1974). Norwegian TV--A continuing reading program. Journal of Reading 18(4), 200. (22)

This article points out the importance of reading in Norwegian TV. Due to the limitations of Norwegian TV, Norwegians are found to be watching much TV from other countries. In order to do so, subtitles are used for language translations. Not only is reading the subtitles necessary, but a publication provides background knowledge for interpreting the program and is generally read before viewing the program. The article discusses the educational values of watching Norwegian TV.

Phipps, P.M., & Nielson, J.C. (1987). From Denmark: A program for maintenance of reading levels. Reading Teacher 40(7), 600. (23)

This article describes a Danish program for maintaining reading in the primary grades. Danes are rather casual about their success and also about their reading instruction. A key to early success is that children are not allowed to fail before they become eligible for special programs. The purpose of the special programs is to maintain and not to remediate.

Pohjala, K. (1984). Computer-assisted language instruction in Finland. Educational Media International, pp. 21-24. (24)

This article describes a computer program used to assist in foreign language instruction in Finnish schools. Computers are used in some of the secondary schools in Finland, as there is a belief that the

use of computers in schools is necessary because of general technological development in society and the ever-increasing amounts of new knowledge. The computer is used to compliment the teacher's instruction.

Ruse, V. (1985). Norwegian secondary school reform: Reflections on a revolution. Comparative Education 21, 209-217. (25)

The author presents a discussion and description of comprehensive schools, which resulted from the Upper Secondary Law in 1974. This law encouraged equal status to practical and theoretical education and encouraged the movement away from a division in offerings at the secondary school level. Prior to this movement, secondary education in Norway was influenced by class stratification. The article further discusses and describes the comprehensive school's organization and programs.

Vik, G.H. (1976). Reading disabilities in Norwegian elementary grades. In J. & M. Tarnopol (Eds.), Reading Disabilities: An International Perspective (pp. 249-264). Baltimore: University Park Press. (26)

The author reports that 11% of primary grade students have a need for remedial reading instruction. Norwegian schools stress the importance of good diagnosis. That diagnosis is completed by school psychologists and classroom teachers. Norway is experiencing some difficulty with program delivery because uniformity of programs is difficult due to the geographic nature of the country. Also, there is a need for special teachers with this special training.

Wham, M.A. (1987). Learning to read the Danish way: Is there a lesson for U.S. educators? Reading Teacher 41, 138-142. (27)

The author presents a description of reading instruction and attitudes toward reading instruction in Denmark. A comparison is then made between this instruction in Denmark and reading instruction in the United States. The author proposes that the more relaxed attitude and the eclectic methodology may merit consideration by U.S. educators, particularly in early reading instruction.

Ylisto, I.P. (1977). Early reading responses of young Finnish children. Reading Teacher 31(2), 167. (28)

A study of early reading responses of children in a Finnish preschool is discussed. The study took place in 1971 and sought information concerning the onset of reading when instruction focused on a phonetic approach in a language that has high phonetic regularity, such as Finnish. Conclusions include the idea that the complex process of early reading requires a rich contextual setting. The children's language experience is believed to be the best source

for attaching meaning to print in these early reading stages. The author suggests that teaching letter-sound relationships is of questionable value as children must grasp the idea for themselves. It is possible that children discover reading on their own.

[Also see 1.12, 3.4, 3.8 & 9.23]

#### Section IX: Reading in the Soviet Union

Batyshev, S., & Shaporinskii, S. (Eds.) (1980). Didactic aspects of teaching general technical and specialized subjects. Soviet Education 23, #2-3, 192-228. (1)

The role of reading in teaching general technical and specialized subjects is discussed. The reading of graphic materials includes charts, diagrams, drawings, and blueprints. Comprehension of technical manuals, handbooks of standards, and manufacturing specifications is mentioned. Questioning techniques encouraged are compare, generalize, cause-effect, proofs, and relationships.

Bowen, E. (1988). A fresh breath of heresy. Time 132, #4, 74. (2)

This article details the loosening of constraints on Soviet citizens and its effect on education. The Soviet State Committee on Education has cancelled history exams and ordered teachers to use discussion groups to judge students' knowledge of history. Efforts to make history texts more accurate and humanitarian are described.

Chabe, A. (1987). The Russian school language program. Reading Improvement 24, #3, 171-175. (3)

Russian school language programs and areas of emphasis for grades one through nine are described. The setup of Bukvar (ABC book) and Sputnik Bukvarya (Bukvar's fellow-traveler) are discussed. Details of skills and methods in grades one through nine are given. Chabe expresses the belief that the language program fits its social and political objectives, but that it does have content which indoctrinates communist principles.

Chabe, A. (1983). The Russian reading program: A Re-examination. ED# 240-523, p. 37. (4)

This article describes the cultural setting, language, organization of the school system, curriculum organization, aims/strategies of teaching reading, the formal school reading/language program, and pupil achievement.

Concerning the further optimization of general secondary education for young people and the improvement of conditions of work in the general education school. (1986). From the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council of Ministers (1984). Soviet Review 27, #1, 44-59. (5)

This article gave goals for elementary, incomplete secondary and secondary schools. It has directives on virtually every aspect of education, including integrating six-year-olds into school, Russian language, Russian literature, and foreign language. For each area of change, a variety of governmental and nongovernmental groups is assigned responsibilities for reviewing current practice, suggesting necessary changes, and implementing changes.

Culbertson, F. (1981). USSR--child and schooling. ED# 207-926. (6)

A brief overview of the USSR's educational system is given. The bibliography may prove helpful.

Dahlburg, J.T. (1988). Crisis in Soviet Schools. Chicago Sun Times 42(165), 29, Aug. 17, 1988. (7)

This article discusses current problems in Soviet schools: Lack of computers and modern equipment, outdated texts, the heavy reliance on rote learning, the dogmatic nature of education, the inadequacy of vocational training, and poor teacher pay.

Daniloff, N. (1983). Are Soviet schools as good as they look? U.S. News and World Report 94(12), 33-34. (8)

Daniloff describes Soviet successes in literacy and science/math/technology. He believes students have a heavy concentration of math/science courses, but lack the ability to think for themselves. Other topics mentioned are the inequities of urban/rural education, large class sizes, the poor quality of teacher training, and the role of propaganda in social studies.

Downing, J. (1973). Comparative Reading. New York: Macmillan, 85-103. (9)

This study reports the presence of values and attitudes in typical stories from fourteen nations. Especially mentioned are countries with high or low scores on specific values, such as caring/nurturing, and traditionalism.

Downing, J. (1973). Comparative reading: A fourteen nation study. In Reading for All, Fourth IRA World Congress on Reading (96-102). Newark, DE: International Reading Association. (10)

Downing describes the methods used in studying reading behaviors in fourteen countries. Differences of reading instruction are attributed to the following areas: teachers' beliefs and attitudes, language, and educational and/or psychological concerns.

Downing, J. (1984). Reading research and instruction in the USSR. Reading Teacher 37(7), 598-603. (11)

Downing describes the wide variety of nationalities in the USSR. He mentions attempts to teach reading in the mother tongue whenever possible. The organization and regulation of the educational system are briefly described. A historical overview of methods from the prerevolutionary period to the 1950's is given. Research efforts in methods for helping children develop linguistic concepts are described.

Durr, S., & Hickman, R. (1974). Reading instruction in Soviet schools: Methods and materials. Reading Teacher 28(2), 134-140. (12)

This article is the result of ten days of discussion with Soviet educational leaders and from school visits in three cities. The day care system is briefly described. The beginning reading description includes the "ABC book," the use of letter-sound and syllable sounding, and comprehension activities. Conclusions are drawn.

Eklof, B. (1987). Russian literacy campaigns, 1861-1939. In R. Arnove, & H. Graff, National Literacy Campaigns: Historical and Comparative Perspectives. New York: Plenum Press, 123-146. (13)

This historical perspective focuses on national literacy campaigns in Russia, not other regions. It gives detailed information about literacy campaigns in the following periods: Tsarist Russia (1861-1916), the Revolution and Civil War Period (1917-1921), the New Economic Policy (1921-1927), and in Stalinist Russia (1929-1939).

Elkonin, D.B., translated by Raeder, R. & Downing J. (1973). In J. Downing, Comparative Reading. New York: Macmillan, 551-579. (14)

This article, written by a Soviet education researcher, discusses his theory that sound is the basic material of reading. He promotes the teaching of auditory discrimination before teaching reading. Included is a detailed delineation of a typical lesson. Experimental results are given.

Griffiths, D. (1984). Reflections on the teaching of foreign languages and literature in the Soviet Union. The Canadian Modern Language Review 41(1), 22-31. (15)

Methodology activities for speaking, reading, and writing are described. The author discusses textual materials, which are chosen for broadly educative value. Literatology, the science of seeking to explain content, is briefly described. The Soviet use of literature to serve socialism is discussed.

Higginbotham, J. (1985). Soviet literature: The library responsibility. Library Journal 110(14), 129-132. (16)

Soviet readers are prolific, including books by American authors. The author describes the limitations Soviet authors have when writing. Higginbotham advocates placing more Soviet publications in the United States libraries.

Horak, S. (1985). The Soviet Union and Eastern Europe: A bibliographic guide to recommended books for small and medium-sized libraries and school media centers. ED# 259-988. (17)

This extensive bibliography is to be used as a guide for librarians interested in including multi-cultural materials in the library. Language and literature, folk lore, education and culture, Russian language, and Russian literature are but a few of the topics included.

Lapidus, G. (1982). Sexual equality through educational reform: The case of the USSR. In P. Altbach, R. Arnove, & G. Kelly, Comparative Education. New York: Macmillan, 252-267. (18)

The Soviet revolution was committed to goals of sexual equality, female educational attainment, positive affects of educational attainment on employment opportunities, and the influence of educational attainment on family roles. Lapidus points out that there are still substantial differences in the Soviet Union in economic, social, and political life for males and females.

Literacy. (1975). Great Soviet Encyclopedia, vol. 7, 580-581. (19)

Literacy conditions in prerevolutionary Russia are described. Soviet efforts to eliminate illiteracy, both in the USSR and in other countries, are discussed. Literacy statistics for all Soviet republics are given.



Long, D., & Long, R. (1980). Education in the USSR. Phi Delta Kappa "fastback," #38. Bloomington: Phi Delta Kappa. (20)

The goals of Soviet education are set forth. Descriptions of preschools, general education schools, and teacher training are thorough. The authors also discuss problems in teaching and the educational accomplishments of the USSR.

Long, D. (1984). Soviet children's books: Expanding children's view of the Soviet Union. Journal of Reading 27(5), 418-422. (21)

The author gives results of a brief study using youngsters who had studied USSR and communism. Students were encouraged to read one age-appropriate book and several picture books from the Soviet Union. Changes in attitudes and understanding were measured using pre- and post-stories.

Loshkareva, N. (1985). Improving reading techniques in the USSR. Prospects 15(1), 111-116. (22)

This article challenges teachers to improve the teaching process so that all students have fluency in a variety of ways of reading. A brief background of Soviet research efforts from the revolution to the present time is given. The author gives teacher tips from grades one through ten on improving the students' abilities to read a variety of contents with improved comprehension.

Lulat, Y. Comparative education bibliography. Comparative Education Review. (23)

This bibliography is published at least once yearly. It includes adult and nonformal education, comparative education--general, educational planning and reform, general studies on comparative topics, higher education, Third World--general, Africa, Asia, Australia and the Pacific, Europe, Latin America and Caribbean, and North America.

Rosen, S. (1983). Education in the USSR: Current status of secondary education. Office of Post-Secondary Ed (ED.), Washington, D.C. ED# 268-030. (24)

This article is a detailed description of education in the USSR, including objectives, curriculum, reform and problems.

Silver, B. (1985). Language policy and practice in the Soviet Union. Social Education 49(1), 107-110. (25)

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reduce ethnic diversity. This article gives a historical perspective of government policies concerning language in schools from 1917 to the late 1970s. Many non-Russian Soviets are not bilingual, speaking Russian plus their native language.

Sisk, D. (1984). An international perspective on gifted and talented programs. ED# 246-607. (26)

Opportunities for gifted children in various countries are discussed. Opportunities for the Soviet Union include specialized secondary schools as well as outside-of-school programs. The bibliography gives sources for those who wish further information.

Strickland, D. (1980). Moscow book fair visit. Reading Teacher 33(6), 658-663. (27)

The author describes a trip to Moscow and her visits with Soviet publishers. It includes a description of children's readers, books and art work available at the fair. A reading lesson observed in an English language school is described.

Szekely, B. (1986). The new Soviet educational reform. Comparative Education Review 30(3), 321-343. (28)

The author gave the three main points of the June, 1983 to December, 1984 Reform: 1) the enrollment of six-year-olds in primary school, which has resulted in overcrowding; 2) universal vocational training in secondary; and 3) the improvement of curricular content and performance of teaching, including teacher working conditions/salaries, revised curriculum, and revised course syllabi and texts. Other topics described were: the socioeconomic reasons for the current reform, leadership changes in education, the structure of schools and associated management problems, and assessing the scope of reform.

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This brief article gives pros and cons of using the preparatory-grade syllabus and of keeping all six-year-olds together. (Note: This digest gives shortened versions of articles from the Soviet press. It gives the reader a view of areas of controversy and problems in the Soviet educational system.)

Weaver, K. (1971). Lenin's Grandchildren. New York: Simon and Schuster, 238. (30)

The author gives a very detailed description of preschool education in the USSR. Details of policy and philosophy are included. Programs for socially-useful labor, music, art, speech and thought, and learning to read and count are fully described. Other topics are: books and stories for preschoolers, teacher training, and issues in Soviet preschool programs.

[Also see 1.12]

CIRE 613: Comparative Reading Instruction

References from I.R.A. Journals

The following references come primarily from I.R.A. journals, and hence they are readily available at most university libraries. Abbreviations used in the reference list are as follows: (1) RRQ= Reading Research Quarterly, (2) RT= Reading Teacher, (3) Jour Rdg= Journal of Reading and (4) Rdg Wrld= Reading World (not I.R.A.).

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Master List  
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Technical  
Report No.

- 84-01 Brozo, W.B., Schmelzer, R.V., & Spires, N.A. A Study of Test Wiseness Clues in College/University Teacher-Made Tests with Implications for Academic Assistance Centers. (ERIC No. ED 240-928)
- 84-02 Stahl, N.A., Brozo, W.G., & Henk, W.A. Evaluative Criteria for College Reading-Study Research. (ERIC No. ED 240-933)
- 84-03 Schmelzer, R.V., Brozo, W.G., & Stahl, N.A. Using a Learning Model to Integrate Study Skills into a Peer-Tutoring Program. (ERIC No. ED 256-244)
- 84-04 Brozo, W.G. & Stahl, N.A. Focusing on standards: A Checklist for Rating Competencies of College Reading Specialists. (ERIC No. ED 248-762)
- 84-05 Stahl, N.A., Brozo, W.G., & Gordon, B. The Professional Preparation of College Reading and Study Skills Specialists. (ERIC No. ED 248-761)
- 84-06 Stahl, N.A. & Brozo, W.G. Vocabulary Instruction in Georgia's Post-secondary Reading Programs. (ERIC No. ED 248-759)
- 84-07 King, J.R., Stahl, N.A., & Brozo, W.G. Integrating Study Skills and Orientation Courses. (ERIC No. ED 248-760)
- 84-08 Brozo, W.G. & Schmelzer, R.V. Faculty Perceptions of Student Behaviors: A Comparison of Two Universities. (Not Submitted to ERIC--See the Journal of College Student Personnel, Vol. 26, #3)
- 84-09 Henk, W.A., Stahl, N.A., & King, J.R. The Readability of State Drivers' Manual. (Not submitted to ERIC--please refer to Transportation Quarterly, 38(4), 507-520).
- 84-10 Stahl, N.A., Henk, W.A., & King, J.R. Are Drivers' Manuals Right for Reluctant Readers? (ERIC No. ED 245-208)
- 84-11 Stahl, N.A. & Henk, W.A. Teaching Students to Use Textbook-Study Systems (Not submitted to ERIC--please refer to Reading Horizons, 25 (3), 153-161).
- 85-01 Stahl, N.A., Hynd, C.R., & Henk, W.A. Avenues for Chronicling and Researching the History of College Reading and Study Skills Instruction. (ERIC No. ED 256-245)

- 85-02 Smith, B.D. & Elifson, J.M. Do Pictures Make a Difference in College Textbooks? (ERIC No. ED 256-246)
- 85-03 Brozo, W.G., Stahl, N.A., & Gordon, R. Training Effects of Summarizing, Item Writing, and Knowledge of Sources on Reading Test Performance. (ERIC No. ED 256-247)
- 85-04 Brozo, W.G. Teaching Students to Recognize and Manipulate Structures of Cohesion. (ERIC No. ED 256-248)
- 85-05 Henk, W.A. & Stahl, N.A. A Meta-Analysis of the Effect of Notetaking on Learning from Lecture. (ERIC No. ED 258-533)
- 85-06 King, J.R. & Stahl, N.A. Training and Evaluating Notetaking. (ERIC No. ED 263-537)
- 85-07 Chase, N.D. Reader Response Techniques for Teaching Secondary and Post-Secondary Reading. (ERIC No. ED 263-535)
- 85-08 Hynd, C.R. & Alvermann, D.E. The Role of Refutation Text in Overcoming Difficulty with Science Concepts. (ERIC No. ED 264-525)
- 85-09 Best, P.A. & Brozo, W.G. Current Research on Studying: A Qualitative Analysis. (ERIC No. ED 263-534)
- 85-10 Stahl, N.A., Henk, W.A., Brozo, W.G., & Sicklele, M. Developing Independent Learners: Strategies and Tactics for Mastery of Text. (ERIC No. ED 263-536)
- 85-11 King, J.R., Stahl, N.A., & Brozo, W.G. Quality Assessments of Prospective Teachers: Surveys of Previous and Present Practices. (ERIC No. ED 266-133)
- 86-01 Hynd, C.R., Chase, N.D., Stahl, N.A., & Smith, B. Reader Response in the College Developmental Classroom. (ERIC No. ED 270-729)
- 86-02 Stahl, N.A. & Henk, W.A. Tracing the Roots of Textbook Study Systems: An Extended Historical Perspective. (ERIC No. ED 270-723)
- 86-03 Brozo, W.G. & Tomlinson, C.M. Literature: The Key to Lively Content Courses. (ERIC No. ED 271-720)
- 86-04 Brozo, W.G. & Johns, J.L. A Content Analysis of Forty Speed-Reading Books. (ERIC No. ED 270-724)
- 86-05 Hynd, C.R., Stahl, N.A., & Whitehead, E.H. Computers in the College Reading Program: A Basic Primer. (ERIC No. ED 269-753)
- 86-06 Singer, M. & Etter-Lewis, G. Personality Type and College Reading Comprehension. (ERIC No. ED 278-967)



- 86-07 Stahl, N.A., Brozo, W.G., & Simpson, M.L. Developing College Vocabulary: A Content Analysis of Instructional Materials. (ERIC No. ED 278-970)
- 86-08 Brozo, W.G. & Curtis, C.L. Coping Strategies of Four Successful Learning Disabled College Students: A Case Study Approach. (ERIC No. ED 281-149)
- 86-09 Stahl, P.C., Stahl, N.A., & Henk, W.A. Historical Roots, Rationales and Applications of Peer and Cross-Age Tutoring: A Basic Primer for Practitioners and Researchers. (ERIC No. ED 284-660)
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