Secondary Education Project - Teacher Development Component

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Violeta Janusheva
University "St. Kliment Ohridski" - Bitola
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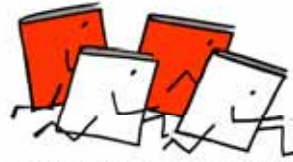
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14th European Conference on Reading · Zagreb · Croatia
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Literacy Without Boundaries, July 31 - August 3, 2005
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Literacy without Boundaries

Proceedings
of the 14th European Conference on Reading
Zagreb, Croatia 2005

Editors:

Gerry Shiel, Ivanka Stričević and Dijana Sabolović-Krajina

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Preface

The 14th European Conference on Reading took place in Zagreb, Croatia on July 31-August 3rd, 2005. The Conference, which was attended by over 300 participants from 40 countries, was jointly organised by the International Development Committee of the International Reading Association (IDEC), and the Croatian Reading Association.

It is with great pleasure that we publish the Proceedings of in electronic format. These Proceedings represent a permanent record of the presentations delivered at the Conference, and, as such, will be of interest both to participants and to those who, for whatever reason, were unable to be present in Zagreb for the Conference.

The editors of the Proceedings are grateful to the Editorial Board. Members of the Board, who were drawn from several European countries, provided feedback on the quality of the papers submitted, and, in some cases, provided specific comments on the style and language of the papers. Their feedback was invaluable in putting the Proceedings together. It should also be stressed that their contributions were entirely voluntary.

The Conference included five keynote addresses, and we are delighted that all of these are included in the Proceedings. In his paper on 'Reading in Croatia – Past and Present', Aleksandar Stipčević describes the development of reading over a period of 13 centuries. He acknowledges that the 'chaotic linguistic and cultural circumstances' that characterized Croatia over the centuries had both positive and negative effects, and takes solace in the fact that many Croatians today can read in a variety of different languages. An interesting feature of the paper is the use of library catalogues to make inferences about the reading habits of people in different historical periods.

In her paper, 'Bridges to Lifelong Literacy', Kay Raseroka of Botswana, President of the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA) at the time of the Conference, writes about links between IFLA and the International Reading Association, highlighting areas in which the two organisations have common interests, including advocacy for improved literacy levels. Her paper also provides an interesting recount of the excellent work being carried out by libraries around the world in promoting literacy in very challenging circumstances.

Richard Allington of the United States of America, who was President of the International Reading Association at the time of the Conference, describes 'Five Missing Pillars of Scientific Reading Instruction' in his paper. These are: (i) providing children with access to interesting texts and giving them choice; (ii) matching children with appropriate texts; (iii) integrating reading and writing instruction to tap into their inter-relationships, (iv) balancing whole-class teaching and small group work; and (v) providing expert tuition on a needs basis. He argues that, if implemented, these missing pillars have the potential to significantly improve the effects of reading instruction in schools.

In her paper, 'Literacy without Boundaries', Renate Valtin of Germany provides a most interesting analysis of the outcomes of two international studies, PIRLS (involving 9-year olds) and PISA (involving 15-year olds), from the perspective of children's rights. The paper lists ten rights of children established by the International Reading Association, and examines these systematically using both achievement outcomes and questionnaire data, such as the numbers of books in children's homes, the extent of parental involvement in reading, and the types of reading instruction provided to children. In her concluding section, she ranks countries in each study on the extent to which they succeed in addressing the rights of children.

A fifth keynote speaker, Danko Plenvik of Croatia, writes about at 'The 21st Century Reader: A Pioneer or a Victim'. He acknowledges that learning to read is a lifelong task, and laments the fact that 'the golden age of a relaxed approach to learning to read is long behind us'. However, he does not dismiss the importance of some new trends, including the widespread use of text messaging and the availability of audio-books. He concludes on an optimistic note by stating that 'It takes exactly this kind of diverse media competition, with various forms of textuality, to make the ideal reader of this century more independent and creative than ever before.'

As well as the papers by our keynote speakers, these Proceedings contain 71 papers distributed over 15 Conference themes.

Under the theme of Literacy and Democracy, Gail Goss of the USA provides examples of children's textbooks that can be used to help them understand issues of conflict and war in their lives, while Åsa Wedin and Högskolan Dalarna of Sweden describe their ethnographic study of literacy practices in a rural community in Tanzania.

Under the theme, Literacy and National Minorities, Heini-Marja Järvinen of Finland describes how the Storyline Method can be used to teach a second language (Finnish) to immigrant students.

Under a related theme, Multi-lingual Literacy, Shlomo Alon of Israel describes how students in his country learn at least three languages (Hebrew, Arabic and English), and outlines school programmes designed to foster language learning. Then Smiljana Narančić Kovač of Croatia describes a study of the differences between original English language texts, and versions of the same texts that have been revised for use with students learning English as a second language. Following this, Meta Grosman of Slovenia describes some of the cultural differences that students in her country must consider when asked to interpret novels that are set or written in English speaking countries.

Under the theme Pre-school Literacy and Early Literacy, Kadi Lukanenok and Tiiu Tammemäe of Estonia describe a training programme for working with children between 5 and 7 years of age who have phonetic or phonological difficulties. Following this, Dubravka Maleš and Ivanka Stričević of Croatia outline a study on the role of parents in pre-school children's reading development, and the importance that families attach to literacy. Following this, a team of four researchers from Estonia, Svetlana Belova, Ene Kulderknup, Meeli Pandis, and Õie Vahar, describe an internationally-supported evaluation of a project designed to teach Estonian to pre-school children in Russian-speaking areas of the country. Then Kornelija Petr and Boris Badurin of Croatia look at associations between family literacy and family SES in that country. Finally, Hanna-Sofia Poussu-Olli of Finland describes a test designed to measure the reading-related skills of pre-school children. The test arises from recent reforms of pre-school education in that country.

Adolescent and Adult Literacy provides a unifying theme for the next cluster of papers. These include an examination of attitudes to illiteracy in England between 1850 and 1890 by Maxine Burton of England, a case study of work-place literacies by Portuguese researchers Maria de Lourdes Dionísio and Rui Vieira De Castro, and a paper on changes in adults' reading habits in Estónia by Signe Jantson and Helle Maaslieb of Estonia. The next three papers deal with adolescent reading: Trevor McDonald and Christine Thornley of New Zealand discuss the reading demands on secondary schools students in that country across the curriculum; Anela Nikčević-Milković of Croatia draws on the Flower and Hayes model to examine the use of cognitive and metacognitive processes by high-school students; and Zofia Zasacka of Poland profiles different types of adolescent readers in that country.

In a paper under the theme of Literacy and Lifelong Learning, Sara Ann Beach of the US, Angela Ward of Canada, Mary Melvin of the US, Sapargul Mirseitova of Kazakhstan, and Maria Malikova of Slovakia, all prominent reading experts, describe variables that impacted on their development as readers, writers and literacy professionals. Under the same theme, Cecilia Nielsen of Sweden uses a phenomenological perspective to examine the life histories of two students who experienced difficulty learning to read at school.

Of particular interest is the large number of papers under the theme of Literacy and Libraries, several of which were submitted by Croatian authors. First, Lorenka Bučević-Sanvincenti describes new approaches to learning, including informal and non-formal learning, and reflects on how e-learning will evolve in Croatia. Following this, Hela Čičko of Croatia writes about the 'Biblioland' project, which involved re-desiging children's libraries around the themes appearing in children's books. Then, Lea Lazzarich and Eugenia Popović look at how library services at a Croatian university have responded to recent technological developments in learning. Following this, Marijana Mišetić of Croatia a digital library project (the Manuzio Project) at the Italian Studies Department at the University of Zagreb.

Other contributions under the same theme include a paper by Agapi-Stamoulia Polyzou and Theodora Tsoli of Greece on Internet censorship in public and children's libraries, a paper by Aira Lepik and

Shvea Sogenbits of Estonia on comparisons between library services for children in Tallinn and Helsinki, and a paper by Silvija Tretjakova and Aija Kalve of Latvia on a reading promotion project in that country in which children take on the role of jurors. Following this, Elena Corradini of Italy writes about the use of libraries by teenagers, Božica Dragaš Matijević and Boris Bosančić, of Croatia review the 'Ask a Librarian' Service and write about ways in which librarians can support library users in searching for information on the Internet, and Sanja Frajtag of Croatia writes about the role of The Croatian Library for the Blind in improving literacy of its members. Finally, Jadwiga Kołodziejska of Poland considers how some groups in society benefit form literacy, while others, who lack literacy skills, are effectively marginalised.

Although a number of papers under other themes addressed aspects of Literacy and Technology, three papers are included specifically under this theme. The first of these, by Estela Banov of Croatia, looks at kindergarten children's reactions to an electronic version of 'Croatian Tales of Long Ago'. The second, by Debra Price, Mary Robbins, Leonard Breen, Betty Higgins and Melinda Miller of the US, describes the development and delivery of an on-line Masters-level course in reading in that country. The third, by Silko Stefancic of Croatia, describes a digital literacy project related to the work of Croatian writer Ivana Brlic Mazuranic.

Several papers in this volume also address aspects of assessment, though just two of these appear under the theme of Assessment of Language and Literacy Development. The first, by Eero Laakkonen and Hanna-Sofia Poussu-Olli of Finland, describes a national assessment programme for fourth grade students in Kosovo. The second, by Valerija Skender of Australia, describes efforts to develop a literacy curriculum for English as second language (ESL) students in New South Wales.

Five papers appear under the theme Reading Difficulties and Intervention Programmes. The first, by Vesna Đurek of Croatia, describes a reading programme for pupils with slow cognitive development. The second, by Ruya Guzel Ozmen and Gungor Cevik of Turkey, outlines an approach to developing the reading fluency of children with learning difficulties. The third, by Veerle Portael and Caroline Andries of Belgium describes an activity called The World Game that can be used in the assessment of dyslexic difficulties. The fourth, by Aliye Evin Kasapoglu and Ebru Tuba Yurur of Turkey looks at the effects of extensive reading in English on the literacy development of students at a university preparatory school. The fifth, by Bronisława Woźniczka-Paruzel of Poland, considers the rights of students with hearing impairment to library and information services, and identifies some areas in need of development in Poland

There are 11 papers under the theme, Reading and Teaching Strategies. First, Jessica Gail Bevans of the US looks at the historic and continuing role of the reading clinic in university settings in that country. Then Marie Ernestova of the Czech Republic describes the role of binomial phrases (such as 'food and drink' or 'pins and needles') in the development of students of English as a foreign language, and considers ways in which this aspect of collocation can be used as a teaching tool.   The third paper, by Vesna Grahovac-Pražić and Katica Balenović of Croatia, argues that some elementary-level textbooks in that country do not pay sufficient attention to non-literary discourse such as directions or descriptive texts about animals. The fourth paper, by Thienhuong Hoang of the US, looks at how a teacher and seven of her fourth grade students used viewpoint, textual connection, interpretation and socio-cultural dynamics to make sense of literacy texts. In the fifth paper, Vuokko Kaartinen of Finland considers ways in which 22 preservice teachers develop their understanding of how to teach reading and literature. The sixth paper, by Barka Marjanović of Croatia, describes some strategies in teaching reading and writing in the first grade of elementary school. In the seventh paper, Sue Rogers of the US describes the responses of experienced elementary-level teachers to a programme for teaching content area reading strategies to young children. The eighth paper, by Ayşegül Sallı of Cyprus, looks at reading comprehension strategy usage by University freshmen in an English as a second language programme. The ninth paper, by Renata Šamo of Croatia describes ways in which verbal protocols can be used to uncover students' reading strategies in research and instructional contexts. The tenth paper, by Jutta Kleedorfer of Austria, outlines approaches that have been adopted in that country to encourage adolescents to read more often and to apply reading strategies when they do so. The eleventh paper, by Lejla Nebiu, Anica Petkoska, Violeta Januseva,

Verica Jakimovik, and Valentina Anastasova of Macedonia, describes an approach to the professional development of practicing teachers as they prepare to implement innovative teaching and assessment activities in literacy.

Under the theme, Reading and Writing for Critical Thinking, José Brandão Carvalho and Jorge Pimenta of Portugal describe a study in which they examined the writing skills of university-level engineering students, while Visnja Grozdanic, of Croatia outlines two approaches to the evaluation of critical thinking in written texts of students in a business college setting.

There are six papers under the theme Schools Where Literacy Thrives. The first five are linked to a project of the European Committee of the International Reading Association called Schools Where Literacy Thrives. The first, by Estela D´Angelo, Piedad Pozo, Maria Rosa Sobrino, Javier Cabañero and Laura Benítez of Spain, describes a five-year long intervention programme for immigrant children in Madrid, for whom Spanish is a second language, and focuses specifically on the children's writing development. The second paper, by Ann-Sofie Selin and Pehr-Olof Rönnholm of Finland, describes how teachers implement dynamic assessment to identify reading needs of children during the first year of formal schooling. The third paper, by Tatiana Potyaeva of Russia, describes how a language school in Moscow successfully implemented a range of programmes and strategies to improve the literacy levels of students. The four paper, by another Russian, Svetlana Ushakova, outlines the how certain reading and writing strategies were implemented in the same high school over a number of years, and the impact that strategy use by students had on their reading and writing skills and on their motivation to read. The fifth paper, by Natalia Smetannikova of Russia, looks at the implementation of reading and writing strategies in three high schools – two in Moscow, and one in St. Petersburg. She stresses the importance of literacy activities in both curricular and extra-curricular contexts, and across languages. The sixth paper, by Loone Ots, Mare Leino, Viive Ruus, Ene-Silvia Sarv and Marika Veisso of Estonia, describes the reading habits of teachers and pupils in that country, and note that two thirds of teachers read for pleasure.

There are six papers under the theme of Literacy and Literature. First, Irina Bochkova of Russia presents strategies for developing students' understanding of Shakespearian plays. Then, Tatiana Galaktionova of Russia describes the Little Prince Award, which is made to teachers who instil a love of reading in children, based on nominations by the children themselves. Third, Stjepan Hranjec of Croatia, writes about text in children's literature serving to enrich student's literacy.

The fourth paper, by Marinko Lazzarich of Croatia, describes the interest of adolescents in required course reading as well as modifications made to courses in order to increase interest. The fifth paper, by Peter Schneck, President of the International Board of Books for Young People (IBBY), provides an overview of IBBY's efforts to provide children around the world with equal access to high-quality books. The sixth paper, by Iris Šmidt Pelajić of Croatia, considers the relevance of Grimm's fairytales to today's readers, including their continuing impact in Croatia, and their role in teaching foreign languages.

Finally, six papers are presented under the 'Free Papers' theme. First, Jadranka Lasić Lazić, Marija László and Damir Boras of Croatia outline a study in which university students' understanding of scientific articles was investigated. Then Morag Mac Martin of Scotland describes a programme designed to improve the English proficiency of volunteer workers in a care setting in that country. Third, Renato Nisticò of Italy discusses reading as an anthropological problem. He begins his paper with the observation that 'Reading is damaging, both for the devoted reader and for those closest to this unfortunate creature.' Fourth, Nada Todorov of Serbia outlines the role of parents in promoting children's reading in that country and points to factors associated with parents' efforts to motivate their children to read. Fifth, Linda Wason-Ellam and Angela Ward of Canada present three-year long ethnographic study of out-of-school reading practices in a Canadian community, including reading practices in libraries. In the final paper, Jutta Kleedorfer of Austria describes a European Union-funded project called Books and Reading for Intercultural Education, which was implemented in 16 countries.

The set of papers in this volume clearly demonstrate the range of ideas on reading and literacy development that were shared at the 14th European Conference on Reading in Zagreb, and there cross-

national relevance is consistent with the Conference theme, Literacy without Boundaries. While the editors did everything possible to ensure the consistency and accuracy of language and references, final responsibility for these aspects lay with individual authors.

Editors
Gerry Shiel,
Ivanka Stričević and
Dijana Sabolović-Krajina

Reading in Croatia – Past and Present[1]

Aleksandar Stipčević, Croatia

The title of my paper suggest a long and exhaustively historical reconstruction of the reading in Croatia, but according to my personal experience, the human endurance in similar circumstances, and especially the human patience, is very limited; therefore I will reduce my speech to twenty minutes, not more.

At the beginning I will give you a brief introduction about the historical situation in the Croatian lands during the past 13 centuries, from the immigration of the Croats on the east coast of the Adriatic Sea to this day. This land is very beautiful indeed, but the coast with so many havens and harbours was extremely important for the navigation of the sailing-vessels and the warships, of course not only Croat, but for all the others. as well. So, the Croats soon after their coming in the Adriatic coast became aware that living in this beautiful land was very dangerous. Many nations and empires were interested in dominating this strategic littoral. First the Byzantines, than the Franks, the Venetian Republic, the Hungarians, Turks, Austrians, Germans, Italians, French, Serbs, Montenegrins etc. have had the plans to control not only the coast, but also the continental part of the Croatia.

The complicated geographical, political and strategic situation, the occupations of the Croatian lands throughout history, greatly influenced the production and the reading of books among the Croats.

From the Middle Age onwards the Croats wrote and read books in several languages and scripts. In the cities along the coast and in the continental parts of Croatia the liturgical language was Latin. All the books, not only the liturgical one, were written in the universal language of the Catholic Church, but in the villages the books were written firstly in the old Slavic, then in old Croatian, and finally in the Croatian language. These books were written in Glagolitic and in Cyrillic alphabets. In the cities along the coast the official language in administration and in public life was not Croatian, but the Italian language. So, at the same time in Croatia in the Middle Age, there were three languages and three alphabets is use.

The books with national characters (orthography) were, of course, written in Croatian; not all the books were written in Latin and Italian. We know the monasteries and cathedrals where the scriptoria worked for centuries, but we have also many documents about the importations of Latin and Italian manuscripts. So, the priests, monks, learned men read in Latin and Italian language and at the same time the priests in the villages read books in the national language and characters. This cultural situation persisted for centuries, in some parts of Croatia until the XIX century.

During the Middle Ages, common people in the villages were absolutely illiterate and only toward the end of this historical period were the first schools outside of the church institutions founded. These schools were founded by the city authorities for the future functionaries, servants, city clerks, merchants, public notaries, and were indispensable for the functioning of the mediaeval cities. We know that many among them housed small libraries with 10-20 volumes, mostly in the Italian and Latin languages.

In Renaissance period the number of the house libraries grew more end more and increased also considerably the number of books of classical (Greek and Roman) authors and especially the books of the great Italian writers and poets such as Dante, Petrarca, Boccaccio etc.

In is necessary here to stress the enormous role of the Latin language in Croatian culture. A great number of learned Croats from the Middle Ages onwards lived abroad, mostly in Italy, Germany and Hungary, and all those theologians, philosophers, physicians etc. wrote in Latin. Not only the Croats scientists and writers living abroad, but even those living in Croatia, wrote their essays, historical studies,

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[1] Keynote address.

mathematical works etc. in Latin. The Croat common people were not able to read those books, but on the other hand learned men all over Europe read such books.

So, Latin was the language of communication between the Croat scholars and the learned Europe. Incidentally, Latin was for many centuries the only language understandable to all educated Croats in littoral and continental Croatia. I remind you that the Croatian language is divided in three dialects and that each of them developed their own book production processes. The differences between them were so great that common people in one region could barely understand a book written in the dialect used in the other region. So, the popular books written in Kkajkavian dialect in the continental part of Croatia was illegible for the Croates in littoral Croatia (Dalmatia, Histria, Dobrovnik et.). This curious situation continued for centuries until the decision of the leaders of the National Movement in mid-Nineteenth century to choose the štokavian dialect spoken in Dubrovnik and in Bosnia as the official or literary language for all Croats.

From the Sixteenth century, the vernacular dialects became the usual language both in littoral and in continental Croatia, especially in the popular books but in the course of time also in the books of medicine, agriculture, fishing etc. written for the common people. The vernacular language was used first of all in the prayer-books. Many of them were printed by the protestants in Germany and in Croatia, then by the Jesuits and Franciscans in continental Croatia (especially in Zagreb). Firstly the Protestants and then the Catholics distributed among the common people prayer-booklets printed in the Croat language.

Many writers from the Renaissance onwards wrote their books in vernacular language for the common people who read only in this one. The writers Marko Marulić, Petar Zoranić and many others explicitly stressed in the prefaces of their books that his intent was to bring their works closer to the common people. For this reason those writers not only wrote in their mother language, but adapted their style and phrase to the intellectual level of the people of poor literacy.

In the long period stretching from the Renaissance all the way to the Croatian National Movement (mid-Nineteenth century) there were many group of readers in the Croatian lands depending on the language used at home, in the everyday communication, and this was linked to their social position. In the cities the priests, monks and the whole clergy and the learned community read books in Latin, Italian (in the littoral) and German (in the continental parts of Croatia). In the Croat lands under the Turkish occupation people read books written in Oriental languages (Arab, Turkish, Persian). Some of these books were written in Croatian language, but with Arabian characters   (the so called *aljamiado literature).*

There are many differences in the kind of books registered in various parts of Croatia. In littoral parts the learned community read religious books in Latin, and Italian literature, historical and other scientific books imported from Italy. The learned men of Zadar, Split Dubrovnik, Zagreb etc. retuning to their homeland from Padova, Bologna and from the other Italian university centres brought scientific and other books and created in their houses very rich private libraries.

In the archives of Zadar, Dubrovnik etc. we found lists of books, included in testaments of library owners and we can read the names of authors and the titles of their works. Until the end of the Eighteenth century the contents of those private libraries reflected the intellectual interests of the owners. Therefore, very rarely in those libraries do we find the unscientific, frivolous and similar literature.

In the Nineteenth century the structure of the private libraries changed. In continental Croatia ladies, married and unmarried, read cheap German books, and so the private libraries in the cities filled more and more with German novels or French, English etc., but in German translations. The very well organized booktrade between Zagreb, Varaždin, Osijek etc. with the great booksellers in Leipzig, Graz, Vienna etc. provided the booksellers in Croatia with virtually all book production in Europe. In the Nineteenth century the Croat patriots were engaged in a fight against Germanisation in continental Croatia and   Italianisation in littoral Croatia.

Many circumstances helped their efforts - firstly the advances of the strong national typography, then the expansion of the scholastic system, especially the elementary one, but most of all the awakening of patriotic feeling among all the strata of the Croatian society.

However, the complicated political situation caused a serious troubles in Croatian culture, including in the production and reading the books. The fall of the Venetian Republic and consequently the cessation of the centenary Venetian occupation of the Croat littoral, determined the end of a long period of the domination of Italian culture in Dalmatia. But unfortunately the end of this domination was not the end of foreign domination of the east part of the Adriatic Sea. Very soon the Venetian occupation was replaced by French occupation and then by the Austrian occupation. The language of administration and the public communication during the long Austrian rule was in German. For more then a century, the German language dominated in the everyday life in Croatia and only the fall of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy in 1918 changed the position of the books in Croatia and of the Croats as well. In meantime the retreat of the Turks from the Croatian lands stopped the production of books in Oriental languages.

In the meantime, during the Nineteenth century, books became cheaper and accessible to all peoples. More and more people books which were not indispensable to them. The catalogues of the private libraries show the fact that the contents of those libraries did not reflect the intellectual interests of the owners because those libraries were full of books which were probably never be read by the owners. For this reason the catalogues of this time often give us a wrong information about the reading habits of the owners.

Well, this is not a phenomenon specific to Croatians. You know that today the private libraries all over the world are full of books absolutely unnecessary to the owner.

A very important source of information about the reading in Croatia are the printed booksellers catalogues. A great number of those catalogues are preserved from all parts of Croatian lands, but the majority belong to the town of Zagreb, which became in the Nineteenth century a cultural and political centre of Croatia.

Usually the printed catalogues held the titles of books interesting to the middle class of the urban population. The booksellers have had a good feeling for the citizens' interest for specific kinds of literature and ordered from Germany, Italy etc. precisely that kind of literature. There is no doubt that the booksellers knew very well what books were needed in Croatia and their lists also revealed the reading interests of the various regions in Croatia.

However, those catalogues are not always a sure source for the reconstruction of the structure of book reading in Croatia. The reason for this uncertainty is the cheapness of the books in Nineteenth century. Again, many people bought many books, but they never actually read them.

On the other hand many categories of popular books (e.g. prayer-books, almanacs, calendars, school-books etc.) were not included in those booksellers' catalogues. Those book were sold only in the churches and by the ambulant booksellers. It is why a big part of the popular literature was never mentioned in the booksellers' catalogues, yet this literature was read by the majority of the people, especially those living in the country.

Much better estimates of the reading habits in the Croatian population in cities can be obtained from the printed catalogues of the subscription or lending libraries. The members of those libraries borrowed only books for personal reading or for members of their families and it is likely that these books were really read.

The catalogues of subscription libraries in continental Croatia are full of books in German language, but in littoral parts they contain mostly the Italian books. In any cases the borrowerstook out the books exclusively for reading, so the evidences of those libraries about the borrowed books and about the borrowers themselves is for us the best documentation about   reading. As an example, we can mention the printed catalogue of the subscription library founded by Emil Hirschfeld, the German bookseller coming to Zagreb from Bremen (Germany). In this catalogue from 1842, he listed 2144 titles. Only 100 books were in French; the other were all in the German language. There were no Croatian books in this catalogue.

In a similar catalogue printed 1856 in Varaždin, the catalogue of the the bookseller J.J.Prettner listed mainly books in German; there were a few in French, but not a single one in Croatian.

The structure of the books in subscription libraries continued to change and by the second half of the XIX century the proportion of books in Croatian language (original or translated from the foreign

languages) grew more and more. So in Zagreb in 1858 a catalogue holding 834 titles was printed, with 101 of these in the Croatian language.

It is interesting to note that the owners of those subscription libraries were often publishers and printers who also published some Croat books, but those books never appeared in their own catalogues!

All the time, the leaders of the Croatian National Movement and the other patriots were engaged in fighting against the German, Italian and other foreign books. One of the most prominent leaders of this political movement, the count Janko Drašković, published in 1838 a booklet in which he pleaded to "Illyrian" women to cease to read German books and to begin to read Croatian ones. He requested the active participation of the women in the national movement through helping with the affirmation of the Croatian book. It is intriguing that the count Drašković wrote this appeal to the Croat ladies in German language, not in Croatian, evidently because the count knew that they weren't able to read in their native language.

In the littoral parts of Croatia the situation was not very different. In Rijeka, for instance, the bookseller Ercole Rezza founded a subscription library and 1856 published three catalogues, one containing titles of books in Italian language, the second containing German titles, and the third with books in French. At this time in Rijeka 78% of the residents were Croats, 5.5% Germans and only 10 persons (mostly merchants) declared themselves to be French. Not a single book in those catalogues was in the Croatian language. Of course the Croats in Rijeka read books in their mother language, but they couldn't borrow them from Rezza's subscription library.

These unhappy and in some respects chaotic linguistic and cultural circumstances, I believe, are unique in Europe, and had very bad consequences for reading in Croatia. But, on the other hand, we cannot deny some positive consequences of this situation, because the people reading books in various languages, were in permanent contacts with contemporary European literature and science.

Still, these positive effects of the multi-linguistic reading in the past, are present even today. In fact, many people in Croatia can speak fluently and read books in many languages.

I described in my paper the linguistic situation in the Croatian lands throughout history simply because it is the factor which determined the position of books in Croatian society and the position of reading as well.

At the end of my speech I must conclude that, throughout history, the small country of Croatia used many languages and many scripts in books. Perhaps for this reason it is a very good idea to discuss in Croatia the subject Literacy without boundaries.

Bridges to Lifelong Literacy[2]

Kay Raseroka, University of Botswana, Botswana[3]

The theme of the conference is 'Literacy without Boundaries'. People from 40 countries, traditions and professions have committed themselves to share knowledge and explore new meanings of literacy in a globalised environment.

We are grateful for this opportunity provided by the Croatian Reading Association to present at the 14th European Conference on Reading. We acknowledge the hard work of the Local Organizing Committee reflected in the richness of the Conference and Program. We wish to recognize the vibrant library community, which as long as 1954, operated in a global environment and hosted a conference of IFLA here in Zagreb.

Children's libraries in Croatia have developed high standards of service. They are engaged with literacy from early childhood. In this way they have been partners with communities – even under difficult circumstances. They recognize the right of every child to information, education and literacy. This is a concern worldwide.

In the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA), there are sections for reading, children's libraries and school libraries, in addition to 45 other sections. Most are concerned about society and what librarians can contribute to human development through the use of information which, by itself, is just data. Good use of information helps us as individuals to understand the context in which we live. That means reading about ourselves and the world around us. This is what we mean by a literate person.

It is my view that literacy goes beyond reading, writing and numeracy. It includes other types of literacies that start with oral communication or orality, which is talking, telling and sharing. It is on this account that I chose Lifelong Literacy as my Presidential theme for IFLA.

"Literacy without Boundaries" made me think of how I myself became literate and I think it is appropriate to share this with you at this conference:

HOW I STARTED TO READ

I was born in Zulu Natal, South Africa, into a large and busy family. My grandfather had worked for and with an Afrikaner. Together they had trekked across the plains to settle in a part of the country that echoes the influence of Scotland; Glencoe, Dundee and Ladysmith. My grandfather died, leaving his younger wife to manage members of a family that spanned several generations. When my father and mother married, they took over some of her responsibilities of caring for the family members and ensuring that they followed their schooling and took on a profession.

Into this bustling household I was born and raised among my relatives. Dad loved to read his newspaper because he was a court recorder and, in the living room, in a prized glass case, he had his treasures: books in English and Zulu.

We all know that little children imitate. As so many of the family were in school, they did their homework in the kitchen. I would climb up beside them and take up pencil and paper. When I was with my Dad, I would look at the cartoon, Prince Valiant, and read along with him, in the same way that he was reading the news. And when the whole house was quiet, I would sneak into the living room and open the glass case to feel and look at Dad's treasures, without, of course, ever admitting that I had done so. In this way, and with the added stimulation of Sunday School, I absorbed the sounds of stories and the smell, look and feel of print before I went to school. I began, like so many of us, the happy journey that

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combines orality, writing and reading and that stimulates all the senses in search of pictures, questions and answers, meaning, imagination and communication.

You may say that my story is not so different from your memory of childhood: the natural desire to imitate what older people are doing; the fascination with words, stories, alphabets, illustrations, and books. Those of us introduced to the passing on of this pleasure in the natural course of growing up are privileged; we followed the lead of others around us; we stimulated our imaginations by conversing with the authors and storytellers whose works we held. But as we know, many children grow up in homes that have no books, with people who do not read and do not have a place to study or paper on which to write.

There are many reasons why homes may be without books, paper or models from which to learn to read. But you know most of those reasons, so today I want to discuss the alternatives that can provide youngsters and adults with an environment that simulates the natural stimulation of a home like mine. The building of bridges to literacy is the role of the local library and its partners. And on our journey together, I wish to discuss the library not only as place with its collections and services but also the presence of models such as those I had the privilege of imitating. We are learners and teachers!

I am honoured to have been invited to give a keynote address at this 14th European Conference on Reading. I am also delighted to represent the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions. IFLA, like the IRA, has many members from every corner of the world. For the most part, our members are either library associations or institutions, like national, university and public libraries, but we also have individual members and we know that a good number of them have memberships both in IFLA and IRA.

IFLA is a venerable association begun in 1927. It has grown and evolved immensely in the intervening 80 years just as libraries have. Quite recently IFLA shaped its priorities, values and programmes around three main pillars: Society, Profession and Membership. We have put society first, as we are anxious to highlight the role and impact of libraries and information services on individuals and communities, within their own cultural, social and economic contexts, and also within the larger international environment where issues of human rights such as access to information and intellectual freedom, as well as copyright, publishing policy, and global technologies and communications have a great influence. (1)

As librarians and educators, we know that human beings learn, communicate and take action using all their senses. We recognize that voice, image and the ability to write and read text are particularly important in supporting a literate environment. Orality, text, hieroglyphics and multi-media websites all have their place in our understanding of the world and our search for meaning. While many of you here at this conference are teachers of these literacies to young people in formal educational settings, we also know that much work is conducted by members of the community and not-for-profit organizations working with youth who are not at school and adults to develop and support the practice of literacy. Librarians see all of these groups as partners and bridge builders. We support the teaching and understanding of literacy but also develop collections, programmes and services to stimulate the practice of literacy for all age groups and members of the community.

EXAMPLES OF COMMUNITY ACTION AROUND THE WORLD

Perhaps some examples will illustrate the importance of work at the community level. There is a network of rural libraries in the mountainous region of northern Peru, far from Lima, the capital, and from the nearest town. Most of the residents are Amerindians whose way of life (the Incan way of life) was destroyed by the Spanish in the sixteenth century. The villagers have to walk for several hours to get to market each week to pick up necessities and to sell produce and their animals. But each of these isolated hamlets has a "librarian", a person nominated by the citizens to keep the library books and to provide access to them. Some of the books have been bought for the whole network of libraries and are moved from one village to another by a coordinator, a few times a year. But many of the books, in multiple copies, have been researched and written by the librarians themselves, although they have little formal education. The topics they write about cover all aspects of their life, past and present: their music, animal husbandry, use of herbs and plants, clothing, traditions and so on. Each subject deserves its own volume

and contains from about 30 to 200 pages. The text is typed and illustrated in black and white and the persons who have done the research and writing are named in the book. A simple cardboard cover in one-colour is added.

While there are several native Amerindian languages in the Andes, almost everyone speaks Spanish. This means that they understand each other. By tradition, groups of adults and children gather at the librarian's home in the evening and they read together from these local volumes. Everyone who reads takes a turn. Those who do not read listen and absorb the information and join in the discussion afterwards. Clearly, this sharing has an impact on the whole community. There is opportunity for imitation, discussion, use of memory and sharing. As the women work together in the fields next day, they sing from their traditional songs or discuss some of the issues they read in their "peasant encyclopaedia – enciclopedia campesina" the night before. (2)

The experience in Peru has been a model for the development and strengthening of community information resource centres in Illubabor, Ethiopia.

In another part of the African continent, in southwestern Africa, reading is considered so important that the Namibian Children's Book Forum developed a national annual Readathon. It is a week long reading and book festival that culminates in the National Readathon Day on the Friday. It purpose is first to develop a love of reading among learners in an effort to nurture a book culture and secondly to help schools develop their libraries.

At the end of September each year across Namibia, every member of the school community stops for a half hour to read: the principals, teachers, learners, and school staff. Booklets with wonderful stories are written and illustrated in English and eleven Namibian languages and are sent off to the schools with ideas about how to celebrate; no textbooks or school readers are allowed; and over the years, many schools have demonstrated great creativity and enthusiasm. A newspaper publicity campaign is launched so that everyone can become involved, including those who cannot read, parents and grandparents, community workers and members of the private and public sectors. Many partners are involved and the response to the annual Readathon has increased since its early days in the 1990s. In a number of cases, money is raised so that books for leisure, creativity and enjoyment may be bought for the school library, so that children can continue to read during the rest of the year. (3)

The National Library of Malaysia, like some other national libraries, has special responsibility to support reading, in collaboration with the Minister of Education. The Library is heavily involved in National Reading Month. Last year, the National Library hosted a 3-day celebration of storytelling, along with a reading summit. Many local figures illustrated how reading had influenced their lives and storytellers from Malaysia and abroad entertained the public at the conference and in bookstores throughout Kuala Lumpur. During this celebration, the link between storytelling and reading became very clear. The audience was so enchanted with the tales they had heard from the storytellers that they bought the books in which the stories were written and illustrated! So storytelling often leads to reading and writing reinforces a sense of identity and culture.

I have chosen these examples from different parts of the world because they illustrate both the local conditions and particularities of each society but also the connections that we who promote and value reading share. It seems to me that teachers and librarians are natural allies in understanding the needs of children and young people and of also relating to the families and communities in which they live. This knowledge and respect for each context allows us to work together in the creation of collections, services and programmes that meet the needs of community members.

You may have grown up at a time when libraries and librarians seemed to make all the decisions about their collections and programmes. Increasingly, library staff and the management committee (or board) have learned to consult with community members. Together they plan the library as a centre where a number of activities can take place. In Northern Canada, for instance, the library in the school serves both the educational staff and students but also the residents of Rankin Inlet. After school, the elders and community members go to the library for books and reading but also for events and classes, including computer classes. There are many audio-visual products related directly to the life of the Inuit people and

videos of the leaders are recorded and stored at the library. There is a local publisher that puts out the text in Inuktitut which uses syllabics.

In Accra, Ghana, there are a number of children's libraries, including a very successful library in Nima, a slum area of this capital. There a number of children are fed and all of them wash and dry their hands before going into read, hear stories or play games. The library has a number of extra-curricular activities including a choir and a soccer team. A study, financed by an American foundation, has been conducted, and has involved the children who attend this library. There is concrete evidence that their academic performance has improved through attending the library and a number of children have gained scholarships for secondary school. (4)

CONCLUSION

If we were to analyse the components of success in all these examples, we would acknowledge a number of important elements. The library staff and volunteer management committee are in touch with their communities. They are well-trained and can organize programmes and procedures. They are not afraid to ask for input and suggestions from the users. They seek out partners from all sectors: public, private and not-for-profit. They understand that learning is different among different age groups and genders and they look for collections and programmes that recognize and respect those differences but also stimulate interest. Many of the examples I have cited also involve creative activities: the making of books, videos and radio scripts and journals; the playing of games that call on one's capacity to learn and read the world; the celebration of communication and community, however, materially impoverished the situation. As it happens, most of these examples exhibit strong public relations. Their programmes, facilities and collections are well-managed and evaluated and they are accountable to the community and donors.

You may ask how we link these sterling examples to make a greater impact. And that is where our national, regional and international associations have a great role to play. In this connection, IFLA and IRA are privileged. We have association affiliates providing conferences, training, resources and opportunities to share with members at every level.

We also have members in most countries who can speak up on behalf of students and adults who benefit or could benefit from a stronger emphasis on reading and literacy. Advocacy of these basic human rights of access to information, education and freedom of expression cannot been taken for granted. Many pay lip service to them but do not deliver to the grassroots level of every country. It seems to me that we are honoured and privileged to take up action in arenas where the voice of many is not heard – at UNESCO, within the international spheres of the other UN agencies and the World Bank and International Monetary Fund, World Trade Organization etc. We should speak up in our own societies to our governments and regional councils. The clearer our message, the stronger our voice, the more likely we shall have some impact. Literacy and reading do allow individuals and communities to be more autonomous, more democratic in the sharing of responsibilities and power. They provide strength and confidence to individuals and groups to identify their needs and contribute to their solutions. Creating an environment for learning is itself a creative act – it opens our minds and hearts to different possibilities and different ways of seeing and knowing. It allows us to consider the importance of indigenous knowledge and cultural identity and helps build respect among peoples and institutions.

Through this address I shared a personal story – a story of watching and imitating those around me. What I now invite all of us to do, individually and collectively, is to commit ourselves to creating an environment where reading and the practice of literacy may flourish – not for our sakes, but for the members of all our communities. And because we work internationally as teachers and librarians, educators, policy developers and decision-makers, let us share our successes, learn from our failures and take seriously our responsibility to speak for and include those whose voice and writings are normally not heard or seen.

This is the 14th European Conference on Reading. Its theme is "Literacy without boundaries", and therefore I have not hesitated to give examples from all over the world. And therefore I do not hesitate either to express my hope that IFLA and IRA will work formally in partnership to influence those working

on the Millennium Development Goals and all those who can influence policy and decision makers, by speaking persuasively about the power of reading and literacy in providing strength, stimulation, pleasure, creativity and confidence to meet both individual and collective goals. We must demonstrate the impact of a literate society on the economic, cultural and social dimensions of development.

I wish you a very interesting and rewarding conference!

NOTES

1. For information on the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA), please visit the website at: www.ifla.org. For a discussion of role of libraries in predominately oral cultures, see the paper, *Library Service to Oral Cultures*: *The Reality versus the Ideal.* By Michelle Edwards at: http://www.slis.ualberta.ca/cap05/michelle/main.htm

2. For information on the Rural Libraries Network in Cajamarca, Peru, please see the following websites and articles:

Thirty Years in the Saddle Bag

http://www.wacc.org.uk/de/publications/media_action/archive/236_jul_2001/30_years_in_the_saddle_bag

Evans, G. (1998). Literacy and Rural Libraries: Canadian Researchers in Africa Draw Ideas from Peru. *LOGOS,* 9, 2, pp. 80-85.

Bernard, M-A. (1998). Lecture et identité dans les bibliothèques rurales péruviennes. *Bulletin des bibliothèques de France*, 43, 5, pp. 32-37. (http://bbf.enssib.fr/bbf/html/1998_43_5/1998-5-p32-bernard.xml.asp)

3. Information on the Namibian annual national Readathon was supplied by Professor Jeanne-Andrée Tőtemeyer during the 3rd Pan African Conference on Reading for All. The proceedings of this conference in Kampala, Uganda, August 2003 are to be published by IRA in 2005.

4. For information on the Osu Children's Library fund, please see: http://www.osuchildrenslibraryfund.ca/

Five Missing Pillars of Scientific Reading Instruction[4]

Richard L. Allington, University of Tennessee, USA

In the U.S., the National Reading Panel report (2001) set forth five pillars of scientific reading instruction: phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. While there is little disagreement that these are critical aspects of reading acquisition, the NRP report has been criticized for its narrowly-focused research review. Below I list five additional pillars of scientific reading instruction based on the available evidence concerning what really matters for learning to read. Each of these five pillars points to absolutely essential elements of "scientific' reading instruction. I provide citations for the most recent and powerful papers pointing to the scientific evidence supporting these additional pillars.

1. *Access to interesting texts and choice.* Children need easy access to a large supply of texts they can read and are interested in reading. Guthrie and Humenick (2004) completed a meta-analysis of a number of studies of classroom reading instruction and found that when classroom environments provided lots of interesting and appropriate texts, the impact on reading achievement was three times greater than the National Reading Panel found for providing systematic phonics instruction.

2. *Matching children with appropriate texts.* Children cannot learn much from texts they cannot read. They cannot learn to read from difficult texts. They cannot learn science or social studies from difficult texts. The first step in planning effective instruction is to find texts that match the reading and conceptual levels of the students you will be teaching. While many classrooms provide a large supply of grade level texts that are appropriate for normally developing readers, in too many classrooms there is scant supply of off-level texts for struggling readers. Struggling readers need appropriately difficult books in their hands all day long. (see International Reading Association; O'Connor, Bell et al., 2002; Swanson & Hoskins, 1998).

3. *Writing and reading have reciprocal positive effects.* The more effective curriculum plan ensures that lessons in reading and writing, composing and comprehension, and decoding and spelling are well-linked so as to take advantage of the natural reciprocity between the various reading and language processes. Less effective curriculum plans create lessons where decoding and spelling are separate, or where writing activities have no relationship to reading activities. Such plans ensure that the natural reciprocity will not be tapped into (Hefflin & Hartman, 2003; Tierney & Shanahan, 1991).

4. *Classroom organization: Balance whole class teaching with small group and side-by-side instruction.* Whole class instruction is simply unscientific. Children differ and effective classroom reading instruction provides a balanced mixture of whole class, small group, and side-by-side instruction all day long (Allington & Johnston, 2002; Taylor, Pearson et al., 2000).

5. *Availability of expert tutoring.* Some students simply need more intensive and more expert instruction if they are to maintain a pace of development that is comparable to their peers. Ensuring that such children have access to expert tutoring is essential if no child is to be left behind. Further, there exists little evidence supporting interventions where the instructional group is larger than 3 students. While tutoring is the most powerful design, expert very small group instruction will be sufficient to accelerate the development of many struggling readers (Allington, 2004; D'Agostino & Murphy, 2004; USDE, 2005).

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Literacy Studies without Boundaries:
A Different look at International Studies[5,6]

Renate Valtin, Humboldt University, Berlin, Germany

PISA 2000, PISA 2003, PIRLS 2001, PIRLS 2006 – we are faced with a growing number of large-scale international studies providing us with a rich body of information about levels of reading competence and factors related to reading achievement in various countries.

Why do we need these studies? We are told: PIRLS is "designed to provide policy makers, educators, researchers, and practitioners with information about educational achievement and learning contexts" (Mullis et al. 2003, 3). Likewise a central aim of PISA is to enable countries to monitor their educational performance and offer information to judge the comparative effectiveness of the education systems.

These data have been analysed, re-analysed and meta-analysed for information about the efficiency of national educational systems, as a basis for political decisions. You get the impression that these data are produced for institutions and adults. In this presentation I have chosen to take a different look at them: from the perspective of children and their rights, with the aim of answering the question: In what countries are children's rights to literacy education most effectively upheld.

It is not very long ago in history of humankind that childhood was identified or even "invented" and that children were for the first time considered not as small adults but as individuals with specific needs, perceptions and thoughts – entitled to special care and assistance. Rousseau in 1762 in his book "*Emile*" made the famous statement "Childhood has its ways of seeing, thinking, and feeling that are proper to it" (para. 258) and need to be respected. Rousseau is regarded as one of the first people to claim that children have rights (or let's specify boys have rights because Sophie, the girl in his book, was treated rather badly) and he was more a man of theory than of practice, since he consigned his own five illegitimate children to an orphanage.

More than 100 years ago Ellen Key's book "*The Century of the Child*" was published, and in 1924 the Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child stated the need to extend particular care to the child for reasons of physical and mental immaturity. In 1989 the United Nations declared the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Article 17 refers to the aim of these rights: the promotion of the child's social, spiritual and moral well-being and physical and mental health. Article 28 in rather general terms refers to the rights of children on the basis of equal opportunity. More specific rights of children to literacy have been declared by the International Reading Association (2000) which have been adopted by the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Lesen und Schreiben (*10 Rechte des Kindes auf Lesen und Schreiben*, www.dgls.de). The International Reading Association children's rights are as follows:

1. Children have a right to appropriate early reading instruction based on their individual needs.
2. Children have a right to reading instruction that builds both the skill and the desire to read increasingly complex materials.
3. Children have a right to well-prepared teachers who keep their skills up to date through effective professional development.
4. Children have a right to access a wide variety of books and other reading material in classroom, school, and community libraries.

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[5] Keynote address

[6] Notice: The power point slides of this presentation may be downloaded from the website of the German Association of Reading and Writing (www.dgls.de).

I am very grateful to Henrietta Dombey for polishing my English.

5. Children have the right to reading assessment that identifies their strengths as well as their needs and involves them in making decisions about their own learning.
6. Children who are struggling with reading have a right to receive intensive instruction from professionals specifically prepared to teach reading.
7. Children have a right to reading instruction that involves parents and communities in their academic lives.
8. Children have a right to reading instruction that makes skilled use of their first language skills.
9. Children have the right to equal access to the technology used for the improvement of reading instruction.
10. Children have a right to classrooms that optimize learning opportunities.
Source: International Reading Association (2000).

In this presentation I define some rights of children in terms adapted to the databases of PIRLS and PISA. The rights thus defined are both more general than IRA's 10 Rights of Children to Literacy and also more specific than the rights of children set out in the United Nations Convention. The Convention states that the child should "grow up in an atmosphere of happiness, love and understanding" in the family environment. Likewise one may claim that children should grow up in an atmosphere of respect, support and individual encouragement in school environments.

A good framework for defining more specific children's rights is offered by the UNESCO report written by the Delors Commission on Education for the Twenty-First Century. The report states that education plays an important role in the attempt of humankind to attain the ideals of peace, freedom and social justice, and identifies four pillars as fundamental to education: *learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be* (Delors, 1998).

Based on these pillars I have outlined nine rights of education to literacy. They fall into three categories:

- *"Learning to know and learning to do"*
    1) Children have a right to parental support.
    2) Children have a right to attend preschool or kindergarten.
    3) Children have a right to favourable educational resources at school.
    4) Children have a right to appropriate instruction based on their individual needs.
    5) Children have a right to be supported by teachers.
    6) Children who are struggling with reading have a right to receive intensive instruction from professionals specifically trained to teach reading.
    7) Children have a right to equal educational opportunity, regardless of social class, gender and nationality.
- *"Learning to live together"*
    8) Children have a right to favourable conditions in school to learn to live together in peace and harmony.
- *"Learning to be"*
    9) Children have a right to learning environments that help them to develop positive self-related beliefs and confidence in their own learning abilities.

The procedure is as follows: For each right, possible indicators in the databases of the international studies were identified. PIRLS and PISA offer a rich body of information about factors related to reading achievement in various countries: pupil characteristics like reading habits, engagement, gender, and socioeconomic status (SES) as well as information about features of the learning environments at home and in school. In each case I will present the top three countries with the most favourable scores on the indicators. I admit the arbitrariness of selecting only the top three: other countries may not have significantly different scores from these.

Because this is a European conference, I will consider only European countries participating in PIRLS and PISA[7]. When looking at the results, three aspects should be kept in mind:

- Different countries participated in PIRLS and PISA, with only 13 countries participating in both studies (with United Kingdom in PISA, England and Scotland in PIRLS).
- We have different databases: In PISA students and school principals completed a questionnaire; in PIRLS students, parents, teachers and principals participated.
- The results from PIRLS and PISA are difficult to compare with each other: In PIRLS the student is always the unit of analysis: the figures presented in the International Report (Mullis et al., 2003) are the percentages of students to which a certain characteristic applies.

But PISA gives different kinds of information about results: percentages (sometimes embedded in graphic information and difficult to translate into numbers), scale values and sometimes also index values (with the average of zero and a standard deviation of one across OECD countries). Because percentage measures are clear and evident, only these figures will be presented.

One word of caution is necessary: The data are based on self reports rather than external observation and so there may be biases in the answers: teachers, parents and principals may answer according to the social desirability of certain responses. Answers may be influenced by cross-cultural differences in response behaviour (such as modesty), or there may be cultural differences in the meanings connected to certain features.

RESULTS CONCERNING CHILDREN'S RIGHTS: "LEARNING TO KNOW AND LEARNING TO DO"

Children have a right to favourable learning conditions at home and in school so that they are encouraged and supported in learning to know and learning to do. Here, some contexts of learning in home, preschool and school will be considered.

1) Children Have a Right to Parental support

The home is an essential context factor for children's reading literacy. Parents are important for fostering early language and literacy activities, providing literacy and cultural resources and activities and as literacy role models. Both PISA and PIRLS demonstrate that there is educational benefit in home-based access to literature and other cultural possessions. Involvement in literacy activities from an early age is a key element of the foundation of future literacy.

The PIRLS data base offers three indicators for parental support:

Index of early experiences with oral and printed language

PIRLS used an index of Early Home Literacy Activities based on parents' responses to the frequency of the following activities they engaged in with their child prior to entry in primary school: reading books, telling stories, singing songs, playing with alphabet toys (e.g., blocks with letters of the alphabet), playing word games or reading aloud signs or labels (Mullis et al., 2003, 97).

PIRLS showed a positive relationship between reading performance and parents' engagement in early literacy activities with their children. Notably, children who were read to often had high reading performance.

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[7] European countries participating in PIRLS 2001 are: Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, England France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Rep. of Macedonia, Rep. of Moldova, Netherlands, Norway, Romania, Russian Federation, Scotland, Slovak Republic, Slovenia and Sweden.
In PISA 2000 the following European countries participated: Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Luxemburg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Russian Federation, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom (Scotland).

Index of home educational resources

Based on parents' and students' reports, an Index of Home Educational Resources was also used. A high score on this index indicates: more than 100 books in the home, more than 25 children's books, presence of 3 or 4 educational aids (computer, study desk for own use, books of their own, access to daily newspaper) and where at least one parent finished university (Mullis et al., 2003, 105). Students from homes with extensive educational resources had higher achievement in reading. Children in homes with many children's books (more than 100) had higher reading achievement than homes with fewer than 10 children's books.

Parents as literacy models

PIRLS assessed parents' reading habits and attitudes. Students with the highest reading achievement had parents who spent more than 10 hours a week reading at home (Mullis et al., 2003, 122). Likewise students whose parents read for enjoyment every day or nearly every day had a higher reading performance. This relates to parents' positive attitudes toward reading. The Index of Parents' Attitudes Toward Reading is based on parents' agreement with items like the following: "I like to read", "I like talking about books to other people", "Reading is an important activity in my home". The results are presented in figure 1.

Figure 1: Results from PIRLS: Top Three Countries on Different Aspects of Parental Support

Countries with the highest percentage of students in terms of:
- high level of Early Home Literacy Activities:
  England (83%), Scotland (82%), Russian Federation (66%),
  international average 52% (Mullis et al., 2003, 97)
- high level of Home Educational Resources:
  Norway (33%), England (27%), Sweden (26%)
  international average 13% (Mullis et al., 2003, 105)
- parents read at home more than 10 hours a week:
  Bulgaria (27%), Scotland (27%) Norway and Sweden (both 23%)
  international average 17% (Mullis et al., 2003, 122)
- high index of Parents' Attitudes Toward Reading
  Hungary (74%), Norway (73%) and Sweden (71%),
  international average 53 % (Mullis et al., 2003, 124)

PISA provides three indicators from the students' questionnaire, all correlated with reading performance:

Index of cultural possessions in the home

PISA asked students about possessions in their home related to classical culture, such as literature and arts.

On a measure of participation in cultural activities, students reported on activities related to classical culture, such as visiting a museum or art gallery, watching live theatre, or attending an opera, ballet or classical symphony concert, communication on aspects of culture.

On a measure of frequency of communication, PISA asked students how frequently they communicated with their parents on cultural aspects (discussing political or social issues; discussing books, films or television programmes; listening to music together) and social issues (discussing how well the student was doing in school; eating the main meal with the student; and spending time just talking). On average, cultural communication shows a stronger relationship with reading scores than does social communication (OECD, 2001, 147).
The results are presented in figure 2.

Figure 2: Results from PISA: Top 3 Countries in Terms of Cultural Activities and Possessions

Countries with the highest levels of:
- cultural possessions: Iceland, Latvia, Russian Federation (OECD, 2001,144)
- participation in cultural activities: Czech Republic, Hungary and Latvia (OECD, 2001,146)
- communication on aspect of culture: Italy, Hungary, France (OECD, 2001,147)

2) Children Have the Right to Attend Preschool or Kindergarten

The transition from a family to a school environment is a big step in a child's life. Preschools, kindergartens or similar programs might be useful in helping children and to prepare them for school. Furthermore these institutions offer children valuable opportunities to interact with peers. This is important because in the modern family children do not have many siblings.

PIRLS revealed that the average reading achievement was lowest among students not attending preschool and highest among those who attended for more than two years (Mullis et al., 2003, 130). In the absence of qualitative data (how well do preschools work?) a quantitative measure was used: the number of children attending preschool, kindergarten or similar programmes for more than 2 years (Mullis et al., 2003, 130). The results are presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Top 3 Countries with Highest Percentage of Children Attending Preschool

Countries with the highest amount of children attending preschool for at least 2 years are:
France (88%), Hungary (86%), Italy (78%), with an international average of 40%.

Leaving the level of preschool and kindergarten we now move on to the school and start with school resources related to the third right.

3) Children Have a Right to Favourable Educational Resources at School Fostering the Acquisition of Literacy

An adequate supply of educational resources is an important factor in a favourable learning environment, even if it may not guarantee high performance. For the acquisition of literacy the child's access to a wide variety of books and other reading materials as well as to computers in classroom and school is essential. PIRLS and PISA assessed different aspects of school environment and resources.

PIRLS asked for the availability and the use of libraries and computers in classroom and schools. Almost all fourth-grade students attended schools with a school library. More than half of the students also had classroom libraries. Despite the widespread availability of classroom libraries teachers reported using them relatively infrequently. Classroom libraries are under-used. In PIRLS there was a correlation between the frequency of using a classroom library or a reading corner and the average reading achievement (Mullis et al., 2003, 203ff). Concerning computer availability and use for reading instruction there was a remarkable variability between countries (Mullis et al., 2003, 254). The following indicators were used for our analysis.

From PIRLS:
- Students using a library in school every day (teacher report)
- Teacher reported that students used either a classroom library (or a reading corner) or school library every day or nearly every day.
- Students reporting using a computer at school at least once a week

From PISA:
- Principals' views on the quality of educational resources at school
- PISA asked principals for the adequacy of educational resources, such as computers, library and teaching materials, including textbooks, and multimedia resources for learning.
  The results are presented in Figure 4.

Results from PIRLS (%)
- Students using class or school library every day:
  Russian Federation (68%), Slovenia (66%), Moldova and Netherlands (both 61%), international average 44% (Mullis et al., 2003, p. 208)
- Students who reported using a computer at school at least once a week: England (67%), Scotland (63%), Iceland (59%); international average 29% (Mullis et al., 2003, 212)

Result from PISA
- Highest on index of the quality of schools' educational resources: Switzerland, Hungary, Belgium (OECD, 2001, Table 7.10, p. 304)

4) Children Have a Right to Appropriate Instruction Based on Their Individual Needs

In PIRLS teachers were asked to complete a questionnaire and we learn much about the organization of reading instruction, and the activities of teachers and students, as well as instructional materials. Because of the absence of observational data, it is difficult to answer the question, in which country do students receive the most appropriate instruction in terms of their individual needs?

Looking at the international data, the main results from the teacher questionnaire are: Teaching reading as a whole-class activity was the most popular approach; about half of the students were reading the same materials but at their own speed and another one-third were reading different reading materials according to their reading level.

My assumption is that the organization of reading instruction might meet individual needs of students when teachers report:
- using a variety of organizational approaches; and
- using different instructional material for students at different reading levels.

The answers of teachers on these organizational aspects of reading instruction were used as indicators. The results are presented in figure 5.

Figure 5: Top Three Countries in Terms of Organisational Aspects of Reading Instruction

Results from PIRLS (% of students)
- Teachers reporting using a variety of organizational approaches:
  Hungary (85%), Slovenia (84%), Norway (73%),
  International average 46% (Mullis et al., 2003, p. 156)
- Students using different instructional material at different reading levels:
  Scotland (89%), England (69%), Iceland (62%),
  International average 32% (Mullis et al., 2003, p. 154)

The numbers for Hungary have to be handled with caution, because of the small data base (Mullis et al., 2003, p. 156).

The PIRLS questionnaires for teachers and principals offer a multitude of bits of pieces of information, elements of a puzzle about reading instruction that we have to put together. Using more refined statistical methods we can put the elements in order and so construct a more coherent picture. Eva Lankes, leader of the German PIRLS 2001 team, used the information given by teachers concerning teaching methods, materials, organization of reading instruction, and activities of the students – namely those features that may indicate a child-centred instruction. She included 8 European countries. By means of Latent-Class-Analysis she identified 4 groups of teachers with 4 different instruction types, presented in the different columns of table 1:

- no daily reading instruction in fourth grade
- *teacher-centred instruction*. Teachers use standardized reading material and teach the whole class (esp. in Greece, but also in Italy, Germany and France).

- *individualized instruction*. Teachers don't use much structure or direct teaching. Children often read children's books. This type is most often seen in Sweden.
- children work in groups and have *individualized methods but the instruction is teacher directed* (very often seen in England and Scotland).

Table 1 : Distribution of groups of teachers with different instruction types

▨ Teacher centered instruction	
■ Teacher directed, individualized instruction in groups	*Source: Lankes, 2004, 561)*
▨ No daily reading instruction	
▨ Individualized instruction, child centred	
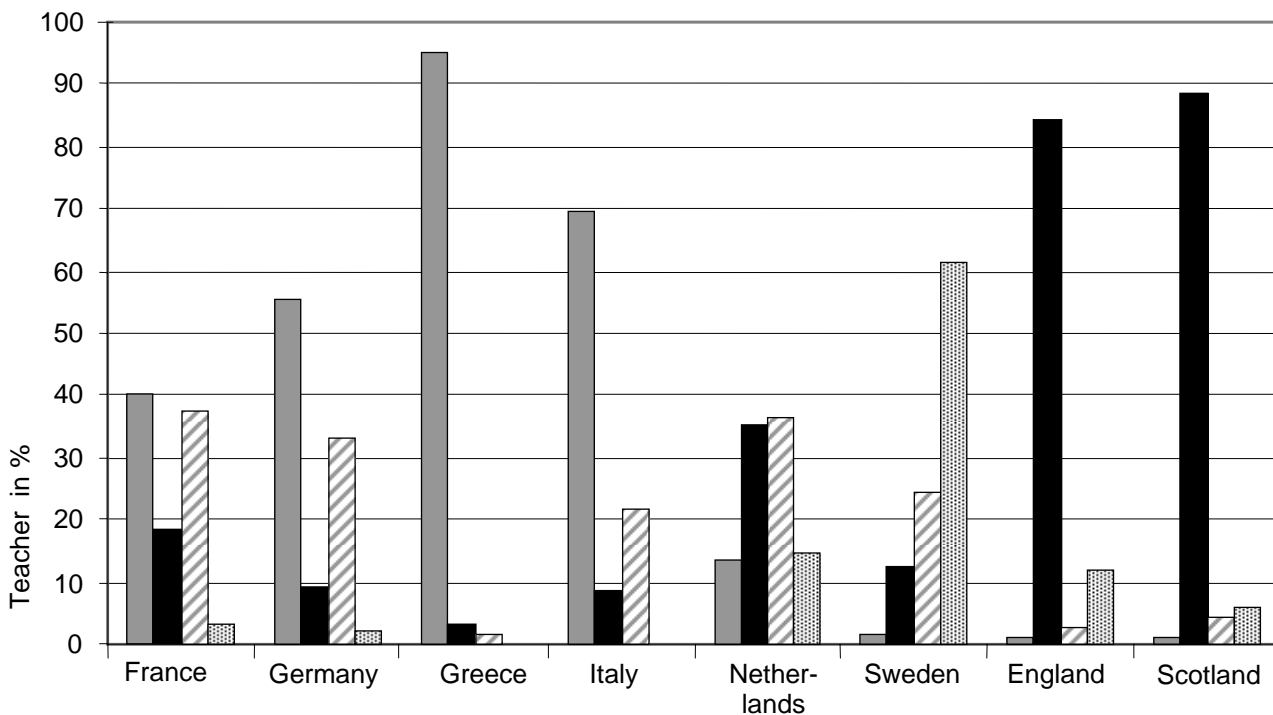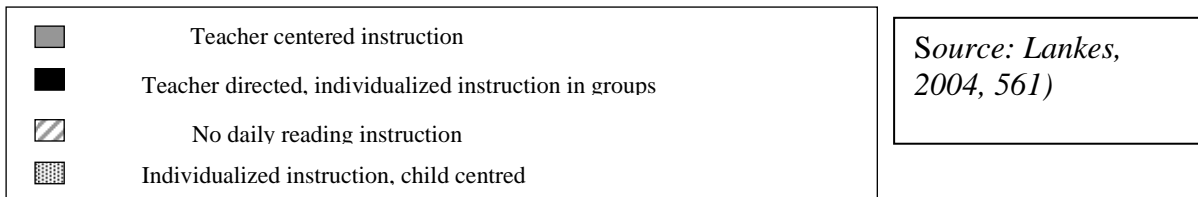
According to the analysis done by Lankes in 8 selected countries, students seem to receive individualized instruction in Sweden, England and Scotland (Lankes, 2004).

5) Children Have a Right to be Supported by Teachers

An important factor of success and well-being in school is perceived teacher support – the feeling of the students that teachers encourage and support their learning. Students feel and do better if teachers are interested in their progress and their problems.
In PISA students were asked to indicate the frequency with which teachers show an interest in every student's learning, give students an opportunity to express opinions, help students with their work and continue to teach until students understand.

The relationship between student performance and teacher support turned out to be complex. The correlation between the index of teacher support and performance is not positive in all countries, perhaps because teacher support may be limited to the weak performers or because "supportiveness" may not be an important element in teachers professional culture (OECD 2001, p. 162). Nonetheless, I think teacher support is a goal in itself, regardless of the relation to reading performance. If we look at the data we find:

Countries with the highest index of perceived teacher support are United Kingdom, Portugal and Denmark.

6) Children Who Are Struggling with Reading Have a Right to Receive Intensive Instruction from Professionals Specifically Prepared to Teach Reading

PIRLS asked teachers about the availability and the use of remedial or reading specialists or other professionals (learning specialists, speech specialists, etc.) to help students having reading difficulties. Internationally the vast majority (54%) of students were in classes where the teachers reported having access to specialists (Mullis et al., 2003, 161). Countries where almost all students were in classes where the teacher could call on some kind of professional assistance were Iceland, the Netherlands and Scotland. Internationally about one third of students falling behind in reading are working with remedial or reading specialists (Mullis et al., 2003, 163). Figure 6 presents the results.

Figure 6: Top Five Countries from PIRLS for Availability and Use of Remedial or Reading Specialists (Percentage of Students)

- Availability of professional assistance:
Scotland (94%); Netherlands (93%); Iceland (90%),
international average 54% (Mullis et al., 2003, p. 161)
- Students falling behind in reading who worked with remedial or reading specialists
Iceland (82%), Sweden (77%); Netherlands (76%),
International average 31 % (Mullis et al., 2003, p. 163)

7) Children Have the Right to Equal Educational Opportunity, Regardless of Social Class, Gender and Nationality

Article 28 of the Convention of the Rights of Children states that children have a right to educational opportunity. The big challenge for countries is to achieve jointly high overall student performance and low disparities between socio-economic groups, between genders and between children with and without a background of migration. The majority of statistical analyses provided by PISA are dedicated to this topic. So I will only point out the key results:

The European countries that are most successful in softening the impact of socio-economic background, and manage to combine a relatively high quality of student performance with relatively high equality between socio-economic groups are Finland, Iceland and Sweden. This shows that schools and education systems can succeed in moderating the relationship between social background and learning outcomes.

Eliminating gender gaps in reading performance is another challenge. On average the difference in performance between male and female in reading is 32 points (one third of the OECD average standard deviation), with the lowest difference (about 25) in Spain, Portugal and Denmark. Several countries combine low gender inequality with high performance including Ireland and United Kingdom (OECD, 2001, p. 125).

In PIRLS in all countries, girls had significantly higher reading literacy achievement than boys. The international average was 20 points (Mullis et al., 2003, 30). Countries which combine low gender inequality with high performance are Italy, Czech Republic and Germany (Mullis et al., p. 30, Bos et al., 2003, p. 115).

Concerning nationality, both PIRLS and PISA found out that students who spoke the majority language as their mother tongue outperformed those whose mother tongue was a minority language. In most countries with a large immigrant population, students born abroad or with immigrant parents read well below native students. With regard to educational opportunity of immigrant students the picture is very complex because of different circumstances of their relocation: differences in social-cultural background interact with differences in the effectiveness of the education system into which they have moved. So no data are presented here because it is difficult to make valid comparisons.

The rights referred to up to now have been concerned with learning to know and learning to do. We will now turn to the next pillar of education for the 21st century *"learning to live together"*.

8) Children Have a Right to Favourable Conditions in School to Learn to Live Together in Peace and Harmony

Living together in harmony is not only an *aim* of education but also a *means* and constitutes an important feature of school climate and a positive learning environment.

In the PIRLS data base 3 indicators are available:
- students reporting feeling safe in school
- a low level of incidence of violence
- principals' perception of school safety.

Students were asked whether they agreed or disagreed that they felt safe in school. Feeling safe in school is an important factor of well-being as basis for learning. As one indication for the level of violence students had to answer "yes" or "no" to the question of being hit or hurt at school in the last month. Principals were asked about the degree to which each of the following was a school problem: classroom disturbances, cheating, swearing, vandalism, theft, intimidation or verbal abuse of other students, and physical conflicts among students. This resulted in an index of Principals' Perception of School Safety (Mullis et al., 2003, 250).

If we look at the PIRLS results there is no linear relationship between the percentage of students who agree/disagree with feeling safe in school and reading competence. However, students who disagree a lot have the lowest average achievement. Students answering "no" to the question of being hit or hurt at school in the last month had higher scores in reading achievement than those answering with "yes". The Index of Principals' Perception of School Safety correlated with reading achievement (Mullis et al., 2003, 250). The results for the right to live together in peace and harmony are presented in Figure 7.

Figure 7: Results from PIRLS: Top Three Countries for Indicators of "Learning to Live Together"

- Students reporting feeling safe in school:
  Macedonia (87%), Romania (82%), Greece (79%)
  International average 64% (Mullis et al., 2003, p. 247)
- Students answering "no" to the question of being hit or hurt at school in the last   month:
  Norway (84%), Czech Republic (80%), Slovak Republic (79%)
  International average 68% (Mullis et al., 2003, p. 249)
- High level of Principals' Perceptions of School Safety:
  Russian Federation (92%), Romania (87%), Moldova (76%)
  International average 58% (Mullis et al., 2003, p. 250)

The PISA database offers the opportunity for choosing three further indicators:

- feeling a sense of belonging in school

PISA measured the sense of belonging based on students' responses to 6 items describing their personal feelings about being accepted by their peers and whether or not they felt lonely, "like an outsider" or "out of place" (OECD, 2003 b).

- principals' reports of student-related factors affecting school climate

PISA also studied the disciplinary climate in the school. Principals were asked to their perception of student-related factors affecting school climate such as disruptive behaviour, students lacking respect for teachers, and bullying of students as well as student absenteeism.

- students feeling positive about learning in co-operative situations

Since working in a team might be essential for future academic success and learning, in this section I will also look at a further indicator for learning to live together: students feeling positive about learning in co-

operative situations. PISA confronted the students with statements about whether they felt positive about learning in co-operative situations (OECD, 2003, 44). The results are presented in figure 8.

Figure 8: Results from PISA: Top Three Countries for Indicators of "Learning to Live Together"

- Highest level of sense of belonging in school:
  Sweden, Austria and Switzerland (OECD, 2003b, p. 20)
- Highest level of principals' report of school climate:
  Denmark, Czech Republic and Belgium (OECD, 2001, Table 7.2, p. 296)
- Students feeling positive about learning in co-operative situations:
  Denmark, Portugal and Norway (OECD, 2003a, p. 110)

The next right refers to the fourth pillar of education "*learning to be*".

9) Children Have a Right to Learning Environments that Helps Them to Develop Positive Self-related Beliefs and Confidence in Their Own Learning Abilities

Both the Convention of the rights of the child and the UNESCO report pf the Commission on Education for the 21st Century assert as a fundamental principle that education should contribute to the full and harmonious development of the individual's personality. Education has to ensure that everyone has the personal resources and the intellectual tools to cope with the tasks of life, to solve his or her own problems and shoulder his or her own responsibilities. Literacy is an important competence for participating in the social, cultural and political domains of our society. Children and young people must not only become literate, but, to make use of this competence, they also need to develop favourable personality characteristics such as motivation and positive self-related beliefs.

PIRLS and PISA have shown that students who approach learning with a strong belief in themselves and who read for pleasure outside school are more likely than other students to achieve high scores on tests of reading literacy. But I think that positive self-related beliefs and confidence in one's own learning abilities are desirable as outcomes in themselves.

In this section of my presentation I will look at three indicators: the scores students have in:
- *self-concepts in reading*;
- *reading for pleasure outside school*; and
- *self-efficacy* – the belief in one's own ability to overcome difficulties and to handle learning situations effectively.

These scores are dependent on self-reports and it is possible that students react to these questions differently, because of different cultural norms concerning modesty, scepticism or self-assertion. The PISA team sees these difficulties but suggests that the strength of the student attributes referring to self-concept in reading and self-efficacy can still be directly compared across cultures (OECD, 2003a, 39). Let's look at the self-concept data first. The results are presented in Figure 9.

Figure 9: Top Three Countries in Terms of Favourable Reading Self-concepts

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Highest index of students' reading self concept:
- PIRLS: Italy (56%), Sweden (54%), Bulgaria (52%),
  International average 40% (Mullis et al., 2003, p. 263).
- PISA: Denmark, Ireland and Italy (OECD 2003a, p. 110)

The results for reading for fun outside school are presented in Figure 10.

Figure 10: Top Three Countries in Terms of Student's Reading for Pleasure Outside School

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PIRLS
- Students reporting reading for fun outside school every day or almost every day:

| Russian Federation (59%), Lithuania (53%), Iceland (52%), |
| International average: 40% (Mullis et al., 2003, 268) |
| PISA |
| • Students reporting reading for pleasure outside school daily for at least one hour: |
| Russian Federation (31%), Greece (29%), Poland (25%), OECD average 14%   (source: OECD, 2001, table 4.4, p.268) |

As figure 10 shows, there is internationally a remarkable drop in reading for pleasure outside school between the ages of 10 or so and 15. Self-efficacy, the degree to which students believe they can deal with learning challenges, even if they find them difficult, are highest in the PISA countries Austria, Sweden and Scotland (Scotland was the only country of the United Kingdom that participated) (OECD, 2003a,110).

SUMMARY AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

I have reflected a long time on whether to produce and show overall country rankings on the indicators used here for the review of children's rights. At first I decided not to, in order to avoid this winner/loser perspective, because the child, not the country should be at the centre of consideration. However, I ended up deciding to show these rankings, because you can do it alone just by counting how often a country has been mentioned. But this can only be done with caution:

- Self report measures may not be directly comparable. If indices are constructed, measurement errors multiply.
- The indicators used here are not independent and may not be of equal weight.
- The distance between the scores of the top 3 countries and those of other countries may not be significant.

With these dangers of interpretation in mind, we allocated one point for each mention of a country as being among the top 3 countries for PIRLS and PISA–based indices. This process resulted in the following scores for frequency of mention. (The results from the Lankes analysis are not included here, because only 8 European countries were included).

Figure 11: Cumulative Results for the Analyses of the PIRLS and PISA Data

| PIRLS |
| 5 points: Iceland, Norway, Scotland, Sweden |
| 4 points: England, Russian Federation |
| 3 points: Hungary, Italy |
| 2 points: Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Moldova, Romania, Slovenia |
| 1 point: France, Germany, Greece, Lithuania, Macedonia, Slovak Republic |
| PISA |
| 4 points: Denmark |
| 3 points: Sweden, Hungary, United Kingdom/Scotland |
| 2 points: Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Portugal, Russian Federation, Switzerland |
| 1 point: Finland, France, Greece, Norway, Poland |

What may we conclude? Each country should examine whether children are given appropriate conditions in their environment and should take all appropriate legislative, administrative and other measures to ensure the rights of their children to education.

The power point tool created by the PISA/PIRLS Task Force of the International Reading Association may be helpful for discussing national reading achievement. The title is: *National Reading Achievement: Using PISA/PIRLS Data for Informed Discussion.* It is located at www.reading.org/resources/issues/reports/pisa.html.

Members of the Task Force are Renate Valtin, Germany (chair), William Brozo, US, Maria Lourdes Dionisio, Portugal, Keith Topping, Scotland, and Cathy Roller, International Reading Association.

Let me close with a remark from the Delors Report of the Commission on Education for the Twenty-First Century:

"Education is an expression of affection for children and young people, whom we need to welcome into society, unreservedly offering them the place that is theirs by right therein" (Delors, 1998, 10).

The data from international studies may be used to examine whether the national educational system supports young learners and whether or not a specific country offers a warm welcome.

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The 21st Century Reader: A Pioneer or a Victim?[8]

Danko Plevnik, Croatia

Readers today are under increasing pressure from different media while their freedom of choice is being narrowed down. Some read not what they think they ought to read but what they are being made to read. The weak readers are victimised by needs of a market. That is why it is not only important to make reading popular but to create an infrastructure for life-long reading improvement. Knowing why and how to read is more important than reading a lot – all the time.

It appears to me the golden age of a relaxed approach to learning how to read is far behind us. In the Sarawak Jungle of Borneo, during the 1930s, the native women lying in bed and known as the "sleeping dictionaries", taught the English the indigenous Ibani language. This close reading was gradually declining so that, already in the 1970s, Geoffrey Hartman (1975, 248) defined the type of reading as "girl watching". This kind of reading, as a "primitive waste of intellect", was a forerunner of the searching and browsing types of reading.

In the 21st century reading will be exercised by the assistance of the computer mouse, turning the whole process into a navigation through Internet hypertext. Jacques Attali, in the preface to his book *Dictionnaire du XXIe siècle*, claims that "in the future reading will resemble navigation", (Attali, 1998, 7) and he makes similar predictions. However, the "navigational" reading will be just one of numerous types of reading to master in one's lifetime.

The German genius Johann Wolfgang Goethe realised a long time ago that it had taken him 80 years to learn how to read. And yet, he was still unable to say that he had fully accomplished the task. The thing is, one shouldn't spend one's lifetime only reading, but also learning how to read. Every stage of life, as well as personal growth, requires different types of reading. Nevertheless, regardless of what we read and how pointless it seems, we should always have our brain engaged in the process.

Reading is primarily a neurological ability and cerebral grace. Christopher Stancomb, grandson to the sister of the famous Croatian sculptor Ivan Meštrović, was so dyslexic that he never mastered reading. Some recent experiments have proved he could have succeeded had he started learning at the right time. That is, regardless of a difference between inborn and acquired dyslexia, the neurological reading mechanisms remain intact in both cases. This important discovery creates a boundless world of opportunities for a dyslexic person. If activated promptly, this rudimentary mechanism could improve the reading skills. Sally Shaywitz of the Yale University, the author of the differentiation study between the genetic and more environmentally-induced type of dyslexia, maintains: "If you can provide these children early on with effective reading instruction, these children can really learn to read"(Morris, 2003,9).

What was not possible in the past century now becomes a reality, owing to the benefits of present-day technology. There is such a thing as the Reading Pen for Dyslexia that reads the written words out loud. The hope that anyone can master reading skills is founded in modern science, technology and education. Still, no one can guarantee a person will keep his or her skills in perfect condition right till the very end. The Irish writer and philosopher Iris Murdoch, at the age of 80, couldn't follow in the footsteps of Goethe and verify the thesis on the life-long duration of the reading acquisition process, since as an Alzheimer's victim, she'd forgotten how to read. Her reading mechanism was irrevocably damaged, with the methods of its stimulation and recovery still unknown. So, for each and every one of us there is a unique and optimal reading period in life that we have to seize in terms of greater and longer reading freedom.

Children encounter reading before they actually learn how to read, usually through the goodnight stories read by their parents. The small pre-literate readers always want to hear the entire story, without skipping details, let alone whole passages. This child-associated communal reading period is also found among the grown-ups at the start of literacy. Listening to the priest delivering his sermon has always been an integral part of religious faith. Thus was in the case of American President Woodrow Wilson, the only

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[8] Keynote address

son of a severe Presbyterian minister. Wilson did not decipher the alphabet until the age of nine, and did not read until the age of eleven. But he was fond of reading aloud in modulated tones and he liked to read the same books over and over.

This is typical religious reading. Such determinist reading has grown into the logic of scripturalism. The Bible or the book and the Qur'an or the reading book as holy writings, require reading inspired with holiness. Jehovah specifically ordered Moses what to read. In the Holy Qur'an, Surah 75, Ayat 17 warns us that reading belongs to Allah. As for St. Bonaventura, he considered the reading without inner consecration to be without substance.

When he was about to commence reading, Niccolò Machiavelli used to put on papal vestments. The multi-faceted profane reading gradually rivaled the unambiguous sacred reading, for a long time considered a heretic and subversive activity. As late as nowadays, the Roman Church still proscribes certain books, albeit without burning them or their authors. And yet, if there is still a belief that one should read only in the prescribed way, isn't it a clear proof we haven't completely outgrown the determinist type of reading?

Viewed from a different angle, we are also driven to such conclusions by the oppression of free writing. The President of the Kurdish Human Rights Committee, Osman Baydemir, according to the reports of the Kurdish Human Rights Project in London (September, 2002), used in his article some Kurdish alphabet signs. Instead of Turkish "Nevruz" he wrote a Kurdish version "Newroz". He was immediately arrested and, along with five of his fellow Committee members, charged with the abuse of the forbidden letters "w" and "o" in his brochures and leaflets. Readers can sometimes escape such charges by claiming dyslexic disorders characterised by mixed up lettering. That Turkish courts are busy with the "popularisation" of reading is further attested by a 2003 case, when the appeal court confirmed the verdict of a 15-year old boy sentenced to reading books.

PRIVISHING VS PUBLISHING

Regarding the duration of the reading life of the average man or woman, it's quite easy to agree with Leo Strauss: "We have to live with books. Still, life is too short to be spent but with the best of them"(Strauss, 1990, 17). It's much easier to accept this statement than to define what the best books are. When the illiterate king Charlemagne got satisfied of being read to from his own biography, he asked monk Alkuin to read the monk's cuisine recipes for him. To read the best texts is not merely a quality but also a quantity issue. The weekend edition of *The New York Times* comprises more facts than the average person in the 17th century England could encounter in his or her lifetime.

The traditional approach, as a democracy of dead literary tastes, defines the best of books in a much more convincing manner than modernist, let alone post-modernist or even post-post-modernist approaches. Book publishing has become a global business trend, creating free market space not for the best but most profitable books. Publishing corporations generate not only mainstream writers but also mainstream readers. What is to be read is no longer prescribed by the religious, ideological or educational institutions. All the marketing power is concentrated at the hands of distribution companies.

The Nobel Prize winner Ivo Andrić wrote in the last century: "Regimes and governments of our time can do a lot, almost everything short of one thing: they cannot make people enjoy writers they don't like". However, what the 20th century ideology was incapable of, will be made up for by the 21st century consumerism. Guided by the compulsive global reading trend, all of us seem to devour the same read at the same time: the young generation – *Harry Potter*, the grown-ups – *the Da Vinci Code*. We are persuaded to read what the mass-media tell us to.

Writers no longer write books they want, but ones that bring instant success and long-term profit. So writing is transformed into a quest for publicity, and reading into a sheer marketing echo. The former National Vice President and present Co-Chair of the National Book Division of the National Writers Union, Gerard Colby relates the self-imposed censorship to *privishing*, a phenomenon that marked its début in the 1970s, and is now a symbol of "wise" publishing. It is illustrative of the way the publishers "kill" books without the authorial knowledge or consent. This particularly refers to writers whose books contain truths unpalatable to the dominant ideological or marketing trends. Unlike publishing, open to the

public eye, privishing is utterly dominated by private interests, even at the cost of financial failure. The publishers release a book that is not going to be read: "We privished the book so that it sank without a trace" (Colby, 2002, 15).

To that aim the following mechanisms are employed. First, there are cuts in the expenses that could prolong a book's life. From the very start of the process there is no profit-creating formula for the book in question. Furthermore, there are drastic cuts in the advertising segment. All the book promotions get cancelled, which makes the potential later editions virtually impossible. Instead of creating a fair market of ideas, instead of "giving books time to build a readership through good reviews and word-of-mouth recommendations, conglomerates and chain bookstores demand quick, high-volume sales and higher profit ratios, thereby shortening the books' lifespans" (Colby, 2002, 15).

What readers want is an established value judgement instead of statistical information on circulation numbers. Traditionally, this type of judgement is provided by libraries, book award institutions and literary circles such as Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle (U.S.A.), which has been recommending some dozen books per year ever since 1878. The biggest Internet bookshop, Amazon.com, provides its titles with links referring to similar books and their reviews. It's getting more and more important to buy a book than actually read it, since the so-called ghost readers do that instead of us.

Yet, readers do the most honest evaluation themselves, without media agents and commercial interests involved. On the occasion of the World Book Day 2001, the Americans came up with the idea of "bookcrossing"-, that is, leaving your books in a public place to be found and picked up by others, with the idea of free and non-commercial reading. The trend was started by some people from the computer branch in order to, metaphorically speaking, transform the whole world into a huge library, perhaps the one Jorge Luis Borges dreamed about. Hundreds of thousands bookcrossers have so far released almost a million books from their shelves. In this way reading has become more important than possessing a book, and reading solidarity a new human standard.

Computer hackers push it even further forward, advocating a more active approach to reading. The Finnish scientist and philosopher Pekka Himanen calls for more freedom for the very act of educated reading: "Reading materials in a hacker-like way – reviewing and improving them, i. e. working on them as well as your own motivation – is of much more help to those who practice it than the present way of reading" (Himanen, 2002, 57). This, however, erases the line between the reading on one hand and content interpretation on the other, since, according to Jonathan Culler, to read is to play the role of a reader; to interpret is to postulate the experience of personal reading (Culler, 1982).

The modern reader's refusal to continue playing a passive role by not allowing the text to dominate him or her, foregrounds the issue of reading quality. If the "right reading" is realised through the author's textual intentions, then all the readers departing from the norm are in the wrong. Harold Bloom thinks that nothing is achieved through the idealisation of reading or inferior attitude towards the text. Therefore, the best thing to do is read in the wrong way, since only the wrong reading leads to new readings. Reading is wrestling with the text, a kind of war where the reader defends his own inner-self (Blom, 1975).

Wasn't it that Michel de Montaigne himself who confessed that regardless of the original language of books, he communicated with them in his own specially devised language? It's obvious that he too favoured the "wrong reading".

MEDIA CHALLENGES COME AND GO, THE BOOK STAYS

New technologies strongly favour the active reader. The electronic book is much more interactive than the old-fashioned book. However, the reader's hyperactivity does not abolish the need for a good book. The media complement rather than exclude each other, meaning the reader will have to be more independent and resourceful not only in choosing the right reading approach but also the right content. Umberto Eco, an Italian of "universal sensibility" is a bit less in favour of the electronic, than the old-fashioned paper book: "Books are still the best companions for a shipwreck or the Day After." (Fahmy, 2003, 15). The author of the *Name of the Rose* considers the medieval cathedral a kind of permanent and constant TV programme, whose encyclopaedic role was abolished by Guttenberg's invention. The 20th

century television was another assault on the book, threatening to replace the effort of reading by its receptive superficiality.

Jonathan Franzen, one of the most distinguished young American writers, describes in his essay collection *How to be Alone* (Franzen, 2002) this kind of TV temptation that stops him from reading. If he, as a writer, can't take off his eyes of the TV screen, how can he expect his readers to be any different? It was only after he got rid of his TV that he managed to savour the joys of reading. In this respect he is much like Marcel Proust, who, while praising the silent communion of readers, found his true fulfilment in the actual conversation with his favourite authors. It is the very alienation of readers that's become a factor of "literary stability" and the freedom of choosing one's own favourite reads. As a TV buster, Franzen refused to participate in the Oprah Show, but is such a radical attitude always necessary? Later on, he realised his mistake of ignoring the TV as a powerful reading booster.

Oprah Winfrey exerts a kind of suggestive power over her audiences, quite similar in its nature to that of ancient gods over their prophets. Last year, Oprah's Book Club pronounced Tolstoy's *Anna Karenina* one of the most beautiful love stories of our time, winning it a status of a favourite read in the States. The book immediately found its way to the best-selling lists of *The New York Times, USA Today* and *Publisher's Weekly.* Prior to its début on the Oprah Show, the novel had been published in pocket editions only, with poor selling prospects. Since the show, millions of copies have been sold. In reality, however, the readers are often cheated into buying books unworthy of intellectual attention, due to the powerful TV propaganda. Sadly enough, popularity has become synonymous with quality. The good news is that neither positive nor negative reviews endanger the reading need of those who want to read. But what about those who don't want to read?

It seems that the very notion of reading has been threatened lately as non-book media is replacing the book. New and personal media, as proved by the Internet and mobile phone communication, determine the reading form and motivation. Guttenberg's reader had to read the full and unabridged text out loud (this option being quite unacceptable for the present-day Turkish Kurds), for this was the only way to decipher its true meaning. This type of book reader, raised on a similar tradition of manuscripts, couldn't just skip through the text and practice the nomadic reading described by Attali.

There is another thing too. The books have their own language that we refer to as literary language. New media bring along their own ways of communication. The Internet and mobile phone generation no longer uses the standard but rather a condensed and cryptic form of language, with separate textual segments, denying in reality all the accepted notions of the text. There is no such thing as text structure any more, and no central text as such, only the independent message structure. With the text determining its reading method and public, and being more dominant than the message it carries, one may sooner talk about its recipients than its readers.

Contemporary tabloids and web publishers have paved the way to detextualisation of reading. One reads headlines, straps, sub-heads and callouts in bold fonts, while the text itself is being replaced by illustrations. The electronic age has turned writers into "texters", storytellers into commercial catch-phrase makers, and text writing into filling the column space. Reading is a time-consuming process. The media time is expensive and limited so the messages require fast reading. The communicational society of the past is being replaced by a society advocating commercial information systems of the mobile phone technology, such as SMS. Mobile phones are acquiring a multimedia dimension, keeping us in touch with the world through its MMS and SMS services, whether it is of personal or global interest to us.

Telephone companies commercially back up this SMS-reading trend. A Slovenian mobile phone operator, for example, invests more money in an advertising campaign than the public libraries are allowed to spend on new books.

The trend of condensed writing will have a long-term effect on the culture of reading. The 21st century reader will be a navigator of their own textual destiny. It's a big risk but also a big challenge. Unlike the reader of the past, not only are they faced with the choice of the book, its promotion and evaluation machinery, but also the choice of the reading media. What media recommendations are to be trusted as far as text quality is concerned? It is by no means an easy task to select from the global offerings a text that may be of some relevance to us.

Should they strive for a safer navigation, contemporary readers ought to stick to the text, enclosed in the book form like a baby sheltered in its crib and stirred to life by reading. They will have to learn about the media oceans and seas that they set off to sail on. Moreover, they'll have to develop a clear sense of direction and create their own routes, as was understood by Jean-Paul Sartre, who referred to reading as a directed creation *(création dirigée)*. A new reading is another chance for creation, an opportunity to come up with new meanings, actions and our new selves. This does not imply the new reader should renounce the old media completely but rather combine them with the new ones in order to come near the ideal text.

The newest trend is the popularity of audio books (tapes, CD's and iPods) which redefine the notion of reading and develop the hybrid "listener-reader". The smallest iPod (the Shuffle) holds four books. Although audio books represent only 3 percent of all books sold, the tendency of their usage is increasing – thanks to children's audio books and memoirs. To read Clinton's "My Life" through Clinton's mouth is more relaxing. Visual reading requires one's full attention, while auditory reading allows division of the attention and does not stimulates the whole cognitive process. However, it would be wrong to underestimate an audible reading because it opens the new dimensions of reading and creates new opportunities for reading: during jogging, cooking, eating, car or bike driving, walking a dog ... It is much more a time friendly reading.

It takes exactly this kind of diverse media competition, with various forms of textuality, to make the ideal reader of this century more independent and creative than ever before, resembling in this respect deaf Beethoven, who used to hear the music while reading his *Ode to Joy.*

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Helping Children Deal with the Issues of War and Conflict through the Use of Children's Literature

Gail Goss, Central Washington University, USA

Few individuals today are isolated from the devastating events of wars, terrorism, and various acts of destruction. Adults have trouble processing these difficult situations. These events are even more perplexing for children to try to understand. Children fear for their own safety, are confused about the violence, and often have anger because of these episodes that they do not know how to handle. As adults, we listen to their concerns and try to reassure them the best we can. There is another way to help. That is by using children's books that address these difficult subjects. Literature can be used to assist all of us in gaining a common language for fostering more international understanding. "The conviction that children's books are the key to peaceful coexistence has spread through countries all over the globe and spawned a growing worldwide network of people working in diverse environments and under disparate conditions" (Lepman, 1964, p.7).

"Reading is . . . a way to broaden children's conceptual backgrounds . . . by introducing them to a variety of things, people, and places of which they might otherwise be unaware" (Hamlin, 1982, p. 62). Stories have always been a way to convey information and messages to children about their world. All cultures use stories to guide and shape their children and those stories have always played a role in children's psychological, social, and cognitive development (Creighton, 1997). Powerful books touch the emotions of children, lead them to an expansion of their knowledge, and help to develop a grasp about difficult issues. Books can help children begin to comprehend their fears, assisting them in developing international understanding, and also in formulating some solutions to the issues.

There are many books written specifically to help children understand these troubling subjects. *Faithful Elephants* (Tsuchiya, 1951) is one of those books. Chieko Akiyama in the forward (1988) writes that "Building a world without wars has been the greatest ideal throughout history. Unfortunately, it has never been accomplished". That does not stop Akiyama, or many others, from "believ[ing] it is absolutely necessary to work toward the prevention of war and the establishment of peace. . . . [The] continuous sowing of the seeds of peace and the prevention of war [can bear] fruit. . . . Strongholds of peace have been built in the hearts of adults and children when they realize the sorrow, misery, horror, and foolishness of war" (forward).

The subjects of books published for children have changed through the years so it is now easier to find ones that address the topics of war, terrorism, and acts of destruction. There are also numerous books that help children visualise possible solutions to these issues and ways that they can contribute to changes that lead towards more peace in their lives. Many of these books use an allegorical approach to help children understand these complex issues. The symbolical or fantasy approach is often easier for younger children to relate to as they begin to develop some understanding about conflicts and disagreements. This is why stories, such as traditional folktales, fables, and parables, have been used for centuries to help children grapple with many of the world's realities.

When groups of books based on the same theme or topic are shared together, the stories have a greater impact because the reader acquires a variety of perspectives and ideas about the same concept. This article will share some books that deal with war and its effect as well as potential ways of working towards peace. The books being shared are divided into three groupings, How War Affects Children's Lives, Escalating Conflicts, and Thinking About Peace.

These stories can be used separately to help extend children's understanding or used in clusters because of their similarity of themes. When using a variety of books on the same topic, it is interesting to observe the connections between the books that children make. What children see and are able to articulate is always amazing. Starting with preconceived ideas on the part of the adult, structures the outcome to an adult's thought patterns. If peace is to be a reality, new patterns need to be tried; letting children devise some of those ideas provides hope for a better future. The objective is to get the children reading, then to begin discussing the connections. During discussions, children learn that others have many of the same fears and concerns. This helps to alleviate some of their fright. If, at an early age, children practice thinking in open avenues rather than past closed boxes, there is more of a chance for putting an end to the types of terror that erupt so often in the world.

Sometimes the leader will need to get the discussion started. Some ideas for doing that with reluctant groups might be to use the following suggestions. What does war do to the environment? What are the losses in a war? Why do people apply negative labels to people different from themselves? What role do those labels play in communication difficulties and to the escalation of conflicts? How have you stopped the escalation of a conflict? In what ways are all people alike? Do children have rights during a war?

Possible research projects that can spring from the reading of these books would be to have class members interview relatives or family members who may have gone through a war or a dislocation experience. Use Venn diagrams to compare and contrast the treatment of different groups of people during war versus under normal conditions. Research what started the wars in the various books. Interview war veterans about their experiences and their thoughts looking back. The children will also have topics they want to know more about; that is one of the advantages of groups of books on the same topic.

These books range in reading level from beginning readers up to middle grades. There is no specific order for the use of the books; the group and the teacher's objectives will determine that. Each book discussed begins with bibliographic information and is followed by a brief synopsis of the story. Hopefully these books and ideas will further Akiyama's goal of sowing the seeds that encourage children to work for peace.

BOOK SUGGESTIONS

Tsuchiya, Yukio (Trans.Tomoko Tsuchiya Dykes). (1951). *Faithful Elephants: A True Story of Animals, People, and War.* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

The story, told by an old zookeeper, describes the euthanasia of the animals in the Tokyo Ueno Zoo during the Second World War bombing raids on Tokyo, focusing especially on the deaths of the faithful elephants. The elephants are the zookeepers' favourites because of their wonderful personalities and abilities to perform tricks. They are the last animals to be put to death causing their keepers to agonise about the emotional costs of war. Such costs of war are seldom dealt with in children's literature.

HOW WAR AFFECTS CHILDREN'S LIVES

Many children have their whole world completely disrupted by wars. That is what happened to the lives of the children in the books mentioned in this section.

Mochizuki, Ken. (1993*). Baseball Saved Us.* New York: Lee & Low. This book, about Japanese interment camps in the United States during the Second World War, centres on a camp baseball team. The parents in the camp decide a baseball team would provide their children with something familiar from their former lives. How the camp builds the field and grandstands, obtains uniforms from mattresses, and boosts the morale of everyone involved is explained at the same time as life in the camp is described. The main character learns to play better ball because he does not like the guard in the tower behind the barbed wire fence watching him play.

Coerr, Eleanor. (1977). *Sadako and The Thousand Paper Cranes.* New York: Penguin Putnam Books for Young Readers. Sadako has contracted radiation sickness from the atomic bomb dropped on Hiroshima in 1945. She believes that the act of folding one thousand paper cranes has the power to restore health to an ill person. She folds 644 paper cranes before she dies. Her classmates fold the

remainder so she can be buried with the required thousand. Today school children around Japan keep a monument built for her in the Peace Park in Hiroshima filled with strings of folded cranes. This web site, http://rosella.apana.org.au/~mlb/cranes/reslink2.htm#Books – Thousand Cranes Peace Network: Peace Links and Resources – is built around the actions in the book and contains many activities and ideas for children to participate in to promote peace.

Bunting, Eve. (1990). The *Wall*. New York: Clarion Books. Through visiting the Vietnam Veterans' Memorial in Washington D.C,. a son learns of the many losses he and his father have suffered because of his grandfather's death in the Vietnam War. The young boy was never able to know his grandfather. Through the illustrations and text, the reader can feel the pain of that loss as visitors come and go from the wall that holds all the names of those lost in the battles.

Pak, Soyung. (2002). *A Place to Grow*. New York: Scholastic Press. This story relates a family's needs to those of seeds. Both need safe, healthy places free from guns, oppression, and overcrowding in order to grow. The story describes why families sometimes have to journey to other countries in order to obtain safe conditions in which to grow as both the author's and illustrator's families did. The end pages of the book map those journeys and show pictures of both families. The illustrations in the story change from very colourful when the seeds and families are happy and receiving what they need to grow to monotone during the times of wars, guns, and oppression.

Khan, Rukshana**.** (1998). *The Roses in My Carpet.* Toronto, Canada: Stoddart Kids. This story is told through the eyes of a young, fatherless, Afghan refugee living in a camp full of mud, little food, and great crowding. He is learning to be a carpet weaver so he can always take his skills with him. He will not use the colour brown in his carpet because it reminds him of all the dirt in the camp. He does use the colour of red to fill the carpet with roses so he can create some beauty. His world crumbles again when a car hits his sister. After he learns that she will heal, he falls into an exhausted sleep and dreams of running freely in a space the size of his carpet where the bombs cannot touch his family. This is timely book addresses the issues of children caught in current war situations.

Ellis, Deborah. (2000). *The Breadwinner*. Toronto, Canada: Groundwood Books. The main character of this story has to become the breadwinner for her family after her brother is killed and her father is arrested because he was educated in England, leaving no males in the family. She cuts her hair and dresses in male clothes because the fundamentalists do not allow any female outside alone. She faces many challenges and dangers as she tries to save her family from hunger. Two other books follow the two main female characters through their difficult times in Afghanistan, *Parvana's Journey* and *Mud City.*

Winter, Jeanette. (2005). *The Librarian of Basra.* New York: Harcourt, Inc. The librarian at the Basra library is concerned about all the books being lost in the coming Iraqi war. To protect the books, she begins carrying home as many as she can. Finally, others notice what she is dong and join in helping her achieve her goal. When the war reaches Basra, the library is bombed and burns, but because of her efforts many books are saved.

Creech, Karen. (2004). *Heartbeat.* New York: Scholastic. These words, which reflect a number of children's concerns, are written by the main character of *Heartbeat* in response to her teacher's assignment about the things the children fear.

> *Things I Fear:*
> *I am afraid of war*
> *Of shootings and murders.*
>
> *Of other people killing our people*
> *Because our people killed their people*
> *On and on*
> *Until maybe nobody will be left.*
>
> *I am afraid of dying*
> *And of my family dying.* (p. 32-33)

ESCALATING CONFLICTS

The titles in this section are about how conflicts affect the environment and disrupt lives when they explode into full war.

Popov, Nikolai (1995). *Why?* New York: North-South Books/Zurich, Switzerland: Nord-Sud Verlag AG. This wordless picture book begins with a frog peacefully sitting on a rock enjoying the surroundings when a mouse pops up out of a clump of flowers. In an effort to obtain the rock, the mouse begins beating on the frog. The frog and mouse each gather friends to help in the attack and counterattack until the confrontation escalates into a full-scale war. The book's final illustration shows the frog and mouse surrounded by a blackened, devastated environment as they survey the once peaceful countryside with dismayed expressions on their faces. Popov's object when creating this book was to help children think about how easily it is to be drawn into an escalating, senseless cycle of violence. He wants the book to be a force of peace in the future.

Fox, Mem. (1996). *Feathers and Fools.* New York: Harcourt, Inc. A pride of peacocks and a flock of swans live side by side in peace until one day peacocks begin to notice differences between the two birds. The peacocks decide they should protect themselves and begin to manufacture weapons. This means that the swans must do the same thing. Both groups begin to arm against an attack by the other group and of course, the attack is triggered by panic when a swan flies over with nest building material. All the birds are killed. The story ends with the hatching of one peacock and one swan who decide they should be friends.

THINKING ABOUT PEACE

This grouping contains suggestions that encourage peaceful settlements of differences rather than an escalations in hostilities.

Vagin, Vladimir and Asch, Frank. (1989) *Here Comes the Cat! Cho^a N^et Kot!* New York/London:Scholastic. This almost wordless picture book was a collaboration between two writers and illustrators, one a Russian and the other an American. Their story is about a cat approaching a community of mice. News is spread by the mice passing on "Here comes the cat/Cho^a N^et Kot! in English and Russian and by illustrations showing the shadow of a huge cat on the landscape. When the cat arrives in the village, it has brought cheese for everyone. The story ends with smiles on all the mice and the cat peacefully sleeping, indicating that former enemies can be friends.

Baker, Keith. (1990). *Who is the Beast?* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich. Various jungle animals are filled with fear as they attempt to describe different parts of an unknown beast passing through their jungle. The beast is revealed to the readers as a tiger who asks the question "Who is the beast? Who can it be? I see no beast. I just see me". The tiger confronts each fearful animal verifying how he and each of them share many similarities. The book leads the reader to consider why they apply negative labels to others when in fact there are no great differences.

Morrison, Toni & Slade. (2002). *The Book of Mean People.* New York: Hyperion Books. Using everyday occurrences in children's lives, such as "shouting is a favorite thing of mean people" and "mostly, mean people frown, the authors try to help children understand some of the contradictions in their world. The bunny in the story gives the solution to handling the situations by deciding "I will smile anyway".

Munson, Derek. (2002). *Enemy Pie.* San Francisco, CA: Chronicle Books. The main character tells his dad he does not like the new boy in the neighbourhood. His dad knows how to solve that problem. He will bake him an 'enemy pie', but first the son must spend a day with his enemy and he must be nice to him. He discovers the awful things he believed about his enemy are not true and the two become good friends. The dad does bake a pie, but rather than an 'enemy pie', it is a cherry pie.

King Jr., Martin Luther. (1963, Ill. 1997). *I Have A Dream.* New York: Scholastic. This book is Martin Luther King's famous civil rights speech given in 1963 but illustrated in 1997 by award winning children's authors. One important idea from that speech that is appropriate to this topic of peace is his statement ". . . we will be able to hew out of the mountain of despair a stone of hope . . . we will be able to transform the jangling discords . . . into a beautiful symphony of brotherhood".

Hamanaka, Sheila. (1994). *All the Colors of the Earth.* New York: Morrow Junior Books. Bright illustrations depict children as all the colours of the earth, sky, and sea. Examples include 'roaring browns, soaring eagles, and whispering golds'. The descriptions inspire connections, emphasising similarities between everyone all around the world as well as connections to the elements of the earth.

Fox, Mem. (1997). *Whoever You Are.* Orlando, FL: Harcourt, Brace, & Co. This book in verse is about the joys, loves, pain, and sorrows that are shared throughout the world. The concluding verse states "But remember this: Joys are the same, And love is the same. Pain is the same, And blood is the same . . . all over the world". Everything mentioned and shown in the illustrations emphasises how alike all people are throughout the entire world. The illustration are very inclusive of all cultures, religions, and living dwellings.

Baskwill, Jane. (2003). *If peace is . . .* New York: Mondo Publishing. The poetry in this book contains things everyone can do for peace such as waving a hand in friendship and the making and keeping of promises to one another. One excellent line states "Peace is a promise we make to one another . . . kept always by you". The ideas are items everyone is able to use on a daily bases.

Garrison, Jennifer & Tubesing, Andrew. (1996). *A Million Visions of Peace: Wisdom From the Friends of Old Turtle.* New York: Scholastic. Ideas for world peace were collected by the authors in response to their United States tour in their Volkswagen "turtle car". The contributor of each idea is also the illustrator of that idea. This gives the book a child-like feel that will help children realise they too have good ideas. The suggestions are varied, novel, and quite simple for children to try.

UNICEFF & Castle, Caroline. (2001). *For Every Child: The Right of the Child in Words andPictures.* New York: Phyllis Fogelman Books & UNICEFF. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child is presented in this picture book. In the forward, Desmond Tutu states that "We can make a difference if we are vigilant to create a new kind of society . . . where children's rights are respected and protected. Politicians ultimately offer what the people want. Let us tell them we want peace and prosperity for everyone." A different international, award-winning children's artist illustrates each convention with the illustrations depicting a variety of cultures and customs. The book provides an excellent base for generating discussions about children's rights and how those rights are often violated during times of war.

WEB SITES

These are some current web sites that are useful to both adults and children for connecting with others interested in promoting peace.

www.sol-plus.net/peace.htm Weapons of Mass Instruction: Anti-War Books for Young People. This is an extensive site listing, by age level, providing details about a huge number of books on the topic of war. The last entries lead to other sources on the same topic.

www.celebratingpeace.com/BooksForPeace.htm Young Peacemakers Club. This site is designed to promote the skills of peacemaking and contains many different sections such as list of books, activities, teacher's resources, children's drawings, and links to other peace sites.

www.global-ed.org/e4p/resource.htm Educating for Peace. There are classroom resources as well as tips for conflict resolution and a list of links to other sources within the site.

http://rosella.apana.org.au/~mlb/cranes/reslink2.htm#Books Thousand Cranes Peace Network: Peace Links and Resources. There are many activities and ideas built around peace that began as the result of the children's book *Sadako and the Thousand Cranes*.

www.ncss.org/resources/moments/610506.shtml Trade Books for Reducing Violence. This list from the National Council of Social Studies lists books dealing with violence and its consequences. The titles begin with third grade and up through high school.

CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

Warren, Andrea. (2001). *A Boy in the Nazi Death Camps: Surviving Hitler.* New York: HarperCollins Children's Books. Jack Mandelbaum, the subject of this biography, was arrested and taken to the Auschwitz concentration camp in Poland at the beginning of World War II. He lost all the members

of his family and 80 relatives of his extended family during the Holocaust. Although Jack's story is grim, he survived with the attitude to live his life with tolerance and forgiveness. This is his quote at the end of the book:

> *God gave us the power to be good or evil. This is our choice. Because some pick evil, we must work together to recognize and stop it. But while we survivors may lead the charge, we cannot do this alone. It must be the goal of all people.*
> *If we will join in this goal, then there is hope for humanity.* (p. 127)

This makes an excellent goal for all of us as we help children grapple with the topics of this article.

Quoting again from Akiyama's writing in the forward to *Faithful Elephants,* "The biggest gift adults can give to children is to make public the complete history of and the different viewpoints about war, and to help them consider how we can realise the human ideal [of peace]". Hopefully, some of these books and ideas can move children toward that goal.

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The Relationship between Literacy and Power:
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Åsa Wedin and Högskolan Dalarna,
Central Stockholm University, Sweden

This article builds on a study carried out in Karagwe, Tanzania (Wedin, 2004). In the article I argue that there is no direct positive relation between literacy and power but that the relation is complex. The results from my study show that different types of literacy practices relate differently to power and authority but also that there is an interaction between different practices. Through history individuals in some groups in Karagwe have used literacy to manifest their authority while others, from groups that were perceived of as low status, have managed to challenge existing elites and acquire access to power that traditionally they would not have had. Today, the élites of the society use literacy to manifest and reproduce their authority while members from groups that are perceived of as of low status, may use literacy to challenge existing social patterns and attain better conditions for life.

INTRODUCTION

Literacy has often been assumed to be positively linked to democracy. However, literacy is not a technical device that can have effects in and by itself; it is what we make with literacy that matters. In this article the notion of *literacy* is used as a heterogeneous phenomenon and includes all uses of print. The notion of *literacy practices* has been used as a powerful way of conceptualising the link between different literacies and the social and cultural structures in which they are embedded (see, for example, Scribner and Cole, 1981; Street, 1993; Barton and Hamilton, 1998). Literacy practices in this article refers to people's perceptions of literacy that are not directly observable but manifest themselves through behaviour. Different literacies have different status and usually some literacies dominate others. There is often a "standard" form which is perceived as "better" than others, usually the type of literacy taught in and promoted by the school system. Power is, following Street (2001), not a property of the object but is contested in dialogue and is always being changed and transformed. Literacy is often perceived as positively related to democracy but the case of Sweden shows us that acquiring literacy skills does not automatically imply getting access to power (Isling, 1991). The peasants in Sweden were made literate as early as in the 16th century but this did not in any way give them access to power in feudal Sweden.

During the years 1999-2003 I carried out research in Karagwe, which is in the north-west of Tanzania, on the boarders with Uganda and Rwanda. Ethnography was used to build an understanding of literacy practices in and out of school, that is people's understandings of and perspectives on literacy. The objectives of the study were to find bridges between literacy practices in homes, in school and in the community to find ways to make literacy education more relevant and efficient. During five field studies totalling nine months I observed and conducted interviews in different settings, such as primary schools, homes, churches, offices and health care centres.

The roughly 500 000 inhabitants in Karagwe, the *Banyambo*, live scattered over the area relying on farming using hoes, with plantain as the main staple crop and coffee as the cash crop. The area was heavily affected by the streams of refugees from the wars in Rwanda and Burundi and has in the last ten years suffered from draught and a drastic decrease in coffee prices. The Banyambo are multilingual with Runyambo as the local language used in homes and in daily life, and Swahili as the official language used in schools and in official settings. Most people are functionally bilingual in these two languages. Other languages frequently used in the area are English as a high status language, mastered by very few, Arabic

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used by Muslims and Kinyarwanda. For a more extensive review of the linguistic situation in Karagwe see Wedin (2004, in press-a).

Karagwe has changed during the last century from being mainly an oral society with advanced forms of language use (see Wedin, 2004, in press-a), to a society where both literacy and orality are used in different settings. Literacy was imposed through schooling of a Western type, which was infused by Christian religion, by missionaries and German and British colonisers. This means that literacy in Karagwe is heavily influenced by the history of education and Christianity.

The Banyambo do not very frequently use literacy in their daily lives and very few read and write with good command. The main literacy practices are related to schools and religious life. Religious texts are read and discussed in homes, letters are sent between relatives and friends and exercise books are brought home from schools. A feature of these literacies is that they are usually shared. As texts are usually written in Swahili and discussed in Runyambo, most literacy practices outside school are bilingual.

In my research I have found many different types of literacy practices. Here I structure them according to their relation to power. I divide them in three groups, 1) dominant literacies, 2) semi-dominant literacies and 3) dominated literacies. (For a more extensive description of these see Wedin, in press-b.)

DOMINANT LITERACY PRACTICES

The first group, *dominant literacy practices*, consists of practices that are highly valued socially and culturally and that are used to govern and regulate the life and actions of the inhabitants. These literacy practices are prescribed by authorities, such as schools, and they are standardised and normative. Form is more focussed than content and they are often examined and deemed "right" or "wrong" according to formal norms. They are mainly in Swahili but also English is often used, although very few understand English. As English has higher status, the use of English is often a marker of authority and status. Runyambo is not used in these literacies. Dominant literacy practises are taught in school and the most common literacy activity in classrooms is the testing of pupils' skills. Extremely little reading, that is taking meaning from text, and writing, that is conveying meaning to text, is done in classrooms by pupils.

We can use literacy practices in primary school to exemplify that form is more important than content. The notice board in the headmaster's office is one example. These boards are very homogeneous across different schools, and typically contain the following:

- The time-table for all classes, of the dates for the school year and numbers of lessons per teacher
- Statistics about pupils (number, gender, number of disabled children and orphans) and teachers (grade, year of exam, wage grade)
- Tables of academic responsibility among the staff
- Rules for the school
- Table of school projects
- Tables of other responsibilities, such as monitoring
- The names of the persons in the school-board
- Official letters from the District Education Office

These are in Swahili or English and are seldom read. The head master may have read them, some are written by him/her, and other people entering the room do not read on the walls but finish their task and leave the room. So why are they patched to the wall? We may get a hint if we look closer at some of them.

We may start with the school rules. One of them is always about language use in school, only Swahili and English are to be used. (We should remember that most pupils master Runyambo but have only heard a few Swahili words when they enter school.) Now this poster is in the headmaster's room, the room where Runyambo is most frequently used. The headmaster use Runyambo with visiting parents and teachers use both Swahili and Runyambo in their communication with each other in school. Only pupils are punished if they use Runyambo in school and they do not spend time in the headmaster's office.

Another example is the time-table for the whole school. This is always irreproachable, according to official regulations. It gives the number of lessons for each class and stipulated times to start and end the day.

However, I never came across one single school day where what was stipulated in the time-table was in accordance with lessons actually being taught. Teachers in Karagwe have many additional tasks that infere with teaching, such as collecting statistics, visiting the District office, collecting the salary, carrying out income-generating projects for their own family and taking care of own children. This seems to be officially accepted, as a visiting inspector examining teacher's planning books (which also follow given norms) is not likely to comment on the fact that commonly only a few of the stipulated 6-8 lessons per day are planned.

From this we can conclude that the reason for attaching these documents to the notice board is not that they should be read. Instead one might conclude that the main reason is to show obedience and attention to superiors, although that does not mean that one actually obeys. In an authoritative system like the Tanzanian school system, it is common that people show obedience but resist given regulations in hidden ways, such as when teachers do not teach all stipulated lessons. (For other examples of resistance see Wedin, 2004.)

Other types of literacies that refer to this group are the reading of the Bible and the Qur'an and official letters. Religious readings are often done collectively and interpretations are carried out word for word with introductions such as: *Maneno ya Mungu yalikuwa ...* 'God's word were …' Official letters carry high status and someone visiting an office should "come with a letter", that is a letter with the stipulated stamps and signs.

SEMI-DOMINANT LITERACY PRACTICES

The second group, semi-dominant literacy practices, constists of literacies that are prescribed and initiated by authorities but used in the daily lives of the inhabitants to improve their economic or health situation. These literacies are often in Swahili but also in Runyambo. The degree of normativity is lower than in the first group and if they are examined they are more likely to be commented on according to content than form. These literacies are mainly spread through community mentors and local leaders and through different groups of, for example, farmers or women. More qualified group members teach their fellows. People are taught, for example, simple book-keeping for projects or micro-loans, to plan meetings and to write an agenda and the minutes.

Other examples of semi-dominated literacies are "clinic-cards" that are kept by mothers where facts about pregnancy and infants are written down. These are filled at the monthly "clinic-days" where mothers collectively meet a nurse, and they are usually carefully taken care of by the mothers. Examples of religious literacies that I refer to this group are the reading of religious pamphlets in Ruhaya. Ruhaya is a neighbouring language that is intelligble by Runyambo-speakers. I also refer personal letters to semi-dominant letters. These commonly follow given norms but the form is not commonly examined. In many cases letters are written or read with the help of mediators. This means that people who do not know how to read or write still produce and receive letters by using other family members or neighbours.

Important differences between this group of literacies and the first, dominant literacies, is the focus both on content and form, and the use of language – Swahili and Runyambo are languages with lower status. The book-keeping of a micro-loan project is likely to be assessed by a local leader but rather on the outcome of the project than on formal features.

Children bring their exercise books from school and may use them in another semi-dominant literacy practice. If there is time between duties in homes, children may sit together, elder children reading for and teaching younger ones. Also adults may ask a school child to read for them. This is thus an example of school literacy practices being used in homes.

DOMINATED LITERACY PRACTICES

The third group, *dominated literacy practice*s, are not used in communication with authorities, nor are they prescribed or explicitly taught in school. The level of standardisation is low and a multitude of languages are used, Swahili, Runyambo and English are the most frequent but also languages such as Luganda, Kinyarwanda, French, Arabic, Japanese, Chinese, Danish and German may be found.

"Swahilisation" of English words is common, for example, *beikeri*, for bakery, and *saloni,* used for hair dressers. One example from this group are decorations of different types, mainly used in homes,

churches and bars. They vary from words of wisdom to the use of written materials, such as school children's school books and newspapers, to create garlands and imaginative shapes. These decorations are often dyed the same way as grass is traditionally dyed for plaiting. Also mud in different colours may be used to decorate walls in homes with words such as "LOVE" and "Yesu". In this way traditional ways of decorating houses have incorporated written text. More "modern" types of decorations are wall-calendars and papers with sayings attached to walls. One popular type is *emota*, decorated papers with written words of wisdom. These are rare in schools.

Other types of dominated literacies are:

- *Chitabu cho bosika* (a book where shares of an inheritance are written)
- A diary for important occasions which is kept in some homes
- Advertisements such as: *Tunauza soda bei nafuu*, 'We sell soda low price', or *Tunatoahuduma ya kufua na kunyosha nguo*, 'We assist with washing and ironing clothes'
- Writings on walls and doors such as *Stoo ya baba*, 'Fathers store' and *Bafu*, 'Bath-room'
- Sayings printed on *kanga*, a type of cloth used mainly by women.
- Signs on buses and small shops
- Secret letters

Secret letters are referred to this group. Banyambo generally have many personal secrets and have developed sophisticated and intricate ways to exchange information secretly. In the extended family many generations and co-wives live together and members are anxious to keep secrets. A husband and a wife would typically be anxious not to reveal eventual economic resources to each other. The husband fears that the woman would waste money if she got to know his resources while the wife fears that the husband would stop supporting the children with clothes and schooling and give this to the children of his other wives if she revealed her resources to him. In this interactional pattern, secret notes and letters are important. These are either delivered personally, by a child or another trusted person.

CONCLUSIONS

The study of literacy practices in Karagwe has made the links between power and literacy more visible. These links, referred to by, among others, Gee (1996), Street (2001) and Barton (2001) are obvious also in Karagwe. However, while Barton identified two types of literacy practices in Lancaster (Barton, 2001), I have identified three which I call dominant, semi-dominant and dominated. Both the dominant and the dominated literacy practices share similar characteristics to the ones described by Barton, prescribed and standardised versus low valued and non-formal. However, in the case of Tanzania, people have also developed forms that give them tools to challenge existing authorities and search for improved life conditions, what I call semi-dominant literacy practices. The different types of literacies relate differently to power and authority and may be summarised as in table 1.

Table 1: Relations between Different Literacy Practices in Karagwe

	Dominant literacies	**Semi-dominant literacies**	**Dominated literacies**
Relation to power	Prescribed by authorities	Prescribed	Less valued
Focus	Focus on form	Focus both on content and form	Focus on content
Learned	Supposed to be learned in formal settings	Learned in semi-formal and in informal settings	Learned in informal settings
Language	In Swahili or English	In Swahili, English and Runyambo	In a multitude of languages
Standardisation	Standard forms	Both standard and non-standard forms, code-switching is common	Non-standard forms, local norms

As is illustrated in Table 1, semi-dominant literacies may be perceived as a stage on a continuum from dominant literacies to dominated. Most literacies have social, cultural and economic functions but when it comes to main functions they differ. I claim that the first group, dominate literacies, have a main function to test and sort people and thus to maintain authority. The second group, semi-dominant literacies, mainly have a developing function, in the economic and health fields. The third group, dominated, mainly have aestethic and personal functions. One may claim that there is a potential for liberation and resistance not only in the semi-dominant literacies but also in dominated literacies as people use them in their struggle with their harsh conditions of life.

However, the relation between literacy and power is more complex than that. People use literacies from all groups. Low educated people and poor peasants from rural villages may also use dominant literacies. They occasionally read a newspaper or write a formal letter to apply for aid. In this case they often use mediators such as an educated relative or neighbour. This means that at the same time as authorities maintain their power by using dominant literacy practices, poor people challenge or resist authorities using the same literacies with the help of mediators. Thus there is constantly an interaction between different groups of literacies in both directions, both top-down and bottom-up.

Thus I argue that people did not only passively receive literacy as it was imposed on them but that they have also made literacy a tool in their struggle for life. I also argue that literacy has been used, and is still used, both to create new élites and to reproduce existing ones, both to manifest existing social orders and to challenge them. Through history members of the old élite, the king and his family, got hold of more power through the literacy brought by Westerners at the same times as some individuals from groups that traditionally were perceived of as low-status, such as women and young people, have been able to use literacy to contest the social order and acquire access to power.

The conclusion is that in the history of Karagwe, no less than in the history of Sweden, there is a simple positive link between literacy and democracy. In both cases it is clear that literacy can be used to attain authority as well as to reproduce authority. If literacy is to be the tool for liberation and democracy it is claimed to be, it is essential that the decision of what constitutes "good literacy", including norms and restrictions, is in the hands of ordinary people and not only in the hands of the élite. This includes power to choose standards, such as what language is to be used for literacy, and political control over education, the mass media and economic funds for printing and editing.

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Using the Storyline Method in Teaching Finnish as a Second Language

Heini-Marja Järvinen, University of Turku, Finland

Teaching the majority language of a country to recent immigrants with another first language is a multifaceted task. It consists not only of the teaching of the language itself but it has to incorporate other factors as well in order to facilitate the adaptation of recent immigrants into the new community and to equip them with sufficient competencies to become fully functioning citizens in the new country. A comprehensive language-teaching programme should take into account to the cultural, social and political aspects of the target community.

   A programme with the aim of providing a new community member with competencies which enable them to be 'good citizens' but does not value and consequently take into account their first culture, the knowledge, skills and language skills that immigrants possess when they arrive at the new country, can only succeed partially and may bring about maladaptation: a number of social and psychological problems that cause a lot of suffering at an individual level but also at the societal level.

   The task of teaching a functional second language to a minority group from a number of backgrounds with a number of first languages and other individual dispositions is a lot more demanding one than that of teaching foreign languages to a linguistically and culturally homogeneous group. This is a new situation for a previously culturally and linguistically homogeneous country, such as Finland, a fairly recent object of immigration. The teaching of a second language in Finland has traditionally consisted of teaching the two official languages of the country, Swedish to Finnish-speaking children and Finnish to Swedish-speaking Finns. Thus, the context of teaching a second language to citizens of one country, with a long-standing common history, similar values and cultural background is very different from teaching Finnish to recent immigrants with vastly differing backgrounds.

   From this point of view, the teaching of a second language has to incorporate features other than the traditional components of language teaching, such as grammar, vocabulary and the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. In addition, it has to be based on both the teaching of first languages and the teaching of foreign languages.

   In this paper, I will focus on teaching Finnish as a second language to immigrant students using the storyline method. My focus will be on discussing the storyline as a flexible framework, which can incorporate a number of aspects by means of which it can be applied in the instruction of a second language to students from different cultural, social and political backgrounds. The questions that are dealt with in the present paper are based on a survey conducted on Finnish as a second language teachers (Järvinen, 2005; Kaartinen, 2005), on models of intercultural communication (the ICOPROMO model), and on theories and methods of second and foreign language learning. The remaining part of the paper will first discuss the key principles of the storyline method and then address the relationship between the storyline method and language learning and teaching. In particular the following issues will be dealt with: How can the storyline support the learners' cultural background and previous experiences? How can the storyline method provide for effective second language learning?

WHAT IS THE STORYLINE METHOD?

   The storyline method was originally developed for the teaching of an integrated curriculum in Scotland in the 1960s and 1970s. It was developed by Steve Bell and used primarily in teaching environmental education. The storyline method uses creative, experimental, active hands-on methods in

instruction, such as visual arts and drama, but it also relies heavily on the learners' existing schemata in building knowledge. So far, the storyline method has been more popular in teaching non-language subjects than in language teaching, but a Comenius project set out to find new ways of applying the storyline in teaching second and foreign languages. (Lindberg, 2000).

Constructivist Notions of Learning

The storyline approach draws on constructivist ideas about learning. The learner's role is a very active one, whereas the teacher's role is less central. This is not entirely true, as the teacher is in fact in charge of providing the storyline framework, a skeleton upon which the students add the 'flesh' or content. The teacher designs a sequence of events and provides the thematic thread. The teacher provides a good model for the students and introduces their work by posing key impulses, questions, problems or other triggers for activities. The students then set out to solve these problems creatively, first by generating hypotheses, and then by testing their suggested solutions against research evidence.

Story Framework

The sequence of the key questions creates a logical story, which the teacher has planned and in which s/he has incorporated the curricular content to be covered. The students are then gently encouraged to work within these guidelines by activating their previous knowledge on the key question, and by setting up hypotheses about the topic to be learnt. Thus, the learners feel that the storyline is their property and they feel confident and secure in the learning process. The learning that they are engaged in is optimally individualised as the learners work within a clearly defined context as they are engaged in relevant activities.

Learning to Learn

In the storyline approach, the learners' process of learning is emphasised. As the learners initiate their own processes of hypothesis-formation and research, they are not confined by any premeditated ways of working, but instead are encouraged to find the ways that best suit them. The goal is an independent, autonomous learner who is aware of the strategies that s/he has and can use them in a coherent manner, selecting those strategies that are commensurate with the task at hand. In Steve Bell's words:
"In Storyline we try to model the study process in everything we do:

we start from the known
we design key questions
we create a hypothesis or model
we test the model against research evidence
we adapt our model according to the results
we review what we have done" (Bell, 2000)

Feelings and Respect

A very important element of the storyline is the emphasis on feelings of security and respect. The storyline calls on personal involvement through the learners' identification with the characters of the storyline. The students create the characters and their identities, and at the same time they reflect their own identity in the process. This is one of the strengths of the storyline approach that makes it a viable method for teaching multicultural groups. There is a chance for the learners to reflect upon their background and experience and value their past, their first language and their culture. At the same time, there is a chance for the learners to create a positive and highly individual learning experience about the new culture and the new language. The learners are not forced to adopt the majority culture in a manner that does not suit them. It is thus more likely that the experiences with the new culture and language are less violating and less inhibiting to their learning of the language and adaptation to the new community. The chances of becoming a fully functioning citizen in the new country are probably better.

The products of the storyline, the friezes, models and other artefacts are treated with respect. The following quote (Bell, 2000) shows how storyline creates emotional involvement, which in turn may evoke a powerful holistic learning experience: For example if I were to approach a frieze of a row of shops made by groups in a class and pretend to be a graffiti vandal and threaten one shop I would immediately get an angry response from the creators of that particular visual. I would, of course, never

deliberately damage something a child has made but the threat is enough to stimulate a strong reaction. Similarly I can explore the feelings of those whose shops have not been threatened.

The following example shows how the storylines can accommodate different cultural backgrounds. In a multicultural group, this can be used to activate, share and value cultural variation. For example, the concept of a family varies from the North-European concept of a small and fairly isolated nuclear family to the African family consisting of a large number of relatives.

As teachers we are expected to teach and discuss about families and family relationships. Talking about the real families represented in the classroom can often be very difficult and maybe even embarrassing for the students involved. Using the visuals of an imaginary family created as part of a Storyline is always effective. Children with no father / mother at home can create the family they have or the family they would like to have. The relationships between father and son, mother and daughter etc can be explored, and family rules designed. Friendships can be developed and dislike can be discussed openly and in an unthreatening atmosphere. (Bell, 2000).

The storyline structure and the assigned roles make it possible for the immigrants to act out family roles that are typical of their home cultures. In addition, they have an opportunity of experimenting with and experiencing new family roles, such as the Finnish ones, typical of their new home country. This experiential enactment of the two family concepts in a playful and safe environment – both of them different but yet equal – is likely to add to the understanding of the new culture and society and facilitate the transition and adaptation to the new culture and its values.

The Storyline Matrix

The storyline does not primarily rely on textbooks for learning, although a variety of resources, such as encyclopaedias, the Internet, dictionaries and textbooks, are available for the learners to do research to verify their hypotheses. Storylines typically use matrices in which columns are reserved for episodes, key impulses, tasks and activities, artwork, etc. The matrix is the teacher's planning aid. The following storyline design (Figure 1) is a modified matrix showing how the storyline progresses from one episode to another, introduced by key questions leading to student-generated hypotheses and research. The key questions are formulated on the basis of the episode. For episode 1, potential key questions might be: What is a planet? What do you think it looks like on another planet? The first and second episodes provide the setting and the characters for the events to take place, and the following episodes develop the plot. Each episode integrates a number of subjects, and a selection of resources that are available for finding out information about the research questions that the learners have formulated in connection to each episode.

Figure 1: An example of a storyline matrix (http://www.storyline.org)

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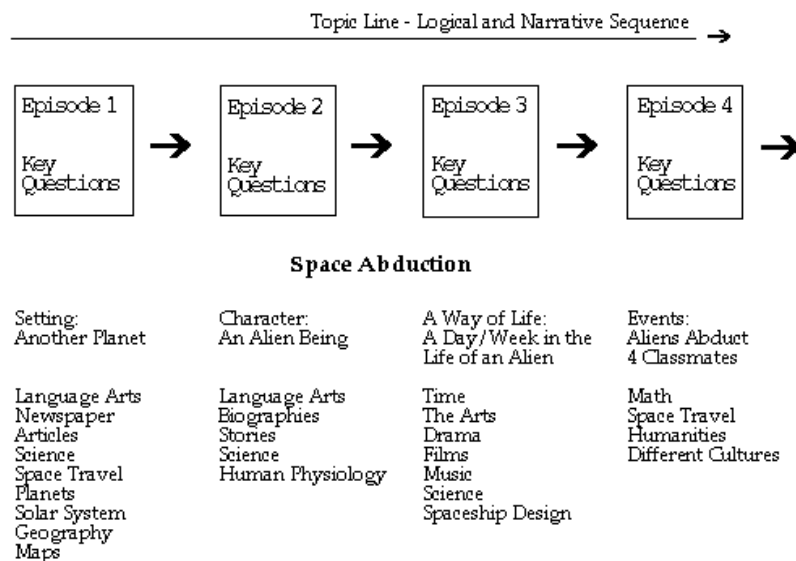
THE STORYLINE AS EFFECTIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING

Story Grammar in the Storyline

The storyline method is about stories. Very young children have the prototype structure of a story stored in their memory, because they have been told fairytales. In other words, they know that they are going to hear a fairytale, when they hear or read the words: "once upon a time…". This is the beginning script that triggers the story script in the recipient's memory. The recipients also know that there is a setting of the story: a certain place and time, which form the background of the story, and the key actors whom the story is about. The children know that there is a chain of events in the story. Each event contains a problem which has a solution and the event is completed. Another event takes place and then another until the story comes to an end. The end of a fairytale is signalled by certain words in the story script: "and they lived happily ever after". This structure is called story grammar, and the storyline method uses the memory structure of a story that the children already have to teach them new content and language (Rumelhart, 1980).

Drama and Role-play

The storyline method provides a lot of opportunities for drama activities. The whole storyline is actually a drama, consisting of separate acts and acting out roles. Some of the role-plays have scripts; others are free and open for the students' creativity. The more guided role-plays follow the principles of communicative language teaching, such as realistic context, authentic language, learning language for use outside the classroom, and processing whole texts on-line.

Communicative Language Teaching

The storyline provides opportunities for the practice of functional language, that is, chunks of language with certain functions, such as greetings, introducing people, identifying oneself (for beginning learners) and making promises, sharing wishes, hopes, desires and problems and making excuses (for more advanced language learners). The storyline provides a context, not an authentic one, but one that is embedded in a story structure, resembling true life. The storyline can be adapted to a number of various contexts and language learning goals.

The Common European Framework

The storyline method is adaptable enough to cater for all levels of language proficiency, from the beginning A level dealing with the personal domain and modest language learning goals up to the highest C levels with a high level of linguistic competence and the knowledge of a great number of sociolinguistic conventions and an advanced pragmatic competence. The action-oriented approach that the Common European Framework (http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/CADRE_EN.asp) advocates and which is apparent in tasks with associated texts and strategies is easily and satisfactorily implemented in the storylines. In the Finnish curricula, the target level for Finnish as a second language is B2 (www.oph.fi)

Language Skills

The storyline approach provides multiple opportunities for oral work as well as reading and writing. At the beginning stages of language learning, the students benefit from spoken activities, such as introducing oneself, acting out short role-plays, such as buying ice cream, simple descriptions, such as describing the fictitious family and their house. At more advanced levels of language learning the students are involved in reading and writing activities from different registers and genres, using elaborate cohesive devices to produce text for a number of different contexts, such as writing (and delivering) a speech at the hotel opening, writing a newspaper article, or writing an application or a complaint.

Vocabulary Learning

The storyline approach provides plenty of opportunities for vocabulary learning in which recent findings about human memory for vocabulary learning, storage and retrieval can be applied. Lexical items are best stored in groups of all kinds. Words can be grouped on the basis of thematic or structural principles. Hierarchical groupings are known to aid conceptual thinking; antonyms and synonyms are likely to be stored in the same place in the memory (Kristiansen, 2001). Their memorizing is enhanced if they are taught together. A storyline dealing with farms or shops or hotels offers natural vocabulary for semantic webbing, i.e. grouping words, such as farm animals, fruits and vegetables, shops, items in the

shop windows, ice-cream flavours, etc. A hotel storyline provides a hierarchical schema for people working in a hotel. Words can be registered in individual dictionaries; they can be stored in word banks and recycled in games and quizzes.

Learning Styles and Strategies

The storyline approach is flexible enough to provide room for all types of learners. It is an active method with plenty of movement and kinaesthetic activity for young and kinaesthetic learners. There is ample use of visuals (e.g. friezes). Listening is important in dialogues, role-plays and following instructions. Listening to taped material is also possible, such as radio and TV commercials, weather reports, airport announcements, etc. The choice of a role to be worked on allows for individual use of strategies. A shy person may create a similar role but it is equally possible that the character is the opposite of the learner, a very vivid, active one. The role offers a mask that releases the real person to adopt a new personality. In the case of teaching Finnish as a second language, the learner may try out the role of a Finn, or act out their ethnic identities, or even both.

Learning strategies can be explicitly taught using the storyline method. Classifications, communication strategies, compensation strategies, memory strategies, social and affective strategies (see e.g. Oxford, 1990) can be taught e.g. by modelling. The teacher may model a strategy by reading a story about successful use of a strategy. The text may be an analogy, such as climbing a mountain with all the phases, including planning and preparing for the climb, overcoming obstacles while climbing and feeling happy after reaching the top. This analogy teaches the students the importance of goal setting, planning, monitoring learning in progress and finally evaluating the outcome of learning. Scaffolded (for the concept of instructional scaffolding, see e.g. Wood et al., 1976) activities for planning a roundtrip to a holiday resort, solving small problems along the way and finally evaluating the result might function as storyline activities to teach metacognitive strategies. A new opening for teaching Finnish as a second language would be to use native speaker peers as partners in educational dialogues or small-group work. In this way, the zone of proximal development would be created and the learning of the Finnish language would be optimised.

CONCLUSION

It is obvious that the storyline itself is not a method that would cater for all aspects of teaching of a second language. The method does not incorporate effective teaching of formal features of language, such as grammar, and it does not provide focused instruction in accuracy training. The language input is primarily created by the learners, so there is little or no input from outside sources, such as native speakers, textbooks and other written material, which would allow for implicit learning to take place. On the other hand, second language learners have access to ample amounts of the second language outside the school and they can learn a lot from it if they want to.

The strengths of the storyline method are the flexible framework that it provides for many kinds of language learning. For immigrant learners of Finnish it may work as a therapeutic tool that helps them not only to adapt to the Finnish society but also to become empowered citizens of the society.

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Multilingualism in Israel: Literacy in 3+ Languages

Shlomo Alon, Hebrew University in Jerusalem and
Ministry of Education, Israel

Israel has a long tradition of very complex and ever-changing multilingualism. More than two thousand years ago, a pattern of triglossia had emerged, with Hebrew, Greek and Judeo-Aramaic, all playing meaningful roles. Hebrew was used for religious and literacy purposes, a Jewish language for other home and community functions, and one or more 'co-territorial vernaculars' for communication with non-Jews. The present pattern of multilingualism in the region started with the return of Jews to Palestine in the middle of the 19th century. The subsequent revitalization of Hebrew and its growth into a national vernacular, has guaranteed continued linguistic complexity. By the close of the 19th century, Palestine was already undergoing a change in its multilingual pattern. The language of government was Turkish. Town-dwellers and peasants spoke local dialects of Arabic. Classical Arabic was the written language of the educated elite. European languages were being introduced and encouraged by Churches and powerful foreign consuls. French had an important status, and German was supported by government language policy. Most of the large number of Jews who started to arrive from Eastern Europe in the middle of the 19th century spoke Yiddish, but also Russian, Polish and Hungarian. In contact situations like Jerusalem, bilingualism developed and changed rapidly. Many Arabs were developing spoken proficiency in Yiddish, spoken by Jews with whom they were doing business.

Jewish nationalism in the latter part of the 19th century took two paths: a non-territorial cultural nationalism that chose Yiddish as its language, and a territorialist socialist movement that aimed to develop a new Hebrew man, speaking Hebrew in the newly-redeemed land. The battle between the two ideologies and languages was fought in Europe and in Palestine, with Hebrew the victor in Palestine (Erez Israel). The brief successes of Yiddish in Europe were to be wiped out by the Holocaust. The settlers in the new colonies and in the Kibbutzim and the new town of Tel Aviv, were in fact the major element in the linguistic and ideological revolution of the Hebrew language.

THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

From the early teaching of Hebrew in the schools of the colonies in the 1890s, to its use as their main language by Zionist socialists, Hebrew spread through the Jewish communities (Yishuv) of Palestine. By the 1920s, Hebrew was a native language for many and the public language of the Jewish community of Palestine, although many leading academic and literary figures were still far from comfortable speaking it.

The British Mandatory government bolstered the standing of Hebrew in several ways. The use of German in schools was banned and the teachers interned. Even before the mandate was formally proclaimed, the British government agreed that Hebrew was the language of the Jewish population, and British regulations and the Mandate itself established Hebrew as an official language alongside Arabic and English. To minimize its commitment to the mandated territory, the British left the Jewish community to conduct its own educational system. Thus, Hebrew grew as the language of instruction in Jewish schools and in the university, into a language well-equipped to deal with modern life and technology. Under British Mandatory rule, while English was the main language of government, the Jewish and Arabic communities remained distinct, with separate school systems. Some contact bilingualism developed, with English serving both communities as a potential language of wider communication. New Jewish immigrants needed to acquire Hebrew, the language of work and education and cultural life.

The traditional Jewish multilingualism has been superseded first by an ideological Hebrew monolingualism and then, with a new Hebrew-English bilingualism. There has been some resistance to this language shift, but it provides a fair general characterization of the changes over the last century.

Many of the Jews arriving the 1920s from Eastern Europe went first to kibbutzim, where the strength of communal pressure encouraged them to move from their use of Yiddish and Russian or Polish to private and public use of Hebrew. Their children grew up as monolingual native speakers of Hebrew, with some passive knowledge of their parents' languages. The second generation sometimes learned Arabic and the third was strictly Hebrew speaking, with a growing tendency to add English. The same pattern continued with later immigrants from Europe. The highly educated German speakers tended to keep up some language knowledge into the second generation. The less educated later-arriving Romanians moved even faster to Hebrew.

Hebrew has penetrated, transformed and unified the groups of immigrants who arrived in Israel and who were originally speakers of Eastern and Central European languages. Over the generations, Polish, Russian, Romanian and German have been pushed back in favour of the new language – modern Hebrew. By 1948, when the state of Israel was established, Hebrew was the principal language of the majority of the Jewish population. In the next decade, large numbers of new immigrants arrived, but their high linguistic heterogeneity contributed to the rapid acceptance of Hebrew by the new immigrants and their children. Jews from Arabic speaking countries accepted many of the values established by the Ashkenazic-dominant society, and also participated in the shift to Hebrew. North African Jews, many of them bilingual in at least Maghreb Arabic and French, soon moved to add Hebrew. In some families, Arabic was dropped and French retained as a home language alongside Hebrew; in others it was vernacular Arabic that continued as the language of the first generation, with passive knowledge passed on to later generation. Hebrew has thus continued to penetrate immigrant groups, succeeding often in a generation or two to replace the original language. Where there was a concentration of population sharing a language other than Hebrew, the linguistic homogeneity contributed to its preservation. In the last decade, knowledge of Modern Hebrew has grown even among the ultra-orthodox religious communities, and there are Hassidic sects who use it at home, but ultra-orthodox education continues to use Yiddish as a language of instruction.

THE ARABS OF ISRAEL

The Arabs of Israel also constitute a culturally and linguistically heterogeneous group. One division is between the Christian Arabs, mainly living in towns and with long contact with linguistically diverse churches, and the Moslems, many of them villagers or recent city-dwellers. Bedouin and Druze also make up distinct groups. Arabic speakers share in the same diglossia that marks the Middle East, with a single Classical variety accepted for literacy and formal use, a large number of local vernaculars as spoken language, and a tendency to develop an educated standard version (MSA). With the increase of education, there is a growing tendency for the vernacular speakers to add prestige or standard forms of phonology or lexicon to their repertoire. The Arab community has also been strongly influenced by Hebrew, which is slowly penetrating it. The Arab population constitute some 19% of Israel's population. Arabic is officially recognized for education and public use. In spite of this, most Israeli Arabs are now bilingual in Arabic and Hebrew. The intrusion of Hebrew into the sociolinguistic repertoire of Israeli Arabs is also instrumentally motivated. A more serious penetration is shown when the knowledge of Hebrew is traceable among younger groups to the educational domain. In Israeli Arab villages and Arab towns, there is growing Arabic-Hebrew bilingualism, with employment in the Hebrew-speaking sector outside the villages as the major cause. In cities like Haifa and Jaffa, where there is close contact with Hebrew-speakers, there is an increasing development of high levels of proficiency in Hebrew, even at the cost of Arabic maintenance. A significant number of Arab children in Haifa and Jaffa now attend schools and kindergartens. While the Druze use Arabic as their first language, because they mostly serve in the Israeli army, they are often fluent speakers of Hebrew. The divergent pull of Arabic and Hebrew is clearly demonstrated in the two Circassian-speaking villages in Israel, one of which prefers its education in Arabic and the other in Hebrew.

LANGUAGE POLICY

As Israel does not have a written constitution, and as there is no law defining language policy, the policy issue is somewhat unclear. Access to courts and government offices is in Hebrew and Arabic. The decision to leave education to the communities made it possible for each to use their respective languages for instruction. Both systems teach also English as a mandatory language.

The Arab schools teach Hebrew as a second language starting in the second or the third grade. Some 40% of the children in Jewish schools learn Arabic for three years, from 7th to 9th grade; about 15% start it earlier and continue it later, but the success of the teaching remains questionable. As mentioned, all students in both Jewish and Arabic systems learn English as the major foreign language, starting in third or forth grade or even earlier and continuing to the 12th grade. In addition, a significant number of pupils learn French, Russian, Yiddish, Amharic or Spanish. With some foundation during the 19th century, the role of English grew after the conquest of Palestine by British troops and the subsequent award of a Mandate for Palestine to the British government. Between 1917 and 1948, English was the main language of government. British rule provided a solid base for English which has remained the principal foreign language, although there was some brief flirtation with French in the first few years after the Independence of Israel.

By the early 1970s, the effects of the process of globalization of English were obvious, and there was a growing status for the language and competence in its use. The demand for English continued to grow. As well as serving as a language for access to business, science, education and travel, English is the language of major Jewish diasporas in the U.S.A. and elsewhere. There was a significant impact from the large number of English-speaking immigrants who arrived in the years after 1968. As well as being the first immigrant groups whose language could compete with Hebrew in standing, they provided a stock of native speakers of the language, many of whom became English teachers. About one third of teachers of English in Jewish high schools are native speakers of the language. The demand for English has continued to increase. It is parental pressure that forces the schools to start teaching English earlier. Many parents arrange private tutoring in English for young children. Hebrew-English bilingualism is becoming a possibility for the future.

NEW INFLUENCES ON MULTILINGUALISM

There have been three major groups of immigrants over the last 20 years that have a new influence on Israeli multilingualism. The first is the 1,000,000 immigrants from the former Soviet Union, who constitute a large enough group to affect Israeli society and whose language integration is quiet varied. Many newspapers are now published in Russian, and a political party representing the immigrants won several seats in recent elections. From the beginning of the wave of immigration, signs and advertisements started to appear in Russian, and, without any central decision, local offices started providing service in Russian. This group may well have better success at slowing language shift than others.

The second is a group of about 100,000 immigrants from Ethiopia, mainly speakers of Amharic and Tigrinya, with some literacy in Amharic and Geez. The major cultural gap has meant that integration is slow, and only younger people are making progress in acquiring Hebrew.

The third group are between 100,000 and 200,000 foreign workers, including sizable numbers from Romania, Thailand, Africa and China. It is not clear yet if these groups remain and have the same linguistic fate as European gastarbeiter.

THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

During the last three years we experienced also a new sizable immigration of Jewish people from Latin America, mostly Argentina, and from France. Their integration into the school system and into public life in Israel has been relatively easy and smooth. Israel continues to provide fertile ground for research in multilingualism. The unique revitalization of Hebrew resulted in a strong tendency for an ideological and instrumentally-motivated monolingualism to replace the earlier multilingual pattern. But

this has been challenged, on the one hand by the mixed success of resistance to language shift by Arabic, Russian, Yiddish and many other languages, and on the other by the fact that Hebrew is now forced to compete with English in an increasing number of domains.

A new project has been designed to investigate the role of teaching three obligatory languages plus one elective language, in maintaining effective literacy. Thirty classes between the 5th and the 8th grade are involved in a unique programme of integrating the teaching of English, Hebrew and Arabic and a fourth optional language – Russian. French, Spanish or Amharic. The pupils learn 15 hours of languages every week. The curriculum includes five proficiencies: reading, writing, listening, viewing and oral proficiency. The pupils compose multilingual dictionaries and translate short stories and plays from their mother-tongue to the four languages, and vice versa. The pupils produce their own multilingual newspapers and exchange messages with pen pals from countries in which the mother tongue is one of the languages taught in class. Questions of immigrant and heritage languages are examined as part of the project.

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Literacy in English as a Foreign Language: Reading Readers vs. Reading Literature

Smiljana Narančić Kovač, Faculty of Teacher Education,
University of Zagreb, Croatia

The language of graded readers of literature in English aimed at young or beginner learners of EFL (English as a foreign language) is analysed and compared to the language of graded readers aimed at pupils whose first language is English and to the language of literature in 'real books', mainly picture books and poetry.

The implications of the 'disinfected' language of the graded readers for the development of literacy in the target language are discussed. Special emphasis is put on structural, functional and cultural aspects of the analysed texts, and on their respective potential 'instructional' value in terms of achieving literacy of a higher order in EFL.

Learners of second/foreign languages develop literacy in all their languages. To achieve and sustain literacy in a foreign language, they need to read independently as much as possible – just as in their first language (L1). Graded readers – books of texts and materials that facilitate acquiring reading skills – have been part of the educational context for a long time. They are teaching materials used to expand learning opportunities.

This paper focuses on ELT (English language teaching) readers of literature in English for young beginner EFL (English as a foreign language) learners. It analyses how they compare with L1 reading schemes on one hand, and, on the other hand, with 'real books' – authentic, not simplified literature (mainly picture books and poetry) aimed at young L1 audiences.

ELT READERS VS L1 READERS

There is an urgent need for appropriate texts in the ELT world today, especially for young learners. While there is a vast selection of L1 readers and reading schemes available, originally written ELT readers for young learners are still rare. To meet the demand, some publishers adapt their L1 reading schemes and reissue them as ELT readers.

Two such series of parallel picture books have been compared to establish differences: *Cambridge Reading* (1996) and *Cambridge Storybooks* (2001) for primary classes. Several titles from *Cambridge Reading (CR)* are adapted and published as the *Cambridge Storybooks (CS)* series. Individual books contain traditional texts, such as nursery rhymes, retold fables and stories, e.g. *Hickory Dickory Dock*, *The Gingerbread Man*, *The Raven and the Fox*, but the majority contain texts specially written for *CR*, the L1 series, by several authors. Both sets are graded; levels 1, 2 and 3 are called 'Becoming a reader A,' 'B,' and 'C' in *CR* and 'Beginner,' 'Beginner/Elementary' and 'Elementary' in *CS*, respectively. Some L1 books appear at higher levels as ELT readers. The illustrations (artwork) and the design of the parallel books are exactly the same; all the differences are detected in their texts.

The established variants can be grouped into several categories: structural differences, vocabulary, cultural and literary aspects.

As shown in Table 1, the ELT readers tend to simplify the originals, avoiding or rephrasing more complex structures. It is not always clear, though, why one structure is considered more complicated than another, especially as ELT readers do include instances of sophisticated structures (e.g. passive). For example, a '*Shall we ...*' suggestion is rephrased to become '*Can we...*' which follows the same pattern; or '*Let's* …', which is perhaps more complicated.

L1 – (*CR*)	**ELT** – (*CS*)
Past	➜ Present
Present Perfect	➜ avoided or Present Simple
Shall we, Will we	➜ *Can we / Let's* / Present Simple
Non-finite forms	➜ Finite forms (not always)
Dependent clauses (Relative clauses)	➜ avoided
If	➜ *When*
When A, B	➜ *A, and B*
Wh-questions	➜ avoided

Structural Changes

The most frequent structural changes include consistent transformation of past into present tenses, even when it sounds awkward. For instance, the ELT version: 'A raven sees some cheese. He takes the cheese. He flies to a tall tree' (Rose, 1996, pp. 2-4) replaces the L1 text: 'One day, a raven saw some cheese. He took the cheese. He flew to a tall tree' (Rose, 2001, pp. 2-4). It also skips the storytelling marker 'one day', and deprives readers of a valuable clue. Exposed to the ELT version, we might even have difficulty accepting the given sequence of sentences as a story, if the text were the only cue – the text is functionally flawed. We accept it as a story because we know the fable already, because the illustrations support the retelling or because we expect a story. Besides, young learners will not concentrate on tenses, but understand the text globally and in accordance with their literary competence. It can be confirmed by asking children to recount the story in their mother tongue. They routinely switch to past tense(s), because they rely upon their experiences of storytelling conventions, rather than on the grammatical features of the given ELT text. An interesting consequence for EFL learning ensues: it seems that texts which expose children to present forms in typically 'past-tense' contexts probably lead them to connect present forms with past meanings, while recognizing the lexical meaning of the verb. This can be supported by a recording of a Croatian nine-year-old boy in his third year of learning English as a foreign language, reading a story he likes. On three instances he simultaneously (1) recognizes the verb, (2) reads its past form as present, (which he is familiar with from his ELT classes), and (3) connects the verb with the past meaning: he reads 'begin' instead of 'began' in 'and the whole house began to shake'; 'come' instead of 'came' in 'When they came out of the tunnel', and 'leans' (!) instead of 'leaned' in 'Everyone leaned over to see' (Gurney, 2003) When he recounts the story in Croatian, he consistently sticks to past tenses of all the verbs.

Vocabulary

Regarding vocabulary, two kinds of changes appear: idioms and phrasal verbs are rephrased or omitted, even those as simple as 'show round' and 'laugh at', and, secondly, individual words are replaced by other, often similar words, e.g. the ELT raven is 'angry', not 'cross'. Yet, difficult phrases sometimes occur in both readers, e.g. 'weighing flour'.

Some of the vocabulary replacements influence the culturally relevant aspects of texts. For instance, neutral expressions replace those of everyday conversation, which depict how people really communicate in a specific community. Thus 'so easy' substitutes 'easy-peasy', probably because it does not belong to the 'common core', but to a more informal register. Similarly, 'Teddies' is expelled to make room for less cosy 'Teddy bears', perhaps also because of its plural form (y -> i+es), which young learners would not notice at all.

Nursery Rhymes

Another culture-related issue is the status of nursery rhymes. They are sometimes modified to meet the structural requirements mentioned above. Past and non-finite forms are expelled, so that in Incy Wincy Spider 'Climbs up the water spout' replaces the original 'Climbing up the spout', and 'The mouse runs up the clock' replaces 'The mouse ran up the clock'. In the former, not only the cultural reference, but also the rhythm is unnecessarily ruined. In the latter, in addition to that, an opportunity to practice linking in spoken English in 'ran up' is ruined by the clumsy 'runs up'.

Betrayed literary conventions and traditions also belong to the literary aspects affected by the changes detected in ELT texts. They include the obstruction of a dialogue between/among texts as well: simplifying sometimes conceals crucial clues, so that intertextuality, clear in the original, remains hidden in the adaptation, depriving readers of an exciting literary experience.

ELT READERS VS. REAL BOOKS

In addition to ELT readers, 'real' books, most often picture books (story books) are frequently and successfully used in EFL classes, especially with young learners (Brewster, Ellis and Girard, 1991; Ellis and Brewster, 1991; Machura, 1995; Milinović, 2004; Narančić Kovač, 2001; Ušnik, 1999). The emphasis on visual clues provided by artwork and design allows for an easy application of picture books in class; but it is the feature real books share with ELT readers for primary children. Therefore, a comparison of the texts may provide clues as to the respective potentials of two kinds of sources for the development of FL literacy.

Real books and ELT readers on similar topics and of similar length have been selected for comparison. Gillham's and Snow's *My Pet* (2001), a *CS* book, compares well with Burningham's *The Friend* (1995). *My Pet* is only 7 words shorter with its 42 words (46 in the L1 version). *The Friend* is richer in choice of vocabulary and less repetitive than *The Pet*. Although the language of *The Friend* is slightly more advanced with a negative statement and an idiom ('by myself'), the books include several similar structures: 'Arthur is my friend' vs. 'This is my pet'; 'Sometimes I don't like Arthur' vs. 'Sometimes I play with her'; 'We play outside when it is fine' vs. 'When she's dirty, I wash her.' It should be noted that *The Pet* is particularly amusing due to a discrepancy between the pictures and the text: the pictures suggest that the dog is in charge, not the girl, as implied by the text.

Another pair of examples involves Carle's *From Head to Toe* (1997), and Prater's *Dan's Box* (2001). The former is a real book, and its text is highly repetitive:

'I am a penguin and I turn my head. Can you do it?
I can do it!
I am a giraffe and I bend my neck. Can you do it?
I can do it!'

The latter tackles the same structure, and is also repetitive:

'Dan says, "I can do lots of things. I can stretch up high."
Jack says, "I can stretch up very high."'

In this case, the ELT text seems to be even more complicated than the text from the real book. Nevertheless, it cannot match the rhythm of the question-answer exchange in the real book, which is then amusingly repeated many more times, inviting the child to read aloud.

Finally, the analysis of the classical *Rosie's Walk* (Hutchins, 1968) shows that even simple and short stories may include items that would be replaced or omitted in an ELT reader. Its text consists of two independent clauses combined into one sentence, which tells a simple story: 'Rosie the hen went for a walk (…) and got back in time for dinner.' The text tracks the walk by a cumulative list of prepositional phrases: 'across the yard, around the pond,' etc. However, the story is told by the illustrations rather than by the short text (32 words in all), which only provides the frame. Thus the book is easy to understand even for very young learners, in spite of its seemingly difficult language. The illustrations and the book design make the text not only almost irrelevant for the comprehension of the story, but also easy to understand in its logical choice of words and structures. In other words, the story, related by means of pictures, allows for the comprehension of the text. It should also be noted that *The Pet* resembles *Rosie's*

Walk in that the illustrations interfere with text to provide humour and to perform some narrative functions.

The comparison of real books and ELT books for young children has shown that it is not always simple to distinguish between them solely upon their texts: a consistent difference has not been established. They may include similar structures and vocabulary items, or, alternatively, structures and vocabulary of various levels of complexity.

THE IMPLICATIONS FOR FL LITERACY

The question still remains whether the purified or 'disinfected' language of ELT readers really helps improve literacy in a foreign language, or rather, whether the original texts of real books may hinder the development of literacy. The answer depends on the ideas behind teaching children a foreign language on one hand, and on how literacy is understood in the context of EFL learning, on the other hand.

The widely accepted goals of ELT classes with young learners include developing positive attitudes toward (learning) a foreign language, raising children's self-esteem based upon the feeling of accomplishment, establishing and sustaining basic communicative skills, providing the opportunities for the exposure to the foreign language in an interesting and amusing way, developing strategies, etc.; and all that in an enjoyable and stress-free atmosphere. Teaching young learners involves providing good models, and simple, but natural language they can understand from the meaningful context, and which they can use appropriately and without difficulty, in turn. Understanding or analysing structures is definitely not among the concerns of teaching young learners, and neither are tenses.

Besides, there is no reason why present verb forms should be less complicated than past forms, or easier to understand, especially when the notion of past is immanent to or only logical in a given context. Similarly, if a 'Why' or a 'When' or a 'Where' question is needed, it should not be avoided. The only possible reason for avoiding it lies in the prescribed lists of structures to be expelled from various ELT levels. Such lists usually lead to correct, but artificial language of ELT materials, not the natural authentic language of everyday usage, which is the model young learners should be exposed to.

Successful adoption of authentic nursery rhymes in teaching EFL to very young children supports the point. As the main features of rhymes normally include rhythm, rhyme, and even a tune, they are easily remembered by youngsters, regardless of their often difficult language, especially as they are usually excellent poetry. Just as A.A. Milne, the master of light verse, says, 'If you can find words which keep time to the music and which are just the words for what you want to say, then the verses (…) sing themselves into people's heads and stay there for ever' (1929, p. vii). This traditional rhyme is exactly such a piece of poetry:

'One, two, three, four, five,
Once I caught a fish alive,
Six, seven, eight, nine, ten,
Then I let it go again.

Why did you let it go?
Because it bit my finger so,
Which finger did it bite?
This little finger on the right.'

Interestingly, it has not been simplified in the *CS* series, Level 1 (Davidson, 1996/2001). Once remembered, the rhyme will 'stay forever' in children's minds, helping them 'store' rather complicated structures.

It is clear that the basic skills normally expected from L1 readers, such as punctual, absolutely accurate reading of individual words, etc., may not be the necessary requirements for young EFL learners. They are encouraged instead to globally comprehend the texts using available contexts. Thus, the 'I can read' of a young FL learner may differ from the 'I can read' of an L1 child, but their end is the same: to comprehend what they read, and to develop literacy of a higher order, i.e. to become literate beyond the

basic skills, in the sense that "becoming fully literate means, among many things, being able to use strategies independently to construct meaning from text, draw upon texts to build conceptual understanding, effectively communicate ideas orally and in writing, and possess an intrinsic desire to read and write" (Mazzoni and Gambrell, 2003, p. 11).

In this light, it can be concluded that real books do not hinder, but rather encourage literacy of a higher order in young FL learners perhaps even better than ELT readers, provided they are appropriate (in terms of topics, vocabulary, syntax, illustrations etc.) and provided they are generally (not entirely) correspondent to learners' FL levels. They also offer better models due to their natural language. In contrast, simplifying ELT readers does not seem to help significantly, as young learners are not bound to concentrate on details, including specific grammatical structures.

In support of these conclusions, the analysis of the recorded readings in English of the Croatian boy shows that he generally achieves global understanding of the appropriate texts, regardless of whether they are ELT or real books, and that he uses similar strategies when reading familiar and new texts. A more interesting finding is the irrelevance of structural and other details for the comprehension of stories, poems, and dialogues he reads. In other words, the boy understands and enjoys reading, even though he does not read accurately, and even though he does not understand all the words and structures. He does not distinguish between grammatical structures, at least not consistently (singular vs. plural forms, past vs. present forms), nor does he have problems with the sentence structure. He even replaces some expressions with other contextually acceptable ones ('Go to bedroom' instead of 'Go to bed now'), and he sometimes fails to recognize words he definitely knows ('house'), but that does not jeopardize his general understanding of the texts.

It seems that even young children are capable of achieving important and advanced components of full literacy, even when they are not yet ready for accurate reading or for understanding in detail.

The simplifications painstakingly performed in ELT readers do not seem to be necessary: the general level of the text, the appropriateness of the content and the language may play a more important role in facilitating reading and raising literacy levels with young learners than shirking a complex structure or deleting a rare vocabulary item. Interesting texts and attractively illustrated books that appeal to children help improve their literacy the best, whether in L1 or in L2.

The solution is carefully choosing texts, rather than simplifying them.

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Multilingual Literacy through Literature

Meta Grosman, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia

"We give things meaning by how we represent them – the words we use about them, the stories we tell about them, the images of them we produce, the emotions we associate with them, the ways we classify and conceptualise them, the values we place on them." Stuart Hall (2002:3)

All the sense making processes listed by Stuart Hall take place in language, the medium in which we 'make sense' of things and produce and exchange meanings. In the multicultural world of the 21st century, thousands of languages are used to produce and exchange such meanings in individual cultures and cross culturally. Thus it has become obvious that literacy in one language only is not enough for communicating and making sense of the globalised world, and also not enough for living and successfully functioning in an ever more multicultural Europe. The need to read in a second/foreign languages is no longer discussed by authors specialising in foreign language reading only (Alderson & Urquhart, 1984; Grellet, 1994; Sollars, 2002) but is given considerable attention in general studies of reading (Cf., Grabe and Stoller, 2002, p. 40). In Eurydice's *Key Competencies* (2002, p. 23) designed by the group of basic skills specialists appointed by the European Commission, communication in foreign languages is listed second after communication in the mother tongue, before ICT and numeracy competencies, thus really requiring literacy in two or more languages, in short multiliteracy. The definition of reading literacy in *Key Competences* (2002, p. 15) as "the ability to understand, use and reflect on written texts, in order to achieve one's goals, to develop ones knowledge and potential, and to participate effectively in society" can thus describe literacy in both languages, the mother tongue and a foreign language. The questions of the teaching, acquisition and broader educational significance of multiliteracy, however, are to be resolved in individual countries both by setting curricular goals and providing for their implementation.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN SLOVENIA

In Slovenia in the mid-1990s several educational reforms resulted in the design of new national curricula approved in 1998 requiring all students in primary and secondary education to acquire a well developed 'intercultural communicative competence' in a foreign language, English, French, German, Italian, Russian or Spanish, along with their primary literacy in Slovene or any of the other first languages in bilingual areas. This has lead to intensified teaching of reading skills in foreign languages aiming not only at instrumental reading literacy but rather at a more complex reading competence for various kinds of texts including literary texts. The importance of the latter was unanimously agreed because they invite the development of critical reading and intercultural competence, and thus, in comparison to other authentic texts, provide richer educational challenges for the students. The decision to set required literary texts in English and other foreign languages for the written essay and oral discussion in final secondary school leaving examinations (at the age of 19) was taken because of the possible beneficial impact of literary competence, i.e. the expectation that literary reading after school leaving could help everybody to maintain and even upgrade the acquired level of foreign language knowledge and literacy, thus contributing to a lifelong multiliteracy. Since reading in a foreign language is less automatic than reading in the mother tongue, it is usually easier with the former to stimulate students to monitor their reading processes, to reflect on their miscues, on the impact of unknown words in reading, and on their own contribution in the processes of making sense of the text. This is particularly important for Slovene students, because they acquire practically no knowledge of the reading processes and of the possibilities of improving them with various strategies when reading texts by Slovene authors due to still mostly learning about literature, authors and periods. To help students to understand their own reading and to become more critical and thinking readers the teachers of English were introduced to the possibilities of manipulating and controlling the speed of reading, of promoting deeper understanding by guided questioning of texts, of reflecting on their own culture-specific (mis)reading, and of comparing different possible readings and thus upgrading their textual comprehension and wider literacy.

TEACHING A LITERARY TEXT

To motivate students for reading, to teach foreign language literacy and so to achieve the set goals it was first necessary to choose a literary text that could be expected to have personal resonance for Slovene students and would so make a personally significant literary experience available to them. When Salinger's *The Catcher in the Rye* (1994/1951) was identified as such a text, inservice teacher training was organised to offer the teachers of English the possibilities of experiencing the effects of slowed down reading, guided questioning of the text and other possible manipulations of it. In this way teachers could also simultaneously reflect on the impact of such approaches to teaching literature on their own textual comprehension. Reading segments of the text sentence wise, i.e. with pauses among individual sentences to provide room for reflection on what is on Holden's mind, what makes him describe some things and omit others, why does he narrate - i.e. behave verbally - as he does, firstly reveals the depth of Holden's motivation for his narrative and also offers readers insights in how they fill in the frequent gaps in the text, thus providing their own explanations of his narrative. Such questioning is a frequent (subconscious) ingredient of the reading process.

Discussing the opening paragraph ("If you really want to hear about it, the first thing you'll probably want to know…") thus prompts several questions concerning the reader's position as the addressee of "you" who is at the same time voicing the first person pronoun "I", about Holden's anticipations of his readers', or rather listeners' expectations, of what they want to hear, and his own culture-bound expectation that such narrative should follow the pattern of David Copperfield autobiography, mostly unknown to Slovene readers. His selection of information concerning his family can also be questioned in this way, and such questioning reading can be applied to any other segment of the novel (or other texts), for instance the opening paragraph of chapter 6 in which Holden meditates on how he cannot remember the details of Stradlater's return from his date with Jane. Guided questioning of this paragraph can help readers to realise the unusual ways in which Holden reveals more about himself thank he knows himself or wants to tell, and how much readers can see of him, if they scrutinise his descriptions and omissions along with his lack of understanding himself. Discovering and verbalising such implied meanings that the readers have to bring to the reading realisation of literary texts is often easier when reading in foreign languages, since students are more disposed to pay closer attention and reflect on various possible meanings, and less inclined to take the first meaning that comes to their minds. In this way readers learn how attentive reading is repaid by insights into characters, surpassing mere identification with them and penetrating below the surface of the text. Such attentiveness is particularly important for reading foreign language texts that may offer unknown and unexpected character features which are otherwise assimilated to reader's own culture. When learnt, it can also contribute to developing a better reading competence in the mother tongue.

SOCIAL REPRESENTATION IN INTEGRAL TEXTS

Once students have been sensitised to attentive reading of detail and to searching for meaning beyond mere surface, they can proceed to the discussion of the integral text. In this connection it is important to remember that literary texts always involve social representations as conglomerates of perceptions, beliefs, standards and values of a given culture and also of the ways in which its members interpret their various human relations and the reality that surrounds them and attribute to it its special culture-bound meanings. Such representations and interpretations of reality differ from culture/language to culture/language and are always culture specific; that is why literary texts from foreign languages make special demands on readers encountering them in different cultures, i.e. in specific intercultural contexts. Such differences in the reading of texts from unknown cultures were first established and examined in 1932 by Barttlet who in his experimental studies of memory for stories found out that all unfamiliar elements, both characters and events of stories from foreign cultures, got assimilated to reader's own culture in the process of reading and accordingly could not be recalled accurately. Such cultural assimilation may present additional problems for reading in a foreign language, but we can also view such reading as a challenge which – when taken and realised – enhances the value of reading in a foreign language and speaks for the acquisition of multiliteracy. In order to achieve the latter, teaching reading in a foreign/second language calls for consideration of the student's intercultural position as involved in all language contact (Kramsch, 1993)

and requires special attention to the differences in reading due to students' own culture-bound expectations. It also requires the development of intercultural awareness to help students see and understand such differences in their reading. Literary texts seem to offer best possibilities of developing such understanding because they have a unique capacity to encourage readers to put themselves into the characters' position and to see the world through their eyes, thus helping them to develop empathy and the flexibility to perceive the world from different perspectives (Cf., Bredella, 2005, 54) as preliminary to the development of intercultural perception and awareness.

When reading Salinger's *The Catcher in the Rye* Slovene readers felt uneasy and asked questions about the reasons for Holden's 'unfriendly' attitude to his classmates and roommates, thus revealing that they could at first not see that their expectations of what is friendly and how a friend behaves towards his/her classmates simply did not help to understand Holden's behaviour. Though the Slovene word '*prijatelj*' for the English word 'friend' is a lexical equivalent, the concept of a friend and friendship as entertained by Slovene readers differs a great deal from the concept inscribed in Salinger's novel. The semantic fields of this word in Slovene and in English include quite different components that can only be checked in comparing the descriptions of friends and friendship produced by Slovene students in the class with the definitions as offered in different EFL dictionaries. When students came to see that the complex meanings of 'friend' and 'friendship' (and of other words such as family and other social institutions) are culture specific, they could also understand that English embodies a different set of beliefs, values and shared meanings reflecting another culture. In this way students could come to see why their ideas of a friend and friendly behaviour among classmates produced expectations that differed from the expectations of American readers and simply did not fit the text or produce acceptable understanding of it. The realisation that meanings of individual words in two languages are equivalent only at a high level of generalisation, whereas in the reality of daily and literary use they have very particular culture-bound constellatiosn of meanings helps students to read more critically in both languages, in English and in Slovene, and helps them to see more in words than they are used to when reading automatically in their mother tongue. Once students acquire the habit of paying attention to information the text does not explicitly provide, because it is taken for granted in the target readers in its original cultural context, they can use this technique in further reading. Countless students of those teachers of English who regularly use various approaches of slowed down reading and stimulate critical questioning of the hidden dimensions of literary texts as introduced in EFL have come to state that they have learnt a completely new dimension of reading in Slovene also.

EXTENSION OF ANALYSIS TO OTHER TEXTS

Similar approaches have been adopted to read other English texts set for external examinations in EFL contexts. Depending on the particular genre and qualities of the text, they have been combined with other ways of introducing students to critical reading, as for instance discourse analysis and the use and comparison of Slovene translations as parallel texts. In discussion of the dramas, turn-taking practices are analysed and compared with Slovene practices, so when for instance the students think that Osborne's *Look Back in Anger* involves too much quarrelling they are encouraged to consider the differences between the ways quarrelling is done in Slovene and the different possible reasons for such linguistic practices.   So in one way or another they are constantly stimulated to compare different linguistic practices and cultures to be able to see better and understand both of them and to develop the necessary intercultural awareness. Students with outstanding interests in languages and in literary reading are also encouraged to compare the original texts in English with their Slovene translations. This is possible because reading assignments in secondary schools are in principle always English literary texts that have already been translated into Slovene and have thus as translated literary texts become part of the Slovene literary system. English studies at the university however systematically involve more complex comparisons of English texts with their Slovene translations aiming explicitly at discovering the different possibilities of the two languages and their special ways of embodying their respective cultures in order to promote intercultural awareness while trying to better understand both cultures.

The presented teaching of literature for the acquisition of multiliteracy presupposes two things, the teacher's readiness to stimulate the expression of students' readings and the students' willingness to attend

to their own readings and to see alternative possibilities. The teacher must never take students' perception of the text for granted. On the contrary, students should persistently be encouraged to articulate their own meanings since only in this way will their difficulties and differences in reading become visible and provide a realistic basis for discussion and upgrading their understanding and literacy. Only those teachers who encourage their students to express their puzzlement and take the trouble to find out what disturbs them, what is beyond their comprehension, goes against their expectations and makes them uncomfortable in any possible way, may hope to see the differences in the meanings actually produced by their students and to understand their feelings about and attitudes to the literary text originating in a foreign culture. Without such encouragement the differences and misunderstanding in students' readings will remain unnoticed and underestimated and could not be discussed to enrich their comprehension. The students' part when reading foreign literary texts is no less difficult. After voicing their first reading and questioning the text, they must somehow learn to step out of their own pattern of expectations as acquired in their mother tongue and own culture and, learning about the differences between languages and cultures, become able to see in a new perspective their reading in both their mother tongue and a foreign language, at the same time developing the intercultural competence necessary for maintaining such a dual perspective.

CONCLUSION

Though the students' responsibility in this process may be more difficult, multiliteracy is certainly worth learning. Coming to understand the cultural context of a foreign language requires their realisation of the fact that all people have culturally conditioned specific schemata for understanding and, accordingly, exhibit culturally conditioned behaviour. Students should further become aware of their own culture specific schemata and of the fact that they cannot fully understand a different language, the culture embodied in it, and its literature and speakers, through their own culturally conditioned schemata, which often function as culture-bound filters. To avoid misunderstanding of characters in foreign texts and actual people with different cultural backgrounds, students must unlearn the natural assumption that their ways of seeing and doing things are the same everywhere in the world and accept that other people have different perceptions and ideas through which they understand human relations and their physical and social world. As an awareness of the complexity of every intercultural and interlingual contact, intercultural awareness can help students to develop a dialogical relationship to the otherness of a different culture, its literature and its members, in which their understanding of a different culture and its literature will not be impaired by their own cultural expectations, whereas their own cultural identity will remain undisturbed by the otherness of a different culture. Contributing to the openness of mind, upgraded reading of literature in a foreign language and thus acquired multiliteracy can benefit their cognitive development and bring an enrichment of personality. Last but not least, reading literature in foreign languages with well developed multiliteracy can lead to valuable experiences offering the realisation that multiple ways of viewing the world, the people and their relationships are possible, along with better comparative insights into one's own culture. It can also teach students that there exist different possibilities of making sense of human life and different ideas about what things, relationships and actions matter. In our world, cherishing diversity of cultures and languages certainly constitutes a sufficient reason for trying as hard as necessary to read and upgrade the students' reading of foreign literary texts and to help them acquire the multiliteracy necessary to do this.

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Beginning Reading and Writing through Phonetic and Phonological Exercises:
New Training Materials for Children of Preschool Age

Kadi Lukanenok and Tiiu Tammemäe,
Tallinn Pedagogical University/Tallinn University, Estonia

INTRODUCTION

Literacy acquisition in regular languages (as Estonian languages: Hint 1978, Karlep 1998) basis on for one phonetically and phonologically correct speech output. Children with SLI has several speech and language processing problems, among the other phonetic and especially phonological difficulties. Children with phonetic and especially phonological difficulties have risk for literacy acquisition difficulties, especially specific reading difficulties (Human Development… 2007, Martin 2001, Mukherji&O´Dea 2002, Pastarus 1999, Reid 2007, Shaywitz 2003, Snowling 2003, Sousa 2005)

THEORETICAL BACKROUND

Specific reading difficulties are mainly caused by deficiency of speech perception and production. The deficiency is noticeable since early years in childhood. This deficiency appears as weakness of phonological processing and awareness, limited grammatical and semantical skills, limitations in working memory, inability to retrive and/or repeat words from memory and deficiency in speed and fluency in using words. It seems that between 7% and 15% of children have above mentioned difficulties in preschool age. These difficulties and limitations lead to persistent reading difficulties.

Specific reading difficulties co-occurs with cognitive factors as auditory and visual perception, memory processing, fine motor skills (Beaton 2004, Catts&Kamhi 2005, Leij et al 2006, Mukherji & O`Dea 2002, Pastarus 1999, Reid 2007, Shaywitz 2003).

Treating the speech and language difficulties in pre-school age could prevent and decrease literacy acquisition and specific reading problems in school age. Including cognitive factors into treatment process we could increase efficiency and get better results (Beaton 2004, Martin 2001, Reid 2007, Shawitz 2003).

Treating phonetic and phonological difficulties admits to include early literacy learning into the process. Phonetic and phonological exercises organized and offered as games are useful tools for the children in preschool age. Author`s practical experiences in the area affirm the statement.

PRACTICAL ISSUE

Lukanenok, K. and Tammemäe, T. (2004) developed exercise book *Kõnearenduse ja häälikuseade harjutustik (Exercises for Speech and Language Practice)*. The exercise book is designed for children between 5 and 7 years of age, who have primary phonetic and phonological difficulties and speech and language difficulties as co-occurant.

The material was developed to correct phonetic and phonological difficulties, to develop speech and language usage and promote early literacy skills in childhood.

Linguistically, the exercise book takes account the Estonian spoken and written language (Fenno-Ugristic group) specific. The exercise book consists 7 sets of most difficult sounds in

Estonian language. Literacy acquisition exercises mainly bases on traditional alphabetic-phonetic teaching method. Whole language method is available include as needed.

The training set is organized according to speech therapy theory and practice.
The main goals are:

1. correct articulation and phonology;
2. increase in grammar, semantics and syntax;
3. development of paralinguistic abilities;
4. development of fine motor abilities;
5. encouragement of communication;
6. development of cognition – i.e., perception, attention, memory, thinking, creativity
7. develop early literacy skills.

A key principle underlying the training material is - learning and practice are most efectives in the context of games and play. The authors' aim is to offer lot of games and methods using play elements.

The training material consists 7 sets for sounds R, S, V, P, K, Õ, Ä, Ö, Ü. Every set includes 12 - 30 colored plastic covered lists. Every colored list has linguistics (suggestions for grammar, semantics, syntax) *in verte*. Manual book is added.

Every set begins with practice the isolated sound, the sound in the beginning position of syllables and words, and the sound in the final and medial positions. At the end of a session, the authors offer practice on sounds in varying position and various suitable games. All these methods and games are available practice as reading exercises and games. *(See Appendix)*

Ofcourse, proposed directions in the material are suggestive ones. Every practitioner and parents should establish their own the best working way to use the material.

The task group working with the material were kindergarten teachers, primary school teachers, speech therapists, supporting teachers, and parents with children with specific learning difficulties, dysphasia and other conditions sometimes associated with reading and writing difficulties.

Training material *Kõnearenduse ja häälikuseade harjutustik (Exercies for Speech and Language Practice)* (Lukanenok & Tammemäe) was first published in Koolibri Publisher`s at 2004. The material is widely used in the kindergartens, schools and health centers by teachers, special teachers and speech therapists.

SUMMARY

Treating speech and language difficulties (incl. phonetic and phonological difficulties) in preschool age we could prevent specific reading difficulties in school age. In the order the above mentioned aim learning and practice should occur in the context of games and play. Well developed and organized training material improve the practice.

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APPENDIX

Some examples of the materials are shown in Figures 1 to 3:
1. TRIINU AND RUUDI (names of children) who collect TRIIBULISI (striped) and RUUDULISI (checked) objects. Practice connected R and T- sounds. Word cards.
2. DOOMINO S. Practice S- sound via game. Word cards.
3. NURGAD (corners). Cut corners should be match to whole objects. Practice K and R- sounds. Word cards.

Figure 1: Striped Words for Ruudi and Triinu
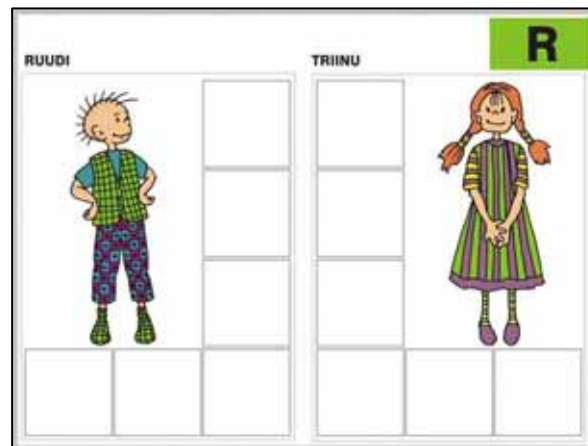
Figure 2: Domino Game for Practice of S Sound
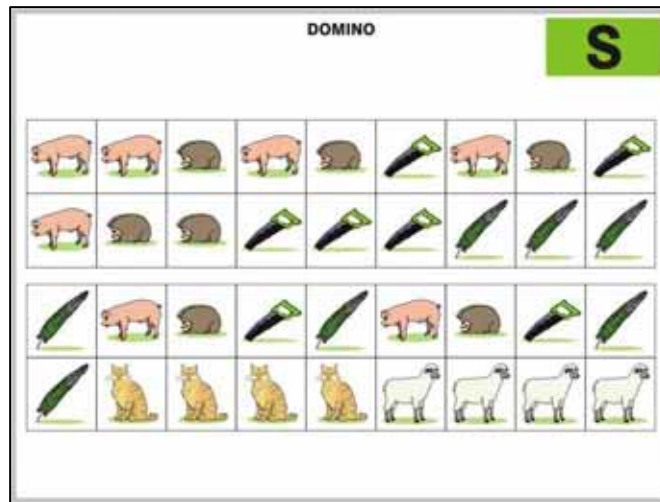
Figure 3: Corners for Practice of K and R Sounds
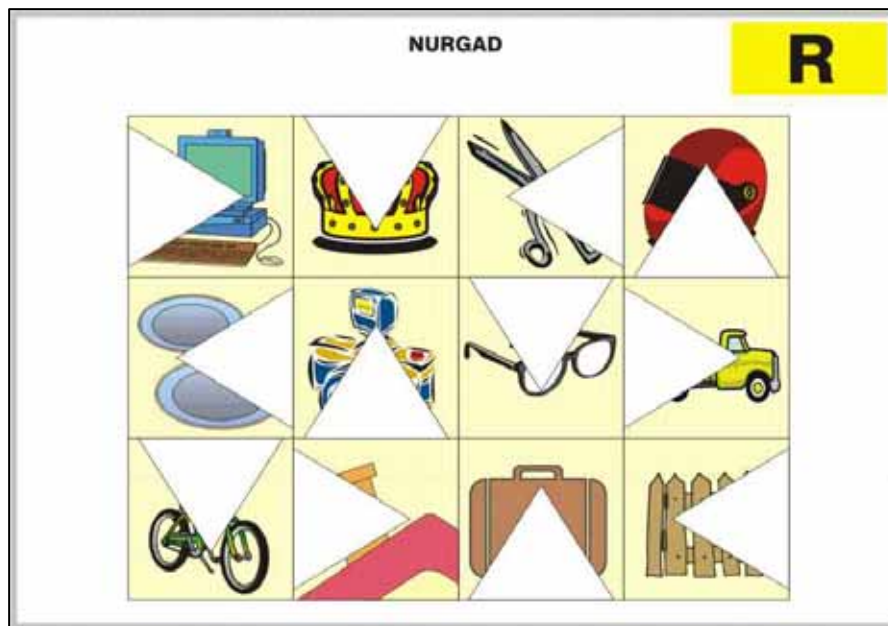
Literacy Starts at Home in Early Childhood

Dubravka Maleš, University of Zagreb, Croatia, and Ivanka Stričević, Zagreb City Libraries, Medveščak Public Library, Croatia

In the theoretical part of the paper, the emphasis is placed on discussing the impact of parental and family contexts on the development of a reading culture in young children as a prerequisite of the child's later performance. Indeed, the child's environment contributes significantly to the development of pre-reading skills as well as the child's motivation for independent reading. The empirical part of the paper contains some of the results obtained through a field survey conducted on a sample of 363 parents of pre-school children. The aim of the survey was to find out how many parents read to their pre-school children and how much importance the family attached to reading.

Literacy is a skill that has to be mastered by each individual in contemporary society. It was believed for a long time that it was the teacher who affected the development of reading and writing skills the most, but the situation has turned out to be much more complex. (How to Help Every Child Become a Reader, 2001). The child's sensitivity to speech and language and his/her acquisition of knowledge required for the later use of speech and language depend on the environment from the child's earliest age. The sense of family and the communication that parents establish with the child from the day he/she was born have a key role in the development of reading skills.

A STIMULATING FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

There has been a lot of talk about what kind of family environment is required to stimulate the child's development. The quality of family environment is not only important from the educational point of view but is of utmost importance to the development of the child's interest in learning and his/her later school performance. Parents are often unaware of the power of family influence, which is the strongest in early childhood. and its consequences are felt by individuals throughout their lives. Tizard and Hughes (1984) studied the reasons why it is the family where a pre-school child has the most learning opportunities. The suggest the following:

- for a very young child, family situations represent natural learning opportunities – learning occurs in a real life context;
- parents (particularly the mother) and the child share experience, which allows the new knowledge to be built on the existing knowledge, and this makes it easier for the child to understand messages;
- there are numerous opportunities for uninterrupted conversation (adults focus on individuals, rather than the responses and dynamics of the entire group, which is the case when they work with a group of children);
- learning occurs in a context of utmost importance for the child from the socio-emotional point of view.

From the point of view of the development of the child's skills that make the basis of literacy, the parent-child interaction is particularly important in the family context. This interaction involves more than simply reading to the child and providing books. The way the parent talks to the child is essential. According to Mikulecky (1996), how the parent communicates with the child is more important for the child's later reading achievements than the time the parent spends reading to the child. The most important aspects of parent-child interaction relating to the child's later literacy performance include the following:

- parental reading to and with the child;
- linguistic complexity and strategies used in parent-child interaction;
- parents' understanding of the role of education and literacy;
- literacy model and support the child receives from their parents.

The time parents and children spend together reading can contribute to the development of vocabulary (Robbins & Ehri, 1994) and communication skills but also to their bonding and establishing a good relationship, which are all essential to the development of the child's literacy (Chomsky, 1972; Tracey, 1995) and his/her later educational achievements.

An important question raised here is how the family and its daily routines can affect the child's interest in books and reading. In an environment where the child reads a picture book or book every day, where the parent is prepared to listen to the child as he/she reads regardless of the type of reading text (book, advertisement, recipe etc.), in other words where reading is given a lot of attention, the child is very likely to adopt reading habits and develop interest in the written word. From a very early age parents can create a basis for the development of reading and literacy skills through reading to the child, playing with words, singing songs, using nursery rhymes, naming objects, events etc., linking speech sounds and letters and creating conditions for communication with other children. (Wells, according to How to Help Every Child Become a Reader, 2001). Practice is the most important element leading to fluent reading, and in order for children to practice they have to be surrounded by books, and the family in the first place provides basic reading motivation and models. Nagy (1999) believes that many children who cannot read have parents with poor reading skills, who see reading as a waste of time, a useless activity.

Parents' positive attitude to literacy may help children become effective readers. Children who learn from their parents that reading can be fun are more willing to put an effort in learning how to read. Baker et al. (1997) believe that those children whose parents think reading is fun will develop a more positive attitude to reading than those whose parents see reading simply as a necessary skill. This, too, is why pre-reading skills and children's interest in reading are best nurtured through play.

Čudina-Obradović (1999) reported that despite the assumption that early language development (particularly verbal expression) is a prerequisite for effective reading and an interest in reading, scientific research has shown that the knowledge of children's literature and an interest in it are essential to effective reading that will occur later. Children's reading achievements are greater if their parents read to them from an early age. According to Robbins and Ehri (1994), reading picture books by adults to a large extent contributes to the enrichment of the child's vocabulary.

Wells and Nicholls (1985) emphasise that reading stories to children at an early age not only provokes interest, but also helps children develop thinking about the real and the hypothetical and create notions from perceptions, which is the basis of mental development. This is why they emphasise that when parents read to their child, the child does not only benefit emotionally but he/she also learns:

- how books work (the so-called «book language» e.g. what is a page, line, word, letter group of words and the like);
- how to use language in the process of thinking, which allows the separation of the physical context and understanding of the language as an abstract communication tool.

Out of many recommendations for parents on what to do about reading with a pre-school child and encourage the child's interest in reading and books (i.e. Mastain (1995), the following may be considered as the most important ones:

- recognise the importance of talking with the child, especially in a situational context, and then also with no reference to real and current events (the child learns the basics of syntax and semantics);
- use written messages from the child's environment to encourage reading (names of places, advertisements, short written messages etc.);
- read yourself to provide a stimulating model for the child;
- make stories and children's poetry a daily (and not occasional) part of the child's life (develop the so-called reading rituals – e.g. reading at bedtime, at a specific time when everybody in the family reads etc.).

A stimulating reading environment also involves availability of reading material. For a family it may mean having a home library (books, magazines, encyclopaedias, lexicons etc.), regular purchase of newspapers and magazines and library membership for family members. Chazan et al. (1971) confirmed

that parents of a lower socio-economic status have fewer of their own books, buy fewer newspapers and magazines and are not as often library members as middleclass parents.

Apart from the above mentioned family factors that affect the child's literacy, we should also mention how significant it is for the parents and the family to believe in the importance of reading, intergenerational passing on of literacy, co-operation of the family and the educational institution, parents' education and the cultural environment of the family. Research data on literacy best illustrate the power of parental influence – they show that the level of literacy prevailing in a family is passed on from generation to generation (intergenerational passing on of literacy) so that the children usually reach the level of literacy that corresponds to the literacy of their parents (*OECD, 2000)*.

Scientists emphasised the influence of parental environment on the development of pre-reading skills as early as in the second half of the 20th century, and this instigated the development of numerous programmes for parents, the aim of which was promoting family literacy and reading to the child from a very early age.

The term 'family literacy' is used for a variety of activities in scientific and professional literature (Family Literacy, 1994). This term is very complex and embraces all the methods and situations in which family members use reading and writing skills, but also includes a variety of educational practices, the purpose of which is to raise the level of literacy in all family members. (Knaflič, 2000). Based on a lot of research and family literacy programs it seems to be reasonable to conclude that the entire family should. To be really successful, the entire family – parents and children – must be involved be involved in the systematic development of a reading culture. If this happens, the entire family and thus the entire society of which families are members can benefit from that programme. Such programmes provide benefits for the children and for the parents in terms of enabling them to help their children (Brooks, 2002). Therefore, no society should miss the opportunity to have an impact on the literacy of parents and families through programmes that cater for their needs, thus allowing children to get a better education.

FIELD SURVEY

In the Republic of Croatia, the term family literacy is most often mentioned in the context of presenting foreign studies or programmes, while there are almost no relevant studies on the national level. If any, they are conducted by public libraries in order to get information on what parents expect from the children's library and are related to parents' attitudes to the importance of reading to babies, toddlers and pre-schoolers. According to a survey conducted by the Section of Children's Libraries of Croatian Library Association in 2002, there are 179 children's libraries or children's departments in public libraries in Croatia. All of them have library services for pre-school children, mostly focusing on lending picture books. . 38.5 % have playroom activities for children from 3-6 occasionally, but only 5.60 % of them work with babies up to three and their parents. Few libraries have organised programmes for children up to six on a daily basis. The most frequent activities are organised visits, arranged by kindergarten pre-school teachers and librarians. At the same time, according to the data from the Ministry of Science, Education and Sports, only one-third of pre-school children attend kindergarten or some other kind of out-of-family organised programmes for children up to six. It is mostly unknown what kind of early child care and education is received by two thirds of children in early childhood at that extremely important early age.

The fact that there is no research in Croatia on the family environment as a factor in the development of the child's literacy was the reason why we decided to do conduct a field survey. The aim of the survey was to find out how much importance parents of pre-schoolers attach to reading in the family. This paper will present and analyse only part of the data obtained in the pilot-survey on family reading culture. Reading culture here means all the interests, habits and actions of all family members that are related to reading and written texts.

Subjects and procedure

The survey was conducted in 2001 and it included families from Zagreb whose children went to four local kindergartens. Kindergarten teachers received 800 questionnaires which they distributed to parents who were supposed to fill them in at home. They returned 392 questionnaires (almost 50%).

Questionnaires where some key data were missing were not taken into consideration, so only 363 questionnaires were processed. Due to the method used to select parents for the sample, the obtained results cannot be applied to the entire population, but can point to certain tendencies in Croatian families and serve as an encouragement for further research.

As for the type of family in the sample, the majority of families were two-parent families (89%), while only 10% were single-parent families. The analysis of parental qualifications showed that most mothers had a high school degree (54%) and an undergraduate college or university degree (35.8%). There is almost an equal number of mothers who finished only elementary school and those with a graduate degree. The sample of fathers is not vary largely: 53.7% of them had a high school degree, 35.3% had an undergraduate college or university degree, 2.8% finished only elementary school, and 5.2% had a graduate degree. Eleven respondents did not answer this question.

The questionnaire used in this survey was designed by the authors of this paper, and it contained 48 questions. This paper will present some of the results pertaining to the attitudes of parents towards reading to children in families (how much pleasure reading gives them) and those pertaining to adults' activities related to reading to a pre-schooler in the family (frequency of reading, time of reading, who reads most often, if the child requires to be read to).

Results and discussion

Parental attitudes to reading activities, both reading in general and reading to one's own child in the family, have proven to be essential to the development of a reading culture and literacy in children. In the studied sample as many as 95% of parents claimed that reading and telling stories to their child is enjoyable (Table 1). Only 2.8% claim categorically that they do not like it, and 2.2% enjoy reading to the child only occasionally. Therefore, it may be concluded that a large majority of parents is motivated to read to children or tell them stories.

Table 1: How parents View Reading to Their Child

		%	f
Is reading to the child an enjoyable activity for parents	yes	95.0	345
	no	2.8	8
	sometimes	2.2	10
	Total	100.0	363

Such data may lead to the conclusion that a large number of parents read and tell stories to their children every day. Unfortunately, the obtained data do not confirm this (Table 2). Almost all parents read to their child but only 40.2 percent do that daily. A little over one half of the polled parents claim that they read with their children 2-3 times a week.

Table 2: Is Reading an Enjoyable Activity for Parents?

		%	f
How often parent/s read to their child	daily	40.2	146
	2-3 times a week	51.8	188
	rarely (once a month or less)	8.0	29
	never	0	0
	Total	100.0	363

These data are not conclusive as they refer only to the frequency of reading, but there is no information as to the duration of these activities and the interaction between the parent and the child. This is where the cause of parental dissatisfaction may lie. A relatively small percentage of parents have a special or regular time

for reading, like evening bed time or some other so called «reading ritual» (Table 3). This suggests that reading is mostly occasional, something that is done if there is enough time or willingness to do it.

Table 3: Time at Which Parents Report Reading to Their Child

		%	*f*
When parents choose to read	whenever possible	67.5	245
	weekends	10.7	39
	bed time	15.4	57
	have a special time just for reading	6.4	23
	Total	100.0	363

It must be stressed that only 10% of the sample were single parents. It is, therefore reasonable to expect that both mothers and fathers share the time spent with the child. Although mothers read significantly more often than fathers (Table 4), the fact that almost in one-third of families both parents read to the child on a similar basis sounds encouraging because it indicates that sharing books is a family activity, which makes the child's environment more stimulating.

Table 4: The Adults Who Read to the Child

		%	*f*
Who usually reads to your child?	father	8.5	31
	mother	57.0	207
	other adult family members	5.8	21
	all of them similarly	28.7	104
	Total	100.0	363

The aim of this survey was to see how stimulating the family environment is for the development of reading and pre-reading skills in the child and to find out who in the family provides encouragement for reading and discussing what has been read (Table 5).

Table 5: Child's Interest in Reading

		%	*f*
Does the child ask the parents to read to him/her	yes	97.2	353
	no	2.8	10
	Total	100.0	363

Based on the obtained responses it may be concluded that it depends on the children whether they will be read to in the family or not. Indeed, 97,2% of parents answered that it is the child who asks to be read to by an adult, while there are only 2.8% of children who do not ask to be read to, according to the parents' responses The data show children's great interest in reading, which may be a result of the child's positive reading experience at home.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we may say that parents would like to share a reading experience with their children and are aware of the importance of reading to children under six, but only half of them read to their children daily. Although the results obtained in this survey do not allow generalization, they may be taken as indicators of the situation in families in terms of encouraging the development of pre-reading skills and reading habits in children. And they certainly suggest the need for the introduction of various programmes focused on the development of family literacy, primarily those whose aim is to encourage a

positive attitude of parents to reading in general and to reading to children, and emphasise the importance of daily interactions between adults and children focusing on reading and telling stories.

What does it mean for professionals? Those parents who are aware of the importance of reading and early literacy need just encouragement to put it into practice. They need information and advice on when, how and what read and a basic knowledge of early literacy development as well as a good selection of reading materials for children. Children's libraries, which are open to all children and all family members in the same space and at the same time and not only to those children who are in kindergarten, are invited to respond to that challenge.

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Application of the Early Total Immersion Programme in Estonian Kindergartens: Project 2002-2004

Svetlana Belova, Integration Foundation, Estonia;
Ene Kulderknup, National Examination and Qualification Centre, Estonia;
Meeli Pandis, Tallinn Pedagogical University, Estonia,
and Õie Vahar, Integration Foundation, Estonia

According to estimates, the Russian-speaking population in Estonia totals about 390,000, accounting for nearly 30% of the Estonian population. The figure includes Russians along with other ethnic minorities, such as Ukrainians, Belorussians, Latvians, and others. Russian is the language spoken at home for 98.2% of the non-Estonian population (www.ngonet.ee/nationalminorities/EST/index.html).

For the Russian-speaking population to participate actively in all aspects of public and social life, knowledge of the official language (Estonian) is essential. Knowledge of the official language is a prerequisite for the receipt of citizenship if obtained by naturalisation, which guarantees holders their political rights and allows them to join the civil or municipal service. Serious attempts have been made in Estonia to facilitate integration of the Russian-speaking population at an early age. The Basic Schools and Upper Secondary Schools Act of 1997 provides that by 2007 the curricula and the organisation of study of non-Estonian language basic schools shall ensure that all graduates of basic schools have a level of Estonian language skills which enables them to continue studies in Estonian (subsection 52) (Statistical Office, 2000). Instruction in Estonian will be in at least 60 per cent of the teaching of the curriculum. (subsection 9). The deadline provided by the act has proved unrealistic. In 1997 the deadline for the start of transfer to studies in Estonian was set for the 2007/2008 academic year.

If Estonian is studied only in lessons of Estonian as a second language, students may not achieve a language level which enables them to cope with studies in Estonian after basic school. Because of this, it was recommended to introduce subject studies in Estonian in schools with Russian as the language of instruction within the limits of the school's ability (availability of teachers, study aids etc.). A number of studies (Asser, 2003) and parents' decisions in choosing schools showed that the non-Estonian population has a great interest in learning Estonian.

HISTORY OF LANGUAGE IMMERSION

There are a great many language learning programmes in the world, but language immersion has proved its viability as an efficient method of language learning in many countries. Immersion is instruction which is carried out not in the child's mother tongue but in the target or immersion language.

The immersion approach was a characteristic feature of the one-time system of private tutors. For instance, in the 19th century, Russian aristocratic families employed governesses of German or French origin, who, in most cases, did not speak Russian, to teach and raise their children. These tutors communicated with the children in their own language, i.e. the immersion language. As a result, the children acquired subject knowledge and skills as well as another language. The child's mother tongue was retained and it developed at a normal speed. Language immersion provided children with regular tuition along with efficient bilingualism.

The immersion method as a targeted way of language learning was introduced in Montreal, Canada, at the initiative of parents who noticed that ordinary methods did not help the children acquire sufficient second language (French) skills to allow normal communication. Methods were looked for which would be more interesting and more efficient at teaching children to speak another language. The first kindergarten immersion group was thus opened in Montreal in 1965. The good results were encouraging and the immersion initiative started to spread.

In 1986 the immersion method was applied in practice at parents' request in Finland to teach Swedish. Vaasa University has done a lot of research into the effects of immersion

(http://www.uwasa.fi/hut/svenska/centret/english.html) and the approach has received a lot of positive feedback.

Language immersion as a method for learning foreign languages or Estonian as a second language, has been a talking point in Estonia since 1992 (Rannut, 2004). The Estonian immersion programme is a part of the sub-programme "Education" of the national programme "Integration in Estonian Society 2000-2007". Thus the project "Immersion in the Estonian schools" was launched in collaboration with the Canadian International Development Agency and Toronto School Board in 1999. Studies show that parents are fully satisfied with the results and express unanimous support for the programme. This programme offers the most efficient way for non-Estonian children to acquire the state language at a high level.

THE IMPLEMENTATION OF EARLY LANGUAGE IMMERSION

In 2002 the Integration Foundation, in cooperation with the Finnish National Board of Education and the foreign aid project "Integrating Estonia 2002-2004", began the implementation of the immersion programme in kindergartens. The kindergarten immersion programme enables children to acquire Estonian in the course of daily life, activities and games, and to continue studies in immersion classes in school (www.kke.ee). The early total immersion programme in kindergartens in Estonia is targeted at five or six-year olds. The aim of the project "Immersion in the kindergartens" was to support state language studies of non-Estonian children, and thus enable them to acquire equally good skills in both the mother and Estonian tongues in their first years of school in order to guarantee them opportunities for successful participation in political, economic and cultural life. The objectives of learning a second language in the kindergarten are:

- to arouse children's interest in Estonian and maintain it through their school years;
- to teach children to listen to and to perceive the sound of Estonian;
- to teach them to recognise familiar words in sentences, and familiar sentences in texts;
- to begin to teach correct pronunciation;
- to develop communication skills, memory and attention;
- to provide vocabulary and to guide the use of acquired words and phrases;
- to involve parents by disseminating relevant information and to deepen interest in language studies.

The project "Immersion in the kindergartens" comprised the following activities:

- training immersion teachers and preparing methods for work in immersion groups;
- providing information on the objectives of immersion, and immersion methods, to kindergarten managers, methodologists, inspectors of pre-school education, and officials of local authorities;
- informing and including the parents in the programme;
- cooperating with higher education institutions in order to draw up an immersion-specific curriculum, and provide in-service training to teachers;
- purchasing aids which foster the design of the language environment, and compiling study materials.

SELECTION OF PILOT KINDERGARTENS

A public competition was announced in order to find kindergartens interested in participating in the project. 18 applications were received. Nine pilot kindergartens were selected. The selection considered the regional location of the applicant kindergartens and their work carried out in the development of teaching Estonian to the non-Estonian children. Immersion kindergartens are located in the neighbourhood of immersion schools, thus allowing the children to continue their studies in the immersion programme.

Preparation and management of the kindergartens' immersion programme is carried out by the Integration Foundation and the Finnish National Board of Education, and Vaasa University. In 2001 the

Immersion Centre of the Integration Foundation was established for the purpose of developing and applying immersion methods. Activities are outlined in Table 1.

The success of the project was not only ensured by teachers. Introducing language immersion methods is a complex process which requires the inclusion of the entire staff of the kindergarten; it also needs cooperation between parents, local municipalities, and other immersion kindergartens and schools.

Table : Project Activities 2002-2004

Activities / Year	Training immersion teachers for pilot kindergartens	Training the trainers	Informing the target groups and including them in the programme	Acquisition of aids and preparation of study materials
2002			- Meetings and seminars for representatives of local governments, kindergarten managers, teachers, parents; preparation of an information leaflet	Mapping of needs
2003	- 4 training seminars carried out by Finnish trainers; - 2 additional training sessions organised by the Integration Foundation; - drawing up of an immersion-specific framework curriculum; - monitoring of the activities in the immersion groups, analysis and feedback to teachers	- Establishment of a group of kindergarten teachers who want to become teacher trainers	- Opening meetings of the project; - 9 pilot groups begin work in immersion settings; - a study trip to Finland for the representatives of local governments, managers and methodologists of the pilot kindergartens with the aim of gaining an insight into Finnish language policy and immersion practices; - 9 information meetings with parents; 5 seminars for the planning of cooperation between pilot kindergartens and schools	- Preparation of study materials and distribution of them to kindergartens; - electronic preparation of materials of training sessions and delivery to participants
2004	- Mutual visits of teachers, managers and methodologists of the pilot kindergartens, monitoring of the activities, discussions; - teachers of the pilot kindergartens received three 3-day training on immersion methodology delivered by the Finnish partners; - visits to kindergartens, monitoring of the activities, analysis and feedback to teachers	- The group received basic training; - preparation of the training curriculum for future teachers and drawing up of training materials; - 25 new teachers attended the 34-hour training programme	- A study trip of the representatives of the University of Tartu, Tallinn Pedagogical University, Ministry of Education and Research to Finland to get acquainted with the language policy and practices in training immersion teachers in Finnish universities; - information meetings with immersion group children's parents; - 9 pilot groups continue	- Electronic preparation of materials of training sessions and delivery to participants; - 12 picture books aimed at supporting the learning of Estonian in kindergartens are completed in the framework of the project "A series of picture books for supporting the studying of Estonian", supported by the US Government;

	carried out by the trainers; - training the trainers in monitoring of the activities and giving feedback to teachers	and 4 groups begin work in immersion settings; - drawing up of a strategic plan on immersion for 2004- 2008 in cooperation with the representatives of the target groups	- the teachers received a set of books along with training in their use; - the pilot kindergartens received sets of study materials (books, games, etc)

ASSESSMENT OF ACHIEVEMENT, PERFORMANCE AND SUSTAINABILITY

In the autumn of 2004, when the project was about to finish, it became essential to cast a look back and compile an evaluation concerning the achievement of the project's targets and its sustainability. The aim was to evaluate:

- the training of the kindergarten teachers and the trainers;
- the curriculum of training in immersion methods;
- the study and training materials compiled in the course of the project;
- the cooperation between the participating groups (e.g. parents, managers of the pre-school institutions, officials of municipalities);
- project management and coordination;
- project sustainability.

The following groups were asked to assess the project: kindergarten teachers, trainers, managers of kindergartens, methodologists, inspectors of municipalities, and parents. Questionnaires with open and multiple-choice questions were used in the survey. Evaluations were conducted using a 5-point scale: 5 – excellent, 4 – very good, 3 – good, 2 – satisfactory, 1 – insufficient. Interviews were carried out in kindergartens. The questionnaires were filled in by 18 teachers, 8 participants in the teacher training course, 9 managers, 6 methodologists, 4 inspectors and 108 parents. (The parents received the questionnaire in Russian.)

VIEWS OF TEACHERS

According to the teachers and those on the teacher training course, the application of the immersion methods had changed the study environment in kindergarten and made teaching/learning better suited to children. There are more methodological materials and study materials for children now. According to the teachers, children's co-operation skills, general aptitude for communication and courage to communicate in Estonian also improved. However, several teachers did imply that teaching would be simpler if the number of children in the group was not too high (20 or more children in a group).

The teachers thought that a thorough preparation in methodology, which was carried out by Finnish and Estonian trainers, was the most positive aspect of the project. Ninety-four percent of the teachers thought that training provided by the lecturers from Vaasa University was excellent or very good, while 91% of the teachers considered the training provided by the Estonian trainers was excellent or very good. The teachers and teacher trainers highlighted the competence of both Finnish and Estonian lecturers, the relevance of the topics covered, and the presentation of various methods. Didactic materials compiled by the Finnish or Estonian trainers were considered very good and useful by the teachers.

A high rating was given to the visit to the kindergartens under the guidance of the Finnish partners, analysis of the activities in the immersion group and feedback to the teachers. The fact that all participants would recommend the course to their colleagues, should underline the high ratings given by the teachers.

The teachers also rated highly the methodological and material support from the administration of the kindergarten, the local municipality and the Immersion Centre of the Integration Foundation. The Immersion Centre of the Integration Foundation provided most assistance regarding methodology.

MANAGERS AND METHODOLOGISTS

The managers and methodologists give a positive rating (100%) to the project as the expectations towards the application of the immersion method were met in reality. The comments were as follows:

- *we think highly of early language immersion because in order to meet the parents' wishes we have already tried to teach children in Estonian, and now we have the methods;*
- *we joined the project as the parents want to ensure communication skills in Estonian and preparation for study in Estonian at school;*
- *the children's skills in Estonian improve fast;*
- *the whole staff are learning constantly;*
- *co-operation skills in the groups are acquired; the communication culture of the children improves;*
- *co-operation with the parents increases;*
- *there is closer cooperation now between the Estonian kindergartens and schools with immersion classes;*
- *the non-Estonian children have more contacts with the Estonian children and families;*
- *the teaching conditions improved – good modern teaching materials, the equipment, room facilities.*

PARENTS

Parents' satisfaction is considered very important. A similar wholehearted common agreement is expressed in the managers' and methodologists' opinion that this method should be recommended to their colleagues.

The parents' general evaluation of the immersion project is positive. At the beginning of the project the kindergarten managers, teachers or project managers informed all the parents about the aims, contents and organisation of the immersion project. More than 80% of the parents considered information sharing in the course of the project excellent or very good.

According to the parents, early immersion is most suitable for children as a playful, stress-free form of language learning, which allows continuing study in Estonian. A positive internal atmosphere in the groups favours the child's comprehensive development and ensures interest in learning and the language. The children gained more self-confidence and courage to communicate. Interesting teaching materials, qualified and dedicated teachers, and a well-appointed learning environment were also mentioned (36%).

The parents' activeness and their attempts to use Estonian at home and outside the home definitely have a positive impact on the language situation in our society. This is also supported by the promotion of the immersion methods by the parents in their respective communication spheres as a vital skill the children should have (35%) and as a child-centred, general development promoting, and efficient form of language training (30%).

There is a certain conflict of interests as the parents worry about the child's competence in the mother tongue – they think the immersion groups do not pay sufficient attention to it. They also think national culture (music, dance, children's literature) requires more profound attention (39%).

Close to 70% of the parents would recommend their acquaintances to take their children to an immersion group, and 85% wish their children to continue in immersion classes.

THE PROJECT'S IMPACT AT LOCAL AND NATIONAL LEVELS

The launch of the immersion project has improved the internal atmosphere in the kindergartens and positively affected co-operation between pre-school institutions and parents. The kindergartens participating in the project are ready to support and encourage other similar institutions to start language training based on the immersion methodology.

With the current language situation in mind, especially in Ida-Viru County where the rate of Russian speaking population is highest, the parents are more active in finding opportunities for their children to communicate in Estonian. The parents have started using more opportunities for communication in Estonian at home with their children (children's programmes on TV, language CDs, songs, board games) – 39%, in the street, service-providing institutions, socialising, hobby activities, at work – 52%. The parents note that their children's communication sphere in Estonian has widened because they have more courage to communicate and an increased self-confidence (51%).

The immersion kindergartens have perceived an increase in trust from the parents and thus reputation of the kindergartens has improved in several places. It has brought about a growing demand to open more immersion groups in kindergartens and first classes in schools. This means a higher demand for specially trained teachers but the number of such trained teachers is insufficient today. Therefore it is necessary to expand the training of teachers of Estonian and to organise better language training.

CONCLUSION

According to the results of the survey, the introduction of early immersion has deepened the non-Estonian population's understanding of the necessity of and opportunities for learning Estonian as well as other languages. The project has opened new directions in language learning, and the advantages of the early immersion methods are given more attention today by the population.

The results of early immersion are directly related to our circumstances, regional features, kindergarten traditions, needs and opportunities. Thus a constant analysis of our experience in early immersion is required, as is continued research which could supplement the international experience of other countries with the forms, course and results of the application of immersion under Estonian circumstances. Differentiated curricula developed on the basis of research results and original study materials would enable a more flexible and efficient application of generally acknowledged immersion principles in local conditions.

Positive changes towards functional bilingualism have taken place in society in recent years, thus supporting hopes for continuation of the programme. Immersion in kindergartens is continued with funding from the government under the guidance of the Immersion Centre. The Centre coordinates the required activities, which ensure a good level of Estonian, enabling the children to continue their studies in school. For the programme to be more flexible and efficient, it must be constantly improved.

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Family Literacy and Poverty: Related or Not?

Kornelija Petr and Boris Badurina,
Faculty of Philosophy, Osijek, Croatia

The influential role of parents in developing children's language and early reading skills is widely recognized. Family literacy is defined as the way families show that talking, reading, writing and learning are an important part of life. Family literacy happens naturally in our homes and in our community, every day (Nunavut Literacy Council). Furthermore, some definitions include also the research of the phenomenon and they define it as literacy that includes both the research and the implementation of programmes involving parents, children, and extended family members and the ways in which they support and use literacy in their activities in their homes and communities (Strickland).

Research from the second half of the 20th century consistently identifies and reports strong correlations between parental reading to and with children and children's later success with literacy (Chomsky, 1972; Andersen et al., 1985) as well as correlations between family literacy and important parent-child interactions (Saracho, 1997). Hess and Holloway (1984) identify five factors that may motivate the children's literacy development in a family setting:

- Value placed on literacy – parents read and stimulate children to read.
- Press for achievement – parents communicate their expectations concerning their children's achievement, reading instruction, and children's reading initiatives and interest.
- Availability and instrumental use of reading materials – parents present literacy experiences in the home that include children's reading and writing materials.
- Reading with children – parents read to children at home as well as listen to and help them when they read orally.
- Opportunities for verbal interaction – parents interact with their children in a variety of ways.

However, parents are often unaware of the importance the family has for the early development of children's literacy (Maleš & Stričević, 2003). In fact, the absence of literacy activities in families may lead to severe consequences for the child's later academic and economic success in life. In their homes, children should be surrounded by written materials (e.g. newspapers, books, magazines, posters, notes etc.) and engaged in frequent discussions about it with the members of their family.

There are many factors (Yarosz & Barnett, 2001) that are reported to influence the family literacy activities such as: family poverty (Yaros & Barnett, 2001), race/ethnicity, mother's education, mother's age, number of siblings, home language other than official (English), etc. The amount of money that comes into the household seems to be the one of the most frequently researched factors and the one which is most commonly brought into correlation with literacy skills.

It is well-known that one of the underlying causes of un- or underemployment and poverty is low-level literacy skills. According to 1992 National Adult Literacy Survey (NALS) (2001), individuals with high levels of literacy are more likely to be employed, work more, and earn more than individuals with lower proficiencies. Performing at the lowest literacy level[10] of the NALS means being unable to read a bedtime story, a prescription label, or a note from a teacher. It also means lacking the skills necessary to read and fill out a job application, to decode a bus schedule, or to understand a tax statement. Many parents who struggle with supporting their families economically also face enormous challenges when trying to support their children's language and literacy development. Children of parents who lack basic literacy skills are less likely to have access to reading and writing materials at home, to have educational opportunities outside of the home, and are less likely to be enrolled in pre-kindergarten programmes. They are also less likely to observe role models who are reading and writing throughout the day (Darling, 2004).

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[10] Individuals at the lowest literacy level have median weekly earnings that are $450 less than those at the highest level ($23,400 less per year). The survey also found that 40 to 44 million adults in the United States have literacy skills at the lowest level, and nearly half of these adults live in poverty.

Poverty[11] is one of the most commonly used factors to explain the absence of family literacy activities. There is, however, some disagreement about the role of parental support for literacy in the home environment. On the one hand, there are reports such as The Condition of Education by the United States National Centre for Education Statistics (NCES) in 2003 which includes survey results showing that literacy activities in the home contribute to early reading success, and reports on the positive relationship between a home literacy environment and children's reading knowledge and skills, regardless of the family's economic status. On the other, there are much more authors who claim just the opposite (e.g. Mikulecky; Saracho, 2002; Darling, 2004). Research from the 1970s and early 1980s (reported by Anderson et al., 1985) identified more books, magazines, and educational literacy materials in the homes of higher-income families and the families of children who performed well in school. However, when some researches expanded the definition of literacy materials to include more functional materials like notes, bills, grocery lists etc., the difference between groups was observed to shrink (Taylor & Dorsey-Gaines, 1988). Still, Goldenberg et al.(1992) reveal that low-income parents tend to focus on less complex strategies such as letter naming and spelling-sound correspondences. Unfortunately many of these approaches are among the ones that have been identified as those that make learning to read and write more difficult for children. Furthermore, Hart and Risley (1995) found that children in professional families will hear 20 million more words by the age of three than children in welfare families. The authors also found that the differences in language interactions between parent and child in the early years were directly reflected in a child's vocabulary growth and use of vocabulary, two measures of an individual's ability to succeed both in school and in the workplace.

Parents are their children's first and most influential teachers and models. If parents lack the skills that they need to encourage and enhance their children's language and literacy development[12], their children are more at risk of failing in school. By the time that disadvantaged children enter kindergarten, their limited number of language experiences and exposure to a varied vocabulary can be difficult to overcome and may lead to a frustrating school experience. As teenagers, those children may find leaving school an easy alternative to struggling to keep up.

In Croatia, literacy and topics related to it (such as family literacy) have become more frequent objects of research. There are several studies that deal with topics of early childhood literacy (Maleš & Stričević, 2003; Badurina et al., 2003; Petr, 2005). Also in Slovenia, Croatia's neighbour, special attention has also been given to early childhood and home-related literacy issues (Knaflič, 2002). Both countries are former-Yugoslav republics and have many similarities due to their territorial closeness and common past. However, those Slovenian studies tend to be mainly of a quantitative nature, focused on statistical and other easily counted data. What missing are the qualitative data that will tell us about parental viewpoints on family literacy, their awareness of the importance of family literacy activities, etc.

This paper presents a part of the data collected through the research project *Research of Reading Interests and Information Needs of Children and Young Adults*[13] that are relevant for the issue of poverty and family literacy. The paper investigates whether the poverty in Croatian context can be considered to be one of the factors that affect family literacy activities. For the purposes of this investigation, poor (low-income) families are defined as those families that receive some kind of welfare support from the government.

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[11] Definitions of poverty vary from country to country. In the USA in 2002, the poverty threshold for a family of four was $18,400, while severe poverty meant having an income less than half of this – an annual income of $9,200 or less for a family of four. (Darling, 2004) . In Croatia, on the other hand, the number of recipients of social welfare support rises constantly: in 2003 the number was 356 467, in contrast to 2002 when the number was 333 742, or 2001 when it was 310 254. (Statistical yearbook of the Republic of Croatia: 2003)

[12] A primary prerequisite of academic success.

[13] Project is run by the Department of Information Sciences, Faculty of Philosophy Osijek (PI: Srećko Jelušić) and is funded by the Croatian Ministry of Science, Education and Sport.

INSTRUMENT AND PROCEDURE

In the first two years the Project focused on the research of reading interests and information needs of pre-school children.

The data collection occurred in two stages:

- in May 2003 more than 4,000 questionnaires were distributed among all kindergartens of Osijek-Baranya County. 1,900 questionnaires were completed and returned (response rate 47.5 %). The questionnaire was aimed at parents or family members of kindergarten children.
- from 2003 to now the data collection has occurred through students' writing their diploma papers (they complete the same questionnaire that was used in the first stage of data collection). The data collected in this way come from the following counties: Osijek-Baranya, Vukovar-Syrmia, Split-Dalmatia and Zadar.

SAMPLE

The sample comprises 2,409 cases. The dominant type of a family in a sample is a family with two parents (92.6%). When it comes to the educational background, the highest percentage of mothers graduated from the secondary school (63.6%), followed by those with a university degree (26.3%). Almost identically, the majority of fathers finished secondary school (67.6%), and a smaller percentage held a university degree (21.9%). Just a small proportion of the sample finished primary school only (mothers – 9 %; fathers – 8.6%), or held a post-graduate degree (mothers – 0.9%; fathers – 1.5%).

Almost half of the sample were in receipt of some sort of a welfare financial support (44.9%). Among families in receipt of welfare, large proportions of fathers (79.4%) and mothers (81.3%) finished primary school only. They are followed by families where mothers finished a secondary school (52.2%) and fathers either did not finish a primary school (50%) or, like mothers, finished a secondary school (48.9%).

In a majority of the families both parents were employed (60.6%). If only one parent worked, then it was usually the father (24.8%). As expected, the highest proportion of families that received a support were those where none of the parents worked (87.7%).

The most dominant in the sample are the families with two children (53.4%). They are followed by families with only one child (26.2%), three (15.5 %) or four children (3.8 %). Families with more than four children are rare.

RESULTS

Literacy Activities of Parents

In the sample, 63.9% of parents with welfare support read several books a year, or they do not read books at all (22.5%). Only a small percentage read up to three books a month (10 %), or more (3.6%). Similarly, the highest percentage of high-income parents read several books a year (63.6%), and then up to three books a month (17.3%). Figure 1 illustrates the ratio between families with and without welfare support.

Figure 1: Average number of books read per year
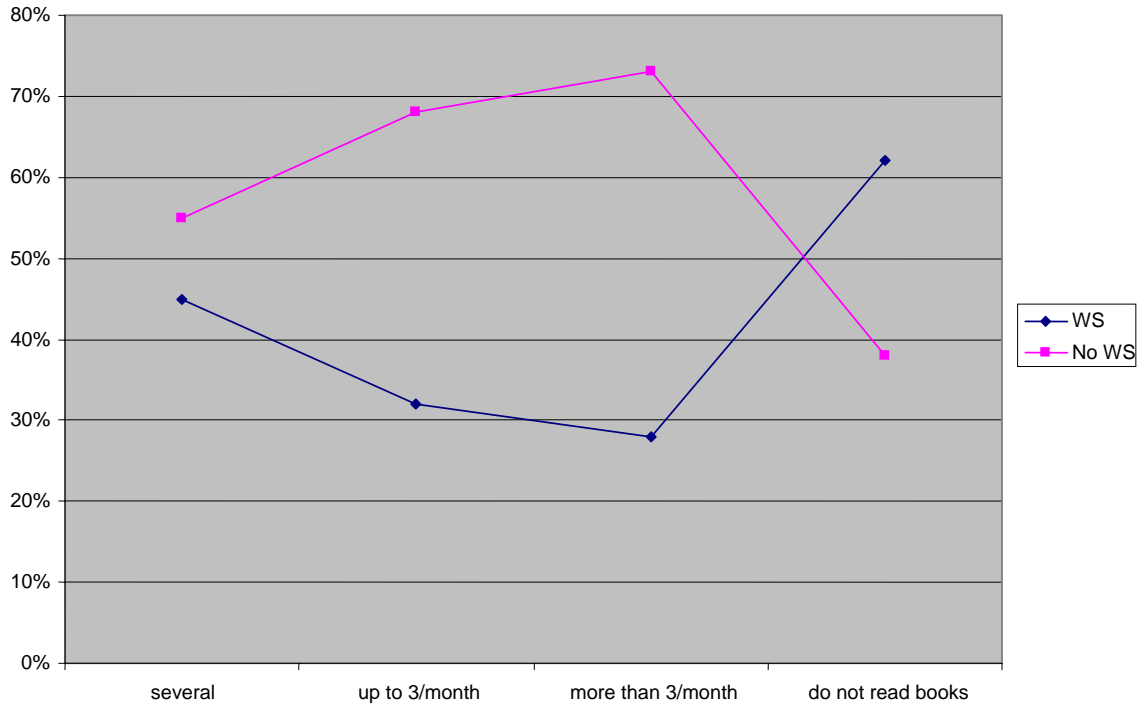
Similarly, when it comes to the reading of newspapers, high-income parents read newspapers more frequently than the low-income parents (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Frequency of reading of newspapers
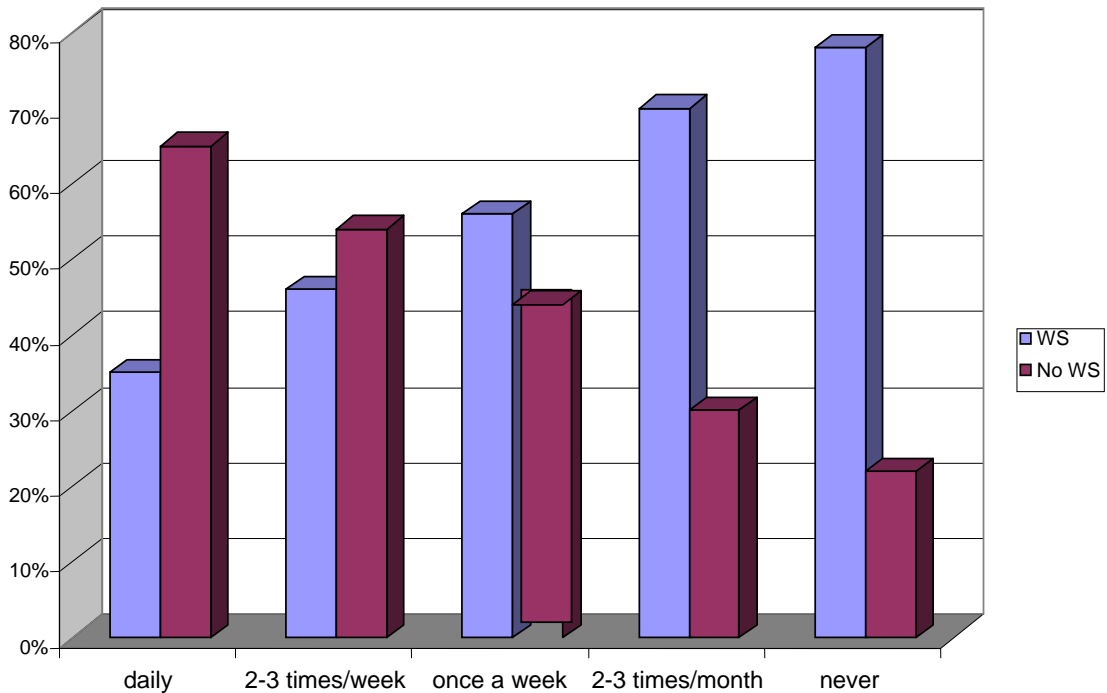
Frequency of reading and story-telling:

The highest percentage of low-income parents read the newspapers every day (35.2%), then two to three times a week (30.5%) and then once a week (17.9%) or several times a month (12.3%). Only 4.1% never read newspapers. However, when compared with values for high-income parents, low-income parents scored lower. Figure 2 illustrates this difference.

Low-income parents read or told stories to their children mostly 'Sometimes' (once or twice a week) (45.6%) whereas the highest percentage of high-income parents read or told stories Once a day (40.5%). Table 1 shows values for the whole sample, and Figure 3 illustrates the differences between those two groups for each category.

Table 1: Frequency of reading/story-telling in the sample

	Welfare support	no welfare support
Several times a day	84 (9.2%)	155 (13.8%)
Once a day	299 (32.7%)	454 (40.5%)
Sometimes	417 (45.6%)	434 (38.7%)
Rarely	107 (11.7%)	78 (1%)
Never	7 (0.8%)	1 (0.1%)
Total	914 (100%)	1122 (100%)

Figure 3 Frequency of reading/story-telling
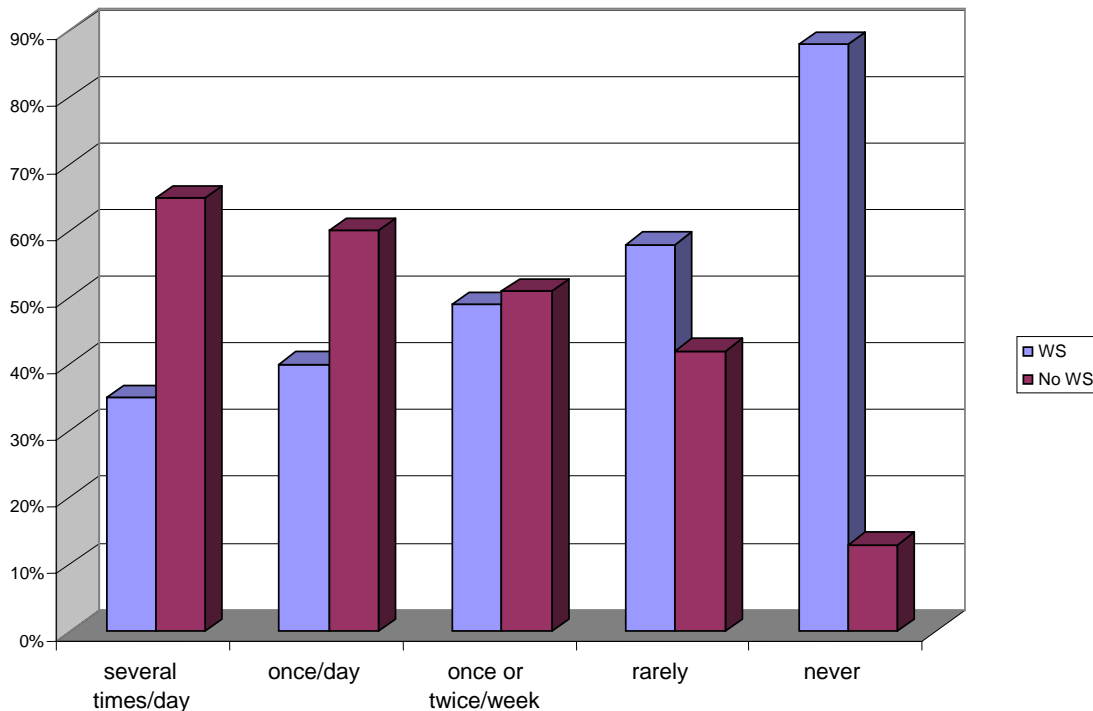
Children from low-income families usually spent between 10 minutes and one hour daily reading picture-books or listening to stories (64.9%) and the same amount of time watching TV (51.5%). However, fewer children from those families spent the day without television, than spent the day without a book or a story. Table 2 gives values for low- and high-income families within the sample whereas Figure 4 illustrates the difference in values for Reading and TV Watching only for low-income families.

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Table 2: Picture-book reading vs. watching TV in the sample

| | Welfare support | | no welfare support | |
	READING	TV	READING	TV
Up to 10 min	116 (11%)	31 (2.9%)	113 (8.7%)	30 (2.3%)
10 min to 1 h	681 (64.9%)	545 (51.5%)	905 (69.5%)	699 (53.6%)
1 to 3 hrs	120 (11.4%)	383 (36.2%)	196 (15%)	483 (37.1%)
More than 3 hrs	16 (1.5%)	61 (5.8%)	20 (1.5%)	48 (3.7%)
Not every day	117 (11.1%)	38 (3.6%)	69 (5.3%)	43 (3.3%)
Total	1050 (100%)	1058 (100%)	1303 (100%)	1303 (100%)

Figure 4. Picture-book reading and TV watching (WS parents)
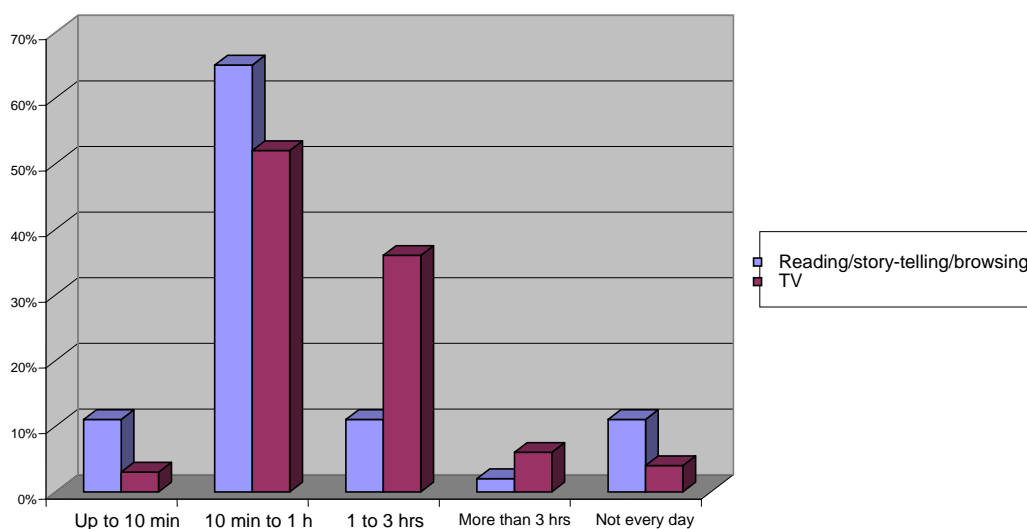
The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in answers for two groups of parents when it comes to watching TV (*Chi-Square=0,129)*.

Parental Views and Practices around Literacy Activities

Both, low- and high-income parents usually bought picture-books guided by their children's wishes (LI: 67.6%; HI: 59%). However, high-income parents tend to be guided by their own experience more often than low-income parents (HI: 26.2%; LI: 16.6 %) and their choice of a picture-book is less frequently random (HI: 8.7 %; LI: 10.8 %). Table 3 gives values for low- and high-income parents in the sample.

Table 3: Influence on choice of picture books

	Welfare support	no welfare support
Other parents or friends	5 (0.5%)	7 (0.7%)
Child's wishes	690 (67.6%)	749 (59%)
Librarians	4 (0.2%)	8 (0.6%)
Book-sellers	2 (0.2%)	1 (0.2%)
Advertisement, TV	27 (2.6%)	34 (2.7%)
Random	110 (10.8%)	111 (8.7%)
Personal experience	169 (16.6%)	333 (26.2%)
Something else	14 (1.4%)	24 (1.9%)
Total	1021 (100%)	1269 (100%)

Mothers in our sample spend the most time reading or telling stories to their children (LI: 60.2%; HI: 56.6%). However, there are greater differences in the distribution of answers between low- and high-income families for other categories. Table 4 gives data for the whole sample and Figure 5 illustrates the biggest differences in answers between low- and high-income families.

Table 4: Family member who spends the most time reading or telling stories to a child

	Welfare support	no welfare support
Father	55 (6.2%)	124 (11.4%)
Mother	536 (60.2%)	618 (56.6%)
Grandfather	9 (1%)	13 (1.2%)
Grandmother	62 (7%)	41 (3.8%)
Older siblings	48 (5.4%)	23 (2.1%)
Somebody else	4 (0.4%)	4 (0.4%)
All equally	175 (19.6%)	267 (24.5%)
Nobody	2 (0.2%)	1 (0.2%)
Total	891 (100%)	1982 (100%)

Figure 5: Reader/Story-teller
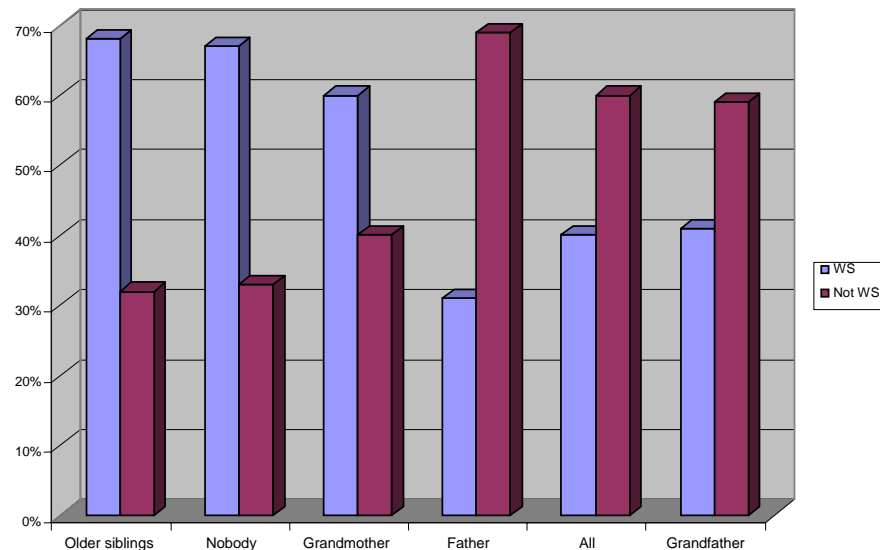
Both respondent groups seem to agree that children should be exposed to reading and/or story-telling from their birth (LI: 42.1%; HI: 47.8%) or when they start showing interest in picture-books (LI: 36.3%; HI: 35.1%). However, there are, again slight, differences in answers between low- and high-income parents. Table 5 gives the data for the whole sample.

Table 5: Beginning of reading and/or story-telling

	Welfare support	no welfare support
From birth	443 (42.1%)	623 (47.8%)
Start talking clearly	168 (16%)	173 (13.3%)
Interest in picture-books	382 (36.3%)	457 (35.1%)
Letter recognition	23 (2.2%)	15 (1.2%)
Before going to school	28 (2.7%)	21 (1.6%)
Something else	9 (0.9%)	13 (1%)
Total	1053 (100%)	1302 (100%)

The highest percentage of both respondent groups thought that reading, TV, and computer are all equally important for children's development (LI: 73.3%; HI: 74.9%). However, there are differences in the distribution of answers between low- and high-income parents and they are illustrated by Figure 6. Table 6 gives data for the whole sample.

Table 6: Elements important for children's development

	Welfare support	no welfare support
TV	8 (0.8%)	2 (0.2%)
Computer (games)	15 (1.4%)	12 (0.9%)
Reading	259 (24.5%)	310 (24%)
All elements equally	774 (73.3%)	965 (74.9%)
Total	1056 (100%)	1289 (100%)

The analysis showed a statistically significant difference in answers for these two groups of parents (*Chi square = 0,094).*

Figure 6: Elements important for children's development
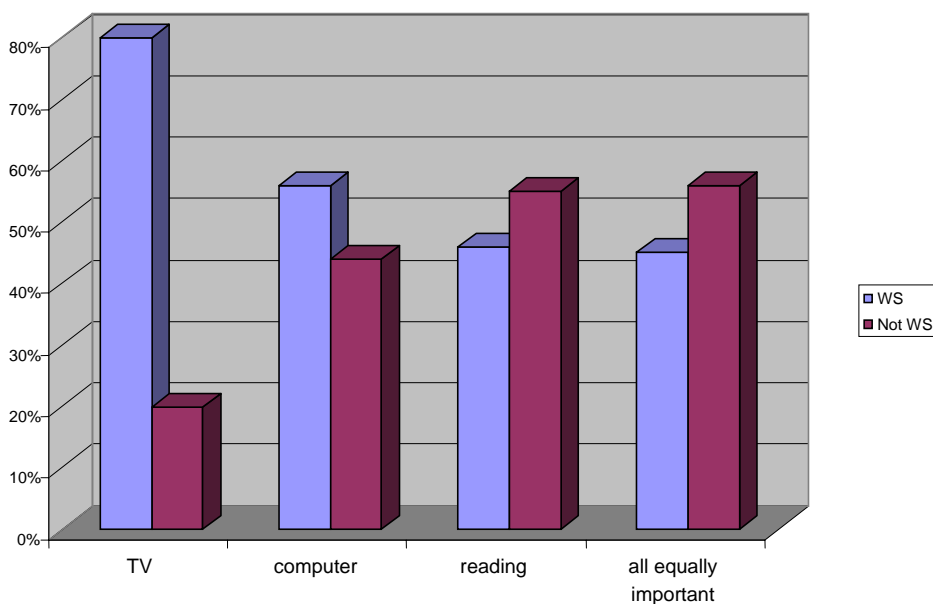
The Library

Majority of low-income parents in our sample tend to have home libraries (41.3 %) and therefore are less frequently library members (20.7 %). Table 7 gives data for the whole sample.

Table 7. Home vs. public library in the sample

	Welfare support	no welfare support
Home library	438 (41.3%)	278 (21.4%)
Public library	220 (20.7%)	444 (34.3%)

Almost all children in our sample, regardless what sort of a family they come from, possessed a picture-book (LI: 96.9%; HI: 98.9%). However, children were less likely to be library members (LI: 22.3%; HI: 27.3%). Table 8 gives data for the whole sample and Figure 7 illustrates the differences in answers between two respondent groups.

Table 8: Possession of picture-books and children library members

	Welfare support	no welfare support
Possesses picture-book	1030 (96.9%)	1288 (98.9%)
Library member (child)	236 (22.3%)	353 (27.3%)

Figure 7: Possession of picture books and children library members
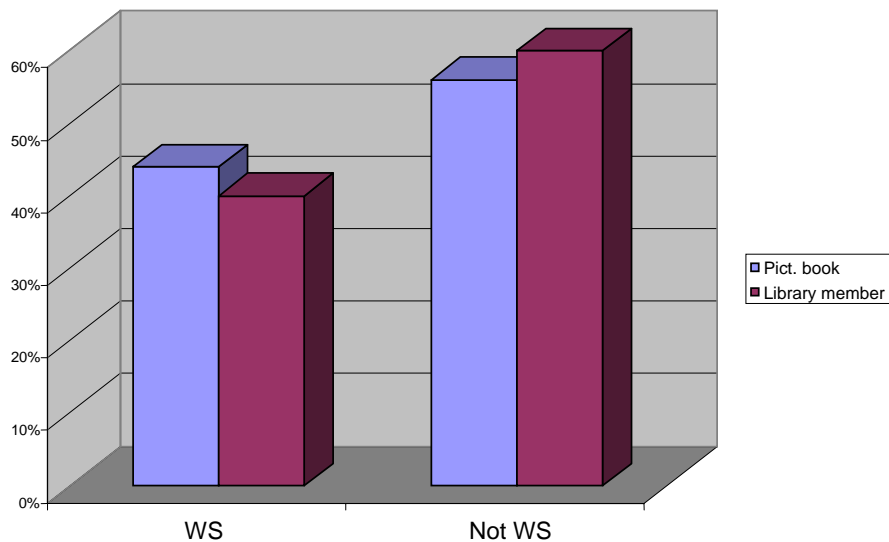
The most common reason in the sample for children not being library members is that they were too little. A higher percentage of high-income parents (44.8 %) than low-income parents (38.3 %) claimed the child's age was the most important factor that determines whether they took their child to the library or not. The second most important factor for low-income parents is the fact that they do not really have a habit of visiting the library (21.5 %), whereas high-income parents choose Something else (23.3 %). Table 8 gives data for the whole sample.

Table 8: Reasons for children not being library members

	Welfare support	no welfare support
Child too little	348 (38.3%)	465 (44.8%)
No material in lib. for children who don't read	26 (2.9%)	31 (3%)
No library in neighbourhood	148 (16.3%)	98 (9.5%)
No library visiting habit	195 (21.5%)	174 (16.8%)
Money	60 (6.6%)	27 (2.6%)
Something else	132 (14.5%)	242 (23.3%)
Total	909 (100%)	1037 (100%)

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this paper was to find out whether there is a connection between poverty and family literacy activities. Poor families in the sample were, for the purposes of this paper, defined as those families that receive some sort of welfare financial support.

The educational structure of our sample is far above the Croatian average. The average proportion of Croatian people with higher education is 16 % (Badurina et al, 2004), whereas in our sample this is 27.2 %. Still, however, a relatively high proportion of our sample receives some sort of welfare support which leads to a conclusion that almost half of the families in our sample can be treated as medium- or low-income families. Families that receive welfare support are mostly the families where both parents are unemployed, or only a father works. It is interesting to note that in cases where only a mother works, fewer families receive support.

According to Hess at al. (1982), children's reading performance is correlated with the amount of reading done by their parents, the quality of parents' reading material, and the value placed on reading by their parents. In our sample, we asked about book and newspaper reading habits of parents, frequency of reading and story-telling to children, and amount of time children spend daily watching TV, browsing and/or reading a picture-book or listening to a story. Although both groups of respondents report similar data for reading of books (both groups read several books a year in almost 64% of cases), there are still differences in answers between them. More high-income parents read more than three books a month, and fewer of them report that they did not read books at all. Similar findings were obtained for reading of newspapers. The greatest discrepancies between low- and high-income parents were for categories « I never read newspapers», «I read newspapers only once or twice a month», and «I read newspapers daily». Low-income parents more often do not read newspapers or they read them rarely. In contrast, more high-income parents read newspapers daily. Furthermore, in low-income families, children are told or read stories to less frequently than in high-income households. More low-income families report that they do not engage in those activities at all, and when they do, then it is usually Sometimes (in contrast to high-income families who usually do Once a day). In low-income families children spend on average more time a day watching TV than reading. More children read daily between 10 min and one hour, but more children watch TV between one to three hours a day. Also, children more frequently spend the day without reading than they do without watching TV.

When it comes to family members' opinions on literacy and their literacy practices we looked into how they chose children-books to read or tell to their children. Both parent groups were usually guided by their children's wishes or personal experience (although, high-income parents in far greater degree) when they buy picture-books. However, there are big differences in answer distribution between them: low-income parents listened more often to the advice from the bookshop salesperson whereas high-income parents were more often guided by advice from others (other parents or their friends or even from librarians).

As everywhere, mothers in our sample are those family members who devote most of their time to children. As a result, they are also the most frequent story-tellers or readers, regardless of the respondent group. Still, there are interesting differences in answers between low- and high-income parents. It seems that in high-income families male family members devote more of their time to reading with children (for examples, fathers or grandfathers)[14]. This finding is very important because so far the fathers' engagement and children's literacy outcomes has rarely been explored in detail, especially not with the poverty element included in the research. Research shows that fathers' reading habits can have a substantial influence on their children's ability to read, their levels of interest and their reading choices (Lloyd, 1999). Indeed, it has been suggested that the lack of male role models involved in literacy-related activities during children's early years is one of the possible causes for the declining rates of school achievement for boys (Wragg et al, 1998).

Both parent groups seem to think that children should be exposed to reading and/or story-telling very early: from children's birth or when children start showing an interest in picture books. Furthermore, a majority of parents in both respondent groups think that all three elements (reading, TV, computer) combined together are equally important for children's development. However, when we compare low- and high-income parents, more low-income parents tend to give importance to TV and computer than do high-income parents. The analysis also showed a statistically significant difference in answers for two respondent groups.

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[14] Recent research (See Flouri & Buchanan, 2004) has shown that when fathers take an active role in their children's education by volunteering at school, helping with children's homework or attending school meetings, children are more likely to do better academically, to participate in extra-curricular activities and to enjoy school. Overall, children are more likely to reap these benefits the earlier fathers become involved with their children's learning (Clarke-Stewart, 1978)

Visits to a library are considered to be an important element in family literacy activities. In our sample, low-income parents are in fewer cases members of a public library than high-income parents. However, it is positive that a slightly higher percentage of their children are library (LI parents: 20.7%; LI children: 22.3%). Still, children from high-income families use libraries (27.3%) more and possess slightly more picture books (2% more) than children from low-income families. It is interesting that low-income parents claim to have more often a home-library than high-income parents. This can be explained by the fact that the questionnaire did not specify how many books constitute a home-library. [15] It is clear that this question was misunderstood by the respondents and therefore should not be taken into consideration.

Even though high-income parents take their children to the local library more often than low-income parents do, more than 70% of children from both groups do not use the library at all. The highest percentage of parents (both respondent groups) explained this by saying that their child is too little for that activity or they confess that they themselves do not have a library-going habit. The distribution of answers between two groups differed: more high-income parents thought the child was too little; more low-income parents admitted they do not go to the library. Only 7 % of low-income parents said that library fees[16] were the reason for not taking their child to the library.

CONCLUSION

Family literacy is an extremely important topic when it comes to the development of early children's literacy and must not be left out of sight, which is also stressed by many family literacy studies and programs around the world. Research conducted within the project *Research of Reading Interests and Information Needs of Children and Young Adults* (Department of Information Sciences, Faculty of Philosophy in Osijek) brought some interesting results connected with the issue of family literacy activities and reading culture, primarily in the wider territory of Osijek-Baranya County, but also some coastal regions. Although the research itself was conducted with the aim to provide researchers with the state-of-the-art situation it also provided valuable information regarding family literacy and related issues (e.g. number of books at home, literacy activities of parents, parental views on reading, etc.).

This paper looked into the relationship of family literacy activities and the amount of money that comes into the household. The distinction between low- and high-income families was made on the basis of financial welfare support. Families that were welfare supported were considered to be 'poor'. The data from the research showed that even though there were not significant statistical differences (they were spotted for only two variables, both of which include watching TV) between those two respondent groups in the sample, high-income parents demonstrated better literacy activities and attitudes than low-income parents. Low-income parents read less (books, newspapers), they read or told stories to their children less frequently (more low-income parents admit not to read to their children at all), their children watched more TV, parents were very seldom library users (however, it is commendable that a slightly higher parentage of their children are library members). Mothers are usually those family members who spend the most time with the child; therefore, the family member who reads or tells stories more often than the others. However, if we look past mothers, other low-income family members tend to be of female sex whereas in high-income families the other family members are male: a feather or a grandfather. The importance of a father for family literacy is insufficiently researched but even without substantial scientific evidence it is clear that the dedication of time for reading or story-telling by fathers can send a powerful message to children about the value of reading.

What this research does not show, and what would be interesting to look into, is the level of academic success of welfare-supported children who come to school from literacy poorer environment.

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[15] The questionnaire only offered statements: «up to 30 books; between 30 and 60; between 60-100; more than 100»

[16] Public libraries in Croatia charge approximately 7-8 Euros annual library fees for a child.

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Learning Readiness of Pre-school Children

Hanna-Sofia Poussu-Olli, University of Turku, Finland

The results of the study indicate that it is possible to analyze in a versatile way, with the help of a test, the cognitive development of a preschool-aged child. According to the study, the overall performance of girls is better than that of boys, and boys show greater variation on test items than girls. One area in which boys did less well was the linguistic domain. The general notion is that the boys' language development is behind that of the girls at the beginning of the school (Poussu-Olli, 1993, 1998, 1999).

This study indicates that the preschool-aged boys' language development is a weaker predictor of later reading and writing than that of the girls. There are notable individual differences in the children's performances. In addition, the results indicate that up to a quarter of the children studied need special support in the preschool stage. The children born in the beginning of the year were better in the tasks requiring independent initiative than those born in the end of the year.

INTRODUCTION

By early education is meant, in a wider sense, daycare which includes social services for families and educational and pedagogic activity focussing on early childhood i.e. on children aged 0 – 8 years. Pre-school teaching as a term refers to a pedagogy or conscious and goal-oriented support for growth and learning in early childhood. The task of early education is to offer a secure environment, support families, arrange learning opportunities, prevent risk-factors hampering learning, promote heath and provide help in child-protection (Brotherus et al, 2004).

The scope of early education is wide, but when succesful it may help to create a foundation for learning, support the child's activity and curiosity as as an experimenter and acquirerer of new knowledge. In contrast, failure may cause the child to become passive. Learning is an interactive process involving the child her/himself and the other children as well as with the adults in the neighbourhood.(Poussu-Olli & Järvinen 2004).

The preschool reform, which was started in Finland in 2001 (in Figure 1) and dealt with the launching of uniform instruction for 5- to 6-year-old children in our country, lies at the background of the study. The aim of the reform is to grant this group of children equal possibilities for learning (Crieteria of Basic Education Curriculum, 2004). The assessment provides the framework for this preschool reform setting the educational goals and monitoring the children's activities in this process. Pre-school teaching supports children's growth, development and learning prerequisites and screens for risk factors which possibly hamper their learning and later make the development of their reading, writing and mathematical skills amongst other things difficult (Bryant, 2003; Kress, 1997; Poussu-Olli & Järvinen 2004). The goal of the study was to analyze in a versatile way the cognitive skills of a 6-year-old pre-school pupil. We have chosen cognitive skills that are especially important for the future. The study also investigates the similarities and discrepancies between girls' and boys' performances. In addition the achievements of pre-school-aged children born in the beginning, middle and end of the year were studied.

The study was carried out in cooperation with the University of Turku and Scribeo Inc. and it belongs to the comprehensive PEKI Project which has developed the diagnostic assessment methods of reading and writing in basic instruction. The study is part of the development and standardization of a new test battery. The test was developed by Hanna-Sofia Poussu-Olli and Tuula Merisuo-Storm. The subjects of the first stage of the study were 96 pre-school-aged children, 49 of whom were boys and 47 girls. The children have been taught in pre-school teaching groups for 6-year-olds. The study was carried out in May 2004.

Figure 1: The Context of the Research
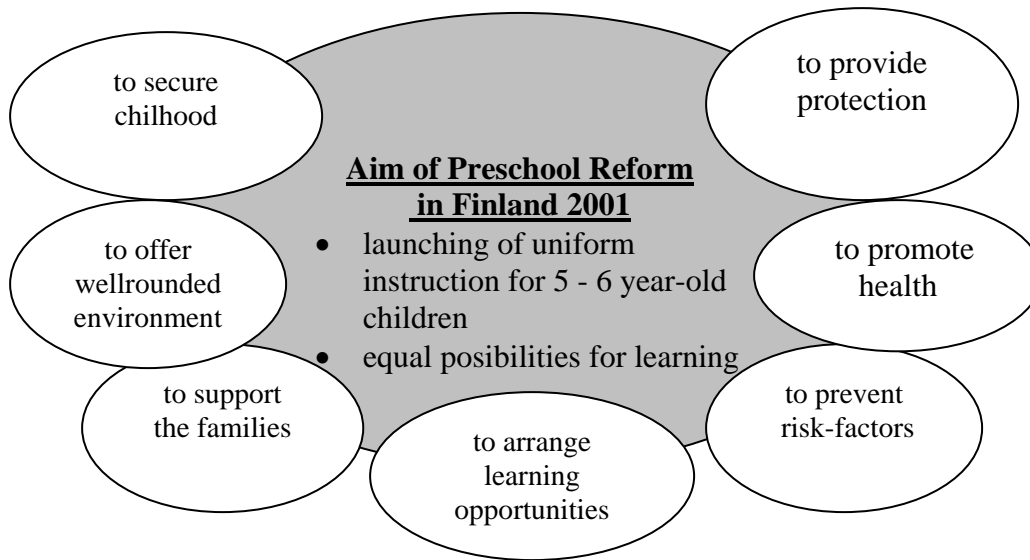
The assessment looks at the pre-school pupil's independent initiative, perception, language awareness and mathematical skills as well as fine-motoric skills through controlled tasks (cf. Anthony & Lonigan, 2004; Bruce 2004; Miles, 1992; Poussu-Olli & Järvinen, 2003; Poussu-Olli & Merisuo-Storm 2003).

A short description of the six sub-domains of the test follows:

1. *Independent initiative* includes 6 tasks. The aim of the tasks is to clarify how the pre-school pupil copes with the independent initiative tasks as far as knowledge is concerned. S/he must know how to combine a piece of clothing to the right part of the doll's body, to choose suitable clothes for a certain occasion, to pick up correct cutlery for a special course, to organize the events of the day and to connect a certain object to the correct room.

2. *Visual perception* is made up of six tasks. The child must be able to combine similar pictures, to find the similar pictures among several ones resembling each other, to attach halves of figures to each other, to identify similar figures and to combine similar letters and syllables.

3. *Auditive perception* includes 6 tasks. In the first task the purpose is to discern similar and different pairs of rhyming words. The second task is a discernment task of the duration of a sound. In the third task the child must discern similar and different syllable pairs. In the fourth task the child looks for similar pairs of words. In the fifth task words beginning with the same initial sound are searched for. In the last task the child must point out the last sound of the word s/he heard.

4. There are ten tasks belonging to *language awareness*. The child must recognize letters, discriminate between words and non-words, discern rhyming words, and compare word lengths. In addition the child must identify pictures corresponding to given nouns and verbs, understand signs, compare sizes and amounts as well as classify things.

5. *The mathematical sub-domain* includes six tasks. The child must recognize numbers, count the numbers of objects and draw the corresponding number of lines, count numbers and ring the corresponding number, write the given numbers, to add missing ones as well as count the total and write down the corresponding number.

6. *The motor sub-domain* includes two tasks. The first one asks the pupil to strengthen and continue dotted lines. In the second one, the child completes the given figures. The components of the test are summarised in Appendix.

RESEARCH TASK

The research is divided in the following questions:

- How do pre-school pupils cope with independent initiative, visual and auditive perception, language awareness and the sub-domains of mathematics and fine-motoric skills?
- In what ways do girls and boys perform similarly and differently?
- What are the differences in performance between children born in the beginning and at the end of a year?
- Is there a connection between the sub-domains of the test and how well does it measure children's readeness of reading and writing.?
- What are the factors which best predict the later development of reading and writing?

The statistical methods used for various analyses were distribution data, t-tests, Pearson's correlation coeffisients, and graphic figures. The reliability of the measures was analyzed using the Cronbach alpha-coefficient. With the help of the last-mentioned the internal homogeneity of the test has been clarified. The common alpha-value of the pre-school test was .85, which is especially good. The common alpha-coefficient of the six sub-domains was .73 which is also especially good.

MAIN RESULTS

According to the results of the entire test 18 % of the children gave excellent, 32 % very good, 26 % good, 16 % satisfactory and 8 % passable performances (Figure 2). The performances of girl is altogether better than that of the boys while there is a greater dispersion in item-based performance among boys, compared to girls. In independent initiative, language awareness and auditive perception,   girls achive   statistically significantly higher than boys. Girls also succeeded better than   boys also in the other sub-domains of the test; only in mathematical performance were boys better than girls. Girls had the greatest variation in the mathematics tasks, followed by language awareness and auditive perception. Boys had the greatest variation on tasks connected with auditory perception and the next gereatest on the language awareness.

Figure 2: Performance Levels Across All
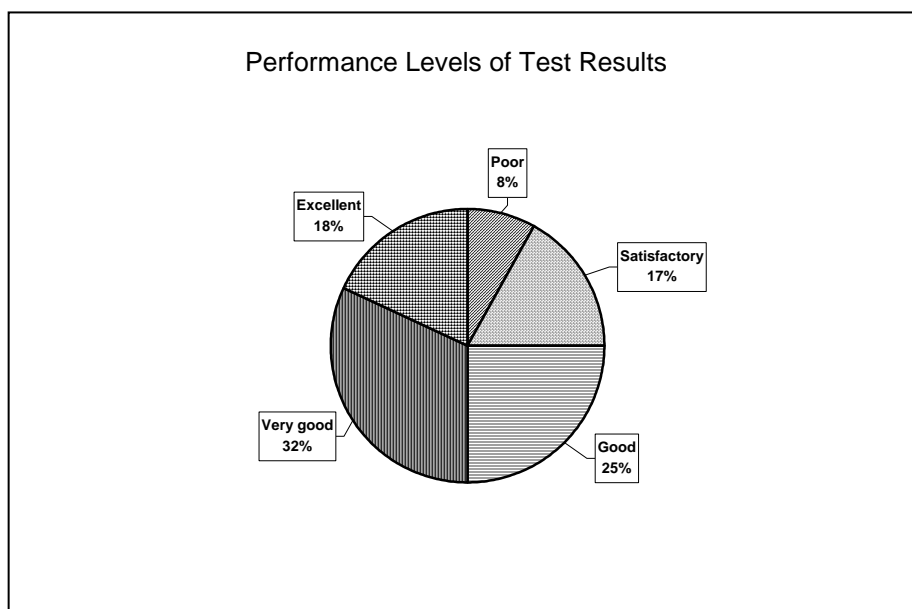
Tests

The mean value of the overall performances of the children born at the beginning of the year is higher than that of the other age groups. Variation in the performance of the children born at the end of

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the year is greater than that of the other groups. The statistically significant difference between the children born at the beginning and end of the year was to be seen only *in independent initiative* in which the children born in the beginning of the year were better than those born in the end of the year.

Figure 3: Percent Correct Scores for Sub-domains of the Test
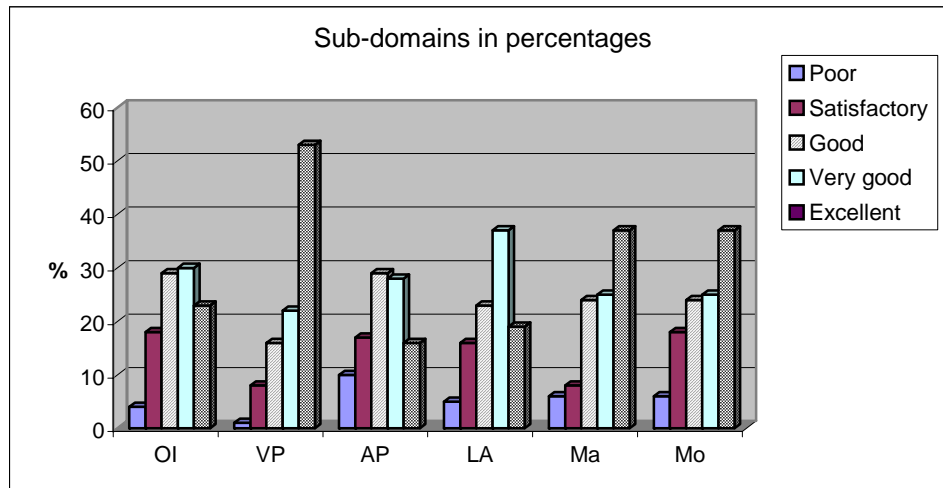
OI = Own Initative; LA = Language Awareness; VP = Visual Perception; Ma = Math; AP = Auditive Perception; Mo = Motor Skills

Figure 3 provides percent correct scores for each subdomain. When we are compairing the excellent performances with the different sub-domains, the results show that in auditory perception and language awareness, performance was poorest. Also in these sub-domains there were most the poor perfomances. In contrast, performance in the visual subdomain was high. Both auditory perception and language awareness are very important and, fortunately, with support education we have a good chance to improve these areas quickly.

One of the central goals of the study was to analyze the factors which best predict the later development of reading and writing. According to the results the factors best predicting the later development of reading and writing are *the discrimination of the duration of a sound, the recognition of the first and last sounds of a word,* as well as *the comparison of word-lengths* and *the recognition of letters.* The next best predictors are *the discrimination of syllable and word pairs, discrimination of rhyme words and rhythm pairs* and *recognition of a word and a non-word.* The same variables were compared for boys and girls. The girls were statistically better in *the discrmination of the first and last sounds of a word* and *the recognition of letters.* There is no statistical significance between the performances of children born at the beginning and at the end of the year on the above-mentioned variables. The study has also provided new information on the variables predicting the later development of reading and writing, including the mathematics domain. According to the results in mathematics the factors best predicting the later development of reading and writing are *adding the missing figure to a number sequence, counting of numbers, counting   the total number of points, writing figures, counting of the numbers of objects* and *identifying a figure.*

The results of the variables predicting the development of reading and writing were analyzed in the test between the groups whose performances were *excellent, very good, good, satisfactory and passable.* There is an especially significant discrepancy between the groups with excellent and passable performances in all variables predicting reading and writing. There are also statistically significant discrepancies between the groups with the best and satisfactory performances *in the recognition of letters, discrimination of rhyme words, discrimination of word lengths and the identification of the first and last sounds of a word.*

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CONCLUSION

The results of the study indicate that it is possible to analyze the cognitive development of a preschool-aged child in a versatile way with the help of the test developed for this purpose. We were able to clarify children's reading and writing readinesses and their individual performances with the test. Of the preschool-aged children the performance of boys was poorer in the language domain than that of the girls. The general notion is that the boys' language development is behind that of the girls for 1-2 years in the beginning stage of the school. This study shows that the language development of the preschool-aged boys is a poorer predictor of later success in reading and writing than that of girls. There were large individual differences between the children's performances. In addition the results indicate that 24-25 % of the 6-year-old children need special support in the preschool stage. On the other hand the results also prove that more than 50% of the children gave excellent and good performances. The children's individual performances varied greatly – i.e. there was dispersion.

This fact should be taken into account in the planning of preschool teaching. The individual performance profiles should be clarified at the initial stage. This test would be a means especially for the planning of instruction and thereby for the implementation of correctly focussed interventions. The identification and maintenance of the boys' interest is a crucial challenge for preschool instruction. The meaning of self-esteem is an important readiness for school-beginners. The study indicated that children's self-concept as learners was reflected in their motivation.

The study has also provided new information on the variables predicting the later development of reading and writing including the mathematics domain. By clarifying and intervening in the early risk-factors and by supporting the children's motivation and strengths it is possible to address the goals set for preschool instruction. The formation of children's self-esteem starts at the ages of 5-7, and includes physical, social and cognitive development. This period is a very sensitive phase in the child's development. Pedagogically well-planned guidance of children offers good possibilities for the development of reading and writing skills and reduction of risk-factors.

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APPENDIX
Components of the Pre-school Assessment Battery

*1. **Own initiative***	*4. **Language awareness***
Dressing up of a doll	Letter recognition
Choosing the clothes	Discriminating words and non-words
Choosing of cutlery	Discrminating rhyme words
Organizing the events of the day	Comparing word lengths
Putting back of objects	Noun recognition
	Verb recognition
	Understanding location
	Comparing sizes
*2. **Visual perception***	Classifying things
Reconizing similarities	
Completing of halves of figures	*5. **Mathematics***
Recognizing the similar and differen	Number recognitio
Combining of similar letters	Counting the number of object
Combining of similar syllables	Counting the numbe
	Writing of number
	Adding missing numbers
*3. **Auditive perception***	Counting of a total
Discriminating rhythm pairs	
Discriminating the duration of a sound	
Discriminating a syllable pair	*6. **Fine-motoric performance***
Discriminating of a word pair	Reinforcing and continuing dotted lines
Identifying the first sound	Completing a figure
Identifying the last soun	

Signs of Stigma? Attitudes to Illiteracy in Victorian Fiction, 1850-1890

Maxine Burton, University of Sheffield, England

This paper draws on aspects of my doctoral research into attitudes to illiteracy in England during the period 1850-1890. I shall start by describing how my interest in this topic arose, and why I wanted to explore the historical basis of the stigma and the associated stereotypes attached to illiteracy in present-day England. As the main documentary sources I used were Victorian novels, I will illustrate my methodology by analysing an extract from one of my sources. I will then outline my main research findings and conclusions.

THE STARTING POINT

Several years ago, while I was working as an adult literacy tutor, I came across a memorable comment from Brian Street; for adults who have defined themselves as illiterate, 'the stigma of illiteracy is a greater burden than the actual problems evidenced in such cases' (Street, 1990, p. 3). That had a particular resonance for me, especially the juxtaposition of stigma and illiteracy. Certainly I had too often seen distress and embarrassment on the part of my students in their admission of literacy problems, and also their overwhelming lack of confidence and self-esteem. Stigma essentially involves the creation of stereotypes and, for adults who have problems with literacy, it is above all the stereotype of the stupid or thick illiterate. The connotation of illiteracy with qualities of inadequacy, especially low intelligence, is damaging and the stigma burden can have a devastating effect on the individual. But there are also implications for educational policy: not only does the stigma discourage students from seeking tuition in the first place, it is also responsible for a downward spiral of ability. If adults are trying to avoid exposure as 'stupid', then they will avoid exposure to literacy situations, and what skills they do have will receive little practice.

But was it always like this? I started wondering how the present day attitudes to illiteracy had arisen. I also wondered to what extent they might be connected with schooling. After all, many literacy students ascribe their low self-esteem to their feeling of humiliation, neglect or fear during their years at school. And, the connection is made explicit in the literature: for example 'much of the basis of contemporary literacy is in compulsory schooling…..compulsory schooling created the possibility that everyone could be literate' (Barton, 1994, p. 127).

BACK TO THE PAST

I was thus hoping that historical research might shed some light on the construction of present-day attitudes to illiteracy, with implications for adult literacy educational policy. Literacy is imbued with a range of deep-rooted social and moral values and historical research is recognised as a way of challenging our pre-existing assumptions. In my journey back into the past, into the history of literacy, I found many contradictions in the research literature and not many answers to my questions. Many well-known writers, such as David Vincent, David Barton and Jane Mace, are keen to comment on the presence or absence of stigma in the past but there was no real consensus about its existence. Was it simply a case of increasing literacy bringing its own pressure to conform? Although the educational legislation of the 19th century is often credited with wiping out illiteracy, levels of literacy in England were actually rising before the Education Acts took effect. Even what literacy meant, how you could define it, was contested – David Vincent has pointed out its dual nature, referring to it as either a 'mechanical skill' or a 'crucial element in

the system of values by which social groups define themselves or are subject to definition by those in power over them' (Vincent, 1989, p. 4).

I chose the period of time 1850-90 for my study in order to include important educational legislation, particularly the Elementary Education Act of 1870, and subsequent acts through the 1880s, which gradually extended the provision of elementary education and made attendance at school compulsory. Furthermore, if we take illiteracy as only being a 'problem' when it happens in a society that is literate – or at least has embraced the expectation of being literate – then by 1850, it seems that the majority of people in England were literate, about two-thirds. One of the most conservative estimates puts it at 61% (Stephens, 1990) but it may have been much higher.

THE DOCUMENTARY SOURCES

Although I focussed on Victorian fiction, I also drew on information from Parliamentary Papers on education. I found them useful as a framework of commentary on the educational legislation, and valid as a method of triangulation. Despite the difference in genre, I found that both sources came up with very similar data.

There were sound reasons for using novels, apart from the undoubted enjoyment factor! The main criticism levelled against works of fiction is that they are not an objective record. But it depends on what you are looking for. I was trying to uncover the attitudes of the time, so on that basis, lack of objectivity becomes irrelevant, indeed subjectivity is welcomed. Furthermore, by mid-century the novel was rapidly attaining status as social commentator and censor, a position perhaps similar to the 'soap operas' of today. The Victorian novel is also equated with the development of realism and topicality. For books by the 'classic' authors in particular, their role can be seen not just as reflecting society, but as actively helping to form or change attitudes and behaviour (Blake, 1989, p. 8).

Table 1: Official and Personal Texts Used

Date	Official	Personal
1849	Report on Public Libraries	
1852-53		Dickens, *Bleak House,* Gaskell, *Cranford*
1854-55		Dickens, *Hard Times,* Gaskell, *North and South,* Trollope, *The Warden*
1858-61	Reports of the Assistant Commissioners	
1861	The Newcastle Report	
1862	The Revised Code of Regulations – Parliamentary Debates	
1864-65		Dickens, *Our Mutual Friend*
1866		Gaskell, *Wives and Daughters*
1874		Hardy, *Far from the Madding Crowd*
1875		Trollope, *The Way We Live Now*
1878		Hardy, *The Return of the Native*
1886-87	First Report of the Royal Commission on the working of the Elementary Education Acts; Second Report; Third Report	Hardy, *The Mayor of Casterbridge,* Hardy, *The Woodlanders*
1888	Final Report of the Royal Commission	

A huge amount of fiction was produced in the Victorian age, so there was no lack of potential source material. It has been calculated that a total of about 50,000 novels were produced by about 3,500 novelists (Sutherland, 2002, pp. 259-260). My criteria for selection were that they had to be written between 1850 and 1890, by an English author, with an English setting and with references to reading and writing. This way I ended up with a selection of classic authors – Dickens, Gaskell, Trollope and Hardy - each represented by at least two key works. These, together with all the Parliamentary Papers, are set out in the following table, which shows a spread of sources over the entire period.

AN EXAMPLE OF TEXTUAL ANALYSIS

The following extract from a Victorian novel is one I have used in teaching sessions and workshops, including my presentation for the European Conference in Zagreb. It is a means of illustrating some textual analysis techniques for discovering attitudes, held by both literate and illiterate, to illiteracy.

The narrator, Esther, describes a meeting with Krook in his rag and bottle shop.
He touched me on the arm to stay me, and chalked the letter J upon the wall – in a very curious manner, beginning with the end of the letter, and shaping it backward. It was a capital letter, not a printed one, but just such a letter as any clerk in Messrs Kenge and Carboy's office would have made.

'Can you read it?' he asked me with a keen glance.

'Surely,' said I. 'It's very plain.'

'What is it?'

'J.'

With another glance at me, and a glance at the door, he rubbed it out and turned an a in its place (not a capital letter this time), and said, 'What's that?'

I told him. He then rubbed that out, and turned the letter r, and asked me the same question. He went on quickly, until he had formed, in the same curious manner, beginning at the ends and bottoms of the letters, the word JARNDYCE, without once leaving two letters on the wall together.......

'I have a turn for copying from memory, you see, miss, though I can neither read nor write'.

The fact that the author, title and date have been omitted is deliberate, to highlight the extent of our dependence on 'background information' such as this to help inform our interpretation. The genre – a novel – has been revealed, and that in itself creates various expectations of character and narrative. Structuralism, as a method of analysis, ignores the author and social and historical context, and claims that the language of the text in itself creates the reality. The Post-Structuralist view is that meaning is not inherent in the text, but is created by the reader, so it could be different for each reading. My leanings are to a 'traditional' interpretation, whereby a text is a product of the author's way of thinking about the world. The above is an extract from Chapter V of *Bleak House,* written 1852-3 by Charles Dickens.

Bleak House has been much analysed by literacy researchers, particularly the character of Jo, the illiterate crossing sweeper. The character of Krook, also illiterate, is rather more complex and rewarding, and provides a notable contrast, not just that of Jo's 'innocent darkness' with Krook's 'malevolent gloom' (Mace, 2002, p. 10) but in terms of the power of literacy. Jo is passive and powerless, Krook is quite the opposite. Krook is far from stupid however, and he has managed to amass wealth. He has strategies for dealing with his lack of literacy, recording his stock by making chalk marks on the wall panelling of his shop. As we see from the extract, he has taught himself to copy individual letters, although unconventionally (and it emerges later in the novel that he is suspicious of being taught in case he is 'learned wrong'!). Dickens here is creating a picture of an illiterate character and his 'curious' performance, for the benefit of his literate readers. Krook is proud of his skill, as his boastful display shows, but he is not at all ashamed to admit illiteracy. This is still a world in which there seems to be a matter-of-fact acceptance that illiteracy exists side-by-side with literacy.

I shall now summarize the main findings from the 4 novelists, following the themes I explored in my research, namely a) Schooling, b) Class and Gender, and c) Status Stigma and Stereotype.

SCHOOLING

Responsibility for literacy early on in period under investigation lay with schools, which were becoming synonymous with literacy to the extent that they had come to be regarded as the main arbiters of literacy. There is clear evidence of this from Gaskell's *North and South* (1854-5). By the time of Hardy's novels, literacy is automatically assumed to be the result of schooling. This is illustrated amusingly by following passage from *Return of the Native* (1878) on rural graffiti.

"Ah, there's too much of that sending to school in these days! It only does harm. Every gatepost and barn's door you come to is sure to have some bad word or other chalked upon it by the young rascals: a woman can hardly pass for shame sometimes. If they'd never been taught how to write they wouldn't have been able to scribble such villainy. Their fathers couldn't do it, and the country was all the better for it." (Bk II, Ch I)

The Revised Code of 1862 had created 'Standards' through which each child had to pass, and these were age-related. But this did not seem to create expectations, merely to reinforce already-entrenched beliefs that the only appropriate time to acquire literacy was childhood. This is evident from the works of Gaskell and especially Dickens. Returning to the character of Krook, he is described in the following terms by another character: 'Read! He'll never read. He can make all the letters separately, and he knows most of them separately when he sees them…but he can't put them together. He's too old to acquire the knack now' (*Bleak House*, Ch XXXII)

CLASS AND GENDER

My four novelists themselves represent a range of backgrounds from upper-middle to working class. Elementary schooling was designed for the working classes, although there are references in Gaskell's work to changing standards of literacy which suggest that an increasing school focus on reading and writing was also affecting the educational standards of the middle and upper classes. Previously they had felt secure enough socially to regard poor spelling and grammar as of little consequence and indeed in middle-class fiction there is a presumption of literacy acquisition, so it often scarcely merits a mention This is not the same as saying that the middle classes imagined literacy did not matter. On the contrary, literacy was a sign of class membership and gentility. Subscribing to the Hollingsford Book Society in Gaskell's *Wives and Daughters* is described as 'a test of gentility, rather than of education or a love of literature' and 'a mark of station'. (Ch XLVI)

Attempts to imagine illiteracy – by the literate - were often couched in the discourse of strangeness and isolation, vividly realised in the character of Jo in *Bleak House*:

It must be a strange state to be like Jo! To shuffle through the streets, unfamiliar with the shapes, and in utter darkness as to the meaning, of those mysterious symbols, so abundant over the shops, and at the corners of streets, and on the doors, and in the windows! To see people read, and to see people write, and to see the postmen deliver letters, and not to have the least idea of all that language – to be, to every scrap of it, stone blind and dumb! (Ch XVI)

Elsewhere illiteracy is used as a device for comic characterization, for instance in the portrayal of the old bedesmen by Trollope in Chapter IV of *The Warden* (1855).

The only illiterate characters portrayed are working class. But working class feelings about literacy and illiteracy have to be interpreted as filtered through middle-class thinking, in other words as a middle-class construction. (Hardy's more authentically working-class voice will be discussed in the following section). However, it may be that the normality of the literate and 'otherness' of the illiterate are interchangeable with class issues, in that the working classes were very much an unknown quantity to the middle classes. This partly explains the whole tone of the passage from Trollope's *The way we live now* (1875).

The rural day labourer and his wife live on a level surface which is comparatively open to the eye….And with the men of the Ruggles class one can generally find out what they would be at and in what direction their minds are at work. But the Ruggles woman – especially the Ruggles young woman – is better educated, has higher aspirations and a brighter imagination, and is infinitely more cunning than

the man…..She can read, whereas he can only spell words from a book. She can write a letter after her fashion, whereas he can barely spell words out on a paper. (Ch XVIII)

He is explaining the lower classes for the benefit of his readers. This is also a reference to the fact that literacy levels for women did rise faster than those of men. I found little comment on gender in my sources, although it is worth noting that the Elementary Education legislation made no distinction between the achievements expected of boys and girls in reading and writing.

STATUS, STIGMA AND STEREOTYPE.

It seems that the 'literacy myth', a concept first expounded by Harvey Graff (1979) as an account of the power of the assumptions regarding literacy and illiteracy, was well entrenched by the start of the period. We see aspirations for literacy throughout, but at times its usefulness is questioned and it is even resisted, for instance by the illiterate Gaffer Hexham. in *Our Mutual Friend* (1864-5) who declares, 'I'm scholar enough' (Bk1, Ch 3). Interestingly, illiteracy is freely admitted to, without comment, in the 1850s but by the 1860s we do start to see excuses and attempts to conceal illiteracy, and to exaggerate the extent of literacy. Nowhere, however, is there a convincing account of actual embarrassment or shame suffered by virtue of illiteracy, only what is ascribed by middle class writers. In the following passage from *Bleak House* the narrator, Esther, observes one of her former pupils, whom she knows to be fully literate, signing the marriage register with a cross and then explaining afterwards:

while tears of honest love and admiration stood in her bright eyes, 'He's a dear good fellow, miss, but he can't write yet – he's going to learn of me – and I wouldn't shame him for the world!' Why what had I to fear, I thought, when there was this nobility in the soul of a labouring man's daughter. (Ch XXXVI)

Jane Mace (2001) takes this at face value, but I am inclined to see it as a middle-class construction. It is significant that Hardy, the closest of our writers to working-class origins, does not attempt to portray such feelings.

CONCLUSION

Charting the reasons given for illiteracy by both literate and illiterate is helpful in reaching a rationale for the social construction of illiteracy. And at the start of the period of time, illiteracy is freely admitted to and external excuses are given, such as lack of opportunity when young or physical difficulty with handwriting, or having an illiterate father. We see literacy used as a measure of intelligence and moral worth – good characters often enjoy reading (with the novelist's typical bias) – but it is not until the 1880s that the converse applies, that illiteracy is equated with lack of intelligence, strikingly in *The Mayor of Casterbridge (*1886). The Mayor's wife, Susan, is described as simple. 'How could she be expected to know? What advantages had she? None. She could write her own name and no more' (Ch 41). With the portrayal of the rural labourer in Trollope, noted above, we can see the stereotype being created of the thick or at least simple illiterate, finally marginalized as a rural simpleton towards the close of the century. The social mix of literate and illiterate together, as represented by Dickens in 1850s gives way to a society where the illiterate were starting to make excuses for or conceal their illiteracy. By the time of Hardy's later writing, illiterates were being represented as a marginalized minority. Literacy had changed from being an optional skill to an inner resource, necessary for survival.

If I had expected evidence of a sudden change of attitude because of the major educational legislation, then I was to be disappointed. Universal schooling may have changed people's expectations but it also reflected and reinforced tendencies which were already well established. To return to the opening quotation from Brian Street on the stigma of illiteracy, that stigma burden carries the weight of history with it.

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Literacies in Workplaces: A Case Study

Mª de Lourdes Dionísio and Rui Vieira de Castro, University of Minho, Portugal

What is literacy for? We do our work well! Why do they want to know about our literacy?

These were the questions asked by a 50-years-old woman working in a multi-national corporation that manufactures electronics components, when the workers were informed about an assessment of their literacy practices, promoted by the administration of the factory and to be developed by a university department.

In this text we will describe some aspects of the literacy research project and of the following intervention programme in workplaces that was carried out in Braga, Portugal, from November 2002 to June 2004, in that high-tech factory (from now on, the Factory).

The setting is a highly specialized and technologically advanced company, established in Braga for approximately fifteen years. It is also a highly complex and hierarchical organization, involving several departments apart from the assembly line: commercial, human resources, and financial departments, for example. Together with the traditional Fordist model – each individual on the assembly line doing his/her assigned work – new work methods are being implemented, for instance, working in teams (where workers supervise each other) in such terms that the workers "collaboratively and interactively design and redesign their work process with a full knowledge of and overlap with each other's functions…" (Gee, 2000, p. 186).

In this organization there are around 2000 workers (nowadays called "collaborators"), some of them working there since the Factory was founded. The workers are mainly (married) women, 85.7% of them working in the assembly line; their ages can explain different and low levels of formal education: 24.1% have less than 4 years of schooling or less; 27.8% have 5 or 6 years; 28.7%: have between 7 and 9 years (since the beginning of the 1970s, compulsory education in Portugal increased from four to six, and then to nine years of schooling). In spite of their strong (and traditional) participation in trade unions, the participation of these workers in popular associations (as reported by themselves) is rather weak. These people appeared to be very much involved in professional training in the Factory, a practice that was, by several means, strongly imposed by the administration.

Due to the employment situation of the country, the fears of the workers when they were informed about the literacy survey that was going to take place were quite comprehensible. Actually, questions like those of the above quoted worker were asked by the researchers of the Unit for Adult Education (UfAE) of the University of Minho, when in November, 2002, they were approached by a representative of the Administration of the Factory, soliciting, in her words, "a programme to assess and improve the literacy of the workers".

The need for this assessment was not very clear and it seemed that there was not a straight answer as the workers demanded. In fact, the point of view of the Administration – "*we think our workers have low literacy levels; we are a technologically advanced factory, so it is difficult to cope with that situation; we would like to know exactly what is going on at this respect*" – was a little bit "contradictory" if we consider that the low educational levels of the workers were very well known by the Human Resources Department and that there weren't immediate implications of that fact in the manufacturing process: the work was being done according to the norms and there were no news about product damages because of "illiteracy". To the questions of the workers such as: "*what is there about literacy? Why is it important? What are you going to do with the data you want to collect?*" the answer and argument was the importance for high levels of literacy in a high-tech factory, where there was a continuous need for training the workers for ever new work demands.

To address this issue, the research team shared some theoretical and political perspectives that weren't coherent with i) a psychological perspective of literacy – with its "notion of discrete individual variable" – (Barton, 1994, p. 25) and, therefore, with autonomous approaches (according to this same

author, those "which claim that literacy can be defined separately from the social context"), and their consequences in the *hows*, *whys* and *ways* of assessment; ii) strong assumptions towards social issues such as unemployment and neo-liberal working conditions.

The UfAE researchers point of view was then: "*before deciding what to do, it is important to know what is going on; the research will concern not only some workers, but everybody in the organisation and the organisation itself.*"

After a long process of negotiation concerning both perspectives of literacy and ways to conduct the process, some conditions were agreed by the Factory and the team:

   i)   both the Factory administration and representatives of the workers would be involved in the general 'political' co-ordination of the process;
   ii) data collection would consider the situation: what are the literacy demands?; what opportunities are there for literacy practices?; what are the characteristics of the verbal texts existing in the organisation?;
   iii) data would be elicited taking into consideration what people know and do in the specific circumstances in which they act, and, finally,
   iv) data to be provided to the Factory administration, as result of the assessment, would be anonymous.

The initial "literacy assessment of the workers" project became, then, a wider one with the following aims: to characterise the Factory as a literacy context, in its material conditions (what are the written texts available and what are their characteristics) and foreseen practices (what are people expected to do with those written texts); to characterise literacy practices and attitudes inside and outside the workplace; to identify patterns of the reading practices among the workers; and to promote meaningful literacy practices and attitudes concerning both the workplace and other contexts.

A survey on reading, writing, and more general cultural practices and attitudes inside and outside the factory was conducted by means of a Questionnaire; and a literacy test build to that particular context was administered to a sample of the workers (from the assembly line to the administrators). At the same time, ethnographic procedures were adopted in order to obtain data concerning the ethos of the context, the relation between the kinds of tasks and the role of literacy, and, as Jo Kleifgen (2005, p. 465) puts it, "the social life of the signs". Besides systematic observation and collection of documents, formal and extensive interviews provided information about the organisation, the work conditions and the training policy and approaches. For several months, a pilot experiment of an education programme was also held at the Factory.

STRUCTURING THEORETICAL PRINCIPLES OF THE PROJECT

On the one hand, this research and intervention design was an attempt to resist the reductionist conceptions of literacy, and to put in practice some of the principles of the social theory of literacy developed by New Literacy Studies (Barton, 1994; Barton & Hamilton, 1998; Barton, Hamilton & Ivanic, 2000; Gee, 2000). Such framework addresses literacy "as the general cultural ways of utilising written language which people draw upon in their lives" (Barton, Hamilton & Ivanic, 2000, p. 7) and not as "a skill or set of skills" (Barton, 1994, p. 11). Brian Street (1984) views this as an 'ideological approach' to literacy – "one that accepts that what is meant by literacy varies from situation to situation and is dependent on ideology" (Barton, 1994, p. 25). The propositions about the nature of literacy from David Barton (1994, pp. 36-52) and David Barton and Mary Hamilton (2000, pp. 7-14) nurtured all the process: literacies are situated in specific times and spaces and are therefore historically located; there is no such thing as a set of legitimate characteristics which apply in all the times and contexts; literacy practices are intentional and they are embedded in wider social objectives and cultural practices; different domains of life (private, public, educational, professional) give origin to different literacies; literacies are means, not an end in themselves.

THE FACTORY: A COMPLEX LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT

The data collected by means of observation allowed the characterization of the Factory as a multiple literacies context, serving different ends and people: all sorts of verbal information – work orders documentation, procedures, instructions, graphs, charts – displayed in several formats, surrounded working areas; hanging near the assembly line there were folders with multimodal and highly specialized texts (some with foreign words) about technical procedures. Strongly context dependent and highly coded, not always useful, the majority of this information was produced by certain people in the hierarchy – engineers or members of the Human Resources Department – and, in most cases, to be interpreted by workers in intermediate leading positions, when it was necessary because of some problem in the assembly line.

Besides this "official literacy" that aimed at controlling production and behaviours, external to the workers, and that, in this way, can be seen as a device of authority, serving "surveillance" and eventual "punishment" (Foucault, 1977), there was another literacy in the form of flyers and leaflets of the trade unions and groups of workers, hardly accepted by the Administration.

The Factory also edited a monthly newsletter *O Ponto* (*The Point*) with news from the Corporation, information about past and incoming events, technical procedures, and so on. The content of this newsletter, and its familiar register, makes it a kind of "space-between" (Bhabha, 1998) where the power relations are weakened and the Factory appears as something also pertaining to the workers.

Besides, the Factory proved to be a formal educational context. And this could be observed, at least, at two levels: the professional level and the second chance education level.

At the professional level, training practices can be characterized as i) *non continuous*, in the sense that, to a certain extent, they are dependent of the availability of the workers when the demands of production decrease, ii) developed on a *volunteer basis*, although the Factory assumes very emphatically a policy of professional training, and iii) *oriented towards production skills*, as what is relevant is the acquisition of knowledge about new technologies and new modes of organizing the work. These training practices are mostly conducted in classes, supported by traditional methodologies (of a transmissive kind), and involving the use of textbooks, very school like ones.

During these last years, the Factory developed a protocol with a Secondary School of Braga in order to provide second chance education to those workers who, for one reason or another, dropped out from school. The classes take place in the Factory and they are taught by secondary school teachers, according to the curricula, the methodologies and the assessment practices that are in use in official school. In spite of the small number of workers (usually the younger ones) who attend those courses, it is worth noting that the workers were usually successful in them.

READING OUTSIDE AND INSIDE THE FACTORY

As it was mentioned before, data concerning reading and writing practices outside and inside the Factory were elicited through questionnaires and ethnographic observation: in their everyday life, people report to read various kinds of texts, mainly for pragmatic purposes, but few writing practices were mentioned; most of the people that were interviewed (around 90%) recognise the relevance of reading and writing in everyday life. These practices present both similarities and dissimilarities with what happens inside the Factory. Here, people report frequent and unproblematic practices of reading (worksheets, checklists, tables, digital documents...), in a context where reading appears to be a non-continuous, task-dependent practice, in spite of all the hanging information. Writing clearly emerges as a socially distributed task, in the sense that it is not for everybody, and that it is ascribed to very distinct groups. In the same way as for everyday life, people largely agree (91%) that reading and writing are important for their activities in the Factory.

The reading assessment was conducted by means of a pencil and paper test, structured around two different texts – a short-story and an expository text from the Factory newsletter. The reading tasks concerned retrieving and interpreting information, and metacognitive and elaborative comprehension processes, taking into account the different goals people may have to read.

Data analysis allowed the emergence of four patterns of reading performance – from very low to high performance. In strong relationship with low school levels, work in the assembly line and gender, it was possible to identify a group of nearly 25% of the population (mainly women) that had severe difficulties in dealing with e written texts and reading tasks. These difficulties concerned non-canonical word order, coded uses of language (sigla), less functional reading tasks and interpreting narratives.

NEW DIRECTIONS FOR LITERACY: A PILOT EXPERIMENT IN THE FACTORY

Since the beginning of the project, consideration was given to the possibility of developing an intervention programme aiming at changing the contexts of literacy, at the promotion of literacy practices, and at the development of literacy skills. This intention was reinforced by some of the data that were collected, mainly those concerned with some representations of literacy practices and attitudes shared by the workers, with literacy tasks people were supposed to be involved in, with the characteristics of literacy materials, and with the literacy dimension of the professional training programmes developed in the Factory.

Thus it was decided that, before any attempt of generalization of that intervention programme, a pilot experiment should be developed. The 'Study Circle' appeared in this context as an adequate methodology to promote all those objectives at the same time as critical literacy. For fourteen weeks researchers and workers from different departments in the Factory sat together discussing issues around literacy in workplaces, methodologies to promote it, connecting literacy education and professional training, and designing a proposal for literacy development in the Factory.

During this process, but mainly immediately after it ended, conflicts arose between the principles and the proposals that were developed in the 'study circle' and those that the administration and the Human Resources Department were used to. In this sense, this pilot experiment showed, besides its potential, the limits of this kind of intervention in a context such as the Factory, by generating contradictions between established practices and new pedagogies.

FINAL REMARKS

The Factory where both the research project and the intervention programme were developed is not, as far as literacy demands and practices are concerned, a homogeneous context. Here, access to literacy is asymmetric and its production and use strengthens the social asymmetries of the Factory. Actually, when one considers the nature of the tasks that the workers are expected to develop and when we look for the features of the work positions in association with reading and writing practices, we can find some strong differences.

On one pole we can find individuals who are deeply and continuously involved in literacy practices, both in reading and writing and whose main tasks are studying and developing by mediation of a lot of written materials. On the other pole, we can meet individuals with scarce involvement in literacy practices, whose main daily tasks are not immediately dependent on written texts, in spite of their dominant presence around them. These are the workers of the assembly line who don't view those texts as their concern, because that is not "their literacy". All those manuals of instructions, folders, charts, graphs, posters that say what is being done and what must be done is the "official literacy" of the place "thereby wielding immense power over working lives" (Kleifgen, 2005, p. 453). To this literacy – the privileged one – which, to a certain extent, aims at maintaining the workforce disciplined by a "process of normalization" (Foucault, 1977), the workers responded in their own more dynamic and contextualized ways – by talking among themselves, by using and sharing their practical knowledge acquired during years of practice. In a certain sense, these "endogenous literacy practices" (Kleifgen, 2005, p. 460) may represent to the Administration and the Human Resources Department a form of deviance, not to accept because it escapes their control and normalization intentions. In this perspective, the need for a literacy assessment can be seen as a form of keeping this control in the name of the "complexity" and "quality" of the produced goods.

In this particular situation, the assessment of the literacy of the people working in the Factory should not avoid taking into consideration the concreteness of the context in which they carry out their

activity, the kind of demands they are submitted to, the literacy practices that "position them in relation to the institution and power relations which sustain them" (Barton, Hamilton & Ivanic, 2000, p. 1).

Of course we can understand the *why* of the will of scrutinizing the level of adequacy between what is expected and what is demanded in literacy terms. But in this particular context, we should not forget that the tasks people have to develop in their workplaces can theoretically involve knowledge and abilities that can be behind *or* beyond those that are actually possessed. In the first case, the context may not work as a stimulus for those who have to deal with such situation, in the sense that they are not challenged to push forward their boundaries or even become involved in the process of producing and interpreting the words of that world. In the second case, the results will be obvious negative for individuals, as they can be seen as 'inadequate' for the job.

In any of these situations, as was apparent in this setting, the issue of literacy is only remotely a question of person ability. It is not possible in a context like the Factory (and maybe any other context) to circumscribe a set of knowledge and abilities that are needed (as they are always changing because of their dependence on time and space). It is very difficult to state what an individual possesses in terms of literacy as the measure for this will be always contextual dependent and very dynamic in nature. In this sense, life is the measure of literacy practices and attitudes.

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Changes in Adults' Reading Habits and Consumption of Books in Estonia during the Last Decade

Signe Jantson, Tallinn University of Technology / Tallinn University, Estonia, and

Helle Maaslieb, Estonian Literary Museum / University of Tartu, Estonia

In this paper, we give an overview about how the changes in Estonian society have influenced the Estonians' relationship with culture and cultural consumption. By cultural consumption, we use the example of reading habits, book consumption and the use of libraries. And by book consumption we mean buying books, lending books from the libraries, reading habits and reading preferences.

Our main aim is to analyse the changes in Estonian adults' book consumption, preferences and reading habits during the last decade. Ten years is sufficient amount of time for change; at the same time, the last decade in Estonia has been politically and economically fast-paced, as in many other post-soviet countries.

In our paper we compare*: Estonian Worldlife in the Beginning of 21st Century* (carried out in 2002-2003) (Kalmus & Lauristin *et. al* 2004) and Saar Poll *Culture Research* 2003 (Saar Poll homepage) as well as the statistics of bookstores and libraries and the research conducted by students; we also include research about reasons and habits in connection with buying books conducted by the authors themselves.

Our analysis is based on previously compiled research of cultural consumption by Estonian scientists (Lauristin/Vihalemm 1985, 1986; Järve 1988, 1993; Narusk 1994) and research about reading, which show that during Soviet times most Estonians had an active relationship with culture, because cultural consumption replaced lots of other possibilities of self-realization which were not available then (Lõhmus & Lauristin *et. al* 2004, p. 97)

Our paper is divided into three parts:

- Selling and publishing business;
- Libraries;
- Questionnaires about interest in books.

BOOK SELLING AND PUBLISHING BUSINESS

In 2004, 3994 new titles were published in Estonia (National Library of Estonia, Estonian print output statistics). In 1980s around 2000 titles per year were published. In Estonia there were around 900 publishing houses. The following are estimates of the number of places that sell books (Kork, 2003):

Number of bookstores 2003

- Bookshops – 71
- Supermarkets selling books – 31
- Separate premises in supermarkets – 10
- Shops which are among other goods also selling books – 7
- Internet-bookstores – 6

During the Soviet period the print-runs per book were rather big, and the number of titles quite small; also the censorship prohibited some topics and authors. The price of books was rather cheap and so people bought books without considering their topics much. According to the researches in the beginning of 1980s, there were 16% homes with a book collection bigger than 1000 books and in 2003 there were only 8% such homes (Lõhmus, Lauristin et. al, 2004,p. 103). The people have become more sensitive to prices than in 1980s and also more careful with choosing the books. The research by Saar Poll also shows this tendency (Table 1).

Table 1: Purchase of Books Before and After Estonian Independence

| | | All Answers | | Nationality | | | |
| | | | | Estonian | | Other | |
		No	%	No	%	No	%
If you compare your	Less	101	67.5	68	69.0	3.3	64.6
book consumption 10	As much as	14	9.5	8	8.6	5	11.3
years ago and now, do	More	12	8.0	7	7.1	4	9.6
you now buy books. ..	Cannot say*	19	13.0	12	13.0	6	13.1
?	Hard to tell	3	2.0	2	2.3	8	1.5
	Total	150	100.0	98	100.0	51	100.0

*Student is too young

Sixty-seven percent answered that they buy fewer books than a decade ago. Almost 10% said that they bought as many books as before. Eight percent said that the never bought books.

During 1990s the book consumption dropped suddenly. Now there is a slight rise again, which enables us to say that during the last few years book consumption (buying and lending from libraries) has become more popular. The publishing houses have reported a 2-3% increase in their turnover (up to 250 million Estonian Kroons). Family expenditures on books and magazines/newspapers was 0.8% in 1996, 1% in 2001, 0.9% in 2002 and 1.1% in 2003 (Houshold living niveau 2004, p. 96).

In the poll *Worldlife*, in which people estimated their expenditures on books, 18% said that in general they can afford to buy books; 13 % saw no need for books, and therefore no need for expenditure; 26 % said they could not afford to buy books. (Lõhmus & Lauristin *et. al* 2004, p. 99).

BUYERS OF BOOKS

Booksellers estimate the number of potential buyers to be about 750,000 (15-year-olds and older). About 50% (375,000) of them buys at least one book per year. The average Estonian spends about 43 euros per year on books. The most popular topics of books sold are reference books (12%), children's books by Estonian writers (9%), children's books by foreign writers (8%), Belletristic literature by Estonian (6%) and by foreign writers (6%), cooking (5%), and interior design (5%) (Pihl, 2004). According to bookstores, the TOP 10 most popular topics are children's books (95 different titles), reference- and practical books (62), belletrist literature (30), and language learning (13) (Pihl, 2004).

Among the factors that people consider to be most important in purchasing books (maximum score: 5 points) are: new knowledge, information(3.0); price (3.7), usefulness and practical value (3.6), entertainment value (3.5%), good design (3.1%), hard cover (3.0%), author or friend's advice (2.6), reviews and criticisms in periodicals (2.3%), and knowledge of publishing company (1.9%) (Pihl, 2004).

THE USE OF LIBRARIES

The statistics show that the number of visits has been growing, but the number of loans is decreasing slightly. The libraries have acquired another role besides lending books – they are cultural centres and places where to get scientific information.

Table 2: Library Usage – 1991 to 2003

Year	Number of Loans	Number of Visits	Year	Number of Loans	Number of Visits
1991	8 149,2	2429,2	1997	14 549,2	5022,6
1992	8 793,4	2617,1	1998	15 351,8	5462,0
1993	9 585,2	2963,8	1999	15 760,7	5875,1
1994	11 386,4	3467,0	2000	14 011,6	6309,0
1995	12 158,8	4005,2	2001	13 503,5	6426,4
1996	13 643,3	4554,7	2003	12 963,1	6779,9

Table 3: Frequency of Borrowing Books by Library Users in Last Twelve Months

Genre	All Responses	by Nationality	
		Estonian	Other
Prose – novels, short stories etc.	2.0	2.1	1.9
Reference books	1.8	1.8	1.7
Periodicals	1.8	1.8	1.7
Speciality-related literature	1.7	1.7	1.6
Dictionaries, language	1.6	1.5	1.7
Children's literature	1.4	1.3	1.3
Poetry	1.3	1.3	1.3

Key: Never = 1; Sometimes = 2; Often = 3. Answers restricted to library users in previous 12 months.

Source: Saar Poll Cultural research The pattern of responses shows that the most popular books in the libraries belong to the belletrist literature, followed closely by reference books and periodicals.

READING HABITS IN GENERAL

Previously conducted surveys about reading habits (Kont, 1993) have stated that the Estonians' expectations on literature are rather conservative. The favourite books are of Anglo-American origin. Younger people prefer foreign authors, older people prefer Estonian authors.

The older the people, the less frequently they read. It is interesting that in the age group 18-39 the women tend to read more than men and afterwards the situation changes. The most active readers are people aged 18-24 (Kont, 1995).

The higher the education level, the higher the reading activity. Education influences women's reading habits more. The less active readers are men and women with elementary education, the most active readers are the ones with secondary school education. The smallest percentage of no-readers is in the group of women with high education (Kont, 1995).

In 1998, a survey was conducted among the Estonian adults, which showed that traditional prose (novels, stories) was still the most popular (compared to the results of the survey conducted in 1993), followed by detective stories and thrillers. Compared with *Worldlife* 2004, thrillers were in the first place, historical books and biographies in second, followed by historical novels and poetry in the last place. There data are summarised in Table 3.

Table 3: Pyramid of Interest: Topics People Would Choose to Read About

Topic	Percent *	Topic	Percent *
Economics, Finance	10%	Memoirs, biography	20%
Philosophy, politics, society	10%	Children's books	25%
Business, Entrepreneurship	12%	Travelogues, explorations	27%
Poetry	15%	Eating	28%
Russian contemporary literature	15%	Comic books, funny stories	29%
Foreign contemporary literature	15%	Love stories	29%
Computers	15%	Mysterious phenomena, omens, horoscopes	29%
Art, music, theatre, film	16%	History	30%
Estonian contemporary literature	18%	Nature	32%

Fantasy	16%	Home design	34%
Foreign classical literature	18%	Speciality literature	36%
Estonian classical literature	18%	Historical and biographical novels	36%
Scientific discoveries	19%	Detective stories, thrillers	37%
Cars	19%	Healthcare	39%
Childcare	19%	Reference books	39%

*Indicates percent who would choose topic

Source: Estonian Worldlife in the Beginning of 21st Century (Lõhmus & Lauristin *et. al* 2004, p. 104).

From the list given to the participants the most popular turned out to be reference books and books about healthcare (40%). These were followed by detective stories and historical novels, specialty-related literature and home design. So we can make an abstraction and say that the topics which interest the biggest group of people are the general interest topics, bought and read generally (Lõhmus & Lauristin *et. al* 2004, p. 104). On the top of the pyramid we can place the group with very specific interests like contemporary literature and fiction, business, entrepreneurship, economics and information science, philosophy and social studies.

Table 4: Changes in Book-buying Habits between 1974-84 and 2002-03

1979-1984 (N=3784)		2002-2003 (N=1470)	
Loves to read poetry	35	Chooses poetry from the shelves at the bookstore or in the library	15
Reads specialty-related literature often	24	Chooses specialty-related literature from the shelves at the bookstore or in the library	36
Has 10…90 books at home	17	More than 50 books at home	23
Has about 1000 or over 1000 books at home	16	More than 1000 books at home	8
Has given up buying books because of the high prices	23	Cannot afford to buy books	26

Source: Estonian Worldlife in the Beginning of 21st Century (Lõhmus & Lauristin *et. al* 200, p. 105).

If in 1980s poetry came before specialty-related books (accordingly 35% and 24%, then now the situation is vice versa (36% specialty-related literature and 15% poetry ((Lõhmus & Lauristin *et. al* 2004, p. 103). There was a question also about the interest in books by topics. The answers were compiled into groups, so 4 main interest groups or clusters were formed (Table 5).

Table 5: Interest in Books by Clusters (Percentages of Respondents)

I: Active and versatile interest in books 20%*		II: Practical and family-focused interest in books 22%		III: Moderate, hobby-related interest in books 40%		IV: Scant interest in books 17%	
Historical and biographical novels	79	Healthcare	84	Detective stories, thrillers	42	Detective stories, thrillers	4
History	76	Eating	71	Reference books	40	Reference books	3
Reference books	73	Love stories	64	My specialty related literature	38	Love stories	3
Nature	69	Home design	61	Historical and biographical novels	35	Healthcare	3
Travelogues,	66	Mysterious	53	History	33	Russian	2

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						contemporary literature	
explorations		phenomena, omens, horoscopes					
My specialty related literature	64	Childcare	46	Comic books, funny stories	30	My specialty related literature	1
Healthcare	61	Children's books	45	Cars	30	Children's books	1
Home design	61	Detective stories, thrillers	43	Nature	28	Cars	1
Memoirs, biographies	57	Comic books, funny stories	36	Travelogues, explorations	24	Computers	1
Foreign classics	55	Relationships, behaviour	35	Fiction	20	Historical and biographical novels	1

*Indicates percent of respondents in cluster;

Source: Estonian Worldlife in the Beginning of 21st Century (Lõhmus & Lauristin *et. al* 2004, p. 105).

Cluster 1: *Active and versatile interest in books (20%).* This cluster consists of broad-minded people, who have a strong interest in history, nature, classical and specialty-related literature and are also interested in books about economics and society. They prefer historical and biographical novels (79%), historical books (64%), reference books (73%) and books about nature (69%). There are more women in this cluster (60%).

Cluster 2: *Practical and family-focused interest in books (22%).* This group consists of people whose interest in books is related to home, family and healthcare. They are interested in love stories (64%) and books about healthcare (84%), eating (71%), home design (61%), mysterious phenomena, omens, horoscopes (53%), childcare (46%) and children's books (45%) Comparing this group to the general population, there are somewhat more people in this cluster with secondary school education and fewer with higher education.

Cluster 3: *Moderate, hobby-related interest in books (40%).* This is the biggest of the four clusters. It consists of readers with versatile interests and the data in this group is nearly the same as the average. They prefer detective stories and thrillers (42%), reference books (40%), specialty-related literature (38%) and historical and biographical novels (35%). The number of men in this cluster is significantly bigger than average (67% in this cluster compared to 47% in general average).

Cluster 4: *Scant interest in books (17%).* These people are not really interested in any specific type of books. The most popular among them were detective stories and thrillers (4%). Most of the other types of books received 0% of answers.

There are somewhat more men in this cluster, and a bit more of older people than general average. Slightly bigger is also the number of people with elementary and junior secondary. According to the table we can say that most of the people with active interest reads often (55%), regularly belletristic literature and specialty- and hobby-related literature (both 51%). From people belonging to the II cluster 33% reads belletristic literature regularly, from III cluster 32% and from IV cluster 16% reads belletristic literature regularly. (Lõhmus & Lauristin *et. al* 2004, pp. 104-107)

CONCLUSION

To summarize the topic of interest in books we can say that the world of books is still important to people and that books remain in the centre of cultural media. Reading and owning books is important to both Estonians and other national groups. There is also no significant difference among age groups. But differences among gender groups are clearly visible.

The change of interest from belletrist to more practical literature is a sign of a bigger cultural change, with aesthetic values less important than rational values and self-realization. If people used to buy more of belletrist literature, now they tend to buy practical literature and reference books. The total number of books bought is smaller than during the Soviet period, but the last years showed a noticeable increase. The number of loans in libraries is growing, and belletrist literature being the most popular type

among books loaned. We can claim that capitalism has influenced people to be more practical even in the field of culture and book consumption, but the importance of books remains the same.

It is possible to briefly describe the changes of last decades as follows: the Soviet time can be described as a period where one of the most important parts of people's relationship with culture was reading. People developed strong reading habits, they had large collections of books at home, and they engaged themselves in music and singing. After Estonia regained its independence, the situation changed both for the creators and consumers of culture. As openness and freedom of choice have increased, the possibilities of putting people's activity to use have also become more diverse. The role of culture in society and in personal life has become less important, and the cultural field has become smaller and narrower, making space for the fields of economy and politics. Culture, like all other fields, has also been deeply influenced by the domination of business relationships in everyday life. That is why the creation and consumption of culture have become commercialised. Culture is not just of aesthetic value, but is also a means of creating symbolic and social capital for other fields of life and functions as a practical tool in fulfilling daily needs and developing group identity.

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Literacy Teaching and Learning during the Secondary Years: Pathways for Success

Trevor McDonald and Christine Thornley, Education Associates, Dunedin, New Zealand

This paper argues that in order for students to be most successful in their education, schools and teachers need to recognise, plan and teach for the literacy demands inherent in the learning and assessment activities they undertake across the curriculum. To these ends we present a 'scope and sequence' chart of the literacy skills central to student achievement in the first three years of secondary school when students in New Zealand first participate in national assessment. This scope and sequence has been developed using research findings from the authors' literacy project with secondary school students; an analysis of the literacy demands of numbers of nationally assessed achievement standards; the national assessment tasks undertaken for the Ministry of Education with samples of students prior to secondary entry, and international literature. To exemplify the significance of this chart we report on their most recent research findings with a group of 57 students who have completed two years of secondary education.

Over recent years there has been a significant change in the nature and complexity of the texts and tasks that secondary students have to deal with (Unsworth, 2001). In New Zealand this has been accompanied by the introduction of a new standards-based assessment and qualification system (NCEA) in years three (level one), four (level two) and five (levels three and four) of the secondary school. As is also the case in other countries, changes in the ways in which students are assessed have meant that students now need to learn a wide range of literacy skills along with the knowledge associated with a specific curriculum area (Donahue, 2003; McDonald & Thornley, 2005; Stowell, 2000). As has been found elsewhere also, many New Zealand schools have struggled to support their students in acquiring the literacy competencies that will lead them to greater success in high stakes assessments (e.g. Baynham & Prinsloo, 2001; Bray, Pascarella, Pierson, 2004; Ivey & Broaddus, 2000).

Although New Zealand students continue to perform well by international standards, there are across schools in this country, significant disparities in levels of achievement (Alton-Lee, 2003; May, 2001). In particular, and as has been documented previously, approximately 45% of all New Zealand students perform at levels lower than the OECD median for 15 year olds (Ministry of Education, 2004; Thornley & McDonald, 2002). Within this group and while technically able to decode text, approximately 14% of students who participated in the PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) 2000 and 2003 assessments found great difficulty in using information purposefully. Further, many of these students were described as "severely limited in the skills required to fully utilise written texts and documents in the learning process" (Ministry of Education, 2004, pg.6).

Most worrying is the point that the skills inherent in the PISA assessments are also those that are in large part, seen as problematic in the national assessments undertaken with students in the year prior to their secondary entry (NEMP, National Education Monitoring Project). In particular these issues relate to students abilities to combine literal and inferred information from more than one source, to gather information from graphs, tables and maps and to use more complex material or to infer information from data within a graph, table or map (Crooks & Flockton, 2000; Flockton & Crooks, 2001, 2002).

Interestingly, the 2000 and 2003 PISA reports on New Zealand students' literacy and numeracy skills have also alerted us to the importance of students acquiring a range of problem-solving skills. In relation to such skills, New Zealand students are strongest in terms of memorisation and elaboration (making links with what they already know) but the relationship between use of the control strategies of "planning, monitoring and regulating" and students' performance was "weak" (Ministry of Education 2004a). This suggests that numbers of New Zealand secondary students will likely struggle in situations, such as external examinations, where they may be asked to undertake relatively challenging tasks independently.

LITERACY DEMANDS ACROSS CONTENT AREAS

Recent research has indicated that it is important for readers to understand the extent to which differences in the multiple genres of expository and narrative texts will affect how such texts are read and what information can be read from them (Dean & Grierson, 2005). This being the case, and bearing in mind the differences in both text and task demands in many curriculum content areas, and given New Zealand students' relative weakness in the use of control strategies, literacy instruction in different content areas could be considered essential (Block, Oakar & Hurt, 2002; Moje, Dillon, & O'Brien, 2000; McDonald & Thornley, 2004; Thornley & McDonald, 2002, Valtin & Naegele, 2001).

In order to determine what the instructional focus for literacy might be in content areas an analysis of the demands inherent in a number of NCEA achievement standards with high literacy skills demands was undertaken by the authors (see Tables 1 and 2 for examples). This analysis revealed that students not only needed to be proficient at locating, evaluating and extracting information from a wide range of sources and stimulus material but that they had to be competent at bringing seemingly disparate pieces of that information together for means of explanation, justification, analysis and comparison. Further, and having undertaken a relatively complex set of reading tasks, students also needed to be familiar with the various ways in which they could be required to present their findings for assessment. Finally, it also became apparent that while it might be possible for many students to reach the level of "achieved" through describing or restating information, the skills of explanation, discussion and detailed or comprehensive description (implying a level of analysis) that would get students to "merit" and beyond would remain elusive for many who lacked the more complex skills required to explain, analyse, compare or evaluate.

Table 1: History 1:5 Describe an historical development, in an essay

Achievement Standard Requirements	Literacy Strategies and Knowledge	Knowledge of Content
Achieved: Describe cause(s) and/or course and/or consequence(s) of an historical development. Structure the historical information in a satisfactory essay format	*Evaluate*, based on purpose, *various sources of historical information* e.g. explanations, articles, reports, persuasive texts, first hand accounts etc *Knowledge of the structure of various text forms* to allow for flexibility of reading, locating information and authenticating information and for writing Familiarity with *language, grammatical* and *organisational features* of text forms for writing Identify *key research questions* in relation to topic to guide note-making –ensuring coverage of cause, events, consequences *Read information* from a variety of sources to gather and *organise information* in relation to *key research questions*	Make judgements about the value of information from various sources Identify relevant information Build arguments to support thesis Gather and organise information on key questions from reading Decide on logical order of information from notes to describe historical development Identify commonalities, contradictions and unresolved issues Gather further material where necessary Analyse information ensuring that cause, events and consequences are explained
Merit: Describe in detail cause(s) and/or course and/or consequence(s) of an historical development. Structure the historical information in an acceptable essay format		
Excellence: Comprehensively describe cause(s) and/or course and/or consequence(s) of an historical development. Structure the historical information in an effective essay format		

Source: McDonald & Thornley, 2005

The literacy skills required to successfully complete national assessment tasks were then compared with the literacy skills assessed in the year prior to secondary entry on a range of NEMP tasks (Crooks & Flockton, 2000; Flockton & Crooks, 2001; Flockton & Crooks, 2002) in order to provide a baseline set of skills for secondary entry and for students to have acquired for success at NCEA level one. Into this were added the findings of an initial study into the literacy skills and strategies of successful and struggling students across the secondary years (Thornley & McDonald, 2002) and the results of the first stage of a larger study tracking secondary students literacy skills development through the secondary years (see McDonald & Thornley, 2004). Using these data sources the authors have developed a "scope and sequence" of literacy strategies believed necessary for students to have acquired in order to have the skill set that would allow independent problem-solving at NCEA level one and beyond (Table 3).

Table 2: Science 1:5 Describe aspects of geology

Achievement Standard Requirements	Literacy Strategies and Knowledge	Knowledge of Content
Achieved: Describe aspects of geology: types of rocks and their formation Structure answers into acceptable language of description	*Spelling* of key terms *Reading of text features* (graphs, diagrams, labels, etc.) as well as running text *Identify and select* relevant information from stimulus material *Describe*: give details, facts about … *Explain*: give information about how or why a phenomenon or process occurs *Compare and contrast*: identify similarities and differences *Analyse* (includes showing difference) *Justify*: give reasons for… *Relate*: demonstrate relationship between as in cause and effect *Evaluate*: determine relevance, significance	Use of subject specific language of geology Requires students to have knowledge of • *types of rocks* • *features of rocks* • *appearance of rocks* • *use of rocks* Requires students to have knowledge of *formations of rocks* and why they have their particular qualities and appearance Requires students to know about the *reasons for features, appearance and formations*
Merit: Explain aspects of geology: classification and use, also how rocks are formed Structure answers into acceptable language of discussion and explanation		
Excellence: Discuss aspects of geology: apply understandings about classification, use and how rocks are formed. Structure answers into acceptable language of explanation and discussion		

Source: McDonald & Thornley, 2005

The organisation of the scope and sequence is premised on points arising from the research findings reported previously. In the first instance, students who described themselves as successful readers often used the surface features in a text prior to reading for deeper understanding and, secondly, these activities occurred prior to a focus on solving unknown vocabulary. These readers also adopted different approaches to their reading depending on their familiarity with the content and form of the reading they had to undertake and in relation to the demands of the task they were completing.

A vertical reading of Table 3 would therefore indicate that when approaching unfamiliar texts, a student needs to know how to use the immediately available information from headings, illustrations, tables and diagrams in order to build a content base to support reading of the running text. Similarly, if the student knows something of the text form, they will have some ideas about where to locate information and how it will be presented. The experience of successful readers also indicated that a

review of the information and the location of that information was an essential component in reading more deeply in order to locate important ideas and for bringing literal and inferred information from various sources in and across texts together. Not surprisingly these readers were also well placed to solve word problems as they arose.

Secondly skills are grouped horizontally in stages to represent the ways in which skills build on each other over time. The point being that a student needs to know how to locate information in the surface features of a text before they can use such information to check their understandings and before they can use different methods of organising information for purposes of thinking critically about new ideas. Similarly, the skill of locating literal pieces of information and making inferences in single texts is an important precursor to the more complex task of locating information in multiple texts or beginning the processes of synthesis, analysis, comparison or explanation. On the basis of the work undertaken it is therefore suggested that the literacy competencies necessary for success at secondary school arise out of the development of skills in the use of the different elements of different text forms for the purposes of finding, understanding, manipulating and reconceptualising information in relation to the different task demands of different curriculum areas. However, it is important to note that it is not the authors' intention to suggest that students be expected to master each stage of the "scope and sequence" before proceeding to the next. In the interests of purposeful activity and increasing mastery of skills, students should practice the skills described in the act of finding information for the completion of tasks requiring higher level skills. What this suggests is that change over time is measured in the abilities of students to undertake more complex tasks with a wider variety and greater number of more complex texts.

STUDENTS AS PROBLEM-SOLVERS IN TEXTS

The next section of this paper reports findings from a study now entering its fourth year and involving 100 students in five New Zealand secondary schools. During each of their secondary years these students are asked about their developing perceptions of themselves as readers, how they attack unfamiliar text (Nicholson, 1984); their attitude to reading and how much they read for pleasure (Brozo, 2000); and how they transact with words in text (Ruddel, 1994). From the second year of secondary education, students in the study were also asked to complete a literacy assessment designed by the authors using a piece of content area text. The results reported here are those from the assessments completed by the 57 students who had completed two years at secondary school by the end of 2004.

Each of the students was between 14 and 15 years of age at the time of interview and assessment. The schools from which the students came were identified as those whose students would come from middle class backgrounds and who could generally be expected to achieve in the mid-range of achievement on national assessments. In each school students were selected from standardised entry data and represented a wide range of literacy achievement from those reading well below expected levels for secondary entry to those reading well above their chronological age. While some of these students received extra reading assistance at school they were generally capable of decoding but not necessarily of making-meaning in the texts appropriate to their year level.

The questions for this assessment were developed from a science text (Hook, 1998, p84-85) and were designed such that a student could answer without needing science knowledge. The skills assessed were those that are presented in the first two stages of the chart in Table 3.

Table 3: "Literacy Strategies and Knowledge across the Secondary School Curriculum"

Using Surface Features of the Text		
At **Stage One** students will need to be able to*:*	At **Stage Two** students will need to be able to:	At **Stage Three** students will need to be able to:
Use their knowledge of text forms to make predictions about the type of information they will read; *Use text and language features to build understanding of content prior to reading in extended text.*	Use text features to cross-check information from running text and to extend understanding; Make informed decisions about and use a variety of text forms to convey specific information for a range of purposes.	Make decisions about appropriate text forms in writing; Use text features for gathering and organising information; Use text features in their writing as tools for conceptualising and thinking critically.

Reading for Deeper Understanding		
Make meaning using prior knowledge from text features; Develop their understanding of main idea etc.; Gather literal and inferred information from single sources of information.	Make meaning using supporting and supplementary information; Gather literal and inferred information from multiple sources of information.	Synthesise, analyse, evaluate and explain phenomena using literal and inferred information from multiple sources; Use a variety of text forms and features to explain and rationalise opinion, argument and explanation.
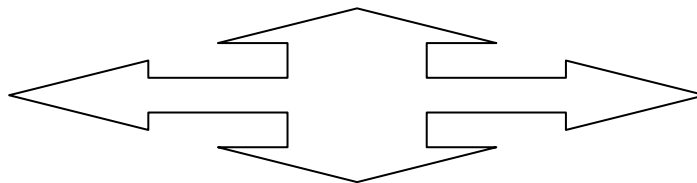
Building Vocabulary Knowledge
Make meaning in unfamiliar vocabulary using context cues (in and beyond the sentence)
Make meaning in unfamiliar vocabulary using context, grammar and morphemic knowledge
Make meaning and respond to process vocabulary e.g. explain, define, describe

Source: McDonald & Thornley, 2005

The students were asked to independently read a two page excerpt and then to orally answer questions. Table 4 below identifies the skills assessed from the scope and sequence chart with student responses listed in order from most to least proficient in terms of the use of those skills.

Table 4: "Content Area Literacy Assessment Results"

Literacy skills	Student numbers	Level of Proficiency
Using surface features to assist meaning making		
Make predictions about reading using text forms	4 13 36 4	Knowledge of form Understanding of explanation as concept not text form Content, not form No response
Make predictions about reading from text features.	24 33	Uses multiple sources e.g. information from more than one text feature Uses single source only
Integrate information from text features with running text	39 18	Uses text feature information to verify running text meaning Ignores supplementary information in text feature
Reading for deeper meaning		
Develop understanding of main idea, locate main points	4 15 22 16	Conveys meaning fully Conveys aspects of meaning Rewords information only No response
Gather literal information from a single/multiple sources	8 46 3	Makes use of multiple sources of literal information Uses single source Uses no text source
Gather inferential information from a single/multiple sources	15 37 5	Makes use of multiple sources to support inference Attempts inference using single source of information Uses no text source
Using vocabulary problem-solving strategies		
Make meaning in unfamiliar vocabulary using context	25 32	Successful use of context Unsuccessfully uses context
Make meaning in unfamiliar vocabulary using morphology	37 20	Makes morphemic connection Doesn't use morphemic connection

Source: McDonald & Thornley, 2005

In terms of the use students made of the surface features of the text only 4 students were able to provide information about an explanatory text being informational, or as having specific structural aspects or the text features. However, and like their peers who also responded to this question, no students knew how knowledge of the explanatory text form could support them as readers or writers of such texts. As a means of assessing the use of text features for prediction of content, students were asked to list the metals discussed on the pages. This was a task that required them to use information from several places in the text and only 24 of this group used more than one source. While the question asked could be seen as relatively straight forward, it is significant given the nature of secondary school texts in which information is rarely repeated across different sections. These texts rely on readers moving flexibly within and beyond

tables, diagrams, running text and across chapters to make meaning and to access information related to a task. Further, when asked to use a similar skill to complete what should be a familiar task, using glossaries to assist in the meaning making process, only 39 students were able to do so.

Students were next asked to respond to questions that would demonstrate their abilities to read for deeper meaning. Students were first asked to identify the key information contained in a statement explaining how the structure of metals caused them to be malleable and ductile. One student's response to this was typical of the four students who demonstrated a sufficient understanding to show they had made meaning independently from a reading of the whole text and a review of the identified section. This student said:

"Atoms in metals are very tightly packed in layers which gives them a high unit of mass per volume and a high density, and since the layers can slide over each other it makes it stretchy and easy to work with."

The most common response from 22 students was to reword the statement, often inaccurately:
…solid metals – the atoms in solid metals are tightly packed to make up a lattice, I don't know what that is, and it says ... that when they are packed tightly that it will give them a high density.

A further 15 students identified some aspect of the phenomenon that was explained, but as in the instance of the previous student, did not demonstrate an accurate or sufficient understanding to independently inform their content knowledge:
The metals – the atoms in the metal is all made up into different layers to make it solid.

Two further questions asked students to gather firstly, literal information and then to make an inference using some of that information. While a number of students used their background knowledge for the first question, they and their peers tended to rely on one source of information only. However, when asked to make an inference about the utility of zinc for jewellery, a task requiring information from two readily accessible tables, only 15 used the multiple sources necessary for accuracy.

As found in PISA 2000 and 2003, students undertaking this oral assessment appeared to have few difficulties decoding the vocabulary. It is argued here that the low levels of 'no response' throughout the assessment indicate that decoding skill limitations were not related to students' abilities to pronounce words, but to solving problems of meaning. Given that in the typically information rich secondary school texts, vocabulary problem solving relies on the use of context clues from beyond the sentence to the paragraph, chapter or even whole text, the context question made similar demands on the students' reading. However, the low level of student success was disconcerting given that using context as a vocabulary problem-solving strategy is taught from the outset of school literacy instruction. For example only 25 students were able to successfully draw on numerous clues to describe the meaning of the word "alloy." A typical response was that of the following student:

"Mixtures of metals?"
Int: "What makes you think that?"
"Cause it says like melting metal together with an alloy with different properties. And its like kind of like stainless steel with nickel and chromium so it sounds like its mixed together to make an alloy."

Other students, while using information from the text, responded with a "best guess" but devoid of any effective strategy usage:

"Would it be like shiny, would it make things shiny?"
Int: "How did you work that out?"
"I just guessed. Because it's got like examples and they're kind of shiny."

The use of morphemic clues which were identified as part of this assessment was more successful. It must be noted that the root word 'therm' (the assessment example) has common usage in terms of clothing and temperature-related vocabulary, so that it may have been familiar to more students than many other less well-known roots.

CONCLUSION

While it is noted that these findings relate to students who had one more year of schooling before they undertook NCEA tasks, it must also be recognised that the questions used in the assessment addressed only the first two stages of the scope and sequence chart, not those skills that would allow for success in NCEA tasks. Given that these students represented a cross section of achievement, their success rates on many of the questions was modest. Therefore, it is important to acknowledge the urgent need for literacy teaching that would assist them and others like them to develop their proficiency as independent users and writers of cross-curricular texts. Furthermore, it is argued on the basis of the above findings and as a result of the recognition that literacy demands are different across different disciplines, such instruction must be undertaken in the first instance across all secondary year levels and in all subjects of the curriculum.

While there has been an increased focus on literacy in secondary schools in recent years in New Zealand, no literacy curriculum exists and therefore planning for such teaching in a coherent and structured manner has not been achievable. On the basis of the research literature cited, and the findings of this part of their wider project, the authors are arguing for the use of a curriculum guide such as the "scope and sequence" chart. It has been demonstrated that while there are commonalities, there are also significant variations in the literacy skills necessary for success in many curriculum areas. This being the case, the scope and sequence chart provides a means to ensure coverage of literacy teaching in content areas as well as being a vehicle for supporting students' generalisation of the literacy skills taught. Further, it is suggested that such a guide would assist schools to plan across the early secondary years not only for literacy teaching that would develop students' skills and knowledge, but to focus cross-curricular professional development for teachers on the literacy demands of their content areas.

Finally, and even though New Zealand students perform comparatively well internationally, large numbers of students continue to experience little in the way of success during the secondary years. Recent reports from the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (2004) show that not are significant numbers of students lost to the system beyond year three of secondary school when students are typically 16 years of age, but that those who do stay are successful in fewer NCEA achievement standards and that their levels of achievement are low. Given that success in school and beyond relies so heavily on literacy skills, the need for the curriculum guide such as that suggested by the authors is essential as a means for holding onto and better preparing students for lives in a highly literate world.

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Cognitive and Metacognitive Writing Processes in Students of Different Educational Level

Anela Nikčević-Milković, High Teacher's School, Gospić, Croatia

The aim of this paper is to describe cognitive and metacognitive processes in the Flower and Hayes Model (1983). We also examine text quality (essays by students who are future teachers and for whom writing is a crucial ability) and how students use two most important writing strategies (planning and revising) to achieve quality. Our results show that text quality is better for students from Fourth year than students from First year (t=4.135; p<0.05). It is concluded that students from Fourth year have more practice in writing than students from First year, and that this contributed to improvement in writing. When we analyse the results graphically, we see that there isn't much different in use of writing strategies between student groups (First and Fourth year students). We see some differences in the area of planning in that Fourth year students produce better written plans than 1st year students. Focus group outcomes tell us that students know relatively little about writing processes and writing strategies. However, they showed interest in the topic, and considered knowledge of writing processes to be very useful for improving writing. They indicated that they would like to have some lectures and training in the writing process and on writing strategy use during their education.

The research we talking about is about *cognitive and metacognitive processes* in *writing* throw the *Flower and Hayes Model* (1984; Hayes & Flower, 1986; Bruning at al., 1995.). These authors conceptualise the writing process and its components. This model presents writing as *problem solving*. It comprises three main characteristics: a task environment, long-term memory and working memory. When a writer constructs a text, all of the three components are in interaction.

The *task environment* consists of two main factors: the writing assignment and a means of storing the writing. The *writing assignment* refers to the writer's framework and goals, and includes the topic, scope, and intended audience of the text. The writer's initial conception of the assignment or purpose of the writing is a crucial aspect in the writing process. The writer's initial conceptualisation determines how s/he sets up the overall writing plan and subgoals. Misconceptions about the nature, scope, or purpose of the text often produce assignment failures (Jay, 2003.).

The format of the text is used to produce *an external representation* of the assignment. This may include handwritten notes or drafts of the assignment or computer versions of it. These external formats allow the writer to view the text, and they provide a working copy on which revisions and additions can be made. The ability to generate an external representation reduces demands on long-term memory for information about the assignment (Jay, 2003.).

Writing relies on two major resources in long-term memory: knowledge about the topic under discussion and knowledge about how readers respond to text. Writers need to know general strategies, such as what kinds of writing techniques work best under a given set of circumstances, how to structure an argument, how to create suspense, or how to get the reader emotionally involved with the text. A writer also needs to know a large number of facts and ideas about the subject of the writing assignment. Subject matter knowledge requires a sufficient level of prior familiarity with the topic under construction, either through reading about topic and related matters or by participating in the actual experiences that constitute the topic. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987.) suggested that with increasing experience at writing, better writers raise the difficulty level of writing by changing from a simple reproduction of the facts (*a knowledge-telling approach),* to one that involves more complex reformulation of the facts (*a knowledge-transformation approach*). Knowledge transformation produces better documents than knowledge telling when writing time is held constant. Long-term memory is essential to writing, and so is the manner in which it is used to improve writing (Jay, 2003.).

There are numerous demands on *working memory* during the writing processes. Writers must cope with several competing sources of information regarding planning, translating, and reviewing of ideas.

Failure to balance the competing memory demands can cause writing difficulties, which interfere with the writer's overall writing plan. Thus writing failures may be predicted on flawed information processing as much as on poor compositional skills. Kellogg (1987) used *a workload hypothesis* to suggest that better writers should exert less effort during writing than poor writers who have less topic knowledge. Better writers can allocate less time and effort to text generation and devote the time gained to revising, where it is of greater utility.

The planning process refers to the process for generating and organizing information for the text. Writers must conceptualize a plan, which includes an overall goal and subgoals to be achieved with the text. The overall format of the text must be conceptualized along with the substages or outline of the overall text. Writers have to plan a text sequence (chronological order) and the steps within the sequence.

The generation process is difficult for many writers. Here is where the writer must produce ideas to be laid out as sentences and paragraphs. A writer needs to focus on the topic and not wander in thought, as well as have the motivation to stick to the physical task of writing itself. The ideas the writer generates for the text may originate from information in long-term memory or from searching for new information through reading, collecting data, or synthesizing bits of information. The ideas must undergo a translation process from the writer's long-term memory to the text under construction. The translation process requires the writer to convert his or her ideas into meaningful and grammatically correct sentences. Powerful ideas must be translated into equally compelling text. The translation process draws on the writer's knowledge of words, sentence types, and paragraph structures.

The review process forces the writer to revisit the text that has been externally stored. After some text has been constructed, the writer can monitor and evaluate what has been produced and make revisions. The quality of the text will reflect the writer's understanding of what makes a piece of writing good or not. Qualities like cohesion, clarity, conciseness, reference, vocabulary, and discourse processes are important. Reviewing the text requires that it be revised on the outcomes of the monitoring and evaluation stages. The revision process is difficult for some writers because it forces them to destroy or change existing external representations on which thought and labour have already been expended. Writers learn that revision produces improved text (Jay, 2003.).

Editing will help almost any piece of writing, but not all writers' attempts at editing are equal. *Poor writers* focus on making mechanical changes, whereas *good writers* pay more attention to the overall message and content of the text. Mechanical changes which poor writers make have little consequence of the overall presentation. Changing the minor details of a text does not improve problems in its overall structure.

What differentiates a *good writer* from a poor one is not intelligence, academic achievement, or the motivation to write (Benton, Kraft, Glover & Plake, 1984; Jay, 2003.). Differences in ability are a matter of how writers use the components and processes of writing. What has emerged in the research about writing is that good and poor writers differ in their reading, amount of writing, information processing, planning, and organizational skills. Most researches indicate that good and poor writers differ on how these components are used. Carey at all (1989) found that good writer understand like *rhetorical problems* determined by topics, goals and public. Good writers are better at reading text as writers (Benton at all, 1984.). Good writers give more attention to the ideas than to the mechanical characteristics of the text. Usually, there have more practice in writing. Before they write, good writers' attention is allocated to the processes and to collecting documentary sources and organising their own ideas. Poor writers usually don''t make an outline before writing, which is the one of the most important strategies for text quality. Poor writers are the knowledge tellers. This contrasts with good writers who can be described as knowledge structurers. Good writers spend much of the writing process revising text. They revise semantic meaning of text more than mechanical mistakes (Flower at all, 1986.). In the process of making text, good writers change strategies easily depending on the needs of the text. Good writers are usually good readers, too.

The *goal of our research* was to examine text quality (i.e., the quality of an essay on a problem topic for students who are future teachers). It was recognised that writing is one of the most important abilities for their profession. The other goal was to examine use of two most important writing strategies for text quality – planning and revising.

METHODS

In our research we have two problems: to examine text quality of students at different year levels (First and Fourth year); and to examine use of two strategies, planning and revising, in the texts of two different student years (at these year levels). Subjects were students of two high schools in Croatia (one is in Gospić and one is in Zadar). Our sample was 124 students. We proceeded in three stages. First, students have to read a science text about pupil's estimation in numeric or descriptive ways. After students had read the text they had to think about what they knew related to the topic, and about their own views on the different estimation strategies used by pupils. In the second stage, students had to write an essay about numerical and descriptive estimation in primary school pupils. In the third stage, students completed a questionnaire about their use of two most important strategies for text quality. They then had to estimate how these strategies influenced the quality of their own texts also.

RESULTS

Student's essays were scored by three independent reviewers. Each rate estimated scores at three levels: the reproductive level, the applied level and evaluative, analytic or synthetic level. In other words, each reviewer has to estimate each text on some of the three levels. Correlations between the reviewers were between 0.31 and 0.45. A t-test between a overall text quality for students of 1.st year and students of 4.th year was significant (t=4.135; p<0.05). Hence, overall text quality was higher for students of Fourth year.

To answer on second problem we are showing percentages of First and Fourth students using two strategies.

GRAPH 1: Making plans on separate paper from the essay for students of 1st and 4th year

GRAPH 2: Revising on text for students of 1st and 4th year

GRAPH 3: Estimation for planing or not for studenta of 1 st and 4 th year

GRAF 4: Estimation of planing time for different year students
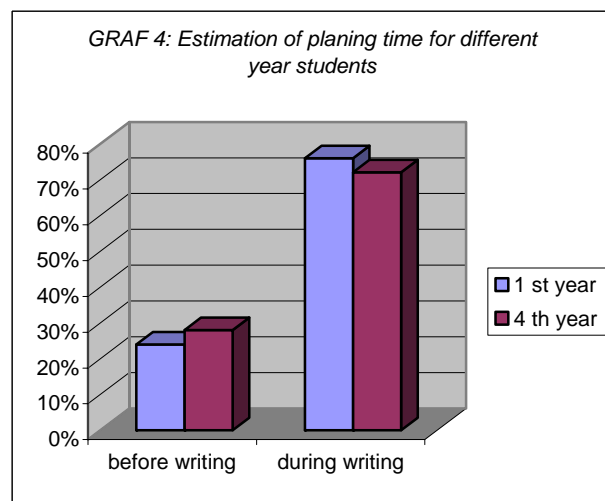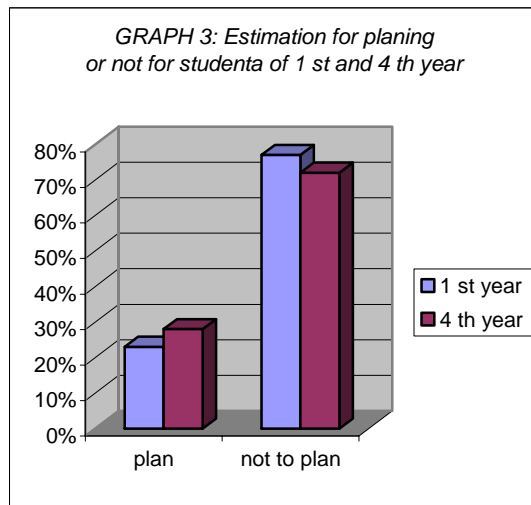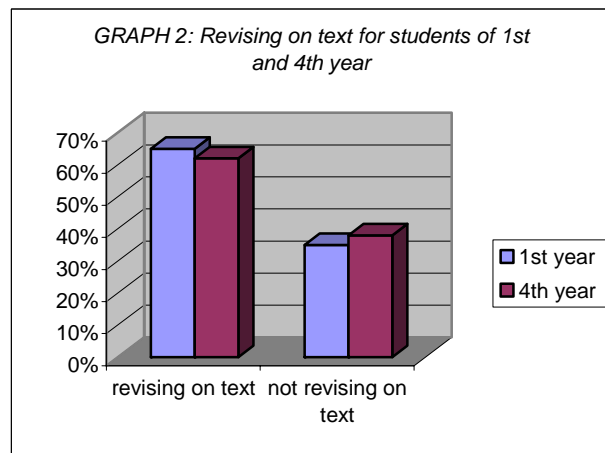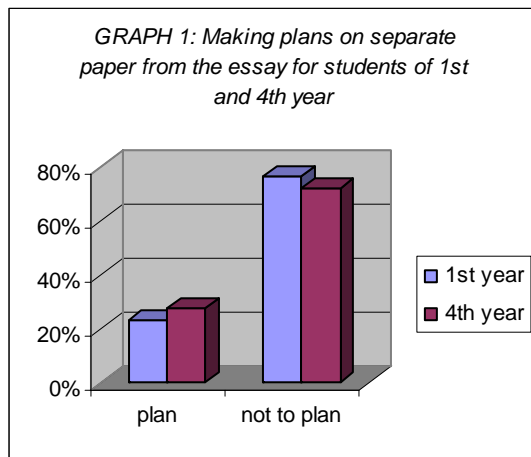
GRAF 5: Estimaton where students make plains for students of 1 st and 4th year

on paper in head

1 st year
4 th year

90%
80%
70%
60%
50%
40%
30%
20%
10%
0%
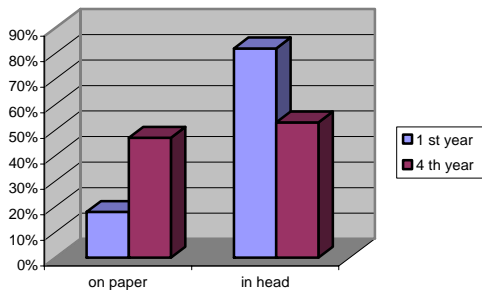
GRAPH 6. Estimation does planing improve text quality for students of 1st nad 4th year.

yes no

1 st year
4 th year

60%
50%
40%
30%
20%
10%
0%
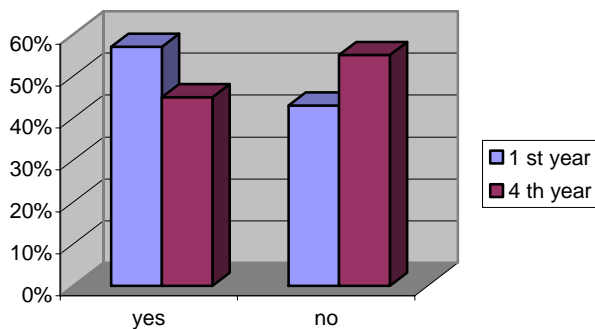
GRAPH 7: Estimation of how many time students spent in planning for 1st and 4th year students.

little enought

1 st year
4 th year

100%
80%
60%
40%
20%
0%
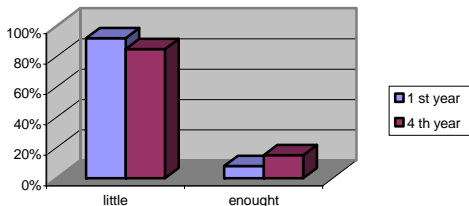
GRAPH 8: Estimation of revising text for students of 1st and 4th year.

yes, revise no, not revise

1st year
4th year

80%
60%
40%
20%
0%
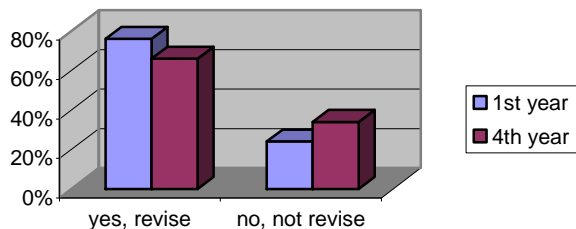
GRAPH 9: Estimation of when students revise text for 1st and 4th year students.

during writing after writing

1st year
4th year

100%
80%
60%
40%
20%
0%
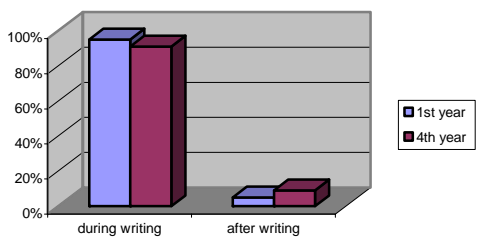
GRAPH 10: Estimation does revising improve quality of the text for students of 1st and 4th year.

yes,improve no,not improve quality

1st year
4th year

80%
60%
40%
20%
0%
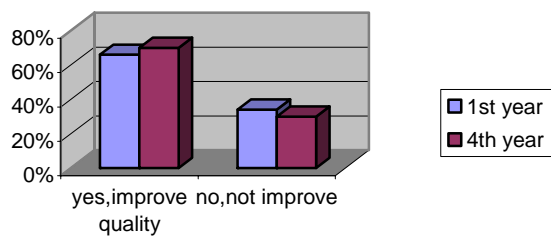
GRAPH 11: Estimation how many time students spent for revising text for 1st and 4th students year.

malo dosta

1.g.
4.g.

100%
80%
60%
40%
20%
0%
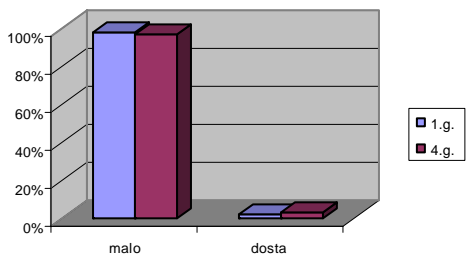
GRAPH 12: Estimation which kind of mistakes students revise more for 1st and 4th students year.

sadržajne pogreške mehaničke pogreške

1.g.
4.g.

80%
60%
40%
20%
0%

136
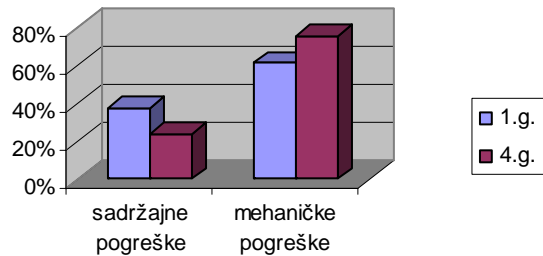
DISCUSSION

By examining the results we can make some tentative conclusions. The quality of students' essay writing improves from First to Fourth year. Improvement isn't the result of knowing how to use writing strategies better. It's probably result of additional writing practice (writing exams, writing seminars, writing plans and programs for the teaching processes, plans for different projects, etc.) during the students years at school. Nobody on the teaching faculty about cognitive processes in writing, which writing strategies they should use and how they can use them for better writing results. The author of this paper thinks that pupils in primary and secondary schools also do not get enough information about this topic in the course of language classes. From the graphs summarising use of writing strategies, we can see that students use planning and revising strategies but not in the most useful way for the best text quality. We can see some improvement in use of planning strategies on paper from First to Fourth year. Probably, students admit unconsciously that making plans or drafts help them to write different kind of texts. This conclusion was reaffirmed in the context of a focus group discussion. Students said that they have not hear about cognitive processes and writing strategies before their professor's lectures about cognitive processes in writing and writing strategy usage (a lecture from the author of this paper). Students said that some of them use the strategies under discussion in intuitive ways, but didn't realise that the strategies could help them with their writing processes. Students' writing strategy use sometimes was by 'trail and error' method and final results from this method meant that strategy use wasn't always appropriate. Students showed much interest in the topic. They think that this knowledge is very important for their profession and for general knowledge also.

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The Image of the Adolescent Reader

Zofia Zasacka, National Library of Poland, Warsaw, Poland

The main purpose of this study was to examine the reading experiences of students leaving the last common, obligatory level of the education. I tried to determine: are reading books is important for teenagers?. The study observed adolescents towards the end of compulsory schooling. It provided insights into segments of the cohort that did not have cultural habits or competencies, which are prerequisite for participation in social, cultural, political and economic activities throughout their life.

I put the question, in this age of pluralism in education, and in the presence of mass and popular culture and other institutions of socializing influence, does the school manage to transmit some kind of canon? If so, what part of national culture it is? What is the common field of symbolic experience taken from book reading?

This presentation is based on the outcome of national survey conducted on the representative sample of 15-16-years-old teenagers from 70 schools in Poland. There were 1396 students involved. The questionnaire was administered during one lesson, towards the end of Third year in grammar school. The topic of interest were the attitudes of grammar school students towards reading books. First, we have to characterize the object of the study. These students are the rising generation in their late school age and adolescence. That means it is a difficult time for them – an adolescence crisis – as they experience increased emotional incitement, unstable emotions, intensification of reactions. All these problems especially concern boys. Adolescence is a transitional period between childhood and youth; it's a process of creating social personality under influence of environmental constraints as the individual works out new forms of adaptation. It is a phase when moral, social, ethic, esthetic, and patriotic feelings evolve very intensively. New intellectual needs arise, critical thinking develops. But these are years of anxiety and uncertainty which go with learning new social identities and roles. Social roles were simply defined in childhood; now everything is changing; there are new tasks as adolescents seek to verify previous experiences and embark on ego integration. According to psychologist Erik H. Erikson, it's a stage of crisis of self-identity and period it's a period of redefinition. It's a process of reintegration of self and adaptation to new social expectations. In this phase, teenagers ask the questions: Who am I? Whom I will be in future? They have to choose a new school, a new educational route, which often decides of their future.

The problem explored in this study is, how does reading books, as participation in symbolic communication, fulfill teenagers' needs? What kind of existential, social questions have they? In this paper I would like to present the picture of the current Polish adolescent reader. I focus on the main categories which differentiate students' attitudes toward reading books. Hence this analysis is based on correlation between socio-demographic attributes of surveyed teenagers and their reading activities. In the beginning I would like to present some crucial outcome relevant to reading activities of surveyed teenagers.

READING PRACTICES

Only a few persons declared that they don't read at all. 99% of surveyed teenagers declared reading whatever they could: papers, magazines, school books, books for pleasure. An important context for reading books, which is our main issue, is the popular press. 7% of all students didn't read newspapers, 55% did so irregularly, 33% regularly. But 4% of young people reported that they did not read newspapers or books, even at school.

Reading for Pleasure

We asked subjects if they did read books in their leisure time during last 6 months and separately if they read books as part of compulsory school activities. Seventy-two percent of all 15-years-olds reached for a book just for a pleasure, in addition to their school duties and without advice from their teachers. That means that one-quarter of students near the end of grammar school lacked the inclination or interest to read on their own for enjoyment.

In the group of readers for pleasure, one in ten are occasional readers (they reported reading only one book), one in three read 2-3 books, and one in five (described here as 'active readers') mentioned more than 9 titles of books read. The socio-demographic position shows differences in book reading by students in their leisure time. Among readers who decided to read book(s) of their own choice, we can find more girls – 82% in comparison to 62% boys. This suggests that, during adolescence, girls are much more eager to participate in a writing culture. Detailed characteristic of read books would help us to guess what they are looking for in those books.

There is a higher percentage of readers for pleasure among children of persons with university education (80%, business persons and those owning their own firm (82%), and those working in public institutions (78%). The number of leisure readers decrease visibly if one of the parents, mainly father, is unemployed (65%) or if they are farmers (67%). The same patterns hold for frequency of reading. The percentage of more active readers increases with the level of parental education. The place where one lives is a less important factor differentiating reading practices.

Reading Books as a School Duty

Three-quarters of Polish high school students declared reading books as a requirement by their Polish language teachers. That means that one-quarter of Polish students, as they prepare for a competency test at the end of compulsory education, avoid reading, and effectively resign from participation in literature. If there is no other institution of cultural socialization, they loose the chance to learn the code of high culture, to learn to understand belle lettre. Those students loose the opportunity to become motivated in reading and understanding certain more complicated and difficult texts and to develop critical thinking. They decline to participate in the transfer of values during the literature education. They exclude themselves from some parts of social communication; hence they reject the possibility to participate properly in social life. Social groups, which can communicate with the code of high culture, become unfamiliar for them and they can feel like outsiders and strangers in such a world.

A large proportion of students (47%) declared that they read 4-5 books recommended by teacher. One in five read just one title. Just 7%, the most motivated readers, read more than 5 titles. The others read two or three.

We asked students about their school reading habits over the previous three years. Eleven percent admitted that they hadn't read obligatory school readings. The schools were unsuccessful in engaging this group of teenagers in literary education. The students did not enjoy access to high culture, and to a transfer of Polish and world cultural heritage. They were excluded from predominant culture, and didn't achieve basic cultural competence.

One group that may not be very different from them are those who read only one book (7%). The variable which differentiates among those completing different levels of required reading is gender. Girls were better again. Eighty-seven percent of schoolgirls read their school readings, but only 67% of schoolboys! And girls declared reading more books as well.

THREE TYPES OF READERS

Taking in to account the criterion of two kinds of reading activities: during and outside school duties, I distinguished three groups of readers: spontaneous readers, school readers and active readers.

The Spontaneous Readers

Spontaneous readers they are those who during the previous six months read books only for pleasure, by their own choice, beyond school duties, but they avoided reading books recommended by school. They didn't read when they had to. There were twice as many boys in that group. One-fifth of all boys had their own reading interests but avoided reading obligatory texts recommended by the school. It confirms that resistance to school duties is much stronger among boys than girls.

The group of spontaneous readers is very differentiated. There are some young people with precise interests, not necessarily with low competences, having relatively good living standards, yet they contested school readings. On the other hand, there are those who are neglected by they social

environment, who live in difficult situations, and so read little, and virtually nothing recommended by the school.

School Readers

School readers are those 15-year olds who didn't have their own reading interests. They read only books recommended by the school. School is the only institution which addresses their reading choices. They read only when they have to do so. School failed to accomplish one of its basic goals – creating the need to read and the motivation to support reading. School and other socialization institutions such as family, church, youth organizations and mass-media, couldn't develop the hobbies or interests which could be fulfilled in a writing culture. School readers are teenagers with narrow, passive participation in symbolic culture. They are not curious enough to try to understand the world through reading books or to relax during reading. They even don't participate in mass culture like lots of their classmates do. School readers comprise 17% of all surveyed teenagers.

More boys are 'school readers' than girls (the difference is 4%). There were more teenagers from families of the lowest socio-economic status, students who had less leisure time because of travel to school (20%) and a need to help at home and on the family farm (22%). Some had a poor material standards of life, lacking, for example, a computer at home.

Just 10% of 'school readers' lived in the biggest cities. In such places there is easier access to books, especially to popular culture; hence young people more often reached for a book on their own. And the smallest proportion of such readers came from families of higher social status.

Active Readers

Active readers are those teenagers who read books in both situations: during their leisure time and as a school duty. Fifty-eight percent of those surveyed were classified as active readers. A little more than half of all Polish 15-year olds participate in different sources of the writing culture and they are under the influence of the school and other institutions which could develop their cultural competences. Detailed analysis of their reading choices will tell us to what kind of culture they belonged: high, popular or other. The active readers – who are they? Mostly girls – 72%, only 43% are boys. As we see again, gender is the main variable associated with differences in reading habits among adolescent readers. Looking at the place of living of surveyed students, the largest number of active readers were in big towns (101-500 inhabitants) - 63%. The highest percentage of active readers were among student who parents had university education (79%), or were businessmen or members of the professions (77%). On the other side the smallest number of active readers were among children of unemployed parents, (42%), parents with primary education (42%), and belonging to farmers families (53%). Among students who used the computer or watched television for more than 5 hours daily, just one-third were active readers.

ATTITUDES TOWARD BOOKS READING

A Positive Attitude towards Reading

Adolescents aged 15-16 years have not yet developed stable attitudes, suggesting that emotional, evaluative, cognitive and behavioral dispositions towards certain tasks and objects are still developing. We can only assume that there will be some relation between these and dispositions that emerge in later life.

In relation to teenagers' attitudes towards reading books, I simply asked them: Do you like reading? A positive answer to a such question can, to some extend, tell us more about acceptance of socially approved values or about conformity than about real emotional state. Then the answer "Difficult to say" may be given, despite indifference or hesitation, and could reflect a reluctance to say "no". A negative response such as "No, I don't like to read" might be more authentic.

Half of surveyed youth population declared that they liked reading, 18% that didn't, and 32% couldn't reach a decision. Forty-six percent of girls liked reading and only 15% of boys did so. The proportions disliking reading were 29% (boys) and 6% (girls). Proportionately more children of parents with higher education tended to like reading.

Book Recommendations

Emotional, evaluative and cognitive aspect of youth attitudes toward reading books is described by the information taken from answers on question about eagerness and competence in recommending books to friend. There are more teenagers who could recommend books, than those who liked reading: 59% offered a recommendation, 16% didn't , and one-quarter ¼ couldn't make decision. Only a handful of girls didn't recommend a book. One-quarter of boys did not. The location of teenagers' parents on the social scale was also linked to the likelihood that a recommendation would be offered. The lowest percentage of 15-years olds recommending books come from unemployed families (42%), families in which parents were pensioners (59%), and farming families (54%); the highest were from families with professionals or business persons.

Involved Readers

There is a fourth type of readers: the involved reader. These are those teenagers who have positive attitudes toward reading books. They have certain competencies relevant to reading books; they are inclined to adopt a positive attitude towards reading them, and are likely to pursue their own reading interest. Involved readers seem to satisfy three conditions: they are active readers (they read books imposed by school and their own books); they acknowledge that they are fond of reading; and the can recommend a book to a friend. Reading is an activity which evokes positive emotions in them. Who are they?

There are three times more girls than boys: 46% to 15%. It seems that male students in ninth grade are more likely to resist spontaneous reading. They may be described as rebels of the writing culture. Reading attitudes are associated with other factors. The proportion of heavy readers rises with parental education, and with social status. For example, 22% of students whose farther was unemployed are heavy readers, while 47% of students whose parents are in the professions can be described in this way.

READING STYLES OF TEENAGERS

The findings of the research described thus far related to the reading attitudes of 15-years-olds. They showed visible disparities among those surveyed. I have brought together observed tendencies to build models of the ways in which teenagers read. The demonstrated styles of reading are not independent of each other. These models show the dominant aspects of reading activity based on socio-demographic factors. These styles prove how participation in symbolic culture, of which one form is reading books, is distinctly formed by the social environment. Neglected at at-risk groups, resistant to school and to the prevailing culture were identified. It was also shown how youth reading depends on adolescent stage needs.

Reading in the Countryside

This style of reading refers to reading attitudes of teenagers living in the countryside, mainly in farmer families. Parents of those young people got the lowest degree of education as well. These 15-year-olds had the worst access to books: their households had the smallest collections of books, they reported buying the smallest number of books, most of them were dependent on public libraries, mainly poor ones at school. They had less leisure time, being occupied helping family at work on the farm.

The reading activities of these readers were comparably weak, not intensive. Only half of teenagers from such families were the active readers. Their reading preferences in their leisure time were functional. Books had to be practical sources of certain kinds of knowledge and information, useful in every day life or more scientific. They preferred nonfiction or popularized scientific literature. They reported that good reading depended on educational and cognitive values. They took less interested in reading for leisure or entertainment. They read the fewest numbers of books covering popular literature, including romantic, criminal and sensational novels. The reading was ruled by pragmatic philosophy of life. For reading in the countryside, the school was the authority and the source of respected value, where reading was concerned. School books were read quite diligently and mostly recommended.

Reading in the Big Cities

Reading in big cities helps to fulfill a need for entertainment and play. It refers to values created by modern culture, especially its popular version. In this case the most important form of fulfillment (i.e.,

a need for amusement) is met by participation in a culturally created unreal world. It means an escape from everyday life into reality of a substitute, intensive experiences. Reading in this style is guided by the individual's choices, or those of his/her colleagues. Schools have somewhat less of a say. Instead, the influence of mass culture is most visible.

Readers from big cities – more than 100,000 inhabitants –most often neglected school reading duties, and restrict themselves to spontaneous reading. They chose world of magic and frightening mystery, thrill and dynamic action and incredible adventures, romances and detective stories. They don't look for moral or practical advice in their readings, but mainly for entertainment. Classic literature was dull and difficult for them; only school could made them to reach for it.

Among readers with this style, we find some contracts: a large number of weak readers, readers who didn't like school books, and, in contrast, involved readers.
In that group were students with reach home libraries and those with a few books at their household. Both of them didn't use public library very often.

Reading in the Intelligentsia's Style

Representatives of the intelligentsia's style read the biggest number of books, both school-related and self-selected. They had their own favorite books, and could recommend books to other students. They were involved readers.

Their reading preferences were very rich and differentiated. They read everything from books about adventure, novels (especially girls), popular literature, mainly fantasy, bestsellers, modern novels for adults, Polish and foreign classic literature, poetry and dramas, nonfiction, and scientific books. Entertainment and amusement were the values defining successful reading. The readers with this style could evaluate artistic and formal virtues of novels read. They appreciated those features of literature which developed the reader's imagination – the sense of humor and the language. Utilitarian qualities were less important. The teenagers reading in this way could live anywhere, but mostly in the big towns. The crucial factor was the social status of their parents. At least one parent had attained a university education. Parents were in the professions, they owned their own business, or they worked in public institutions. They had the best access to books, because they could afford to buy books they wanted, and had big libraries at home. They enjoyed the support of their families, especially the mother. Family members provided good role models as they engaged in reading. Homes had their own libraries. It seemed that students with this style inherited patterns of participation in the high culture.

The Female Fans of Reading

The female fans of reading books could live anywhere, but more often in the small and medium towns. They often came from clerks' families; their mothers frequently worked at public institutions; parents had attained at least secondary education. These female readers were involved in reading. They: read a lot during their leisure time and in school lessons. They were fond of doing it. They had favorite books and liked to talk about them. Recommendations for books were supported by recalling ethic and educational-cognitive values. They had quite high cultural competence and certain reading interests. First of all they preferred fiction, from both artistic and popular literature, romances, novels mainly those for girls, and novels dealing with youth drug addiction problems. They were looking for advice on how to cope with their problems with a parents, with classmates, boyfriends, first loves. They chose different kinds of nonfiction as well. These girls were very interested in new issues, bestsellers by their favorite authors and published series.

Reading as a Hobby

Reading as a hobby belongs to boys who have precise and defined interests and who find readings corresponding with their interests. They are at an age when teenagers often have fascinations with certain kind of music, sport (skiing, fishing, bird watching), disciplines of knowledge (history, computers, astrology, an so on), or some very specialized hobby like car tuning, dog-fancying, or airplane construction. These boys could live anywhere. They are from different social environments. They have differing reading habits, and may be active or weak readers.

There were boys too who had literary hobbies. They had favorite types of books, very often fantasy. They read several books by one author – Terry Pratchett, Tolkien, Andrzej Sapkowski, Stephen King., or comic books and texts about strategic games. These boys used computer a lot. They sometimes read sensational and detective novels (authors: Follet, Mac Lean, Grisham, Forsyth). The value of good book for them are connected with entertainment; such books involve action and suspense.

Lifelong Learners:
Literate Women Explore their Learning Paths

Sara Ann Beach, USA; Angela Ward, Canada; Mary Melvin, USA; Sapargul Mirseitova, Kazakhstan, and Maria Malikova, Slovakia

The research reported in this paper is grounded in the notion that each of us continues to develop a sense of being literate (Heath, 1991) as a member of different communities of practice (Wenger, 1998). A sense of being literate is composed of one's personal theory of literacy and one's literate identity (Young & Beach, 1997). Our interest was in the literate identity of these women, key to their understanding of lifelong learning. A person's literate identity is a personal view of one's own set of literate attributes, including a sense of one's own competence as literate person in a specific context, a sense of one's role as a literate individual in one's own personal and professional world, and one's own relationships with others in a literate society (Young & Beach, 1997). The women whose literate lives have been documented in this study come from Kazakhstan, the United States, Canada and Slovakia. Their personal histories exemplify lifelong learning in a range of sociocultural contexts.

LIFELONG LEARNING

In the research literature, the notion of lifelong learning is often equated with or used synonymously with the terms 'adult education' or 'adult learning'. This view of lifelong learning has been identified by Schugurensky and Myers (2003) as the normative dimension of the concept. They assert that this view uses 'lifelong learning' to guide the development of educational policy. In this view people can be looked on as human capital and lifelong learning can be seen primarily as an economic strategy (Tuijnman, 2003), particularly in the current global knowledge economy. Lifelong learning is viewed as professional development and an extension of the workplace (Tight, 1998). It is market oriented, aimed at the changing needs of the economy. Schugurensky and Myers (2003) believe that this view can take one of two forms. From this economic perspective, lifelong learning is the responsibility of the learner; learning is seen a commodity, and independent providers are necessary so individuals can "shop around". An alternative view is that lifelong learning can be transformative and emancipatory, and that learners should be supported in their negotiations to change life contexts, work conditions, and learning contexts.

The second dimension of lifelong learning, Schugurensky and Myers (2003) assert, is the ontological view. According to this view, learning continues throughout one's lifetime, usually in a variety of different spaces both inside and outside of educational institutions. Strain (1998) saw learning as caring service and believed that there was a reflexive relationship between a person's life and their behaviors. This view looks at learning as systemic throughout the lifetime (King, 1999). Learning then, is seen as an outcome of the self rather than leading to economic goals.

Our framework for lifelong learning is grounded in this second perspective, the ontological view. Like Schurgurensky and Myers (2003), we see lifelong learning as both a social process and a social practice. It is a social process in that it occurs as part of a social setting and with the involvement of others, either intentionally or unconsciously. It is a social practice in that like literacy practices, it is purposeful, meaningful, and contains both the tacit and explicit (Wenger, 1998). As such it occurs in formal, non-formal, and informal settings (Schurgurensky & Myers, 2003; Tuijnman, 2003). As such, lifelong learning leads to outcomes that are in the self as opposed to for the workplace, although that may

also occur. Stehlik (2003) calls this learning from life, which leads to questioning the self and one's own understanding of the world to make meaning of it. This meaning making, Stehlik continues, leads to continual identity formation. We would posit that lifelong learning, using literacy, supports the dynamic and changing nature of a literate identity.

METHODOLOGY

The tensions that have existed since the 19th century in Western thought between 'science' and 'art' remain alive in current discussions of educational research. Bruner (1996) describes these oppositions as springing from 'different conceptions of the mind itself' (p. 1), but ultimately reconcilable within education, where both logico-scientific knowledge and other ways of knowing complement each other. Bruner notes (p. 42), that 'it is only in the narrative mode that one can construct an identity and find a place in one's culture'. In an era where funding agencies call for 'evidence-based research', qualitative methodologies have a role in explorations of culture and identity. In this view, narrative is more than capturing vignettes of teacher practice.

The possibilities of narrative in capturing 'the situated complexities of teachers' work' (Lyons & LaBoskey, 2002, p. 15) are appealing, but narrative inquiry as a methodology requires that researchers and participants *interrogate* narrated experience at all stages of the research. This implies intense critical literacy during the interview process, shared interpretation of interview transcripts, and in biographical work, careful investigation of historical and social contexts.

Narrative inquiry supports the exploration of personal and professional identities, and involves researchers, participants and potential readers in interpretation and construction of meaning and knowledge. Crites (1986) notes that narrative has the potential to artistically bridge the gap between past and present selves, and help construct a coherent identity for the participant.

Life history recognizes that our multiple identities interact in different social domains. Stories told as part of life histories provide 'evidence to show how individuals negotiate their identities" (Goodson & Sikes, 2001, p. 2). The narratives of life history enable researchers to explore relationships between culture, social structure and individual lives. The life history approach usually means that the stories offered through interview or written pieces are contextualized through other artifacts (documents or photographs, for instance) provided by the participant. The interdisciplinary nature of this field is evident in the closely related literary traditions of memoir and biography. The research described in this paper uses a combination of different narrative methodologies.

Procedures

The five women purposefully selected for this study were known to the authors through shared work in international projects; three of them are the focus of this paper. The participants were all influential in education in their own countries, involved in reform efforts at local or national levels. We conducted an average of three semi-structured interviews with each of the five women in the study; the conversational interviews ranged between two and four hours each, and were all conducted in English (not their mother tongue for two women in the group). All interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. The researchers worked together on organizing the interview transcripts, first putting them together as chronologically organized narrative summaries (Wengraf, 2001, p. 268), then identifying aspects of the women's lives that exemplified lifelong learning.

Researchers' role

We as researchers are clearly present in our study. This presence is a topic of debate in the field of narrative research. Much early narrative writing in education set out primarily to honour the voices of participants. In our research this is an important element, but we also acknowledge our roles in constructing the narratives and their interpretation. In this study we construct ourselves as 'minor characters' (Chiseri-Strater, 1996, p. 126), mindful of the balance between our own voices and those of our participants.

THE STORIES

S. M.

Sapargul's Kazakhstan was established as a republic of the USSR following the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia in 1917. During Sapargul's lifetime, Kazak people had been a minority (45%) in their own homeland. Sapargul grew up in a bilingual Kazak/Russian family and community; her family chose to have her educated at Russian schools because of their greater potential in preparing students for postsecondary education. When her father died young, Sapargul went to boarding school in Almaty, where she became interested in learning other languages. Her family thought it strange that she wanted to learn English, but she persisted. She wasn't immediately accepted at university after high school, so worked in a library and a factory before going back to study English grammar. Sapargul eventually studied in Moscow at the Institute of World Languages, and on returning to teach university classes in Almaty became instrumental in educational innovation in language teaching. In the 1990s, as society became more open in Kazakhstan, Sapargul took up an opportunity to complete an MEd in secondary education in the US, and was also part of an exchange program where she worked with Walter Kintsch in Colorado. As part of a later Fulbright fellowship she worked with Ken and Yetta Goodman at the University of Arizona. During this time she became coordinator of the Reading and Writing for Critical Thinking project in Kazakhstan, building on her prior experiences in constructivist learning and strategic teaching.

Sapargul has been the driving force in Kazakhstan for the dissemination of the principles of active teaching and learning, critical thinking, and democratic educational practices, first through the Soros Center for Democratic Education and then the Kazakhstan Reading Association, of which she is Director. This association has launched a series of national conferences, and established an ambitious publications program.

M. M.

Mary was born at home on a farm in Ohio, USA. Her father raised tobacco, potatoes, and occasional other income crops as well as livestock. She remembers reading books from the Georgetown library and her involvement in 4-H projects of sewing and cooking. It seems to Mary that there was never a time when she didn't know how to read. She loved going to school so much that weekends sometimes seemed boring in comparison! She remembers attending the Latin Club at Walnut Hills High School—as well as taking typing, stenography, and business English.

Immediately after high school graduation, Mary moved to an apartment with four other young women in Dayton, Ohio where she began work as a secretary. It soon became clear to her that this was not what she really wanted to do, so she enrolled at Miami University to study elementary education. She started teaching in a third grade classroom and after one year of teaching decided to finish a 4-year degree. After several years teaching she applied to graduate school at the University of Michigan, studying international education. Her interests in travel led her to teach and travel in Europe for several years before she took a position as a teacher in the McGuffey Laboratory School at Miami University. She was thrilled to be working in a university environment, and especially enjoyed having other adults in and out of her classroom seeking information, asking questions, and trying to figure out how teaching worked.

Within a year of teaching at the lab school, Mary enrolled in a graduate course about individualized reading. This is only one example of how she was actively learning all the time.... about reading, about teaching mathematics, about group interaction, about students and the library.

At one point, Mary took a leave of absence from her university position to teach at the American International School in Prague. After her completion of a doctoral program at the University of Wisconsin, she was offered a position working with the National Elementary Education Association (NEEA) in California, and continued her connection with that state through consultancy work. Subsequently, Mary taught methods courses to preservice teachers, as well as workshops in the US, Mexico, Puerto Rico and Luxembourg. She also spent time studying education in London. After her

'official' early retirement, Mary became involved in student teacher supervision in Europe, as well as the Orava project in Slovakia and the Reading and Writing for Critical Thinking Project in a number of countries in Eastern Europe. She found it to be just "plain fun" to work with 150 like-minded educators representing 30 or more countries in one of the most awe-inspiring, enriching events of her life. Traveling to places where she can see a new part of the world as well as learn new ideas and meet with educator friends from around the globe is still one of Mary's highest priorities.

M. M.

M. M. was born in 1930 to a family of small farmers in a village in the southwest of the Czechoslovak Republic. There was no electricity in the region at that time; the life of most villagers was very difficult, as many were unemployed and could only earn their living as field workers at home and abroad. Her parents had just enough land to support their family of three children.

Maria started her schooling at the age of 6 in the two-room village school. After the fourth grade she continued at junior high school—the classical grammar school. She daily walked 5 kilometers to school and back home. Passing school-leaving exams with honors in 1948 allowed her to continue studies at the university. She enrolled in Comenius University in Bratislava, studying French and English. In 1949 the Communist Party prohibited the study of more than one 'western' language, so she gave up French and continued studying English from scratch. After completing her master's diploma in teaching she taught English at secondary schools for 16 years, concurrently studying Russian by distance education, gaining a master's degree. During this time she married and had three children.

In 1968, Maria took a position in the teacher training college in Nitra, a first step towards establishing a training program for teachers of English. Postgraduate studies in the USA and completion of her PhD in Prague put her in a pre-eminent position in teacher education in post-Soviet Slovakia. She notes that the main aim of her long professional career was to improve the teaching and learning of foreign languages, which she considers crucially important for citizens of a small nation in the globalized world.

INTERPRETATION: THE WOMEN AS LIFELONG LEARNERS

In both our questioning and interpretation, we were looking for illustrations of literacy learned and experienced, as well as specific examples of lifelong learning.

First, all of these women were curious—curious about the world, about why the world and their particular place within it functioned the way it did, curious to find out more about topics of interest to them. All three women travelled outside their own countries, Maria and Sapargul to the US, and Mary to many places in Europe, at a time when this was not accepted practice for women to travel alone. The women also saw opportunities and took them; as such they were risk-takers. Mary took on work at the laboratory school, Maria and Sapargul applied to exchange programs that took them away from their familiar educational contexts. They weren't afraid to take advantage of an opportunity that presented itself, and they often stepped beyond the offered opportunity to take advantage of all that they could.

They were hard workers, expending effort in their learning, often studying while working full time at something else. They used their continual learning to improve the world, especially for children. All three made explicit statements about their motivations, which might seem idealistic, but clearly drove them to keep learning. It wasn't just learning for learning's sake, but learning to make the world, however small or large their sphere of influence, a place where children would have better opportunities.

Lifelong learning for these women also seemed to include an understanding of one's role in the world. Finally, lifelong learning for these women included facilitating the learning of others. They were unafraid to take leadership in their piece of the world nor were they afraid to help others learn more. All three women helped establish programs to support teachers in developing democratic teaching practices in their own countries.

The disposition to lifelong learning seemed to be created in the women's families. Sapargul's early memories of reading with her family by lamplight, Mary's mother encouraging her to teach, and

Maria's parents' support when she wished for a more academic education illustrate the positive environments for learning created within their families. They had models of lifelong learning in their parents and support for their formal education, both moral support and, at times, monetary support. This disposition seems to include the notion of personal agency, taking responsibility for their learning and their life. They took risks, and had the confidence that the risk would work out for the best, even though it did not always seem so at first. They sought both education and schooling. The schooling allowed them to obtain a credential, usually the Ph.D. This credential gave them the credibility to be heard and freed them to pursue activities that were important to them. The education, the lifelong learning, contributed to their sense of being literate, including the development their literate identities.

A final theme is that of participation. By participation we mean participation in the political and institutional system of education. They might work outside of the system to change it, they might work within the system to make change, or they consciously used the system to work toward the betterment of their sphere of the world.

Each of these women learned from their life and formed their own identity as lifelong learners and literate people. They became models of what it means to use literacy and learning as tools to change the world.

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Finding Oneself in a World of Literacy: Some Reflections on the Self and Literacy Learning, from a Phenomenological Life-world Perspective

Cecilia Nielsen, Department of Social and Behavioural Studies, University West, Sweden

The purpose of this paper is to try to understand how people who encounter difficulties when developing their literacy abilities perceive themselves. The life-world we inhabit is a meaningful world. We share the meaningfulness with other human beings. In the encounter with the world and "others" we learn about the world. We also learn about ourselves, and understand who we are. According to Merleau-Ponty, our understanding of the world is not a Cartesian *cogito*, "I think", but "I can". But who is the 'I' who either 'can' or 'cannot'?

Certain findings from an empirical study suggest that the encounter between individual and literacy is characterised by reciprocity between the subject (the self) and the world (the written text). On the one hand, the struggle with literacy tells a person who s/he is. How the reader views him/herself affects the way in which literacy problems are tackled. This relationship can develop into a positive circle, "I can", or into a negative one, "I cannot". Both kinds of circles can, however, be broken inter-subjectively, as a result of the intervention of others.

BACKGROUND

In this paper I want to discuss how people with reading and writing difficulties/ dyslexia experience themselves in their struggle to master literacy. In today's society literacy is regarded as a human right and literacy abilities as necessary knowledge for everybody, in education as a learning tool and at work as a natural part of the daily routines. As members of a democratic society, we also rely on literacy to keep ourselves informed and to be able to participate in, and exert an influence on, politics. Finally, we read and write for our own pleasure, growth and development.

Since these abilities are understood to be so important, much attention is paid to them in schools and higher education, as well as in general public debate. Dyslexia is a well-known phenomenon and help and assistance is offered to pupils and students who experience literacy difficulties. Adult education provides another opportunity to gain assistance and today there is a range of different aids and facilities that have been developed to help people with dyslexia. Still, if you do not learn to read and write like other people, you have to work much harder and often with very few rewards for your endeavours.

In my doctorial study I have followed nine persons with reading and writing difficulties during a period of some 18 months. The individuals in the study are of different ages, ranging from 8 to 53. The aim of the study is, from a life-world perspective, to try to understand their experiences in their encounters with literacy. The results will be presented in my thesis (Nielsen, 2005*),* and defended at the University of Gothenburg in September, 2005.

WHY A PHENOMENOLOGICAL LIFE-WORLD APPROACH?

During recent decades a wealth of studies on literacy learning have been conducted. Inquiry has been focused on children's spontaneous acquisition of language- and literacy, on different ways with words, on motivation, on the nature of teacher effects and, of course, on dyslexia. However, very few studies have emphasised the learning subject's experiences.

From a life-world perspective existential questions such as: "Who is this learning subject?" "How does s/he change in the encounter with the written word?" How does s/he look upon her/himself?" can be posed. The question I have asked of myself is How can this perspective, this life-world approach, help me to understand the lived experiences of individuals, struggling with difficulties in their literacy learning? Is it possible to see the individual viewpoint in a cultural phenomenon like literacy? How does the self appear in an inter-subjective world?

In existential phenomenology the purpose of a study is not to find general laws that can explain conduct, feelings or actions. Rather, its aims to uncover new ways of experiencing the other and different ways of understanding the other, or, what Merleau-Ponty would have called, the acquisition of "a certain style of seeing, a new use of one's own body; it is to enrich and recast the body image" (1962, p. 153). From a life-world study we can acquire a style of seeing which guides us in our encounters with other people.

The Life-world

The life-world is all-embracing and can't be transcended. It is not possible here to describe it to its fullest extent. In this paper I want to call attention to a number of aspects that are important for my main discussion.

The life-world is our normal every-day world in its full complexity. It is the world where we live our lives, where we work and rest, laugh and weep, learn and teach. It is the world we know by living in and acting on it, and which we share with all other human beings. It is a world in both time and space. Husserl (1970) describes the life-world as a world which is meaningful to us even before we reflect upon it, it is *prepredicative* to all knowledge. It is a world where we take things for granted. In Husserl's words, we are in a *natural attitude* towards the life-world. As researchers, we are part of the life-world, and we have to be aware of this *natural attitude* that we are in as individuals and which we also share with other people.

Heidegger (1993) argues that the most fundamental condition for our being-in-the-world is that we exist. Bengtsson (1999) has suggested that this existence has a relation to itself; it is <u>my</u> existence, and so it concerns me. As individuals, we are cast into an already meaningful world, a historical and cultural world as well as a world of things. Our understanding is guided by our pre-understanding, that which is already "given". We share the life-world inter-subjectively, with others, and we get to know it through acting on it. As Heidegger says:

> - - -, the world is always already the one that I share with the others. The world of Da-sein is a *with*-world. /…/ Da-sein initially finds 'itself' in *what* it does, needs, expects, has charge of, in the things at hand which it initially *takes care* of in the surrounding world. (Heidegger, 1996, pp. 111-112)

Merleau-Ponty (1962, 1999) points out that our existence is a bodily existence. Our body, however, is not an object; it is our standpoint or our position in the world. But this lived body is ambiguous and risky, both nature and culture, both physiology and psychology. We experience the world as well as act on it in our lived bodies. "Consciuosness is being towards the thing through the intermediary of the body" says Merleau-Ponty (1962). In my lived body I am part of the world and the world is part of me, and my way of understanding the world is not a Cartesian *cogito*, "I think", but an "I can".

Situated, as we are, in time and space, we experience the world from different perspectives. The world I inhabit is therefore also ambiguous. My identity embraces all aspects of my lived world. Torstensson-Ed (2001), referring to Merleau-Ponty (1981) argues that "the consciousness is all-embracing. We live in an *intentional arch*, that maintains the wholeness of consciousness, demands and perceptions, and that creates around us our past and our future, the homogeneity of senses, understanding, feelings and mobility" (p. 4) (my translation).

How Do We Get to Know ourSelves?

Our being-in-the-world is characterized by natural attitude. But this attitude can be overcome when our knowledge is challenged by other people or by new experiences in the world. We can become aware of other perspectives on the world as well as other people's ways of experiencing it. In this way, we create a distance to the world in our reflections. This is what the researcher must do. This is also what we all do when we genuinely learn. Colaizzi writes:

> Genuine learning radically re-structures our world-views of something./ - - - / No longer seeing that area in the old way, our learning provides us with a, literally, new world to live in. Facts acquire new interpretations, percepts appear different, words and language sound

different, feelings are experienced less blindly, and people behave and act with new and different meanings for us (1978, p.129).

We learn about the world and other people, and at the same time we learn about ourSelves. Turning again to Merleau-Ponty (1962) he says that "it is true that I am conscious of my body *via* the world" (p. 82). According to Idhe (2001) the phenomenological "I" appears through reflection on the phenomena in the world, and takes its meaning from the encounter with things, people and every kind of "otherness". Torstensson-Ed (2001) points out that, when we describe ourSelves, we do it in relation to other people, to norms and values in the life-world, to activities and things in our lived world.

So, my identity embraces all aspects of my lived world and I become aware of mySelf in the encounter with the world and with others. The world teaches me who I am. But this is only one aspect, one side of the coin, because in our lived world, life and world are mutually dependent. So, my way of meeting the world has to do with who I am and what I already know. My experiences are guided by my pre-understanding and my expectations are governed by where I set the limits for "I can". That is the other side of the coin. This will also be the point of departure for the presentation of two persons from my study, two people who are struggling with literacy and with themSelves. But before I introduce them here, I want to reflect a little on the concept of language and literacy from a life-world perspective.

LANGUAGE AND LITERACY IN THE LIFE-WORLD

Acording to Merleau-Ponty (1962) the meaning inhabits the word. But my words are also carried by my voice; they are a manifestation of my inner being. Therefore they tell something about mySelf, too. Using language means to position mySelf in an inter-subjective world, where language is part of our cultural heritage.

As long as we are in natural attitude, words are meaningful gestures to us. The meaning inhabits the word. The meaning can't be understood from the word as merely a sound, but to learn to read and write, to become literate, we have to reflect on the words as sounds and signs, sentences and expressions. We have to create a distance between the inner aspect of the word, the meaning, and the outer, formal aspect. We have to learn to separate form from meaning and to switch from inner to outer and back again. We also have to learn quite a new form of language, a visual form and it is this switch from auditory to visual language that makes the world of literacy so problematic for a person with reading and writing difficulties/ dyslexia. This can be understood from a bodily aspect (Nielsen, 2004) and it and it is closely connected to mySelf. And let us now turn to Annika and Rebecca.

I CAN, I CANNOT, I CAN, BUT … – ANNIKA FROM 9 TO 11

At nine years old Annika knows very well that she has reading and writing difficulties. Her problems with the written language have been thoroughly investigated, and, moreover, her father and others in her family suffer from the same handicap. This is her *situation* in the world (c.f. Merleau-Ponty, 1962; de Beauvoir, 1992), the factuality of her lived body. It defines and restrains her learning, but it does not determine her life. The bounds of her handicap are never definitive. Annika's way of tackling these restrains is to work. She clearly demonstrates the "I can" of her spontaneous, creative being and she learns about herSelf in the encounter with written texts and writing tasks.

Ekeblad (1996) found that children, learning arithmetic during their first year at school, also learn about themselves and how they learn. The same is true for Annika learning literacy. She finds that, for her, it is necessary to work hard to learn to read and write, and she also finds out that she loves working, she loves reading and that she loves writing. During her first three years at school she learns from the books, pencils and computers in the classroom and she learns by comparing herself to her classmates, and she learns from dialogues with her parents, teachers and friends that she is an industrious, clever person who is learning to read and write.

In grade 4 her class is mixed with another class and she gets new classmates and new teachers. The amount of work has increased; more emphasis is placed on reading and writing. The work does not bother her. She knows herSelf as a hard-working person. What bothers her is a new spirit in her class, a

spirit of comparison and anxiety. There is less warmth between people and greater distance between each other. Annika handles the situation by creating a space of her own, an almost visible shelter, around her body and her desk, a place where time and endeavour exist on her conditions. But, now and then, she is called on by the teacher to do things in public, things she has not chosen herself, like reading aloud in the class. When this happens, Annika feels that her own time and endeavour are questioned. Her way of experiencing reading and working is made invisible and she herself, as an individual also becomes invisible.

To understand Annika's experiences I want to refer to Schütz (2002). He writes that only in a face-to-face relationship can we meet each other as unique persons. When we share time and space it is possible to capture the Other's full attention and it is thus possible to join a pure *We-relationship*. Claesson (1999) adds, that such a relationship can exist in dialogue as well as in mutual silence, as long as our attention is directed towards each other. In a situation like that, we share each other's ongoing life, plans, hopes and worries. We are mutually involved in each other's lives and we grow older together, and maybe even wiser too. In all other relationships there is a distance between us, a distance that makes us strangers to each other. According to Schütz, people to whom we have no close relationship tend to appear to us in a typical way or as "ideal types", no longer "somebody", but rather "something".

When Annika reads aloud to the class, some of her classmates moan and start to give her prompts, whispering the words to her. Annika feels that they steal the time she needs to read from her and that they regard her endeavours as worthless. They forget she is a real person, "somebody", and they make her a type; a typical dyslectic. In those situations Annika's "I can" is changed to "I cannot", and she refuses to read to the class. Because her identity embraces all aspects of her life-world she now finds herSelf in a situation where her identity is ambiguous and threatened, a situation she is most determined to avoid. Still, she learns about herSelf.

During grade 5 Annika moves to another town, another school, another class, other teachers. Her ambiguous Self moves with her and she adopts a wait-and-see policy towards the teachers and the class. It takes time for her to make friends with her new classmates and to feel at home with her teachers. But after a few months, she finds that, in her new class, differences are not only tolerated but regarded as normal conditions for social life. Her class-teacher also makes it explicit that everybody has some sort of problem to tackle and that everybody can not succeed with everything. According to the new teacher, the most important thing is always to work the best one can. Annika's identity, her Self, is restored, although it has changed. She now realises that she might come into situations when hard work will not be sufficient to reach her goals. Situations will be encountered in which she will have to choose new ways to act and even take advantage of resources of different kinds. To the "I can" of her consciousness has been added a "but …", meaning "…but not alone", "…but not in one single way", "…but not without help". Her horizons have expanded while she has integrated the experiences in her Self.

BETWEEN TWO IDENTITIES – REBECCA FROM 14 TO 16

At school, 14 year-old Rebecca, knows herSelf as a person who needs a lot of help. Whatever she undertakes, whether it is connected to reading or writing, is so sloooow! At the beginning of grade 8 she has not yet read an entire book of any kind by herself. To be able to complete the one written composition she has to do during the autumn term, she has had to get a lot of help from her special teacher. Often she is unsuccessful on written tests but does better when there is an oral test. She would prefer to work together with her class all the time. In Rebecca's opinion schoolwork should not be done alone. Most of all she would like to sit in the middle of the group, to really feel that she belongs to them, but now and then she realises that the tasks are too difficult for her. She knows that she works too slowly and that she needs more help than either the class teacher or her classmates, have got time to give her.

Young argues that in the encounter with the world the "I can" of our being-to-the-world can be changed to an "I cannot".

> For any lived body, the world appears as the system of possibilities which are correlative to
> its intensions. For any lived body, moreover, the world also appears as populated with

opacities and resistances correlative to its own limits and frustrations. For any bodily existence, that is, an "I cannot" may appear to set limits to the "I can". (1980, p. 147)

In her encounter with school, Rebecca has learnt that she is a person who cannot by herSelf manage to meet the demands of school. The school assignments that she has been given tell her that her abilities are just not enough. The books that she has tried to read have told her the same thing; she is just not quite good enough and she lacks the necessary patience. Her teachers have told her that she needs help. Her vital "I can" has become an "I cannot by mySelf".

But this is not the whole story. In her spare-time and at home she is a creative person who finds lots of interesting things to do. She likes to sew and cook, draw and paint. She plays with her little brother, is good with all sorts of animals, goes riding once a week and also takes care of a horse one afternoon every week, doing a good job of both riding and caring. She is a competent person in all activities she chooses herSelf. And, because she is so interested in animals, and because she would like to have an animal of her own, she borrows books from the library and reads and takes notes about many different animals so that she can learn how to take care of them. Her little brother is allergic to furry animals, so she has read and learnt about many different kinds before she eventually discovers that he would probably not be allergic to chinchillas. Somewhere between grade 8 and 9 she finally gets a horse of her own, and her life becomes filled with caring for her horse, but also challenges. Rebecca is rather small and her horse is big and tall, and even though she feels a bit insecure on this high horseback, she practices show-jumping. She and her horse learn together and Rebecca is firm in her determination to do this well. She understands that it is her responsibility to see that her horse is trained in the best way.

In one part of her lived world she is a competent person, who learns and develops. In another part, however, she does what she is told to do. In the part of her life where "I can" reigns, she is active, creative and responsible. In the part of her life where "I cannot by myself" reigns, her learning is piecemeal and protracted.

Now, this piece of empirical inquiry actually appears to be one of life's good stories. Rebecca's special teacher helps her to find books for young people that really touch her, books that are technically easy to read, but that awaken her interest and challenge her expertise. At school, when Rebecca, in her usual way, does what she is told to and reads a storybook, she finds that the story speaks to her. She responds from a depth of pre-understanding and articulates her opinions just as if the story had been told to her orally. In this way a process is started where Rebecca first of all learns about herSelf. She learns that she is a competent person, even when reading (and writing) at school. She also learns that, provided that the text technically speaking is easy to read, it is no longer an obstacle to her participation in the story. The meaning also inhabits the written words!! This process, that started with her encounter with a book that touched her, has rippled out to other parts of her lived world, to other duties at school and to her social life. She starts to rely on herSelf, and she becomes less dependent on others.

As Merleau-Ponty says, our lives are circumscribed by an intentional arch (above). Claesson (1999) points out that this intentional arch always makes us situated in our past and directed towards our future. This insight can help me to understand Rebecca's situation. She finally finds that different parts of her lived world can be brought together. Her own story can be regarded as being comprised of different aspects of her lived life, aspects that can be unified. This makes her identity, her Self, less complicated. Learning at school can also be learning for life, and what was learnt outside school appears to be important inside school as well. She finds that it is possible for her to be a competent person at school, even in encounters with texts. Like the high fences and the water jumps in show-jumping, written words can also be challenged. They are not definite obstacles, just problems to tackle and to be overcome. And at the same time as Rebecca's identity becomes less complicated, it also becomes more complex. Her past, that was separated and piecemeal, now is whole. She has learnt about herself; her horizons have expanded while she has integrated the different parts of herSelf in her identity.

CONCLUSION

In this paper I have discussed how we can understand people in their struggle with literacy learning from a life-world perspective. The focus has been on the experienced Self. I have argued that we learn about ourSelves from encounters with the world. The letters, the words, the texts, the pencils, the computers and all of the other activities that surround literacy, as well as the learning situation as a whole, teach us about ourselves.

We also learn about ourSelves from other people in our inter-subjective world. Sometimes we are met as individual persons in a face-to-face relationship, where we become a "Who", a "somebody". On other occasions we are regarded as ideal-types which transform us instead into a "What" or a "something". Other people are important for my learning, not only through inter-subjectivity, but also by organizing the world in new ways in order to change the encounter between me and the world.

In all genuine learning, we learn about ourSelves and, at the same time, we learn about the world. It is true, though, that in this ambiguous world of ours, our pre-understanding guides and directs us in our learning, making us see with "a certain style of seeing". It is also true that our understanding of ourSelves is crucial for how we tackle the world. The "I can" or the "I cannot" frame our actions. Through our experiences, our lived world expands and our Selves become more complex, while we grow older and, maybe, wiser.

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New Directions in the Spread of Literacy

Lorenka Bučević-Sanvincenti, Zagreb City Libraries, Croatia

Characteristics of modern society are knowledge and skills, which become its basis and the axiom for its constant improvement and growth. Therefore, lifelong learning is not just one of the theories or fields of learning for adults only, but it should be a leading constant in the development of learning systems from early childhood. In this respect, three forms of learning are critical:

- Formal learning, which implies regular istitutionalised education,
- Non-formal learning, which happens independently of the official educational system, and it can be organised in kindergartens, or private schools (for example schools of ballet, music,language schools, informatics, driving, and others) or in a work place, in organizations and unions, political parties and the like. In order to be able to validate properly the forms of learning that happen outside of schools, it is important to establish a system of true values of knowledge and skills, acquired outside of the school system.
- Informal learning, the so-called school of life, which we obtain through everyday interaction and which mostly takes place outside of schools, in different places of life and work. We must emphasize that this last form of learning takes place more or less unconsciously, and that is the reason why even its participants often do not recognize it as the paradigm that contributes to the development of their knowledge and skills.

Active education includes motivation for learning, critical thinking and knowledge of the correct way of learning. An important role of educators is to help children and their parents or guardians, to acquire knowledge and use it most promptly. This implies that educators, teachers, pedagogues, special teachers, speech therapists, librarians and other experts, not in the future, but now and today, must be directed towards their own lifelong learning and development. With their knowledge, skills and their attitude toward learning, they could be role-models for their students, who more and more, through informal and formal ways of learning, acquire new skills and positions in the global, transitional, and information world.

First, we should make the fundamental distinction between education in the early childhood and simply providing for the child. The main condition for the quality of lifelong learning is the high quality elementary education, starting from the earliest age. The information society requires that after elementary education and development, vocational or occupational education should teach a young person new skills necessary for the new knowledge-based economies. These are, according to the conclusions made at the European conference held in Lisbon in 2000 (article 26): IT skills, foreign languages, technological culture, entrepreneurship and social skills – self-reliance, self-confidence, self-orientation and risk taking.

The responsibility of every person who is educating a child (no matter if it is done within an institution or not) is to make sure that the child «learns how to learn» and acquires a positive attitude toward learning. If experiences in early life are unsuccessful and perceived in a negative way, this may not happen.

That is just one of the important propositions presented in two important documents: Memorandum on the lifelong learning of the European Council, that is European Commission, and in OECD's (2001) Education Policy Analysis, which gives the central role to the educator, pedagogue, teacher and librarian. Their responsibility as professionals increases with the youngest children because they should stimulate and motivate those children to except the lifelong learning as their new slogan and

token of their success. Competence and the application of methods of learning and teaching open to participation should become be developed.

The Lisbon conference also concluded that the common goal for the EU is that it should present «the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-driven economy in the world». We are aware of the fact that Croatia still falls far behind the literacy standards of the developed countries, and especially in the use of the Information and Communication technologies. We will use statistical data to support this fact:

- 2 % of the Croatian population is basically illiterate
- 685,000 Croatian residents aged 15 years and over haven't finished their elementary education
- 22% of the population in Croatia have only finished elementary school
- 9% of the population in Croatia has higher education copared to an EU average of 36%

Considering that we want to become a member of the European Union as soon as possible, we should work on strategies that will increase the knowledge and skills of the whole population, paying special attention to the youngest ones.

DISTANCE LEARNING

Emphasising the role of learning in today's information world we will be talking about a new method of learning – distance learning- the e-Learning or distance education. e-Learning aims to raise computer literacy and provide the schools, teaching staff and students with the necessary materials, expert skills and technical equipment.

Education based on the ICT technology offers great potential for innovations in teaching and learning methods. It is time for the classical educational system to take advantage of modern technologies and be more available to those who need them, as the classical approach does not satisfy them or is not available to them. Distance learning presents one of the most efficient forms of lifelong education. Concerning the technical side of distance learning – a big step was made with the LMS (Learning Management Systems), which follows the technical evolution so we can now talk about the so-called virtual classrooms, and about the cooperation and communication between teachers and students based on web technology. This initiative has four components: to equip schools with multimedia computers, to train European teachers in digital technologies, to develop European educational services and software and to speed up the networking of schools. This will also connect the teachers and librarians.

Distance learning entails different media through which we can transmit knowledge. Programmed learning was a form of knowledge transmission by the use of printed media; television transported the knowledge by the use of electronic media. With the arrival of the computers, those different media were integrated and attempts were made to teach without the presence of a teacher, with the multimedia programmes recorded on a CDROM. The appearance of computer networks enables us to adapt the content of the subject to the one who is learning it, because the amount of data which we can save and later access by computer network is a few times greater than the most powerful CDROM can save.

E-LEARNING IN CROATIA

Full e-learning project in Croatia have still not come to life and there are no global projects which would include the whole country concerning the introduction of hypermedia technologies to education, and which would be led by the Ministry of Science, Education and Sports. There are some ideas, there is a desire, but most importantly, there is a great need for distance learning. In order to make the idea of distance learning a reality as soon as possible, two sectors should be made aware of it: education and economy. In other words, on the list of elements, which are missing in order to start distance learning, as a possibility for education and learning are: infrastructure, education of the teachers who would run these distance learning courses and general knowledge about that form of education. Construction of the computer infrastructure and Internet approach for the Universities and schools is conducted through *CARNet* and *Hinet*. One of the scientific-research projects is called «Innovation in computer assisted education» (from 1990 to 1996, conducted at the Faculty of Pedagogy in Rijeka).

Croatia is a member of European network called *Eureka* since 2000 (European programme of international cooperation of companies, research-development centres and universities of member countries), but the affirmation and national funding of the Eureka network project has still not reached a satisfactory level. *Eurolearn* is an Umbrella network of *Eureka,* which stimulates establishing of distance learning centres. It was formed because of the European effort to use the advantages of distance learning in education, lifelong education, science and knowledge in general. Croatia has yet to use the advantages that were offered to her by integration into international funding programmes.

E-SCHOOLS AND ON-LINE EXAMS IN CROATIA

The largest Croatian project, *E-school for Young Scientist,* and all of the now related natural science e-schools were initiated by Croatian Natural Science Association in 1997. The site http://eskola.hfd.hr/ offers a great on-line school for physics, while the address http://hpd.botanic.hr/ast/eastro.htm offers interesting information for astronomy lovers. Biology is covered by http://hpd.botanic.hr/bio/indeks.html, while geography is http://hpd.botanic.hr/geo/ideks.html.

All of these schools bring a lot of interesting information connected to natural phenomena. Students can find subject-matter that will complete their regular classes, and if they want to know more, in all of these schools they can pose a question to a scientist to which they will usually get an answer. Those who are more ambitious can take part in one of the discussion boards, which are also a great source of information. If you want to practice your knowledge, some of these schools even have a few assignments, and the site about Chemistry has whole procedures for chemical experiments. *Htnet* and *Algebra* school on their web pages http://moj.hinet.hr/on-line-ispiti allow you to test your knowledge of informatics and programmes MS Word, Adobe Photoshop, Macromedia Dreamweaver and some others. All you need is to register yourself, free of charge, and you will get your test results immediately, on your screen. If you pass, you will get your written confirmation mailed to your home address.

An excellent school of math http://lavica.fesb.hr/mat1/ was started by a Croatian academic computer network CARNet, and it was conceived at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering and Naval Architecture at the University of Split. Although it is still not very visually attractive, e-school of mathematics is excellent and highly recommendable. It is mainly intended for younger students, but it will be useful to high-school students too. It has lectures, yes-no questions and many tasks from different areas of mathematics.

There is an educational portal of the Teacher Education Academy in Zagreb http:/www.uciteljska-akademija.hr/likovna-kultura/ Here you can learn something about art techniques and rules of composition, and they also have examples of literary analysis. There is a great collection of professional texts, and interesting art e-galleries.

CARNet in Pula offers on-line exam of networking knowledge (http://www.pu.carnet.hr/CARNte/EO/). Informatics knowledege testing on the Internet offers a page http://www.maxipoint.net/rep-office-croatia.html, as well as the access to some on-line informatics and language courses. Some school for foreign languages, like *Sokrat* for example, http://www.sokrat.hr, offer on-line testing.

CONCLUSION

If by the term of e-learning we mean the application of information and communication technologies in education, we can ask ourselves is it just a short-term trend in the development of education or a possible solution to many difficulties in the organization of modern, quality, diverse and purposeful education in the 21st century. If we have a teaching-staff shortage, space and quality literature shortage, we are not the only ones in the world with these problems. Experts deal with similar problems all over the world, but those in the underdeveloped countries just try to offer a minimum of education to their often large population and they often use distance learning. At the same time the governments of highly-developed countries and international organizations stimulate the development of e-learning as the means of realization of their own national educational strategies, more equal distribution of knowledge, and even competitiveness in the market of knowledge. The questions, what is the position of Croatia in

those, sometimes contradictory trends, and how could we use advantages of e-learning in the existing circumstances, are yet to be answered.

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Biblioland: A Project for the Promotion of Library Literacy

Hela Čičko, Zagreb City Libraries, Croatia

The Children's and Young Adults' Department of the City Library, Zagreb City Libraries is the oldest library for children in Croatia. It was founded in 1950, and soon afterwards, when other children's libraries were opened throughout Croatia, it served as a model for their organization and layout according to professional standards.

For years the Children's and Young Adults' Department has cooperated with professional organizations and associations in Croatia and abroad. It has organized professional conferences, book exhibits, and educational seminars. It also has offered many and various educational programs and activities for children.

Today, the library occupies a pleasant, well-equipped, and functional space of 400 square meters. It has a multi-media auditorium and a garden with an outdoor stage. The library is also home to Medioteka and the Croatian Center for Children's Books. The Department currently houses around 65,000 volumes and 12,000 book titles. Our members are children from 0 to 14 years of age, parents, high-school and college students, teachers, and anybody else who has some connection with children or children's books. The Department serves as the central children's library for the city of Zagreb, as well as both Zagreb and Krapina-Zagorje Counties. The professional team of the Children's and Young Adults' Department, which consists of a children's guidance counselor, a psychologist, a teacher of literature, and a nursery-school teacher, dedicates a large portion of their time and efforts to projects for the development of reading. These include the National Quiz for the Development of Reading and the project Reading Literature Differently.

NATIONAL QUIZ FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF READING

In cooperation with the Croatian Center for Children's Books, the Department for Children and Young Adults organises the National Quiz for the Development of Reading, traditionally during Croatian Book Month. Last year alone, about 15,000 children from 375 public and school libraries in Croatia and abroad took part in the National Quiz, which is usually dedicated to the literary works of one or more authors.

The workshops that are organized within the project Reading Literature Differently represent a new approach to the literary texts that are required reading in the Croatian language curriculum for all pupils in Croatian schools.

Since it is more difficult to attract children to books that they do not choose themselves, the workshops are led in an unconventional way that is fun for children. The goal of the workshops is to prepare children for the independent reading of literary works through play, music, and exercises in daydreaming and imagining, so that the children's communication with the literary text is at the same time an incentive for creative writing, acting, and visual artistic expression.

READING LITERATURE DIFFERENTLY

Reading Literature Differently has been a continuously active project for seven years in the Children's and Young Adults' Department, which works in coordination with affiliated primary schools. This year, as part of Literature on Wheels, a project of the Croatian Librarians' Society, we also held such workshops at bibliobus stops for 400 children from rural primary schools who do not have access to local libraries or reading programmes.

According to the IFLA's *Guidelines for Children's Libraries Services*, one of the main tasks of a library is to organize instruction in the basic skills that are necessary for children and their parents to 'find themselves' in the library and to utilise its services and sources of information. The Children's and Young Adults' Department of the City Library does this by collaborating with primary schools programs that develop competency in using the library – or promote library literacy in its youngest users. We feel that every child must know its local library well, feel comfortable in it, and develop the skills that are necessary in order to find themselves in any other library.

In order to help children become more interested in learning about libraries, we decided to teach them through play.

A JOURNEY TO BIBLIOLAND

In 2002 we started a project entitled "To Biblioland by Ship – a Journey of Discovery". We took the idea of a "journey of discovery" from the German project "The Public Library and the School – New Forms of Cooperation", which was active in the public and school libraries of six German cities from 1995 to 2000. It is based on the concept of spiral superstructure, in other words, the systematic and gradual accumulation of knowledge in the area of getting to know and utilizing library services for children and young people. This includes getting to know the library, using the library, its collections and programmes, the presentation of the library's contents in different media, teaching in the library, and exhibitions and contests.

We first came up with the idea of a journey to Biblioland, and then we completely adapted it to the contents of our library, our technical capabilities, and the foreknowledge of our users. Biblioland by Ship is a creative traveling game in which children in the first few grades of school (aged 7-10) learn how to use libraries, books, and computers. Preparations for the activity begin several months ahead of time, when children make the necessary props and material for the game, such as an old-fashioned seaman's trunk, an anchor, and a mast with a flag at its top. These things, along with imaginatively arranged chairs, will form the pirate ship "Liber". Based on the ground-plan of the library, the librarians draw up a treasure map of the island Biblioland. The area of the reading room turns into the "Volcano of Knowledge", while the other sections become the "Forest of Children's Books", the "Gulf of Preschoolers", "Teenagers' Valley", and the "Medioteka Coast" ... .

Invitations to cooperate are sent to schools; treasure maps are photocopied; promotional flyers, signs, and posters are printed; dates are set; a special exhibit is put together for the occasion; and the entire library is decorated. When the children enter the library they are met by the librarians who are dressed as the captain of the "Liber" and his crew of sailors. They explain to the little "travelers" the rules of the game, and the children put "pirate kerchiefs" on their heads. Then, before they set sail for the unknown, the group is photographed, and everyone takes a solemn oath. The magic of learning through play begins.

With the sound of waves, the anchor is raised. During the short simulated journey, with the whistling of the wind and the cries of seagulls, the children "experience" a storm, seasickness, hunger, and thirst . . . "Luckily," the sailing ship reaches the coast, and the little pirates disembark onto dry land, where for the first time they begin to look for the "treasure" – children's books and magazines. The children bring them to the ship's deck and present them to the others, while the captain places them in the ship's treasure chest. On the ship there are 25 pirates – sailors wearing kerchiefs with different colors and designs. In fact, it is the kerchiefs that divide them into five different teams. Each team is named after a different sea creature: the Starfishes, the Pearl-Shells, the Giant Octopuses, the Sharks, and the Seahorses. Each team gets a treasure map marked with special signs that differ according to which hidden "treasure" they will seek: books, magazines, or a computer diskette. The Captain's crew help them with their search. It is not enough to simply find the "treasure". Hidden along with the "treasure" are directions for the tasks that the team has to carry out. Each team is given a different task.

The *Pearl-Shells* must find the picture book *Calico Cat and the Bookworm,* by Donald Charles. They have to read the book with comprehension, after which they answer in writing several questions about the book, which deal specifically about the difference between libraries and bookstores, how books should be treated, polite behavior, and the possibilities of learning and having fun at the library.

After they find a collection of jokes and short humorous texts entitled *Vicomat,* the *Sharks* choose several of their favorite texts from the book and learn to retell them before an audience. The *Giant Octopuses* has the task of finding a book of short plays for puppets and then locating a play called "The Frog in Love" within the book. After that, they rehearse the play with puppets, which they eventually will perform before the other groups.

After their successful search for an entertaining educational magazine for children, the *Starfishes* use their directions to find an article within it containing well-known children's songs, which they have to learn by heart and sing for everybody present.

The *Seahorses* have the task of finding a computer diskette. Once they have it, they must insert it into a computer and then follow the directions on the screen in order to connect to the Internet. When they are online, they have to find the web page of a Croatian national park and answer several questions about the park's location, climate, and plant and animal life. At the same time, all of the groups carry out their tasks separately, in different parts of the library. When the allotted time has passed for this part of the activity, each group presents the results of its search before the other participants in the programme: the first group reads a written assignment, the second tells short stories, the third group acts, the fourth sings, and the fifth group shows how they found the requested information on the Internet. In other words, all of the children showed that they were able to find information, that they understood and valued it, and that they knew how to use it in order to solve a specific task, which is the definition of functional literacy. During the presentations, the children usually show their approval by exuberant rounds of applause.

The journey gradually comes to an end. Each child comments on his or her impressions by writing an illustrated message, and in so doing, participates in putting together the daily entry into the captain's log of the sailing ship "Liber". The creations shine with enthusiasm. Everyone had an extremely good time and said that they would like to return to the "ship" once again!

CHILDREN'S RESPONSES

Each child expresses his or her impressions of the program with an illustrated and written letter. Examples include:

- "It was great. I would like to come again. The best parts were when we were acting and when we were in the boat." - Denis, fourth grade
- "I liked it here very much and I would like to visit this library again. Greetings from Božidar the Pirate from the 'Giant Octopus' group." – Božidar Strganac
- "I liked it the most when we showed the other kids what we discovered on the computer. I love to read!" – Kristina
- "I liked the fact that only I can open the door to the ship!" – Gabi the Pirate
- "I am happy because we filled the chest with treasures, and because we learned that books are one of our greatest treasures." – Teacher

Their messages and pictures are pinned up for others to see, and everyone who wants to says something about their own creation.

For the last time, the children assemble on the ship's deck and talk about what they have experienced, and enjoy candies that the captain and his crew offer from miniature treasure chests as a reward after their long journey. (The entire journey, with its succession of different activities, lasts two to three hours, during which time the library is closed to other users.)

CONCLUSION

Our ship has returned to its home port, and one game has come to an end, but it will remain in the hearts of these children for a long time. Some will remember it as the unforgettable experience that they had when they first crossed the threshold of a library. Those who already know the library will remember it as a new and unusual way of experiencing its treasures.

As they say goodbye the children wave in excitement. They constantly ask about our working hours and how they can get a membership card. They promise to return, and they do come back to the library – with their parents, alone, or with a brother or sister – to become members, to grow, to study, to dream, to meet new friends, to feel the joy of reading and the excitement of discovering knowledge, to develop their functional, visual, digital, and media skills, which will serve as the foundation of their life-long learning.

This is the goal for which we librarians strive; this is basis of our calling. And that is why we feel a deep sense of fulfillment when we can help children make one steady step forward at the beginning of

their life-long journey. When we know that we have invested a great deal of creative energy in our projects, and in children – the future "inhabitants of the twenty-first century" – then we know that our efforts have not been in vain.

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Evolution of Information Literacy in University Library of Rijeka

Lea Lazzarich and Eugenia Popović, University Library of Rijeka, Croatia

The University Library of Rijeka is the main library of all college libraries of Rijeka's university system of 13 colleges. Within each college, the library is an autonomous unit. The University Library of Rijeka works independently of the individual college libraries and according to the current Law (Zakon o znanstvenoj djelatnosti, 2003) it does not have any integral conditions. The mission of the University Library of Rijeka is:

- to collect, evaluate and disseminate all kinds of information needed by university community
- use global infrastructure and available databases
- to educate library users

The information society imposes obligations, especially on libraries but also on all members of university communities, who must make rapid progress in acquiring information literacy skills – an indispensable imperative of today's labour market. Unification of information literacy and the library's role in the development of that literacy are challenges facing every librarian.

INFORMATION LITERACY

Information literacy is integral aspect of the informatics era in which all academic areas are situated. Information and knowledge are becoming the main tools of modern society. The progressive development of informatics and communication technologies started the process of globalization. In the context of the development of information literacy and library's role, the best definition is given by American Library Association: information literacy is a group of skills needed for searching, finding, evaluating and using information.

The education process, in which all libraries and academic societies are involved, begins with this definition. With regard to the fact that a library, according to its vocation, belongs to education system, it must teach how to find, shape and manage information which in the end becomes new knowledge.

A task of University Library of Rijeka according to its mission and vision, and according its commitment to education is to develop the information skills and education of users in order to promote information literacy. Information literacy is viewed, not as static, but as a dynamic concept.

Boekhorst (2004) has highlighted: Changeability and adaptability appear in variety of economic, social and cultural areas in which informatics is developing and bringing results. However, no matter of diversity of context which is developing, information literacy always means: recognition of need for knowledge, formulating of questions, finding sources, selection and evaluation of sources, and dissemination of information. Every piece of information chosen and evaluated by the user before forwarding it represents new knowledge.

Information literacy and education

The Bologna declaration (The Bologna Declaration of 19 June 1999) and changes that happened in higher education in Croatia and other European countries' emphasise the need for developing information skills. A special accent on life long learning considers continuous development of information literacy and the possibility of following all innovations that the market and science bring.

Unfortunately, the recognition of the need for manor improvement of information skills is dawning very slowly. Libraries are often the only ones trying; university professors have not yet developed information skills in their students. Education is one of the main factors responsible for development of the society and its adaptation is very important for the changes that new informatics era is bringing. In order to achieve this adaptation, it's not enough to change and modernize only the contents of teaching. It's of equal importance to introduce changes in teaching methods. Modern education needs new models of teaching: active studying that is based on information resources of the real world. Nowadays the need for education based on methods that

use informatics and communication technologies is emphasised more and more. Today professors must know how to use modern methods and technologies in education system.

It's also important that professors are informatics literal and that they have knowledge about what information literacy is and how important is for the current education. Even if it is important that changes of teaching contents and methods include all levels of education, it's especially important that this kind of transformations occurs in universities, especially in those universities that educate students – future professors. In this way the influence will be mostly on ensuring adaptation of new trends in education and in schools. The worst mistake in using informatics technology is that giving information to the students is the same thing as giving them knowledge. But, as every student must convert collected information to knowledge by themselves, they must be taught how to use, analyse convert informatics into knowledge by themselves. During this process, the professor is a 'coach' who helps students how to learn on their own and how to convert information successfully into knowledge. The professor's main task is to teach students how to learn, in other words how to develop the informatics literate student, and the future informatics literal specialist in their field.

One way to develop informatics, but also a way of establishing students' level of information literacy, is the seminar. Seminars are useful for controlling and checking the students' progress in finding information, in analysing and evaluating it, and integrating it and using it in a composition. During composing we not use only classic bibliography as a source of information, but information gathered by using modern informatics technologies, especially Internet, as well. Moreover, it is good to teach students that as well as announcing seminars in classic 'paper' form, we can announce the seminar on the computer as a programme for the elaboration of text, using a web-based presentation, with the announcement made over the Internet

DEVELOPMENT OF INFORMATION LITERACY AT UNIVERSITY LIBRARY OF RIJEKA

Services offered in our library to students at the University of Rijeka are:
- workshops on searching the Internet
- workshops on searching the library's e-catalogues
- workshops on searching databases
- asking the librarian
- workshop as a special form of working with readers: defending a thesis in front of audience as a possibility of preparing for graduation composition, making presentation in Power Point (presenting written work in presentational form),
- distribution of Microsoft products in area of PIL project of university
- digitalisation of material and availability of digital titles through the web
- FAOs
- discussion lists
- on-line courses
- quick guide for searching.

Searching the Internet in order to find target information is the main work of informatics specialist with final users. The library's e-catalogues, available databases, and rich web sources are potential deposits of all kinds of information. Because strategies for searching information in this way did not typically feature in the teaching of professors in the Croatian higher education system prior to the establishment of the Bologna Declaration (2004), libraries have taken a big step forward in educating users, enabling them to develop informatics skills systematically with continuous searching and evaluation of information.

The project 'Ask the Librarian' was conducted in order to explain obscurities and to give directions in researching sources. If the user cannot or is not able to find the source or information by himself, informatics specialists are at their disposal for all kind of questions. If there is a group of users interested in a common theme, a discussion with a moderator – an informatics specialist – is established. The specific quality of numerous questions enables creation of frequently asked questions that are available to user on library's web pages.

Meeting users' requests for thematic searches is the strongest offering of the informatics service. Undergraduate students as well as high-school graduates, by high-school leavers and postgraduate students, use that offer. The request is sent to librarian by on-line module in which, in additional to personal data, the title of the theme, the scientific area to which theme belongs and the purpose (graduate work, seminar...) must be written. This allows us to designate the level of the search. In general, users are relatively poorly educated in search techniques. This is explained by the fact that during their education they didn't encounter the library's e-catalogue, either in their school or at the national library in Rijeka.

An education plan involves an informative meeting with web pages and e-catalogue of University library of Rijeka. It lasts 45 minutes, and is held in an e- classroom. Education could be extended to 90 minutes if participants want to learn about other libraries' catalogues on the web in Croatia and abroad. Education is in the first place offered to professors of high schools so that they can easily introduce the ideas to their pupils and prepare them for studying and entering into the knowledge society. University professions can choose a programme consisting of one or two lessons for their students. The programme introduces students to the library's holdings on the web. Informatics specialists present the lessons.

A scientific-research reading room offers to users the possibility of scanning material on demand and sending the material by e-mail. This service represents a foray into the digital era, and is seen as necessary. Searching of databases available in library is enabled through a unique portal made for Croatia (Electronic Journals Online Library). The Rijeka University Library is a member.

The experiences of the University Library of Rijeka's show that students do not feel a need for systematic searching of sources because the mechanisms of academic society that impose individual searching for information does not exist. Changes that happened to higher education are now bringing about the development of higher levels of information literacy. Nevertheless, librarians remain pioneers in the evolution of information literacy.

CONCLUSION

Croatian libraries have been one of the first to recognise information literacy as key form of making new knowledge and developing an information and knowledge society. The University Library of Rijeka has offered numerous models of education for users. The University continues to stress the importance of this form of work

Preparing users today for the life-long learning does not mean and it can't mean using only libraries but introducing coordinated collaborations of all parts of education (from kindergarten to university) with accent on searching end evaluation of information and not her reproduction. Only in this case we can expect development of skills necessary for professional flexibility and succesful civil society.

People who are informatically educated are those who know how to study. They know that thanks to the fact that they are familiar with the organization of their knowledge, with the way of finding information and how to use it in way that others learn from them. Those are people who are prepared for the longlife learning.

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The Manuzio Project

Marijana Mišetić, Italian Studies Department Library, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Zagreb, Croatia

The aim of this paper is to analyze the role of an academic library in the information society examining one of its old tasks, namely that to provide teaching and learning materials quickly and efficiently, but now in an electronic environment. The analysis has been done in order to recognize the value and necessity of promotion of information literacy and e-texts by libraries, academic staff and university plans and programs. It has been done using the example of the Italian Studies Department Library, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Zagreb and is based on the Library's experience in intergrating new technologies in library services in order to remain relevant to the academic environment.

Libraries have always been treasuries of recorded knowledge. Throughout history this took various forms: clay tablets, papyrus rolls, parchment, and finally paper. The 20th century brought enormous advances in electronics and telecomunication. Information and knowledge appeared on the new media. The library paradigm changed with old card catalogues replaced by databases, new services offered, new competencies required, and – in the face a number of internal and external challenges – libraries became an important part of the growing cyber culture.

UNIVERSITY OF ZAGREB, FACULTY OF PHILOSOPHY

The academic library is the most important source of knowledge on a college campus.[17] Its mission is to support scientific research, learning and education as an active partner to its University.

The long history of the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Zagreb started in 1662 when the first philosophical course of study was offered at the Jesuit Collegium in Zagreb. In 1886 the first seminars (today's departments) appeared, followed by the first seminar/department libraries:

1886 – Library of the Slavonic Philology Institute
1895 – Pedagogy Department Library
1919 – Romance Languages Department Library
1904 – German Philology Seminar Library
1906 – Classical Philology Department Library
1911 – Philosophy Department Library
1922 – Department of Psychology Library
1927 – Ethnology Department Library
1927 – Italian Department Library
1928 – Art History Department Library
1935 – English Department Library…

Today (summer 2005) there are:
- 19 department libraries
- 1 reading room
- 620,000 volumes of books and periodicals,

and
- 7,000 users (6,500 students and 500 teachers and researchers).

Humanities have always been keen on books as primary source of knowledge. But the global changes spared neither their reading community nor the libraries. So, in 1995, the Ministry of Science donated the first shipment of computers in order to improve library services, but it was not until 2001, when the libraries joined the project "System of Scientific Information", that they were given training and

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[17] Moran, 1984, p. xiiii.

motivation to cope with technology. The project was responsible for introducing computers into standard library operations, at first as support in administration, and later as help in searching for information.

In 2002 the libraries developed online catalogue based on Open Source Technologies.[18]

The increasing popularity of Internet as a communication network and tool for dissemination of information gave new tasks to libraries making them responsible for promotion of information literacy (writing and arranging texts, addressing the public, communicating through mail, searching for information…) and promotion of awareness of intellectual freedom. IFLA, the International Association of Library Associations and Institutions, recognized :

- Intellectual freedom as the right of every individual to both hold and express opinions and to seek and receive information
- Intellectual freedom as the basis of democracy
- Intellectual freedom as the core of the library concept.[19]

The presence of new media in library environment strongly characterized by paper and printed materials required new skills and competencies, in order to be relevant to learning process and scientific research. It threw a new light on two basic roles of libraries: the access role and the preservation role.

Although the digital libraries[20] promised to take over the world, we observe that a paperless society and disappearance of libraries still have not taken place. At the beginning of the 21st century the libraries are the hybrid ones. They integrate both print and electronic resources, books and e-books. They share cataloguing and resources. They unite physical objects and electronic information, traditional and electronic services.

ITALIAN STUDIES DEPARTMENT LIBRARY

The Italian Studies Department was founded in 1927. There are 11 Italian literature courses and 15 Italian language courses in which some 650 students are enrolled. The Italian Studies Department Library was founded in 1927. It has some 25,000 volumes of books and periodicals and an excellent collection of some 10,000 offprints. The Library's mission is to support scientific research, learning and education on the university level, providing access to teaching and learning materials, searching for information, and providing user education.

Besides giving useful information about the library, the library web pages provide links to specialized free and subscribed digital resources, balancing the needs of students, researchers and teachers:

- Subject directories
http://www.segnaweb.it/
http://www.griseldaonline.it/risorse.htm
- Opac / Union catalogues
http://www.aib.it/aib/opac/mai.htm
- Reference books
http://www.yourdictionary.com/languages/romance.html#italian
- E-learning
http://learningcommunity.info.it/default.asp
- Full texts
http://www.liberliber.it/biblioteca/
http://www.epnet.com/default.asp

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[18] http://knjiznice.ffzg.hr/webpac

[19] http://www.ifla.org/faife/index.htm

[20] Digital libraries are organizations that provide the resources, including the specialized staff, to select, structure, offer intellectual access to, interpret, distribute, preserve the integrity of, and ensure the persistence over time of collections of digital works so that they are readily and economically available for use by a defined community or set of communities. (Definition given by The Digital Library Federation (DLF) – a consortium of research libraries: http://www.diglib.org/about/dldefinition.htm.)

THE MANUZIO PROJECT

The Manuzio Project[21] is one of the Italian digital library projects.[22] It was named after Aldo Manuzio (Bassiano 1449 – Venezia 1515), a well known printer and publisher famous for developing the italic typeface style. The project started in 1992, on the principle of Project Gutenberg. The idea was to make culture available to everybody building and making available an open access collection of digital texts, books, articles and theses belonging to Italian or other literatures free of charge as web resource and also on CD-ROMs. The texts are available on the Internet by courtesy of Università degli Studi di Milano. The first digital text appeared in 1993. It was *I Malavoglia* by well known Italian novelist Giovanni Verga.[23]

The main principles are: production of accurate versions of masterpieces of world literature (written before 1923 – not protected by copyright any more – or those whose copyright holders permit their publication); availability 24/7 (better access compared to print resources); collaboration (among universities, associations, research centres); culture of sharing and preserving digital knowledge; volunteering – a few volunteers work for the benefit of many readers; preservation and creation of cultural heritage.

Compared to printed text, e-text has many advantages. It is available and easy to use, especially to those who for various reasons cannot get printed text. It has millions of geographically dispersed readers all over the world. And it is free of charge. It permits text analysis such as word search, statistics or lexicological analysis. These are impossible with print material This quality makes it appropriate for specialists who need reading accompanied by further analysis. It develops new approaches to knowledge production, access and distribution. It promotes the printed book itself. The production of non book materials doesn't mean that the books will cease to exist. On the contrary, in many aspects the digitized content means easier and more democratic reading. It improves access to information, knowledge, and written culture and promotes reading, but of course it also presumes a change of reading habits. It witnesses that the development of technology may lead to a positive social change.

LESSONS LEARNED

Long reading lists for literature courses, meaning time consuming activities to check, order and catalogue for librarians, and time to collect materials and time to read them for students, is the most important reason why the Manuzio Project e-texts aroused greater interest than any other web resource offered on the Italian Studies Department Library web pages. The usage of the e-texts proves the interdependence of electronic resources and university programs, as well as the importance of the support of academic staff in promoting new library services. As it was stated in many occasions, the library is entirely dependent upon its parent institution.[24]

Online service and safety of not breaking the law when downloading or printing, not depending on the library working hours or availability of printed copies made the Manuzio Project e-texts – the link appeared on the library web pages in 2004 – the most popular full text database for students. For the first time, the library witnessed greater reader interest in digital material than in paper. And it is important to remember that the choice to borrow e-text first, and print material only if the former was unavailable, was made by the readers who almost had no experience in using electronic resources for univerity courses in

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[21] http://www.liberliber.it/comunicare/english/#WHAT_S_THE_MANUZIO_PROJECT

[22] Such as:
- Gutenberg Project (USA 1971): classics of (not only) Anglosaxon literature and history (http://www.gutenberg.org/);
- Runeberg Project (Sweden, 1992): free electronic editions of classic Nordic (Scandinavian) literature (http://runeberg.org/);
- ARTFL (France/USA, 1981) and ABU (France, 1993): textual databases as research tools for scholars and students in all areas of French studies. (http://humanities.uchicago.edu/orgs/ARTFL/ ; http://abu.cnam.fr/)

[23] http://www.liberliber.it/biblioteca/v/verga/index.htm

[24] Brophy, 2000, p. XI

humanities.

The usability of the Manuzio Project e-texts encouraged further exploration into the world of electronic resources, previously unnoticed or considered unattractive. Althought in the majority of cases the information skills proved to be on a satisfactory level, organized training for using e-resources, so far delivered only sporadically, is strongly recomended.

CONCLUSION

In a world in continuous process of change, in which the academic issues range from undergraduate courses to lifelong learning, new media brought about changes in organizing and delivering library services. E-texts promote reading, making it easier and available to a broader reading public. The development of technology can lead to a positive social change and promote qualities such as: collaboration, volunteering and creation of cultural heritage.

The library itself may encourage the use of the digital collections, but the decisive support is the interest, initiative, and requirements of the academic staff and university plans and programs are also critical driving forces.

The use of digital resources should be accompanied by the organized user training. The university should promote user surveys concentating on e-texts usability in the humanities.

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Internet Censorship in Public and Children's Libraries: Its Effect on Children and the Role of Librarians

Agapi-Stamoulia Polyzou, University of Thessaly, Volos, Greece, and Theodora Tsoli, Panteion University, Athens, Greece

The emerging role of the Internet is evident not only in global economics and scientific research but also in everyday communication and life. The Internet is a popular means of communication in that it poses limited requirements for accessing its free content. It is also an excellent means of education since it enables students to browse the vast amounts of information stored in databases across the globe.

The dark side of the Internet is that it has become one of the most easily accessible means for finding inappropriate, obscene and offending audiovisual material. This fact has raised not only concerns but also demands for a proper kind of control over this material from parents, teachers and several other communities.

Censorship, by means of filtering Internet content and restricting access to the Internet in public domains (such as public libraries), has been proposed and implemented as the best technical solution for the problem. However, such demands contrast with the need to enhance the emerging Information Society not only by statutory declarations but also by everyday practice.

However, we believe that such solutions are neither technically satisfactory nor morally acceptable because they impede each individual's rights and freedom of communication, speech and education. Instead, libraries' patrons and particularly the youth, should be educated to discern and judge the quality and value of the content.

The role of librarians is therefore to ensure free and unconstrained access to the Internet especially for the young whom we expect to become well-educated and socially aware citizens for the sake of our common future.

THE ROLE OF THE INTERNET TODAY:
A UNIQUE MEANS OF COMMUNICATION AND EDUCATION

The Internet is a valuable medium for exchanging information and ideas and also a virtual space where people entertain, educate and express themselves. It is therefore a forum where people can "meet" and also a resource of inspiration, knowledge and progress for individuals, institutions and countries. No other technology can exceed national borders and eliminate obstacles to the free flow of information to the extent the Internet[25] does, and exploitation of all the Web's possibilities does not require any special or technical knowledge (Graham, 2001).

However, the Internet has evolved as a part of our society and has become a "reflection of its pathogenesis" (Mitrou, 2002). It proves to be harmful not only as a channel for the dissemination of illegal and harmful content but also when it is the pretext for the violation of human rights. We are going to review some of this threats and the response from professional librarians.

HUMAN RIGHTS AND PARTICIPATION IN THE INFORMATION SOCIETY

With the Declaration of Human Rights (1948)[26], for the first time[27] citizens of the world were acknowledged the right to practice those rights on a global bases "regardless of frontiers".

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[25] This is part of the declaration of the Global Internet Liberty Campaign, which is a coalition of institutions around the world who are cooperating in an attempt to protect the human right of freedom of expression at the Internet (see Global Internet Liberty Campaign, URL: http://www.gilc.org/).

[26] "Everyone has the right to freedom of expression; this right shall include freedom to seek, receive, and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or in print, in the form of art, or through any other media of his choice" Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Article 19. Adopted and proclaimed by General Assembly of the United Nations 10 December 1948 (Manitakis, 1994)

The Internet turns this vision into realization and the most important aspect of that revolution is that it traverses every aspect of our every day life (Anastasiadis, 2000) and re-establishes the nature of human communication as well as the nature of information which ceases to be "a thing but becomes a process, since every 'communicative exchange' produces new information" (Mitrou, 2002).

Among E.U. countries, Greece is the first to recognize the special value of information and has incorporated into its Constitution the rights concerning Information Society (in the constitutional revision of 2001). The repercussions can be extremely important regarding citizen's participation in economic, social and political life.

CENSORING THE INTERNET

Censorship is the suppression of people's ideas and their right to express them by certain individuals, groups, or officials who believe they are dangerous and therefore deserve disapproval. Censors put pressure on public institutions (such as public libraries) to prohibit or exclude from public access information they judge as inappropriate or dangerous [28](ALA, 2002). Often a censor's promptings for a library to remove a book or to filter Internet content are based on good intentions and logical reasons. Irrespective of their motives, censors believe they can discern good from evil and protect citizens[29].

The Internet is a means for accessing material including material that is illegal and harmful to children. Is this a problem and what kind of problem is that? Is it possible for government agencies and officials to limit use in an appropriate way? If so, what kind of material should be banned?

Internet Filtering

Access, especially to pornographic material, has prompted government dignitaries, public officers and private companies in several countries and particularly in the U.S., to undertake the task to protect minors by developing filtering programs. Also, strong advocates of technical solutions against harmful and illegal content are social and political pressure groups and private companies dealing with electronic commerce who wish to take an action towards a safe digital environment so as more customers and consumers browse and buy (Rosenberg, 2000).

The extensive use of filtering has become a public policy issue since Congress has passed (on December 2000) the Children's Internet Protection Act – CIPA. The act was approved by the Supreme Court (2003) and mandated compulsory use of filters in all schools and libraries that were receiving federal assistance through certain Acts and programs. It is estimated that nearly 60% of public libraries and schools in the US are affected by the implementation of CIPA.

Filtering Software Operation

Filtering software enables control of access to certain material available via the Internet, material that is considered to be unpleasant, threatening or dangerous. That software poses limits on accessing websites, especially with pornographic content, that is deemed to be inappropriate, offensive, dangerous, or controversial (Heins & Cho, 2001).

Internet filtering software has to be regarded from two viewpoints. Firstly, the methods used to perform blocking of certain web pages and secondly, the methods for selecting those web pages.

Regarding the first issue we can mention at least four methods:
- Keyword blocking
- Site blocking
- Web rating systems
- "Walled Garden" approach

[27] However, the UN General Assembly had already adopted the resolution 59 (I) in 1946 which states "freedom of information is a fundamental human right and … the touchstone of all the freedoms to which the United Nations is consecrated".

[28] American Library Association. *Intellectual Freedom and Censorship Q & A,* [Online], Available from: http://www.ala.org/ala/oif/basics/intellectual.htm [Accessed 27/4/2004].

[29] American Library Association. (2002), *The Censor: Motives and Tactics,* Available from: http://www.ala.org/ala/oif/challengesupport/dealing/censormotives.htm [Accessed 27/4/2004].

Regarding the second issue (that of methods for selecting web pages) we distinguish the following methods:

- "Self-rating" web pages by Internet content producers.
- "Third-party rating" by filter manufacturers.

PROBLEMS WITH FILTERS AND THE VIOLATION OF THE RIGHT TO FREEDOM OF SPEECH

Technical Problems

Automatic identification of words and phrases in texts has raised doubt about the effectiveness and credibility of filtering software. Several examples (Rosenberg, 2000; Schrader, 1999; Heins & Cho, 2001) illustrate that legitimate and valuable information concerning sexuality, sexual education or minority rights is blocked.

The NCAC[30] presented in 2001, an extensive report reviewing all studies which described the performance of 19 commercial products of the U.S. market. Certain cases are presented where the result of filtering was to block legal and useful content (Johnson, 1998) due to the automatic detection and blocking of words and phrases.

Low credibility and ineffectiveness of the software cause great concern to librarians. In a research involving 111 public libraries in Great Britain, librarians expressed concern about the proliferation of commercial products with different technical characteristics and modes of operation; however, their view is that, apart from technical considerations and limitations, filtering is an important means of control (Wilson & Oulton, 2000).

Moral and Ethical Issues

Another point of controversy is that filtering software is based on subjective and not transparent evaluation and selection processes. Nothing is revealed on how "illegal" or "restricted" words and phrases are defined and who conducts the evaluation process. Manufacturers reveal only general subjects ("adults only", "alcohol", "gambling", "lingerie", "sex education", "hate speech") mainly for competition reasons. It is also possible that their intentions are to project and promote their morality and ideology (Schrader, 1999).

The result is that librarians, in libraries where filtering software has been installed, are totally unaware about the selection criteria of appropriate content (since others have decided for them) and the extent to which those criteria comply with their own which have been developed over the years and after studying the community they serve and complying to the constitutional requirements. Librarians find themselves in difficult position because they do not set the rules facing an immediate danger to suffer censorship from entities and organizations outside the library.

Legal problems

In the United States of America the issue of the use of filtering technology has become a topic of legislative regulation since 1996. A great deal of criticism has been exerted over the possibility of a violation of the First Amendment's concerning intellectual freedom, mainly via the intense use of filtering technology in libraries.

When the law Communications Decency Act (CDA) (1996), provided strict fines for those providing the means of access to "obscene" content to young people under 18, the American Library Association (ALA) reacted, and in 1997 the law was rendered unconstitutional. However, the use of filters was generalized to end up with their installation in public computers found in libraries, cultural centers, schools and universities.

This was followed by the "Children's Internet Protection Act (CIPA)" which determines that all libraries receiving federal financing are compelled to install Technology Protection Measures (and not

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[30] Heins, M. and Cho, Marjorie (2001). Internet filters: a public policy report. *Free Expression Policy Project, National Coalition Against Censorship*. Available from: http://www.ncac.org/issues/internetfilters.html [Accessed 5/4/2004].

only infiltration software) in all their computers whether they were used by adults or children. The ALA resorted to the Supreme Court and advanced opposite arguments; however, the Supreme Court rejected the appeal and ratified CIPA (in 2003) on the grounds that Internet filtering and protection measures in general do not differ from the process of selecting books which is a daily practice in libraries.

The law has been put in force on the 1st of July 2004 and it has placed a lot of dilemmas for librarians because irrespective of their actions they stand the chance to be found exposed. The minimization of excessive blocking and the extensive use of filter deactivation mechanisms for the adults is proposed (Minow, M. 2004).

LIBRARIANS PROFESSIONAL UNIONS

The American Library Association (ALA) drew on the statement of the Library Bill of Rights (ALA, 1996) in order to reaffirm that libraries constitute fora of information and ideas and to stressed that they will be opposed to censorship in their effort to fulfill their responsibility as information providers.

The ALA characteristically declared that "libraries are places of inclusion rather than exclusion" (ALA Intellectual Freedom Committee, 2000).

The British Library Association (The Library Association, 2000), believes that individuals should have the right to select the information they wish to receive, while libraries on their behalf should create the essential conditions for the unimpeded access of information.

The Greek Librarians and Information Science Professionals Union (EEVEP) explicitly declares in its Code of Ethics[31] that "the librarian rejects every type of censorship for the material that he/she assembles, processes and allocates for the public's information". Up to now, librarians in Greece have not faced censorship in the form of imposition of infiltration installation in the public libraries[32].

Libraries should not adopt roles that do not suit them. It is hypocritical that some people argue the Internet corrupts the young when, at the same moment, anybody has access to prohibited and dangerous material in a dozen other ways. As Meeks and McCullough write: "technology is no substitute for conscience" [33]

THE INTERNET: A MEDIUM OF EDUCATION WITHIN AND OUTSIDE LIBRARIES

Research (Andersen et. al. 1994) has proved that children who grow up in an environment which encourages linguistic exchanges develop their language skills and their cognitive operations more easily. Today, children's libraries all over the world hold various programs for the support of literacy and have incorporated programs for the use of computers and special software (for painting, music, games etc.) as well as the use of the Internet for teaching reasons but also for entertainment.

Young people are social and psychological "constructors" of a society in which multimedia have an important influence. This results from the fact that children appear to be particularly attracted by the picture (North, 2000). Therefore, today, entertainment and relaxation often include the use of some form of technology. It cannot be argued that creative games and discussion with the co-fellows, inside or outside home, are some of the best ways of amusement, discovery, and self-perception. However, entertainment and the process of learning via the technological means cannot be rejected.

Public libraries[34] are important centers and sources of learning. In a meeting of the European Council in Lisbon in 2000, new basic dexterities were determined which should be included in the daily provision of all the educational and cultural centers. Therefore there is a need to promote more services for children services based on the Information Society Technologies such as those provided by public libraries.

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[31]See at http:// www. eeb. gr / deontology. htm
[32] Avgoulea, M., et al. (2003), "Policies for content filtering in educational networks: the case of Greece", *Journal of Telematics and Informatics*, vol. 20, no. 1, pp. 71-95.
[33] It is referred to Schrader, Alvin (1999).
[34] Governing Directives for Libraries, Files and Museums (2004). Veria Public Central Library.

A Wealth of Internet Educational Possibilities

One of the main objectives of education is to enable citizens to play an active role in society, strengthening their reasoning and awareness. Freedom of expression and free trading of ideas and information are the essential conditions of future society.

The Internet is used and serves henceforth officially many transactions between citizens and the state. The objective of the action plan "Electronic Europe" (e-Europe) is to place citizens at the center of information and facilitate easier access to public services and participation to democratic processes. Moreover, the Internet is already widely used for electronic commerce allowing people to do business with individuals and enterprises located either next door or at the other end of the world. Young people should become familiar with the Internet's different and strange faces (e.g. "ghost enterprises") and should be educated to develop their judgment criteria.

The Internet has also promoted distance education. Teleconferencing or real time discussions minimize distances and allow greater numbers of population to acquire higher education or simply to re-educate themselves. These capabilities along with wealth of information stored in digital libraries enable each person to find and study sources and texts and, together with online ask-a-librarian services, create ideal conditions for those who cannot or do not have the economic ease to study or do research abroad.

The Internet also allows people to participate in a multicultural environment, where they can "meet" other people and get accustomed to their way of life and customs, their religions and other beliefs.

Another basic reason for which schools, school libraries and other children's libraries should include new technologies and more specifically have the access to the Internet from terminals that are found in their spaces, is the effort to decrease the digital gap. In a great number of rural regions, libraries are perhaps the sole places where residents can have access to the Internet and children can find support for their study and their homework.

LIBRARIES AND INTERNET CENSORSHIP

Alternative Solutions to Internet Filtering Software for Libraries

Librarians and their unions, especially in the U.S.A., have put forward proposals for alternative solutions to filtering techniques and technological protection measures. These proposals require increased vigilance and responsibility from both the librarian's and the users' community. However, in the long run, they are more effective and essential for the young because they focus in the development of responsibility via education. Some of these include:

- Development of Internet acceptable use policies –AUP's.
- Educating and informing parents.
- Use of individual spaces of work (privacy screens) so that the public view of screens is limited.
- Defining time restrictions for the use of computers.
- Development of recommended web page collections drawn up by organizations such as ALA and placed on libraries' web sites.
- Continuous education and information of library personnel.
- Collaboration of different types of libraries.
- Attendance of libraries in the development of national use policies.
- Development of information literacy via the integration of relative courses in the school programs.

Ways to Safeguard Freedom in Libraries

A library has two ways to safeguard its selection policy from censors. Preventing the appearance of such cases or taking more drastic measures. What specifically should a library do in order to deter, as far as possible, the appearance of censorship?

- To develop a proposal program of recommended and advisable material that one can find on the Internet for specific subjects. Update these proposals regularly.

- To be informed with regard to national, European and international developments on issues of Internet censorship (legislation, modifications of legislation, decrees).
- To strengthen efforts to fight censorship by participating actively in meetings, congresses, and unions that try to protect the right of free expression.
- To keep library users informed about their rights.
- To develop a standardized process of handling complaints.

Unarguably, violence gives birth to violence but we should not confuse such an acceptance with the notions that the depiction of violence also gives birth to violence. We should not forget that the world before radio, television and the Internet was not without expressions of cruelty and violence. We should not also forget that the material, which is prohibited, tends to draw a lot more attention and it is much more attractive than it would be if it had not been prohibited.

THE ROLE OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES AND LIBRARIANS IN THE NEW ENVIRONMENT: CONTINUING SAFEGUARDS

Participation in a democratic regime presupposes citizens to be well informed so that they can shape and express an opinion. This ability develops over the years with the help of the family, the education system and the mass media. Public libraries contribute in this process offering ideas and information in a variety of forms. They should therefore be "open" to all users and offer the widest possible spectrum of opinions, irrespective of the popularity of the material or personal opinions, sex, political philosophies, religion or national origin of authors.

The problem of harmful and illegal content in the Internet is present and clear, especially referring to children's or juveniles' protection. However, the use of filtering mechanisms does not appear to be advisable in order to face the problem due to major technical disadvantages. Above all, they limit peoples' right to access material that is law protected and their right to express themselves freely.

Into the new digital environment, the library is more likely to be a point for public access than a content selector. Facing a different way in the distribution and storage of information, libraries cannot apply some type of obligatory material choice but should educate the community in the most acceptable and responsible use of the Internet.

The role of libraries as community instructive centers appears to increase. Especially for children, the library should indicate the dangers (proper use of the e-mail service, prudent use of credit cards, etc.) and how they can be avoided, while particular importance should be given to the Responsible Use of Internet. Moreover, parents should also be educated in the same way in order to discover the advantages and how to exploit it with the most advantageous way.

When censors express their opinion and their concerns they exercise the same rights as the librarians when they face censorship. Their right to express their opinions and to try to convince others to adopt their opinions will only be protected if the rights of persons whose ideas they detest the ideas are protected also. The rights of both two sides should be protected or else no one will survive[35].

The issue of Internet censorship requires not more technology but judgment and we are gravely mistaken if we believe that the technological inventions could replace human judgment. We should never expect a technical invention to make the segregation between what is damaging and what is not (e.g. pornography and art). If we had in our possession such an invention for the Internet, we would have the means for preventing access or prohibiting objectionable material. However, even in that case, we would have to decide if we would use or not such an invention, on which subjects and under what circumstances. It is obvious that neither decision could be taken by such an invention for us (Graham, 2001).

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[35] Vl. ALA. *Intellectual Freedom and Censorship Q and A,* [Online], available at: http://www.ala.org/ala/oif/basics/intellectual.htm

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Successful Journey: A Comparative Case Study of Public Library Services for Children

Aira Lepik and Shvea Sogenbits, Tallinn University, Estonia

This paper reviews the role of public libraries in developing reading skills and related factors, such as information literacy and lifelong learning.

In knowledge-based society, life-long learning and information literacy are very important. People who have been oriented to learning since childhood acquire skills which are of great importance in life. Next to pre-school institutions and schools, public libraries play an important role in developing children's reading skills and related factors, such as information literacy.

Based on this, a joint research project was conducted in the Department of Information Studies at Tallinn University and the Tallinn Central Library, titled "*Public Library Services for Children: a Comparative Case Study of Services for Children in Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library*". The present article draws on the main approaches and results arising from the study[36]. The aim of the research was to analyze the needs and potential of public library developments for encouraging children to use library resources and services; to analyze and compare public library services for children and teenagers in Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library; and to create a successful public library model for serving children.

Surveys on children's reading skills and information literacy are viewed in terms of the role of public libraries in shaping and developing children. To produce a well-grounded service model for children, the empirical part looks at the components that services for children in public libraries should include.

HISTORY OF PUBLIC LIBRARY SERVICES FOR CHILDREN IN ESTONIA

Throughout history, public library services have been first made available for adult readers and only after a while for children. A well-known American analyst working in the field of librarianship Virginia A. Walter published the article, *"Public Library Service to Children and Teens: a Research Agenda",* in 2003 in the serial, *Library Trends,* where she also gave an overview of the history of services for children in public libraries (Walter, 2003).

The first public library in Estonia was founded by teacher Hans Wühner in Tarvastu in 1860. A great number of libraries were subsequently opened in the 1870s and 1880s. Back then, school children were not allowed to use the paid public library and were only able to read literature provided by school libraries. Unfortunately, the selection was very poor and mostly in Russian (Veskimägi, 2000, p. 270-272).

The first time an Estonian public library started services for children was in 1933 when the Youth Library was opened in Tallinn Central Library. Prior to opening the Youth Library, a meeting of school councils and teachers was held to set out the principles of library activities. At first, the Youth Library was intended for school children from form 5 to the end of secondary school and other children aged 12-17. In 1938, the internal rules were changed and the library started to serve younger children as well (Pulst, 1938). The Youth Library became independent in 1945. From 1946 to 1947 it was renamed the Children's Department of Tallinn Central Library. In 1948 it regained its independent status (Jürman, 1997). In 2002 the children's department of literature in the Estonian language, which had not existed in Tallinn Central Library for more than 50 years, was reopened (Tallinn Central Library, 2002).

During the Soviet period, numerous children's libraries were opened in Estonia. Today most of the independent children's libraries have merged with the adult departments of libraries, as the Nordic system of a family library has been adopted in Estonia. As a rule, the children's department is in the same

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building or next door to the main library, or children are served using the same facilities as the adults. Children often have their own corner with children's literature, games, etc.

The authors of the study believe that the family library system functions well. However, there are several aspects that should be taken into account when organizing the services of public libraries. For instance, there are special hours for children as they are at school in the morning and therefore unable to visit the library until the afternoon. If children and adults are provided with library services in the same room or building, the transfer from reading children's literature to reading adult literature is smooth. However, if the children's department is located in a separate building, children often fail to visit the library's adult department. One advantage of the family library system is that parents who are active library visitors often take children with them at an early age, which makes it a family event where all family members are able to satisfy their information needs in one and the same building.

COMPARATIVE CASE STUDY IN CREATING PUBLIC LIBRARY SERVICING MODEL FOR CHILDREN

To create a successful public library service model for children, a comparative case study was used. The design of the comparative case study involves a combined research method used for in-depth surveys of a particular aspect of information science. This often includes the collection of data in several forms such as oral reports, interviews and observations (as a primary source), plus written reports and archives (Gorman, 1997).

In this study, data were gathered and analyzed with the aim of creating a descriptive model covering all instances or cases related to the subject.

A Comparative Analysis of Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library

The empirical research concentrated on comparing and analyzing services for children in the libraries of two capital cities on the shores of the Baltic Sea – Tallinn and Helsinki. Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library cooperate via active communication and shared experience — as yet, the two libraries have not concluded an official cooperation agreement.

Both Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library are public libraries where great attention is paid to children and coordinating services for children. In recent years, Tallinn Central Library has introduced dramatic changes to its way it organizes its operations in order to better serve children, and these have been very effective. Regular events for children are organized in the departments for children's literature in Estonian and foreign languages. The library has branches in every city district to provide services for the children in those areas. In 2003, the structure of Tallinn Central Library was de-layered, and as with the structure of the department for foreign literature; the children's department and reading room of the library were united with the department for Estonian literature. The head of the children's department at Tallinn Central Library became the chief specialist in charge of services for children and was put in charge of organizing work related to serving children within the whole system (Mäepere, 2004). Helsinki City Library also pays great attention to children and developing their reading skills and information literacy. This was established in the OECD *Program for International Student Assessment* (PISA), in which Finish children ranked highest of 30 countries on reading literacy in 2000. – – in terms of literacy, Finnish children are in first position among 30 other countries studied (OECD, 2003).

The design of this combined comparative case study enabled us to make a productive analysis of how Helsinki City Library has managed to effectively coordinate services for children and thereby contribute to achieving such a high literacy level. The analysis also enabled us to make an in-depth comparison of services for children in Tallinn Central Library with those in Helsinki City Library.

The empirical research started with the collection of statistical data both on Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library. The data were analyzed in the light of the last five years, as the situation with regard to services for children in Tallinn Central Library has transformed considerably during that period. In collecting the statistical data, our main focus was on information that enabled us to analyze the efficiency of and factors influencing initiatives for children.

Data was gathered on the following indicators for the period 1999–2003:

- The number of citizens, including number of children, in both Tallinn and Helsinki;
- The number of users, including children, in both Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library;
- The number of visits, including visits by children, to both Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library;
- The number of loans, including loans to children, from both Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library;
- The number of exhibitions and events for children in both Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library.

After collecting the statistical data, expert interviews were conducted with the chief specialist in charge of services for children, Ülle Kuuse, and deputy director, Arda Mäepere, from Tallinn Central Library, and with the chief specialist in charge of services for children, Tytti Tuunanen, experienced specialist and initiator of children's projects, Maija-Liisa Korhonen, and children's library worker, Severi Hirvi, from Helsinki City Library.

The comparison of Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City library also took into account the differences between Estonian and Finnish societies, legislation concerning public libraries, history of services for children and the objectives and potential of the libraries being compared. The comparative analysis viewed the activity of the two libraries in developing and describing services for children, figures related to serving children, work related to and services directed at children and the layout of children's literature.

The Empirical Research Results: A Case Study of Public Library Services for Children

A comparison of the history of Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library revealed that there was a gap of fifty years between founding the two libraries. Helsinki City Library was founded on 7 October 1860 upon the initiative of the Association of Wives. In 1871, the first public reading room was opened with the financial support of the city government. In 1876, the library was occupied by the city administration and the library had to find a new home. It moved to Pasila district and was reopened in 1886. The first children's department was opened in 1912 (Helsinki City Library, 2003). On 14 October 1907, the Free Public Library and Reading Room opened its doors to users at Nunne 2, Tallinn. Services for children were first offered in 1933, when the Youth Library was opened. It was the first children's library in Estonia (Pulst 1938). In 2000, the renovation of the library's main building began and was completed in the summer of 2001. At the end of January 2002, the library started providing services for users in the renovated building and the children's department was reopened after having been closed for a long time (Mäepere, 2004).

Considering these findings, it can be said that Helsinki City Library has much more experience in serving children than Tallinn Central Library. The children's department at Tallinn Central Library was closed for a long time, and it was only in 2002, in connection with the reopening of the children's department, that the head of the children's department, Ülle Kuuse, started to organize the provision of services for children throughout the whole system.

Tallinn Central Library consists of a central library and 19 branch libraries. The library offers home services to customers with special needs (Tallinn Central Library 2004). Helsinki City Library consists of a main library and 34 branch libraries. Two library buses deliver books to those city districts that do not have their own library. Helsinki City Library has 17 branch libraries in hospitals, clinics and homes for elderly people. It also offers a home service to customers with special needs (Helsinki City Library, 2004).

Thanks to a greater number of branch libraries and library buses, Helsinki is better covered with a public library network than Tallinn. Tallinn does not yet have a branch in every district. For instance, a branch is planned to be opened in Kristiine district. Tallinn also lacks library buses.

The rules for users also differ in the two libraries. In Tallinn Central Library, it is possible to borrow 5 items at a time. The standard loan period is 28 days, 14 days for obligatory literature and 7 days

for magazines (Tallinn Central Library, 2004a). The chief specialist in charge of services for children, Ülle Kuuse, and deputy director, Arda Mäepere, at Tallinn Central Library consider the number of loans permitted and loan period sufficient, as the number of copies in Tallinn Central Library is small due to restricted financial means, and so if items move faster all users have more opportunities for getting hold of their desired items (Kuuse & Mäepere, 2004). The activities of the central and branch libraries of Helsinki City Library are conducted electronically. Without a library card it is possible to read newspapers and books on open shelves and listen to music. In order to borrow items, users have to get a library card. The maximum number of loans allowed is 40, of which 20 can be CDs, 5 videos, 5 DVDs and 5 CD-ROMs. The standard loan term is 28 days, 14 days for the most popular literature and 7 days for videos and DVDs (Helsinki City Library, 2004).

The workers at Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library view services for children in public libraries similarly. The main aim of services for children in public libraries is to offer children access to information, knowledge and culture. Acquiring, preserving and processing children's literature and making it available to children is considered very important, as is meeting the information needs of children, introducing children's writers, organizing events, book exhibitions, quizzes and reading programs for children, providing activities during school holidays, etc. The chief specialists admit that finding competent staff is quite a difficult aspect of their work. Librarians servicing children have to be very well acquainted with children's literature, active and energetic, know about child development, age peculiarities and psychology. The environment of the children's department plays also an important role. Children should feel comfortable in the library; it should have suitable furniture, and children should be given an opportunity to exhibit their own works.

Helsinki City Library and Tallinn Central Library offer similar basic services for children, but the Helsinki library has a greater number of services. The main services in both libraries include home lending, in-library use, information services and ILLs (inter-library loans). Children can also listen to CDs and cassettes, use computers for learning, play games, participate in various events and quizzes, see book exhibitions and use paid printing and copying services. Unlike at Tallinn Central Library, the children at Helsinki City Library have their own electronic catalogue, homepage, fairy-tale catalogue, SATU-SAGA and they can reserve books, CDs, videos, etc.

Although the children's department at Helsinki City Library was opened before that of Tallinn Central Library, the children's department at the Tallinn library was the first of its kind in Estonia. The comparative study revealed that the Helsinki City Library has devoted more attention to serving children and has developed a greater number of services. It also offers more events and reading projects for children. The children's department at Tallinn Central Library was closed for more than 50 years. In recent years, several branch libraries have been temporarily closed as well due to renovation or transfer to the use of electronic catalogues. Considering all this, Tallinn Central Library has still been very successful in serving children. The authors of this study believe that it has an important role in providing children with library services in Tallinn and that reading and visiting libraries from an early age can help children to develop language skills, improve their level of literacy, build a strong foundation for future educational achievement, as well as inculcate a love for books and reading.

SUCCESSFUL MODEL FOR SERVICING CHILDREN

In the creation of a model the authors relied on the theoretical guidelines, examples, trends and conclusions in the Master's thesis *Public Library Services for Children: a Comparative Case Study of Services for Children in Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library.*

The aim of the model is to provide an overview of the factors – both internal and external – influencing the service for children in public libraries, and to table those influential internal factors for discussion and analysis. The model of the successful service for children is directed mostly at librarians working in children's departments. Such successful service can take place when the external factors such as local government development plans, library legislation, the cultural policy of the Republic of Estonia, the funding of public libraries, etc. support and facilitate the overall development of public libraries, including the special field of services for children. The number of children affects the service quality considerably. When the number of

visits decreases, the funds allocated for services for children will be reduced as well. The prerequisite for successful services for children is the implementation and development of all or most of the influential factors. Inner factors affecting the successful children's service are:

- Factors in connections with the service personnel:
    1. The co-operation between librarians, parents, schools and infant-schools;
    2. Satisfying the children's needs for information;
    3. The professional competence of children's librarians: very good knowledge of children's literature, about the age-related differences, positive characteristics in connection with children's work, positive attitude, conversation skills, energy etc.
- Factors in connection with collections:
    1. Compiling a good collection of children's literature;
    2. Compiling a collection of documents in connection with the topics interesting to children – CDs, DVDs, magazines and videos about pop-music etc.;
    3. Logical system of children's literature, explanations of location marks;
    4. Reflection of children's literature in an online catalogue.
- Factors in connection with information literacy:
    1. Advancing children's information literacy, organizing events to improve it constantly;
    2. Helping to use the library services more effectively – publishing helping aids for that;
    3. Compiling online catalogue for children;
    4. Compiling a special website just for children;
    5. Organizing information workshops for readers.
- Factors in connection with developing reading skills:
    1. Developing the reading skills of children, organizing the events to promote reading among children;
    2. Aids for helping the children to navigate within the collections – lists, programs etc;
    3. Introducing new children's books in organized events for children, storytelling, discussion groups;
    4. Introducing writers of children's books;
    5. Organizing book exhibitions;
    6. Making suggestions in service situations.

By implementing the model, the successful service for children in public libraries can be achieved. This includes meeting children's information needs; acquiring, processing and storing children's literature and making it available to children; shaping children's reading habits and their information literacy. Successful service in public libraries depends greatly on competent librarians.

What is important is that the efficiency of the model can be tested by the reflection effect. For instance, the service for children in public libraries is successful when the influencing factors of information literacy have been taken into account. If successful service has been realized, the information literacy of children should improve.

As to internal influencing factors, it can be said that there is a connection between every aspect. If there is no children's collection, organizing events for promoting reading is complicated. The collections determine whether librarians will be able to meet children's information needs or not. To promote information literacy, children should be interested in the factors influencing reading skills – children have to be able to read to become interested in information. Without children's literature collections it is difficult to promote information literacy via electronic catalogues in the library.

Model of successful children's service in public libraries: a comparative case study of Tallinn Central Library and Helsinki City Library.
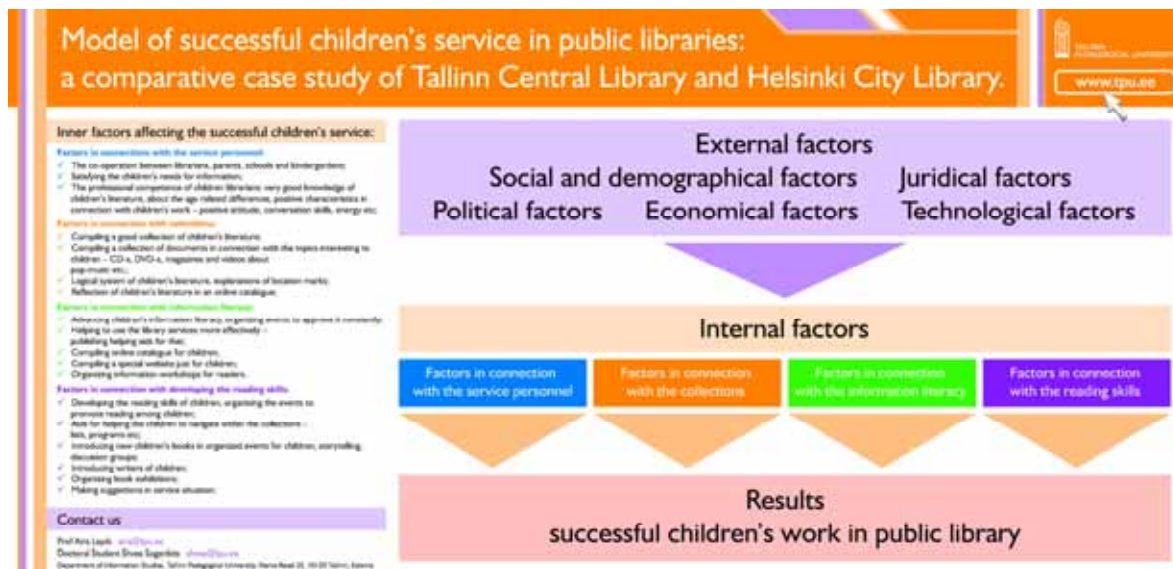
CONCLUSION

In a modern knowledge-based society, great attention is paid to information literacy and life-long learning. People are expected to acquire those skills already in childhood. Therefore, besides pre-school institutions and schools, public libraries play an important role in shaping and supporting children's reading skills and information literacy.

Today the term *information literacy* has a much wider meaning and is not only limited to library usage skills. In addition to schools, public libraries should start to develop information literacy among children. There are several opportunities: organizing library classes, teaching how to use electronic catalogues, creating special homepages for children, etc. The successful service model for children presented in this article includes all important aspects that public libraries should take into account when providing services for children. If a successful service is realized, all children visiting public libraries will benefit.

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How to Promote Reading among Children and Youth

Silvija Tretjakova, National Library of Latvia and Aija Kalve, Riga Teacher Training and Education Management Academy, Latvia

In 2001, the Centre of Children's Literature of the National Library of Latvia (LNB) together with the State Culture Capital Foundation started the project "Children's jury". In 2002, the project acquired the status of a Reading Promotion program and during the years of its activities the program has become widely popular and achieved acclaim in society. The experience gained in the Netherlands where a similar program has been operating since 1988 was used when developing the conception of the Reading Promotion program.

The aim of the Reading Promotion program is to popularise reading, to develop the literary interests of pupils of different age groups, to promote the improvement of pupils' reading skills and to provide pupils with the possibility of reading the latest literature meant for children and adolescents.

The research described here was carried out within the framework of the Reading Promotion program in order to find out which themes and genres children and adolescents like, and which authors enjoy most popularity among them. The reading motives and the peculiarity of the relations between the subject – the reader and the object of their interest – the piece of fiction – are determined. The results of these studies are taken into consideration when choosing books for reading for each particular age group and when organizing different activities for working with the book.

The authors of the article have carried out several studies among the younger subjects (10-11 year olds) who are the participants of the Children's jury. This age group is chosen because the emotionality and inquisitiveness characterize younger adolescents, and, besides, they have already developed certain cognitive interests. The age peculiarity of this group is the fact that different stimuli and motives mobilize pupils for active work. At this age pupils have already developed sufficient reading and writing skills in order to express their thoughts and opinion about what they have read.

The experience and the results of the Reading Promotion program prove that reading among the younger teenagers is really becoming popular and that pupils themselves become advertisers of good books. The summary and analysis of the results of the survey support the conclusion that the most popular books among younger teenagers are folk-tales and literary tales. The evaluations of books written by pupils prove that a good number of readers have understood the essence of the book, have seen the contemporary topicalities in the author's text and have thought about the scale of ethic values.

INTRODUCTION

The well-known French writer Daniel Pennac in his book *Comme Un Roman* writes: "The verb *to read* does not like the imperative mood. Similarly also some other verbs, like *to love… to dream…* Of course, you can always try. Be brave, go ahead: Love me! Dream! Read! Read at last, I order you to read! The result? None" (Pennac, 1992).

The interest in reading is created together with acquiring the skills or literacy. At first interest in reading is general but afterwards, it focuses on particular literature. The term *interest* is interpreted in many ways but in all interpretations it has a common trait – interest is a basically positive emotional attitude towards an object, the desire to learn to know the object.

Literary interest by its content and character is as diverse as humans. However, this interest is highly affected by:
1) the age group particularities
2) literacy skills
3) the child's individual system of interests
4) the available book environment
5) marketing
6) the popularity of a genre or theme at the given time (Svence, 1999).

CHILDREN'S JURY

In 2001 the Centre of Children's Literature of the LNB with the support of the State Culture Capital Foundation organized a reading promotion project under the title "Children's Jury". In 2002 the project acquired the status of the national target programme involving 245 libraries all over Latvia, and 5425 children as assessors and experts on the latest books. In 2003 it already involved 10 000 children; in 2004 – 450 libraries with 13 000 children; in 2005 – 475 libraries with 15 000 children.

What was the impulse for elaboration of such a project? It was the urge to involve a wider audience of young readers in an exchange of opinions on newly published books; to get to know the opinions of children in the country by providing the same opportunities for them as for town-children as regards access to new books still smelling of print-shop. We wanted to arouse minds of our writers with new ideas, to assist in establishment of closer ties and dialogue with the most demanding readers who were sincerely named as "experts of the Children's Jury" in libraries involved in the project.

THE RESEARCH AND THE RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH WITHIN THE READING PROMOTION PROGRAM

The authors will describe the research and the results of the research within the Reading Promotion program and Children's Jury in Latvia. The aim of the program was to raise children's interest in reading, develop their reading skills and popularise good children's books. The involvement of children in assessment of books is not our invention. We borrowed the idea of the Netherlands National Children's Jury within which such a reading programme was organized for the first time in Europe, in 1988.

Literary interest is more or less steady. It is intensely emotional, involving the attitude of a reader towards a literary work as the art of word. It is expressed by the choice of books, perception and judgment. To form literary interests it is first necessary to find out the themes, genres, authors, and forms of description that attract the readers of a particular age group. There is a need to establish what is expected from literature and what literature is preferred. It is equally necessary and logical to research the character and details of these attitudes that exist between the subject – the reader – and his interest object – the book.

By learning the answers to these questions, it is possible to offer a choice of books that interest students of various age groups, advertise particular works, and popularise students' own thoughts on reading and books, simultaneously leaving a choice of reading to any reader.

During the pre-teenage years (10-11years) which is characterized by emotionality, inquisitiveness and activity and at the same time by some, though small life experience, the stimuli and motives mobilise pupils a lot. Games and elements of competition as well as long-term projects may turn into such stimuli and promote the development and consolidation of meaningful motives and needs for new activities.

The product of the action develops through attaining the aim and developing the forms of cognitive activities. The product embodies both knowledge and skills and enriched experience. The action ends with the result which expresses itself as the topical developments of the personality: activity, independence, stable cognitive and social motives which prove the subject position of the pupil. During the final stage of the cognitive activity in his studies the pupil assesses his/her product of the work and compares it the set aim and objectives. In case of a positive assessment the activity acquires personal meaningfulness and significance. The objective importance of the activity and its personal essence get closer. This forms a higher level of cognitive activity and is expressed in a meaningful motivation (Čehlova, 2002).

These statements were paid due respect when organizing the first large reading promotion connected with the project in Latvia.

WHAT DO THE JURY'S EXPERTS DO?

The Children's Jury works in four age groups: forms 1-2 (6-8 years); forms 3-4 (9-10 years); forms 5-7 (11-13 years), and forms 8-9 (14-16 years). A special commission of library representatives, university staff, and teachers choose and offer six books from the most interesting, most joyful reading published during the last year (including books of both the original literature and translated literature) to each group. Literature of different genres, nations, subject matters, and difficulty levels has been

represented in this collection. Children who would like to participate in the program and work as a member of the jury, write an agreement with the library where they promise to read these 6 books and assess them.

At the end of the year children record which book in their view has deserved the 1ˢᵗ, 2nd or 3rd place and write an advertisement for their favourite book. Approximately 40,000 inquiry forms were delivered to the Children's Literature Centre of the National Library of Latvia, indicating which three books each jury member liked the best.

The Reading Promotion program is topical also this year. The State Culture Capital Foundation has granted 50 thousand Latvian lats for its development (approximately 71 thousand euro). This money is used:

1. To buy new book sets for all age groups and send them to the libraries taking part in the program.
2. To make book posters.
3. To produce publicity materials attracting attention – reflectors, stickers, bookmarks, pens, cups, T-shirts with a special symbol of jury children – the "Green good-humoured creature with book wings".
4. To organize the Holidays of Books in Riga where the best juries from all age groups from all Latvia take part.
5. Undertakings planned for the Jury's experts provide for different meetings with writers, literature critics, publishers, and translators. Discussions, competitions, seminars, reading camps, carnivals of literary characters etc.

To choose the best books for each age groups every year, surveys are being organized and the results of these surveys are taken into consideration when selecting the books for reading for each age group and when organizing different activities for the work with books.

In 2003, a survey was conducted among one hundred 10-11 year old pupils who participated in the Reading Promotion program and were active members of Children's jury for at least two years. The results show that 32% prefer reading folk fairytales, 30% literary fairytales, 25%- stories, 10% fantasy, and 3% poetry.

The surveys performed for several years show that the most popular reading for this age group is fairytales. It could be that the younger teenagers are attracted by the opposites of the good and evil, the wonders and mystical transformations, the themes connected with the family problems or social issues (Stikāne, 2005).

The respondents are interested in themes such as (1) strange, wonderful events: (2) the animal world; (3) travel to foreign lands; (4) friendship; and (5) scary, extreme situations.

Pupils choose books according to (1) the suggestions of friends; (2) the suggestions of teachers; (3) the volume of the books; (4) parental suggestions; (5) the suggestions of the librarian; and (6) design and illustrations.

Pupils admitted that reading: (1) is interesting; (2) enhances a person's intelligence; (3) is good and one needs to know to read well; (4) helps imagining life in different places; and (5) is better than sitting in front of a computer.

The summary of the results shows that purposefully organized stimuli, marketing and advertisement have a large impact on the choice of books and promotion of reading. Many pupils become good book advisers through participation in the Children's' Jury and obtain the reading experience.

The following are the advertisements written by pupils on their favourite books.

Jānis Ankravs. *Desas piedzīvojumi /Adventures of the Sausage*
1. You want to relax from studies? Travel together with the sausage! Fun is guaranteed.(Elīna, 10 years)
2. I recommend others to read this book because it is not only exciting but also a bit sad. There are moments when the sausage gets lost in the city. I felt sorry for her then. (Dana,10 years)

3. Do you want to know what a sausage did? Then read this book and you will learn what the sausage discussed with the politicians. (Žanis, 11 years)
4. Reading this book I thought about my life. It seems that this fairy-tale is written about real events. Interesting! (Anna, 11 years)
5. The book has nice illustrations. The book is interesting. I recommend you to read it. (Katrīna, 9 years)

Jolanta Mackova   *Uguns grāmata /The Book of Fire*
1. Read this book and you will learn that you shouldn't play with fire! (Sintija, 9 years)
2. You can learn a lot from this book. Such a book should be read because it helps in situations when you are asked questions! (Lība, 10 years)
3. There are fantastic puns and lovely illustrations in this book. (Simona, 9) years
4. You will learn about all the good and bad things that the fire brings. I liked most to read about the spider and the interesting puzzles. If you read it you will find it interesting, too! (Gunita,10 years).

These words have not been written by literary critics, educators or parents. The invitations have been expressed by those who see and perceive the world like me – the potential reader. It is likely, for this reason, that the words are understood by children of their age group.

The advertisements written by pupils prove that they have not only been looking for the plot in these books but have also thought about the meaning expressed in the books; pupils have developed a certain attitude towards the events described in the book and they are openly expressing this attitude to their peers. All the respondents of the survey admit that also next year they are going to participate in the work of Children's jury.

The results of the Reading Promotion program are being analyzed and evaluated at the end of each year. Librarians, teachers and representatives of local municipalities participate in this.

The thoughts of the librarians on the results of the Reading Promotion program are the following:
1.   Finally the children's reading club is active.
2.   The books of the Children's Jury are read both by parents and grandparents (Madona library).
3.   This year (2004) there are more boys among the members of Children's Jury who have been invited by their friends – the members of Children's Jury.
4.   There is great interest in the books of Children's Jury. The readers are waiting in a line and encourage each other to read faster.
5.   Children from disadvantaged families have a possibility to get acquainted with the latest literature (Liepkalne library).
6.   The Children's Jury activates the cooperation between the school, library and family (Degumnieki library).
7.   Children from socially disadvantaged families join in the work of the Children's Jury; these are children who have never before attended a library (Vestiena library).
8.   Not only have schools and parents shown interest about the work of Children's jury, but also the local television, thus popularizing the latest children's books (Ogre children's library).
9.   The members of the jury come to the library taking along with them their brothers and sisters, classmates who later become the experts of the jury (Ikšķile children's library).
10.   The members of Children's Jury help to organize games, competitions, and quizzes about the books. Reading becomes popular (Tīnūži library).

Teachers in their turn express the following opinions about the Reading Promotion program:
1. This program deepens the interest about a book.
2. It improves pupils' reading literacy.

3. It develops pupils' imagination and creativity.
4. It improves pupils' essay writing skills.
5. It promotes the discussion on books and reading.
6. Pupils themselves become the advocates of books and reading.

Daniel Pennac in his book *As a Novel* [Comme Un roman] writes: "Any reading is first and foremost a joy, however suppressed; and already in its essence the joy of reading is the joy of an alchemist – something not threatened by any visual images, not even television, not even in the abundance of mundane events. Even if the joy of reading is gone, it has not wandered far. Slightly lost. Easy to find. Just need to know on what roads to look for it…"

CONCLUSIONS
1. Literary interests are one of the cognitive interests which is closely connected with the system of the person's needs and interests.
2. Different stimuli, research and creative tasks are of great importance for developing the literary interests of younger teenagers.
3. Being involved in a long-term and purposefully organized reading process, which offers them books corresponding to their age group and interests, helps pupils to become interested readers.
4. Students themselves become promoters of reading good books and draw new participants into the program.
5. The advice of an authority is very important in choosing books for younger students (age 7-10 years).
6. The Reading Promotion program has acquired great popularity and under its influence . . . .
   6.1 Reading becomes more popular at school and in the family.
   6.2 The teacher and the librarians start working together as a team.
   6.3 Children from unfavourable families started to attend libraries and read books.
   6.4 Minority representatives join the program and by that improve their Latvian language skills.

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Teens and Library Services: Experiences, Expectations and Perspectives: An Exploratory Study

Elena Corradini, Biblioteca Comunale, Ala, Trentino, Italy

From the analysis of the international professional literature between 2000 and 2004 (OECD 2000; OECD/UNESCO, 2003; Walter, 2003) emerged that educational professionals have explored the reading habits of young adults. Related to this, library professionals have been interested for some time in the opinions of young adults on library services (Agnoli, 1999; Buzzi, 1997; Grendele, 2000). Based on these sources, I have concluded the following:

- At national / international level, there is poor dissemination of data on teens' use of library services
- At local level, we need to knowing how teens consider library services and activities
- At local level, we need to assess motivations for drop in use of the library after compulsory school

Based on this, I developed a plan to explore interest in the field at local level and I initiated a research project. The research was carried out between November 2003 and April 2004 in a town of 8000 inhabitants called Ala, situated in the Trentino region of Northern Italy.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The research project was aimed at verifying following general hypotheses:

1. Young people lack awareness of the potential resources available to them in the library. Although library services and resources are available to the community, young people tend not to use or exploit them to the maximum.
2. Young people do not regard the library as a place that can make a difference in their lives.

The question was to find out what young users and non-users thought of the library. Are members of these groups aware of the importance of information resources? This meant the research had to gather information, and explore needs and issues. Information gathered included: past and present experience of the library, under different viewpoints; and explicit and implicit needs of the users and non-users of the library. Key issues were: exploration of ideas about the ideal library, and implementation of services, activities, etc. In order to ensure that the data could be used for comparable purposes in the future, it was important to make sure that they would be collected in a way which should prevent major errors. The collection methods should also maximise validity of the data.

METHODOLOGY

This phase was accomplished by identifying, evaluating and the following known and trusted research methods outlined by Oppenheim (1966), Fowler (1993), Creswell (1994), Preece (1994), Crotty (1998) and Patton (2002). In the end, a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods of inquiry was used. The core elements under examination and the essential methods used for the study are as follows:

- Subjects: population aged 11-19. This means the population included youth just under and over the "critical age" of 14, when, according to local data, there is a consistent drop in library loans;
- Sampling: availability sampling approach. This was the only sampling method possible due to the Law on Personal Data Protection, which does not allow private persons to access lists of personal data gathered by public institutions for institutional reasons, unless under particular conditions;
- Key informants: teens, educators/carers, librarians. Teens were not the only key informants considered. Also educators', carers' and librarians' opinions were investigated.
- Data collection: survey instruments. A 20-items-questionnaire was designed to collect data. Furthermore, focus groups and interviews were organised to explore some issues in depth (see Krueger, 1993).

- Data analysis: univariate/multivariate by content. Data were grouped and organised by content, splitting results by age, sex and location (town centre and surroundings), to verify the presence of bias related to these particular variables.

Distribution of the questionnaires took about 6 weeks. In all, 371 questionnaires were distributed to a population of 668 young people. Fifty-two percent (192) were returned. Of these, 127 were from 11-14 year-olds, while 65 were from 15-19 year olds. More questionnaires were returned by 11-14 year-olds, as there is a middle-school in the town. Older subjects, already at secondary school, could only be reached through associations, because there is no secondary school in the town.

RESULTS

The Library Experience

Most respondents have had an early experience of the library (75% before 11 years of age). Fifty percent of participants reported the library to be 'a stimulating place'. The affection for the library from an early age may be the reason that the majority of respondents acknowledged that they were users of the library. It should, of course, be noted that non-respondents could be disaffected users or non-users of the library. Nonetheless, there is a satisfying percentage of respondents answering that the library is a beautiful, stimulating and interesting place to go to. They view it as an institution offering differing services. Respondents' views of the library are summarised in Figure 1.

"What is a library?" (closed question, 4 answers provided)
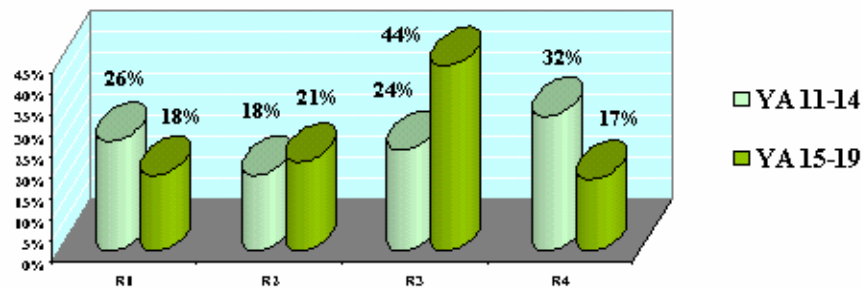
R1= place where books are collected and preserved;
R2= services and activities organised for the collection of books
R3= services realised to satisfy the needs of the users
R4= place where to borrow books
(multiple answers were allowed)

It is clear from the above Figure that young users are aware of a library's variety of functions. Services are provided through activities and support. But are teens aware of the resources? Presented with a list of 13 available supports, 56% choose 3 to 5 of them, and 26% only 2 of them (Figure 2).

"Top five" items deemed available in the library

(answers and percentage)

1. Books
2. Comics
3. Periodicals
4. Internet files
5. Audio/music cds
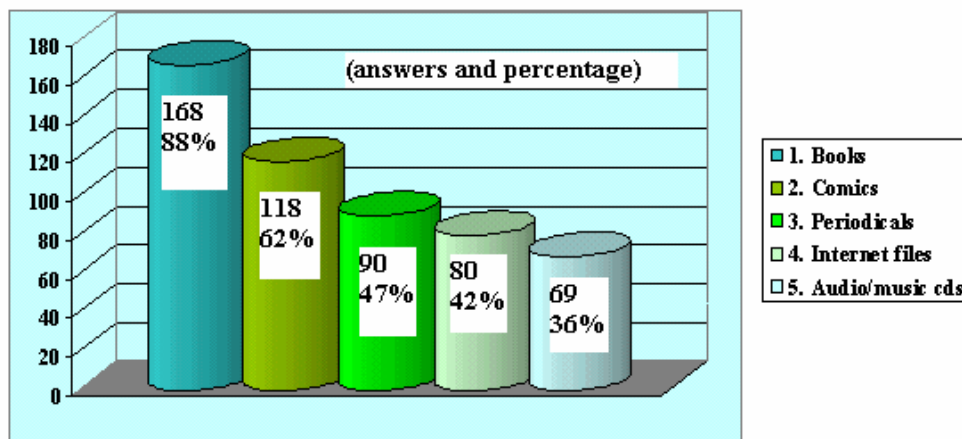
These results show that most subjects did not consider all items available to them at the library, even though such items were readily available.

Expectations for Library Services

Among various questions about what the library should offer, the previous question was repeated. Respondents were asked which of these resources they would like to be available in the library.

"Top five" items to be introduced in the library collections

(answers and percentage)

1. Dvds
2. Audio/music cds
3. VHS
4. CD-ROMs
5. Books
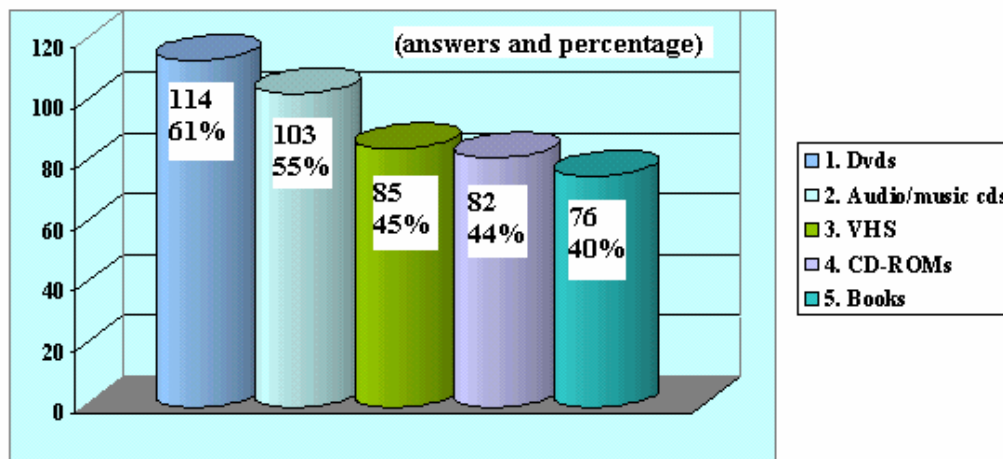
As indicated in Figure 3, the respondents' attention concentrates on the most appealing items (e.g. music, video and recreational supports in general), and not on items that would be perhaps important as information bearers that are less easily affordable to the public (e.g. periodicals, databases, etc.).

What About the Ideal Library?

Questions about the ideal library (open-ended in particular) have given the most interesting results. In their ideal library, among some given options, teens would like to be informed about:
1. information seeking methods / facilities
2. information seeking on the Internet
3. doing research / homework saving time

4. shelving / classification systems
5. library history and collections

These options had been selected among some that had been emerging from preliminary focus groups and interviews (pilot phase).

.

Topics for lessons identified as potentially useful
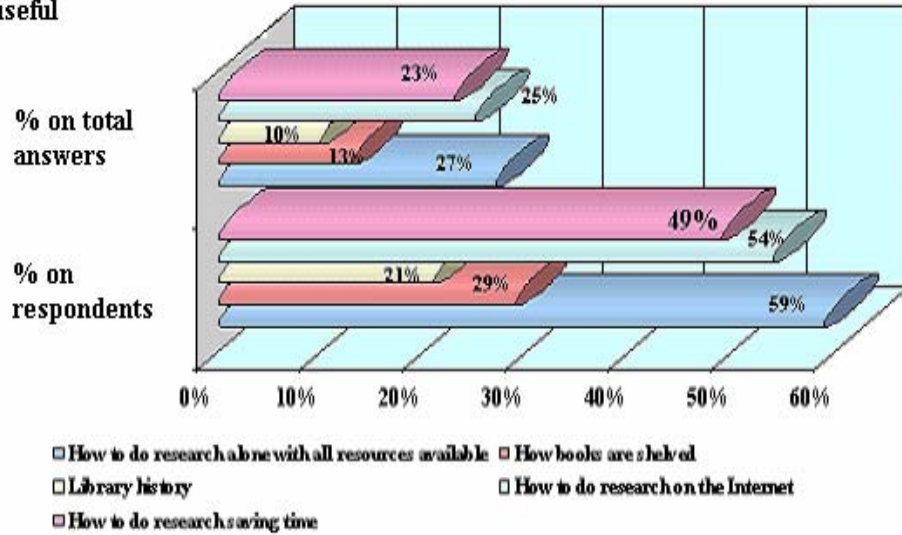
There is a high percentage of respondents who think they need help in using resources effectively to meet their information needs. Teens have also been asked to consider freely about services and activities to be implemented. Male and female subjects' answers are different.

Services to be developed in future (by sex)
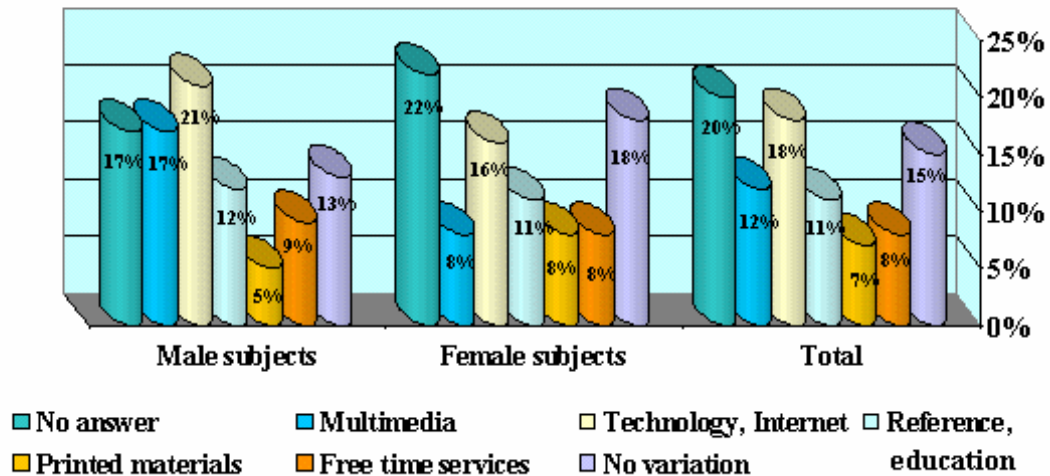
The high percentages indicating "no answer" and "no variation" might be linked to form a group of respondents who think that they are not in a position to give advice on this point. This fact was confirmed in a later focus group among adolescents. One of the most interesting results is the 21% score for "Technology, Internet" among male subjects and the 16% among female subjects. Soon after that, there is again a hint on the importance of giving more attention to reference and education issues, which score at 11% for both groups.

This means that the expectations about improvements in this fields are high as much as the librarians' and administrators' responsibilities to meet them.

Teens have also clear ideas about which activities should be organised for them in future.

Top Five activities to be organised in the library in future
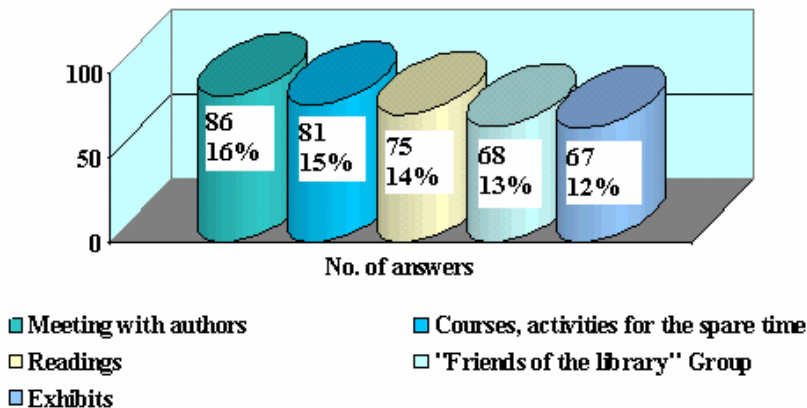
The respondents look at the library not only as an institution giving them the possibility of doing homework but also as a recreational and cultural centre. As such, there they could be involved in different activities, and they have not failed to provide suggestions about which ones.

OUTCOMES OF INTERVIEWS AND FOCUS GROUPS

It was concluded that:

…reading must be developed as a habit at early age. Parents confirmed that when their children grow up with the habit of going to the library, they would go there afterwards and even ask for going.

…teens must be involved in activities by peers. Adolescents are very keen on influencing their peers and close friends are expecting them to. Their suggestion is to involve young group leaders in the library activities, so that they can disseminate and share positive information about this meeting place.

…library and school should interact but offer different activities at different times. The school has the potential to bring cohorts of boys and girls to the library, but the library must not act as a mere appendix to the school's activities.

Because…

- the image of the library must be improved. Peer-to-peer action should be fostered, involving young adults in library activities and promotion.
- the library should act as a cultural centre. This is what is expected by younger users and non-users. The library is an important place, but suffers from a traditional image.
- the idea "library = studying = school" should not be fostered. Each environment must have its activities, according to their missions, and above all school activities must not be too closely linked with library visits of the classes. The programme of the library activities has to be independent.

CONCLUSIONS

- Young people need to know the library materials, activities and services better
- Young people consider the library an important environment in their lifes, as provider of information and support for studying and recreational purposes
- Non-users do not exclude the possibility of becoming users of the library services in future
- The real library is satisfactory, but can be improved
- The ideal library is one that follows technological developments and offers new stimulating experiences

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. improve the image of the library through knowing the stakeholders better
2. assess methods, which could be disseminated, to improve knowledge about a specific environment
3. create connections with young adults groups in order to make the library more visible and open to this (and others) target group(s)
4. update and promote materials, activities and services
5. promote a correct relationship with the school, teachers, educators

FURTHER RESEARCH NEEDS

- Qualitative evaluation and production of best practices guide in library activities for young adults
- Qualitative case study research on the perceptions about how libraries and schools should interact with each other
- Survey on perceptions of library use and services in children under 10 years of age
- Survey on perceptions of library use and services in young adults over 19

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The Role of "Ask a Librarian" Service in Promoting Information Literacy

Božica Dragaš Matijević, Zagreb City Libraries, Marin Drzić
Public Library, Croatia, and
Boris Bosančić, Faculty of Philosophy, Osijek, Croatia

Information is the basis of library work in general. Regardless of the type of library and library material, librarians retrieve and describe information and make information accessible to their users.

As much as possibilities of the Internet can be motivating, the abundance of information on the Net, dynamic and constantly growing in quantity, can be very frustrating. Users want to reach reliable and quality information as soon as possible. Librarians as information professionals are the ones to help them.

However, librarians can never only be mediators between information and users. Thanks to their professionals skills: understanding user's information needs, and searching, retrieving, evaluating and presenting information, librarians also have an educational role and take part in teaching information literacy to users, both indirectly and directly, implicitly and explicitly. This very effort has been a building block of the Croatian online reference inquiry service "Ask a librarian".

Modelled after similar services in some European countries (especially Great Britain and Finland), librarians in Croatia have developed their own service, tailored by specific work conditions and possibilities. Fifteen public libraries joined the "Ask a librarian" pilot project that started in January 2004.

"Ask a librarian" is an online reference inquiry service open to all who have internet access. It is not only the first online service in Croatia realized through cooperation of libraries from different towns and cities, but it is the first library consortium in Croatia in general.

CARNet, the Croatian academic and research network, provided free web hosting for the project (URL: http://public.carnet.hr/pitajte-knjiznicare).

THE SERVICE WEB SITE

The service web site is organized in two surfaces. The user section contains user policy, a web site directory, an enquiry form, a questions-and-answers archive, and project information. In contrast, the librarian section has been organised as a content management system, containing a place to answer questions and place to edit the web site directory. Librarians can also access all the questions already answered. There is also statistics, information on librarians and a help option. Now, let's take a closer look at each aspect.

The service homepage contains a link to project information and link to user policy, a web site directory containing described quality information sources on the Internet, the first step in filling the inquiry form (the rest of the form is accessed on another web page, reached by "Proceed" button) and examples of questions and answers.

Users are asked to read use policy before sending their question. User policy has been designed to explain certain limitations regarding answers (e.g. this service doesn't write homework assignments or provide legal or medical advice, information on books should be sought in library WebPACs etc.). In the questions and answers archive there is also a link to a web page containing undelivered answers, so that users can read even those answers that hadn't been delivered for some reason (mostly because of misspelled e-mail addresses).

The web site directory has been organised by combining different criteria. Links have been arranged into subject categories and subcategories, based on Universal Decimal Classification (used to classify library material), but adjusting the system to users' needs – similar to popular commercial web directories (e.g. Yahoo!) and adding library experience with users' inquiries. For example, in category named "Croatia", there are links to relevant information sources on the Republic of Croatia (official information, cities, counties etc.)

There is a special category for reference information (Reference: Address books, Encyclopaedia, Fact books, Dictionaries, Statistics, Calendars…) representing a sort of virtual reference collection.

Another surface is intended for reference librarians' work. Reference librarians answer received questions (factual questions, subject literature searches, referral to other sources of information) and send answers to e-mail addresses provided by users on the enquiry form.

In addition to answering questions, librarians create and edit web site directory, containing relevant information sources, each described.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS OF "ASK A LIBRARIAN" SERVICE

The basic characteristics of "Ask a librarian" service are the following:
- Quality information sources are suggested in answers to clients (sources have been checked; they are trustworthy and reliable)
- Democratic quality (it's a free service available to all with Internet access, regardless of age, educational background, library membership, etc.)
- Short reply time (replies are sent within two working days)
- Constant availability of the service – 24 hours a day, 7 days a week

TEACHING INFORMATION LITERACY TO USERS

As has already been pointed out, "Ask a librarian" is not only a reference service, but has been designed as an educational service as well. One of the basic purposes of the service is to contribute to users' information literacy – we teach users where and how to find information.

Efforts of the service to teach information literacy to users' are as follows:
- Referring users only to high-quality, reliable and evaluated sources of information (mostly Internet sources). Reference librarians use certain criteria to evaluate quality, trustworthiness and reliability of information sources on the Internet (authority, purpose, scope, content accuracy, validity, maintaining accessibility, how information is presented, ease of use, comparison with similar sources, general impression on quality).
- Uniform way of citing bibliographic items and Internet sources following instructions for citation by Library Information Sciences Department, Faculty of Philosophy, Zagreb University (URL: http://www.ffzg.hr/infoz/oodsjeku/citiranje.htm).
- Directing users to search the web site directory (that way users are referred to links to quality web pages, and directed to search by subject categories)
- Directing users to search for information using keywords
- Linguistically edited Question and Answer (Q&A) archive (questions are later linguistically and orthographically edited – when users browse or search the Q&A archive they are taught how a question should be formed).

STATISTICAL FIGURES

From January 19th 2004 till July 1st 2005. 1600 questions were received. Statistical figures for this period showing user evaluation of the service were drawn from evaluation forms e-mailed to each user after sending the answer to their question. Most users said they were satisfied with answer they received; if they are not satisfied it is because they wanted more sources of information – they expected more from us. There is a high percent of users who found quality of information sources satisfying and or

because they received the answer quickly. When it comes to using web site directory while looking for the answer, most users found it partly helpful.

PROBLEMS

There are some problems we face in everyday work:

- Insufficient high quality internet sources in Croatian.
  - As the case with most languages, especially of "small" nations, there is a lack of quality internet information sources in Croatian. Besides, there is also lack of material on Croatia, especially about history and culture that has been presented on the Internet (literature, language, arts...)
- Unavailable databases
  - As majority databases are unavailable to public libraries, users are often directed to special or university libraries. In such cases, in giving an answer, there is an explanation: "The answer to your question could not be found in sources available to public libraries"
- National bibliography not up to date.
  - Croatian National Bibliography is compiled by the National and University Library in Zagreb. It contains books, articles and serials. Although there is a searchable electronic version, the Bibliography is not updated regularly – it is usually 2 years late.
- Inadequate cataloguing of serials (there's no content description)
- No advanced search options in OPACs. It often happens that we find a publication in WebPAC of a certain library using general keywords but we can't be sure if it contains information that could help solve specific question.

LOOKING AHEAD

These are s some of our plans with the service:

- Project evaluation
- An attempt to evaluate what has been done so far and to develop guidelines for further work: e.g. should we invite more public libraries to join the project or should we include other types of libraries, special or university libraries, etc. Evaluation tools for digital reference services have been available on the Internet recently. One of them might be used for impartial evaluation of the project.
- Inviting more reference librarians to join the service
  This is necessary for multiple reasons:
  - To maintain the quality and reply time, taken that all reference librarians work at the Ask a Librarian service alongside their regular responsibilities at their libraries
  - To be able to solve growing number of questions, after the service is marketed and presented to a wider range of users
  - To enable reference librarians to specialize in certain fields, which would improve competence and quality of the service
- Training librarians to provide the service
  Reference librarians exchange experiences and suggestions through a mailing list, improving their personal work and the service in general. However, it is necessary to provide structured education for newly joined librarians, as well as detailed work meetings to make important decisions regarding the service. So far only 2 such seminars have been held.
- Training librarians to evaluate and efficiently use Internet sources
  In order to realise one of the main goals of the Ask a Librarian service – information literacy – reference librarians have to be very well trained to evaluate and use Internet resources, and have to participate in continuing professional education.

- Marketing
Because of insufficient finances and libraries (and librarians) participating in the project, the service hasn't been officially and systematically publicised. The service has been presented to the librarian community on several occasions, so that librarians can recommend it to their users. Marketing has been the result of individual initiatives of participating libraries and librarians. As soon as financial and human resources allow it, it is necessary to present the service to the general public. As only 11% of population in Croatia are library members, this service could attract new library members.

- Intensifying work to build a web site directory
Lack of time to dedicate to the service on the part of librarians is obvious in web site directory, which has been developed too slowly. This problem could be solved if more librarians joined the service.

- Subject linking of Q&A archive and web site directory
Increasing integration of subsystems within the service, e.g. subject linking of Q&A archive with the web site directory, that should soon take place and should result in a sort of knowledge base. We should always have in mind high criteria to establish knowledge base, especially if we know that we're dealing with the whole spectrum of human knowledge, which can be a very limiting factor to develop a truly efficient system. However, we should take advantage provided by a link between endless possibilities of web site directory and Q&A archive, especially within already answered questions in the archive. Besides usual linking, that should also follow certain criteria (e.g. assigning categories and subcategories to answers), this link could be further developed by building well designed, ever growing controlled vocabularies.

- Designing a web page teaching information literacy to users!
This is an attempt to transfer the experience gathered in the service into a web page intended to teach information literacy to users. Numerous questions about holdings of the certain libraries should be answered as a direction to the library WebPACs category in web site directory. Users should be instructed to use the directory through specific examples, to search the archive using keywords, etc. They should also be instructed how to evaluate information sources, how to cite the source and, finally, how to successfully search internet resources. Finally, the web page for teaching information literacy should contain instruction on typical problems (undelivered answers, answer in Q&A archive, etc.). The most probable form of such page would be frequently asked questions (FAQ).

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Uloga Hrvatske knjižnice za slijepe u opismenjavanju svojih članova

Sanja Frajtag, Hrvatska knjižnica za slijepe, Zagreb, Hrvatska

Hrvatska knjižnica za slijepe smještena je u Zagrebu i jedina je ovakva knjižnica u Hrvatskoj. Prema nekim sjećanjima 1921. godine u okviru Društva za izobražene slijepce u Zagrebu postojala je knjižnica kojoj se u Drugom svjetskom ratu gubi svaki trag. Od 1949. godine u Udruženju slijepih Zagreb počinju se intenzivno ručno prepisivati knjige na brajici zahvaljujući slijepim i videćim volonterima. Tako je stvorena veća zbirka knjiga za slijepe koja je poslužila kao temelj za osnivanje Republičke knjižnice u sastavu Hrvatskog saveza slijepih 1965. godine. Osim ovih knjiga dio fonda nabavljen je i iz tada jedine tiskare za slijepe «Filip Višnjić» iz Beograda i po posebnom ključu dio fonda iz Savezne biblioteke za slepe nakon što je ova rasformirana. Knjižnica djeluje u sastavu Saveza do 2000. godine kada Uredbom Vlade Republike Hrvatske postaje samostalna javna ustanova u kulturi.

Za obavljanje različitih poslova knjižnica je podijeljena na nekoliko odjela i to:
- posudbeni
- studiji za snimanje zvučnih izdanja s kopirnicom
- brajična tiskara s knjigovežnicom

Korisnikom knjižnice može postati slijepa osoba kao i svi oni koji iz nekog razloga nisu u stanju čitati standardni tisak (bolest, invaliditet i sl.). Danas knjižnica ima 1 310 korisnika.

Knjižni fond sastoji se od tzv. zvučnih knjiga – dakle onih na audio kazetama i u novije vrijeme na CD-ima ima 2 240 naslova, te knjiga na brajici - taktilnom pismu za slijepe 2 160 naslova. Pored ovoga knjižnica je i izdavač 5 zvučnih časopisa s različitih područja, od kojih jedan izlazi svakih petnaest dana, a ostali jednom mjesečno kao i tri časopisa na brajici koji izlaze jednom u dva mjeseca.

Najveći dio knjiga do korisnika po cijeloj Hrvatskoj dolazi poštom, a osim što korisnici iz Zagreba i sami dolaze u u knjižnicu posuđivati knjige, za one teško pokretne ili nepokretne s područja Zagreba i zagrebačke županije organizirana je dostava knjiga u njihove domove ili domove umirovljenika, jednom tjedno na telefonski poziv.

Izdavačkim programom koji se donosi za svaku kalendarsku godinu u studijima i tiskari se proizvede do 140 naslova godišnje. Beletristika se većinom snima, a stručna literatura i udžbenici se prepisuju na brajicu. Zvučne knjige su dio fonda koji se najviše posuđuje, a da slijepi puno čitaju govori i statistički podatak od sedamnaest pročitanih naslova po pojedincu godišnje.

Nažalost, kada se radi o čitanju knjiga na brajici stanje je vrlo loše - svega 5-10 posto korisnika čita brajicu. To je podatak koji nije karakterističan samo za Hrvatsku već i za ostale knjižnice za slijepe u svijetu. No bez obzira na jednostavnost rukovanja pa i manju voluminoznost zvučnih knjiga, knjige na brajici zauzimaju izuzetno važno mjesto u opismenjavanju slijepih.

Dobro znamo da bez poznavanja pisma nema pismenosti. Za izum pisma za slijepe zaslužan je Francuz Louis Braille, i sam slijep od ranog djetinjstva. 1829. izlazi njegova knjiga «Metoda pisanja riječi i glazbe pomoću točaka namijenjena slijepima». Brajica je reljefno točkasto pismo. Za tvorbu brajice koristi se šest točkica poredanih u dvije vertikale pomoću kojih se mogu dobiti 63 znaka. Na taj način slijepi su dobili primjenjivu shemu za taktilno pisanje i čitanje.Zbog svoje jednostavnosti, kako čitanja tako i pisanja, ovo se pismo zadržalo svugdje u svijetu među slijepim osobama, samo su se mijenjale tehnologije u procesima čitanja i pisanja. Sveopćim prihvaćanjem Brailleovog pisma, njegovim uvođenjem u škole za slijepe te otvaranjem brajičnih tiskara i knjižnica stvoreni su potrebni preduvjeti za uspješno obrazovanje, rehabilitaciju i zapošljavanje slijepih. Značaj Brailleovog pisma za slijepe možda je najbolje istaknuo naš najznačajniji tiflopedagog dr. Franjo Tonković (1990, str.6),riječima: «Brailleovo pismo ne treba se sramiti niti jednog od ostalih velikih znanstvenih pionirskih podviga posljednjih stoljeća. Njegov izum znači za slijepe u najmanju ruku ono što za ljude koji vide znači tiskarski postupak Johannesa Gutenberga».

Prilagodbom Brailleovog pisma hrvatskom jeziku prvi se kod nas pozabavio Vinko Bek, učitelj slijepih i humanist. 1889. godine otvorio je u Bukevju privatni zavod za slijepe, gdje je obučavao slijepog dječaka Hinka Svobodu, s kojim je iste godine izašao na javni ispit u Zagrebu. To je prvi put u povijesti školstva na jugoistoku Europe da se nastava u svim predmetima prilagođava specifičnim zahtjevima slijepog djeteta. U tu svrhu Vinko Bek je i autor prve početnice za učenje brajice na hrvatskom jeziku koja je objavljena 1889. godine. Sljedeća početnica za slijepu djecu pojavljuje se tek pedesetih godina prošloga stoljeća. Na njoj radi tim nastavnika iz Centra za odgoj i obrazovanje slijepih s nastavnicom i suprugom dr. Franje Tonkovića, Danicom Tonković. Poticaj za izradu ove početnice bio je «Bukvar» izrađen za slijepe u Zemunu, koji obzirom da je bio na ekavici, nije bio primjeren za učenje našim slijepim učenicima. Sljedeću početnicu za slijepu djecu koja izlazi 1969. godine izradila je sama Danica Tonković, a kako se ukazala potreba i za opismenjavanjem odraslih slijepih, a adekvatnog udžbenika nije bilo, prihvatila se i tog zahtjevnog posla pa 1973. godine izlazi početnica za opismenjavanje odraslih slijepih. U konstantnom nedostatku potrebnih udžbenika za opismenjavanje slijepih, ovi su se koristili cijeli niz godina iako više nisu bili aktualni izborom tekstova i metodama rada.

Pismenost ima presudno značenje u procesu uspješnog školovanja i obavljanja radnih zadataka, a kod osoba s invaliditetom to je i pitanje rehabilitacije i socijalizacije. Svladavanje čitanja i pisanja na brajici je dug i naporan put. Da bi se postigli zadovoljavajući rezultati puno truda treba uložiti i učitelj i učenik. Naravno, preduvjet su sredstva za rad –odgovarajući udžbenici priručnici i ostali radni materijal.

Uvidjevši potrebu sustavne izrade navedenih udžbenika skupina nastavnika iz Centra Vinko Bek na čelu sa koordinatorom, slijepim nastavnikom hrvatskog jezika Antom Bakovićem, izradila je još 1994. godine «Elaborat o potrebama izradbe prioritetnih tiflonastavnih sredstava». 1993. godine, u povodu stote obljetnice organiziranog obrazovanja slijepih u Hrvatskoj i stote obljetnice prve škole za slijepe na jugoistoku Europe - Centra Vinko Bek u Zagrebu, a temeljem navedenog elaborata, Ante Baković pokreće izdavački projekt pod nazivom «Biblioteka šestotočka». Ona obuhvaća prikaze brajičnih sustava na brajici i crnom tisku, početnicu za slijepu djecu izrađenu po metodi koju zahtijeva brajica, početnicu za odrasle slijepe s tekstovima za vježbanje, prikaz brajice na standardnom tisku te udžbenike i priručnike za osobe zdravog vida koje pomažu ili bi mogle pomagati pri opismenjavanju slijepih, a to su defektolozi, nastavnici, studenti, roditelji, prijatelji i svi ostali. Izdavač projekta postaje Hrvatski savez slijepih, a realizacija je povjerena brajičnoj tiskari Saveza do 2000. godine, a nadalje Hrvatskoj knjižnici za slijepe u čijem je sastavu i brajična tiskara.

Od 1993. godine do danas objavljeno je više udžbenika i priručnika. «Osnove hrvatske brajice» je priručnik čijim se brajičnim izdanjem mogu služiti slijepe osobe koje se tek opismenjavaju kao i oni koji su već savladali brajicu ali nisu sigurni u sve znakove. Izdanje istog priručnika na crnom tisku koristit će svima koji sudjeluju u opismenjavanju slijepih – nastavnicima koji rade sa slijepima, roditeljima slijepe djece, studentima Edukacijsko-rehabilitacijskog fakulteta koji uče brajicu i svima ostalima koji pomažu slijepima u opismenjavanju ili učenju. U priručniku je prikazan sustav brajice, hrvatska slova te najčešća strana, brojevi arapski i rimski, pravopisni znakovi, osnovni matematički znakovi te oblikovanje teksta - način pisanja naslova, nadnaslova, podnaslova itd.

Za opismenjavanje slijepe djece postoji mali broj udžbenika. Od izdanja prve početnice za slijepu djecu 1889. možemo spomenuti još samo dvije. Tek 2000. izlazi iz tiska nova početnica i čitančica autora Ante Bakovića, slijepog nastavnika. Izdanje ovog udžbenika na brajici prethodilo je istom izdanju na standardnom tisku. To je prvi puta da se prvo izradi brajično izdanje, a standardni tisak bude pretisak toga izdanja. Takva paralelna izdanja omogućavaju nastavnicima u integriranom obrazovanju kao i roditeljima kvalitetno praćenje rada slijepog djeteta. Zanimljiv je način slaganja slova abecede u početnici. Autor se služi načelom jednostavnosti, kreće od jednostavnih slova ka složenijima, zatim metodom učestalosti što je za slijepu djecu izuzetno važno jer se ona, za razliku od videće, ne susreću sa slovima u svojoj blizini. Osobito je važno načelo postupnosti pa su tako u prvom dijelu početnice predvježbe za snalaženje s pomoću ruku u uskom prostoru, zatim slijede vježbe za držanje prstiju za vrijeme čitanja, potom prelaženje u novi red pa se tek onda prelazi na učenje slova. U početnici je domišljato zacrtan put početnom čitanju i pisanju za slijepu djecu koji je uistinu izvrstan smjerokaz učiteljima, roditeljima, a ponajviše slijepoj djeci.

U višim razredima osnovne škole pa tako i u srednjoj školi pojavljuje se priličan broj učenika s oštećenjima vida koji ne mogu čitati standardni tisak, a za njihovo opismenjavanje nije postojala primjerena početnica. Naime, ona za djecu je bila suviše jednostavna, a za opismenjavanje odraslih previše ozbiljna. Uviđajući neposredno iz prakse potrebu takvog novog udžbenika, Ante Baković piše udžbenik za prvi stupanj opismenjavanja slijepe mladeži «Moja druga početnica», s adekvatnim tekstovima na brajici. Važno je još istaknuti i odabir tekstova koji su primjereni mladima, a istovremeno imaju didaktičku, poticajnu, informativnu i zabavnu vrijednost. Početnica pomaže mladoj slijepoj osobi da shvati i prihvati sebe i da otkrije svoje sposobnosti i mogućnosti. Identično izdanje početnice na standardnom tisku namijenjeno je onima koji vide - učiteljima koji opismenjavaju slijepu mladež, studentima koji se za to obrazuju, roditeljima i svima onima koji se susreću sa slijepima. Za opismenjavanje odraslih slijepih koristi se, u nedostatku druge, stara početnica Danice Tonković iz 1973. Potrebe za novom takvom početnicom raznovrsne su. Možemo spomenuti samo neke, društveno-političke, jezične, pravopisne te tiflopedagoške.

Demokratske promjene u Republici Hrvatskoj, kao i ratna stradanja stvaraju potrebu za novim pristupom rehabilitaciji slijepih, ponaosob invalida Domovinskog rata, pa je u tom smislu trebalo mijenjati i tekstove u Početnici. Primjena načela hrvatskog jezika i pravopisa kao i promjene u pristupu opismenjavanju odraslih slijepih stvorile su zahtjeve za novim udžbenikom. To je bila «Početnica za odrasle slijepe» autora Ante Bakovića iz 1996. Možemo reći da je to prva brajična početnica izrađena po metodi koju zahtijeva brajica, u kojoj se na početku nalaze vježbe za provjeru opipa i snalaženja na malom prostoru i za uvježbavanje. Potom slijedi «Čovječe, pazi da ne budeš malen», čitanka, vježbenica i priručnik za drugi stupanj opismenjavanja slijepih na brajici istog autora. Materijal mogu koristiti naknadno oslijepjele osobe, od srednjoškolaca do osoba starije životne dobi, to jest oni koji su vid izgubili nakon završene osnovne škole.

U opismenjavanju odraslih slijepih različite životne dobi i naobrazbe od izuzetnog je značaja dobro odabran tekst za vježbu, koji treba biti zanimljiv, poticajan i svrhovit. To se postiglo ovim udžbenikom koji se nastavlja na početnicu i sadrži na kraju i vrlo sažet prikaz osnova hrvatske brajice. Pod istim naslovom tiskana je na standardnom tisku zbirka umjetničkih i drugih tekstova u svezi sa rehabilitacijom i problematikom slijepih. Knjiga se može preporučiti defektolozima i svima onima koji rade sa slijepima ili drugim invalidima. Kvalitetan izbor tekstova može čak poslužiti za biblioterapiju.Jedno od područja na kojem su slijepe osobe uspješne je glazba. No i tu ponovno nailazimo na isti problem, a to je pitanje potrebne literature i udžbenika za glazbeno opismenjavanje. Slijepi su se između dva rata obrazovali uglavnom u Zavodu za odgoj slijepe djece u Zagrebu i kako se tu dosta njegovala glazbena kultura, ručno su se prepisivale note.

Potrebna literatura nabavljala se iz inozemstva. 1983. godine pojavljuje se «Udžbenik svjetskog glazbenog pisma za slijepe» Alexandera Reussa, u srpsko-hrvatskom prijevodu Milana Ordagića. Udžbenik je pisan srpskim jezikom koji se u glazbenoj terminologiji dosta razlikuje od hrvatskog jezika. Stoga 2000. godine počinje rad na prevođenju i pripremi za tisak «Novog međunarodnog priručnika brajičnog glazbenog zapisa».

Pokretanjem «Biblioteke Šestotočka» dolazi i do malog pomaka na planu glazbenog obrazovanja slijepih pa tako 1995. godine slijepi nastavnik glazbe Josip Hrvoj postaje autor priručnika «Brajična glazbena notacija», koji predstavlja notno pismo za slijepe na brajici. Priručnik je namijenjen svim slijepima koji se žele notno opismeniti. Pisan je na način da se njime bez većih teškoća mogu služiti učenici, mladež i odrasli slijepi. Onima koji se žele samostalno notno opismeniti pomoću ovog priručnika nude se potrebne upute. Nakon svladavanja osnova u zajedničkom dijelu na početku priručnika, prelazi se na učenje gradiva namijenjenog skupini glazbala, jednom glazbalu ili vokalnoj glazbi. Zatim slijedi uporaba udžbenika za određeno glazbalo te učenje djela iz glazbene literature. Najveća mu je vrijednost praktična uporabljivost za sve dobi slijepih osoba. Isto izdanje na standardnom tisku namijenjeno je prije svega učiteljima, roditeljima i prijateljima slijepe djece. Svrha je da omogući osobama koje vide pomaganje onima kojima je vid oštećen u tolikoj mjeri da se moraju služiti brajicom. Na samom početku priručnika sažeto je prikazana brajica što omogućava svim zainteresiranima da upoznaju brajičnu glazbenu notaciju odnosno notno pismo za slijepe. U priručniku se osim toga nalaze svi znakovi i upute potrebne za stjecanje osnovnog glazbenog obrazovanja pa može korisno poslužiti u glazbenim školama.

Pored ovih priručnika koji služe za opismenjavanje slijepih, knjižnica je i izdavač nekih udžbenika primjerice iz fizike i kemije za 7. i 8. razred osnovne škole, čitanki iz hrvatskog jezika, udžbenika iz latinskog jezika i slično, koji se koriste u obrazovanju slijepih.

Veliki problem u izradi udžbenika je adaptacija svakog pojedinog udžbenika potrebama slijepih, što znači da nije dovoljno samo prepisati na brajicu određeni tekst. Dakle vizualno poimanje je potrebno zamijeniti taktilnim ili opisnim. Učestale izmjene udžbenika u školama dodatno kompliciraju izradbu onih na brajici, koja je i bez toga dugotrajan i složen proces pa je rezultat toga vrlo mali broj udžbenika za slijepe koji se obrazuju u redovnim školama.

Za potrebe dodatnog obrazovanja ili usavršavanja Knjižnica je tiskala «Rječnik stranih riječi» dr. Bratoljuba Klaića, «Rječnik njemačkog jezika» Jasenke Kljajić, te *Linguaphone* tečajeve engleskog i njemačkog jezika gdje su udžbenici i priručnici tiskani brajicom, a govorne vježbe snimljene na audio kasetu. Pravim izdavačkim pothvatom smatramo izdanje kompletne Biblije na brajici, dakle Starog i Novog zavjeta, i to u 39 svezaka (1997. godine). Što je to za slijepe značilo može se najbolje uočiti iz govora slijepog prevoditelja profesora Seada Muhamedagića: «Činjenica da se nakon više od tri godine strpljivog rada konačno pojavilo cjelovito izdanje Biblije na brajici razlog je da budemo ispunjeni radošću. Riječ je o knjizi koja svojim ne prijepornim značajem predstavlja jednu od temeljnih okosnica civilizacije kojoj pripada. Vjernicima je ona u pravom smislu riječi Sveto Pismo, Riječ Božja, knjiga nad knjigama, ljubiteljima književnosti i proučavateljima povijesti to je prava mala biblioteka, a nama slijepima njena je dostupnost još jedna mogućnost da obogatimo i proširimo svoje duhovne i misaone vidike» (1997, str.8).

Na koji način može knjižnica potaknuti slijepe da se više koriste brajicom koja je neophodna u obrazovanju slijepih i ujedno njihov put integraciji u redovni sustav obrazovanja? To je sljedeće: kraći, zanimljivi tekstovi za vježbanje čitanja primjereni različitoj dobi korisnika; izdavanje časopisa i publikacija sa zanimljivim izborom tekstova za djecu; kroz taktilne slikovnice s kratkim tekstovima na brajici obrazovanje djece predškolske dobi; organiziranje natjecanja u čitanju brajice; organiziranje natjecanja u pisanju literarnih radova, te prije svega tiskanje što je moguće više potrebnih udžbenika.

Jedan od pokušaja populariziranja brajice je objavljivanje na brajici kratkih brošura koje je izdala kompanija «Pliva» na temu «Živjeti s povišenim krvnim tlakom», «Živjeti s alergijama», «Živjeti s depresijom», «Živjeti s upaljenim svjetlom», kao i kraćih priručnika za kuhanje i pripremanje kolača.

Svakako ne treba zanemariti i ulogu zvučnih knjiga. Tendencija je da se u toj tehnici izdaju naslovi iz domaće i strane lijepe književnosti, zatim znanstveno-popularna literatura pa i poneki udžbenik ili priručnik. Taj dio fonda važan je ako uzmemo u obzir naslove iz lektire, a i korištenje slobodnog vremena može na taj način postati kvalitetnije i predstavljati pomak u općem obrazovanju i stjecanju novi znanja i vještina.

I konačno, novoj generaciji slijepih koja stasa uz računala (sa skupim ali potrebnim dodacima – brajičnim retkom ili elektroničkom bilježnicom koji omogućavaju slijepima praćenje na brajici teksta s ekrana ili pomoću govorne jedinice), knjižnica nudi knjige u novom digitalnom obliku, zvučne u MP3 formatu, a svoju je mrežnu stranicu izradila tako da je dostupna slijepima.

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Beneficiaries and Individuals Excluded from Literacy

Jadwiga Kołodziejska, Poland

Ever since humans learned to speak, they could not only communicate with others, but also fill their memories with information needed to be able to survive. In the life of tribes who did not know writing, defined by Greeks and Romans as barbarian, the accumulated historical memory and legal norms were passed by a word of mouth from one generation to another. This was largely done by old people, because – as it was assumed – during their long lifetime they could observe and remember more than anybody else. In fact until today in some African tribes the main educator of children and young people is the-called white head, the oldest person, who passes the most indispensable information enabling others to survive.

The invention of the possibility to write down thoughts reduced the oral method of communication among people, and created previously unheard-of ways of timeless transmission of information, unlimited by any spatial barriers. Literacy changed the social structures, introduced their organised forms, put mutual inter-group relations straight, made them meaningful, independent of the ephemeral and vague knowledge passed by a word of mouth throughout generations. Writing became a helpful instrument in exercising power, in concluing state treaties, in banking, and finally in science, in art, and in literature in particular. The inventor of the first tablets covered with writing – writes Alberto Manguel – probably realised the advantage of these pieces of clay over sheer memorising. First of all, these tablets could contain an unlimited amount of information; they helped to generate information ad infinitum, whereas the ability to memorise is limited. Secondly, owing to tablets the presence of the memory holder was not necessary; it was possible to recreate the information also without them being present..

It turned out suddenly that something intangible – a number, a message, a thought, an arrangement – may become tangible without the physical presence of the sender of the message. In a magical way it could be imagined, put down and passed on beyond space and time".[37]

BENEFICIARIES OF THE WRITTEN WORD

Beneficiaries of the written word may be divided into several groups. The two great civilisations, Greek and Roman, need to be named as the first group. Between 850 and 750 B. C. the Greeks developed and adopted an alphabet used until today. Without Greek art and literature, Roman law, their model of the state structures, relations with the conquered provinces of the Empire, and knowledge about their military science, today's Europe would not exist; we would not exist.

The second group are town inhabitants. Three or four thousand years before Christ people began to withdraw from wandering, hunting and gathering. This way of living was not good for development; it nowhere near matched the need to feed the growing tribal population. Or maybe there were other reasons that we simply do not know about. According to Zygmunt Kubiak already in the fifth millennium B.C. in Sumer the first town was founded. In the next millennium other towns followed. An urban settlement in contrast to a rural one required a completely different organisation and assumed a totally new structure. The towns were inhabited by administrators, craftsmen, merchants, military men, priests, tax-collectors etc.[38] This settled organism could not function efficiently without writing. And since the need is the mother of invention, it was initially picture-writing, with pictures later changed into multi-syllable words. By mid third millennium B. C. theological, historical, legal and poetic writings appeared.

Apart from the inter-group division of work in a town, its nature also changed. The inhabitants participated in local government work, guild meetings, religious, political and educational gatherings etc. A natural limit to social and cultural activity was the lack of light, particularly in winter. The work in the field was determined by the four seasons and the weather. The light was available only to the most

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[37] Manguel, 2003, p. 253.
[38] Kubiak, 2003, p. 14.

affluent individuals. Everybody, starting from few years old children, worked from dawn to dusk. Book reading, newspapers were regarded as an activity ascribed to the culture of the master. In Poland only after the primary school duty was introduced in the 1920s were rural children granted the right to do homework.

The difference in access to the printed word between urban and rural areas continues to exist. This is demonstrated in the results of research projects on book reading, book buying or borrowing from public libraries. In this respect, write the authors of the last report "…there is a growing contrast between rural and urban areas. In 2002 barely 5% of the rural population had regular contacts with books and the press, whereas in towns 17% had such contact, with the greatest percentage (24%) of regular readers being residents of the biggest urban centres. Respectively, 16% of the rural population and only 7% of the urban population had nothing to do with the print-on-paper media whatsoever."[39]

TEXT AND SOCIAL STATUS

Literacy divided people into physical workers and workers whose jobs generally do not involve manual labour, but rather the use of the mind. The division lasted for thousands of years and quite until recently the terms blue-collar and the white-collar worker were used, at times giving preference to one group over the other, depending on who was worthy of attention. Only in the recent years have the new technologies, particularly information technology, caused that the differentiation between the blue-collar work and the white-collar work to start to blur.

With time the clay tablets were substituted by papyrus, later parchment, birch bark, finally paper. But this was not the most important thing. The organisation of urban life and the needs of inhabitants not only involved the individuals who wrote texts, but also people able to read and understand what the texts contained. To be able to communicate and cooperate town inhabitants had to read and understand legal codes, tax regulations, trading figures, bank transfers, promissory notes, all kinds of orders of town authorities. Somebody had to teach reading and writing. This in turn necessitated the founding of schools and thus teachers appeared. The social groups began to grow forming the administrative systems, the early civil service, the military structures around the prince's or the king's court, town authorities, and finally the state government. The top of the social ladder was occupied by literate people, the bottom by those who could not write and read. A separate group were individuals engaged in some kind of creativity: scholars, writers, poets, printers, copyists. This group was quite diverse in terms of property. Both in ancient Greece and in the ancient Rome the poor did not engage in philosophy, painting and sculpture unless they garnered support of a rich sponsor.

The literate groups were very unwilling to share their skills. To the contrary they guarded the privileges resulting from their possession. In the ancient times the teaching of writing and reading did not cover women and slaves. The latter were often copyists themselves who did not understand what they rewrote. Both women and slaves did not participate in the public life. Literacy was a condition of participation. This tradition has survived until today. It is true that there are no slaves anymore, but most of the one billion illiterates worldwide are women. In African countries, particularly the Muslim countries, it is regarded as unprofitable to educate girls and women. The traditional family-related roles assigned to them, and their absence in political, scientific and cultural life prevent the dissemination of literacy. Any declarations on democracy, respect for human rights, civil society, information society and similar headings of European descent, in the situation of Muslim countries where half of the population are women who do not participate in the public life, seem to be an absolute misunderstanding, if not some kind of hypocrisy.

The promotion to the higher positioned groups in the social hierarchy was individualised. In order to achieve this, an individual had to overcome numerous barriers: social, moral, material. Women until recent times were excluded from these processes. The establishment of universities in the Middle Ages did not change their situation to a slightest degree. Men did not have an easy access to education, particularly those coming from poor communities, but many of them managed to overcome these obstacles, benefit

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[39] Straus et al., 2004, p. 21.

from social rise, and participate in the above named groups. It is to Jan Zamojski that the "disce puer latine, ego te faciam mosci panem" saying is ascribed. It appeared on the cover of the pre-war Latin textbook and reflected perfectly the way to social rise. A poor Cracow student receiving soup and bread, and sometimes money from a merciful burgher knew that after years of living in poverty he had a chance for a better life.

FUNCTIONING WITHOUT WRITING

Apart from the beneficiaries of literacy there were also losers. Little do we know today about the tribes that were not able to present the knowledge about themselves in the form of graphical signs and perished in the darkness of history. Karol Modzelewski writes: "From the point of view of the ancient and mediaeval civilisation, the barbarian tribes presented themselves to some extent similarly as the so-called exotic peoples, studied by ethnologists in the 19th and 20th century. The territorial-political organizations of the barbarians, referred to in science as tribes, did not possess the instruments of administrative compulsion, and social integration was based on the overwhelming power of tradition and the pressure exerted on the individual by his mother group. They were communities functioning without writing, where not only mythology, but also the collective historical memory and the legal norms were passed by word of mouth from one generation to another". Modzelewski continues… "the barbarian world did not leave a written testimony about itself behind until it transformed under the influence of Christian states and the Church".

The written records about this illiterate world can be roughly divided into two categories. The first one consists of accounts provided directly or indirectly by eyewitnesses, who had personal contacts with the tribal communities. These are contemporary testimonies, but written by foreigners who looked at barbarians through the eyes of civilised men of the ancient times or the Middle Ages. The second category is indigenous records. The written codification of tribal customary laws was done at the order of barbarian rulers. This happened already after the threshold of statehood and Christianity was crossed. The records related to the tribal society are thus testimonies generated from the outside or ex post."[40]

Little do we know about those who did not manage or did not want to join the then globalisation processes, such as the Obodritians, Silesians, Dziadoszanians, Jadzwings (Samogitians) or Prussians. The latter found their way to history textbooks because they murdered St Adalbert. Few accept the fact that they did so not because they were enemies of Christianity, but because they feared the destruction of their tribal structure, law and customs, subversion of the system they were used to and establishment of a new one they knew nothing about.

The ability to read and write in the ancient times, in the Middle Ages, during the Renaissance and practically until the 18th century was a privilege and positioned an invidual at the top of the social ladder. Those staying at the bottom constituted an overwhelming majority and for them oral messages had to suffice, also literary ones, and also all types of pictures and sculptures, chiefly of religious content. At the beginning of the 6th century Pope George I the Great said "Worshipping pictures is one thing, whereas getting to know them by means of a noteworthy history is something else. What a written text presents to a reader for those who perceive by means of sight is shown in pictures, because it is in them that people are able to see history they can follow, and those who do not know letters become convinced that in a way they are able to read. Thus for simple people pictures are an equivalent of reading". In 1025 the synod of Arras ascertained that what simple people cannot grasp by reading, they get to know by looking at pictures.[41]

Those who possessed the skill of reading read aloud: to their family, neighbours, apprentices, servants, women and anybody who wanted to listen. Silent reading just for oneself came much later.

In ancient Greece literature was disseminated by theatre, accessible to all citizens; in ancient Rome the games dominated, characterized by cruelty, in the Middle Ages the court theatre developed, meant for a selected audience. Simple people had to make do with the marketplace theatre.

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[40] Modzelewskib, 2004, p. 13,17,18
[41] Manguel…op. cit. p. 146.

Has something changed since those distant times? As Dubravka Ugrešić maintains, we still deal with a majority of unresisting buyers of the values of contemporary culture and the unnoticeable minority of verifiers of these values. The sceptics most often are labelled as 'elitists', cultural pessimists and conservatists'.[42] One may of course console oneself that the differences existed both in the ancient culture, in the Middle Ages, and in the newer times. And it was not the question of divisions, but the imperviousness between the two groups. Those connected with or attached to classical or ambitious literature stopped being a model for consumers of entertaining books, easy to read, leaving no trace in the mind of the reader the day after they are read. And it is not only a question of book choosing, but of a general approach to culture values. This trend was visible already in the 1950s. Alberto Manguel quoting Jorge Louis Borges writes: "in 1950 during one of the demonstrations that the Peron's government organized against the oppositionist intellectuals, the crowd shouted 'Shoes yes, books no!'…It has always been regarded that hard reality – the indispensable reality – is in a state of an unsolvable conflict with the ephemeral world of dreams contained in the books".[43]

A student of library science was asked at an exam what he would do being a director of the National Library and having to choose between buying a Chopin's letter for big money and new computers answers without a slightest sign of hesitation that of course he would choose the hardware because it provides conditions for fast and efficient information processing. And it is hard to be amazed with this reply, because the student hears everywhere that the computer – and Internet-based access to information – is more important than the study of written or printed texts.

The Invention of Printing

The privileges of literate groups collapsed under the pressure of the invention of printing. In 1440s – writes Alberto Manguel – a young engraver and jeweller from Mainz… came to the conclusion that a far greater speed and efficiency can be achieved when individual letters of the alphabet are printed with separate, reusable types… Johann Gutenberg found all basic, previously unknown devices, used in printing still in the 20th century: a metal cubicoid to copy letters, a press combining the properties of the wine extractor press and bookbinding press, and ink made of oil varnish…Between 1450 and 1455 he printed the first book using a new technique – the Bible – containing 42 lines on each page". [44]

It was not for the first time in history that technological progress contributed to social change. If it were not for the invention of print, Luther's followers would not be able to promote the reading of the Bible, education would still be dominated by Latin, national languages would not be heard in science and literature, the hand-copied book would still be available only to the rich, there would be no Renaissance, Enlightenment, development of sciences, ideas, philosophy and literature. The invention of print enlarged the circle of beneficiaries of literacy, was instrumental in spreading views, social ideas, political programmes, trends in art, chiefly in literature, and reinforced the foundations of European civilisation.

Without a printed book it would be impossible to develop primary education, which spread literacy among previously educationally neglected people, chiefly of peasant origin. The process developed differently from one European country to another. It worked out very well in the countries that in the second half of the 19th century introduced compulsory schooling (Germany, England, Denmark, Norway, Sweden), and the responsibility for education was vested in proper state-run institutions. Literacy resulted in the development of popular reading, which attracted the interest of educationists, politicians, and even entrepreneurs. Looking at it from the perspective of several centuries, it is worthwhile to think about what has really changed.

Contemporary popular reading has developed as a cultural phenomenon in two clearly distinct currents. One covers a narrow, elitist group, where the knowledge of the world literary canon is a component of the basic intellectual background, and the reading community spirit becomes the symbolic determinant by which the individual members of this group recognize each other. Such groups existed in the ancient times, and in the Middle Ages, in the newer times and in the most recent history. One may risk

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[42] Ugrešić, 2004 p. 199.
[43] Manguel…op.cit. p. 44
[44] Ibid, p. 194.

a statement that in this respect little has changed, though their membership composition is different. The difference consists in the fact that the then aristocracy and court circles have been substituted by intellectuals, scholars, artists, and journalists.

The second current in reading, in opposition to the first one, is numerous, though not homogenous; it consists of various social circles determined by tradition, education, professional qualifications, material status etc. It is in this group that one may observe the inclinations and readiness to use new, chiefly electronic forms of communication. It is hard to predict whether SMS or Internet novels, which already appeared in Poland, and enjoy tremendous popularity in China really have any future prospects, and are in a position to substitute print-on-paper literature; nevertheless it is hard not to see that the electronic civilisation changes the approach of readers to the book, the newspaper, the periodical, transforms the system of values, spreads a new language, even if it fails to arouse our enthusiasm. All these new developments have taken two widely different courses in European countries where literacy is well-rooted, and in Chinese society just coming out of illiteracy. It cannot be concluded that for 300 million owners of mobile phones literature in the form of simplest stories and fairy tales may turn out to be completely sufficient.[45]

THE INTERNET

The printed book market has not shrinked at all. For many years world production has stabilised at around 1 million titles per year and there is nothing to indicate that the situation should change for the worse. We are still flooded with print-on-paper material in the form of books, newspapers, periodicals, all kinds of the so-called grey literature, and finally full-blown advertising. The academic practice makes us write M. A. theses, books, articles, reports, all kinds of communiqués and discussions. The university archives are bursting at the seams. The Rector of the University of Warsaw made a decision that one copy of an M. A. thesis must be in a two-sided print format which helps to economise on space. Even perfunctory browsing not to mention reading of the current publishing output in such a narrow field as library science is practically impossible. Sometimes one may get the impression that we write and publish merely for ourselves. The assimilation of information contained in these publications, be they even most general, becomes ever more difficult. The Internet may provide some kind of a solution. However, we lack the knowledge as to what extent the information obtained from this source arranges and systematises the content of a B. A. or M. A. thesis. The reading of these theses proves that the Internet information is not arranged into a logical, structured whole, but it is used for numerous citations from which little follows.

Regardless of the numerous reservations and doubts the number of Internet connections has grown at an avalanche rate throughout Europe and in the United States, as well as in Poland. The Internet is used not only to send and receive textual information, but also image, video and sound. It is all because personal computers have become increasingly cheap and starting from the 1980s have been ever more accessible.

The attitude of readers towards books is to reach out for them sporadically, while trying to keep updated on new. It is important that what is new and fashionable is written about in the high circulation press. Specialist reviews such as *Nowe Książki* (New Books) or *Twórczość. Miesięcznik literacko-krytyczny* (Creativity. A Literary Criticism Monthly), *Dialog* (Dialogue) are reached for far less often, as is *Literatura na Swiecie* (Literatura na świecie). These monthlies are browsed by a very narrow group of literature lovers. These people largely form an elitist group of readers.

Both in Poland, and in many other countries the intellectual elite is formed at the secondary school level. In England these functions are fulfilled by Eton college, a school founded 565 years ago (in 1440). Its graduates become government members, work in the City, are employed by corporations and other important state and business organisations. For an enthusiast of the Internet the school's curriculum may appear outright an anachronism. The GCSE exam passed at the age of 16 covers 11 subjects (5 in normal schools), including English literature, French, Latin, Mathematics, one of the natural sciences, history and

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[45] Wróblewski, 2004

Greek. The A Levels Exam comprises 3 subjects and one additional subject. These are ancient history, mediaeval history, economy and archaeology. Students work in small groups of 8 to 14. The curriculum envisages original texts, even in Greek or Latin. There is no space left for abstracts, summarised novels, movies substituting literature and the Internet. And everyone is aware of the fact that they belong to a group of beneficiaries of literacy and of their own exceptionality in society.[46]

In the light of the words by some writers, reading activity is really something exceptional. This is proved among others by a confession by Anne Fadiman who in her super-interesting book under a meaningful title 'Ex libris' provides the following account of her reading experiences: "Over this period my son was born, my daughter learnt to read, both of us, me and my husband turned forty, my mother turned eighty and my father ninety. In the meantime our books – even those published a long time before we were born – stayed eternally young. They recorded the passing of the real time, and as they reminded us of all the situations, in which they were read and re-read again, also the previous decades were reflected in them. The books wrote the history of our lives, and as they were gathered on the shelves- and also on the window-sills, under the sofa and on the fridge – they have become its chapters. Could it have been otherwise?"[47]

The book by Anne Fadiman may serve the most picky reader as a guide not only to American literature, but also to world literature, particularly because this knowledge about literature was accumulated by several generations. "My parents – she writes – simply handed down to us the heritage they received from their parents. When my mother being ten moved from Utah to California, her father covered the entire 16 feet-long wall with book shelves, and her mother papered them with beige, kind of puffy wallpaper. That summer my mother read a complete edition of collected works by Dickens. My father grew in Brooklyn, in an immigrants' family, who were so poor that they took him to a restaurant for the first time only when he was a teenager, but it did not prevent them from filling two bookcases made of black walnut with Scott, Tolstoi, Maupassant and others. I read Ibsen when I was eight, my father told me. But Ibsen was already there much earlier. I knew he was a great Norwegian playwright and he was part of the world to which I was heading."[48]

Exactly. A Warsaw-based librarian who has not heard about the canon of world literature published for one year now by Gazeta Wyborcza, a leading national daily – to what kind of a world is she heading?

Just like in the ancient times and the Middle Ages, also today we deal with an elitist group of beneficiaries of the printed word, and additionally the electronic word. Members of this group develop the skill of writing, reading and critical thinking intheir youngest years. They are the ones to whom fairy tales were told and read, who were sent to a kindergarten full of books, for whom beautifully illustrated publications were bought, who went together with the whole family to the bookshop and to the library, for whom a home book collection was built – in a word a book infrastructure was developed, regarded as a natural, closest environment conducive to reading initiation.

This does not mean that all these efforts will always end up in a success. It happens rather infrequently that other interests start to prevail, like watching tv, playing computer games or surfing on the Internet. The peer pressure at school, in the neighbourhood, models created by the media, particularly in the field of pop music, may become dominating and may undermine parents' efforts. The fact of belonging to a group of active readers is not hereditary; each generation must create the interest in books anew. Similarly, unwillingness to read does not have to last a whole lifetime. The sudden interest in the book may start by accident or be caused by the current developments in society, politics, and economy. During the martial law in Poland (1981-1984) young people coming to the National Library reading room virtually devoured the works by Józef Piłsudski, the pre-World War II leader of Poland. It was in reaction to the widespread indoctrination and propaganda. Reading against something or someone is a recurring

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[46] Kruczkowska, 1996.
[47] Fadiman, 2004, p. 8 –9.
[48] Ibid, p. 135.

phenomenon in the history of reading. However, these are always exceptional situations and they do not have to happen again.

THE MARGINALISED

The printed word does not hold any interest for a numerous group of less educated young people aware of poor chances for a better life after graduation. Young people see the gated metropolitan communities, guarded, inaccessible, fencing them off. They are convinced that the bookshop, or the library, are not for them. So they pass them by. The language they use is poor indeed; it serves to communicate in a group. All of this put together causes aggression. Those young people know that their skills of presentation to a potential employer are pretty meagre. The opening of European borders has changed very little in their lives. They live like nomads at foreign bus or railway stations; they are not able to master the simplest set of words in a foreign language; they queue up for free soup. They have not read, so they do not know that they are main characters of the book by *Zygmunt Bauman Życie na przemiał* (Wasted Lives. Modernity and Its Outcasts).

To be just it needs to be stressed that apart from those socially excluded at the very start, there are those who believe that education constitutes a value, creates an opportunity, not equal to everyone, but still an opportunity. By starting to compete at school and at the university, treating it as training before entering the labour market, they try not to doubt their own possibilities, they adopt the rules of positive thinking, demonstrate their individuality, but also teambuilding skills, they study textbooks of psychology, sociology, market laws, management and marketing. They know perfectly well what this game is all about and what price they will have to pay. They are the ones who also read fiction, particularly in a situation when their professional community imposes its standards upon them also in this field. One cannot exclude that being beneficiaries of the printed word they will create new reading models and stimulate others.[49]

No matter what divisions are taking place in the social structure, let alone the disappearance of some, and the emergence of other groups of professionals, literacy continues to divide people into the ones who have won and the ones who have lost their battle, and the ones who still have a chance.

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[49] Grzeszczyk Ewa: Sukces. Amerykańskie wzory – polskie realia.(Success. American Models – Polish Reality) Warszawa 2003.

Reception of Fairy Tales in Printed and Digital Media

Estela Banov, University of Rijeka, Croatia

In the context of a global society, a linkage between literacy and technology is now more strongly emphasised than ever. A multimedia and hypermedia project, *Croatian Tales of Long Ago*, presented on CD-ROM and Internet by Bulaja publishers, transforms the classical literary work of Ivana Brlić-Mažuranić into the visually and acoustically attractive cartoons, games and interactive stories. Research is starting from the hypothesis that there is a difference between readers' perceptions of a digital animated version of the *Tales* and printed book in original or translated version. The qualitative research based on the collected data about perceptual and cognitive experiences within different age groups is directed towards examining the correlation between reception of chosen fairy tales in printed and digital media, and includes analyses of how the CD-ROM influences reading competence, intercultural consciousness, and the development of learning skills and interest in reading.

INTRODUCTION

In the post-modern age, digital media helps in transmission of cultural values across national boundaries. The teaching and development of skills that could improve processes of communication is becoming more complex and includes application of new tools and technologies. Education for global communication has to develop communication competence of contemporary children including exchange the information through electronic media and development of cross-cultural skills. Even the definition of literacy is changing. Nowadays basic skills, the ability to convert spoken language to written language and vice versa, are not enough to describe this complex phenomenon. In the various resources, authors mention different types of literacy including ability to communicate in different written and spoken languages, intercultural literacy, media, digital, visual and information literacy. The review of definitions, features, description and educational material about different types of literacy are available on the eduScapes website developed by Annette Lamb and Larry Johnson and dedicated to the problems of literacy.

According to the Queensland Government summary document dedicated to problems of contemporary education, literacy is "the flexible and sustainable mastery of a repertoire of practices with the texts of traditional and new communications technologies via spoken language, print, and multimedia." (Literate Futures: Report, 2000, p. 9). From the last decade of 20th century, authors in search for definitions of literacy suitable for 21st century also use the term multi-literacies. (The New London Group, 1996)

Developed countries have recognised the complex set of skills necessary for the 21st century, and, through organised institutional educational changes, are working to advance educational systems on all levels.

EXAMPLE: *CROATIAN TALES OF LONG AGO*

Croatian Tales of Long Ago is the title of the collection of fairy tales written by Ivana Brlić-Mažuranić and published as a book in the second decade of the 20th century. It is also the title of an international electronic publishing project presented on CD-ROM and Internet (www.bulaja.com.fairytales) by Bulaja publishers, based on the book with the same title. The project contains animated interactive stories, cartoons and games based on eight fairy tales from the book. The authors of visualised and digitalized transformations and translations of the stories are from Australia,

Scotland, England, Germany, France, Belarus / United States and Croatia, representing the diversity of persons working in the field of Flash animation over Internet. It is a good example of global communication and team co-operation in process of animation and electronic publishing.

The project of digitalising a written collection of stories based on the Slavic folk tradition and mythology involved a combination of audio-visual elements (pictures, sounds, music, written and spoken language). It presented written text and interactive electronic games in two different electronic media (stories are available in Croatian, English and German versions on CR-ROM, although on the Internet is presented only English version).

For presenting, the digital version of stories on CD-ROM, *Croatian Tales of Long Ago,* was divided in two parts, with four different stories in each, with the first part only available at the time our research was conducted. Flash animators that contributed in this part of project were Al Keddie from Scotland (cartoon *Stribor's Forest*), Ellen McAuslan from England (interactive picture book *Brother Jaglenaz and Sister Rutvica*), Katrin Rothe from Germany (interactive picture book based on an old manuscript, *Toporko and His Nine Brothers*) and an Australian of Latvian descent, Natan Jurevicus (cartoon with music spots and interactive electronic games based on *How Quest Sought the Truth*). As animation and production of cartoons is a complex process and requires teamwork and cooperation, with each of the authors directing his/her own small team of contributors.

The activation of *Stories* starts with sounds of birds and bells and the appearance of the year 1916, the time when the printed collection *Tales of Long Ago* was presented to the public. This is followed by an explanation on using icons for navigation within CD-ROM. Finally, the titles of the four stories are given. Navigation is based on hypertext technology and in the corners of the screen there are icons with the written instructions for their use: eye as a sign for *Watch the story*, lips for *Change language*, and options for *going back* and *exiting* from the program. As the cover page of each story appears, so too does an E-mail message as a sign of communication in cyberspace. The frame is based on the layout of the web page, and includes animated figures of the main characters of the story, which can be accessed with a hyperlink.

Presentation of the stories is much complex than simple animation and within the menu of each story there are explanations and meta-textual references that help viewers with the process of setting the content in a historical context and specific narrative frame. Navigation similar to the web page contains features common for the whole project (a biography and information about Ivana Brlić-Mažuranić, explanations of the main characters from Slavic mythology that inspired author in her own artistic creation, and a story about the digital multimedia project presented as a worldwide fairytale adventure)

and features specific for each of the stories (self representation of the authors of each story and information about stories and characters, accompanied by the text of the original or translated story). Transformation of narrative structure is adjusted to the requirements of screen presentation. Frames (or windows) are used in the multimodal situation and the conventions of different media are used as a sign for different types of communication. The voice of the narrator can be turned on and off during the process of reception. Each story is presented in a different way, either as a cartoon on the screen, or as an interactive picture book or imitation of an old manuscript with written text. This can help the process of making connections between spoken and written language and learning orthography in early literacy and in the context of acquiring foreign languages). Children can animate the pictures and turn over the leaves using hyperlinks. They can produce comical sounds and interesting visual effects. This way of presentation could be interesting for "screen-agers", the generations grown up within the television and computers environment that perceive the world "as a series of screens that they both access and manipulate in a constantly evolving stream of shared communication". (Thoman & Jolls, 2004; Rushkoff, 1996).

METHOD

The digital project *Croatian Tales of Long Ago* is an attempt to present the classical literary collection of the stories in completely different way to a population that is living in a completely different context than the primarily targeted audience of written and printed stories. This population has developed different communication skills, mostly through informal communication rather than institutional education.

The purpose of the research was to identify specific features of reception of fairy tales in digital media and how the semantic potential of traditional written stories changes through the process of animation and presentation in global media. Reception of a narrative pattern shaped like an artistic product is always an individual experience connected with the previously accepted cultural patterns and set of values and skills. This type of digital media also includes a strong interactive aspect connected with possibilities of manipulating hyperlinks that are interesting for very young children who could not express emotions and feelings in the form of written language. It was also interesting to look for differences in the reception of multimedia tales within different age groups.

Qualitative research was used because the most interesting aspects are not measurable and appropriate for a positivist form of research. As qualitative research is directed towards understanding the phenomenon of interest from the participants' perspective, not the researcher's, it takes into the consideration the interactive aspect of both observed phenomena and research process. As Merriam (1998) noticed:

> In contrast to quantitative research, which takes apart a phenomenon to examine component parts (which become the variables of the study), qualitative research can reveal how all the component parts of the phenomenon work together to form a whole. It is assumed that meaning is embedded in people's experiences and that this meaning is mediated through the investigator's own perception. (p. 6)

For the interactive aspect of the multimedia presentation of fairytales, individual use of a computer was much appropriate for observing, but, as we wanted to enlarge number of participants, it was necessary to use an LCD projector. In this situation, manipulation with hyperlinks could only be carried out by the presenter of animated stories, who guided the navigation through the CD-ROM. The process of collecting data for different age groups was observations of the participants of the subjects, so it is reasonable to assume that participants did not express all their feelings, and, as with the process of reading traditional books, the participants' impressions were deeper than their verbal or visual (children drawings) expressions. If the educators and developers of curricula paid more attention to multi-literacies, media literacy competences would development more, and help the generation of "screen-agers" to deal with contemporary media environment.

RESULTS

The research of response to fairy tales embraced three different age groups: children in the kindergarten (mainly preliterate children, for whom use of digital media could help in the bridging boundaries between oracy and literacy), teenage users in the library "Halubajska zora", and students of Croatian language and literature at the Faculty of Arts and Sciences on the University of Rijeka.

Workshop in the Kindergarten "Delfin" Group "Seashells"

Workshops were organised over two months, once or twice weekly, for the group of about 15 children in the 4-7 years age range. In the guidance of workshops helped me Irena Vitez, the nursery school teacher at the kindergarten "Delfin" in Rijeka. Emphasis was on the aural response to visual aspects of the CD-ROM. The children expressed their personal experiences orally and through drawings. The first projection involved an interactive picture book based on the story *Toporko and His Nine Brothers*, and was presented in a way that would develop the ecological consciousness of the children. The participation in the workshop was optional, and some of the stories were too long for one workshop for this age group where concentration is limited to half of hour. The ability to perceive stories using digital media was very useful to promote children's understanding of the content of tales. Children preferred cartoons which, in the picture books, were linked to the animated links. Some of the archaic expressions in the stories needed an explanation from the nursery school teacher, although children looked only at animated version in their own mother tongue. Analysis of tales, drawings and interviews about impressions show differences in the children's interests connected with their previous contacts with computers and stories. Generally, children did not previously know the printed text of the stories, and presentation of the CD-ROM caught the attention of children in this age range. They were especially interested in the interactive electronic games in the story *How Quest Sought the Truth* rather than in the content of stories.

Workshop in the "Halubajska zora" Library, Marinići

Analysis of response to the CD-ROM *Croatian Tales of Long Ago* was based on previous analyse of the Croatian literature curriculum and media culture and the questions directed to participants considered the expected background knowledge. The research followed interpretation of the written story *The Stribor's Forest*. Danijela Štokić, librarian at "Peoples library and reading-room Halubajska zora" at Viškovo helped me in preparing and developing questioners and guidance of workshops in the library "Halubajska zora", Marinići. Although work was previously planned as a group activity within the teenage population, individual use of CD-ROM was seen as a better solution and it attracted the attention of the users of library. In this situation, collection of data was based on interviews and questionnaires with possibilities for descriptive answers. The workshop included about 15 teenagers, more girls than boys. Participants' interests were dispersed according to their age. Younger participants concentrated on cartoons and on the known tale *The Stribor's Forest;* older participants liked stories that were not known before. Foreign language options were used only sometimes and after looking the version of tales in mother tongue. Only the highest-achieving students used the *Tales* as a help in learning a foreign language.

There was an unexpectedly strong correlation between interest in reading books and in digital transformation of tales. The written version of *Tales of Long Ago* was known only to some examinees before the contact with the CD-ROM. Children with less well-developed literacy skills concentrated on the watching cartoons and on the voice of the narrator. The meta-narrative elements of the CD-ROM did not attract the examinees' attention. In the workshop, participants were briefly presented with information about Slavic mythology to help understanding of the motivation and actions of some characters in the *Tales*.

Students of Croatian Language and Literature

Parts of the CD-ROM *Croatian Tales of Long Ago* were used for discussion of term "applied folklore" and issues in the comparative history of Croatian literature, with university-level students. Work was directed towards comparative analysis of different aspects of printed and digital media and analysis of

intercultural competence. Problems connected with those topics were stressed in discussions and students had the opportunity to view a web site presentation of the digital project before expressing opinions about transformation to digital format of the well-known classical collection of the tales. In addition, the choice of theme for the essay was elective – students could chose between writing about a book or the digital transformation of *Tales*. The group was divided evenly between the two options. Students of Croatian and English language and literature showed interest in the English version of the stories and recognised regional linguistic features in the *Stribor's Forest*.

DISCUSSION

During the process of transformation from printed to digital media, different types of decoding and encoding of messages and different symbolic systems were used. The option to use the interactivity of digital media to represent the "possible world" of narrative fairytale fiction is very powerful in motivating students, especially younger children. Transformation of narrative patterns from print to digital media can occupy different aspects of participants' attention and activate different senses. Availability of written and spoken language at the same time, which is an option with digital picture books, could help in the process of developing literacy skills. The ability to use the computer to design an illustration of tales can help the children in process of developing their own digital abilities.

Members of different age groups had different reactions to the CD-ROM version of *Tales*. The more mature they were, the more attention they paid to meta-textual, and meta-narrative aspects of the digital and animated product. The story presented as a worldwide fairytale adventure could be a strong motivation for developing global awareness. The animated versions of the stories created in a completely different cultural background and presented to students unacquainted with the printed version of the *Tales* could provide information about opportunities of multimedia and present an invitation to read the original version of the *Tales*.

The reactions of all three groups had shown that transformation from printed to digital media isn't only the transformation; the change in content must also be considered (McLuhan, 1994) But the digital stories under name *Croatian Tales of Long Ago* are also an ironical synthesis of the history of popular culture and media in the last century with allusions to rock music of the vinyl-generation, the Hollywood film industry, comics, photography, etc. Complex use of visual and acoustical abilities of multimedia underlines differences between visual and aural perception that could be used in the educational process to help develop multi-literacy skills. Changes in the process of perception have a strong influence on symbolic systems and on dominated cultural patterns.

As writer Alvin Toffler pointed out: "The illiterate of the 21st century will not be those who cannot read and write, but those who cannot learn, unlearn, and relearn" (Partnership for 21st Century Skills, 2003, p. 4).

At the beginning of the 21st century, digital media are the strongest stimulus for changes in the educational institutions, and a powerful tool that cold help this process.

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Developing and Sustaining
an Online Reading Master's Degree Program

Debra P. Price, Mary E. Robbins, Leonard G. Breen, Betty Higgins and Melinda Miller, Sam Houston State University, Texas, USA

In 2000, our university administration approached the reading faculty suggesting that we develop a master's degree program delivered entirely online. We responded with doubt and negativity, unconvinced that we could deliver a rigorous online program that remained true to our program's social constructivist theory base. Our colleagues across the country were equally unconvinced that online instruction could be delivered as effectively as face-to-face instruction. One colleague, well versed in all that is technological, told us "something not worth doing was not worth doing well". However, the administration persisted, and nationally the number of substandard online programs continued to grow. We had a dilemma: Develop a quality program or lose students to other online programs that lacked the standards we consider essential to our profession. We chose to develop a program, now recognized by the International Reading Association. Fortunately, our program continues to grow, and we have graduated four cohorts. This success did not happen overnight; it required hard work and the support of our administration.

Online graduate programs have gradually grown in popularity across the nation. Between 1995 and 1997, the number of classes offered online in two and four-year institutions nearly doubled (US Department of Education, 2002). In the 1999-2000 school year 124,240 people earned a Master's degree in Education (U.S. Department of Education, 2000). Of these students, approximately 12% participated in some form of online learning. The *Condition of Education*, (2002) states that of those students who earned a Master's degree in education, 60.2% were equally satisfied with distance education classes compared to face-to-face classes. Beller and Or report that (1998, par. 13) "the successful implementation of technologies in leading universities has, among other things, increased the status of distance learning and is beginning to blur the distinction between on-campus and distance learners." The educational challenge is to develop pedagogically effective technology-mediated learning environments that truly enhance the quality of education (Althaus, 1997).

This paper outlines four steps we believe necessary in developing a successful program delivered primarily online. (All our courses are delivered solely online except for the two practica courses, which require the student to be on our home campus or in an arranged practicum near his/her home.) These steps are:

(1) Developing a rigorous master's degree program;
(2) Implementing one online course;
(3) Encouraging meaningful interactions online; and,
(4) Assessing learning online .

DEVELOPING A RIGOROUS PROGRAM FOR ONLINE DELIVERY

A critical component to the success of any program is the initial planning. As our doubting reading faculty met to explore online issues, we asked hard questions of ourselves and the administration, and worked to convince the university to leave us alone to teach our face-to-face master's courses. Some of the questions we asked turned out to be good ones, ones others might benefit from exploring:

- Why should we offer online courses? We spent many hours discussing this among ourselves and with the administration. In the final analysis, this question was only answered after we started teaching online and listened to the reasons our students gave for taking such courses.

  Even though we never meet, there is a feeling of friendship and caring as you read the posts. There was an open forum to discuss anything in one of my online classes. We spent a lot of time discussing issues in our families that could easily distract us from our class work. Instead, we had a sympathetic listener/reader who helped us cope. I have gained so much insight from these

online courses. It has made it easy for me to return to school to earn my master's and still lead the busy life of a wife, mother and teacher. (Janice, 2005).

- Is it possible for online courses to fit our mission statement, our program, and institutional philosophy and goals? This question evoked the most vehement response from the faculty. We were not convinced we could maintain a constructivist philosophy and teach online courses. Again, the answer came only after we experienced developing and working with a community of learners online. We did find that our social constructivist philosophy of teaching could work online as well as in face-to-face classes.

  I believe that the online format develops a community of learners through collaboration and interaction. Although students do not see one another, they get to know personalities through written response. The online format allows time for thoughtful consideration of responses. The discussion threads allow each student to comment on the thoughts and responses of others. Students are guided and directed by learned professors. Deadlines for responses assure that each student stays on task and current (Denise, 2005).

- Who would be our competition? We researched online programs, and in some cases, asked to be allowed in the courses as guests.
- What do online courses look like? None of us had participated in an online course as a student or teacher, so several of us enrolled in different short, non-credit courses to get a feel for how to get to know people online, how lessons should be structured for ease of understanding, and how to engage recalcitrant students.
- How would we maintain rigor, standards, and integrity? Once we had an understanding of the general level of online courses, we realized that any program we offered could not differ in any substantive way from our current face-to-face master's program. The faculty meticulously examined each master's course to decide if and how the course could be placed online without sacrificing quality and IRA standards. In the end we made our face-to-face courses and our online courses identical; they have exactly the same content and exactly the same activities. The only courses we could not place online are our two supervised literacy practica courses. We require students to come to campus for these courses in one short summer term. In those rare instances when students cannot come to campus, we arrange for them to receive a supervised practicum by adjunct faculty near their home.
- What support services are available at the university to enable online learning? We communicated with the cashiers' office about online payments, with graduate studies regarding online applications, and the library regarding online databases, electronic reserves, librarian and technology support for our students.
- How would our administration support us? We negotiated with the administration over a long period of time. We were adamant that faculty carry online courses as a part of their regular teaching load. We negotiated a course release for developing the course, a stipend when the course was ready to be placed online, and a stipend when the course is substantially revised. We requested and received graders to assist with the volume of email and discussion forum conversations. We were able to receive a commitment for new faculty based on increasing graduate enrollments.

As we worked through these issues together, we began to see possibilities. The next section explains how we made the transition from a face-to-face course to its online incarnation.

IMPLEMENTING AN ONLINE COURSE

We began planning each course for online delivery in the same manner as we plan all courses, by considering what we needed to teach and how this course would meet our state standards and the standards for Reading Specialists proposed by IRA. In addition to determining what and how much content would be covered in each class, what would be assigned by way of readings, projects and assignments, and when they would be due and evaluated, additional components needed attention:

- When and how often would students be required to be "online?"
- What are the questions, ideas, and concepts students should respond to when they are "online" for class sessions?
- Would students participate in one-on-one discussions and small discussion groups as well as in whole class discussions?
- When and how often would these take place?
- Would students post individual responses for each class session and/or participate in a "chat room" setting?
- In relation to responses to other students, when and how often would these occur?
- Would the instructional format include narrative documents, power points, video clips, links to web sites?
- Would there be quizzes and exams? How would that be handled? How would scores for class participation be determined?
- How would issues of timeliness regarding responses and projects need to be considered?

Courses, developed individually by the faulty member initially slated to teach that course, emerged with different answers to the above questions. The courses ended up looking quite similar to our face-to-face courses, and each course individually reflects the philosophy and personality of the individual professor.

ENCOURAGING MEANINGFUL INTERACTIONS ONLINE

"Communication isn't as simple as saying what you mean." (Tannen, 1995, p. 138).

The one area that continued to concern us as we developed the program guidelines and began developing courses was whether or not we would be able to maintain the quality of interactions with our students. Reasoning that interaction and rapport influence and motivate adult students as well as young learners, some teacher-educators are concerned about whether the interaction and rapport found online is as powerful as in face-to-face settings (Martinez & Sweger, 1996). We view ourselves as teachers first, and since we teach at an institution well regarded for a supportive environment, we devoted quite a bit of time considering the kinds of interactions we might see and how we might make those interactions meaningful. Research tells us that we should focus on four types of interaction online (Hillman, Willis, & Gunawardena, 1994):

- Learner – Teacher. Just like the interactions in a face-to-face class, online instructors need to insure that the interactions between teacher and learner are quality interactions that move the learner towards a satisfactory outcome.
- Learner – Learner. The interactive nature of dialogue boards and chat rooms make the exchanges between learners visible. These interactions need to be monitored to insure that learners are taking responsibility for substantive comments and conversations.
- Learner – Content. The content is all written. Thus learners need to be able to understand and internalize the content of the course.
- Learner – Interface. The delivery system for the course needs to be accessible and organized in a way that allows for maximum use and minimum confusion.

As each course was developed and implemented, we found that all four types of interactions occurred, but the quantity of the various interactions varied depending on the particular course and/or on the personality of the faculty member teaching that course. In some courses there were significant amounts of Learner-Teacher interactions, while in others the Learner-Learner interactions were heavily favored. The number of interactions in any particular category did not seem to affect a student's overall impression of the course. Perhaps because the students were graduate students, they seemed quite willing to see each course differently and to adjust their interactions accordingly.

Research also indicated we should consider ways of insuring student needs were met (Willis, 1994):

- Use study guides and advanced organizers

- Integrate a variety of platforms for interaction and feedback: telephone conference calls, fax, email, video, computer conferencing
- Contact each student weekly
- Have students keep a journal of thoughts and ideas regarding the course content as well as individual content
- Equitably address individual students to ensure that all have an ample opportunity to interact
- Make detailed comments on written assignments, return assignments quickly

In addition to suggestions from research about online instruction, we also learned that we needed to:

- Understand the nature of transactional distance (the psychological gap that occurs when the students and teacher are separated geographically) and help our students do the same
- Reduce transactional distance by encouraging dialogue between both teacher-to-students as well as students-to-students
- Engage with the students but avoid the IRE (Initiate a question, student responds and teacher evaluates response) response pattern (Cazden, 1988)
- Encourage face-to-face interactions whenever possible
- Be flexible when technology interferes with learning

According to Vrasidas (2002) "People have meanings and construct interaction by acting in the world based on those meanings" (p. 289). Thus, instructors designing online courses need to ensure that students have ample opportunity to respond to each other on discussion boards and in group activities. If they participate in engaging, interactive assignments, students may learn to form positive meanings and interactions. Online learning can support a different type of genuine discussion as well as support building rapport with students. The genuine discussion (Dillon, 1994) formed online might appear different but can be compared to face-to-face genuine discussion in content and practice.

We created courses that promoted initial bonding. We continue to work to monitor and support continued interaction and participation while we provide "multiple means of communication to support the need to engage in work and social interaction, both publicly and privately" (Haythornthwaite, Kazmer, Robbins, & Shoemaker, 2000)

The comments of our students seem to indicate that we have been successful. The following comments are indicative of the responses we receive.

This is my first on-line class and I love it. Even though we never get to meet face to face, I feel as if I know everyone in the class personally. Through the introductions we get to "go inside" each others lives. The praise and encouragement that everyone gives is just phenomenal. I feel as if this is a risk free environment and I can ask the other students about anything. The whole class is one big support system (Robin, 2005).

ASSESSING LEARNING ONLINE

Assessment of online programs must be an on-going, broad-based process with an eye toward insuring the integrity of the complete program. We engage in assessments of student academic participation, assessment of courses and periodic assessment of our online program and program process. Student assessment assures that they are accountable for what they write and do as part of their coursework. It also allows every student know exactly how they are doing and where they stand in terms of grade awards. At the same time it helps us control the obvious opportunity for intellectually dishonest or disingenuous work. Toward this end, we use an extensive series of rubrics. Rubrics have become a way of life for those of us teaching courses and for students taking them. We use rubrics for weekly discussion topics, required reading responses and all class projects. We use rubrics to guide and evaluate the writing of diagnostic case reports and tutorial programs, for conducting school literacy program profiles and much more. The following is an example:

Instructor Evaluation for Weekly Course Activities

The instructor uses this rubric to evaluate your level of engagement in the weekly course activities.

0 points	The learner did not complete any of the course activities.
1 point	The learner attempted some of the activities, but the responses were half-hearted or incomplete.
2 points	The learner attempted all the activities, but some, or all, were incomplete or were not thoughtfully prepared.
3 points	The learner completed some of the activities thoughtfully.
4 points	The learner thoughtfully and carefully completed all the weekly activities.
5 points	The learner thoughtfully and carefully completed all the weekly activities and added something extra beyond the assigned tasks.

To make sure that every student is aware of what would be expected from them for every assignment, they are supplied with three things: a checklist of what their product should include, the rubric that would be used to evaluate their product and an example of what a good/excellent product would look like. Additionally, we carefully post discussion deadlines and give full credit for classroom discussions and activities only if the student meets the deadlines.

Assessment of the individual courses is based on accountability. We are accountable for the success our students demonstrated by the program on termination requirements. Each student either writes a comprehensive examination or presents a final program portfolio prior to graduation. Additionally, they are required to successfully complete an objective test administered by the state of Texas for certification as a Master's Level Reading Specialist. Student performance on all of these experiences allows us to examine the strengths and weakness of our course offerings.

Assessment of the entire program of course offerings is ongoing. Each faculty member offers feedback regarding course problems and successes. Upon completing the program, every student gives us feedback regarding their experiences while taking the courses. As a program area, our faculty is cognizant of changes in state certification and national accreditation regulations and, if necessary, these changes are incorporated into the program. New developments in the technology of our delivery systems are acknowledged, and the pros and cons of inclusion are debated. For example, we are currently discussing the wisdom of incorporating more video streaming into our courses. As well, we are debating the feasibility of leasing computer equipment to our students, thereby allowing us to upgrade and standardize the application of the newest of technologies into our teaching. Implementing an on-going process of assessment to inform our instruction, our course building and our program design is of vital importance to us.

CONCLUSION

Although rather dubious about the implementation of an online Master's Reading Program when first approached, we have been able to dispel our skepticism. Through investigation of other programs and with a strict commitment to our theoretical framework, we have developed a strong, viable, online program. Its success is demonstrated through student responses and their strong scoring on certification exams required by the state.

Through constant monitoring and continuous improvement based on research in our content areas and technological advances, we have a program of which to be proud.

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Children's Literacy in an Electronic World

Silko Štefančić, Zagreb City Libraries, Croatia

After printed storybooks, then audio-visual forms of story telling, now electronic storybooks provide an opportunity for readers and learners to become familiar with stories in some new format. Electronic storybooks are also becoming increasingly important in developing of children's literacy abilities. Traditional literacy instruction (i.e. the story format) now has the possibility to be taught within a new literacy (multimedia and technology-based literacy). But, electronic storybooks also provide opportunities to explore even more literacies (music, movement, visual, etc.), thus dually supporting notions of multiple literacies.

The aim of this paper is to present results of a library research about some types of storybooks, as audio-visual and electronic media, their influence in developing of children's literacy abilities and a more multi-literate approach to teaching and learning. Excellent example for this were stories of Ivana Brlić-Mažuranić.

INTRODUCTION

It seems we are in the midst of a literacy crisis! The literacy crisis is not from today and it is not so much that kids or adults can't read, but it is here. And it creates diverse problems, especially in education.

Librarians of Medioteka (media centre or department of audio, video and electronic media collection) at the City Library of Zagreb, Croatia, came up with an idea and used it to organise a new learning enviroment, through a simulation of an interactive electronic classroom in the library setting. The reason for starting the experiment was the problem of children's literacy. The starting point was the fact that libraries possess adequate information, communication and presentation technologies, including high quality collections of audio, video and electronic materials on different media.

The aim of simulation was to conduct research into children's ability to read, with reference to their use of media and information knowledge and skills. It was of interest to find out which they prefer most: reading printed books or talking books, video or different forms of electronic books.

The study was inspired by, and dedicated to Ivana Brlić Mažuranić, a world-famous Croatien writer, because the library possess all her books in different print and non-print formats, physical and virtual.

LITERACY

Researchers have recognised that emergent literacy includes not only reading and writing, but also various other domains. The conception of literacy as reading and writing of printed materials should expand to include things like oral traditions, stories, music, mathematics, visual images, movement … Many researchers, drawing on this perspective, began to argue that there was not one specific path to literacy, but rather multiple, broader notions of what it means to be literate. Today, many theorists also argue for the inclusion of multimedia and computer-based text in definitions of multiple literacies. These literacies include both traditional literacy and literacies that engage new technologies. This conception of multiple literacies includes critical media literacy, print literacy, computer literacy, cultural literacy, social literacy and ecoliteracy….

IVANA BRLIĆ MAŽURANIĆ

Ivana Brlić Mažuranić was born on April 18, 1874, into very well known Mažuranić family; she was a grandchild of Ivan, poet and politician, and daughter of Vladimir, lawyer and legal historian. Through her marriage to Vatroslav Brlic, lawyer and politician, she bacame part of yet another family very well known in Croatian society; it provided Ignjat Alojzije, writer and linguist, and Andrija Tokvart Brlić, politician and journalist, important names of a line that was as well known in Croatian cultural and social life as the Mažuranić family.

Surrounded by capacious libraries in both houses, by an atmosphere of work and patriotism, she attained a very considerable learning in her own home, learned languages and lived a rich and intense inner life. She devoted all her work to her family, to education and to her literary creations.

Highly regarded by both national and foreign critics, she obtained the title of "Croatian Hans Christian Andresen" for the collection of *Tales of Long Ago*. Her place as the best writer of Croatian children's literature is assured. She had the ability to identify with the psyche of the child, and to understand the purity and naivety of the world of children. Her works have been translated into many languages and she was nominated for the Nobel prize for literature. In the 1937 she became the first woman ever to be elected to the National Academy of Sciences and Arts. She died in Zagreb on September 21, 1938.

LIBRARY PROJECT

The library project involved 20 classrooms from 6 elementary schools, or 464 pupils (10 years old) during the autumn and winter 2004. The project, involving research on children's literacy through simulation of an interactive electronic classroom, was always implemented using only one classroom, because it was not possible to transfer it to a school setting.

An outline of the life and work of Ivana Brlić Mažuranić was made in the form of audio and multimedia presentations, video projections and computer workshops. At the beginning there were some informative questions. Later questions were set after teaching (in form of presentation or projection). The questions asked at the beginning could be grouped in three clusters (Table 1):

Table 1: Clusters of Pre-study Questions and Responses

Question		Yes	No
Q1	When you were a little child did anybody tell or read a story or fairy tale to you ?	100%	0%
Q2	Do you like to read books?	68.7%	41.3%
Q3	Do you like to listen to audio-books?	12.3%	87.7%
Q4	Do you like to watch movies?	63.9%	36.1%
Q5	Do you like to play computer games?	90.1%	9.9%
Q6	Do you know what a computer is?	100%	0%
Q7	Do you know what an electronic book is?	10.1%	89.9%
Q8	Do you know what multimedia means?	14.5%	85.5%
Q9	Do you know what interactivity is?	0%	100%
Q10	Do you know what the Internet is?	73.0%	27.0%

The next step involved a presentation of the person and work of Ivana Brlić Mažuranić in different ways and different formats: as a picture book (print media), audio book (audio cassette or CD), screen version (video cassette or DVD), interactive multimedia storybook (CD-rom), virtual book or e-book (Internet), or live adaptation (theatre, stage piece). After each presentation of Ivana's work, there were some questions. These questions were designed to provide interesting and important answers about nature and extent of children's literacies.

The results were very interesting. They say a lot about differences between children, their interests and the ways in which they want to read and learn.

Tomorrow, this results will be change because computers and the Internet are not yet present in greater number in our elementary schools and homes.

Table 2: Children's Responses to Post-study Questions

Question		
Q1	What is better or more interesting, reading the story or listening to the story?	Reading: 86.3% Listening: 13.7%
Q2	What is more interesting, reading the story or watching the story as a movie?	Reading: 35.1% Watching: 64.9%
Q3	What is better or more interesting, reading the story or using an interactive storybook?	Reading: 56.4% Interactive: 43.6%
Q4	Which is better or more interesting, reading the story or using a virtual storybook?	Reading: 77.8% Using virtual book: 22.2%
Q5	Which is better or more interesting, reading the story or looking at a live adaptation?	Reading: 74.9% Live adaptation: 25.1%

CONCLUSION

Audio, video and electronic media, especially electronic storybooks, are becoming increasingly important in developing children's literacy abilities. The benefit of using stories, and especially storybooks, in education has been well documented in the research literature and now in our library research, too. It is very important today because we are approaching a literacy crisis.

Different researchers, educational institutions, and software companies are following today an interest in electronic stories by incorporating storybooks, interaction, and virtual reality structures in the development of educational technologies for teaching and learning.

For elementary school pupils in our library project, there was an opportunity to learn about Ivana Brlic Mazuranic using multimedia. For school teachers it was opportunity to be introduced to and learn about the possibilities of expanding and enriching the school curriculum with help of information, communication and presentation technologies, as well as audio, video and multimedia content on different physical and virtual media.

The benefits of this library project for librarians of Medioteka at City Library of Zagreb were manifold. The City Library got the opportunity to increase the multimedia and information literacies of a large number of school pupils, providing them with opportunities they did not have at school. At the same time this simulation demonstrated and justified the use of information, communication and demonstration technologies, as electronic materials at the library. Also, we found evidence that our library can participate in a process of Lifelong Learning.

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National Tests for Kosovo: Development and Results

Eero Laakkonen and Hanna-Sofia Poussu-Olli,
University of Turku, Finland

The project *Developing a Capacity to Define Education Standards and Assess Performance* (Standards and assessment project in Kosovo) started in the beginning of July 2001 and lasted until the end of March 2003. Creating a new assessment culture for education was a really big challenge for the project. There are great differences and shortcomings in teacher training in Kosovo because of the lack of curricula. Besides, educational and socio-economic situations vary regionally to a great extent. It was deemed sensible to start creating educational assessment in Kosovo by developing national tests. The criteria, standards and contents as to what the tests are supposed to measure were taken into consideration in the development of the tests.

Generally assessment shouldn't be understood only in terms of a tool to measure students' performance; in addition, it has to serve as a tool for measuring the ability of teachers and their teaching skills. In general, it can be stated that the term 'evaluation' is used as an umbrella for all kinds assessments as well as being used to describe overall assessment forms. In this connection, according to Weeden et al (2000), a four-fold classification of the purposes of assessment can be used:

- Diagnostic Assessment – this indicates how current performance differs from the expected performance. It can be used to identify specific problems that a pupil may be experiencing.
- Formative Assessment – An assessment conducted as pupils learn; it results in actions that are successful in closing the gap between current and expected performance. Formative assessment is also called assessment for learning.
- Summative Assessment – An assessment that is used to certify or record end of course performance or predict potential future attainment; the final product or course; an examination grade:
- Evaluative Assessment – Assessment information that is used to judge the performance of schools or teachers.

Knowing that in Kosovo there was no educative assessment system, it was a good starting point for the creation of summative national tests for a selected grade. The summative (prognostic) assessment aims are to sum up the outcomes of learning over a number of years; its purpose is to show first and foremost what has been learned during a certain period at school. Summative assessment is assessment of learning. Most of our existing assessment procedures have evolved in relation to the needs of summative assessment such as tests, exams and grades. Using summative assessment or assessment of learning, it is possible to summarise students' current performance. Also using summative assessment, it is possible compare children's performances internationally. It gives the basic line for curricula and educational standards.

It is true that both linguistic and mathematical standards are universal in many ways, but they are characterised by each culture and language. There are many physical and material shortcomings in children's education in Kosovo and the post-war events have not passed without leaving obstacles to teaching and learning. The development of national tests in the project has been a remarkable achievement abreast with the other project activities. The completion of the national tests has been a historically important event in the Kosovar school world and it is the starting point for creating a new culture of assessment practice in Kosovo.

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Commonly speaking, educational standards present indicators on how to judge the adequacy of assessment activities. They are intended to stimulate and facilitate discussion and reflection at all stages in the assessment process. Assessment standards focus on core ideas, questions, problems, texts and knowledge, and stimulate enquiry and interest in intellectual work. In the discussion of education standards, performance standards answer the question, how well must students perform? In assessment design, the performance standards follow logically from the achievement target. The project has not been able to use standards originating from Kosovar curricula because they didn't exist; therefore the project resorted to international standards. Acceptability criteria have been set in the development of the standards in connection with the tests, but then again excellence criteria can also be defined, in which case what is required of excellence standards is classified in addition to acceptability standards.

OBJECTIVES OF THE ASSESSMENT PROJECT

The main objectives of the Developing a Capacity to Define Education Standards and Assess Performance project have been:
- To create a new assessment culture in education in Kosovo
- To develop standards and tests as tools for assessment
- To write manuals and materials for teachers to guide them in conducting tests
- To train staff members, teachers and regional administrators in assessment

It is an international tendency to conform in education, but educational policy will always be national by nature reflecting national priorities, values and environmental differences. One of the central factors in Kosovar education is how to change the educational environment. At a time when the rate of unemployment being very high, remigration active, salaries low, regional differences great and economic restructuring only being starting, the impact of media is great and many factors of insecurity are reflected both in society and in education. The situation being what it is, educational issues must be analysed all the more with reference to the other sectors of social policy. Standards of comparison must be taken from abroad. On the other hand, a new and wider view of the quality of education has emerged, during the past two years, in Kosovar education in order to provide a more high-level education for children of various origins, for children, for young people and also for teachers. There is an emphasis on more equal quantitative and qualitative focusing of educational services, an integral part of which should be the development of management methods in educational administration.

The tests for the national assessment were developed in the Albanian language and in mathematics for the fourth grade. A test in the Turkish language was added to the activities of the project at a later stage. In addition to the development of the tests, simultaneously the project has prepared standards for grades 1-5 of the lower elementary stage. The research is extensive with about 1000 pupils taking part in the piloting tests and about 8000 in main study. The implementation of this kind of research would have been a challenging and time-consuming task even for experienced researchers. The six-team members have simultaneously been trained from the basics of statistics to other issues concerning research, which also took time in the project.

TEST DEVELOPMENT

The purpose of the National Tests was to establish baseline data for educational assessment and to evaluate the achievement level of fourth graders in the Albanian and Turkish languages and in mathematics. Also, the aim was to identify the students' strengths and weaknesses and to encourage the identification of effective and ineffective schools in terms of achievement. In addition, the purpose was to identify objectives and content measured by the tests. This article focuses mainly on the procedures and the findings of the Albanian language tests.

The content of the tests were based on:
- The conceptual framework of the new curriculum
- Existing learning plans and programmes (the old one) for the fourth grade of the primary school

- The content of the fourth grade textbooks
- Other available materials such as books for teachers of fourth grade level.
- It is believed that the present curriculum for fourth grade will cover most of the fifth grade curriculum in the new Kosovo educational system.

The national test of Albanian language intends to measure the following student abilities: knowledge of concepts, terms and vocabulary; understanding of sentences, paragraphs and meanings of different texts; and language comprehension and critical thinking.

The content of all the available resources was analysed. It was found that the following competencies were expected to be included in programmes for fourth grade students: Grammar
- Paragraph comprehension
- Picture comprehension
- Punctuation
- Sentence comprehension
- Sentence formulation
- Spelling
- Text comprehension
- Vocabulary
- Writing

The final tests were formulated after the pilot testing. The purpose of pilot-testing was to estimate the items parameters such as difficulty level and discrimination index as well as item alternative efficiency. These estimates were used in selecting the items for the final forms of each test. For the pilot-test, 269 questions were created for the Albanian language. These were multiple-choice questions with four alternatives for each with one right answer. From these the most suitable were selected and they were classified into three test forms.

For the pilot testing, representative samples of the 4th grade students were selected from 11 municipalities. To select schools, which represent these 11 municipalities, a number of selection criteria was identified, such were: social and economic status of the school community, parental educational qualification of school community, previous academic achievement of schools, school size and gender of students. Altogether 32 schools were selected and from these 34 classrooms were selected. The students in these classrooms were considered to be representative of the population of students in fourth grade. The total number of students involved in pilot testing was 1031.

Intensive training on data entry and analysis was provided to the staff members. The training focused on developing the staff skills related to using softwares as Microcat and SPSS for data entry and analysis. Item difficulty, discrimination and alternative efficiency were obtained. Based on these results, the final items selected for the final national test forms. The final test consists of two test forms, form A and form B.

THE NATIONAL TESTS

The sample and test administration

The population consisted of 35,376 students (18431 male and 16945 female) who were the students enrolled in their fourth grade in all over Kosovo. The sample for the National tests (final test) was selected according to the following design: All seven main regions of Kosovo were considered and the municipalities were identified. The total number of municipalities was 30. Two-third of the municipalities of each region were selected, the number of the selected municipalities was 20. The number of schools containing students in fourth grade – 708 – was identified. A proportional number (one-fifth) of the schools on each list was selected randomly. The total number of selected schools was 135 and one or two fourth grade classrooms were selected in each school. The total number of selected classrooms was 147. All students in the selected classrooms were included in the sample. The total number of students was 4011 (2042 male and 1969 female).

Detailed administration instructions for each form of each test were prepared. The general instructions provide information to students concerning why the test is administered and what to expect from students and the importance of taking the test seriously. Students were also encouraged to work independently. A short training session was also held for all administrators, and the administration instructions and test booklet were discussed.

Psychometric properties of the National tests

In the first phase of the data analysis, the psychometric properties of the tests were analysed. Indices of test validity, reliability and item efficiency were obtained and analysed.

Validity tells us to what extent we measure what we intend to measure. The test development process was planned and implemented to ensure test validity. The way the tests were developed included content analysis – this entailed identifying main skills and abilities to be measured, test specification, writing items which measure each main skill, judging the extent to which the items measured the relevant skill, continuous reviewing and revision of the items, piloting the test and item selection. All of these activities provided positive evidence that the tests had content validity.

Reliability indicates the extent to which observed scores on the test (students' scores) reflect the students' true scores (real ability). That means the question of reliability is the question of how precise we are in measuring student performance or how much measurement error we have in the student scores. The reliability coefficients of all tests forms were calculated using Cronbach alpha. The coefficient reflects the extent to which the items enjoy some kind of internal consistency. Table 1 shows the values of the reliability coefficients as well as the standard errors of measurement.

Table 1: Reliability Coefficients and Standard Errors of Measurement

Test Form	Reliability – Cronbach's Alpha	Standard Error of Measurement
Albanian Language A	.90	3.1
Albanian Language B	.89	3.1

The values of reliability coefficient were .89 and .90. This indicates that both test forms had high reliability – that is, the measures taken from these test forms are relatively precise and acceptable. An indication of that is also the low value of the standard errors of measurement, which were 3.1 for each form.

All item characteristics of each test forms were calculated including item difficulty, item discrimination, item total correlation and the efficiency of each item alternative. The averages of item difficulties, discriminations and item–total correlations are illustrated in the Table 2.

Table 2: Test Item Characteristics

Test Form	Mean Difficulty Level	Mean Point Biserial	Mean Item-Total Correlation
Albanian Language A	.57	.54	.42
Albanian Language B	.56	.53	.41

Findings

The following data analyses was carried out: Distributional properties of the overall test results, analysis for the main skills, between-gender comparisons, comparisons between the high and low performers and analysis for the regional differences. In this article, the reported findings are about the results of the Albanian language tests. Similar analysis and figures has also been produced for the Mathematics test.

The average student performances on Albanian Language forms A and B were 28.7 and 28.3 (57.4 and 56.6 out of 100 respectively) with standard deviations 9.9 and 9.5. The distributions of the total

score were close to normal. The means and standard deviations for boys and girls were 27.9 and 30.0 (55.5 and 60.0 out of 100) with standard deviations 9.9 and 9.8 in Form A. On Form B the means were 27.1 and 29.5 and the standard deviations were 9.2 and 9.5 for boys and girls, respectively. The difference between boys and girls was significant ($p < .001$ and $p < .001$, Form A and Form B). By comparison, in Mathematics gender difference was not statistically significant ($p = .699$ and $p = .141$, Form A and Form B).

In addition to the overall performance, the main language skills (Grammar, Spelling, etc.) were analysed separately. Figure 1 illustrates the performance of the students in ten main language skills. The bars represent the percentages of the students who met the criteria, e.g. reached the passing or mastery level. Spelling appeared to be the most well-performed skill, 65 per cent of the students met the passing criteria and 9 per cent the mastery criteria. The area with most difficulties was Grammar (Figure 1).

The overall achievement in Albanian language differed between boys and girls. Figure 2 compares the performance of the boys and girls in the main language skills. The separate lines illustrate the percentages of total score in different skills. The gap between boys and girls were largest in Text comprehension (TCO) and smallest in Grammar (GRA). Notable is that girls outperformed boys in all language skills ($p < .05$ in all skills). Further, the profiles of the line-graphs seems to be quite parallel, i.e. boys and girls performed equally in their own levels. In Mathematics the gender homogeneity was considerably better than in Albanian language. As in overall comparison, practically no differences were found in this domain.

Figure 1: Percentage Correct Score – Albanian Language Skills
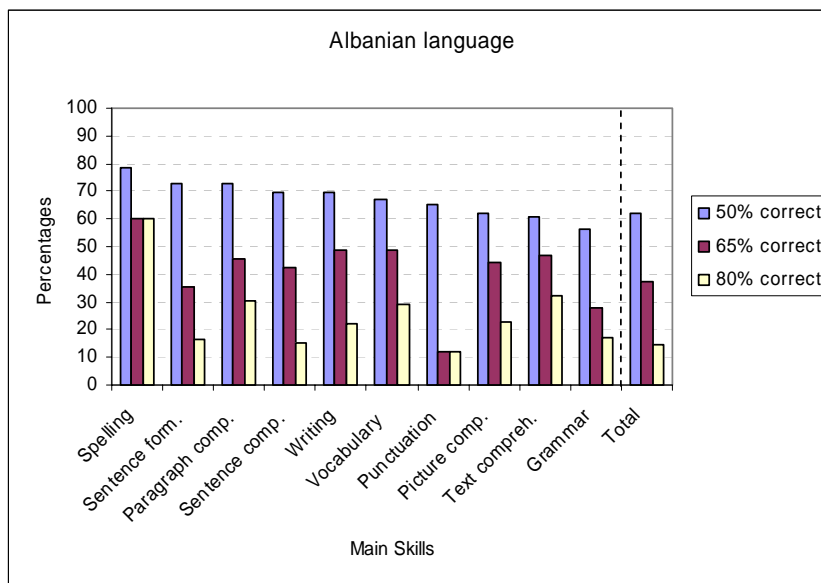
The students with high and low performances in Albanian language skills are compared in Figure 3. These subgroups contained the weakest 25 per cent (Q_1, n = 519) and the best 25 per cent (Q_3, n = 579) of the students, that is, those scoring below or above the 25th or at or above the 75th percentile. In the quarter of the lowest performers, the proportion of boys was 59 per cent. In the top quartile, the percentage of the boys was 43. That is, the 'gender-gap' exists also in these subgroups. The best quarter proved to have excellent success in all of the main skills (mean percentage was more than 80 in all main skills, except Grammar, which was 79). Likewise, the weakest quartile had percent correct scores that were all below 40, except for Spelling (42).
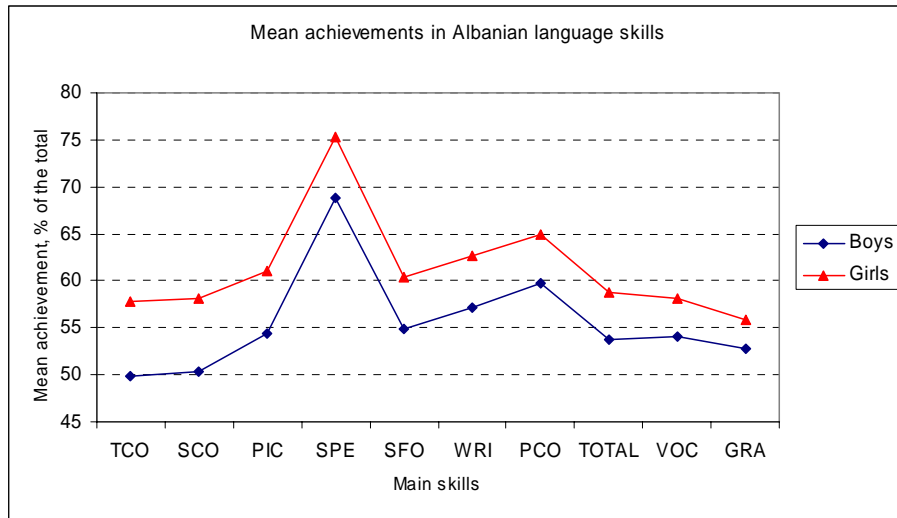
The students' achievements in the Albanian language were also summarized at municipality level. In an educational system both high average quality and also high *equality* of educational outcomes is expected. The regional inequalities were measured by comparing the mean achievements of the students from different municipalities. The sample contained students from twenty Kosovar municipalities. Figure 4 summarises the mean Albanian achievements of the students from different municipalities. The bars represent the means of all students who took the tests. The average total score was 28.7. This level is the dashed line in Figure 4. The lowest regional average was 22.2 and the largest was 37.1. The labels of the vertical axis (names of municipalities) have left out; however, the urban areas are more likely to load in upper half of the figure. To summarize, the differences between the mean achievement scores indicate quite a high level of regional inequality. An error-bar in Figure 4 gives the half of the 95% confidence interval for the mean; a statistically significant difference is found in cases where confidence intervals do not overlap. Regional inequality was also analysed with Mathematics achievements and significant regional differences were found.

Figure 3: Differences between Performance of Students in Upper and Lower Quartiles on Albanian Language Skills
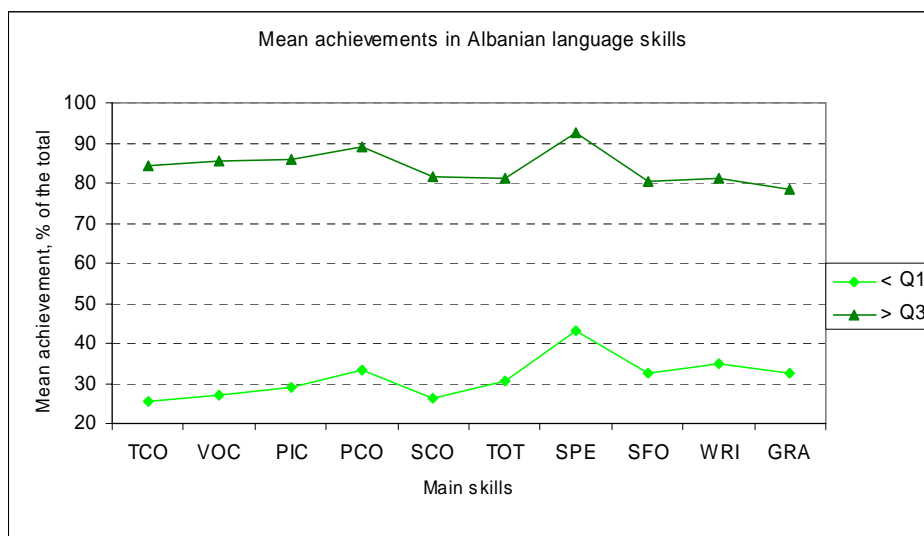
Figure 4: Differences between Municipalities in Albanian Language Test
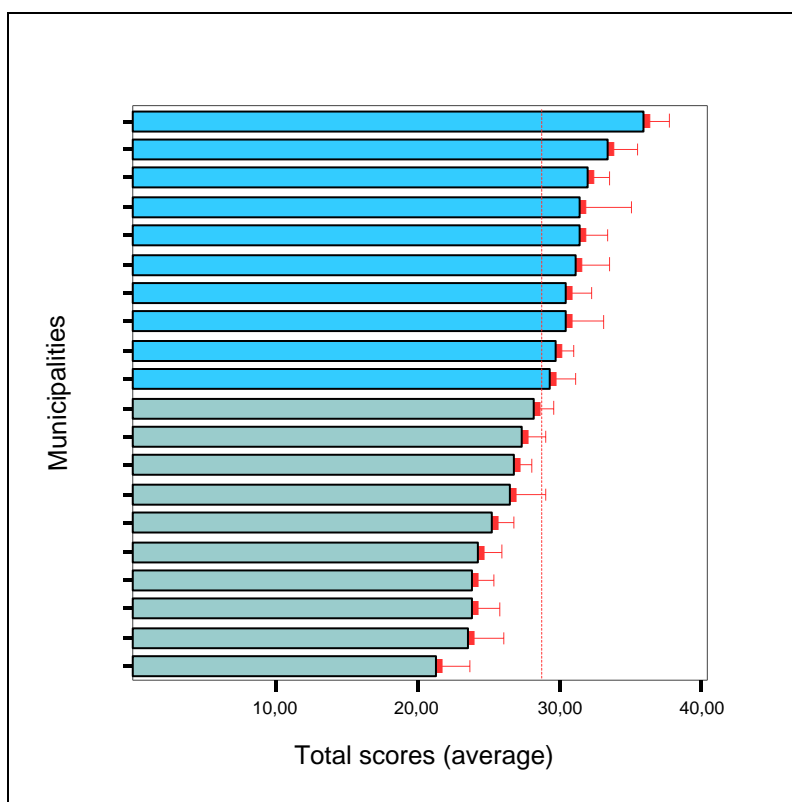
CONCLUSION

The assessment culture in education in Kosovo is not advanced one. There are no national level tests or any standards for assessment in schools. Students with similar skills can get different marks from different teachers in different classes. The development of education requires assessment and evaluation on different levels: on the national level, at the level of curriculum, on teaching and on learning outcomes. While the new curriculum, based on new framework, will soon be in its implementation phase, it is very important that the development of standards and assessment are linked with it.

Creating a new assessment culture for Kosovo is a challenging process demanding a long-term development phase. A small but meaningful step towards a more uniform assessment culture has been taken in Kosovo by means of the presently prepared national tests. As mentioned above, there is an urgent need in the future, for the assessment of learning processes in various educational establishments as well as for international assessments. The goal of this project was to analyse the development process of the national tests through the various research phases to the presentation of the final test results.

In comparing the results of national tests in the Albanian language with similar international investigations of languages, we find that, in both contexts, girls are significantly better than boys. You can find also differences between linguistic results in Kosovo and the results in developed countries, so that children in Kosovo are poorer at the level of abstract linguistic abilities than in other countries. Reasons for this include lack of confidence and economic insecurity, insufficient teacher education and even problems with school transport, and, all in all, inadequate circumstances for schooling in post-war Kosovo. When we recognise the situation now in Kosovo, there is no sensible way to compare the results of the national tests very closely with similar tests in developed countries. There is no in creating tests that are too difficult for children. The national tests that have been developed in Kosovo are in this moment very valuable for Kosovo, but cannot be compared with other international data.

The development of national tests in the *Developing a Capacity to Define Education Standards and Assess Performance* project has been a remarkable achievement abreast with the other project activities. The completion of the national tests has been a historically important event in the Kosovar school world and it is the starting point for creating a new approach to assessment in Kosovo. There must be a capacity to avail of the test results in further educational planning. It is necessary to analyse, among other things, what is the reason for regional differences in children's performances, what is the meaning of different learning environments, is the teachers' training linked with the outcomes, and how many background factors have affected the results. The national tests represent summative assessment at national level, which can be repeated from time to time, but the Kosovars must start to develop formative assessment for the different sectors of teaching in the near future. Such assessment is implicated in everyday teaching and learning situations in classroom settings.

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Literacy in ESL in The New South Wales Stage 6 English Curriculum

Valerija Skender, University of Wollongong, Australia

This paper presents a brief discussion on critical literacy and the New South Wales (NSW) Stage 6 English syllabus. It also includes some teacher responses to this particular curriculum change. Curriculum is a social construction, a multifaceted concept that is constructed negotiated and renegotiated at a variety of levels and in a variety of arenas (Goodson, 1990). What our schools teach reflects society's beliefs and values and what we expect of our schools reflects assumptions we make about society, knowledge and persons. This social view of curriculum is reflected in NSW within the new Stage 6 English curriculum and hence the Stage 6 English syllabus, particularly within the innovative component 'English as a Second Language' (ESL) course for senior students.

The introduction of the Stage 6 English - English as a Second Language course, for Preliminary Yr 11 and Yr 12 Higher School Certificate (more commonly referred to as the HSC) by the New South Wales (NSW) Board of Studies (BOS) into the English curriculum in 2000, was a significant event in NSW educational history. It signified:

a) NSW Government's recognition of the fact that there were students in NSW whose needs were not being met by the then existing English courses,
b) an introduction of ESL study in the senior years of schooling for the first time ever in NSW educational history.

The subsequent implementation of the new ESL courses into the English curriculum, by the NSW Department of Education and Training (DET), also signified a major shift in ESL teaching. Many questions were being raised between ESL and English teachers about this syllabus and their roles within the new English curriculum structure.

CURRICULUM AS SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION

Curriculum study is not an easy and linear concept. Goodson (1990) states, "one of the perennial problems in studying curriculum is that it is a multifaceted concept, constructed, negotiated and renegotiated at a variety of levels and in a variety of arenas" (p 299). Political, social and economic issues impact on curriculum change; external exams impact on curriculum change; teacher training, beliefs, methodologies and theories, general world wide theories of education, teaching and learning impact on curriculum change; what society and governments deem as important impacts on curriculum change. Therefore the study of school subjects provides one "with a window on the wider educational and political culture of a country" (Goodson, 1992, p25). "What we choose to have our schools teach reflects our beliefs and values. What we expect of our schools reflects assumptions we make about society, knowledge and persons" (McGaw, 1996, p46). The school curriculum is the core of education, the content showing school aims as well as influencing teaching methods. The curriculum is cyclic and reflects the general nature of values in our society.

With particular reference to changes in the English curriculum, Goodson and Medway (1990) argue that "Changing English (or stopping it changing) has consistently, and across many countries, been a matter with which the state has concerned itself" (p vii). History has shown that education in NSW has undergone many reviews and changes: Peter Board's reforms in 1904-1916, post WW2 reformation from 1938-1949, and the Wyndham Review in 1957 (Barcan, 1988). For NSW the most recent changes in the school curriculum occurred in 1995. Professor Barry McGaw was commissioned to conduct a comprehensive review of the NSW HSC. The result of this review was "Their Future" (1996), a document that became known as the 'Green Paper'. The NSW government used this 'Green Paper' as a basis for its reforms of the NSW Higher School Certificate in 1997.

The NSW Government-backed review of education reflected global trends in government intervention in educational policy (Carter & O'Neil, 1995). More and more, governments are looking into education and its role in the changing global economic environment. They are looking for education to

prepare and equip people with knowledge to help extricate the economy out of trouble. The more that Australia's economic difficulties intensify, the more our leaders in business, industry and unions, along with politicians of all parties, call for a new age of cleverness, where brain power is going to help us to think our way out of trouble (Green, 1995).

LITERACY IN THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM

Discussions conducted on issues of English literacy teaching are not new. Throughout the 20th century, in Australia and the world, ensuring a literate society, a society wherein its members can function competently and successfully for the benefit of themselves and the society as a whole, has been a crucial aim for governments (Goodson & Medway, 1990). This emphasis has produced constant change and evaluation, especially at the political level. Gibbs (1998) illustrates this intervention by stating that "What is included in, or excluded from, the English curriculum, has implications for the way a state defines itself and its cultural orientations; and standards of literacy are frequently perceived as having relevance to economic progress" (p181). The particular social, economic and political pressures faced by a contemporary Australia have important consequences for the kind of literacy skills required for participation in today's modern world.

The issue of literacy and ensuring an English literate society, provide valid reasons for government intervention in curriculum. However, as Goodson and Medway (1990) point out, the functional use of English is not the only important factor. Knowing how to speak, read and write in English was deemed to be important for more than personal competence in the English speaking society. The truth is that teaching English from the nineteenth century was important in the formation of a national identity. "The authorization of forms of English (typically the 'standard' dialect) and types of text (typically 'literature') is always by implication the de-authorization of other form and texts" (p ix). The state has therefore, concerned itself with not only a national identity but also with producing subjectivities through controlling what was to be taught in English. Morgan further qualifies this government control of the English curriculum by adding that "The pedagogic space within which students read and write is always within the agendas of a whole culture, particularly as these are defined by the state" (cited in Goodson & Medway, 1990, p ix). ESL teaching, therefore, is a way of not only ensuring a functionally literate society of migrants in Australia, but ensuring that these migrants become an integral part of, in this case, the Australian Anglo-Saxon culture and identity as well.

Schools exist to teach literacy and often the calls to improve levels of literacy occur at a time when there is economic uncertainty and of course great social change. Even today, the debate continues as to what type of literacy should be taught and what would benefit students the most (Christie, 2002; Corson, 1999; Lankshear, 1998; Muspratt et al., 1997). The consensus seems to be that critical literacy has become the mainstream in Australian literacy teaching. Critical literacy is viewed as multifaceted and eclectic and therefore incorporates the possibility of studying many and varied forms of texts.

Corson (1998) advocates that studying critical literacy may equip children with literacy for active, autonomous, and democratic citizenship. According to Corson, critical literacy should be viewed in three important ways: firstly, it may be used to explore, interpret and question the real world setting; secondly, it would enable students to unpack the messages and beliefs surrounding them in society; and thirdly, it would become a tool they could use in their everyday lives to take control of their lives.

THE NEW STAGE 6 ENGLISH SYLLABUS

The new Stage 6 English NSW curriculum is comprised of 5 English courses whose aims and purposes, among a list of others include:
- providing a flexible structure within which students can prepare for:
    - further education and training
    - employment
    - full and active participation as citizens and
- providing a formal assessment and certification of students' achievements

(NSW BOS Syllabus, 1999, p 5)

According to the NSW BOS (1998) all 5 of the Stage 6 English Syllabus courses attempt to accommodate four different approaches/models to the teaching of English. These approaches were broadly identified as:

- "The cultural heritage approach, emphasising the transmission of culturally significant texts, values and ideas.
- The personal growth approach, emphasising the value of language and literature in enriching students' lives.
- The cultural analysis approach, emphasising the fact that language and texts are culturally constructed.
- The literacy approach, emphasising the development of literacy skills."

(BOS Forum Report, 1998, p48)

Included within these four approaches are "some new considerations in the teaching of Stage 6 English, because it takes account of contemporary developments in critical theory and literacy education" (DET Curriculum Support for Teaching of English, 1999, p5). Contemporary developments in literacy education include the explicit teaching of the English language, focusing on a social view of language – language as a resource for meaning making in many different social and situational contexts. Associated with a social view of language is the term 'text'. The definition of a text has been broadened to include any act of communication, of any length in any medium. Also included is the notion that oral and written communication work in different ways and are both important depending on the context and situation in the communication act. Teachers are expected to continue to teach students how to produce written texts of literary criticism, but also how to produce imaginative and creative texts in a range of communication modes.

In teaching literature, the same emphasis on the social construction of texts is also applied. Valued highly within the new Stage 6 English syllabus is cultural heritage. "As they teach literature, English teachers have the privilege of passing on important parts of our cultural heritage, knowing that our social cohesion depends upon this heritage being enjoyed by all" (DET, 1999, p6). Great works of literature are still to be taught; however, the focus has shifted slightly in as much as "while we teach students how to appreciate great works of literature, we also teach them to be critical readers" (p6). In other words, let us not just take the literary texts at face value but be critical and look at how they were written, for what purpose, by whom and for whom. Texts are now viewed as places where culture is produced and reproduced and where readers do not simply defer to the importance of one cultural heritage, but are rather encouraged, as Antsey and Bull (1996) acknowledge, to read and interpret texts from a variety of positions based on their own experiences, cultures and personal frames of reference.

The NSW BOS *'Perspectives on English'* 1998 Forum on the Stage 6 English syllabus[50], published in September 2004) argues that it is difficult for any of the four approaches identified to "encapsulate the variety of current perspectives on what constitutes the nature of the subject English". Perhaps this is why the Stage 6 English syllabus is eclectic and does not enforce one teaching approach and/or method above another. This view appears to reflect Corson's (1998) argument that a critical literacy curriculum would be: grounded in student lives; critical; participatory and experience based; inclusive of all cultures, languages, races and religions; academically rigorous and culturally sensitive.

However, while acknowledging this positive aspect of the Stage 6 English ESL syllabus, nowhere in the syllabus is it stated what type of grammar and language teaching would be most beneficial to the students. There is no mention of how, for example, Traditional Grammar or Systemic Functional Linguistics, or any other form of explicit language teaching can be best used to prepare students to analyse language, text structures and features of style. This aspect of teaching about language has been left to the individual class teachers. While ESL trained teachers in NSW may have little difficulty in teaching about language due to extensive knowledge of Systemic Functional Linguistics, subject English teachers (literature based) may experience difficulty in knowing how to teach about language. As one teacher clearly stated when interviewed for this research:

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[50] http://www.boardofstudies.nsw.edu.au/archives/forum_hscenglish98/paper1_admeades.html

"While many aims of the syllabus are sound, there is no direction for teachers on how to implement these aims." P5

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

It is expected with the new Stage 6 English Syllabus ESL course that teachers will teach their students how to: a) use language in a range of contexts; b) be critically aware and analyse texts with skepticism and knowledge of their ideological positions; c) produce imaginative and creative texts in a range of communication modes; and d) produce written texts of literary criticism. How do these syllabus demands impact on the teachers of the S6 English ESL courses? What is the role of the ESL teacher in the Stage 6 English curriculum? Teaching students to be critically aware enables them to not only negotiate the uncertainties in text construction but it also teaches them to appreciate them. Yet it seems that preliminary data (like the example given above) collected from interviews conducted for this research, is showing that the teachers are still struggling in teaching the Stage 6 English (ESL) courses. Many find the workload too heavy with not enough time available in the week to cover all they need to cover. Many teachers are finding the continual lack of resources a problem. Other teachers are saying that the in-service courses provided, the few that are held, are 'often held in the evenings or on weekends' (P2) and so they cannot attend due to family and other commitments.

Added issues of concern include: what teaching methodologies are most appropriate for teaching the English ESL courses and, who should be teaching theses courses? Traditionally ESL teaching programs were mainly concerned with the teaching of the English language. The main concern of the subject English has been the teaching of literature. While both these teaching approaches are acknowledged in the Stage 6 English Syllabus ESL courses, it appears the theoretical underpinnings do not add up to a coherent theoretical approach accessible to teachers of the ESL courses from both teaching backgrounds. Rather, they appear to be independent of each other yet tied together by the subject ESL.

As previously stated, perspectives on the study of the Stage 6 English (ESL) courses, as well as the nature of the subject, vary. The ESL Courses are part of the English syllabus and English curriculum. English teachers are likely to feel more comfortable with the literary side of the syllabus, but are generally less comfortable with explicit language teaching. ESL teachers, on the other hand, are likely to feel more comfortable with developing students' language, their capacity for making meaning, but are not necessarily trained in literary studies. The NSW BOS envisioned that teachers teaching this syllabus would be either English teachers with ESL teaching methods or ESL teachers with English teaching methods. The ideal teacher would be an English-trained as well as an ESL-trained teacher.

WHERE TO NOW?

An extensive amount of research has been conducted into curriculum change and its effects on teachers and schools in the Australian context (Beavis 2001; Braithwaite 1993; Fullan 1991; Gibbs 1998; Hall, 1997; Kirk & Macdonald 2001; Maloney 1993; and Olson, 2002). A common thread exists regarding the issue of educational change and implementation of that change. To ensure successful curriculum implementation in schools, a process of initiation, implementation and institutionalisation needs to be observed (Fullan, 1991). Teachers need to be included in all aspects of the change process, from initiating the change, to extensive consultation to implementation. They also need to have support available, both at the higher administrative level as well as school level, to feel confident in the change process and within themselves.

What one needs to remember, as Olson (2002) argues, is that the purposes of education cannot be cemented; they change, are dynamic and evolve constantly. If and when one views education in this way, teachers can then provide insights into the reform initiatives because they know what it is like to work under duress. The Stage 6 English curriculum and the ESL component in particular, reflect a new and innovative way of teaching English. The emphasis on explicit language teaching, literacy development, understanding the theories underlying the change in teaching and thinking, and a shift in paradigms, may have required a new way of implementing that change in schools. When reform in schools is implemented, it is, after all, the teachers who are asked to make sense of and "create coherence out of the

contradictory demands of different stakeholders" (Olson 2002:130). It is the teachers who are, in the end, implementing a new syllabus, implementing the reforms and they need then to play a vital part in the reform process.

What may be needed now and for the future of the Stage 6 English ESL courses therefore, is:
- Clarification of how/whether the 4 identified theoretical approaches/methods are/can be reconciled
- Clarification on who should be teaching these courses
- Clarification on the most appropriate teaching methodology for these courses
- Clarification in what type of explicit grammar teaching is required
- Ongoing professional development and production of necessary materials
- An evaluation of the Stage 6 English (ESL) courses taking into consideration teacher opinions and any issues of concern

CONCLUSION

The introduction of a Stage 6 English (ESL) syllabus has, to say the least, highlighted two very important and very positive facts. These are:
1) the increased importance of ESL teachers in government high schools
   - "Positive – status to ESL teaching and better opportunity for ESL students to gain outcomes." P10
2) the importance of the introduction of ESL as an HSC subject
   - "good to have a specific course for ESL students' needs" P4
   - "positive that a course designed specifically for the needs of ESL students was being offered." P 5
   - "very good that there was a course for these students and that they were not compared with native English speakers" P12
   - "good idea – focus on the needs of ESL students" P13

It appears that the profile of ESL teachers and the Stage 6 English ESL courses, their importance within the whole school curriculum and particularly in the Stage 6 English curriculum, has finally been acknowledged though the introduction of this syllabus and the corresponding courses in schools, and that is an important step in itself. It is, however, just as important to ensure that teachers with the appropriate teaching methodologies are teaching the Stage 6 English ESL courses and that these methodologies are able to be married in the classroom for the benefit of the ESL students for whom the courses were specifically designed.

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Initial Reading for Pupils with Slowed Cognitive Development

Vesna Đurek, Elementary School Nad lipom, Zagreb, Croatia

By entering the first grade children leave behind the carefree world of play and face different surroundings and demands and expectations to be successful, responsible, to act seriously, for that time is when foundations for entire future learning are built. The same demands are placed upon children with slowed cognitive development, regardless of the form of training and education that they initially participated in (integrated regular classes, partial integration, or special educational institutions).

Pupils with slowed cognitive development are an exceptionally heterogeneous population. By this term, we include pupils with diminished biological and psychological potential (pupils with light mental retardation and pupils with borderline intellectual capabilities) as well as those who function on a manifested level as if they have diminished biological and psychological potential (pupils from culturally depraved environment, pupils with emotional difficulties). Common characteristic of both groups is the existence of deviance in the areas of cognitive development and adaptive behaviour.

Pupils with slowed cognitive development don't suffer, in a significant percentage, from damaged sensory organs, although a significant number of perceptive difficulties are present. The origin of this is not organ damage; instead it is a difficulty with reception, processing and interpretation of sensory input. Difficulties are present, in varying intensity, in the field of aural and visual perception, attention, memorization, cogitation, reception and expression. Difficulties with visual and aural perception are demonstrated through difficulties with focused listening, recognition, differentiation and memorization of vocals and letters, difficulties with visual spatial orientation, differentiation of shapes, placement and direction. These, in turn, affect the quality of observation and separation of essential information, and following the order of the words and orientation within text lines. Pupils often displace letters and/or syllables. Difficulties with memorisation are recognized as inability to memorise information relative to the quantity and interconnection.

Difficulties of attention differ within the continuum of dispersed and distractible attention, and in the presence of perseveration until hyperactive behaviour manifests. In the cognitive sphere, formation of concepts is diminished in both quantity and quality. Although pupils communicate through speech and speech itself is functional for the purpose of expressing everyday needs, there is a discrepancy between receptive and expressive component. Pupils have difficulties whit articulation, rhythm and tempo.

INITIAL READING STRATEGIES

The goal of initial reading and writing is to absorb techniques of writing and reading of Croatian Latin alphabet. Experience has shown that foreknowledge of pupils with delayed cognitive development is weak when it concerns initial reading and writing; pupils usually recognize a certain quantity of capital print letters and can write (or draw) vowels. Aware of this fact, caused by a constellation of secondary difficulties related to the primary, learning difficulties, we recognize initial reading as an important, and, for a pupil as well as the teacher, a demanding period of Croatian language teaching. We should keep in mind that the period of initial reading will be significantly longer for these pupils compared to their peers, and the tempo and quality of reading will always be specific for any individual pupil.

It is our desire to enable everyone, including pupils with delayed cognitive development, to enjoy a classroom (and school) environment where they can fulfil all their needs, including those related to love, power, playfulness and freedom. This is possible if we create incentives and interesting situations and

organise activities that will engage these pupils in play, project acceptance and safety (love), activities and task solving where they can, with a measure of assistance from teacher or classmates, achieve success (power), and situations where they can chose, express their opinion and feel free.

Certain physical (hand coordination), and especially certain psychological characteristics (borderline or below average cognitive functioning, emotional and social maturity) make these student different from the majority of their peers, and for learning to be effective, we felt it was necessary to prepare didactical material that would enable effective preparation for writing and reading activities, learning of letters, reading and above all comprehension of materials read.

I find initial reading activities to be inseparable from initial writing; these are activities that imbue and complement each other, and only after diverse and repeated activities on different levels will the students fully comprehend a given letter.

WHISPERING PRIMER SERIES

Teaching aids, one of the sources of knowledge for pupils, must be adjusted to their abilities. The textbook series, "Whispering Primer", is completely adjusted to the abilities, mode, speed and learning tempo of initial reading and writing of pupils with slow cognitive development. They are adapted in accordance with cognitive and perceptive level; they enable global, analytic and synthetic methods as well as an integrated approach; they are correlated with curricula in other subjects; their language is appropriate for pupils' comprehension abilities; their shape and size is adjusted to the size of letters; graphical and illustrational editing is focused on retaining attention; easily recognizable, interesting, but without excessive details, they contain enough practice material to communicate with the pupil and enable to co-author their textbooks. The schoolbook set "Whispering Primer" consists of exercise book 1 (for development of grapho-motor skills), 3 workbooks, a letter book, exercise book for handwritten letters and a textbook.

Exercise Book 1 for Development of Graphomotor Skills

Since hand and fist movement (right or left) is, at the beginning of primary education, still insufficintely flexible and coordinated, initial reading and writing teaching should be initiated with activities aimed at development of shoulder, elbow and wrist flexibility. Graphomotoric exercises also develop attention, practice orientation and lateralisation, speech and pupils' cognitive ability.

The size of the exercise book is adjusted to pupil's movement abilities (paper size is A3 – 420x297). The exercise books provides enough interesting tasks and encourages the creation of positive work environment by connecting the tasks with children's rhymes. Coming with clear verbal instructions and initial movements, they support pupils in developing abilities and skills necessary for writing and reading.

Workbooks 1, 2 and 3

Workbooks in the series are intended for writing of large block letters and recognition of small block letters and global and initial analytic-synthetic reading. Since the abilities of pupils with slowed cognitive development differ, some pupils will be able to learn the entire alphabet in the first grade (providing they are taught in an appropriate manner), while others (pupils with light mental retardation) will require a significantly longer time. Therefore the alphabet is divided between 3 workbooks, each representing 10 letters that a pupil can learn at an appropriate pace. Associated activities are recognition and naming, listening, voice recognition and differentiation, transfer of voice to letters and writing and reading of letters through observation, letter shaping, assisted writing (connect-a-dot in 3 different sizes), independent writing, writing and reading of syllables, words and sentences.

Reading is a process of decoding of symbols and discerning of their meaning. Through the workbooks pupils learn global reading of letters, syllables and a certain quantity or words and sentences (pictorial sentences). Global reading is based upon connecting and memorising images (entities, objects and occurences) and images represented by words. Due to their intellectual limitations pupils will be able to memorise only a certain number of words. Still, the use of this method has a great motivational value because pupils get an impression of reading. Pupils will learn elementary words that enable formation of simple sentences first (and, is, has, in, on, are), their name, family members etc. and will thereafter be able

to expend word volume at an individual pace. In this way, pupils will be able to read first simple sentences (3 to 5 words) but, more importantly, this approach will gradually introduce them to vocal structure of verbal expression and to the process of vocal analysis and synthesis. The reading process is parallel to the writing process, meaning the reading activities are always organised after comprehensive assimilation of each letter. Therefore, the sentences being read are always pictorial in form. Vocal analysis is performed on pictorial representations of words; pupils learn proper pronunciation of newly acquired sounds and letters through identification of pictures. Alongside global methods, reading is practiced through initial analytic-synthetic reading (typically in second grade) and so it is essential that words offered for analysis have no letters unknown to students. After vocal analysis, which can be group or individual, pupils, with teachers' assistance, gradually read letters-syllables-words. During reading practice it is important to accentuate specific letter/vocal or syllables visually. For example, when reading syllables beginning with letter M, the first letter can be in black colour and each vowel in previously agreed upon colour (it is good practice to use predetermined colours for vowels throughout a longer time period); and syllables in dual-syllable words so that the first syllable has one colour and second syllables its own colour. When a pupil vocalises words, comprehension of the whole is facilitated. After each sentence it is crucial to ascertain that all pupils understood the message.

Letter Book

Since writing is at the some time both a motoric and an intellectual activity, and pupils with slowed cognitive abilities may struggle with this, it is essential to strengthen practice and skill of long-term memory storage of letter shapes as well as connection between letters and vocals (sounds). Activities in the letter book will contribute to establishment of these skills. This book is conceived as a practice resource that pupils use to discern the initial position of sound in a word and connect it with a letter, through games (lotto, memory, cards). Cards are large enough to be held and manipulated by pupils.

Exercise Book 2

Exercise book 2 is intended to teach writing of large and small script letters, and practice combining them into words. Along with recognition, differentiation, reading and writing of script letters, pupils practice reading words and sentences written in script. Pupils are offered assistance at the early phase when they are taught to write script by connecting dots and by pictorial representation for most words.

Textbook "Whispering Primer"

The textbook is cognitively and visually adjusted to pupils' capabilities. Pupils are provided with various forms of adjustment: initial texts are in block letter since pupils read them exclusively for up to three years before moving onto the textbook, and from a psychological perspective it is important to start the following book with something they have a chance to be successful with. Text is shaped to facilitate easy reading; text size is increased, as is word spacing and line height, to focus the view on the specific line for reading. Each sentence begins on a new line whenever possible. All text are selected from acknowledge literary sources. Nonetheless, they are concise, clear and easy to understand. Pre-reading activities cover game play, discussion and creative expression.

CONCLUSION

Non-specific reading difficulties occur as secondary symptoms in majority of pupils with delayed cognitive development. For precisely that reason, the period of initial reading (and writing) is essential to each individual's schooling. While their peers learn the alphabet with ease by the end of first grade, pupils with delayed cognitive abilities learn a partial alphabet and can read simple sentences on global level and comprehend them. As pupils' functional intelligence lowers, a longer and longer period is required to achieve command of the alphabet (up to 4 years with script writing), and an individual approach is a must. It is important that teachers identify the level and structure of a pupil's difficulties and provide expert assistance and become more flexible and respectful of the tempo and quality of the pupil's learning abilities. Pupils will master initial reading and writing skills, but each phase of development will last longer then with other students. These pupils they require a different approach as well as suitable learning

aids. Their abilities must be encouraged, and they should be provided with tasks that are within their abilities to solve. Positive emotions connected with success help create a positive self-image and that in turn provides positive boost to pupils' activities.

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The Effectiveness of Antecedent and Consequence Interventions Using Combined and Seperated Formats in Oral Reading Fluency

Ruya Guzel Ozmen and Gungor Cevik,
Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey

Several models of reading development suggest that fluency is one of the most crucial components of effective reading (Stahl, 2004). Due to the importance of reading fluency, researchers have examined a variety of interventions that may improve oral reading with students who experience reading problems.

Interventions in oral reading fluency can be examined in two categories: antecedent interventions and consequence interventions (Eckert, Ardoin, Daly, & Martens, 2002). The two antecedent oral reading interventions that have been shown to be effective are passage preview and repeated readings (e.g., Daly, Lentz, & Boyer, 1996). Two types of consequence intervention that have been shown to improve students' reading performance are contingent reinforcement (Billingsley, 1977; Jenkins, Barksdale, & Clinton, 1978) and performance feedback (Conte & Hintze, 2000).

Recent studies compared the effectiveness of antecedent and consequence interventions using combined and seperated formats via brief functional assessments with students who experience reading difficulties (e.g., Daly, Martens, Dool, & Hintze, 1998; Daly, Martens, Hamler, Dool, & Eckert, 1999, Daly, Murdoch, Lillenstein, Webber, & Lentz, 2002; Eckert, Ardoin, Daisey, & Scarola, 2000, Eckert, et. al., 2002; Noel, et al., 1998). The results of the studies suggest that for some students, combined interventions are more likely to improve oral reading fluency than single interventions. Furthermore, the relative efficacy of these interventions is idiosyncratic across children.

The purpose of the present study is to examine the effectiveness of combined and seperate intervention on students with Mild Mental Retardation (MMR) on their class level text. This study extends research on intervention for reading fluency to a different culture and language. This provides an important test of the broad generalizability of such intervention.

METHOD

Participants and Settings

Four fourth grade elementary students participated in the study. They were chosen from two self-contained and multi-age classrooms for students with MMR in Antalya, Turkey. Turkish was the native language of all students. Information on each of the participating students is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Characteristics of Participants

Participant	Sex	Age	IQ score
Muhammet	Boy	10.5	64
Rabia	Girl	10.5	69
Kadir Can	Boy	10.7	66
Burak	Boy	10.4	61

Sessions were conducted individually in a room outside the classroom. For the purpose of assessing inter-scorer agreement and procedural integrity, an audiotape was present during all sessions.

Materials

Reading passages were selected from the fourth grade level of Turkish language text books. Eighteen narrative passages were used for the research. All passages were retyped onto a separate sheet of paper to minimize the effects of pictures upon students' oral reading performance. The average passage length was 203 words (range, 194 to 210). The appropriateness of all the passages for fourth grade level regarding print features, vocabulary, sentence complexity, and content were evaluated by three fourth

grade elementary class teachers. Based on their suggestions and feedback, the passages were revised and modified.

Data Collection

The effects of intervention conditions on students' reading were assessed by measuring the number of words read correctly per minute (WRCM) in the passages. The WRCM was calculated for each session after the number of errors was subtracted from the total number of words read. A word was scored as correct if the participant read the word correctly in 3 seconds or self-corrected a mispronounced word within 5 seconds. A word was scored as an error if the student mispronounced a word, substituted another word, omitted a word, or did not read a word within 3 seconds. In addition, if an entire line of text was skipped, the researcher asked the student to continue reading after showing the skipped line.

Data were collected by the second researcher. At the beginning of each session, the student was told, "Here is a story that I would like you to read. When I say, 'Begin,' start reading aloud with your best reading." As soon as the student read the first word in the passage, the researcher started the stopwatch. At the end of 1 min, the researcher placed a closed bracket after the last word read and allowed the student to finish reading the rest of the passage.

Results were based on the student's performance during the first minute of the last reading of the text. That is, the student orally read a novel passage in each baseline and performance feedback plus contingent reinforcement condition, and the first minute of that reading was used for data-collection purpose. In each antecedent intervention, repeated reading plus performance feedback and combined intervention conditions, the student read the passage three times, and the first minute of the third reading was used for the data-collection purposes.

Experimental Design

To examine the effects of the experimental reading conditions on oral reading fluency, baseline and experimental conditions were presented in an adapted alternating Treatment Design. For the students, the conditions were presented in a randomised order, with each condition occurring with equal frequency for each student.

Baseline (BL): During this condition, no instructional intervention was provided.

Antecedent intervention (AI): Listening passage preview and repeated readings procedures were implemented with all students. The researcher read the text aloud to the student and had the student read the passage aloud three times. No programmed consequences were presented during the condition.

Performance feedback and contingent reinforcement (PF+CR): The researcher reported to the student his/her performance (reading time and number of mistakes) during the first reading in the previous session. Two graphs (reading time and number of mistakes) were used for the students to record their reading performance. After the student recorded his/her performance on each graph, the researcher identified reasonable goals (i.e., number of mistakes, reading time), which represented 3% to 5% improvement in performance during the first reading in the previous session. These reading goals were inserted on the graphs. A reward list was prepared by interviewing the participating students, their parents, and teachers. The reward list was composed of three groups of reinforcers: educationally relevant items, activities and food. Each group included approximately 10 items. The students were asked to select two reinforcers from the list, which were provided to them based on their improvement (3% and 5%) according to their first and second preference.

After reading the passage, the student recorded his/her performance on the graphs. The researcher consulted with the students on whether the students had reached their goals. If the students reached one of the pre-specified criterion levels, the preferred item was provided based on their improvement (3% and 5%).

Repeated reading and performance feedback (RR+PF): Following the first and second readings, the researcher informed the student of his/her oral reading performance. The student then recorded the number of mistakes and reading time on each graph for the first and second reading. For the third reading, the PF condition mentioned above was implemented.

Combined intervention (AI+PF+CR): It was implemented as the AI condition and PF + CR condition as described above.

Sessions occurred three times a week. Sessions for each participant were conducted during a 5-week period with one experimental condition conducted during each session.

Inter-observer Agreement and Procedural Integrity

Inter-observer agreement data were collected during 33% of the sessions for each participant, respectively. A second, independent observer recorded the students' audio-aped oral reading responses. Inter-corer agreement was calculated as the total number of agreements divided by agreements plus disagreements multiplied by 100% (Hause, Hause, & Campbell, 1981). The mean agreement coefficient for WRCM was 96 %.

Procedural integrity was conducted during five of the sessions (including each intervention session) for each participant, respectively. An independent observer evaluated the researcher's audio-taped performance using a procedural integrity checklist. Procedural integrity was monitored for the following areas: correct presentation of the materials, correct delivery of the experimental instructions, and accurate recording of time. Across all participants, procedural integrity was 90%.

RESULTS

Figure 1 displays the students' WRCM during the baseline and intervention conditions. For all students, oral reading fluency increased under the AI and AI+PF+CR conditions. In comparison to the AI condition, consistently greater improvements in the number of WRCM were observed for Burak when the other conditions were presented. Rabia, Muhammet and Kadir Can demonstrated similar increases in WRCM in AI and AI+PF+CR conditions.

All students did not demonstrate improvement in RR+PF and PF+CR conditions. In addition, differences between baseline before intervention and baseline during intervention were not observed.
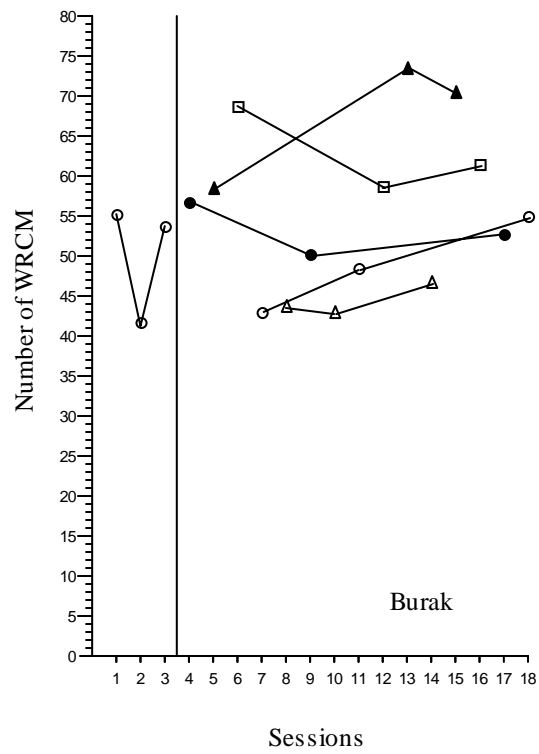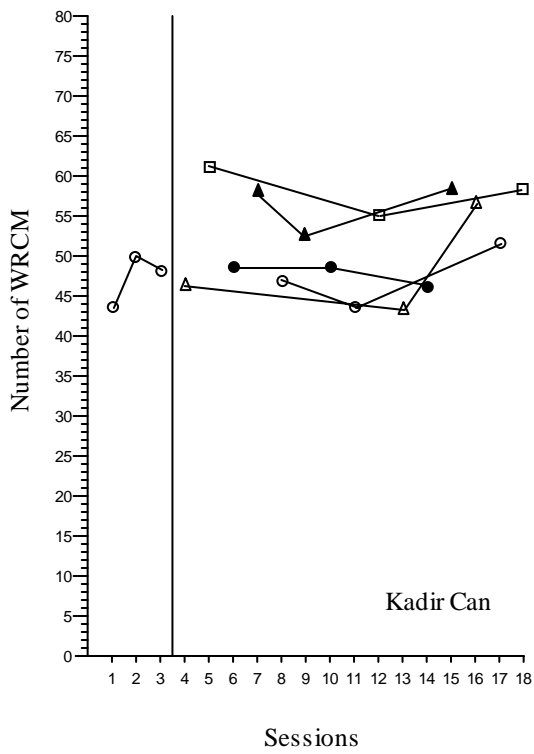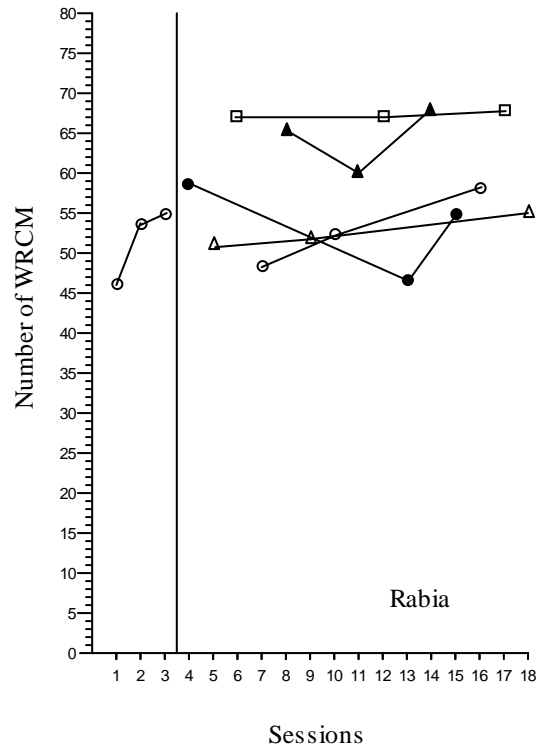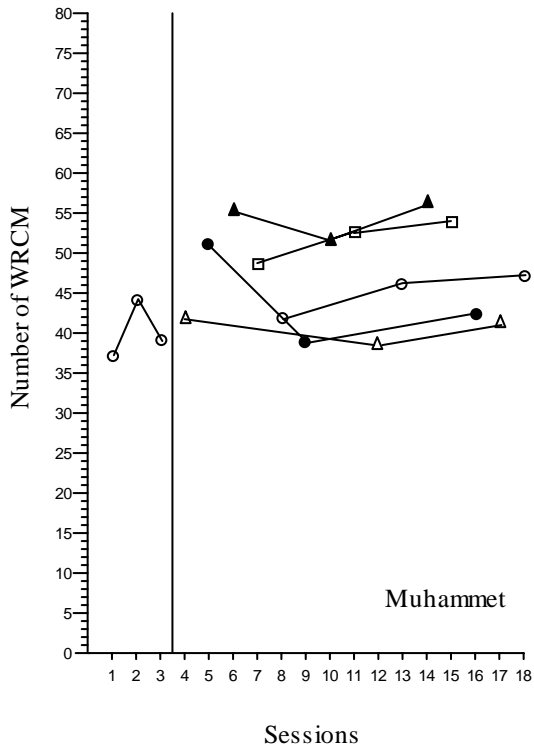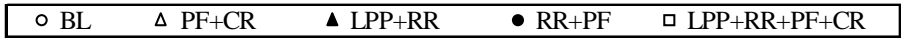
FIGURE 1. Words read correctly per minute (WRCM) for each participant

DISCUSSION

The results of the study have important implications for the selection of intervention procedures for students with MMR. The experimental analysis data indicated that for all participants, the combined intervention condition was associated with improvements in oral reading fluency. The findings from the current investigation are also consistent with previous research showing that combined intervention was effective in oral reading fluency students with experience reading difficulties (Daly, et al., 1999, 2002; Eckert, et al., 2000, 2002; Noel, et al., 1998). Furthermore, the students produced greater improvements in oral reading fluency under the AI condition than when the RR+PF was presented or when the two consequences were combined. Therefore, practitioners may want to consider these results for developing intervention programmes in reading for students with MMR.

In this study, students with MMR demonstrated less improvement in oral reading fluency than previous research on students with reading difficulties which included brief experimental interventions. This result may have been derived from the fact that the difficulty levels of the passages used in this study may not have been equivalent to those used in previous studies. There is no readability index for determining the level of passages in Turkish. However, studies on developing a readability index in Turkey are in progress. It is suggested that this study be replicated with passages selected with the developed readability formula.

This study has a number of limitations that require consideration. Within-subject and within-treatment variance limits the conclusions that can be drawn regarding the most efficacious treatment. Therefore this study should be repeated with students with different class levels and with different conditions (AI+CR, RR). The possible existence of unidentified sources of variability in responding also limits the reliability of the analyses. Variability was observed with the students' responses during sessions with the same intervention conditions. This differential response may due to passage difficulty. Passage difficulty may have varied from session to session. In this study, generalized improvements in reading performance were not observed as in previous studies (Eckert, et al., 2000, 2002) which show that minimal improvements were observed in students' baseline reading data. Finally, it is difficult to ascertain whether the observed effects will improve and maintain students' oral reading fluency over time.

On the basis of these findings, future studies should examine the specific limitations of this methodology within the context of reading interventions.

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The World Game Test as a Diagnostic Tool for Children with Reading Disabilities

Veerle Portael and Caroline Andries, Vrije Universiteit Brussel, Belgium

The research described below offers the hypothesis that the World Game has an added value for the diagnosis of young children with developmental disorders.

The World Game has been used in clinical practice for a long time. Many authors have treated this specific method of testing children from different perspectives. In general, one may say that data from playing behaviour or playing results are being used to gain insight into the functioning of the child and to trace possible problems. In the past the basis on which the World Game was implemented and interpreted was insufficiently standardised and scientifically unsound and biased.

The World Play has been a research topic at the Free University of Brussels for many years. In 1997 a standardisation research project was set up in order to provide the World Play, as a diagnostic tool, with a sound scientific basis. The objective is to study relationships between play behaviour and play patterns on the one hand and cognitive, behavioural and emotional variables on the other hand. Through empirical analyses, we try to find as many play characteristics as possible that can give direction to the psychological assessment of young children. Furthermore we want to establish the specificity of this information in terms of differentially diagnostic leads for specific disorders, such as reading disorders.

To investigate these questions a number of clinical groups are composed consisting of young children with serious developmental problems.

In this article the results of an experimental group of children with reading disabilities will be compared with norm data of children from corresponding age groups. Furthermore we will introduce some diagnostic leads when using the World Game Test with children with reading problems.

INTRODUCTION

When a child at school does not function properly and shows learning difficulties, we are confronted with a complex task. Conventional tests usually reveal only one particular aspect of the child, whereas serious learning disabilities often involve several, complex factors. Those factors include cognitive skills, linguistic, motor and social development as well as more emotional elements. Moreover, we need to take into account that these developmental disorders are part of the child's overall social and family situation. "Typically in young children the various lines of development are interwoven. The process of behavioural differentiation is in full swing. Disorders in one particular development area immediately affect other lines of development. Especially with young children lines of development intersect and cognitive skills are embedded in a broader framework" (Couturier, 1999).

Also, the way these developmental aspects are assessed in conventional tests may cause problems for children with developmental disorders. Some children are not able to complete the assignments because they don't understand the verbal instructions. Consequently, the outcome is largely limited to the child's verbal skills and is of little use when exploring other cognitive aspects – let alone when trying to understand emotional problems. Emotions and frustrations are very diffuse and hard to put into words, epecially with young children. Interviewing children is also difficult because of their limited introspective capacity and their susceptibility to suggestion (Kamp, 1947). Furthermore we depend on parents, teachers and other relevant informants to get a clear picture of the problem.

In view of these considerations, the Free University of Brussels (Department of Developmental and Lifespan Psychology) started a research project into the World Game as an alternative research technique for the assessment of young children with developmental disorders.

THE WORLD GAME

The World Game is a psychological assessment technique which has already been used for a long time with young children. The concept 'World Game' is a collective term for a range of play techniques in which miniature play components are used. In practice the child is asked to build a village or a world with miniature toys. The playing behaviour and the result of the game contribute to help us understand the way the child functions and may indicate potential problems.

When testing young children, the World Game has a number of advantages. To start with, it is a non-verbal technique. Although a verbal assignment is actually administered, the material speaks for itself. Even children who don't understand the concept of a "village" build something. Eventually, we end up with information we probably would not have managed to gather with other techniques. Secondly, the child does not perceive the assignment as a test. For the child it is a game, which makes the participation threshold very low. Especially the first time, when a child needs more reassurance than words can give, the World Game is an excellent start for a diagnostic investigation.

The World Game is also different in the sense that the information obtained is holistic. The task the child is to perform is a cognitive one, but the components of the task (houses, people, animals, fences.…) also have emotional aspects. It elicits behavioural and motor as well as cognitive aspects. This results in information not only about those specific domains, but also about the interaction between them.

Finally, we think that The World Game can put us on the right track with regard to the diagnostic process after a relatively short amount of time. While other tests often explore very specific domains, the World Game can shed new light on the problems. It rather tells us what is potentially present than what is not present. It can be a starting point for further investigation and treatment.

THEORETICAL MODELS

The World Game has been used in clinical practice since the 1920's. The play material was used in diagnosing children and also in personality assessment of adults. The origin of the World Game can be situated in the mental framework of psychodynamics which perceives the child's play parallel to the adult's dream.

The World Game has given rise to two major patterns of thought. In a first phase, from the onset of the 1920's till the 1940's, mostly Austrian and Anglo-Saxon researchers concentrated on this technique. These include M. Löwenfeld (1920's) – World Apparatus; M. Klein (1920's) – Jeu du Monde; Ch. Bühler (1930's) – World Test; H. Bolgar and L. Fischer (1930's): The Toy Test; and G. von Staabs (1940's) – Scenotest. From the 1940's to the 1960's, the French followed: H. Arthus (1940's) – Le test du Village; P. Mabille (1950's) – Le test du Village; and R. Muchielli (1960's) – Le Test du Village Imaginaire. In the 1950's the Dutch N. Ojemann started researching The World Game.

Gerhild von Staabs' 'Scenotest'

The 'Scenotest' evolved in the late 1930's from von Staabs' work with neglected children and children with educational disorders.

Von Staab describes the 'Scenotest' as "A contribution to understanding the psychological attitude of test subjects towards people and things in the world, especially with regard to their affective lives and particularly taking into account depth psychological factors. Apart from that the test contributes to the formation of an image of the test subject's total personality structure, his essential being, his talents, conscious propensities and character features." (von Staabs, 1964). The processing is purely qualitative and the author interprets the World Game from a psychoanalytical background.

Charlotte Bühler's 'World Test'

Bühler's assumptions are more humanistic. She uses the test to assess behaviour and intelligence and to make a projection of the test subject (Ojemann, 1966). Bühler's approach is important in its recognition of standardisation and validation. From a series of comparative investigations with groups of normal children, children with language disorders, emotionally disturbed and intellectually retarded children, she deduced a number of clinical symptoms. Taking into account age standards, one can use these symptoms for a psycho-diagnostic indication.

Signs

Sign A: the aggressive world – A1: fighting soldiers; A2: the presence of biting or wild animals; A3: accidents.

Sign E: 'emotion' – the empty world – E1: less than 50 elements; E2: absence of persons (not a single person, children only, soldiers and policemen only).

Sign CDR: the distorted world (closed, disorganised, rigid): CDR1: the closed world (several small, closed off sections; a totally or almost totally closed off world); CDR2: the disorganised world (inadequately positioned elements; non-interrelated elements; chaos in the total result or in groups of elements; chaos in the total result or in groups of elements); CDR3: the rigid world (schematic constructions (exaggerated arrangement); ranking in rows of animals and characters or objects).

Symptoms

Bühler considers A, E and CDR-signs as symptoms of emotional problems – mental or emotional retardation. Only from two signs onwards, including one CDR, should one consider a disorder to be serious.

With the interpretation of the signs and the worlds constructed, Bühler uses what we could call 'analogous interpretations', reverting to the depth psychological pattern of thought. The use of few elements or categories is considered to be indicative of a restricted world, possibly linked to opposition, blockages or traumatic experiences.

The use of policemen and soldiers (only) would indicate hidden aggression. A-signs in a first test would indicate more outspoken aggression, whereas in following tests A-signs are present with the majority of children. Rather than A or E-signs, the CDR-signs indicate deep emotional disorders. C-signs, hedges, can be used to fence in dangerous objects or objects with which the testee identifies. Starting with fences can point out an unusual need for protection. Disorganisation (D) is linked to confusion and the disintegration of the personality structure. Absurdities may be representative of an unrealistic or fantasy world, or of phobias and hidden desires. Rigidity (R) is considered as a serious sign of emotional disorders and as an indication of obsessive traits.

Phobias reveal themselves through disorganisation as well as rigidity. With mental retardation one often sees E1 and E2 (lack of creative imagination) and CDR-signs (mental inability to organize properly, rigidity).

Children with language problems show all signs except for E1 (seldom or never less than 50 elements).

Bühler was the first researcher to turn to the use of standardised material and a more or less standardised testing method. With her findings on signs as symptoms of emotional and mental disorders Bühler was also the first to present an ordered view on World Game constructions of children in relation to disorders. Also, she explicitly introduces age and development-related aspects.

Ojemann's World Game

In the Netherlands Ojemann started her inquiry into the World Game in the early part of the 1950's. She focused on World Game constructions by dyslexic children. Ojemann links dyslexia to 'image thinking', a way of thinking in images and actions (as opposed to language thinking) incorporating a visual-spatial skill. This way of thinking is common with toddlers and pre-schoolers. Normally it disappears during primary school. But image thinkers keep this way of non-verbal thinking as a principal cognitive style, which often gets them into trouble at school where learning processes are primarily focused on linguistic, verbal thinking. For Ojemann image thinkers are high-risk pupils or students who are often dyslectic.

Ojemann presents the World Game as a paedo-diagnostic tool, an aid in the diagnosis of children whose learning process stagnates. For Ojemann the World Game can be used to formulate and test hypotheses in an individual educational investigation. Ojemann also discusses the emotional development aspects which can be expressed from the World Game. In that respect she primarily starts from Bühlers clinical symptoms without, however, indiscriminately copying them. Although "it certainly is not the

main goal" of her work, "the emotional development plays a role in the educational learning processes and should therefore be taken into account" (Ojemann, 1990).

Analysis
Ojemann considers the way in which children build a village as a reflection of the way they explore, organise, integrate and express their world. The final product gives an insight into the cognitive development and personality development.

Signs
Image thinking (analogous thinking)
more than 60% coupling   no people, one human being
metaphorical use of material   children only
lapidary use of material   castle
stack building (7+)[51]   linear street
constructions   enumerating coupling design
more than 30% fences   multifunctional design
no fences   one topic
test 1 looks very much like test 2   scale model construction

Characteristics of disturbed personality development
Contact problems
> less than 50 elements (6+) – less than 5 categories (6+) – statue – thick wall (8+) – children only – no people, one human being – closed shape – concentric shape marked out playing ground (7+) – half round, open to people (8+)

Anxious personality
> more than 30% fences – more than 6 road signs – statue – thick wall (8+) – closed shape – concentric shape – table shape determined (9+)

Threatened personality
> more than 30% arrangement – knot (6+) – 3 or more parallel lines (8+) – 3 or more closed in fields (8+) – symmetrical shape – marked out playing ground (7+) – half round, open to people (8+) – scale model configuration

Protest behaviour
> more than 50 elements (9+) – less than 5 categories (9+) – castle – no fences (6+) – children only

Aggressive behaviour
soldiers, policeman – wild animals – syncretism – accident

Educational problems
> More than 120 elements (7+) – improper use of material – fluent design – scattered design – building round the stack (6+)

Ojemann considers a problem in an area, only from two signs onward. Ojemann has a unique position among the designers of 'diagnostic tests using playing material' in that she uses the playing material to reveal qualitative differences of information processing.

THE WORLD GAME AS A DIAGNOSTIC INSTRUMENT
The World Games belong to the so-called projective techniques. However, there is no univocal theory about the concept of projection. The basic hypothesis is that the testees project something of their psychological structures or processes in the test, which can then be analysed to learn something about

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[51] only symptomatic from that age and older

those structures and processes. That analysis is mostly based on psychoanalytical and depth psychological theories.

Most authors share this approach to the World Game. Yet one could question this way of working and one should be aware of the many risks in this method of interpretation. For instance, there is the presumptive reasoning that is often used. e.g.: aggressive inclinations are often attributed to test subjects using elements with a so-called 'aggressive' nature (wild animals, soldiers and/or policemen). The child's perception, however, can be completely different. 'During our tests 6 and 7 year olds described policemen or soldiers as extremely friendly, intelligent or wise characters who were, moreover, perceived as protectors of the entire family' (Ponjaert-Kristoffersen, 1977).

Processing systems like these, using playing symbolism, can be criticised from a methodological viewpoint. For one thing this method gives rise to confusion between processing and interpretation and for another it can lead to unilateral diagnoses which are mainly intended to explain and motivate complaints by the environment. In this way they take little notice of criteria of the classical testing theory (Altmann-Herz, 1990).

RESEARCH AT THE FREE UNIVERSITY OF BRUSSELS

The Department of Developmental and Lifespan Psychology of the Free University of Brussels has researched the World Game for several years.

Research Plan

The actual research project opted not to start from a specific theoretical model. Using Ojemann's material, the processing is carried out through a list of (some 250) variables that can be rated objectively. Those were partly collected from criteria put forward in scientific literature, but new variables were added as well, based on what can be built with the material. No meaning is attributed to these variables. They are merely descriptive. The following phases led to the development of the World Game as an objective, scientifically substantiated diagnostic tool.

Standardisation of the World Game Material and Test Procedure

Age-based Norm Tables

Five hundred children between 5 and 10 years old were tested. These children were primary school pupils and did not have any obvious problems. Their schools were selected from all over Flanders and were equally distributed over the various school systems.

Apart from the information through the World Game, the following data were collected:
- Raven's Coloured Progressive Matrices or Standard Progressive Matrices
- CBCL-teacher form: questionnaire on behaviour
- Temperament questionnaire filled out by the parents
- List of family variables

Based on these data, age-corresponding norm tables are drawn up. We also looked for connections between playing behaviour and play results on the one hand and cognitive, behavioural and emotional components on the other hand. The processing of the results is currently going on.

Reliability

From the norm group 250 children were retested to check the reliability of The World Game.

Longitudinal Investigation

Longitudinal norm group data were collected. In that way 60 children from two different age categories (3rd year of pre-school and 2nd year of primary school) were followed over two years.

This research project is intended to see whether the World Game can offer differentially diagnostic leads for the diagnosis of young developmentally disturbed children.
Therefore the research focuses on finding playing characteristics that are specific to groups of children with similar problems. The test results will be compared to the norm group.

The clinical population comprises the following research groups: reading disorders and learning disorders; mental retardation; high ability; developmental retardation; child maltreatment; pervasive developmental disorders; ADHD; and conduct disorder.

The World Game Test as a Diagnostic Tool for Children with Reading Disabilities
The research results presented here are related to the clinical group of children with dyslexia.

Method
Based on the criteria put forward by the committee on dyslexia of the Health Council of the Netherlands (Gerson-Wolfensberger & Ruijssenaars, 1997), 48 dyslexic children between 8 and 10 years old were selected.

"Dyslexia is present when the automatisation of word identification (reading) and/or word spelling does not develop or does so very incompletely or with great difficulty" (Gerson-Wolfensberger & Ruijssenaars, 1997: pp. 209).

This working definition means that dyslexia is characterised in practice by retardation in reading and spelling that is severe and persistent and resists the usual teaching methods and remedial efforts" (Gerson-Wolfensberger & Ruijssenaars, 1997: pp. 209).

In addition a control group of children was assembled through matching (according to age, intelligence and socio-economic status). In order to clearly separate the research group from the mentally retarded children, only children with an IQ higher than 70 were selected. The clinical group consists of 35 boys and 13 girls.

Results
The following subsections describe significant characteristics during the building process (observation period)

Verbalisations (t-test). Children with dyslexia talk more while building than children from the control group. The test procedure limits and even discourages communication by using standard answers. Still the children talk more during the test (d: 17.29% - c: 2.48% of the playing time, p = 0.00). The verbalisations about the play in particular stand out. They address the test leader (d: 9.33% – c: 1.79% of the playing time, p = 0.00), but even more striking are the verbalisations for or in themselves (d: 13.88% - c: 0.88% of the playing time, p = 0.00).

Apparently many of the children with dyslexia put their playing behaviour into words during the game.
Sorting (t-test). When children are sorting during the building process they collect game elements according to one characteristic e.g. shape, colour or category. So they make material clusters of at least 3 game elements. Sorting can be done in the hand or on the play table. The children from the dyslexia group sort significantly more than the ones from the control group (d: 12.40% - C: 6.69% of the playing time, p = 0.006).

Significant Characteristics in the End Product
Use of elements (t-test). The analyses show that on average the group of dyslexic children use more elements that the control group (d: 89.94 – c: 74, p = 0.012).
Not all the categories are used more by the dyslectic group. The following categories are used more often in the dyslexic group than in the control group: fences (d: 16.85 – c: 12.98, p = 0.006); people (d: 8.63 – c: 5.79, p = 0.002); Domestic animals (d: 12.31 – c: 8.85, p = 0.025); and wild animals (d: 2.35 – c: 1.6, p = 0.038).

Stack building (Pearson Chi-Square). Here material is placed on top of other material. Stack building implies a minimum of three layers. This specific type of building occurred 17 times in the dyslexia group, while 7 children from the control group used this type of construction (p = 0.018).

Number of elements in the longest chain (coupling) (t-test). Coupling means placing building elements against or on top of other elements. In this way groups of elements are formed which stick together and which we call 'couplings' (d: 11.71 – c: 8.73, p = 0.021).

Formation of houses (Pearson Chi-Square). In the dyslectic group more children put all their houses against each other, so the houses stick together. In the dyslexic group this occurred 7 times, in the control group it didn't occur (p = 0.012).

Sorted juxtaposition (Pearson Chi-Square). Juxtaposing is a specific way of positioning game elements. They are positioned at more or less equal distances and form groups of at least 5 elements. With sorted juxtaposition these elements are arranged according to shape, colour or characteristics. Dyslectic children use this form significantly more than children from the control group (d: 16 – c: 2, p. 00).

Towers (t-test). Dyslectic children use more towers in their village than the children of the control group (p = 0.033).

Significant Characteristics in Inquiry

Actions (t-test). When the children are asked about what they build, the dyslexic children use more actions (p = 0.024) in their verbal description. In particular, these actions have a realistic nature (p = 0.022).

Relationships between animals (t-test). In their story the dyslectic group mentions more actions and intentions between animals than the control group (p = 0.016)

DISCUSSION

Dyslexic children use some very specific play features, although there is some overlap with significant characteristics of other clinical populations.

'Putting more elements in lager groups against each other', a significant characteristic for dyslexic children, is also found in a group of children with ADHD (Sermijn, 2000). The dyslexic children in this study weren't screened for symptoms of ADHD, but the co-morbidity of learning disabilities and ADHD is high (Wong, 1996). When we compare the characteristics of the dyslexic group with specific characteristics of a group of children with Post-traumatic Stress Disorder (PSD) and Pervasive Developmental Disorder (PDD), there are no similarities of play features. This may mean that those different clinical groups do build 'worlds' in another way.

Looking at the characteristics Ojemann put forward to describe the play features of 'image thinkers', we only found one similarity with the dyslexic group, namely 'stack building'. This remarkable result questions Ojemann's assumption of a strong relationship between image thinking and reading problems. However, some of the characteristics she identified as being typical of 'image 'thinkers' were found in other clinical populations. Sermijn (2000) reported that children with ADHD use more castles and the absence of people occurred more in a PDD population. So further differential diagnostic research is needed.

These limited results allow us to conclude that the World Play can indeed offer differentially diagnostic leads for dyslexic children. Furthermore, it can be used as a screening instrument to find out if there are secondary problems that would perhaps be neglected otherwise. Nevertheless, we are fully aware that further research is necessary to answer the unresolved questions.

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Getting the Pleasure of Reading through Extensive Reading

Aliye Evin Kasapoglu and Ebru Tuba Yurur,
Anadolu University, Turkey

The purpose of this presentation is to explain and exemplify how extensive reading is carried out at Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages. In the first part of the presentation, effects of extensive reading of literature are considered, the context of the project is outlined, and extensive reading in the university preparatory school is described. In the second part, extensive reading reports written by our students are examined.

EXTENSIVE READING OF LITERATURE

"We learn to read by reading." (Smith, F, as cited in Nuttall, 2000, p.128). In his popular slogan, Smith emphasizes that learning how to read is required for full comprehension, which could only be realised by reading more. Following this slogan, Nuttall (ibid) provides another one: "The best way to improve our knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its speakers. The next best way is to read extensively in it."

Since the former is somewhat difficult in case of our students, the latter might be valid in convincing our learners that reading is not a waste of time. On the other hand, students who read a lot will not become good readers with full comprehension overnight. It may take time before they show any noticeable improvement in their own learning processes.

The question is, why do many learners fail to show progress in this valuable skill? This part is very important in terms of understanding the significance and the starting point of extensive reading project in our school. Nuttall (2000) explains the interaction among speed, enjoyment, comprehension, and the amount of practice plays an important role in determining whether a reader will be weak or strong.

Getting the Pleasure of Reading Through Extensive Reading
Extensive Reading in Literature

Doesn't understand — Reads slowly — Doesn't enjoy reading — Doesn't read much

Figure 1 : The vicious circle of the weak reader

Aliye E. Kasapoğlu & Tuba E. Yürür
Anadolu University, Turkey
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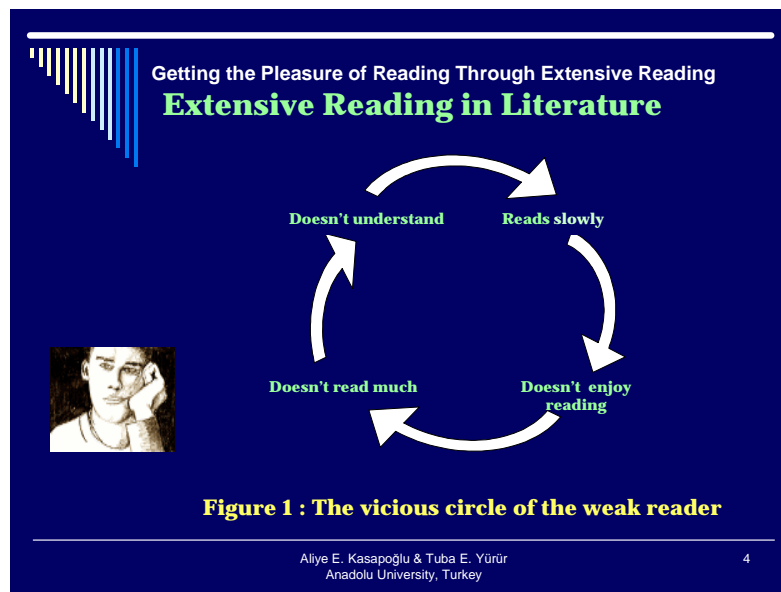
As you can see from the first figure, all of the factors are closely related with one another. Any of them could lead to a learner ultimately being a good or a weak reader. Slow readers have difficulty developing interest in what they read; therefore, they do not enjoy it. The less they enjoy, the less they read. As a result, they lack the necessary practice of reading which results in difficulty understanding what they read (Nuttall, 2000). As a possible solution, Nutall suggests extensive reading that may enable our

students to read better, faster, and with full understanding. Based on this knowledge, as reading teachers we decided to include extensive reading in the reading course.

Getting the Pleasure of Reading Through Extensive Reading
Extensive Reading in Literature

Enjoys reading — Reads faster — Reads more — Understands better

Figure 2 : The virtuous circle of the weak reader

Aliye E. Kasapoğlu & Tuba E. Yürür
Anadolu University, Turkey
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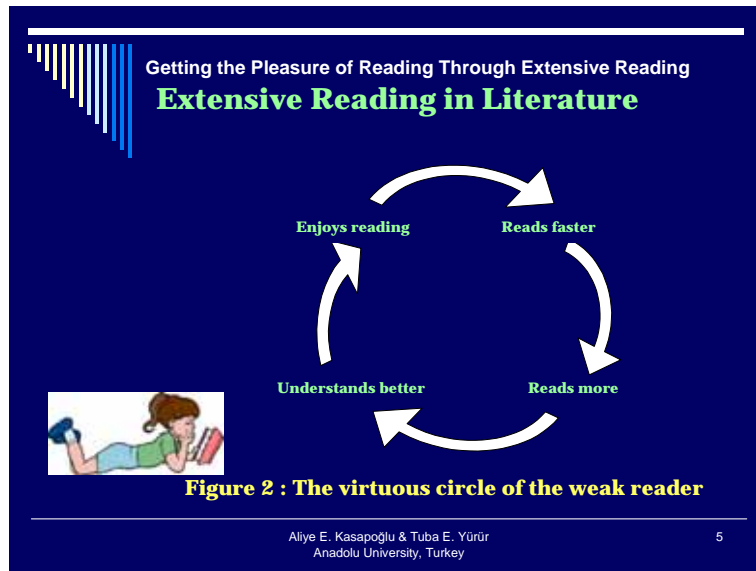
THE CHARACTERISTICS OF EXTENSIVE READING

Day and Bamford (1998) describe the characteristics of extensive reading as follows:
1) Students read as much as possible outside the classroom.
2) Students read a variety of materials.
3) Students have the freedom to choose the materials they want to read.
4) Students read for pleasure, information, and general understanding.
5) There are usually no follow-up exercises after reading.
6) Students are encouraged not to use dictionaries while reading. Therefore, they are advised to choose the materials that could be suitable for their language proficiency level.
7) Reading is individual and silent, during which the student is free to decide when and where to do it.
8) Since students are supposed to choose understandable materials, reading speed is usually faster.
9) Teachers guide students about the purposes of extensive reading and how to handle it.
10) The teacher acts as a role model for students and helps them become aware of how to be a good reader and what they might gain by reading.

THE BENEFITS OF EXTENSIVE READING

Day and Bamford (ibid) indicate that extensive reading can first contribute to the development of sight vocabulary, which is based on the recognition of words automatically; it is developed as learners meet words repeatedly in various contexts. Secondly, it can also contribute to the development of general vocabulary knowledge that results in better reading comprehension. Thirdly, students can acquire linguistic, topical, and world knowledge that can further facilitate reading comprehension.

In addition to these, a number of studies also show that extensive reading may help students develop positive attitudes toward reading in English and become motivated to read in English (Elley, 1991; Cho & Krashen,1994; Rodrigo,1995, as cited in Day & Bamford,1998).

THE CONTEXT OF THE PROJECT

Anadolu University School of Foreign Languages was established in 1998 and served nearly 1800 students during the 2004-2005 year. The number of the instructors currently employed at the institution is 124.

Students who are not proficient in English are required to study at the university preparatory school for one year. At the beginning of each term, students are placed in appropriate levels according to their scores on the placement exam. The levels are beginner, elementary, low intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced.

As the program is skills based, each skill is taught separately and assessed separately. These major skill areas are writing, speaking-listening, and reading. In addition, we have a course called "grammar in context". In beginner and elementary classes, eight hours a week are devoted to reading, while in other levels six hours a week are spent on it. In addition to intensive reading carried out in classes during those hours, extensive reading is also a part of the reading course, as mentioned earlier.

EXTENSIVE READING IN PREP SCHOOL

Although extensive reading is not included in the assessment of ability to process literature, in our school extensive reading comprises 20% of the total midterm score in a term. The reason why we as reading teachers decided to include extensive reading as part of the assessment is to encourage our students, who usually have a tendency not to read in the target language outside the classroom. The students are required to read three texts (short stories or articles) before each midterm and prepare a report for each reading text. The students should also provide the original copy, photocopy or hardcopy (for internet sources) of each text. The students are expected to write their reports for each text on the basis of the following issues:

1) Why did you choose this text? Justify your answer or list the reasons why you chose this text.
2) What does the text mainly discuss? (Between 50 and 100 words)
3) What is the most interesting information or message you learned from the text?
4) Comment on the title. Do you think it is appropriate for the text? Why? / Why not? If not, what title would you suggest?
5) Write your comments and reactions to the text. Would you recommend anybody to read the text you have read? If yes, to whom and why? If no, state your reasons.

SAMPLE STUDENT RESPONSES

In this part, some examples of reports written by our students are provided. Followings are some sample answers to the questions mentioned earlier. The student is from the elementary group, and she is particularly interested in non-fiction, informative texts. She read an informational text about the Bermuda Triangle called *Vanished: The Bermuda Triangle Effect by Captain Joey.* In response to question 4 inviting her to comment on the title, she wrote; *"The title is good and appropriate for the text, because it is related to the text, but the title is a little long for the text. Bermuda triangle is enough."* For question 5, inviting comments and reactions, she wrote: *"I think the text doesn't give much information about Bermuda Triangle .I expect to find more information about the triangle, but I couldn't. I don't suggestion this text anyone."*

Another set sample answers from an advanced level student are provided in the following. This student particularly enjoys reading about fashion and usually chooses her materials either from women's magazines or such sources. For her extensive reading project, she read about Donatella Versace. The title of the text is *Coming Clean*. The text mainly explains famous designer Donatella Versace and how she became addicted to cocaine. In response to question 3, the student wrote *"The most interesting message I learned from the text is that drugs can find you anywhere, anytime. It doesn't matter who you are. You may be the poorest or the richest, the happiest or the saddest. If you don't know that you are the most important thing for yourself, you can be addicted to this trouble. Donatella Versace started to use it when*

she had everything; the money, the fame, the perfect family and she did it again when she lost lots of things; her brother, her family. There is always an excuse for using it."

When asked to comment on the title (question 4), the same student wrote: "*I think the title is definitely appropriate for the text. When somebody stops using drugs, he/she is considered clean since all the drugs are 'dirty'. And since Donatella Versace stopped using it after 18 years of addiction, it can be said that she became clean. However, "Confessions of a Queen" would be a more attractive title.*"

CONCLUSION

As their answers suggest, our students seemed to have gained the ability of critical thinking that we wanted them to acquire with the help of the extensive reading project. In addition, parallel to Nuttall's (2000) cycle, the more the students enjoy the material, the more they read. As a result, they have more practice of reading, which results in better reading comprehension. Through this project, we expect our students to improve their reading ability and attain a habit of reading in their personal lives.

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Inhabitants of the World of Silence and Their Rights to Information (Library and Information Services for People with Hearing Impairment)

Bronisława Woźniczka-Paruzel, Nicholas Copernicus University, Toruń, Poland

INTRODUCTION

In many countries librarians are not suitably prepared to serve the informational and reading needs of deaf people, whose mother tongue is sign language. This lack of preparation means that such people are out of the reach of the knowledge and information society created by the hearing. As a result, the deaf close themselves off in their own, very hermetic community, and do not have the chance to integrate with the society of the hearing. This serves to increase their isolation and contributes to their being discriminated against in many spheres of life.

It is known that the basic form of inter-personal communication is phonetic speech which allows expression of thought, teaching, survival and perception, and at the same time facilitates the gaining of knowledge, preparation for the work as well as participation in the life and culture of the hearing. When the participants in the communication process use the same language, and, at the same time, have mastered its written form, they are not only able to understand each other but also make use of the experience of others, drawing on the rich work of past and present generations preserved with the help of writing and stored in various places, including libraries.

People with impaired hearing cannot communicate in the above-mentioned ways. For them, the basis of communication is sign language. Because of its grammatical properties, the language cannot be recorded in writing, which in turn leads to a lack of conventional written documents in the culture of the non-hearing. This is why the "inhabitants of the world of silence" do not have access to the information which is available in the standard library. Because non-standard libraries exist only in a few countries – and taking into account the particular communicational abilities of their readers – it can be said that these people are more or less a linguistic minority which is discriminated against.

THE RIGHTS OF THE HEARING IMPAIRED AS A LINGUISTIC MINORITY

The community of people with impaired hearing is very internally heterogeneous. It encompasses people with various degrees of hearing impairment, which in turn results in different language abilities. Because of the different degrees of deafness, people are said to have a light, moderate, significant or severe level of hearing impairment. Of course, we are mainly interested in people with a significant or severe level of hearing impairment, especially those who have been deaf since birth or those who were affected by deafness before language is acquired (before 2-3 years of age) and in the early period of language acquisition (3-5 five years of age). They are either completely devoid of the 'internal dictionary' of phonetic speech, or this 'dictionary' is extremely limited, which leads to huge problems with the learning of speech as well as its written form (Szczepankowski, 1999, pp. 38-39).

There are currently around 45 millions such people world-wide. In Poland there are around 90, 657 of them, including 37,149 deaf and 53,508 hard of hearing, with 10,927 of these being children and young people of up to 18 years of age (Sprawozdanie z działalności statutowej Polskiego Związku Głuchych, 2003, p.3). These people mainly communicate through sign language, although some, especially those whose hearing became impaired later in life, are also able to use verbal language. Despite this fact, sign language is the "mother-tongue" of over 50 thousand of these people (Szczepankowski, 2003).

Sign language is a collection of conventional gesticulatory signs, which refer to specific letters, numbers or whole words (sometimes even short phrases), wherein a characteristic element of a given sign

consists of both hand and finger configurations using both hands, such as the movement of the hands in relation to the body as well as movements which form part of a whole sign (Szczepankowski, 1986).

This language, the basis of which is made up of gestures, came into being of its own accord during contact between the non-hearing and the rest of the world over many centuries. Over time, certain gestures gradually came to have notional meaning, and became conventional signs. In this way, ideographical (notional) signs became fixed. Dactylographic signs developed in parallel (finger alphabet), initially serving the passing on of information on proper names and definitions, for which ideological equivalents were lacking; later, the marking out of the grammatical morphemes of spoken language was established (Perlin, Szczepankowski, 1992).

Research into sign language (in actual fact, sign languages because particular ethnic groups have created their own national versions), has recorded its grammatical rules which differ considerably to those of spoken language, has investigated the lexical resources of its various forms, and has created dictionaries and text books on sign language. Work is also underway on the unification of an international sign language. In this way, the widespread acceptance has occurred of a sign language which was previously confined to use at home and often treated as inferior and primitive. It was also discovered, contrary to opinions which had been held for many centuries, that deaf children who learned gestures from the earliest time can develop in the right way, and that this learning also served to develop their language skills (Diehl, 2004).

These events were followed up with legal resolutions. For example in 1988, *The European Parliament Resolution on sign language for the deaf* recommended, among other things, the removal of all barriers to communication in sign language, as well as its introduction into teaching and to television programs and films in the form of translations (Diehl, 1995). In turn, at *The International Sign Language and Bilingual Education Congress* in Stockholm, organised under the patronage of UNESCO and The Global Deaf Federation in 1993, sign language was officially recognised as the mother tongue of deaf people. It was also claimed that using sign language was the best way of learning the national language and the effective gaining of knowledge (Historical Context of Sign Language, 2004). Similar legislation is contained in *Resolution no. 48/96* of the *United Nations General Meeting* in 1993, where, among other things, we can read: "More emphasis should be put on the use of sign language in the education of deaf children among their families and in the community. Translations into sign language should also be prepared which should provide the service of facilitating understanding between the hearing and non-hearing..." (Szczepankowski, 1997, p. 3).

Because the conception of people being deaf from birth or from the early years of life as being a linguistic minority was slow to come into being, the problem was again discussed at the *13th Congress of the World Federation of the Deaf* in Brisbane (Australia, 1999). It was asserted that due to the fact that deaf people were perceived as being a distinct group, they have the right to use their own sign language as well as an entitlement to an education in that language. They also have a right to a translator in public institutions, as well as to access to new technologies which attenuate the barriers between them and the world of the hearing (Raport z XIII Światowego Kongresu Głuchych, 2000).

It is worth mentioning that in Sweden, for example, many of the postulates of the deaf community have already been implemented in the public realm – they have nursery schools and schools where classes are given in Swedish sign language. Moreover, translators are employed in public institutions, offices, clinics, and in the bigger shops. This state of affairs is possible, among other reasons, because Sweden was the first country in the world to sign up to the constitution of deaf people as a linguistic minority in the nineteen eighties. The deaf in the USA also enjoy unusually wide rights which stem from the American Disability Act – an act against discrimination against the disabled. In the states, there has been interest in sign language and its general acceptance for many years now, and sign language is in third place amongst languages used after English and Spanish. In addition to this, the deaf have their own higher education institutions, such as the University of Gallaudet in Washington, which offers lectures in sign language and employs deaf staff (The University of Gallaudet in Washington see: http://www.gallaudet.edu).

In Poland, the deaf do not enjoy such a wide range of rights and these rights are not covered in any separate act of law. They are recorded in the relevant points and articles of the disabled person's right

cards (1997) of the act on employment and the vocational rehabilitation of the disabled, or in the Constitution of the Republic of Poland. As articles in 'The New World of Silence', a magazine edited by deaf people would indicate, a wide range of deaf people's rights are only given lip-service. Despite this fact, recent years have seen an interest in deaf people and their unusual culture and language. It should also be emphasised that they are yet to be officially acknowledged as a linguistic minority, although the deaf themselves who are pressing for the right to their own language are also conscious of the fact that they should strive to become bilingual, and learn phonetic language, especially in its written form, which is a condition of their access to information in its conventional form – through reading – and also makes it possible for them to enjoy reading (Dyskusje o prawach głuchych w Polsce , 2003).

THE BARRIERS AND POTENTIAL OF PEOPLE WITH IMPAIRED HEARING IN THEIR ACCESS TO READING

We gain access to the world of books thanks to our ability to read. Thanks to this ability, deaf children are also able with time to initiate themselves with reading and to gradually enter "Gutenberg's Galaxy". An appropriately prepared librarian can play a very important role. However, if he/she is to play this role properly, it is necessary to first become familiar with the difficulties which these children must overcome in order to be able to read.

Contrary to common beliefs (after all, the child can see!), the development of reading abilities in children with significant damage to their hearing organs – especially those who have been deaf since birth – is not a simple matter. Without going into specifics, it is enough to say that they master reading techniques with difficulty. They also have serious problems with understanding and interpreting a text which has been read. Whilst trying to master reading skills, they are hampered by articulation problems resulting from them not being able to hear themselves. This leads to the omission or the jumbling of letters and syllables which in turn leads to the deformation of the content of what is read. Readers not only have problems with the perception of signs which are composed of particular words but also with the understanding of sequences of words which form sentences and constructs without content cover. This results from their poor vocabulary and lack of familiarity with grammatical structures which leads to the impossibility of associating words and the meanings they create with equivalents in the real world. This, in turn, leads to a lack of intellectual reaction caused by the failure to understand the text. A reader who does not understand the sense of words, phrases, and sentences, and especially abstract concepts including metaphors, which are semantically empty for them, cannot imagine the events and situations described. This is frustrating for the reader and can further discourage him or her from reading (Woźniczka-Paruzel, 1998).

We can therefore say that leading a deaf child into the world of books must be preceded by a long process of preparing them to be future readers. Sign language comes in useful here, thanks to which it is not only possible to make contact with children who use this language as well as discover what their interests and needs are, but also to encourage them to read so called 'alternative reading materials' which in turn allow reading skills to be polished. These materials get children into the habit of reading and make them more active in relation to reading. Needless to say, reading should be kept up after the period of school education, in local institutions which belong to local libraries or – in the case of higher education – to higher education libraries. Unfortunately, as I have already indicated, the majority of staff in Polish libraries know neither sign language nor alternative forms of books which activate reading and are modified to meet the perceptive capacities and needs of the hard of hearing. It is no surprise then, that over time, adult deaf people in our country lose the abilities which they had as children. Research would indicate that the majority of them do not have any contact with books and do not believe that that contact was needed in their lives. Research carried out in the nineteen eighties confirmed that 15-20% of deaf people use libraries and other places which lend out books (Korniak, 1984). Later surveys have indicated that this situation has improved slightly.

It would seem that one of the factors which limits reading activation of the hard of hearing in Poland is a certain didactic deficiency in places where librarians are educated at an academic level. From the analysis of programs it turns out that they have no place for lectures which prepare students to serve

the reading needs of the deaf, or that there are few of them.. In fact, the only institution which offers lectures in sign language is NCU in Toruń, where students learn sign language as a bibliotherapeutic specialisation, wherein they become familiar with various forms of work and alternative reading materials which are useful for the group of potential library users under discussion. And how do library services in this area look in other countries. I hope that during the discussion which will follow, I will be able to get some information on that subject.

ALTERNATIVE FORMS OF BOOKS WHICH DEVELOP THE READING SKILLS OF THE "INHABITANTS OF THE WORLD OF SILENCE" AND ACTIVATE THEIR READING

In order to help deaf children in their learning to read, and to activate the reading abilities of both adults and children, a range of non-conventional forms of books are used world-wide which are characterised by alternative formats or special reading materials. These include, for example, those intended visual materials for the very young – books with pictures, which develop abstract thinking and speech, different types of educational books including book-toys and books of nomination. It is also worth mentioning sign-language books, easy-to-read books of different levels and multimedia tools which are suited to damaged hearing organs. I will now pay some attention to each of these kinds of material.

Deaf children, just like all small "readers" of a pre-reading age, enter the world of books thanks to illustrative publications. Those which present feelings such as joy, love, anger, or sadness are of particular importance because children are not able to express these feelings in the language which is normally used. Those which include pictures of particular objects illustrating situations from everyday life and particular skills are also important. They teach children to recognise and to familiarise themselves with these situations independently, which is of particular importance in the case of children who are unable to ask questions on this subject. It is also beneficial if these illustrations have moving and tactile elements which makes the book more attractive, awakens interest and imagination, and at the same time stimulates manual dexterity, which is essential in the use of sign language (Reidarson, Hosle, 1991). In Poland such publishers as KANWA publish these kinds of books. In addition to this, the publisher Res Polona also publishes books which are well-known and come with toys in the form of miniature objects e.g. a telephone, steering wheel, scales, a tape-measure or a shoe with shoelaces to do up. In a way which holds children's interest, they teach specific practical skills or desired behaviour. At the same time, they "plasticise" the meaning of words and ideas which are met during play which widen children's vocabulary. This is especially important in the case of children with impaired hearing.

Books of nomination serve a similar purpose – small books in the form of a harmonica. The book is made up of 6-8 pages. Each page has one picture, which presents an object or activity under which is one word – a verb or a noun in relation to the picture shown. These help with associating names with the concepts which they designate, fixing everyday words and ideas in the minds of the children, widening the child's vocabulary.

In Poland, books with sign language illustration are less well known and on the book market are practically non-existent. In these books, the pictures are accompanied by signs, and more often are in both languages – sign language and the national language (this is why they are called bilingual books). The library of the above-mentioned University of Gallaudet has a large collection of this type of publication. The oldest book from the collection – in one language with accompanying sign language illustrations – is from 1950. It was in 1972 though that the first bilingual book appeared with American sign-language illustrations. Around the same period, similar books came out in Sweden, and shortly after in other Scandinavian countries. In the late 80's and at the beginning of the 90's of the 20th century, German, British, and Dutch sign language books began to be published (Fedorowicz, 2002).

In Poland, the Easy to Read Literature Foundation with its seat in Toruń made similar efforts, and published a few easy-to-read bilingual books in the Polish language with sign-language illustrations which took account of the grammatical structures of Polish, its syntax and inflection, with themes being presented with the aid of ideographic signs equivalent to basic word forms. Word endings were also given consideration through the means of dactylographic signs, which also serve the formation of proper names, conjunctions, and numbers. These books are created for deaf children with impaired intellectual

functioning, and teach behaviour in specific places, for example, on the street, whilst using public transport, at the doctor's, in the library, at the shop and post office etc. Unfortunately, there is a lack of books presenting classical literature, which are suited to the needs of children of a normal intellectual level with impaired hearing. There is also a lack of these kinds of publications for young people and adults. It is no surprise then that the development of their reading abilities is somewhat hampered in Poland. What is the state of affairs in other countries?

FORMS OF MULTIMEDIA FOR DEAF LIBRARY USERS

Recent years have witnessed the development of forms of multimedia almost throughout the entire world, which provide the deaf with new opportunities to participate in reading and have access to information. Texts are recorded on videocassette, on CD-ROM or DVD-ROM in different forms

- A standard picture with people communicating using speech language with a sign-language translation at the bottom of the screen.
- A text in verbal speech under the picture
- A show, a film or a discussion presented exclusively by people who use sign language.

In Poland, there are very few adaptations of this type. It is true that a series has been shown since 1980 on television "In the world of silence" translated into sign language and that people with impaired hearing can watch around 40 films, serials and educational programs every month with subtitles. However, this is not enough to satisfy existing needs. It is worth noting that there are also texts which have been recorded on video-cassette which have been modified for listeners with hearing impairment. Of these *Fairy Tales not only for deaf children* are worth attention, as well as video-cassettes for learning sign-language, which come in useful for librarians, teachers as well as hearing members of families with deaf children. They are available in some public libraries and library collections located at schools for the deaf.

This short review of alternative formats which enable Polish deaf and hard of hearing people to have access to information can be concluded with the assertion that, unfortunately, not much is on offer. Before the situation can improve (and librarians themselves should play a part in this), the materials which are currently available in libraries should be appropriately made use of. They can lead 'the inhabitants of the world of silence' into the world of information based on the written word, and activate and develop their reading skills. How can this be done? There follows a few suggestions which can prove useful not only in Poland but elsewhere also.

THE ACTIVATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE READING SKILLS OF DEAF LIBRARY USERS

There is no doubt that library users' activities in the community of the deaf should begin with children. These activities should be preceded by different forms of activity which should aim to foster a positive attitude both to the library itself as well as to books and reading. Because 'play' is a defining feature of children, a point of departure here can be various games which integrate small library users, both hearing and deaf, using total communication methods, the basis of which is the assumption that children have the right to use all forms of communication which are available to them which serve to develop the language abilities (Perier, 1992).

It is also worth preparing a set of picture-books which serve to make early reading fun, and which are based on the Doman's method; first children associate single names with pictures, and later learn to form short sentences, associated with specific situations. Finally, the children are able to visualise complex sentences and their meanings (Doman, 1992).

Children love stories and fairy tales, and so they should be used; films with actors using sign language accompanied by phonetic language read by a narrator are also useful. After this, all young participants, both hearing and non-hearing alike can, for example, colour pictures of characters from the film or draw them, make plasticine figures of them etc, or express their own emotional relation to the story

in a different way. Of course, the choice of the appropriate form of expression should depend on the children's own decisions, although the librarian can of course make suggestions.

As far as deaf adults who cannot use phonetic language and who were not introduced in a suitable way to the world of books at an early age are concerned, it is very difficult for librarians to run any kind of activity, especially when they do not know sign-language. However, this does not mean that they are completely helpless. For example, adults can be shown films with a text in sign-language, which awaken their aspirations and feelings of self-worth, offer programs on the subject of hard of hearing people which existed in the world of the hearing and inspire their own artistic expression through, for example, photography, painting, and role play.

As experts point out, the forms of work in the community of people with impaired hearing bring many benefits, and to a certain degree attenuate the barrier between the inhabitants of the world of silence and the hearing.

THE INTERNET AS A TOOL FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF DEAF PEOPLE'S COMPUTER SKILLS

Our discussion of the reading materials discussed so far in the service of people with hearing impairment and the ways of introducing them to the world of written information should be supplemented with information on the topic of the assistance which they can find on the Internet.

At the present time, there are many Internet sites for children with impaired hearing, which are also attractive for hearing children (for example Wirtualna Polska dla dzieci –see: http://dzieci.wp.pl). They offer different kinds of initiation with computers connected with games based on stories or fairytales, including cartoons which children are familiar with from the popular 'Dobranocka' series (TV bed stories) or fantasy films. Young users can also make use of Internet sites directed at deaf children to look for their favourite stories. When they find them, thanks to links, they can look for their favourite characters, for example, Winnie the Pooh and his friends. They get a lot of pleasure from, for example, putting their chosen characters into their own files with a personal story 'tapped out' on the keyboard. If this is too difficult for them, they can try didactic games which have been specially prepared, of which there are plenty on Polish sites.

In turn, deaf adults can use information from the Polish Association of the Deaf website (see: Polski Związek Głuchych, http://www.pzg.org.pl). The Internet for the Disabled website (see: Internet dla Niepełnosprawnych, http://www.idn.org.pl), and the Polish Help Portal (see: Akcja SOS.Pl, http://szukaj.akcjasos.pl/index.php?category=5). Through this network, they can find information relating to various problems which deaf people and the parents of deaf children encounter. Of course, in other countries, deaf people and their families can also make use of similar Internet services. It would be good if librarians were able to direct people with hearing impairment to these sites and help them in finding information and interpreting it with the help, among other things, of pointers in sign language.

FINAL CONCLUSIONS

From the considerations thus presented, we can draw several conclusions. Above all, it should be remembered that a condition of effective communication between people is the use of the same language. This results in deaf people, as far as they are able to, learning the national phonetic language, especially in its written form. Moreover, the hearing, including librarians who have contact with them, should try to become familiar with the basics of sign language. Only then will they be able to awaken and educate, and then satisfy the informational-reading needs of those with impaired hearing.

The awakening of interest in the written word and reading should begin with children with impaired hearing at the pre-reading stage, developing it during school teaching and continuing through adult life. Inhabitants of the world of silence which have been thus led into the world of information will be able to use culture produced in the world of the hearing including written information.

Here, libraries have specific tasks cut out for them. They can and indeed should serve the hard of hearing at every stage of their development, collecting suitable reading materials and using them in the appropriate way in their work with readers with impaired hearing regardless of their age. At the same

time, the hard of hearing who are not able to master phonetic language should be assured of access to information in alternative forms, based on sign-language and forms of multimedia including those supplied by the Internet. Only then can the inhabitants of the world of silence have the possibility of making use of the world of information and exert an influence on the shaping of information society which they not only have a right to live in but also to co-create.

And so at the very end, some questions for you:
1) How many of you know sign language?
2) Who could say a few sentences about the status of deaf people in their country, with particular reference to the right to information
3) Which of the participants of the symposium learned about reading possibilities and informational needs of deaf library users at university?
4) Who has ever worked in a library with deaf people or was prepared for such work at university?

I think that in answering these questions, we will be assisted by a specific diagnosis of the state of affairs concerning LIS studies in which –in my opinion – cannot exclude a place for those with impaired hearing. We have to be conscious of the fact that without our help, they will not be inhabitants of "Gutenberg's Galaxy", or of the multimedia "Magellan's Cloud", and thus as "children of a Lesser God" left on the outside of information society, and unable to draw on the achievements of hearing civilisation.

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The University Reading Clinic:
On-Site Mentored Training in Literacy Education

Jessica Gail Bevans-Mangelson,
University of Texas of the Permian Basin, USA

As public schools work to insure that all children can read on grade level, the discussion concerning "best-practice" continues to circulate among educational researchers. At a 2001 hearing before the United States House Committee, entitled *Measuring success: Using assessments and accountability to raise student success,* Lyon argued that:

> The educational and public health consequences of reading failure are dire. Of the ten to 15 percent of children who will eventually drop out of school, over 75 percent will report difficulties learning to read. Likewise, only two percent of students receiving special or compensatory education for difficulties learning to read will complete a four-year college program. Surveys of adolescents and young adults with criminal records indicate that at least half have reading difficulties.

Often, the first line of defense in the war against illiteracy is the classroom teacher. In *The Politics of Reading* (1987), Fraatz suggests that part of the problem with reading instruction stems from the professional uncertainty teachers feel when faced with instructional choices surrounding reading education. If teachers enter the classroom without understanding how children learn to read and what instructional practices work best for diverse learners, they are painfully unprepared to meet the needs of readers (more specifically struggling readers) in their classrooms.

This view is echoed by The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) which found that teachers who had reading endorsements or ongoing professional training in literacy were more likely to use teaching practices that are associated with higher reading achievement on standardized tests (NRP, 2001. pg. 5-3).

The university reading clinic is one underappreciated and often misunderstood training opportunity available to preservice and in-service teachers. The reading clinic has evolved during the past 80 years to become an arena where children, preservice teachers, and reading professionals work together to improve the reading ability of children. Researching university reading clinics is critical for understanding the ways in which reading training for preservice and in-service teachers is conducted and can be improved.

A MODEL WITH POSSIBILITIES

Until the 1920's laboratory schools or placement in a public school classroom were the primary training opportunities for preservice teachers. Lab schools were housed on-site at colleges and universities. The ready access to children allowed for hands-on teaching experiences. Nevertheless, universities and colleges moved away from the lab-schools beginning in the late 1920's due to lack of funding, competition for resources, and the push to use the public school system as a replacement for preservice teachers (National Association for Laboratory Schools, 1991).

Sending preservice teachers to the public schools for practicum or service learning experiences remains common practice in most teacher education programs (Bevans, 2004). Unfortunately, students are often left to blindly observe a classroom teacher with little direction or focus, and the classroom teachers observed often do not demonstrate best practice. Although the university student may be employing

strategies or practices learned in the college or university classroom, there is little supervision of the steps, language, instruction, and overall interaction with children (Bevans, 2004).

Grace Fernald, reading researcher at University of California Los Angeles, sought to create a way to train teachers on-site without the use of a lab school and opened the first reading clinic in 1921. The university reading clinic mission was to better understand reading disabilities, provided training for reading teachers, and serve struggling readers in the surrounding community.

Although reading clinics have changed over the past 50 years, the format has remained relatively stable. Typically, the reading clinic serves 10-30 children a semester who attend sessions one to three times a week after the regular public school day. The students arrive at the reading clinic location, usually on-site at a college or university, and receive guided, mentored instruction from a reading teacher-in-training. The teaching is typically observed by reading professionals who conference or model correct practices to insure the preservice teacher understands the concepts and underlying theory behind their instructional choices (Bevans, 2004).

The reading clinic provides the unique opportunity for university students to work through the process of understanding reading instruction with children who struggle with literacy. This combination of theory and practice make the reading clinic a rich training ground where feedback and instruction is provided through support from clinic personnel.

Although research on reading clinics is somewhat limited, research on how clinics help children improve can be linked to the vast amount of research on the effectiveness of one-to-one and small group reading instruction. Since most clinics work with children on a small group or one-to-one basis (Bevans, 2004), comparing research on one-to-one and small group instructional models to clinical models is appropriate. Researchers, suggest that "one-to-one tutoring of low-achieving primary-grade students shows potential as an effective instructional intervention, in 16 separate studies of cohorts involving five different tutoring methods, effect sizes were substantially positive in nearly every case" (Slavin & Wasik, 1993, pp. 195-197). Children who are behind in reading are well served in one-to-one and small group settings.

Another tutoring program aimed at improving children's reading in a one-on-one setting is Reading Recovery®. This early intervention program created by Marie Clay employs highly trained reading teachers who work with at-risk children during first grade, an especially critical point in the development of literacy. In many ways, the reading clinic approach and the Reading Recovery program are similar and complementary. Children often encounter a similar framework of instruction including repeated readings, ongoing assessment/running records, lessons delivered in a systematic way, and ongoing supervision and input from trained reading educators.

Though these are similar in many ways, the two approaches also differ. Clients for the reading clinic are typically five to eighteen years old, while children participating in Reading Recovery are typically in first grader. Reading Recovery is a school-based program whereas the reading clinic is usually housed at a college or university. Finally, Reading Recovery teachers have one year of intense training initially, and are required to participate in ongoing professional development specific to Reading Recovery during the following years. Tutors working in the reading clinic are given intense instruction for typically one or two semesters/quarters and rarely are given additional training after finishing the clinical course and reading clinic experience.

Another successful tutoring program popular in public schools is the Orton-Gillingham® approach to teaching reading. This approach, developed in 1966, relies heavily on the theories of reading disability developed by of Samuel Orton. The Orton-Gillingham methodology utilizes phonics skills and visual, sound and sensory learning styles. Instruction usually takes place in a systematic progression of lessons focusing on the organization of language and slowly moving towards reading. This "bottom-up" approach to teaching reading incorporates reading, writing and spelling.

Orton-Gillingham model also has similarities with clinical instruction. Both programs can work with children one-on-one and are systematic. The Orton-Gillingham approach requires training to be implemented correctly, as does implementation of any given clinical instructional model. Seemingly, the biggest difference between the two approaches lies in the skills-based, scripted nature of the Orton Gillingham model.

Although these programs have methodological differences, the similarities speak to the value placed on intensive remedial instruction given in a one-on-one or small group format. Reading clinics have long relied on small group or individualized instructional grouping for struggling readers. While research is limited in the area of clinical research practices, correlations can be made between similar programs concerning the value of working intensively with children in small group settings.

A CRUCIAL ROLE

As the training of teachers in the area of reading disability intensifies, the need for rigorous, hands-on practice with struggling students in reading instruction increases. Throughout the last 80 years university reading clinics have helped in this area by training teachers and tutoring low-achieving readers. Invernizzi (1999) has said of clinics:

> Tutoring conducted at the university clinics simultaneously fulfilled several functions:
> service to children experiencing reading difficulty, professional development for special
> education and reading teachers in training, and research on the nature of reading
> difficulties. Much of what we know today about effective reading intervention comes
> from the tutoring case studies generated from these early reading clinics. (pg. 460)

Allington (2005) echoed the idea of the importance of quality tutoring programs in the July/June issue of *Reading Today*. He stated, "Struggling students benefit enormously from access to tutoring. In fact, the evidence on this is so clear that it is one of the only two research findings that have been included to date on the U.S. Department of Education's list of gold standard findings." The key for schools is to point parents in the direction of tutoring venues that are excellent in terms of their teaching, expertise and research. It seems obvious to rely on the same institutions that are responsible for training highly qualified teachers and have met national standards for accreditation for support.

Goodlad stated "One of the weakest features we found (at universities and teacher training institutions) was the lack of adequate laboratory facilities, teaching schools should be like teaching hospitals" (Goldberg, p. 3). It would be unheard of to send doctors into a hospital to treat patients if they had never interacted with the sick. Certainly, a good argument can be made that a textbook about illness cannot take place of the experience working with the sick. Goodlad believed the same ought to hold up for teacher education institutions. Working with students in the university setting and in the regular classroom (field placement and service learning placements) becomes a vital part of helping to develop well-trained teachers. Reading clinics offer a unique opportunity for teachers to focus on and learn about helping students at the highest levels of need in reading.

In addition to the training of teacher candidates, reading clinics are often used to conduct research. The reading clinic research gathered over the past thirty years has shaped much of the reading field. Morris (2003) lists contributions made to the field of reading research directly linked to the clinical tradition of reading instruction, including: the Directed Reading Activity, Informal Reading Inventory, Directed Reading-Thinking Activity, Language –Experience Approach, Developmental Spelling Theory, Early Reading Assessment, Gray Oral Reading Test, Scott Foresman Basal Reader, Initial Word Learning Approach, Instructional Pacing Research, and many other such research, methods and approaches used widely in reading instruction today.

Clinics will continue to be a fruitful place of learning for children, university students and researchers. Michel and Dougherty (1999) suggest "it is our belief that the clinics of today are better equipped to address children's literacy needs than ever before. The field today not only recognizes, but embraces, the importance of (clinical) observation and listening to children" (p. 367). Unfortunately, the need far outstrips the availability of college/university training sites.

CONCLUSION

As this paper indicates, clinical reading instruction has undergone many shifts during the last century. Although some elements of the clinics' purpose and methodology have remained constant, the

evolutionary nature of education has shaped the ways in which teacher training on the university level is conducted.

The history of reading instruction over the last century indicates that there will always be a need for clinical reading education. This is because the clinical method provides opportunity for in-depth analysis and diagnosis of students' strengths and weaknesses, and it provides teachers with hands-on experience needed to better understand the challenges of struggling readers. Further, clinics provide a natural arena in which research questions are generated and explored.

While modern clinics have many similarities and differences, they all have the common goal of educating teachers to better deal with reading problems in the classroom. The reading clinics continue to provide interventions for struggling students and teacher training and support universities students may not receive elsewhere. Where most reading clinics differ dramatically is in the approaches or models used to instruct students.

As the demand for teacher training in reading education increases, researchers ought to look to reading clinics as an answer. The reading clinic experience, in its many forms, is one way to ensure specially trained teachers are receiving the kind of experience and training that will improve their work with struggling readers.

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Role of Binomial Phrases in Current English and Implications for Readers and Students of EFL (English as a Foreign Language)

Marie Ernestova, University of South Bohemia, Czech Republic

FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE AND READING

Idiomatic expressions, colloquialisms, neologisms, similes, and metaphors pose special problems for readers/learners because their definitions often may not be found in standard dictionaries and meanings must be sought through verbal discourse, or from specialised dictionaries which are often difficult to locate. Only real life experiences can provide full understanding the figurative meanings of words.

Until the late 1960s, teaching emphasised the importance of grammatical structure, but the 'communicative approach' developed in the 1970s clearly demonstrated the value of vocabulary and this was consolidated in the 1980s as a specific learning objective. There were two key developments at this time: the *lexical syllabus* (based on words appearing with a high degree of frequency in spoken and written English) and recognition of the role of *lexical chunks* in the acquisition of language and in achieving fluency (Lewis, 1993, Willis, 1990, Thornbury, 2002). Both developments were supported by the new science of corpus linguistics (Sinclair, 1991).

COLLOCATIONAL COMPETENCE

Corpus evidence demonstrates clearly that language is strongly patterned: many words occur repeatedly in specific lexico-grammatical *arrangements*. In support, Moon (1998) cites psycholinguistic research showing that language is frequently processed in chunks, and further evidence derives from psycholinguistic-phonological arguments, such as those of Laver (1970, p.69): '*that the tone-group is the usual unit of neurolinguistic pre-preparation'*. So, contrary to previous convention, the basic unit for encoding and decoding should really be the group, or set phrase, rather than the single orthographic word.

Research into language acquisition also suggests that language is learned, stored, retrieved, and produced largely in holophrases and other multi-word units. Both Peters (1983), observing widespread use of language routines in young children, and Bolander (1989), looking at formulaic speech in adult language learners, argue that '*chunk processing'* facilitates language processing in general and is an important way of acquiring lexico-grammatical structures. Similarly, Bahns et al. (1986) also argue that formulae play a crucial part in children's language learning and Tannen (1989) sees in language pre-patterning and repetition evidence of structure, rather than redundancy. There is even evidence that telephone numbers, postcodes and security codes are easier to remember as chunked groups, rather than as a series of individual letters or digits.

The most current view, then, is that language consists largely of prefabricated 'chunks' of lexis. As John Sinclair, Dave Willis, Ronald Carter, Michael McCarthy, Michael Lewis and Jimmie Hill (to name just a few) all suggest, the key to the formation of these chunks is '*collocation'*. This is currently defined as '*the way words occur together in predictable combinations'*. Having a thorough knowledge of a word involves also knowing the range of words it collocates with. Every word has a collocational field, or span – a range of other words with which it normally collocates. Any analysis of naturally-occurring text would show how densely collocations occur. Collocation is the key to fluency and understanding and it can considerably increase the speed of reading.

Hill (1999) distinguishes between unique collocations (*foot the bill*, *shrug one´s shoulders*), strong collocations (*ulterior motives*, *trenchant criticism*, *rancid butter*), medium-strength collocations (*hold a conversation, make a mistake*) and weak collocations (*big flat*, *good meal*). He believes that the reason why even learners with 'good vocabularies' often still have problems with using English is because they are not collocationally competent with the words they have at their command. They may know them, but they do not know how to 'chunk' them together in the same manner as native speakers habitually do. Hill claims that vocabulary teaching classrooms above intermediate level should concentrate on improving

students' collocational competence, using the basic vocabulary they already have, because it is relatively easy for them to acquire additional individual words in their own time.

Native speakers are only able to speak quickly because they are drawing on a vast repertoire of ready-made language in their mental lexicons. This is because the mind seems to store words neither randomly nor in the form of a list, but in a highly organized and interconnected fashion, in what is often called the *mental lexicon*. Similarly, native speakers' reading and listening comprehension is so rapid because they are constantly recognising familiar 'chunks' of language, some of which is actually anticipated on the basis of 'trigger words or phrases' in word chunks. According to Hill (1999), the main difference between native and non-native speakers is that native speakers have experienced more examples of the language and in a broader range of contexts. It is this alone that enables them to process and deliver language at a much faster rate than the average EFL student. He suggests that teachers should place much greater emphasis on good-quality text and conversation at all language levels, thereby enabling students to identify, and eventually reproduce, longer chunks themselves. Fluency is a natural consequence of a larger and more phrasal mental lexicon.

Hill also believes that students should learn the stress pattern of each item as a whole. As they learn more and longer lexical items, their emphasis and intonation is likely to become more correct. In order to achieve this, teachers should read aloud in class so that students can hear texts correctly chunked. Hill proposes that students should be asked to read aloud only when they have had time to prepare themselves, and also that there should be less silent reading, because students may not recognize the chunks correctly. In fact, they may be chunking quite erroneously and, if so, they will not store items in their brains correctly and, consequently, such wrongly stored items cannot be retrieved properly when needed.

Knowledge of the applicability of words in particular contexts is extremely important for real mastery of a language. There are factors that govern the rigidity and reversibility of collocations, such as alliteration, rhythm and rhyme. My paper proposes that awareness of these factors contributes extensively to predictive skills in reading and to fluency in both writing and speaking English.

IRREVERSIBLE BINOMIALS

These belong to the 'strong' end of the collocational spectrum and, from a strictly linguistic point of view we need to distinguish between *collocations* and *multi-word units*. According to many (e.g. Thornbury, 2002), collocation is not as 'frozen' a relationship as that of compounds or multi-word units. Binomials are classified among the latter.

'B*inomial'* was originally a mathematical term describing two terms joined by either + or -. In linguistics, binomial refers to dyads, or conjoined pairs, of words, unrestricted as to word-class, but normally occurring in a fixed order as 'an irreversible binomial' (Malkiel, 1959, Makkai, 1972. Fillmore *(*1988) calls them '*paired parallel phrases*'. However, there is not very much theoretical literature on this topic. The first linguist to have seriously studied it was Yakoff Malkiel. In his 1959 paper he compared the phenomenon in several languages and defined the binomial as '*a sequence of two words pertaining to the same form-class, placed on an identical level of syntactic hierarchy, and ordinarily connected by some kind of lexical link*' (1959, p. 113-160).

Malkiel suggests that binomials should not be ranked with idioms or phraseological units, as they do not meet the specific criteria for idioms. Unlike idioms, they usually represent exactly what they say *(food and drink, man and woman, pins and needles, doctors and nurses)*. Furthermore, binomials can be arranged along two scales: one grades from loosely linked or free combinations (*autumn and winter*, *bus and train*) to congealed irreversibles (*odds and ends*, *rank and file*, *trial and error*, *zigs and zags*); the other ranges from occasional to highly frequent associations. However, only when the binomial is both irreversible and highly frequent does it become a '*formula*'. Reversibility – irreversibility is caused by interplay of linguistic and extra-linguistic factors and there are several degrees which differ stylistically. Occasionally, multi-nomials occur (e.g. the trinomials *bell, book and candle; blood, sweat and tears; beg, borrow or steal*) and, sometimes, quadranomials *such* as *hearts, diamonds, clubs and spades*).

Usually, components are connected by a conjunction (*husband and wife, love or money)* or a preposition (*step by step, year after year*). Pairs linked with '*or*' tend to provide more obviously contrastive alternatives (*feast or famine, fight or flight, sink or swim*).

Factors that enhance cohesion between components may be rhyme: *by hook or by crook*; rhythm: *ebb and flow*, *in and out*, *black and white*; consonant alliteration: *from pillar to post*, *bed and breakfast*, *rack and ruin* or morpheme reiteration: *upwards and downwards*, *obverse and reverse*, *male and female*.

Rosamund Moon (1998) analysed fixed expressions and idioms, including binomial phrases, using an 18 million-word corpus of contemporary English, the Oxford Hector Pilot Corpus (OHPC). She found that the commonest pairings were:

Number of occurrences:	*Binomial phrase*:
334	Trade and Industry
165	England and Wales
132	economic and monetary
112	Poland and Hungary
111	East and West
110	men and women
93	up and down
80	political and economic
75	in and out
70	black and white

Up and down, in and out and *black and white* are clearly lexicalised as irreversible idiomatic units, although they also have their literal meanings. Moon makes some interesting observations. For instance, some purely compositional binomials, whilst not irreversible, still demonstrate preferred ordering. Thus *Poland and Hungary* occurs five times as frequently as *Hungary and Poland* in the OHPC. So maybe there are unwritten protocols or rules governing ordering.

SEMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS

Word order is usually determined by semantic factors. For example:
- important precedes less-important: *blood, sweat and tears, living and giving, power and status*
- positive precedes negative: *ups and downs, pros and cons, for better or worse, success or failure, win or lose.*
- intimate precedes distant: *ins and out, here and there, this or that.*
- small precedes large: *pins and needles, face and body, streams and rivers*
- cause precedes effect: *born and bred, engaged and married, crime and punishment*
- part precedes whole: *weeks and months, colleges and universities, part and parcel*
- religious precedes secular: *church and state, spiritual and temporal, God and man.*

The first word is typically the one considered more positive or dominant, or logically prior in some way: *profit and loss; in and out; life and death; women and children; cat and mouse.*

The first word also typically comes from a personal perspective. Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p.132f) characterise this as the 'me-first orientation'. Examples are: *home and abroad; here and there; British and French; cowboys and Indians.*

The norm for pairs involving male/female counterparts is for the male term to precede: *Mr and Mrs; men and women; brothers and sisters; boys and girls; husband and wife.*

As usual, there are a few exceptions, such as *mother(s) and father(s).* Moon (1998) quotes Murray Knowles (personal communication) who observed that his own corpus data, collected for a contrastive study of 19th- and 20th-century children's literature, showed that *father(s) and mother(s)* seems to have been the norm in the late nineteenth century, changing to *mother(s) and father(s)* in the late twentieth. Moon sees it as a diachronic shift in the paradigm, which reinforces the fact that cultural influences often underlie binomial sequencing.

The structure, then, is rule-bound, and is itself coded. Lexicalised examples meeting the binomial criteria mostly obey these 'rules': *born and bred; comings and goings; cut and dried; dim and distant; drunk and disorderly; free and easy; nook and cranny; pure and simple; tarred and feathered; to and fro.*

Another approach to classification is through word relationships and meaning:
A and B are near synonyms – *death and destruction, storm and tempest, rack and ruin;* A and B are tautological: *from pillar to post, kith and kin;* A and B are mutually complementary: *name and address, bed and board, knives and forks, food and drink, fish and chips, flora and fauna;* B is the opposite of A : *dead or alive, true or false, love and hate, pros and cons, good and evil, war and peace;* A is a hyponym of B: *days and weeks, months and years;* A is the hyperonym of B: *dollars and cents, genus and species;* B functions as a consequence (inevitable or possible) of A: *rise and fall, cause and effect.*

The relationship between the constituent parts and the binomial as a whole ranges from a literal representation of the sum of members (e.g. *mother and father*) to a figurative representation of two reinforcing elements (*tooth and nail, for love or money).* Linked synonyms – and examples where the same word occurs twice – are tautologous and, therefore, inevitably have an emphatic function, or emphasis as part of their meaning: *hand in hand, face to face, word for word, side by side, stage by stage, generation after generation,*

The same holds for many linked co-hyponyms as well as emphatic trinomials: (every) *Tom, Dick, or Harry; lock, stock and barrel; alive and kicking; bits and pieces; done and dusted; down and out; far and away; high and dry; in leaps and bounds; loud and clear; nooks and crannies; belt and braces.*

We can conclude, therefore, that there are usually 'rules' affecting the sequence of binomial components:

1. chronological priority (*now and then);*
2. socio-culturally conditioned priorities (*boys and girls*);
3. precedence of the stronger of the two antonyms (*light and dark*);
4. formal preferences based on stress/duration distribution (*fame and fortune, pick and choose*)
5. spatial proximity (*here and there*)
6. logical relationships (*hit and run*)
7. transmission through loan translations (*Adam and Eve, milk and honey*).

Antonymic binomials (conjoined antonyms) constitute one of the most interesting and thought-provoking types. Meanings are along the lines of *'everything'* or *'no matter what'. 'And'* is not always the linking word. For instance: conjoined temporals (*from cradle to grave*, *from beginning to end*, *day and night, night and day*), and conjoined spatials and directionals (*from head to foot, left, right and centre,* (search) *high and low, tip to toe, up hill and down dale*).

Moon (1998) points out that *through thick and thin* is synchronically antonymous but diachronically spatial and tautologous (*through thicket and thin wood)*: it implies universality, as does the trinomial *here, there, and everywhere.*

Some conjoined antonyms imply repetition and have dynamic meanings: *back and forth; come and go; on and off; push and pull; stop and start.* In some of these, we can see that some factors may combine, e.g. (to blow) *hot and cold* implies contradiction as well as repetition; *give and take* implies reciprocity in compromise. *Dos and don´ts, ins and outs, the long and the short of it,* have metalinguistic reference and signal a lack of precise detail (the fixed phrase is a substitute for rehearsal of those details).

Other conjoined pairs imply strong contrast: they are set up as antonymous in a particular context: (by) *fair means or foul;* (come) *rain or shine; flotsam and jetsam;* (different as) *chalk and cheese;* (as compatible as) *oil and water.*

Binomials borrowed from other languages sometimes retain their original order and thus fit none of the above categories. Carter and McCarthy (1988) point out that such ordering is language-specific and culture-specific: e.g. English *come and go* contrasts with French *aller et venir*.

PHONOLOGICAL CONSTRAINTS TO BINOMIAL STRUCTURE

Modern English exhibits a very marked adherence to the following sequence of structural elements:

- short followed by long: either a monosyllable + a disyllable, or
- two monosyllables of unequal size; and rarely
- a monosyllable or a disyllable + a polysyllable

The following paired phrases confirm a tendency for the shorter or monosyllabic item to precede: *law and order; bed and breakfast; time and money; fruit and vegetables.* Phonological constraints can also affect vowel order, with low vowels tending to come after high ones and back vowels coming after front ones. Thus:

- **/e/** never seems to occur as the initial vowel in binomials
- **/u/** never seems to occur as the final vowel

Bolinger (1976) tested rhythmic preferences in the second components of English binomials. He found that adnominal binomials favour terminal components that are not accented on the last syllable (*sweet and bitter).* He also observed that they tend to have open-sonorous syllable endings.

In R. Quirk *et al*. (1972, p. 971) we find the following note: One principle at work here appears to be that of rhythmic regularity: e.g. the dactylic rhythm of 'ladies and gentlemen' and the trochaic rhythm of 'men and women' are preferable to the less balanced rhythm of 'gentlemen and ladies' and 'women and men'.

As can be seen from the examples offered so far, many binomial phrases are also alliterative*: bed and breakfast; black and blue; deaf and dumb; feast or famine; hand in hand; through thick and thin.*

English binomials are very sensitive to phonological structure, rhythm and rhyme. Most probably, these 'euphonic' or 'aesthetic' considerations may operate here as an additional independent cohesive and distinguishing force (Klégr, 1990), along with the other 'rules' described above.

CONCLUSIONS

English binomials are numerous and form an open class; they seem to cover the no-man's land between free combinations and well-established phraseological units. They are found everywhere: in advertisements, newspaper headlines, magazine articles, in pub names, book titles, etc.

One of the major skills in the process of reading is interpretation**.** Comprehension so often involves knowing that the meaning of a word may be very dependent on the words with which it most commonly associates. As Brown (1974, p.3) claims, not only do such associations assist the learner to commit these words to memory, they also aid in defining the semantic area of a word, becaus*e ' every identified collocation is another step towards understanding the concept of a word' –* it helps the student to infer meaning from context.

In addition, collocations permit people to know what kinds of words they can expect to find together. We have certain expectations about what sorts of information can follow from what has preceded, and so often are able to guess the meaning after hearing only the first part of familiar collocations. This is another clear demonstration of the fact that we understand in 'chunks'.

Collocations are extremely important for acquiring vocabulary as well as speeding up reading, but using them as a teaching and learning tool has yet to be exploited to full potential. Failure to seriously target collocations in teaching will result in diminished understanding and competence of EFL students.

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The Position of Non-Literary Discourse in Elementary Reading

Vesna Grahovac-Pražić and Katica Balenović,
Teacher Training College Gospić, Croatia

Children come to school with pre-reading experience that has been carried from kinder garden or family. It is based on listening but listening and independent reading are different processes which have influence at different levels on reception and communication. Children come with their level of expectation which they should fulfil by reading and they should have a higher level of communication with artistic text. By going to school children start learning to read, learning standard language and systematic learning of literature.

Reading consists of number of complex processes that are not fully researched and learning also consists of number of phases and difficulties that are frequently individual. Literary discourse in learning to read has a specific feature, which contrasts with language of reality and multi-layered language by avoiding trivial and inadequate discourses. Josip Silić defines language as polyfunctionality of public communication. In this article polyfunctionality of the Croatian Standard Language is defined as a 'model of standard language that is not found in itself as whole but in its functional styles' (Silić, p. 245) . Every functional style has its rules and patterns, in other words what is correct and what is not. Because of that when we talk about styles we should distinguish system language and standard language. There are two types of language regularity: linguistic (language as system) and sociolingustics(language as standard).

Terms such as discourse and text should be defined. Text is a higher sentence language unit, whether written or spoken. Discourse includes common characteristics of texts, spoken or written. Discourse is language in use. It is a term which 'covers all aspects of communication which don't only include message or text but sender and receiver as immediate situation context' (Kovačević & Badurina, 2001, p. 18.) Discourse is a process and text is a product. Its characteristics are individualism and repetition. Discourse can be understood as an extension of text. V. Biti understands text as a statement submitted by vision of logic, semiotics, syntax and by theory of spoken acts (Biti, 1997, p, 153.). Text should fulfil seven constitutional principles: cohesion, coherence, intention, acceptance, informativeness, situationess and intertextualitiy. (Škiljan, 1997, p. 12,13). Some authors describe discourse as the meaning that the reader constructs from the text during the reading process. In other words, there is not just a single discourse but a number of discourses which can be recovered by a reader from any text (Wallace, 2000, p. 14). This definition shows a logical commitment for the term discourse when talking about functional stratification of language field as well discourse stylistics and literary discourse.

LITERARY DISCOURSE

Literary-artistic discourse (by now mentioned as literary artistic style/fictional style) has a special place in this classification. According to its nature it resists such classification. Other discourse types are determined by functionality or pragmatism. For example, administrative discourse type is defined by its function in official communication (office correspondence, political subdiscourse.) Literary-artistic discourse is not submitted to the living and social reality. The whole field of discourse is material that literature can submit to its aesthetic seeing and transformation. It makes artistic work from natural materials. Literary-artistic discourse is determined by its aesthetic nature which brings if to the literary code and literariness. We can't observe it differently and outside the literature. V.Biti defines literature as 'more or less autonomous, but differentiated praxis system of production, consumption, critical, pedagogical and scientific reproduction of texts that includes number of institutional techniques, roles and position as running of self-preservation' (Biti, 1997, p. 253). David Lodge says: 'I accept literature as an open category in a way that you can put theoretically in any kind of discourse – but under one condition that discourse has something in common with discourse which you can put out of it, in other words that is structure which shows text invention or makes text invented by reading' (Lodge, 1998, p, 26). Katičić thinks that literature is 'a special kind of transmission of information where a writer communicates with a

reader' (Katičić, 1986, p, 140) R. Jakobson, when talking about language and literature realised two kinds of language: metaphorical, connected to poetry; and metonymical connected to fiction and drama. Connection makes sense. Understanding and reading literature is not possible without this. Language of literature is code language of reality that seeks to be real. As Silić mentions, this language creates language facts. For that reason we can say that literary artistic discourse opens the field of freedom and individualism. In literature where we put this discourse, language is system which is free and individual horizontally and vertically opens to other functional discourses.

Stylistic writers discuss language standard very often but not functional texts. They also describe difference and individualism of literary discourse but not relation in the text itself or relations to other texts. Other styles are used by writers because of the need for communication and living in the reality (for example to get a job, to find scientific truth, to give a message, 'to chat' with friends, to talk at a meeting. Literary artistic style comes from the specific human need for aesthetic communication and its reception.

Very similar to this is R. Katičić's opinion that there aren't literary and non-literary texts but those that suggest their characteristics in reader's experience which makes them literary. Literary discourse makes relation between language contents and out language structures. This points out the question about metodically based literary discourse as the most specific human expression in introducing literacy.

ELEMENTARY BOOKS

An elementary book is special, being the first school book and the methodological field of elementary reading and writing is very important so "mistakes in teaching and learning made by the child arising from instruction by a teacher or parent could have big consequences in his future development" (Bežen, 2002.).

The elementary reading and writing approach is interdisciplinary and takes into consideration contemporary cognition of psychology and psycholinguistics as well as language science and literature. Elementary reading and writing is connected to the psychological level according to contemporary development and children psychology, which is very important in learning reading and writing skills. Elementary reading and writing is based on the connection of fundamental language activities: listening, speaking, writing and reading. The whole process in introducing literacy should be based on child's understanding the content of what is taught. In that way, the child is able to learn language communication as a permanent ability that develops and improves constantly. Language communication is the last aim in learning reading and writing. Elementary reading and writing as special field in teaching Croatian language doesn't have special methodology which as of now hasn't been written (there are very few teachers' books).

An elementary book is very important in education in general. It connects pre-reading with reading school period. It also opens the world of school and entry to a new life period that can be very stressful for the first-grade pupil. Elementary books by their approach make very small steps from picture book to the first learning book. It should keep a bright, relaxed atmosphere by its visual features and the choice of texts that makes learning a logical result of the child's contact with the book. Drawing in the elementary book doesn't have only illustrative purposes but informative as well as communicative ones.

Bežen (2002) states that there should be functional layers (literary-artistic, linguistic-stylistic, psychological, pedagogical) in the book of literature. By taking this into consideration we should conclude that elementary book is different from the reading book. Bežen concludes that 'in the reading books we should have not only artistic texts but those written in other styles which can be valued not only by literary-aesthetic criteria but by their own criteria' (Bežen, 2002, p. 63).

In the teachers' book by Puljak's we could find this (according texts in the elementary book): all texts should be short and easy to understand, chosen to be in touch with pupil's experience and to have correlation with elementary reading and processes in the child's environment. (Puljak, 2004). The author explains non-literay discourse that includes communicative texts "because we wanted to show the difference between communication with literary and non-literary texts. Non-literary text demands different approaches and carries different messages where convergent opinion has a more important role than in literary artistic texts" (Puljak, 2004, p. 61).

The elementary book has a special place because it starts from maternal idiom and introduces child into learning standard language, literature literacy as the base to life-long learning as well as the base to other

subjects which are taught at school. The elementary book should enable linguistic and communicative competences. "Speech and writing as the patterns of language have important roles in learning process in all subjects, not only in learning Croatian language"(Pavličević & Franić, 2002, p. 122).

It can be concluded that the discourse of elementary book hasn't been fully discussed, nor has the roles of literary and non-literary texts in the relation to introducing literacy.

NON-LITERARY DISCOURSE IN THE ELEMENTARY BOOKS

Textbook discourse includes sub-discourse types such as pupils' papers, didactic texts written by authors, teaching method texts, and popular science texts. It is very difficult to coordinate the rule of adequacy, curiosity and heterogeneousness in the elementary book. The question of discourse adequacy is stressed very often in discussion of teaching method (e.g., Furlan). Infantile, useless and inadequate texts are often found in the elementary books. Discourse functionality is very often subordinated to saturation.

Literary discourse is overlapped by figurative meaning and individual usage of language, though the cognitive abilities of a child are not yet ready for such language communication in that period. Semantic, syntactic and morphological competences of seven-year old child are developed and literary discourse demands such competence. There shouldn't be elements that make reading complex to learn. Simplicity of textbook discourse is good premise in learning reading and complexity of texts is increased by improving reading and literary education.

Seven textbook corpuses have been approved for the first grade in the Republic of Croatia in the school year 2005/2006. This number could be discussed but it is not the topic of this paper. It is about widely spread textbooks which have the elementary book as main book, with other parts supporting it.

We are about to search for non-literary discourse in approved elementary books which include already mentioned sub-discourses – in other words all texts in the elementary books that have been previously discussed as well as discourse. Table 1 outlines the presence of non-literary discourse in Croatian elementary books:

When thinking about strong place of title, we could see that method conceptions are different and the title of elementary book is not based on theory.   We have upheld the term elementary book, expanded by adjective, titles which don't suggest school discourse and rambling titles. Pictures are very prevalent, where we could connect the elementary book with the picture book.

Table 1: Non-literary Discourse in Croatian Elementary Books for Teaching Beginning Reading

Author	Elementary Text	Non-literary Discourse
A. Bežen, V. Budinski	First Steps	No
Lucija Puljak	My Elementary Book	How to make a list... When I'm alone in the house Dolphin, Parrot, Cat, Hedgehog
V. Štanger-Velički,	Elementary book, small book, 1,2	No
S.Jakovljević,I.Vitez	Reading book, small book	No
B. Marjanović,K. Lučić-Mumlek,N. Videk	My Croatian Elementary Book, A Sunny Greeting (reading book)	No
A.Španić,J.Jurić,M.Vrabec	Drop, drop, drop....Letters Fall/merry-go-round/Sun rays	The well, Who lays eggs, Advertisement
A.Pintarić,A.Peko,S.Centner	Golden Days 1,2	Hedgehog (Small encyclopaedia of animals) Phitately (The world around us) Numerous Animals
T. Zokić,J. Bralić	Secret Letters 1,2	No

The presence of non-literary discourse is not the rule in our elementary books but only sporadic one. A very few authors use non-literary excerpts but its presence in contemporary elementary books shows new consideration about conception of the elementary book as well as approaches to introducing literacy. By presenting such discourse, the principle of curiosity is not ruined. The text of non-literary discourse is not burdened by semantic difficulties but is characterised by in informativeness. The rule of vitality and inclusion of texts related to children's lives (list, advertisement, etc.) could help in acquiring the technique of reading and understanding text, and the child's encounters with literary discourse. By such consideration the school wouldn't be separated from life and reality where communication with literary text is matter of choice.

NON-LITERAY DISCOURSE IN NON-CROATIAN ELEMENTARY BOOKS

Introducing literacy as process of learning reading and writing is defined by language, tradition and school system and it is very difficult to make comparison. The question of learning how to read and the position of non-literary discourse can be also discussed in elementary books of other languages. Informative review of some foreign elementary books has shown similar picture as in our elementary books.

Table 2: Non-literary Discourse in Non-Croatian Elementary Books for Teaching Beginning Reading

Author	Country	Elementary Text	Non-literary Discourse
H.Ništović, Dž. Jahić,I. Ništović	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Slovodar	Bosnia
J. Žaček, H. Zmatlikova	Czech Republic	Slabikar	Official letter, Praha
M. Kordigel, I. Saksida	Slovenia	Jaz pa berem 1	No

Elementary books have characteristics defined by the system of primary education but learning reading takes place on didactic texts which are literary defined and domination of literary discourse is very high, no matter the level of beginning communication with literary-artistic text.

CONCLUSION

The survey of approved elementary books in the Republic of Croatia as well as informative review of some foreign ones has shown the accidental presence of non-literary discourse. This can make elementary reading difficult, especially when a child meets it in learning how to read. It should be pointed out that non-literary discourse is a pattern of literary discourse. Discourses which don't have such complexity and are present in everyday communication make reading and understanding easier. Stratification of language reality is a picture of language reality. Reading makes it possible for a child to get involved in the world, helps socialization and should be connected to the child's surroundings. It is about learning and improving reading technique, understanding and introducing literary education. It is a kind of a textbook rule to have different discourses in elementary books. Learning non-literary reading makes possible successful literary education. The process of learning reading is not finished by knowledge of graphic system and we could evaluate this process after finishing the third grade according to our school system and in some European systems even longer. Communication and reception of literary discourse is deepened by improving the technique of reading.

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Windows on the World:
The Art of Composing Meaning through Children's Literature

Thienhuong Hoang, California State Polytechnic University, Pomona, USA

Research reviews on literacy development, particularly reading and writing processes, have expanded exponentially in the past 30 years (Beach & Hynds, 1990; Marshall, 2000). The complex nature and the development of new theoretical perspectives on language and learning have yielded increasingly sophisticated questions about texts, readers, and contexts in instruction of literacy. Of equal interest are the effects that all of this research has had on what actually occurs in classrooms, how literature is treated in schools, and what insights from research might influence classroom practice in the 21st century.

In a study based on an extensive analysis of many classroom discussions during language arts blocks, Nystrand (1999) found that only about 15% of instruction in more than 100 middle and high school classes involved the use of authentic questions with no predetermined answers or following up on students' answers. There was little dialogic interaction. Nystrand (1999) writes, "…dialogic shifts are rare, occurring in less than 7% of all instructional episodes observed. One striking finding is the virtual absence of dialogic shifts among low track classes. There were only 2 dialogic shifts in the 197 instructional episodes we observed" (p. 2). Most classrooms still rely on the repetitive pattern of worksheet. Early research (Galda, 1982) discovered that readers rejected the actions of characters when those actions did not correspond to their own lived experience. Enciso (1994) connected this type of response to cultural practice when she documented how some readers might resist or reject a text that does not reflect their cultural expectations.

Other research has explored the types of textual connections that individual readers make between texts and their life experiences and/or other texts (Short, 1992). Students rarely make those textual connections—links defined in terms of shared topics, themes, or issues which are also connected to the social and cultural practices that surround them. This view of literary experience raises a number of questions. What does it signify for actual teaching aims and methods? How can teachers develop in the students a greater sensitivity to all of the related facets of literary work? What do the students bring to literature? What students' needs and interests should the teachers be aware of? How can teachers utilise the potentialities of literature to aid the students to increase their emotional and intellectual grasps, to understand themselves better, and to see human beings and society in a broader context of ideas? In short, how can teachers help the students to profit from all that rounded literary experiences offer?

It is important that teachers understand how textual connection, viewpoint, and socio-cultural dynamics interact and, ultimately, affect students' interpretation of texts. An investigation into the influence of these four aspects provided the research community and practitioners with new directions to consider. Texts, readers, and contexts, each inseparable from the other, are also inseparable from the larger contexts in which they are enacted. Rogoff (1990) states, "Instead of working as separate or interacting forces, individual efforts, social interaction, and the cultural context are inherently bound together in the overall development of children into skilled participants in society" (p. 18). Research needs to involve exploring the multifaceted socio-cultural nature of response and what that means for instruction. The crux of the matter is that literature embodies stimuli towards special kinds of intense and ordered experiences—sensuous, intellectual, and emotional— out of which social insights may arise.

The purpose of this study, using an interpretive and naturalistic inquiry, involving field observation, interviews, and document analysis, was to investigate the interrelationships of viewpoint, textual connection, interpretation, and socio-cultural dynamics and how they influenced the meaning-making process in literature in a fourth-grade classroom. Through an examination of the teacher's and students' viewpoints, emerging patterns of textual connections, and socio-cultural dynamics, a more complete picture developed of the meaning-making process and the ways in which students created and negotiated interpretations. In particular, the following research questions guided the study:

1) What effect does the interrelationship of viewpoint, textual connection, and interpretation have on the meaning-making process?
2) What is the interrelationship of viewpoint, textual connection, and interpretation in literacy events?
3) In what ways do the teacher and the students negotiate meaning in socio-cultural dynamic events such as literature discussions and book talks and how do these interactions influence the meaning-making process?

This study was conducted with the hope to illuminate the major factors influencing the meaning-making process within literacy events structured around pieces of literature. As students and teachers encounter the meaning-making process within the context of the classroom, it is important that they explore the ways in which interpretations of text emerge and reveal themselves. Teachers need to be aware of the importance of students' interactions in their classrooms and how students perceive each other as peers (Wigfield, 1997). Teachers can capitalise on and add to knowledge and experiences by structuring literacy events to explore a multitude of diverse pathways to meaning.

The significance of this study also lies in its ability to provide an analysis that addresses how schools might more effectively plan for the instruction. Focusing on the inception of personal viewpoint opened awareness as to how engagement with text begins. Observing those readers resulted in knowledge and insights on how to further engage them to participate in literacy events.

Exploring the interrelationship among viewpoint, textual connection, interpretation, and socio-cultural dynamics opens the pathway for educators to understand how students come to find themselves and imagine. It is also especially critical for researchers and practitioners because it provides them with answers to how teachers can utilise the potentialities of literature for teaching aims and methods, what needs and interests they should be aware of, how they can help students to understand themselves and the learning process better to profit from literary experiences.

CONTEXT

The context for this study was an urban school in Northern California. The school was comprised of grades K-8 with 20 teachers and approximately 450 culturally diverse students: 21% Caucasian, 22% Hispanic, 39% African American, 13% Asian, 3% American Indian, and 2% Others. The nature of this study, observing and documenting in a fourth-grade classroom, provided the setting in which to discover the interrelated and complex relationships among viewpoint, textual connection, interpretation, and socio-cultural interaction and their effects on the art of composing meaning in literature.

According to school records, there were 30 students in this fourth-grade classroom. Of these students, 12 were classified African American; 6 Hispanic; 8 Caucasian; and 4 Asian. Of these 30 students, 5 were identified as having a primary language other than English. The participants for the study included a teacher and seven students. The teacher has had 8 years of teaching experience. She has taught at this school for five years, bringing to the classroom her wealth of experience and knowledge. She possesses a broad knowledge of and experience in both literature-based and phonics-based programs.

Seven students were randomly selected by drawing their names to participate in the study. According to school records and informal observations, the seven students ranged in academic ability and in social adeptness among peers. The teacher perceived these students' academic abilities to range from underachieving and struggling, to exceptional and above grade level. Socially, the students were quite diverse. Some enjoyed peer interaction, others preferred to be by themselves. Of the seven students, the gender ratio was four girls and three boys. Four students were African American, one was Caucasian, one was Hispanic, and one was Asian.

METHOD AND DATA SOURCES

The data collected from this study included the observational data (field notes detailing participants, tasks, and responses), transcribed audiotape data (transcriptions of what the students said, level of participation, and to whom it was said), and samples of teacher's and students' work (student

activity sheets, visual representations, vocabulary words detailing the students' understandings of texts, samples of written and visual texts produced by the students, samples of written texts produced by the teacher, and responses to questionnaires). Interview data were analysed for each focal student across the different situational contexts.

The data collection process took place over a ten-week period. The study was divided into four phases of data collection, some of which occurred concurrently. The first phase was the preliminary phase, whereby the researcher observed the classroom and activities on an informal observational basis only. The second and third phases of the data collection period occurred concurrently throughout the remaining eight weeks. During these phases, the researcher continued conducting observations, interviewed, took field notes, and analysed students' written work. In the last two weeks, the fourth phase, formal interviews with students and teacher were conducted.

RESULTS

Throughout the various literacy events, the teacher and the students accessed and utilised these factors—viewpoint, textual connection, interpretation, socio-cultural dynamics—to make sense of the texts. They relied upon viewpoint to determine the direction of the event; textual connections to contribute to the meaning of the text; and interpretation and socio-cultural dynamics to decide whose interpretations would be heard and validated. The socio-cultural dynamics within a literacy event led to a student's negotiation and creation of meaning in many ways. They had an effect on the source of meaning authority. When the source of meaning authority shifted, the amount of negotiation also varied. Meaning was created and negotiated more when students collaborated as partners or in small group and the source of meaning authority resided within the peers. Since the students chose to work with each other to write a story and had the choice of topic to write about, the meaning authority resided within themselves as the writers and peers, as well as within the text they were creating.

By contrast, when individuals worked on a structured assignment such as comprehension writing, which restricted the amount of student choice, the meaning authority resided in the text or the teacher, thus distracting from intention to read and write and discouraging negotiation and the creation of meaning. Furthermore, the social dynamics, the ways students grouped themselves and the dialogic discourse, invited negotiation of meaning. Through the dialogic discourses the students engaged in, ideas were shared, background knowledge was accessed, and meaning was negotiated. Together they created the meaning of their story which empowered them to realise that meaning resided within their authorship.

Furthermore, the conditions and the situational contexts create the social structure within the classroom that provided opportunities for students to interact and influence each other regularly, thus contributing to the reading and meaning-making process. The situational contexts included the teacher's perspective, adopted viewpoint, and assigned literacy task. These situational contexts contributed to the development of a student's interpretation to engage and participate in literacy events. The student's participation given these situational contexts also enhanced the meaning-making. Experiences were shared through language. Language was conceived of as a mediating tool between self and others, one's actions and culture. As a tool, it provided the premise for thinking about how students composed understandings and meanings. Participants engaged in dialogic discourse juxtaposing their own ideas with others', creating new reverberations to connect onto the continuous chain of utterances.

Thus, meaning was rendered through culturally mediated behaviours and actions echoing ways of being in the culture. Through social interaction, the students composed their own interpretations of others' utterances and offered these newly constituted interpretations for others to appropriate as they enacted literacy events and participated in social discourse with each other regarding texts. Group discussion provided an opportunity for students to encourage and recommend through dialogic discourse whereby students created meaning and expressed their opinions and interpretations of text, thus adopting a social voice. Creative writing also elicited a great deal of dialogic discourse that reveals different interactions among peers. The nature of the event invited the signs and symbols used in the act of communication, interpretation, and negotiation. The way children worked together affected their participation in reading and creating meaning.

Besides, students influenced each other to read, write, negotiate, and create meaning from text in the unofficial peer world, which included interactions and conversations with peers in the classroom. The students responded to text with a framework of experiences, background knowledge, and world knowledge. Students created and re-created knowledge through their experiences in the other social world, the official community of the school, the enacted curriculum, and the interactions with the teacher in the classroom. As they moved between these two social worlds, they situated themselves and their place in the classroom, which was expressed through their writing and their dialogic discourse. These ideas offered a structure for observing how students negotiated and created meanings through interactions and discussions within the classroom setting.

Into literacy events, they brought common understandings and individual experiences to shape meaning. Their responding to text was an interpretive act, whereby they shared and negotiated their own creations of meaning leading to new understandings not yet presented. The responses created when engaged in a literacy event were juxtaposed with other sources of knowledge and understanding. Students created and shared textual links to make sense of texts given their own particular socio-cultural histories and experiences. Within the response are textual connections to personal experiences, personal knowledge, world knowledge, and imagination. As they encountered new ideas, both possibilities and anomalies, they searched out connections to create hypotheses and evaluate whether to test them. The connections enabled students to link ideas and discover new relationships, leading to new compositions of meaning.

CONCLUSIONS

First, the types of questions asked by teachers and students are fundamental to structuring purposeful discussions. Questions focusing on the discrete pieces of information, the factual literal level questions, are easy to ask and relatively easy to answer. The interpretive and applicative questions, those that ask the students to reflect and consider new options or ideas, are much more difficult to ask and even harder to answer. If educators are to move discussions forward and assist students in finding relevance between their lives and those of the characters they are reading, questions at the interpretive and applicative levels need to be asked. In challenging students to seek answers and interpretations to critical level questions, educators are providing opportunities to consider new directions, new connections.

Second, broadening the various participant and discourse roles students and teachers assume is critical to successful literature discussions. Enabling students to assume initiator and director roles within the discussions should encourage a higher level of engagement with texts. The students' comprehension of the text increases when they engage with the text. The way to encourage students to assume more diverse discourse roles is to suggest that the format of the discussion move into a more conversational format.

The shift in power suggests that teacher can assume various roles other than initiator and director within the discussion. One role is the participant observer. Teachers can participate in the discussion, offering their personal experiences and knowledge, but can also observe the interactions among the students. Such observations are beneficial to understanding the meaning-making process of students. Focusing on participant structures and discourse roles, the perceptions and expectations of discussions, and how students employ strategies to comprehend text allows a new direction of in pedagogy.

Third, level of interest, and subsequently, the source of engagement, did not have to do with the story lines, but rather the purposes for reading the stories. As students and teachers encounter the meaning-making process within the context of the classroom, it is important that they explore the ways in which interpretations of texts emerge and reveal themselves. Students come into classrooms with a wealth of knowledge and personal experiences to access during literacy events. Teachers can capitalise on and add to such knowledge and experiences by structuring literacy events to explore a multitude of diverse pathways to meaning. Exploring the relationships among viewpoint, textual connection, interpretation, and socio-cultural dynamics suggests that students come to find themselves and imagine others within literature.

Likewise, the teachers must stimulate their students to understand the process of sensuous and intellectual recreation. Such training is necessary to the quality of life in society. The teachers who help the students to acquire the habit of keen awareness to the colour, sound, and movement of the world around them give those students a precious possession. As students actively engage in reading and writing

events with others, they make sense of their world, create and recreate ideas, negotiate interpretations and increase their will to learn. Their curiosity ignites the desire to learn and propels them into a dynamic world which is stimulating and exhilarating.

Finally, the readers' primary subject matter is the web of feelings, sensations, images, and ideas that they weave between themselves and the text. Learning is a combination of curiosity and reciprocity which carries the individual along into learning and sweeps him or her into the competence that is required in the setting of the group. Learning what others have made of a text can greatly increase such insight into one's own relationship with it. A reader who has been moved or disturbed by a text often manifests an urge to talk about it, to clarify and crystallize his or her sense of the work.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Children develop literacy through interactions with others and participation in culturally valued activities. Educators need to know how socio-cultural dynamics affect meaning negotiation within the social structure of the classroom. With purpose and goal influencing the students' interactions, educators must make certain they assume a purpose for the events they ask the students to engage in. Since the congruence between the teacher and student's purpose or goal determines the adopted viewpoint and response, it is imperative that students have the opportunity to choose a viewpoint for reading and writing events.

The first step, then, for teachers to achieve this congruence, is to re-examine their instructional plan, philosophy of learning, ideology, classroom management techniques, viewpoint, and assigned tasks. Since the instructional plan plays such a prominent role in providing opportunities for negotiation and composition of meaning, the researcher believes that teachers must use effective teaching strategies, help students with their personal problems, create a feeling of excitement about the subject matter content or skill area, reflect a strong sense of personal caring about the students, and demonstrate the ability to adjust instruction to the individual needs of the student.

A second course of action to increase participation in literacy events is to provide many opportunities for students to engage in peer interactions with various children. Classroom interaction can have a significant impact on a student's opportunities to learn and participate in literacy events. Ways of assisting and encouraging need to be taught in classrooms. Students need opportunities to interact, collaborate, and negotiate meaning. Such experiences should allow them to lose themselves in the story and enjoy reading and writing for purely aesthetic reasons.

More events, such as creative writing, encourage peer interactions, which increase the negotiation of meaning between students. When there is a shift in source of meaning authority, which does not always reside within the text or teacher, the dialogic discourse and the amount of negotiation provides students with the opportunity to determine what an acceptable answer is and have control of the text. Proclaiming ownership of a story and transacting with the text are important components of the reading and writing processes and encourages students to negotiate, create, and re-create meaning.

In summary, teachers of literature who are engaged in the actual task of developing sensitivity to a particular art form need to be reminded that any experiences depended not only on the work itself, but on the students' capacities and readiness. Sound literary insight and judgment should never be taught by imposing the meaning of the work on the students. Teachers have to become aware of some of the things that actually affect the students' reactions; then they should be able to help the students to understand and achieve ever more balanced and more rewarding literary experiences. The aim is to make the students more sensitive to all that literature has to offer. The artist using the medium of words must make his or her appeal primarily to the senses, if his or her desire is to reach the secret spring of responses. Teachers would do this most effectively if they recall that the student's role is an active, not a passive one.

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On the Way to Teaching Writing and Literature
Vuokko H. Kaartinen, Finland

The pedagogical studies of prospective subject matter teachers in Finland take one academic year. The studies are divided into two parts: a common part, which includes lectures about learning, evaluation, educational sociology, and educational social psychology, and a subject-specific part. The subject-specific part of mother tongue (first language) and literature teachers at the University of Turku includes lectures about language learning, literature teaching, writing process and text types, media education and drama, and workshops.

In the workshops, the student practice the process of genre writing and the use of different kinds of active, critical reader response strategies and envision building (Langer 1995) using novels and other texts. After these workshops, the students work individually or in pairs to draw up a lesson plan on the treatment of a novel in class. They then try out the lesson plan in practice at the university teacher training school. They also do a study (6 points) and write a pro-seminar paper concerning some special area in teaching language, literature or writing. During their pedagogical studies, the students prepare their portfolios to be submitted for evaluation at the end of the academic year as a conclusion to their teacher education. The purpose of the portfolio is on the one hand to function as a tool to promote the skill of self-evaluation and the ability to reflect one's own praxis through pedagogical theory; on the other hand, the portfolio is a tool used to evaluate the above (Opinto-opas 2005–2007 [Curricula 2005–2007].)

The integration of theory and praxis through portfolio work is crucial, as it is not self-evident that this connection is made during the year of pedagogical studies. For example, in our studies concerning subject-matter teacher education at University of Turku, some common traits in the growth of teachers have emerged, for example the difficulty to make connections between theory and individual praxis (Kaartinen 1996; Virta, Kaartinen & Eloranta 2001; Virta, Kaartinen & Eloranta 2003).

The purpose of this article is to examine prospective Finnish language and literature teachers´ subject-specific thinking and its development focusing on teaching writing and literature. The question is: What happens to the students´ views of teaching literature and writing during the year of pedagogical studies? Firstly, the article describes the students' web discussions that they conducted after completing the writing and literature workshops in October and November. Secondly, the students' lesson plans in January are analyzed. The third approach to studying the students' thinking is through analysing their portfolios in May.

The research questions were as follows: (a) which were the themes of the web discussions (in October – November) about the teaching of writing and literature and how did the discussions move on? (b) What kind of strategies did the student use in their lesson plans after workshops? (c) What kind of views about the teaching of writing and literature did the students exhibit in their portfolios in May?

METHODS AND DATA

The whole course, 22 student teachers, i.e. prospective Finnish language and literature teachers, participated in the study. The participants had studied Finnish language and literature for 2 to 4 years before they started their year of pedagogical studies.

The data were gathered over the course of one year and they consisted of authentic study tasks, including web discussion, unit plans and portfolios.

Web Discussions

Web discussions focused on the teaching of writing (weeks 40-41, October) and the teaching of literature (weeks 44- 49, November). As part of the writing and literature workshops, both during and after the workshops, the students' task was to discuss issues concerning the teaching of writing and literature on the web (on WorkMates, our own private platform). Everyone had to make one at least one contribution to the discussion.

Unit plans

After the web discussion, the students planned a unit (3–6 lessons) in January dealing with a fiction book. They then used the unit plan to teach a series of lessons, which were reflected in feedback sessions.

Portfolios

Following Seldin (1993), the guidelines for the portfolios (turned in May) were adhered to. The portfolio contents were as follows:

- Table of contents
- Resume and/or letter of introduction
- Statement of philosophy of teaching and educating
- Writing and reading biography
- Analysis of individual growth as a teacher based on the learning log (cf. Bailey, 1990)
- Evaluations of feedback on your teaching (from supervisors/students)
- Self-evaluation: own strengths, goals
- Further visions as a teacher
- Three pieces of teaching material (lesson or unit plans, videos, assessment tools/ tests you have created with reflection) and reasons for including them

The contributions of the web discussions were analysed and divided into themes. After the web discussions, the students planned a unit (3–6 hours) dealing with a fiction book. These units were analysed according to reading experience leading and envisioning building strategies (Kaartinen 1996; Langer 1995; Langer & Close, 2000) strategies.

From portfolios, statements of philosophy of teaching and educating were studied, reasons for units or lessons, also, and finally analysis of own growth as a teacher and learning logs. The tasks of learning logs were partly free, partly structured or given, for example: *What would you like keep from your own school time, what would you like to change from it.*

FINDINGS

Web Discussion (October, November)

Figure 1 shows the topics and the flow of discussion about the teaching of literature. Figure 2 shows the discussion about the teaching of writing.

Figure1. Web discussion about teaching of writing (weeks 40 · 41)
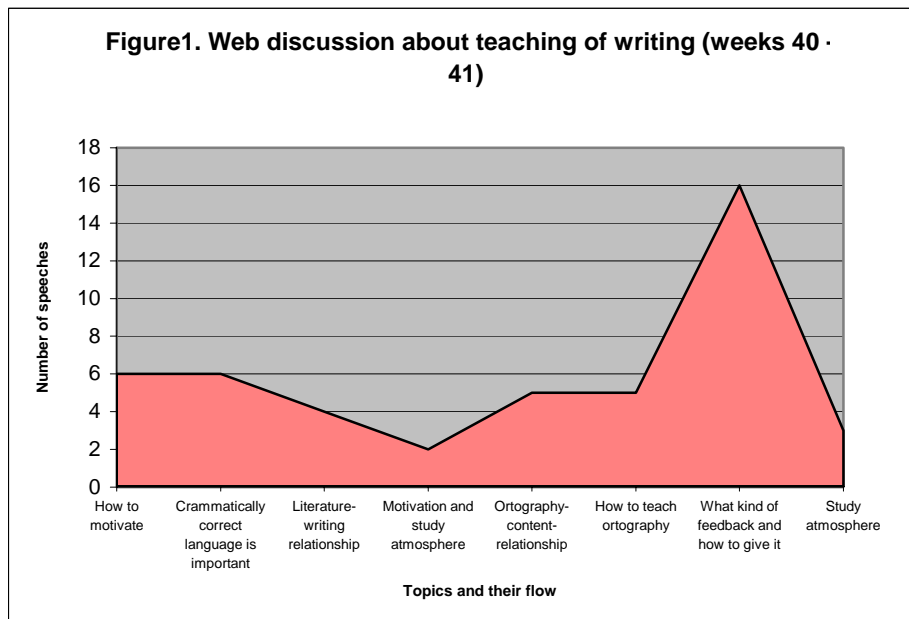
In the web discussion about the teaching of writing (Figure 1), the first discussant, dealing with motivation, stated that it was in high school that she had lost her joy of writing. Another noted that process writing might help those students who have difficulties in starting writing.

The next topic was: *"Where are orthography and correct language?"* It was obvious from the discussion that the process-orientation to writing caused some confusion. Some discussants demanded that the language be correct from the very beginning. Others noticed that the best way to give feedback is to correct the writing piece after the writer has finished writing it and not to interfere with the process of writing itself. Another discussant summarised the discussion by saying that orthography is as important as the content.

The connection between reading and writing emerged as the following issue: "I read six books in lower secondary school at least; in upper secondary school the number of books to be read during every course was 2–3. The more one reads, the easier one's writing."

After this, there was a re-take of discussion topics related to motivation. It was stated that writing is difficult, and that it is good if the teacher can help the struggling writer to move forward. For peer-feedback there has to be favourable atmosphere.

Again, the discussion returned to orthography and content and their relationship. Two opposing views were seemingly developing in the group. The one debated for the primacy of orthography, and the other was for understanding and pedagogical matters:

> *"Orthography is by far the most important feature in assessing writing – orthography, absolutely."*
> *"The basic assumption is that you can express yourself understandably. Orthography is important, too."*

The discussants then commented on the way that writing activities are organized:

> "*It is obvious that we learn by doing, but it would have been better if the corrections and improvements had been done on longer essays of a few pages rather than on a piece of writing done in a couple of minutes."*
> *"It is important that writing be practiced through shorter activities. However, all the linguistic mistakes have to be corrected."*

Towards the end, the comments focused on feedback: What kind of feedback is relevant, how to give feedback, and what kind of consequences it has. What is the good or bad impact on learning if the teacher picks out the mistakes and errors in the student's writing? The conclusion was that giving feedback is a skill to be rehearsed. The present theme was concluded by the following comment: "Feedback is important. It is important to listen to the others' texts. It is a real advantage to the writers when they can write to wider audiences, not only to the teacher – and not only for a good grade."

The final topic was classroom atmosphere. The discussion ended with the following two comments:

> *"I agree. Giving and receiving feedback is difficult."*
> *"Classroom climate and group dynamics need to be considered."*

The discussion about writing included considerations related to attitudes and skills: what is important in teaching, what is the meaning of feedback, how to awaken motivation. New views, such as the connection between reading and writing, were taken up during the web discussion. In discussions, the thinking of the whole group, the shared knowledge, was deepened and clarified. As a starting point, the group took a negative experience of one of its members and ended up with the discussion of the importance of feedback and atmosphere.

Figure 2. Web discussion about teaching literature (weeks 44 - 49)
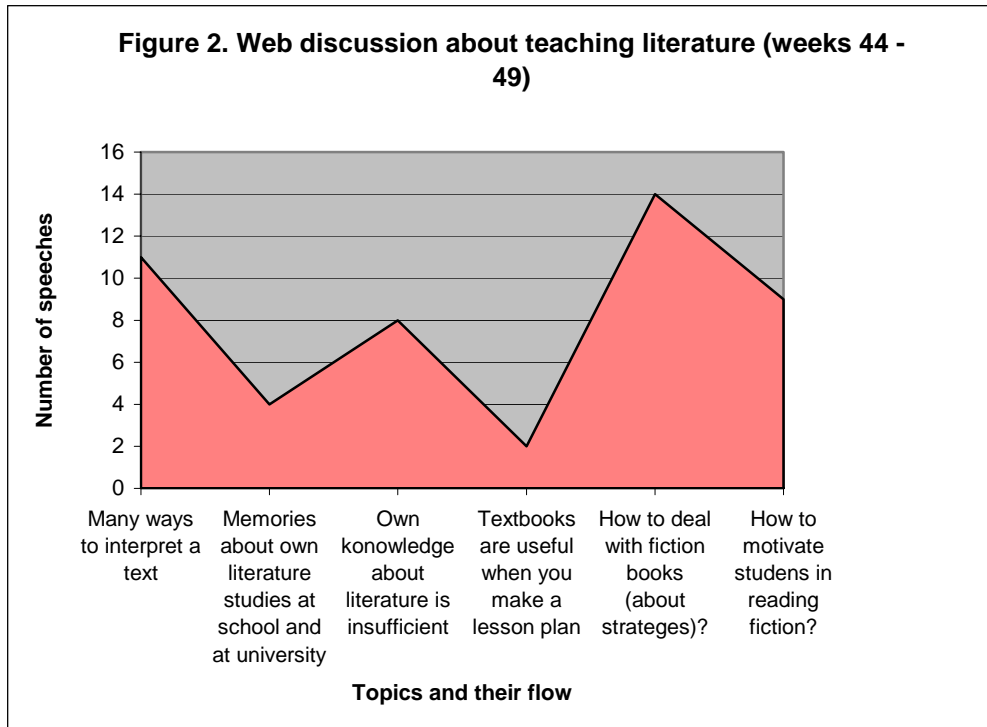
In the discussion about teaching literature (Fig. 2), the first issue was the many possible interpretations of the same text. Secondly, the group went through their own memories about literature studies at university or in high school. Many discussants felt that their own knowledge about literature was insufficient. The fifth and sixth issues concerned the nature and the ways of teaching literature. There was a general dissatisfaction with teaching nothing but factual knowledge: *"Giving facts is not enough."* On the other hand, the discussants seemed uncertain about the ways of introducing literature *"How can we best get pupils used to literature."* The discussion was concluded by sharing rewarding and motivating experiences in teaching literature: drama, films, music, group work, questions, texts close to the pupils' interests, textual interventions and discussion of what one can get through reading.

The discussions dealt with attitudes and there is some indication that there has been some change in the attitudes within the course of the web discussions. The topics dealt with individual school and university memories or experiences about one's own teaching: how to teach, how to motivate students and how help to learn. There was general agreement that it was difficult to change methods, to teach otherwise than one had been used to teaching or had been taught, although one's own memories might have been frustrating. This concerned especially teacher-led literature teaching and writing that emphasized the product and orthography.

During the web discussions, the thinking of the group became more diversified. The members of the group dealt above all with their attitudes. The discussion about the teaching of writing ended up with pondering upon the meaning of study atmosphere providing support and space for the learners. In the discussion concerning the teaching of literature, the members of this group ended up sharing teaching ideas and strategies.

Unit Plans (January)

After the web discussion students planned a unit (3–6 lessons) dealing with a fiction book. An analysis of active strategies leading to the reading experience and envisioning building (cf. Langer 1995) follows below. The students used strategies that we had used together in workshops in October and November. The strategies were:

1. Writing: textual interventions; characterization, essay on short story, essay on characters of the

novel, letter to a writer, descriptions, advertisement, book review, my fantasy land (after fantasy books), continuing a story, creating in groups a character for a story, persuasive texts about a novel (so that someone else would like to read the book); students write their own poem based on the text

2. Writing in pairs (a book review)
3. Drama
4. Discussions, group work (groups create questions to other groups)
5. Comments to the text
6. Creating images through listening to the text
7. Story pyramid

Some more traditional ways included:
1. Teacher's questions
2. Teacher-led discussion
3. Teacher clarifies things on the black board
4. Creating answers to the questions in a work book
5. finding facts from the text
6. quizzes

Writing was used for many purposes: as a tool to reading experience, making connections to the present, clarifying text types (textual interventions, cf. Pope 1995; Leppänen 2000) and the structure of the novel /short story (story pyramid), persuading others to read the book (advertisements), and thinking together. Some prospective teachers had changed their plans during practice at university school, for example, from teachers' presentation to group work. Experiences especially concerning textual interventions were enthusiastic (Gillespie, 2005).

Portfolios (in May)

Portfolios gave information about prospective teachers' thinking. One of the students described her year of pedagogical studies through four phases: *a) first shocks, b) flirtation, c) blood, sweat and insights, d) and they even pay for this!*

Dealing with school histories helped awareness: Silja wrote: *It has been interesting and a little bit surprising to notice, how I compare my own lessons to my school time. I ponder, how my own teachers taught the same things. I reflect, if I now do now 'wrong', when I emphasise different points and choose different methods. My own school history has an influence on my lessons, even I don't notice it always.*

What does theory mean in practice: applications? In autumn (on week 40) during our workshop Liisa wrote into her learning log: *I am not able to make any kind of applications: I do not understand what this means in practice in my teaching.*

Gradually, prospective teachers' attentions turned from themselves to students, their individuality and different learning habits: Nella wrote: *At the beginning of fall I only thought, how I could best go through these lessons with ease. It is enough that you can keep yourself alive in front of your class? Now I ponder also, how can the students could best learn this matter? –To awaken the students´ motivation, that is the goal, of course.*

Prospective teachers' self-confidence grew they started to trust students. Ida: *In the course of this unit I learned to trust on my students, their ability and motivation to learn independently. I also learned to trust that students will ask help, when they need it. During my unit I was able to help those in trouble. I wonder if I had been able to introduce six authors on so many-sided and interesting way as my thirty students did it themselves.*

Prospective teachers revealed their views about learning through strategies: Leena: *You can make your lessons interesting and nice, if you have courage to put yourself into the situation and if you use different kinds of methods in your teaching, for example different games and drama give inspiration to everyday life of school.*

Theory-practice-nexus: Prospective teachers valued ready-made lesson plans. They had difficulties giving reasons for their plans and making connections between their plans/experiences and teaching philosophy. In their philosophies they wrote about learning, especially about constructivism. Only some of student teachers dealt with subject specific terms (process orientation in writing, reader-response-theory etc.). Tuomo stated his thoughts in his view of teaching with greater clarity than most of the students: *My teaching view is based on constructivism. So I believe that new knowledge rests on knowledge learned before. I also believe that in order to understand a new matter the student has to process it actively. Teacher has to evaluate what students know before teaching. After diagnosis the teacher is able to stream his/her class and is able to consider, what students´ former knowledge and beliefs might guide learning the new matter. Learning difficulties are not always due to difficulty of new matter, but due to the nature of students' former thinking.*

Teaching writing: *In order to become a good writer it is important that students write often – it is also important that students get feedback often, in writing and orally, from teacher and classmates. It is also important that students learn to plan and think of the structure of their paper. It is also important to learn to revise your text. I have noticed that students have difficulties to revise their own texts. In revising, classmates can be a great help.*

In teaching literature Tuomo emphasized motivation and variation in working methods and strategies, and concludes*: Do not kill minimal interest to literature by forcing your student to read a thick classical novel. You have to proceed by short steps – – you have to emphasise understanding*.

DISCUSSION

This article gives a portrait of students thinking during their pedagogical studies focusing on teaching of writing and literature, and tries to capture some elements of the portrait trough web discussion, lesson plans and portfolios. Twenty-two student teachers participated to the study. This is a small number of participants, but after 20 years of experience in teacher education you can say, this group of student teachers was an ordinary group.

In material studied in this article teacher development seemed to go through crucial stages as follows:

1. Consciousness about own theory through own learning history. How I learn? What kind of good and bad learning experiences I have had?
2. Changing attitudes. Considering new ways/strategies of teaching.
3. First experiments
4. Self-confidence opens the way to students, their learning and ways to help it.

From the perspective of teacher education two issues above all emerged: attitudes and ability to reflect own experiences trough subject-specific theory – growing from commonsense thinkers to alert novices, as LaBoskey (1994) expresses: " - - these [alert novices] were always asking themselves whether or not their classrooms reflected their basic philosophy."

The duration of the teacher education programme for subject-specific teacher is one academic year, a short period in the professional growth, although student teachers in Finnish language and literature education have strong personal interest in writing and reading literature; they trust themselves as writers and readers, too. During their former study years they acquainted themselves with language, its use and norms, and with literature as well. So they have knowledge about language and genres. However student teachers' attitudes and ability to guide students into literacy issues a challenge to teacher education. As skilled writers and readers they have difficulties addressing middle-level or poor readers' or writers' feelings and skills. Writing own learning history was a rewarding task in the beginning of the study year, when we started to gather together matters related to statements of our philosophy of teaching and educating. This task also helped to locate where the students problems' might be.

Through workshops it was possible to construct some bridges between praxis and subject-specific theory. Web discussions deepened and widened whole group's thinking, and before all, changed attitudes.

However, as portfolios proved, students had difficulties making connections between their plans and theory-based general or subject-specific education. In portfolio work, scaffolding and modelling theory-praxis nexus were important and should be demonstrated more.

It is the task of teacher educator to help the students realise the nexus between theory and practice. We should encourage student teachers   to pondering critically on teaching, learning, and their roles as teachers. Therefore, we must think critically about our own methods of teaching.

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Opismenjavanje učenika prvog razreda usporednim učenjem tiskanih i pisanih slova

Barka Marjanović, Osnovna škola Tin Ujević, Zagreb, Hrvatska

Pisana riječ prati nas na svakom koraku: od reklamne poruke do porezne prijave, od popisa stvari koje treba kupiti do ljubavnog pisma, od Biblije do stripa, od rodnog lista do smrtovnice... Ona pomaže pobjeći iz svakodnevice u svijet knjiga i mašte, otvara dokaze prošlih vremena i omogućuje da svoja saznanja i iskustva prenesemo budućim generacijama.

Smjeti naučiti pismo, umijeće čitanja i pisanja, bilo je povlastica soljećima. Umijeće pisanja nalazilo se na prvom mjestu među sedam slobodnih umjetnosti u vrijeme antike i cijelog srednjeg vijeka. Iz škole pisanja potječe današnje školstvo i još uvijek se jednim od najvažnijih zadataka smatra naučiti djecu čitati i pisati.

Danas djeca i prije početka škole shvaćaju da se iz knjiga mogu čitati priče, okružena su pismom, mnoga nauče slova još prije početka školovanja, a neka već šaraju i «čitaju» svoja prva «pisma» premda se slova i ne mogu razaznati.

Mogući pristupi učenju čitanja i pisanja

U hrvatskim je školama danas uobičajeno učenje najprije tiskanih, a zatim pisanih slova. Tiskana slova uče se u prvom, a pisana u drugom polugodištu prvog razreda. Do učenja pisanih slova, cijelo prvo polugodište, piše se velikim tiskanim slovima. Takav se način rada zadržao još od početnice *Naš put* (Vajnaht, 1970).

Čitanje i pisanje može se učiti na različite načine. Moguće je učenje samo pisanih slova koje je bilo uobičajeno prije izuma tiskarskog stroja, ali i učenje samo tiskanih slova, nakon izuma, pa su mnogi u to vrijeme naučili čitati, ali ne i pisati. Moguće je učiti najprije pisana slova pa zatim tiskana, ali i obrnuto, najprije tiskana, a zatim pisana.

Osim navedenih načina opismenjavanja moguće je i usporedno učenje tiskanih i pisanih slova. Danas se tiskana i pisana slova usporedno uče primjerice u Italiji prema početnici *Voglio leggere e...* (Porena, Guint Marzocco, 1988), te u Poljskoj prema početnici *Elementarz* (Falski, 1983).

Usporednu obradu tiskanih i pisanih slova možemo naći i u starijim hrvatskim početnicama, primjerice: *Hrvatskoj početnici za pučke učione (1875), Hrvatskoj početnici za opće pučke škole* (Franković, 1900), *Početnici za I. razred osnovnih pučkih škola u Kraljevini Srba, Hrvata i Slovenaca (Baf, Saršon,* 1927), *Početnici za prvi razred osnovnih škola* (Pejaković, 1939), *Početnici za prvi razred narodne škole* (Franjić, 1951).

USPOREDNO UČENJE TISKANIH I PISANIH SLOVA – ISTRAŽIVANJA
PRVO ISTRAŽIVANJE

Usporedno učenje tiskanih i pisanih slova provedeno je, odobrenjem Ministarstva prosvjete i športa Republike Hrvatske, Zavoda za unapređivanje školstva, u Osnovnoj školi "Tin Ujević" u Zagrebu s učenicima 1.a razreda u šk. god. 1999./2000. Kontrolna skupina bili su učenici prvog razreda, OŠ Sčitarjevo (prigradska škola), OŠ «Matko Laginja» Zagreb (gradska škola), OŠ «Tin Ujević» Zagreb (paralelno odjeljenje 1.b razreda). Eksperimentalna i kontrolna skupina opismenjavane su prema *Hrvatskoj početnici* (Šabić, Baričević,Vitez, 1998).

Razlozi za usporednu obradu slova

Usporedno učenje tiskanih i pisanih slova zadovoljava nestrpljivost za pisanjem i koristi motivaciju učenika. Učenjem pisanih slova izbjegava se pisanje velikim tiskanim slovima tijekom prvog polugodišta. Čitaju se tekstovi tiskanim slovima, a piše se pisanim slovima što je prirodan način učenja čitanja i pisanja. Usporedna obrada tiskanih i pisanih slova usporava obradu tiskanih slova i daje više

vremena za učenje i uvježbavanje čitanja. Osim nabrojenih razloga pisanje pomaže čitanju jer pišući riječ, učenik je motorički i vizuelno prihvaća kao cjelinu pa to olakšava i pospješuje proces učenja čitanja.

Rezultati prvog istraživanja i primjena

Na kraju školske godine 1999./2000. proveden je ispit razumijevanja pročitanog teksta i ispit pismenosti u kontrolnim skupinama i eksperimentalnoj skupini. Obrada rezultata pokazala je da usporedno učenje tiskanih i pisanih slova ne umanjuje kvalitetu opismenjavanja u odnosu na uobičajeni način obrade slova, nego opravdava i potvrđuje već navedene razloge za primjenu.

Nakon prvog istraživanja, prema usporednom načinu obrade tiskanih i pisanih slova, izrađena je *Početnica* (Marjanović, Lučić, Videk, 2001) *i Vježbenice* (Marjanović, Lučić, Videk, 2001), *(Vježbenica 1* za pripremno razdoblje i prvu skupinu velikih i malih tiskanih slova, *Vježbenica 2* za tiskana i pisana slova, *Vježbenica 3* za uvježbavanje pisanja i čitanja) te *Slovarica* (Lučić, Marjanović, 2001), čitanka *Gdje stanuju priče* (Lučić, Marjanović, 2001) i *Priručnik za učitelje* (Lučić, Marjanović, 2001).

DRUGO ISTRAŽIVANJE

Nakon objavljivanja *Početnice,* prema kojoj se usporedno obrađuju tiskana i pisana slova, provedeno je drugo istraživanje u suradnji s dr. sci. Lučić Katom, višom savjetnicom u Zavodu za unapređivanje školstva na sedam osnovnih škola u šk. god. 2003./2004.

Prva OŠ Bjelovar, Bjelovar – eksperimentalna skupina
OŠ Garešnica, Garešnica – eksperimentalne i kontrolne skupine
OŠ A. Kovačić, Zagreb – eksperimentalna skupina
OŠ J. J. Strossmayer, Zagreb – kontrolna skupina
OŠ P. Zrinski, Zagreb – kontrolna skupina
OŠ Trnjanska Zagreb – kontrolna skupina
OŠ T. Ujević, Zagreb – eksperimentalna skupina

Opis postupka

Pripremno razdoblje

Tijekom prvih dana u prvom razredu, tijekom pripremnog razdoblja koje nije vremenski strogo ograničeno jer ovisi o predznanju i sposobnostima učenika u pojedinom razredu, učenici upoznaju način rada u školi, stvara se ugodno ozračje kroz igru i zanimljive aktivnosti. Učenici se postupno uvode u jasno izražavanje jednostavnim rečenicama i privikavaju na pažljivo slušanje. Globalno se čitaju riječi i rečenice, riječi i rečenice se zapisuju (preslikavaju) i analiziraju na glasove, odnosno riječi. Zapisivanje (preslikavanje) riječi i rečenica velikim tiskanim slovima ujedno je i predvježba za pisanje. Za pisanje i crtanje koristi se *Vježbenica 1*. Aktivnosti se kratko mogu sažeti u sljedeće:

1. Predstavljanje i upoznavanje
2. Slušanje i govorenje
3. Pričanje
4. Globalno čitanje riječi i analiza riječi na glasove
5. Globalno čitanje rečenice i analiza rečenice na riječi
6. Zapisivanje (preslikavanje) riječi i rečenica velikim tiskanim slovima

Obrada prve skupine velikih tiskanih slova

Slova u prvoj skupini odabrana su prema učestalosti glasova u govoru kako bi se mogle slagati riječi i rečenice koje će učenici čitati, a poredana su od jednostavnijih prema složenijima. Slovo M se obrađuje pojedinačno, a ostala velika tiskana slova iz prve skupine obrađuju se u parovima. Čitaju se i pišu riječi i rečenice velikim tiskanim slovima u *Vježbenicu 1* (što je ujedno i predvježba za pisanje pisanih slova). Aktivnosti se mogu sažeti u sljedeće:

1. Obrada parova velikih tiskanih slova (I U, E J, A N, O T) i slova M
2. Čitanje riječi i kraćih rečenica velikim tiskanim slovima
3. Pisanje riječi velikim tiskanim slovima

Obrada prve skupine malih tiskanih slova

U prvoj skupini malih tiskanih slova ponavljaju se velika tiskana slova i obrađuju njihova mala slova poštujući isti redoslijed. Čitaju se riječi i rečenice velikim i malim tiskanim slovima. Upoznaje se pravilo o pisanju imena i početka rečenice velikim početnim slovom. Piše se velikim tiskanim slovima u *Vježbenicu 1* (što je ujedno i predvježba za pisanje pisanih slova). Aktivnosti se mogu sažeti u sljedeće:

1. Obrada parova malih tiskanih slova (i u, e j, a n, o t) i slova m
2. Čitanje riječi i kraćih rečenica velikim i malim tiskanim slovima
3. Pisanje riječi i kraćih rečenica velikim tiskanim slovima

Obrada prve skupine pisanih slova

Pojedinačno se obrađuju pisana slova prve skupine (obrađena su velika i mala tiskana slova) tako da se prije uče grafički jednostavnija, a kasnije složenija slova. Pišu se pisana slova i kratke riječi pisanim slovima u *Vježbenicu 2*. Pišući već sada pisanim slovima, učenici ravnomjernije oblikuju svoj rukopis. Primjenjuje se pravilo o pisanju imena velikim početnim slovom. Uvježbava se čitanje obrađenim tiskanim slovima (rečenice i kraći tekstovi sastavljeni su tako da su sva slova poznata).

1. Pojedinačna obrada velikog i malog pisanog slova (Ii, Uu, Jj, Aa, Oo, Nn, Mm, Tt, Ee)
2. Pisanje velikih i malih pisanih slova
3. Pisanje kraćih riječi malim pisanim slovima
4. Pisanje kraćih imena velikim početnim slovom
5. Čitanje riječi i rečenica tiskanim slovima (prve skupine)

Usporedna obrada tiskanog i pisanog slova

Sva ostala slova (koja nisu zastupljena u prvoj skupini) obrađuju se pojedinačno tako da se na jednom satu obrađuju veliko i malo tiskano slovo, a na sljedećem satu (ili nekom od sljedećih sati) veliko i malo pisano slovo.

Slova su poredana od jednostavnijih prema složenijima, prema grafičkoj sličnosti i prema učestalosti glasova u govoru. Tiskana slova zapisuju se onog dana kad se obrađuju, kako bi učenici bolje upamtili oblik, a ova se aktivnost može dopuniti izradom slova od nekog pogodnog materijala, slaganjem slova u riječi na slovarici i sličnim aktivnostima kod kojih učenici manipulirajući slovom pamte njegov oblik i vježbaju spajanje u riječ. Čitaju se riječi i rečenice tiskanim slovima, ali i kraći tekstovi na kojima se uvježbavaju kvalitete čitanja. Pišu se pisana slova, riječi i rečenice pisanim slovima.

1. Pojedinačna obrada velikog i malog tiskanog slova (Ll, Kk, Hh, Vv, Pp, Rr, Dd, Bb, Ss, Šš, Zz, Žž, Cc, Čč, Ćć, Gg, Ff, Njnj, Ljlj, Đđ, DŽdž)
2. Pojedinačna obrada velikog i malog pisanog slova (Ll, Kk, Hh, Vv, Pp, Rr, Dd, Bb, Ss, Šš, Zz, Žž, Cc, Čč, Ćć, Gg, Ff, Njnj,Ljlj, Dđ, Džaž)
3. Pisanje velikih i malih pisanih slova
4. Pisanje riječi i rečenica pisanim slovima
5. Čitanje riječi, rečenica i kraćih tekstova tiskanim slovima

Usporedna obrada tiskanih i pisanih slova ostvaruje se onim tempom kojeg učenici u razredu mogu pratiti. Tjedno se mogu obraditi dva tiskana i dva pisana slova, ali ako je potrebno obrada se može i usporiti.

Rezultati drugog istraživanja i zaključak

Tablica 1. Rezultati ispita razumijevanja pročitanog teksta

	AS (aritmetička sredina)	SD (standardna devijacija)	N (broj učenika)
Kontrolna skupina	7.609	2.492	230
Eksperimentalna skupina	8.972	2.287	236

Na kraju školske godine 2003./2004. proveden je ispit razumijevanja pročitanog teksta u kontrolnim skupinama (N=230) i eksperimentalnoj skupini (N=236).

U eksperimentalnoj skupini postignuti su bolji rezultati što potvrđuje bolja aritmetička sredina (AS=8.972) u odnosu na rezultat kontrolne skupine (AS=7.609). Isto je tako manje raspršenje rezultata u eksperimentalnoj skupini (SD=2.287) u odnosu na kontrolnu skupinu (SD=2.492). Uspoređujući obje skupine prema t-testu pojavljuje se statistički značajna razlika (t=6.16) u korist eksperimentalne skupine. Svi postignuti rezultati opravdavaju primjenu i potvrđuju prednosti usporedne obrade tiskanih i pisanih slova. Ovakav način obrade slova daje više vremena za pamćenje slova i uvježbavanje čitanja. Osim toga pisanje pisanim slovima pomaže shvaćanju riječi kao cjeline pa olakšava i ubrazava učenje čitanja.

Tablica 2. Rezultati ispita pismenosti

	AS (aritmetička sredina)	SD (standardna devijacija)	N (broj učenika)
Kontrolna skupina	6.6	2.086	230
Eksperimentalna skupina	7.436	2.054	236

U ispitu pismenosti opet su rezultati bolji u eksperimentalnoj skupini što je vidljivo iz aritmetičke sredine (AS=7,436) u odnosu na rezultat kontrolne skupine (AS=6.6). Raspršenje rezultata je ujednačeno, ali ipak je nešto manje u eksperimentalnoj skupini (SD=2.054) od raspršenja u kontrolnoj skupini (SD=2.086). Prema t-testu opet se pojavljuje statistički značajna razlika u korist eksperimentalne skupine (t=4.354). Postignuti se rezultati mogu objasniti dužim vremenom pisanja pisanim slovima i dužim vremenom uvježbavanja zadanih pravopisnih pravila (gotovo cijela školska godina).

Uspoređujući rezultate razumijevanja pročitanog teksta i rezultate ispita pismenosti može se zaključiti da usporedna obrada tiskanih i pisanih slova ima više utjecaja na kvalitete čitanja nego na kvalitetu pismenosti, što je svakako primarno uzimajući u obzir veliku važnost čitanja u djetetovu školovanju (obrazovanju) i životu (cjeloživotnom obrazovanju).

ZAKLJUČAK

Za širu primjenu ovakvog načina opismenjavanja dobro bi došla potpora mjerodavnih institucija, medijska potpora, otvorene mogućnosti za objašnjavanje postupka i načina rada te upoznavanje prednosti putem pisanih materijala, seminara, radionica i sličnih aktivnosti kako bi se učitelji upoznali sa načinom rada i prednostima te kako bi učenicima (i učiteljima) početno čitanje i pisanje bilo zanimljivije i učinkovitije, a rezultati kvalitetniji.

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From Secondary to Elementary: Crossing the Bridge in Use of Content Area Reading Strategies

Sue F. Rogers, Averett University, Danville, Virginia, USA

In order to meet cut-off scores of high stakes state tests, elementary schools in the southeastern portion of the United States of America are struggling with matching teacher in-service programs to state curriculum needs. Much of the student population in this area is from homes with high unemployment, where many adults have not attended college. Many students avail of free lunch at school, and many are at risk of lagging behind in high-stakes state tests. Schools requested the help of our local university teacher education faculty in writing grants and soliciting suggestions for in-service needs as well as using faculty to conduct a portion of the in-service.

Since state assessments measure students' growth in four content areas, English, math, science and social studies at the elementary levels, teachers have been highly encouraged and funded to complete a course in Teaching Reading in the Content Areas taught by local university teacher education faculty. Teacher educators, elementary faculty and school administrators felt that such a course would benefit elementary teachers' instruction, and thus, help develop their students' knowledge and performance in the content area state assessments. State certified elementary teachers had already completed literacy courses in the teaching and assessment of reading. Now, the questions were: will the additional course of teaching reading to learn in the content areas be beneficial to elementary teachers too? And, if so, will they continue to utilize the strategies after course completion?

BACKGROUND

Benefits of a reading in the content area course have long been documented by research; as a result, Virginia (Licensure Regulations, 1998) and many other states now require all teachers in content areas at the high school level to complete a content area reading course for teacher certification. A search of the literature to see if elementary children would benefit when their teachers applied information learned from a content area reading course found much support with Mary Ann Manning and Gary Manning's dedication of a year's columns published in the *Teaching: PreK-8 Journal* entitled, "Reading and Writing in the Content Areas." Each issue featured a separate topic (Manning and Manning, 1995-96).

In the first column, Manning and Manning (1995, September) discussed reading and writing in the content areas for elementary students. They stated that children use multimedia material and multiple materials for research purposes. Children have a variety of methods available for note taking including taping, writing, drawing and graphing when researching information in materials that included videos, films, content texts, magazines and others. Manning and Manning added that children show much creativity when sharing their research and notes through drama, art, video and written reports. The authors stated that, as with older students, elementary students need to be shown how to access information in texts and on the Internet and that, with teacher help, this was achievable! Strategies such as use of multimedia materials, multiple materials, note taking, and creative sharing on content area topics researched are part of current topics discussed in texts such as Richardson and Morgan's *Reading to learn in the content areas* (2003), the course text our university faculty utilises when teaching the course for local elementary schools.

In a later column, Manning and Manning (1995, November/December) discussed using literature in the content areas in elementary classrooms. They suggest using literature books or journal articles on science or other content topics by reading and discussing multiple copies of the book in literature circles.

In addition, the authors like writing workshops to be centered around write-ups of research and to use student interviews, experiments, observations, hands-on activities, and other methods of collecting data for inclusion in written assignments. Again, getting total involvement of students in the legwork and writing of research is certainly a very important part of any content area reading course (Rogers,2002) and

text (Richardson & Morgan, 2003). Thus, Manning and Manning continued their quest for elementary teachers to have their students use content area reading strategies in their classroom assignments.

The Mannings' idea of teaching reading content area reading through the total involvement of students and use of multiple materials and creative sharing (1995 September) was supported by a study conducted by a University of Amsterdam Department of Education and Curriculum faculty group (Dijk et al., 2003). The researchers studied 238 fifth graders who were divided into experimental and control groups for math lessons in learning percentages and graphs. Teachers in the experimental group gave small groups of children problems to solve by producing a model. While developing the model, the students discussed plans and developed the model with the teacher acting as a participant of the group. As a participant, the teacher guided the students by observing, asking questions and giving instruction when needed, thus acting as a co-constructor of the model. The students critiqued their model, with input from each group member and with questions from their participant teacher. They then corrected the model with contributions from group members to what they felt would best solve the problem given to them. In the control group, teachers provided a completed model for the students when giving class instructions – without the students' cognitive exploration to design the model to solve the problem. In the final assessment, the experimental group of students significantly outperformed the control group in math concepts. Thus, active cognitive exploration with multi-materials and group work with teacher interaction was far superior for developing critical thinking skills than the passive instruction of giving fifth graders info in the content area math class.

Working toward a central concept and problem solving with total cognitive exploration was emphasized in another study by Taylor, Pearson, Peterson and Rodriguez (2003). Their study involved 88 grade 1-5 teachers each with 9 randomly selected students in 9 high-poverty schools across the United States in a literacy instruction reform project. Even though the study concerned reading lessons rather than content areas, the lessons emphasized comprehension, writing and vocabulary over the course of a school year. The assessment results found the best teachers emphasised higher order thinking in their classes such as including "think" in the application questions and not telling students the answers to questions but coaching and assigning tasks requiring cognitive engagement. Students discussed and worked on assignments collaboratively to solve problems and to answer questions in reading and writing assignments. With their input and control of the assignments, students were more cognitively motivated to find answers and to apply their knowledge in assigned tasks. Richardson and Morgan (2003) emphasise the use of instructional strategies such as collaborative groups, asking probing and other higher-level questions and engaging student in using multiple materials, literatures, and media for assignments in the content areas. According to the studies by Van Dijk, et al (2003) and Taylor et al (2003), methods which are generally associated with secondary content area reading also seem to be effective with elementary students.

Another emphasis currently discussed in content reading texts to help with students developing knowledge in subject areas is the use of thematic units (Richardson and Morgan). Manning and Manning dedicated a column to "Teaching Reading and Writing: Activities for Earth Day" in which young elementary children were involved in a themed immersion to learn the topic in science as thoroughly as possible. A tree project presented to city council was an example where elementary children could do all of the work from research to presentation (Manning and Manning, 1996, April).

Radcliffe and Howe (2002) conducted a research study surveying 193 primary, grades one through three, teachers to find which of forty-two content area strategies listed teachers were familiar with, used and recommended for use in the primary grades. The study indicated that teachers who had completed either content area reading workshops or courses were more likely to use student conferences, prior knowledge strategies, discussions, computer programs and analogies than other educators. The study indicated that the impact of professional development courses or workshops was weak as few content area reading strategies were used as a result. It found that approximately two-thirds of teachers surveyed were unfamiliar with the content strategies listed and that there was a continuous need for professional development in content area reading.

Thus, it seems that if content area reading strategies are found to enhance students developing knowledge in a variety of subjects, use of the strategies can be beneficial not only to content area teachers at the upper levels of middle and high school, but can be applied in elementary classrooms. Indeed, in a recent conversation, a second grade teacher who had completed a Content Area Reading Course at our university a year earlier, volunteered that she frequently referred to her Richardson and Morgan (2003) text for activities to use with her second graders in classroom content area work. As a new (1 year) teacher, she stated that the course and the text had been very valuable to her classroom instruction (M. Richardson, personal communication, April 29, 2003).

THE CONTENT AREA READING COURSES

In the Spring of 2000, a local elementary school invited a university professor of literacy to participate in writing a school-wide grant. After studying the high stakes state test results for local elementary schools which reported some low scores in the content areas of math, social studies, language and science, the university professor proposed to offer an in-service graduate Content Area Reading course for the preschool children who are three years old through elementary teachers for third graders. The grant was funded and the course was offered to the experienced teachers in the Fall of 2003. In addition, fourth and fifth grade teachers were invited to enroll in the course and several did. The grant paid for teachers' tuition and texts as well as other benefits such as stipends to attend some classes as well as some meals. Also, the local school system paid for the fourth and fifth grade teachers to attend. The dates, times and locations of the course were planned with teacher input during a Spring 2002 meeting. The format of the class included discussion and lecture followed by computer lab work for teachers to develop activities to use newly learned strategies during the next few days in their classrooms. Because of application of newly learned strategies in their classrooms, including the tallying and analysis of the lessons' results, there was little if any other. The course began with a preschool opening eight hour all day workshop that included lunch, coffee breaks and a stipend for the teachers. Afterwards, teachers met one afternoon per week for two hours at the university computer lab. Then, a four-hour class was held for final educator presentations and future planning and a celebration dinner (funded by the grant). Throughout the semester's course, teachers indicated they liked the course format and various educators reported weekly how they had utilized the new strategies and their student's responses.

In addition, a meeting was held between our university's teacher education department and school administrators of another school system in December 2001. After hearing about the content area reading course to be offered to another school system's elementary teachers in one school and the reasons supporting the teaching of the course, this school system asked for the course to be offered to their teachers. Again, the school system agreed to pay tuition for teachers and host the course location on site in an intermediate (grades 3-5) level local school to encourage the school system's teachers to attend (personal conversations, December 17, 2001). The course would be offered one night per week selected by the school system with input from educators, from 4-8:30 pm for eight weeks beginning in January in the Spring semester of 2003. Also, this course included a combination of discussion and lecture followed by computer lab work each night. This course stated in January, immediately following the first requesting school system's Fall 2002 course. In addition, interested educators in another local school system and in private schools were offered the opportunity to enroll in the second course beginning in January 2002.

For both courses in separate school systems, at the end of the for the last class meetings in December of 2002 and in March, 2003, educators reported much student success with the strategies studied and utilized in their classroom during both courses. In addition, each teacher wrote a syllabus for the Spring semester incorporating content area strategies into either a social studies, math, language or science subject. During the final class of each course, the instructor reported and the teachers discussed material found in Lyons and Pinnell's book, *Systems for change in literacy: A guide to professional development* (2001), stating that though educators participated in much in-service work, few make real changes in their teaching. To remedy this, Lyons and Pinnell made suggestions, one of which was for teachers to form study groups to follow up on their in-service work. Thus, on the final class night,

teachers formed study groups and made plans to follow-up on the course. The teachers were requested to set a date, location, time and agenda for the first study group meeting within approximately 6 months following the completion of the course. Each study group's plans were then shared with the class. Afterwards, the instructor informed the teachers that they would be included in a study. The researcher wondered if these educators' students would continue to respond positively to strategies used, and whether the educators would work in the planned study groups to further refine the strategies utilized and encourage each other in their development of content area reading strategies?

       This research will report the results of a survey of the teachers enrolled in the course to determined if preschool through elementary teachers will actually use the content area strategies studied and planned for in their syllabi the semester or remaining portion of the Spring semester following the course. Hopefully, if they do, other questions will be answered such as how their students have benefited and if the study groups met and were effective. Results, hopefully, will show a positive trend in use, upgrading and adaptation of strategies and sharing of information among educators!

METHOD

Participants

       Seventeen educators were invited to participate in the study. One class consisted of twelve educators with ten taking the course for three hours of graduate credit and the remaining two for workshop credit. Thus, the ten elementary teachers enrolled for graduate credit and completed all assignments were utilized for the study. Also, this school received a grant for teachers to begin an intensive Montessori training program and the content area reading course was a part of the grant. The Montessori program began with the Preschool through kindergarten programs at the same time as the Teaching Reading in the Content Areas course. Thus, three preschool teachers were implementing Montessori techniques in their classrooms as well as content area strategies that we were covering in our class. The seven remaining teachers in that first course continued to use traditional instructional methods when implementing content area reading strategies (P. Hawkins, personal conversation, May 29, 2003).   In the second course in another school system, all eight educators were taking the course for three hours of graduate credit. However, one teacher was a high school teacher and not included in this study of elementary teachers. In addition, one of the class members was a school administrator, but did have involvement with elementary teachers in the course; thus, this educator was included in the study for the second course, which had seven educators involved.

       Of the seventeen educators in the courses and for Survey I, the number representing each grade level or specialty were: three preschool teachers (teaching 3 year old children using a Montessori program), one teacher representing kindergarten, two for second grade, one for third grade, five for fourth grade, one for fifth grade, one reading teacher for grades kindergarten through third, two special service teachers both working with all elementary grades kindergarten through fifth, and one central office administrator who worked with all levels of elementary teachers. Educators were from four different schools and one central office representing three school systems and one private school (this educator requested to take the course—her tuition was prepaid by a scholarship award that she had received for graduate studies in education).   All of the participants were in their original job placements when Survey l was completed. However, when Survey 2 was mailed in May 2004, at least three of the seventeen teachers had moved to other schools. However, Survey 2 was forwarded to the teachers and one responded that she was teaching in another state. In addition, two teachers indicated instructional changes – one to implementing the Montessori curriculum in her classroom and another from a second grade position to a third.

Apparatus

       The survey instrument contained seven parts on information learned in the content area course with multiple statements in each for respondents to rate with one of three ratings: a 1 if they did not use the listed item at all, a 2 if they used/or did the listed item some of the time or year, and a 3 if they used or did the listed item most of the time or year.

Educator planning was the first part with seven listed activities for educators to indicate levels of use. The second, third, fourth and fifth parts included activities for each phase of the PAR (Richardson & Morgan, 2003) lesson plan format. Part two of the survey, the preparation phase of the lesson, has eight items. The assistance phase of the lesson has two parts; part three with eight items on vocabulary instruction and part four with 12 items on comprehension for a total of 20 items. The fifth part for the reflection portion of the lesson contains twelve items on reflection, assessment and evaluation strategies. In addition, educators had spaces to add items not listed. The sixth part contains eight items for educators to indicate their opinions on the long-term effects of the course. The final seventh part was for educators to indicate the general (lower or upper) level of elementary children worked with in their schools and finally, a space for any comments.

Procedure

On the final class night for each course, educators were given two envelopes to self-address and told the instructor would send a survey to them over the next one to two years to find which content area strategies continued to be useful. Thus, in May 2003, only two months following the second course and five months after the first, the first survey was mailed to each elementary teacher with a cover letter of greeting, instructions and information on how the findings would be used. Teachers were requested not to give identifying information but assured that any identifying information whether given purposely or inadvertently would be kept anonymous. Also, each survey envelope mailed contained a stamped and self-addressed envelope for educators to return the survey within three days of receiving it if possible. The course instructor set a cut-off date for two weeks later by the end of May 2003. The same procedure and dates were used for Survey 2 in May 2004.

The instructor tallied the surveys and calculated the percentages for each of the three ratings for each item in each survey part. During the course, educators were urged to use multiple materials, media and strategies. Thus, the researcher felt that if educators followed the course teachings, they would not necessarily utilize strategies all the time or all year long, but would implement a variety. Therefore, percentages of usage were analyzed by collapsing the tables to combine ratings one and two for an overall view of which strategies   50 percent or more of the educators were implementing either some or most of the time. Again, the same procedure was used for tallying Survey 2.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

Twelve of the seventeen surveys or 71% were returned by the cutoff date for Survey 1. The majority of respondents were preschool through second grade teachers and one was an educator for both upper and lower elementary levels. For Survey 2, ten of the seventeen surveys or 59% were returned by the cutoff date. There was an even split of respondents teaching preschool through second grade and those teaching upper elementary levels with one educator teaching in both levels and one did not respond with a level.

Survey Categories

Educator planning. For both surveys, of the seven items in educator planning, a 50% of educators utilize five or 71 percent of items at least some of the time. The most useful strategies, those receiving the most teacher responses with 75-100 percentages of use, were adding the state curriculum objectives into their lesson plans, including in the objectives products that students must produce to prove knowledge of the objectives and using a PAR (preparation, assistance and reflection) (Richardson & Morgan, 2003) lesson plan format. However, even thought half of the respondents reported using their syllabus for one course that they teach in Survey 2, this was a full 25% fewer than had reported doing so a year earlier in Survey 1.

Preparation, assistance and reflection activities. In eight preparation activities listed, for both surveys, a majority of educators used all eight or 100 percent in their instruction following the content area reading course. In both years, for all items 70% or more respondents utilized all activities to motivate, activate and assess students' background knowledge of topics at the beginning of a lesson.

Again, on both surveys, for part three with eight vocabulary activities listed, a majority of educators responded that they utilized all eight or 100 percent of the items when teaching. Those used by most educators (83% to 100%) were hands-on-activities for vocabulary instruction and games for vocabulary practice.

For the surveys' fourth part, the first 5 items on comprehension three items – using study guides for reading comprehension and for test preparation and using three types of questions were used by a majority of teachers in both surveys. Study guide use for listening comprehension was used by half of the respondents in both surveys and by year two, the number of teachers using study guides for students who have been absent was up to half of the respondents. A majority of teachers reported using multimedia, materials, text and literature in both years. Also, a majority reported using expository written expression strategies as well as short in-class written assignments. However, for both years, only half the teachers reported using research for written expression and by the second year, only half of the teachers involved their students working in groups for written expression even though a majority reported using groups in their classrooms in both surveys.

For Survey 1 a majority of teachers responded that they used four scoring rubrics, student portfolios, conferencing with students and working more with parents in the reflection/assessment/evaluation category (fifth category). This number was up to six of the items by the second year, three of the same items—rubrics, student portfolios and conferencing with students and but three additional items—student portfolios containing tests, tests with more varied questions, and teachers writing more notes to students about their work. So, it seems that teachers interacted more with students about their quality of work during reflection and assessment. However, by Survey 2 the number of teachers working with parents on academic materials that children could use at home was declining.

Value of course. In the sixth category, of the eight items, a majority of educators said that 6 of the items were true in both surveys. Those items receiving the highest ratings (levels of agreement) in both years were that the students' grades had improved, students' organization skills were better, the course had been helpful to the educators' instruction, the course had improved their instructional organization, the course had been helpful for their students' academic accomplishments, and teachers' spend more time in planning, instruction and evaluation. Although one-half of the teachers in Survey 1 responded that they met periodically with their colleagues in their study groups to discuss the courses' content area strategies and improvement of the strategies, this was down to 40% by Survey 2. Also, in Survey 2, 50% of the teachers reported students' high-stakes scores were better, which was slightly lower than respondents reported in Survey 1.

Comments on Survey I included those by two teachers who indicated that they were proceeding slowly and testing the strategies a little each time and a comment by one teacher to the effect that she was not using the strategies in her Kindergarten class. In Survey II, one teacher indicated not using many content strategies as she had adopted a new Montessori curriculum in her classroom and was trying to learn that curriculum and then find ways to add the content strategies in. Finally, one teacher reported that the survey reminded her of the many strategies and was motivating her to remember to use them the next school year.

CONCLUSIONS

A number of conclusions can be drawn from the survey results. The most obvious is that educators overwhelmingly responded that the course was useful to them in planning, organization and instruction, and helpful for their students' organization and grades but not necessarily for their higher high-stakes test scores. Aspects of PAR (Richardson & Morgan, 2003) that teachers used consistently included preparation and assistance strategies, especially the vocabulary strategies, reading comprehension strategies (using the study guides with three types of questions) and use of multi-materials and some grouping. However, more grouping and more research work may be needed for developing written expression. More reflection strategies were used during the second year following the course and especially in non-traditional and non-graded areas of teacher-student conferencing and notes. Educators continued to spend more time in planning, instructing students and on evaluation. Another conclusion is

that the number of teachers finding the study groups helpful by still meeting declined during the second year following the course.

In considering the conclusions, two final implications for the course instructor can be drawn. One is that the PAR (Richardson and Morgan, 2003) lesson plan format certainly seems to be applied and liked by teachers who continue to use all parts of it. In the first survey, reflection strategies were not utilized as much but this changed by Survey 2, with increased use. Thus, continuing teaching this lesson plan format seems to be very important. The second implication for the instructor is to request study groups to plan their first meetings soon after the course ends and to make them easily accessible for teachers. Since 40 percent of respondents felt the study groups were effective an earlier first meeting, including the development of an agenda, seems warranted. The study groups can provide mutual support in applying forgotten content area strategies, sharing how to alter those that have been used, and studying to learn new ones.

One limitation of the study is that several of the teachers in first course were involved in teaching a Montessori curriculum and several have very young (preschool) children in their classrooms. Thus, they may not have had the time to adjust to their new curriculum and to add the content area course strategies too. This was perhaps not the best time for them to take a content area course when they were studying and implementing a new curriculum. This may have affected the surveys results.

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Perceptions of Reading Strategy Use Among the Freshman EFL Students in Eastern Mediterranean University

Ayşegül Salli, Eastern Mediterranean University, Cyprus

The use of reading strategies carries great importance for the comprehension of a text. Therefore, conscious application of reading strategies may take place after conscious strategy training in class. Although training should take place in the early stages of reading instruction, necessary instruction should be provided at any stage. In this study, the goal was to discover whether students in their freshmen year at a university use reading strategies when they read either academic or non-academic texts in English. To carry out the study, 340 students from Faculty of Engineering and Faculty of Arts and Sciences were distributed a questionnaire. The results show that students in their freshmen year are conscious readers. Nonetheless, the results also revealed that approaches to instruction also impact on the use reading strategies as students in the Faculty of Arts and Science employed more reading strategies than the student in the Faculty of Engineering.

Reading strategies are defined as "intentional, deliberate or conscious actions that readers take" to understand any text (Sheorey & Edit, 2004). Until now, fifteen strategy categories were developed and tested, based on a classification system proposed by Oxford (1990), Rubin(1981) and O'Maley & Chamot (1990). These are presented as "cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, memory strategies, compensatory strategies, affective strategies and social strategies" (Anderson, 2003). Later, Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) and Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) devised an instrument that measures matacognitive strategies. These strategies are divided into three broad categories: Global, Problem Solving and Support reading strategies. These are defined by Sheorey and Edit (2004) as follow: Global reading strategies "are those intentional, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor their reading and are oriented toward an overall analysis of the text, such as having a purpose in mind, previewing the text, or using typographical aids". Problem solving strategies "are the procedures used by readers while working directly with the text, such as adjusting one's speed of reading when the material becomes difficult or easy, guessing the meaning of unknown words, and re-reading the text to improve the comprehension". Support strategies "are basic support mechanisms intended to aid the reader in comprehending the text such as using dictionary or highlighting textual information".

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The aim of this research was to investigate the perceived reading strategies used by the freshman-level students at a university when they read either academic or non-academic texts in English. The university is an English-medium university in Cyprus. The students of the university are mainly from Turkey and Cyprus. Also, there are some students from Iran, Pakistan, Russia and African countries.

Research Questions

The purpose of the research was to discover which reading strategies the students employ when they are exposed to any text in English. Another intention was to find out whether students' language proficiency, reading ability and their major subject of study influence the number and frequency of practice of those strategies. The following research questions were set:

1. What reading strategies do freshmen students think they use when reading academic and/or non-academic materials?
2. Is there any relationship between freshmen students' reported reading strategy use and
   a. self-rated English proficiency;
   b. self-rated reading ability in English; and
   c. major subject of study?

Participants

      Participants of this study were 340 freshman-level students from the faculties of Engineering (Civil, Computer, Industrial, Mechanical and Electrics and Electronics Engineering departments) and Arts and Science (ELT and ELH departments). Out of 340 participants, 236 were male and 104 were female. 262 participants were from the Faculty of Engineering and 78 participants were from the Faculty of Arts and Science. 235 students were from Turkey, 55 were from North Cyprus, 22 were from Iran, 19 were from African countries, 7 were from Pakistan, and 2 students were from Russia.

Questionnaire

      In order to collect data, a questionnaire, which has 3 parts, was devised. In the first part, background information on age, gender and the department was collected; the second part looked into how long students have been studying English, their self-rated language proficiency and reading ability. The third part, which was adapted from Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Sheorey & Edit, 2004) and Online Survey of Reading Strategies (OSORS) (Anderson, 2003), specifically intended to discover the perceived use of reading strategies. In this part 26 items, each of which has a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always), were presented to the participants. The last part covered three broad categories of reading strategies – Global (GL), Problem Solving (PS) and Support (SP) reading strategies.

DATA ANALAYSIS

Analysis of the Questionnaire

      In order to collect data for all of the research questions, Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. To obtain information on the participants, frequencies and mean scores were looked at. According to the results, mean age of the participants was around 20 and on average, students had studied English little over 7 years. Students rated their English language proficiency and reading ability on a five point scale, which was later divided into two and called 'average' and 'above average'. The mean rating for language proficiency was 3.76 and reading ability was 3.67.

      In order to discover which strategies the students use, frequencies were compluted. According to results, the mean scores on the strategy items ranged from a high of 4.35 to a low of 2.28. The overall mean for the instrument turned was 3.64 which indicate a considerable reading strategy use among students.

      Table 1 shows the top 10 strategies used by the students. As can be seen from the table, the most frequently used strategies are Problem solving (PS) and Global strategies (GS). From the results, it can be concluded that students are aware of benefits of using certain strategies both before and while reading in order to facilitate and maximize their understanding. The mean values for the individual items confirm that the most of the students are frequent users of those strategies.

      Table 2 shows the 10 strategies least used by students. From the table, it can be interpreted that the least used strategies are the ones that a reader employs in order to support his/her comprehension of a text. Considering the mean values of self-rated language proficiency (M= 3.76) and reading ability (M=3.62) having support strategies towards the end of the list verifies that most of the students are able to employ Problem solving and Global reading strategies which requires having good command of English and deliberate actions in order to get the most of the meaning out of a text. The results show that maximum 15 % of students need support strategies which also can be interpreted as two third of the participants are proficient readers.

Items	Cat.	Always	Usually	Some times	Rarely	Never	Mean
When the text becomes difficult, I read it again to increase my understanding	PS	175 (51.5%)	120 (35.3%)	36 (10.6%)	6 (1.8%)	3 (0.9%)	4.3471
I pay attention to words/sentences in bold and italics to identify key information	GL	178 (52.4%)	97 (28.5%)	46 (13.5%)	10 (2.9%)	9 (2.6%)	4.2500
When the text becomes difficult, I read more carefully	PS	167 (49.1%)	113 (33.2%)	43 (12.6%)	11 (3.2%)	6 (1.8%)	4.2471
Before reading, I look at the title and try to guess what the text is about.	GL	143 (42.1%)	128 (37.6%)	51 (15%)	10 (2.9%)	8 (2.4%)	4.1412
I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading.	PS	148 (43.5%)	115 (33.8%)	59 (17.4%)	13 (3.8%)	5 (1.5%)	4.1412
If there are any figures/pictures/ heading/sub-headings, etc. in the text, I look at them in order to get a general understanding of text before reading.	GL	138 (40.6%)	127 (37.4%)	54 (15.9%)	12 (3.5%)	9 (2.6%)	4.0971
I try to guess the meaning of unknown words in the text.	PS	122 (35.9%)	142 (41.8%)	62 (18.2%)	11 (3.2%)	3 (0.9%)	4.0853
When I lose my concentration I try to focus again and continue reading.	PS	106 (31.2%)	142 (41.8%)	53 (15.6%)	22 (6.5%)	17 (5%)	3.8765
Before I start reading, I decide on the purpose for reading.	GL	115 (32.6%)	122 (35.9%)	66 (19.4%)	28 (8.2%)	13 (3.8%)	3.8529
I use a bilingual (English – English) dictionary.	SP	121 (35.6%)	105 (30.9%)	59 (17.4%)	44 (12.9%)	11 (3.2%)	3.8265

Cat. = category; PS= Problem Solving Strategies; GL= Global Strategies; SP= Support Strategies

Significance of Differences

In order to reveal whether the number and frequency of use of reading strategies are influenced by language proficiency, reading ability and subject matter of study, independent t-test was run.

Participants were asked to self-rate their language proficiency on a scale from elementary to advanced. For the purpose of t-test, the scale was divided into two as 'above average group' and 'average group'. The group of above average (N=277) had mean value with 3.71. On the other hand, the group with average language proficiency had 3.53 mean value. The difference was statistically significant (Table 3). As for the individual strategies, out of 26 items, 12 strategies were significantly different (p<.05).

Items		Always	Usually	Someti mes	Rarely	Never	Mean
I set a time limit for reading.	GL	21 (6.2%)	30 (8.8%)	88 (25.9%)	84 (24.7%)	117 (34.4%)	2.2765
When the text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	SP	42 (12.4%)	51 (15%)	71 (20.9%)	79 (23.2%)	97 (28.5%)	2.5941
I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	SP	43 (12.6%)	56 (16.5%)	98 (28.8%)	81 (23.8%)	62 (18.2%)	2.8147
I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to understand what I read better.	SP	52 (15.3%)	84 (24.7%)	103 (30.3%)	59 (17.4%)	42 (12.4%)	3.1324
I try to guess what I will be reading in the coming lines/paragraphs in the text.	GL	63 (18.5%)	111 (32.6%)	89 (26.2%)	44 (12.9%)	33 (9.7%)	3.3735
I read (skim) the text very quickly to see what it is about before reading.	GL	69 (20.3%)	102 (30%)	92 (27.1%)	47 (13.8%)	30 (8.8%)	3.3912
I check if my guesses about the text are right or wrong	GL	67 (19.7%)	121 (35.6%)	77 (22.6%)	41 (21.1%)	34 (10%)	3.4294
While reading, I decide what to read carefully and what to ignore/skip.	GL	73 (21.5%)	110 (32.4%)	87 (25.6%)	40 (11.8%)	30 (8.8%)	3.4588
I use reference materials (e.g. dictionary, Internet, encyclopedia) to help me understand what I read.	GL	85 (25%)	96 (28.2%)	85 (25%)	54 (15.9%)	20 (5.9%)	3.5059
I can distinguish between fact and opinion in texts.	PS	82 (24.1%)	116 (34.1%)	88 (25.9%)	36 (10.6%)	18 (5.3%)	3.6118

Cat. = category; PS= Problem Solving Strategies; GL= Global Strategies; SP= Support Strategies

Table 3: T-test Results of Self-rated English Proficiency

Variable	N	Mean	t-	df	p<.05
Self-Rated English Proficiency					
Average group:	133	3.53	-3.22	388	.001
Above- average group:	277	3.71			

Participants were asked to self-rate their reading ability in English on a five point scale from Elementary to Advanced. They were divided into two as 'average reading ability' group who rated their reading as elementary, pre-intermediate and intermediate (N=150), and 'above average reading' ability group (N=190) who rated their reading as upper-intermediate and advanced. The above average reading ability group has a higher significantly higher mean value (M=3.72) than the average reading ability group (3.53) (Table 4). Significant differences were found in 14 individual reading strategies.

Table 4: T-Test Results of Self-Rated Reading Ability in English

Variable	N	Mean	t-	df	p
Self-Rated Reading Ability in English					
Average group:	150	3.53	-3.54	338	.000
Above average group:	190	3.72			

In order to reveal whether major subject of study has an impact on the strategies that students employ, students were grouped into Faculty of Engineering and Arts & Science according to their subject major of study. The students in Arts & Science had higher means than the students in the faculty of engineering. However, significant differences were found in only 9 strategies out of 26.

Table 5: T-Test Results by Major Subject of Study

Variable	N	Mean	t-	df	p
Faculty					
Engineering	262	3.59	-3.20	338	.002
Arts & Science	78	3.79			

In Table 6, independent t-test results for each learning strategy on three categories of language proficiency, reading ability and faculty are displayed.

DISCUSSION

Overall, the results of the research show that the freshman-level students report significant use of reading strategies of which can be described as global and problem solving, and often imply conscious reading. Students are aware of certain strategies such as setting a purpose before reading, looking at the pictures and titles, predicting the up-coming information, and going back and forth while reading, and they employ these strategies as needed. The results show that the least-used strategies are support strategies such as using paraphrasing or restarting in one's ideas and taking notes. The results correspond with self-rated proficiency where the overall mean indicates that students are around upper intermediate level.

T-Test Results of the Impact of Language Proficiency, Reading Ability and Major Subject of Study on the Use of Reading Strategies

Strategies	LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY				READING ABILITY			FACULTY			
	Groups	Mean	t	p	Mean	t	p	Fac.	Mean	t	p
Deciding on a purpose before reading.	Avg.	3.86	.160	.873	3.79	-1.001	.317	Eng.	3.78	-2.210	.028*
	Ab. avg.	3.85			3.91			A&S	4.09		
Looking at titles to guess the topic	Avg.	4.10	-.683	.495	4.00	-2.481	.014*	Eng.	4.06	-2.630	.009*
	Ab. avg.	4.17			4.25			A&S	4.38		
Using text features (e.g., figures, pictures) for general understanding	Avg.	4.05	-.678	.498	4.01	-1.419	.157	Eng.	4.02	-2.474	.014*
	Ab. avg.	4.13			4.16			A&S	4.33		
Skimming to note text characteristics	Average	3.20	-2.321	.021*	3.19	-2.713	.007*	Eng.	3.31	-2.313	.021*
	Above avg.	3.51			3.55			A&S	3.67		
Linking text/topic to experience for better understanding	Average	3.56	-2.169	.031*	3.58	-2.143	.033*	Eng.	3.67	-1.336	.182
	Above avg.	3.81			3.82			A&S	3.85		
Reading slowly and carefully	Average	4.17	.501	.617	4.09	-.954	.341	Eng.	4.11	-1.239	.216
	Above avg.	4.12			4.18			A&S	4.26		
Reading aloud when text becomes difficult	Average	2.51	-.898	.370	2.55	-.490	.625	Eng.	2.44	-4.029	.000*
	Above avg.	2.65			2.63			A&S	3.13		
Trying to stay focused when reading	Average	3.74	-1.815	.070	3.72	-2.392	.017*	Eng.	3.91	1.000	.318
	Above avg.	3.96			4.00			A&S	3.77		
Deciding what to read carefully and what to ignore/skip	Average	3.21	-2.993	.003*	3.23	-3.111	.002*	Eng.	3.41	-1.311	.191
	Above avg.	3.61			3.64			A&S	3.62		
Paying close attention to reading	Average	4.14	-1.678	.094	4.09	-2.885	.004*	Eng.	4.21	-1.506	.133
	Above avg.	4.31			4.37			A&S	4.38		
Setting a time limit for reading	Average	1.98	-3.656	.000*	2.05	-3.257	.001*	Eng.	2.15	-3.433	.001*
	Above avg.	2.46			2.46			A&S	2.68		
Taking notes while reading	Average	2.59	-2.594	.010*	2.65	-2.183	.030*	Eng.	2.67	-3.887	.000*
	Above avg.	2.95			2.95			A&S	3.29		
Using a (e.g., bilingual Eng. to Eng.) dictionary.	Average	3.98	2.170	.031*	3.97	2.151	.032*	Eng.	3.88	1.532	.128
	Above avg.	3.72			3.71			A&S	3.64		

p< .05

Table 6 (continued):
T-Test Results of the Impact of Language Proficiency, Reading Ability and Major Subject of Study on the Use of Reading Strategies

Strategies	Groups	LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY Mean	t	p	READING ABILITY Mean	t	p	FACULTY Fac.	Mean	t	p
Using reference materials (e.g., Internet, encyclopedia, etc.)	Average	3.49	-.212	.832	3.46	-.629	.530	Eng.	3.51	.157	875
	Above avg.	3.52			3.54			A&S	3.49		
Guessing meaning of unknown words	Average	4.00	-1.333	.183	3.99	-1.770	.078	Eng.	4.05	-1.248	.213
	Above avg.	4.14			4.16			A&S	4.19		
Underlining key words and/or phrases	Average	3.59	-.851	.396	3.59	-.865	.388	Eng.	3.54	-3.349	.001*
	Above avg.	3.70			3.71			A&S	4.05		
Stopping and thinking about reading	Average	3.78	1.342	.181	3.79	1.682	.093	Eng.	3.68	-.380	.704
	Above avg.	3.63			3.62			A&S	3.73		
Re-reading to increase understanding	Average	4.33	-.297	.767	4.32	-.548	.584	Eng.	4.34	.011	.991
	Above avg.	4.35			4.37			A&S	4.34		
Using context clues for better understanding	Average	3.47	-2.651	.008*	3.57	-1.268	.206	Eng.	3.64	-.030	.976
	Above avg.	3.74			3.69			A&S	3.64		
Paraphrasing for better understanding	Average	2.88	-2.979	.003*	2.96	-2.310	.021*	Eng.	3.10	-699	.485
	Above avg.	3.29			3.27			A&S	3.22		
Picturing or visualizing information read	Average	3.59	-2.361	.019*	3.60	-2.374	.018*	Eng.	3.71	-1.472	.142
	Above avg.	3.87			3.89			A&S	3.92		
Guessing upcoming information	Average	3.15	-2.671	.008*	3.21	-2.192	.029*	Eng.	3.33	-1.272	.204
	Above avg.	3.51			3.50			A&S	3.53		
I check if my guesses about the text are right or wrong	Average	3.15	-3.438	.001*	3.19	-3.312	.001*	Eng.	3.39	-1.113	.267
	Above avg.	3.60			3.62			A&S	3.56		
Using typographical features (e.g, bold, italics)	Average	4.18	-1.052	.294	4.17	-1.399	.163	Eng.	4.21	-1.388	.166
	Above avg.	4.29			4.32			A&S	4.38		
Distinguishing between fact and opinion	Average	3.42	-2.538	.012*	3.42	-2.836	.005*	Eng.	3.54	-2.118	.020*
	Above avg.	3.73			3.76			A&S	3.85		
Critically analyzing and evaluating information	Average	3.55	-1.147	.252	3.57	-.885	.377	Eng.	3.63	-.112	.911
	Above avg.	3.68			3.67			A&S	3.64		
Total strategy use	Average	3.53	-3.218	.001*	3.53	-3.541	000*	Eng.	3.59	-3.197	.002*
	Above avg.	3.71			3.72			A&S	3.79		

p< .05

The examination whether students' language proficiency and reading ability level and their major subject of study affect their use of reading strategies yielded some interesting results. Students who are in above average language proficiency group reported using reading strategies more frequently than those in the average reading ability group. These strategies are: making use of contextual clues, linking one's experience to the text/topic, and distinguishing between fact and opinion. On the other hand, students with average proficiency level reported using the dictionary more frequently as a support strategy than students in above average group.

As for the influence of reading ability level on strategy use, in the case of 13 strategies on which a significant difference between groups was observed, students with above average reading ability reported more frequent usage. The strategies included reading more carefully when the text becomes more difficult, deciding what to read carefully and what to ignore, and trying to picture or visualize information to understand it better. Support strategies such as taking notes and paraphrasing ideas were used more often by the students with higher reading ability then the ones with average ability. The results may indicate that students with average reading ability are not aware of the benefits of the use of these strategies.

Whether subject matter of study influences the number and frequency of strategies used was also examined in this study. Significant results were found in only 9 of 26 strategies. From the results, it is clear that students in the faculty of Arts and Science use certain reading strategies more frequently than their counterparts in the Faculty of Engineering. Strategies in which students in the Arts and Science Faculty did better include distinguishing between fact and opinion, taking notes, underlining key words, and looking at the titles before reading etc. These strategies are similar to those used by students in the high language ability and high reading ability groups.

The results discussed suggest that freshmen level students at the university are proficient readers. In terms of strategy use, it can be said that students are taking conscious and strategic actions in order to get the most of the meaning out of a text.

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Verbal Protocol as an Important Breakthrough in Reading Research

Renata Šamo, University of Rijeka / Polytechnic of Rijeka, Croatia

The theory of reading has presented a range of models aimed at defining the construct of reading ability from different viewpoints; these theoretical suggestions, constantly reconsidered, also expanded the scope of research interest from reading products to reading process. In different historical periods, theoreticians suggested different models and tested their assumptions mainly through the use of standardised reading tests. These generally included tasks such as answering comprehension questions, filling in the gaps, making a true/false judgement; finishing the statements; choosing one of the given answers or writing a short summary on the text read. The traditional approaches towards reading were primarily concerned about tasks and readers' results, without paying attention to the processes following the activity of reading. However, modern approaches have tried to relate these achievements to insights into the ways in which particular tasks are being done and to find explanations about why particular results have been achieved.

More recently, the integration of theoretical considerations into research methodology has resulted in verbal protocols, enabling authors to see the process of reading, this time greatly based on the model of *constructively responsive reading* (see below). Despite certain disagreements about their use in research, we believe that verbal protocols may become a powerful source for better understanding and more open-minded thinking about processing at the inter-textual and intra-textual levels.

VERBAL PROTOCOL – PROS AND CONS

Although various authors have been interested in understanding what people think and how they do it since the ancient times; it is known that even Aristotle and Plato encouraged colleagues to discuss their own thoughts. The use of verbal protocols for the research purposes started much later. Despite the predominance of behaviourism in scientific environments until the middle of the last century, verbal protocols were occasionally used, not just in the research into reading but also in studying a range of problem-solving tasks in medicine, mathematics or chess. However, only with the cognitive revolution in psychology did the detailed description of reading processes become much more important and, consequently, verbal protocols mainly based on the strategic approaches to comprehension problem solving, increased in prominence.

Afflerbach and Johnston (1984, cited in Afflerbach, 2001) point out the following advantages of verbal protocols in studying both L1 and L2 reading: they enable us to come closer to the processes behind reading, in other words they help us understand the construct of cognition much better; they involve important features of reader such as motivation and affect, often neglected in research, connecting them to the cognitive processes and reactions to them; they allow us to consider the potential effects of contextual factors such as text, task, environment, reading ability, etc. on the activity of reading; they provide us with valuable information about the processes closely related to reading, namely teaching and assessing of reading. Modern verbal protocols continue collecting data about the constructive role of cognition at the centre of reading but they also confirm that reading includes much more than cognition.

The synthesis of the research using verbal protocols in cognitive psychology and literary theory offers the model of constructively responsive reading, as Pressley and Afflerbach state (1995, see in Afflerbach 2001). According to them, reading is constructive just as knowledge is constructive, while it is responsive as the reader responds to the text in a given reading context. The constructively responsive model is, therefore, interwoven with some of the basic assumptions primarily implied by the data processing theory. While verbalising, the reader actually describes on-line processing which helps him/her construct micro and macro text structures with the help of appropriate strategies, thereby introducing comprehension monitoring into a research focus. Apart from the cognitive and metacognitive profiles of the reader, many verbal protocols include the reader's background knowledge, which is emphasised as being important in schema-based theories of reading (Carrell,

cited in Alderson, 2000) while the interaction between reader and text, when the reader's responses within the act of reading are being created, reveals some traces of the theory of literature. Finally, the new model seems to encompass a variety of aspects of the context (a wider context) in which reading occurs, affecting the reader's perception of the text. The use of verbal protocols is undoubtedly socially and culturally situated but we would particularly like to emphasise that the highly intimate nature of this methodology should be of considerable importance in a contemporary research context, embracing different research interests.

The literature on the research based on the analysis of verbal protocols was first orientated towards good readers, so the data collected this way have already provided good descriptions of their processes. Good readers are generally described as readers who are capable of sampling important information and remembering it; they supervise their reading and evaluate it by themselves. They are also more skilful users of their working memory, more willing to verbalise what they do to solve a problem and they do it much better than the others; they are more active at searching for a wider range of strategies while reading and they respond to text in a more sophisticated manner; sometimes their reflection on the overall meaning of the text is even fervent and full of passion. Although the authors who used verbal protocols in their reading research were mainly concerned about the profile of good reader, they also provided some guidelines for the future study of less accomplished readers and their strategic behaviour, turning verbal protocols into teaching aids, as well. Nowadays, verbal protocols are increasingly seen as a wonderful opportunity which enables reader to develop thinking abilities, improve learning strategies and promote social interaction.

As we have previously stated, there have been certain controversies around the methodological value of verbal protocols and they mainly relate to the reliability of data collected through their analysis. The critical approach to this methodology somehow stems from the lack of details referring to their use, and we also had dilemmas about subjects' ability to verbalise and establish a desired or required relationship with the researcher, the type of texts to be selected and the way of their presentation, subjects' familiarity with the format of the given reading task and the impact of their verbalising on the same task, the degree of reliability between the recorded materials and their transcripts, the status of non-verbal data, interrelatedness between the categories found in our recordings and the previously presented theory and research, etc.

In order to make verbal protocols useful and the analysis resulting from them reliable as possible, we trained potential subjects through discussions on the process of reading as it is viewed nowadays, with a special emphasis on the most common reading strategies and their aid in constructing meaning and reacting to text affectively and intelligently. Training sessions should not be avoided if we want high quality   reports and successful co-operation. Apart from discussion, they may be used to help subjects familiarise themselves with the task, regardless of format. It is almost impossible to count on proper verbalising unless subjects have some idea about the task and feel comfortable with the way in which it should be done. We personally experienced these training sessions as a welcome introduction to the task, demanding for subjects, and challenging for both of us.

Once potential subjects have been properly prepared to start research and encouraged to take a responsible and pleasurable part in it, the physical conditions of the procedure, setting and timing being among the most important ones, should be considered. The entire atmosphere, primarily including the room, the time, the presence of researcher and the required equipment, should be stimulating and anxiety-free for each subject. Prompts given by researcher must be as neutral as possible, allowing subject to be led by himself/herself down the path of comprehension construction. The role of researcher should be clear to every subject; they are there not to help them with comprehension problems but to guide them through doing a task whenever it is needed. The more subjects practice, the more independent they become, which is one of the aims of using this methodology – to make subjects autonomous in relying on their own potentials and abilities.

The next step includes the process of transcription, when a vast amount of the recorded materials should be transcribed and coded properly enough to enable the further analysis of the data. Although the directions given to researchers in the literature are helpful, it is still up to researcher to make his/her own decisions on how to code protocol contents and what type of information to include in the analysis (e.g. we faced the problem of pauses and their importance in the reading process – short, longer, long, very long pause - or comments in brackets such as 'he sighs', 'you can hear only her pencil' and alike), whether it is so necessary to include any piece of information from transcribed

protocols, how many independent raters to consult, etc. Therefore, we experienced almost the same dilemmas that are already known as the source of certain doubts about applying verbal protocols in reading research.

In spite of all the critical observations on this research methodology, verbal protocols have contributed to a better understanding of reading, directing this process mainly to cognition and reactions that it may provoke among readers. Apart from the (meta) cognitive dimension of reading, there is another one we must not forget, since its task is to help us realise the social and affective world of reader, namely the socio-affective dimension.

FROM RESEARCH METHODOLOGY TO TEACHING AID

Starting with the aim to discover the crucial differences in strategic behaviour between good and poor Croatian readers of English, we selected a group of 37 eighth graders (aged 14-15) who, at the time when the research was done, had been learning English since either the first or the fourth grade. Prior to the research, we had had a couple of discussions and training sessions on their understanding of the process of reading as well as on their reading habits and preferences, reading strategies in general and their use in reading, our research purposes, their role in the research, and our expectations considering their co-operation and contribution to the final results. During the training sessions, the subjects also familiarised themselves with the format of tasks to be included in the research and practised verbalising while reading. Although we started with the standardised tests of reading, listening and writing in order to evaluate their English knowledge, the main instruments referred to three cloze-tests (every fifth word deleted) and verbal protocols based on them. Additionally, we interviewed every subject immediately after he/she finished each cloze test to find out more about their way of understanding the text and doing the reading task. The interview was semi-structured since we wanted to help every subject feel comfortable and experience the research as a pleasant challenge. Of course, we had some questions already prepared for all of them, grouped into the following categories:

- title;
- comprehension issues;
- research experience;
- our co-operation.

The research was concentrated on the reading strategies reported during the cloze-test taking but, in this paper, we will present some observations resulted from this research experience, supporting our conclusion about verbal protocols as helpful teaching aids, as well.

After finishing the research, we realised that such a method should not be limited to the research context but it may be also applicable to the teaching environment. Although the teaching context has its own restrictions, time being one of them, we strongly believe that this approach could be beneficial in many ways: it could improve a relationship between teacher and students, based upon their real partnership and mutual respect; it could help both of them enrich their understanding of the process regardless the language which is used (L1 or L2 reading); it could give an excellent opportunity to students to practise how to verbalise their own thoughts, having the development of critical thinking as its utmost advantage; it could enable students, especially young children, teenagers and adults lacking self-confidence, to get to know themselves better; it could allow teachers to experience their students in a different way, sometimes even an unexpected one. Students like challenges, they are tired of traditional teaching and assessment methods, they are looking for a new model of communication within formal schooling, they need to ask and be asked about their opinions, feelings or attitudes, they need to learn how to assess their achievements by themselves and be critical to their learning responsibilities. These are just some of the reasons why we think that verbal protocols, used from time to time in solving a variety of problems – not just in learning foreign languages – should be also considered for other than research purposes.

VERBAL PROTOCOL AND READER'S DYNAMIC INTERACTIVE INVOLVEMENT

As the main aim of this paper is to present verbal protocols as an important breakthrough in reading research, we could conclude that the data collected on this basis may reveal the crucial dimensions of reading such as cognitive, meta-cognitive, social and affective ones. Moreover, verbal

protocols successfully present reading as a dynamic interaction between reader and text/author as well as an interactive involvement of reader at the basic textual levels such as phonological, morpho-syntactical and semantic. Reader's 'responsive guessing game'[52] with a given text and/or reading task shows some of the following factors which contribute to the construct of meaning and the construction of comprehension: his/her linguistic knowledge, closely related to the language in which text is written; his/her background knowledge, largely based on personal experiences and expectations; the social and cultural context in which some material is being read and interpreted; even some of his/her personality traits, mostly perceived through ability to react affectively to the material being presented and to verbalise thoughts without any biases. The reader is also supposed to interact with him/her while verbalising and reading, so his/her willingness to verbalise and the accompanying self-confidence are what may greatly affect the quality of the protocols provided. Lastly, reader is expected to interact with a wide range of texts in everyday life, so ability to cope with texts belonging to different genres and serving different reading purposes may be observed through verbal protocols, as well.

Regardless some unexpected situations slightly imposed to us during our research, we still support this methodology as it can provide a vast amount of data, appropriate for the analysis of reading from different viewpoints. Every reading, no matter how often repeated, revealed new details in transcripts, directing us to the different levels of decision-making. Even before starting the research, we had realised that using verbal protocols can expand the scope of our understanding regarding the process of reading, but when we finished it was clear that this methodology breaks through many controversies about reading. At the end of this paper, we would particularly like to mention this one – traditional assumptions imply reading as a passive individual activity. This methodology has already proved that reading can be highly active even when it is seen only as an individual activity. Besides, we consider the term 'individual' a bit controversial in this context, since it may imply the true interaction between reader and author through text, even in the most common silent reading situation in which there is just one reader in front of one text. It should be finally pointed out that the construct of reading as determined in contemporary literature [53] is especially supported by the reader who is experienced and good at his/her reading activity, whereas what makes an accomplished reader, according to the results of the research into reading strategies, should be applied to help less accomplished reader understand their reading behaviour and learn how to change it through the conscious use of appropriate strategies in order to experience reading as an enjoyable activity, far from boredom, self-torturing or disappointment.

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[52] We suggest this phrase as it resembles Goodman's definition of reading as a 'psycholinguistic guessing game'.
[53] Reading as *a dynamic interaction* between reader and text/author.

New Aspects of Reading Promotion in Austria

Jutta Kleedorfer, Austrian Reading Association, Austria

Looking at Austria's " reading landscape" some hot spots can be recognised:
- Austria has an extremely expensive schooling system but the cost to performance ratio is poor.
- There is a social-economic gap in achievement that cannot be longer denied.
- There is the question how Elementary Schools can provide a more fruitful context for the growth of literacy, and how Secondary Schools can provide better standards in reading, maths and natural sciences.

The schooling system in Austria is a selective education system. This means that students are channelled into different kinds of schools, streams and tracks at age 10. Comprehensive schools emphasise that school is for each child and that adjustments are made to address each child's needs, according to the motto "No child left behind!" But teachers can exclude students and send them to another type of school. Remedial education is offered to students who have problems following regular teaching.

The PISA results in reading literacy in 2003 were unexpected:
- Austria ranked 19th (compared with 10th in 2000)
- 20 per cent of students at the age of 15 are very poor readers, with low levels of functional illiteracy.
- The performance of boys on reading has fallen further, relative to that of girls.
- Forty per cent of the teenagers don't read books in their leisure time (they may lack the motivation to do so).

Therefore instructional implications had to be drawn from PISA results in an activity initiated by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. A reading campaign called "LESEFIT" was implemented in all schools; a reading promotion campaign provided obligatory training programs for teachers, and new diagnostic tools (Salzburger Screening Program) had to be used in all classes. Official evaluation and regular reading assessments followed.

ASSESSMENT OF READING AND ITS COMPONENT STRATEGIES

The use of the "Salzburger Lesescreening" became a "story of success". It is a diagnostic tool, a training tool and a tool of professional development. There are two editions: One appropriate for Elementary School (grades 2-4) and one for Secondary School (grades 5-8). The test material consists of 70 sentences and is in 4 versions.

It takes an integrative approach to screening that includes cognitive, emotional and social dimensions including:

1. diagnosis of level of reading/spelling to establish a precise match between the phase of reading/spelling development and the instruction;
2. diagnosis of (false) learning strategies and correction;
3. development of self esteem
4. development of motivation.

According to the prediction model of reading competence, reading[54] is not a receptive process but a constructive process of understanding. What really counts are the four parameters –cognitive basic structure, decoding skills/vocabulary, learning strategies, and motivation – as shown in the graphic.

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[54] Baumert, J. u.a.(Hg.) (2001), PISA 2000. Basiskompetenzen von Schülerinnen und Schülern im internationalen Vergleich. Opladen, S. 296

Figure 1: Components of Reading Competence
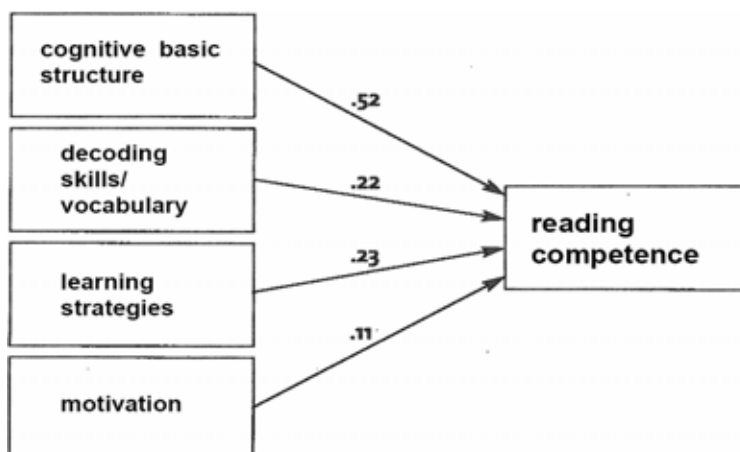
PROFILING READING

A special reading project was developed for students of Secondary Schools to improve their reading competence. Students have to work on their personal reading profile as it is illustrated below. The "reading profile" consists of seven levels:

1) The "key" to successful reading performance is the enjoyable and useful experience of reading. Some examples: Romana spent her last summer holidays on a farm. So she became interested in books about animals. Since Marco has made his first model space-ship, he is interested in magazines, books, videos and CDs about science fiction. Sabine is fond of reading crime stories, because once she had discovered a thrilling book in her aunt's loft. Jens Bruckner found a book written by an author called Jens Bruckner in a bookshop. He likes to browse among the books. Anna enjoys the fun of reading on different places like under an apple tree, in the bathtub. Ronald has watched the movie "The Lord of the Rings" and now he likes to read heroic sagas.

2) Motivation is the "rocket": You want to know …what's on TV, what's in the movies, who's won the football game, when does the next bus/ train/ plane leave, how the story does end, what is written in the secret letter, what message did you receive by e-mail, SMS?

3) The "cup" in your hands shows that thanks to your acquired skills you perform well. If you do sports you have to move your muscles, to improve your fitness, to train your body. It is good for you to train your skills in reading, too. So take the advice: do computer reading, solve puzzles, sweat over a secret, decipher symbols, read signs, words, sentences and different kind of texts.

4) The "bulb" signals that you understand what you read. Reading comprehension is the essence of reading and the power of reconstruction of the intended meaning. It can be developed by studying charts, programs, league tables and pictures, by trying to get information about things you are interested in, by comparing the pieces of information and thinking critically, by combining things together and by looking what makes sense!

5) The "toolbox" symbolizes the different tools and methods. It means that you have the tools for the job, you work according to a clever blueprint and you find your own way. Use different reading strategies by looking at headlines, decoding titles, glancing through the pages, asking questions, underlining key words, looking up words in the dictionary, summing up what's important and presenting your thoughts to the class. …

6) The "heart with the wings" is a symbol for the emotional aspects of reading.
Many things are caused by your emotion, imagination, creativity, curiosity. What counts are your feelings, your sentiment and your sensibility. Try to answer the following questions:
   - Where is your favourite place to read?
   - When do you like to read books, browse through the web, leaf through
   - magazines?
   - Choose your favourite poem, story, picture-book and share it with somebody.
   - What kind of texts do you dislike?
   - Do you remember special experiences, feelings, events in connection with reading?

7) The "bubbles" illustrate the communication with others and what different kind of media you use to share information or ideas. Books, newspapers, the web, videos, movies, TV or radio programs are pretty good sources of information. Have fun speaking about things you have read, listened to or seen! Discuss different topics with your friends and adults! Get to know other opinions, learn to accept different views! Have a critical look at things written black on white, on screens or on public address!

Finally you have found the secret: READING is your key to the world !
It helps you …
   - to understand things better
   - to realize what's important or not
   - to make ideas and dreams come true
   - to reach successfully your goals in working life
   - to stay nimble-minded
   - to change things for better and
   - to make the world a good place for all to live in.

This folder is accompanied by portfolios students have to work on from grades 5-8.
The goal of this reading project is to prepare young people better for their future. An Austrian poet, Erich Fried, said: "It is not so important to believe in the future or not, but it is important to be prepared for it!"

Secondary Education Project – Teacher Development Component

Lejla Nebiu, Anica Petkoska, Violeta Januseva, Verica Jakimovik and Valentina Anastasova, Macedonia

The *Secondary Education Activity (SEA)* is a USAID-funded project in Macedonia. Activities of the project started in September 2003 and they are planned to end September 2008. The project consists of four different components. These components operate in different fields, but share a common goal: Preparing today's students for tomorrow's workforce.

The four components of the project are: Certification of School Directors (Principals), Career Development, Research Monitoring and Evaluation, as well as Teacher Development.

THE TEACHER DEVELOPMENT COMPONENT

Activities of the Teacher Development Component (TDC) are closely related to activities of the International Reading Association (IRA) since they are directly managed and supported by IRA and IRA volunteers.

The main objective of the component is the development and introduction of new interactive methodologies to teachers teaching in 50 vocational education schools in the SEA project. IRA volunteers work together with Macedonian colleagues. Working closely together, they cam up with four modules on different topics, including 17 teaching strategies. Topics of the modules and associated strategies are as follows:

Module 1- Learning in the Classroom
- Demonstration Activity 1 – *Developing Critical Thinking Using the Discussion Web and Debate*
- Demonstration Activity 2 – *Designing Authentic Writing Assignments through Role, Audience, Form and Topic*
- Demonstration Activity 3 – *Developing Active Learning Using SQPL (Students Questions for Purposeful Learning)*
- Demonstration Activity 4- *Creating Lesson – Plan Format Following Guidelines*
- Demonstration Activity 5- *Designing Rubrics for Classroom- Based Assessment*

Module 2- Learning through Projects
- Demonstration Activity 1 – *Self-Questioning*
- Demonstration Activity 2 – *Double-entry Journal*
- Demonstration Activity 3 – *Collaboration and Communication Using Structured Academic Controversy*
- Demonstration Activity 4 – *Research Process*

Module 3- Learning through Community
- Demonstration Activity 1 –- *Developing Critical Thinking by Using Expectation / Reaction Guides*
- Demonstration Activity 2 – *Techniques for Interviewing*
- Demonstration Activity 3 – C*onducting, Analyzing and Interpreting Research Using Oral History*
- Demonstration Activity 4 – *Building School and Community Partnerships*

Module 4- Learning in the Workplace
- Demonstration Activity 1 – *Using Visuals for Completing Tasks and Comprehending Texts*
- Demonstration Activity 2 – *Role Playing*
- Demonstration Activity 3 – *Self-Assessment*
- Demonstration Activity 4 – *Development of Learning Logs*
  For better efficiency all project schools were divided in two cohorts – Cohort 1 and Cohort 2..
In Cohort 1, representatives of 15 schools, including teachers (both general and vocational subjects),

school principals and school counselors/psychologists attended the seminars on all above mentioned strategies. Training of the Cohort 2 school representatives is ongoing and it will end in October 2005.

While the training for Cohort 1 schools was conducted by IRA volunteers, Cohort 2 school representatives received their training from 15 Macedonian Trainers, who actually are teachers from Cohort 1 schools who fulfilled the selection criteria to become trainers. In this phase IRA volunteers with their contribution and support have assumed the role of supervisors and coaches of the trainers.

Besides this, a group of 16 Regional Consultants are also involved in the project activities as a support to school teams in implementing the project activities in the schools. A need for the further support of the school teams derives from the complexity of tasks that school representatives have to perform after the completion of the training cycle. Not only they have to apply the strategies in their own classes, but they also have to disseminate the knowledge gained in the seminars to their colleagues in their schools through organized school-level workshops. This phase is called the D*issemination phase*.

PERSONAL IMPRESSIONS ON THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

IRA volunteers with their professional and friendly attitude had an extraordinary and irreplaceable role in this initial phase of the changes. Teachers were astonished with their expertise, high professionalism, and the way in which they handled the situations in which they were involved.

Teachers in this phase were dealing with a mixture of emotions such as happiness, fear, increased responsibilities, and awareness of the need for big changes in the education system. This was a big challenge for all of them and they were aware that it wasn't going to be easy. The expectations were big as well.

The four module workshops resulted in formal sharing of information with a larger audience as opposed to sharing with the team members who directly work together.

But intangible benefits were present all the time, like having a better idea of one's own strengths and available opportunities which make the development of strategies for further success much easier.

REFLECTIONS FROM THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE LEARNED STRATEGIES IN THE CLASSROOM

For most of the teachers these was a brand new experience and at the same time a challenging one. What is most important – the feedback form the students – was beyond their expectations. They were thrilled to experience something new; they were motivated to participate in the classroom work, to collaborate with other students, to share their experiences/opinions, and to show mutual respect and higher individual self-discipline when working in pairs or in groups, etc.

IRA volunteers, the school pedagogue and regional consultant witnessed this atmosphere on several occasions during their classroom observations. Besides the observation be these persons, they also provided feedback on how to improve teaching performances, how to prepare better lesson plans, and how to organize themselves as a school team in dispersing the strategies to other teachers in the school.

DISSEMINATION OF THE NEW STRATEGIES AT SCHOOL LEVEL

Teachers trained through seminars and workshops organized by the SEA Project, after completing their qualification procedure (attending all four module trainings, applying strategies from all modules, being observed by the school pedagogue/psychologist and/or the regional consultant, and submitting lesson plans as well as student works for the applied strategies) started to prepare for the second phase – the earlier mention *dissemination phase*.

The main aspects that the school team had to take care of were: Creating a positive atmosphere in the school, preparing the dissemination plan, organizing the workshops, and supporting the teachers in the school in the implementation of the learned strategies.

The school management team and the team trained by SEA were responsible for preparation on the ground for the activities professionally supported by SEA regional consultant and for logistics (meaning procurement of needed workshop materials) provided directly from SEA office.

The individual initiatives of the schools are also worth to be mentioned. On these school level workshops, schools ensured the needed IT aids like computers and projectors were available. The

needs of the local media were also met, and information was provided to the local community. All these activities were undertaken with a great enthusiasm by leaders, counterparts, and participants in all levels of activity.

Teachers involved in project activities truly believe that the project will find its place in teachers' every day practice countrywide and will greatly improve students' knowledge and capabilities and at the same time will highly influence teacher-student relations which will show that the project's main goal has been reached.

Writing to Acquire and Express Knowledge:
A Study with University Engineering Students[55]

José A. Brandão Carvalho and Jorge Pimenta,
University of Minho, Portugal

Writing is not simple language class content. It is also a learning tool, playing an important role in both knowledge expression and knowledge acquisition. Where knowledge expression is concerned, writing plays an important role at school: most evaluation contexts such as tests and exams imply the use of writing. Students must write in order to express the knowledge they have acquired and therefore success at school may somehow depend upon writing abilities rather than on knowledge itself. In fact, competent writers are able to express their knowledge better than developing writers. Thus, failure is often due to writing difficulties, not to the lack of knowledge in the content area that is being assessed.

The importance of writing at school is also due to its role in knowledge acquisition processes, in that it enables students to organise and structure information they acquire from different kinds of sources (Carvalho, 2005).

Besides this, we must acknowledge that, according to some authors (Applebee, 1984; Olson, 1995), writing might play an important role in the development of more complex forms of thought. On one hand, explicitness and permanence of written language make reflection and revision easier; on the other hand, conventional forms of written discourse enable the expression of logical relations between different ideas.

Writing may therefore be seen as a useful and effective learning tool whenever it is used to promote active knowledge construction leading students to engage in knowledge transforming processes rather than in reproductive activities. Using their previous knowledge, students should reflect upon their own experiences and conceptualise and theorise on them (Tynjala, Mason & Lonka, 2001). Hence, the importance of writing is recognised at all school levels from basic degrees to university, regardless the scientific area implied. It is even being used as an important tool in the context of some qualitative research methodologies.

In academic contexts, we use writing for several purposes; it is involved in the production of different kinds of texts: reports; literature reviews; essays; papers in academic journals; and master and doctoral theses. Besides generic abilities, writing in academic environments requires specific capacities in order to fulfil the demands of communicative contexts often involving conventions that have to be followed.

THE STUDY

This paper concerns a study involving engineering students at the University of Minho (Portugal). We analysed students' performance on different tasks involved in the production of an academic paper in order to assess how they take notes when they read; how they plan their texts; how they integrate in their essays the information acquired from previously read texts; and how they follow conventions of academic writing they are advised to use.

Students were given six different short texts, all being about the same subject - alternative energies.

- Text number 1 ("The challenges of alternative energies") described the evolution of alternative energies from the oil crisis in the 70´s to nowadays, including a reference

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to the Kyoto Protocol. It also referred to the efforts of the European Union to develop alternative energies using the power of water, wind and sun.

- Text number 2 (The ecological alternative") described the development of alternative energies and displayed the characteristics of different kinds of ecological powers: wind; solar; hydraulic and biomass.
- Text number 3 ("Where are we going?") defined the concept of alternative energies and then displayed the characteristics of different kinds of ecological energy: wind; solar; hydraulic and biomass.
- Text number 4 ("Energies and sustainable development"), written in Spanish, distinguished alternative energies from renewable energies, and gave examples of what is happening in different countries.
- Text number 5 ("Portuguese energy policy") analysed Portuguese policies concerning energy and the efforts that were being made in order to develop alternative energies and their use.
- Text number 6 ("Portugal and alternative energies") referred to international agencies involved in the development of alternative energies and to the modest role Portugal has been playing in this context.

Texts 1/2/3 are mainly informative. Texts 4/5 involve technical and political matters. Text 6 is part of an academic paper: its content and language are more complex than the other. We analysed 3 kinds of written materials produced by 32 engineering students:

- reading notes concerning each text;
- text plans;
- essays.

Content analysis followed an inductive procedure. Categories were defined as materials were being read.

RESULTS

Reading Notes

First of all, we analysed the reading notes students took while reading the six texts mentioned above. As a result of this analysis, we defined five categories corresponding to different kinds of notes.

1. Notes are organised according to topics, corresponding to the main ideas of each text. These topics tend to be organised in two different ways. Some students create detailed notes, developing each topic, often using arrows and diagrams in order to express the way different ideas are related; this suggests a personal elaboration of the knowledge acquired. Others produce poorer and less elaborated notes as they merely juxtapose topics, following the sequence in which they are conveyed in the text being read.
2. Notes are organised as long and detailed texts. Some of them are mere quotations from the most relevant parts of the texts read, whereas others imply the reader's personal synthesis.
3. These notes share features of categories 1 and 2. In fact, they are organised in topics, each of them developed in short paragraphs displaying additional information; these are often quotations from the texts.
4. These are the most detailed type of reading notes. They includes a synthesis of each paragraph of the text.
5. These notes are the simplest ones. They are a kind of summary in which the main idea of the text is expressed.

Besides these, there are some other relevant ideas concerning reading notes. Even though students knew that they were supposed to write such notes while reading the texts, many of them (about 30%) did not perform this task. The rate became higher (about 50%) when text number 4 (Spanish) was implied.

Notes seem to depend upon the nature of the text read. As a matter of fact, notes organised in topics and diagrams seem to be preferred where more informative texts are concerned (texts 1/2/3). This may be related to the way content is displayed there, always organised in separate sections with subtitles. When dealing with more complex texts (5/6), reading notes tended to be poorer, both in

content and organisation. Difficulties seem to increase with text 4, which suggests that there are students who might have had difficulty in reading Spanish. In addition to those who didn't write notes, there are several students who just pointed out the main idea of the text.

Plans

Our next step was the analysis of the plans drawn by students. Data suggests four different patterns:

1. Schematic plans of the texts in which main ideas are underlined and then developed in subtopics with additional information. In some of these plans a lot of information is displayed in order to express the way different topics are related. Other plans, despite having a lot of information, lack organisation, being mere lists of contents.
2. Plans, also schematic, in which main topics are developed either as personal notes and synthesis, or in reference to the paragraphs of the text, in which that particular content can be found.
3. These plans are just the index of the essays students intend to write.
4. Plans are texts in which students express their intentions about the content and the organisation of the essay they are intending to write.

From the analysis of the students' plans, two main conclusions can be drawn. On one hand, it is clear that schematic plans are the most frequent ones, either those in which information is conveyed in topics, or those that relate topics to the paragraphs of the texts where those topics are developed. On the other hand, plans seem to be more elaborate in the aspects concerning general information (i.e. the global context) than in those concerning specific information (i.e. the Portuguese context). In addition, the difficulty in linking the two parts is obvious in many plans.

Essays

The final step of our study refers to the essays students produced. We wanted to see how they are organised, how they include the information acquired from the texts they are based upon, and to what extent they are related to the reading notes and to the plans previously drawn. Besides, we wanted to see if students follow the conventions of academic writing. Data taken from essays enables us to draw the following conclusions:

1. Most essays seem to follow a pattern: based on texts 1/2/3, there is an introduction in which an overview of the subject of "alternative energies" is presented. It includes a reference to the development of these kinds of energies, mainly after the oil crisis in the 70´s and the Kyoto Protocol. Essays also characterise different kinds of renewable energies in this part. Subsequently, some students mention the difference between renewable and alternative energies, a topic based on text 4. As a conclusion, texts mention the Portuguese context, based on texts 5/6.
2. There are obvious differences concerning the way topics are presented in essays. In fact, content concerning the topic renewable energies usually integrates information from different sources (texts 1/2/3) in a logical way. In an opposite way, particular information related to the Portuguese context lacks organisation and is frequently the result of the juxtaposition of ideas taken from texts where they are conveyed (texts 5/6). These ideas are more superficially expressed and important aspects are sometimes ignored. Many students have difficulties in linking general and specific information in a logical way.
3. Some students do not relate information taken from different sources; their essays are the result of the juxtaposition of the content of each text. Redundant ideas frequently appear in their essays. On the other hand, some information is often ignored. That is particularly obvious where the content of text 4 (the Spanish one) is concerned.
4. The nature of the texts provided as information sources and the way they are read seem to affect the whole process of essay production and naturally the quality of the essay itself. Texts 1/2/3 are informative, their language is plain and their content is displayed in separate sections, with subtitles. The relationship between ideas conveyed in those texts is clear. That does not happen in texts 4/5/6. They are more complex, having a technical (4/5) and academic (6) nature. More complex texts result in poorer reading notes, either in content or organisation. Plans seem to be more elaborate in the aspects concerning general information

(conveyed by the simpler and more organised sources) than in those concerning specific information (the Portuguese context), based on the others. The difficulty in linking the two parts is obvious in many plans. As a consequence, essays are clearer, more developed and better organised when considering content emerging from texts 1, 2 and 3, than when processing aspects related to texts 4, 5 and 6.

5. Some students, however, seem to ignore both reading notes and plans when writing the essays. Their texts frequently include information that they had not considered in their notes and in their plans. Apparently they are used to writing their papers by importing information directly from the sources.

6. The analysis of the essays also provided information about the use of features of academic writing, especially those concerning references and quotations. Even though those conventions were formally taught during the semester and students knew they had to consider them when writing their essays, many of them (44%) simply ignored or did not use them properly.

CONCLUSION

The analysis of the reading notes, the plans and the essays of the engineering students that took part in our study provides some interesting conclusions we are going to synthesise now. Despite the diversity of the products, from which we can infer different processes of essay construction, it is possible to identify some features that can be assumed as characteristics of the students' writing. Those characteristics demonstrate that even though the students had almost reached graduation, many of them still had difficulties when performing writing tasks. Such difficulties concern the whole process of essay construction, not just a particular step or detail. In fact they are evident in the way they read the texts (sources), how they register and organise information and how they relate knowledge acquired from different sources. They can even be seen in those aspects related to academic writing conventions, often ignored or misused. Another conclusion may be inferred from the documents we analysed. Some students apparently develop a simpler and shorter process when they are writing their academic essays. That consists of getting information from the sources and writing it down immediately in their own papers without any kind of elaboration.

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Evaluation of the Level of Critical Thinking in Written Text

Visnja Grozdanić, Entrepreneurship Business College VERN, Croatia

There is a strong consensus among the experts in different fields that the development of critical thinking is very important and necessary. But the problem is that they don't always agree about its definition. For example, David Klooster (2001) states that: 1. critical thinking is independent thinking; 2. information is the starting point for critical thinking, not the end point; 3. critical thinking starts with questions, with problems to be solved; and 4.critical thinking seeks reasoned arguments. Eggen and Kauchak (1984) put critical thinking among basic thinking skills, defining it as assessing conclusions based on observation. This work is based on the 1990 APA Consensus Definition:

> We understand critical thinking to be purposeful, self-regulatory judgement which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgement is based… (Facione & Facione, 1996).

According to the APA definition, the cognitive skills and sub-skills of critical thinking are:
- *Interpretation*: categorization, decoding sentences and clarifying meaning;
- *Analysis*: examining ideas, identifying arguments, analyzing arguments;
- *Evaluation*: assessing claims, assessing arguments;
- *Inference:* querying evidence, conjecturing alternatives, drawing conclusions;
- *Explanation*: stating results, justifying procedures, presenting arguments, and
- *Self-regulation:* self examination, self correction.

The next problem is how to evaluate the level of critical thinking in text. That appeared to be a great problem. Facione and Facione (1994) constructed a Holistic Critical Thinking Scoring Rubric (HCTSR). There are four rubrics and the highest level (Level 4) 4 means that the author constantly does all or almost all of the following:
- Accurately interprets evidence, statements, graphics, questions, etc.
- Identifies the salient arguments (reasons and claims) pro and con.
- Thoughtfully analyzes and evaluates major alternative points of view.
- Draws warranted judicious, non-fallacious conclusions.
- Justifies key results and procedures, explains assumptions and reasons.
- Fair-mindedly follows where evidence and reasons lead.

Another instrument for evaluating critical thinking is the Critical Thinking Scale (CTS) developed by the same authors (1990, cited by Kennison, 2003). CTS includes 5-step Likert scales for each of the six critical thinking skills, defined according to APA.

RESEARCH PROBLEM AND METHOD

Two research questions were investigated:
1. To use and compare the reliability of two instruments (HCTSR and CTS) for evaluating critical thinking in text.
2. To define the level of critical thinking for each student.

The research included 81 students of The Entrepreneurship Business College VERN. During their entrepreneurship classes, they received a text that described the situation of the entrepreneur MM. In short, after working in a big firm he founded his own business and included his father and wife to help him. He started the business with a big loan from the bank, so almost everything he earned went to the bank, to pay off his debt. Suddenly he got an offer to do public administration work, with a stable fair salary but he had to give up his own business. Students had to analyse the situation of MM and write what they would do if they were in his place. They were instructed to explain their decision. Together with the case description, they received a piece of paper and were

instructed to accomplish the task in 45 minutes. Instruction was given by the entrepreneurship teacher, but was written on the case description as well.

All papers were typed, to avoid the influence of handwriting. Also, they were anonymous, identified by numbers. Four evaluators were chosen to evaluate the work. They were all teachers of entrepreneurship, motivated to participate in research. One training session was organised with them. The critical thinking concept was explained and discussed with them, and the text on critical thinking was given to them. They got two essays – one as a good example and one as a bad one. Both instruments were presented and explained. After that, they randomly took a package of student work. Each work was printed, and the codes for evaluation were printed on the bottom of the page (none of the papers extended to another page).

When HCTS rubric was used, just four numbers were printed at the bottom (1 2 3 4). Evaluators read the work and evaluated the level of critical thinking, choosing one of the numbers for a global evaluation. The result on HCTSR is one of four numbers (1, 2, 3 or 4).

When CTS was used for evaluation, all six sub-skills with 5-step scales next to them were on the bottom of the page. Evaluators read the work and then evaluated each of the six sub-skills, choosing one of 5 numbers on each scale. The result is either one number: a sum of all six scales or 6 separate numbers (one for each of six subscales).

Evaluators were instructed to work separately and to avoid any cooperation. They were supposed to finish the task in a month, but two of them got back all the papers after six months because they were too busy. They reported that they found the task very hard and demanding.

So, the level of critical thinking in each of the 81 written texts was evaluated four times, twice by scales and twice by rubric. In the following text, evaluators who were using CTS scales will be identified as CTS 1 and CTS 2, and evaluators who used HCTSR rubric will be identified as HCTSR 1 and HCTSR 2.

RESULTS

Scores on the six CTS scales were correlated between the two CTS evaluators. Correlations among evaluations made by CTS 1 and CTS 2 is 0.475, which is significant at the 0.01 level. Individual scales results were also correlated; results are in Table 1.

Table 1: Correlations among Individual Scales for Two Evaluators Using CTS

	Interpretation	Analysis	Evaluation	Inference	Explanation	Self-regulation
Interpretation	0.372^{**}					
Analysis		0.425^{**}				
Evaluation			0.407^{**}			
Inference				0.413^{**}		
Explanation					0.386^{**}	
Self-regulation						0.121

** significance at 0.01 level

Evaluators found very rarely that students expressed self examination or self correction, so the low correlations with self-regulation were not a surprise. Correlations among evaluations made by HCTSR 1 and HCTSR 2 were very low, just 0.119, which is not statistically significant. At the first glance it suggests that the CTS scales are a better instrument then the HCTSR rubric, but the number of evaluators is obviously too small for such a conclusion.

All four evaluators evaluated the level of critical thinking in the same work, but in two different ways. This allows the possibility to cross-correlate their evaluations (Table 2)

Table 2: Correlations among Four Evaluators Using Different Instruments to Evaluate the Level of Critical Thinking in the Same Text.

	HCTSR 1	HCTSR 2
CTS 1	0.456^{**}	0.264^{*}
CTS 2	0.282^{*}	0.184

** significance at 0,01 level, * significance at 0,05 level

It is interesting that the highest correlation (0.456) is among one evaluator using scales and another using a rubric. Does it mean that they were more effective evaluators than the other two evaluators?

If self regulation is doubtful to judge, what happens when we compare evaluated individual scales instead of sum with rubric? To check what happens if we compare individual scales with holistic evaluation by rubric (HCTSR), we get interesting results.

Table 3: Correlations among Four Evaluators by Individual Scales and Rubric

CTS 1:	HCTSR 1	HCTSR 2
Interpretation	0.409**	0.263*
Analysis	0.449**	0.177
Evaluation	0.335**	0.194
Inference	0.454**	0.308**
Explanation	0.458**	0.331**
Self-Regulation	0.209	0.200
CTS 2:		
Interpretation	0.207	0.120
Analysis	0.207	0.201
Evaluation	0.285*	0.180
Inference	0.237*	0.259*
Explanation	0.336**	0.228*
Self-Regulation	0.302**	0.060

** significance at 0.01 level, * significance at 0.05 level

As shown in Table 3, evaluators CTS 1 and HCTSR 1 match better than the others. Only one correlation is not statistically significant, self-regulation, as expected. It seems that evaluator HCTSR 2 doesn't match with others at all.

Obviously, gained correlations are not high enough. It is not easy to evaluate critical thinking. Kennison (2003) had 5 evaluators who evaluated 57 works by CTS scale, and the highest correlation was 0.628. The next was 0.568, and all the others were lower, even as low as 0.149 and 0.129.

CONCLUSION

Results of this research didn't confirm the reliability of these two instruments for evaluating critical thinking in text. Although evaluators with CTS match better then those with the rubric, it is not justified to conclude that it is a better instrument. In this phase of the research, it is not possible to conclude whether evaluators were trained well enough, or whether the instruments are reliable. The main reason is the small number of evaluators. If only one in the pair of evaluators working with the same instrument fails for some reason, it affects the final result.

The research doesn't allow us to evaluate the critical thinking level for each student. To be sure that the same construct (critical thinking level) is being assessed, correlations should be higher.

This research is a part of a much wider one. In future research new evaluators will be included and will be trained to score using the CTS and HCTSR. When it is possible to define the critical thinking level for each student, it will be compared with some other variables: intelligence, school achievement, goal orientation, interest for the entrepreneurship course, open-mindedness, writing preferences and general knowledge test results.

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A Case Study in Immigrant Populations (Spanish as a Second Language) with Social Difficulties: Inclusion in the Ordinary Classroom

Estela D´Angelo, Piedad Pozo, Mª Rosa Sobrino, Javier Cabañero and Laura Benítez,
Complutense University of Madrid, Spain

This article describes a case study and conclusions from five years of research by the PROAI Program (Problems in Beginners' Literacy) in the public school system of the Community of Madrid. The program worked with pupils with serious learning difficulties. The approach was to use written language to develop linguistic and communicative capacities. One of the aims of the program was to explore pupils' difficulties at the beginning stages of literacy and study the influence these difficulties have on the rest of their learning.

SOME CONSIDERATIONS ABOUT LITERACY IN SPAIN

The recently published PISA Report sounded a clear warning signal to Spanish society about the state of its educational system. This OCDE-backed international study tested students in their last year of compulsory education to evaluate their mastery of knowledge and skills necessary for adult life. Spanish students' average score, 485 points, was significantly below the average score of 500 for students in 30 OCDE member countries. The report was a kind of external audit that confirmed Spaniards' widespread belief that their educational system is not up to European Union standards, despite Spain's high level of economic development. Furthermore, it reinforced the opinion that Spain's educational system is not prepared to respond to the demands of a globalised world. High dropout rates, related to deficiencies in reading comprehension, mathematical reasoning and problem-solving, may have dramatic consequences in the long run for the productivity of our society and, therefore, for the maintenance of standards of living. That is why it is absolutely necessary to undertake, as soon as possible, some kind of research in order to analyse, from different perspectives, the reasons for school failure and to propose practical measures to remedy it.

The present project, developed with this purpose in mind, was carried out in several Spanish schools by the LECCO research team of the Complutense University of Madrid during academic years 2002/03, 2003/04 and 2004/05. The team's main researchers were Estela D'Angelo and Jose Oliva. The project was performed in collaboration with The Spanish Association of Reading and Writing (AELE).

The PROAI Program had the following aims:
- Supporting the formation of competent readers and writers in the population of children who are identified with problems in their literacy process.
- Evaluating the transformations of the linguistic and communicative abilities that the participating children express through their productions and interpretations of written texts.
- Identifying new areas of significant learning and their systematic interrelation, in the processes of evaluating the teaching and learning of the written language (mother tongue -L1- or second language -L2).

In order to realise these objectives, the program was organized around the following contexts of performance:
- Five years of research.
- Thirty public schools in different areas, mainly in Madrid.
- Over five hundred students (ages 6-8)
- Fifty longitudinal study cases.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROGRAM

The research teams that carried out this program in the schools were organized to work with the pupils on two kinds of proposals:

- Workshops Outside the Reference Classrooms of Each Student (Weekly): Students with problems in the use of the written language in either the mother tongue (l1) or second language (l2) in the context of immigration, and/or who show some kind of risk factor because they are immersed in a difficult social context
- Workshops in the Context of the Classroom of the Pupils Included in the Program (Monthly Tendency): All the groups (the classrooms) to which each participant student in the weekly workshops belongs.
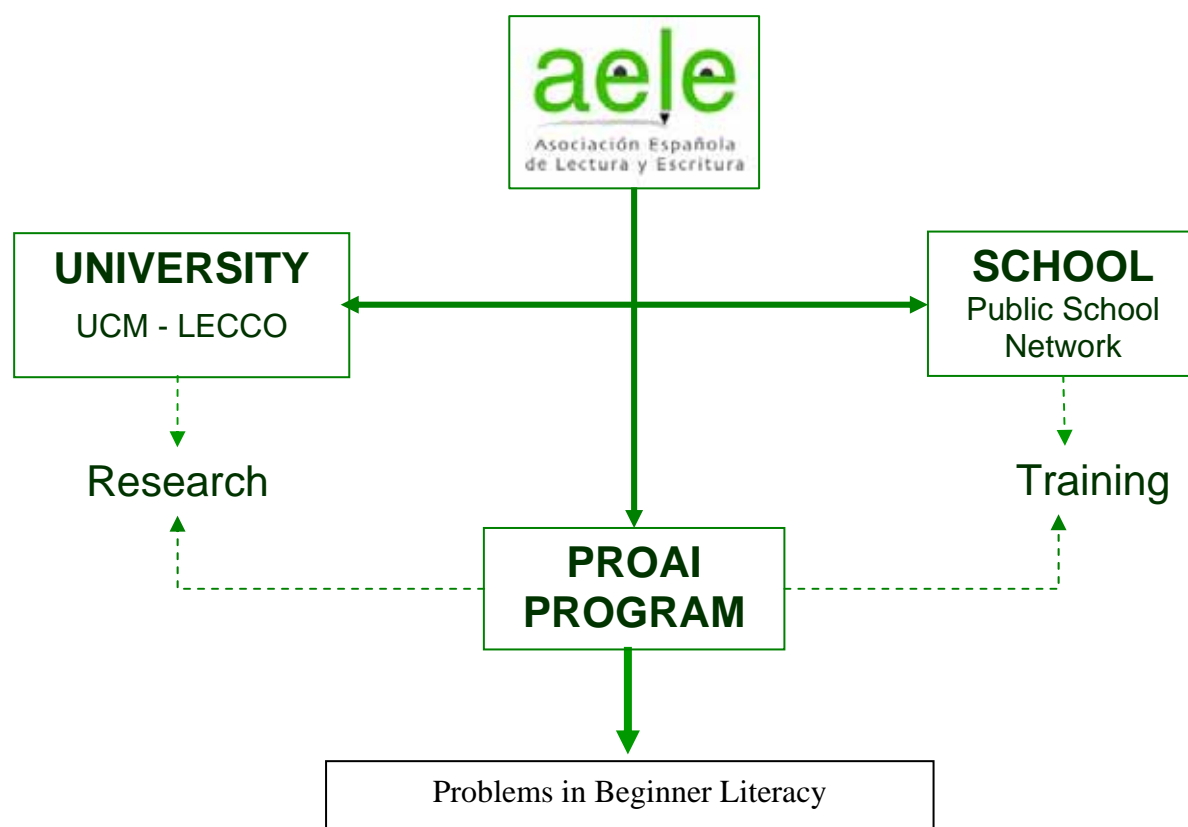
To study student work, inside and outside of the classroom, and to support the formation of competent readers and writers, the proposals to be carried out with the pupils were divided into different moments:

First moment: A space for adults and pupils to talk to each other is created. The objective of this moment is to build a semantic field and to support the development of orality.

Second moment: A writing or reading proposal is constructed that has both meaning for the students and communicative intention. This action is organized to support the development of the pragmatic functions of the language.

Third moment: The most suitable style to express the ideas generated in the previous moments is decided upon. The objective is to develop organizative strategies for this proposal in the workshop.

Fourth moment: The adult allows the group greater or lesser levels of decision, depending on the autonomy students will assume in carrying out the tasks. Written and reading productions are alternated to support the development of interactive, linguistic and communicative capacities.

Fifth moment:

1) The adult acts in student's zone of proximal development (ZDP) (helping with the difficulties they face).

2) The adult helps in the ZDP of the students who do not agree with the group proposal. Students and adults together reflect on the objectives of both aspects, that is, on the rules and functions of the language. This reflection process is careful to respect the students' stage of conceptualization of the writing system, their way to give coherence to the speech and their textual style. Improvement mechanisms in all areas of the written production are initiated.

A CASE STUDY: HRISTIYANA

The following case took place in a school of the south of the city of Madrid. The socioeconomic level is average-to-low. In recent years this area has received a great influx of immigrant population, mostly from South American countries and Eastern Europe. We describe the process of linguistic adaptation of a girl who is also immersed in a migratory adaptation process.

The teacher says about this child...
- she is six years old
- she arrived from Bulgaria a few months ago and she does not speak Spanish;
- she is calm and remains in constant silence in the classroom;
- she can not read or write, she only knows some letters and writes her name.

During the first months she used drawing as her only way to communicate with others because she did not know Spanish. She could only write her name, which she wrote only in capital, print letters. After overcoming her stage of silence, she acquired more confidence in her writing abilities. Her drawings and texts were fairly close to the specific content of each proposal. Some examples of her writing...
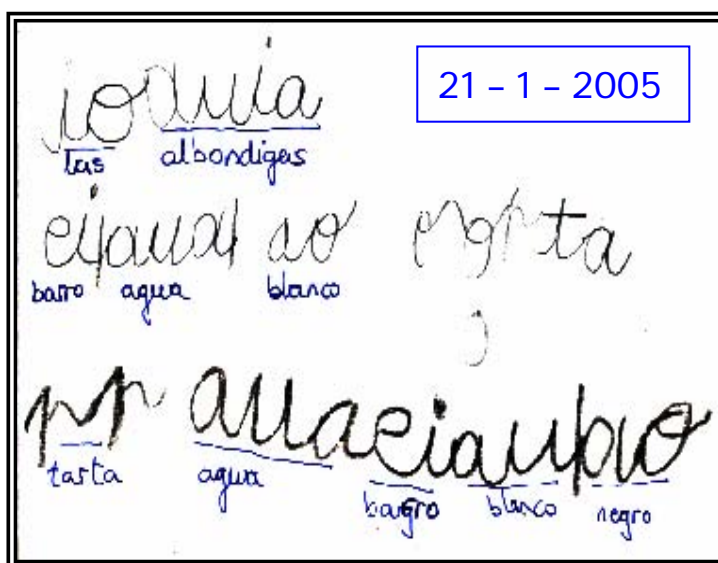
This first production, where she writes about her favorite games, can be related with a hypothesis of conceptualisation of the written language, at a syllabic level: she is discovering the grapheme-phoneme association in the structure of the syllable. For example, we can observe: 'aua' maintains the alphabetical correspondence with '*agua' (water)*; and 'ei', does not maintain this correspondence with '*barro*' (*mud).*[56]

Little by little, she is discovering the grapheme-phoneme association. She can incorporate more than one letter in the same syllabic construction (syllabic-alphabetical level). For example, when she writes about her favourite food, she uses 'elo' instead 'eo' to write 'melón', or 'pañl' instead 'pñl' to write 'española' (Spanish).

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[56] Important note: in Spanish, the letters are phonetically transparent

patatas   melón   queso

tortilla   española

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In the next case she is explaining the rules of a game. Different hypotheses appear in one syllable: Amount: a minimum number of letters are necessary to write; Variability: each word has to be written with different characters from others.

We can see this in the word "amaill" transcribed as "amarillo" (yellow). In this example, she explains different aspects of her life: she wants to have a lot of boyfriends and she does not like to wake up early in the morning to go to school.

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Here, she is able to use different syllabic constructions (Consonant-Vowel-Consonant). In the words "por" (by) or "levantarme" (wake up) she writes "po" and "levatame". She is in alphabetical-middle level.
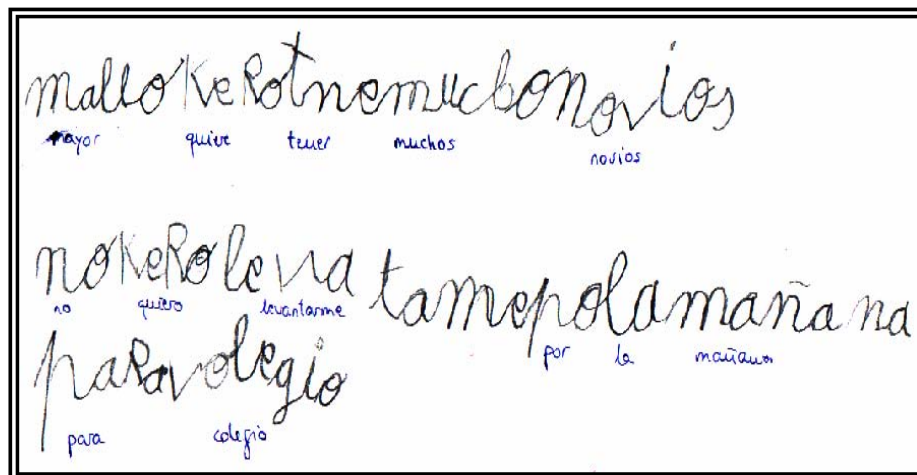
When we proposed that the pupils write a letter to other children, Hristiyana's writing appears in an alphabetical level of conceptualization of the writing system. She is able to construct all the syllabic combinations. Over the course of the entire process, she confronts the discovery of words' conventional segmentation and remains in a hyposegmentation state.

CONCLUSIONS

When the teacher's methodology and criteria of evaluation did not assume:
- cognitive mistakes in the learning of the written language
- level of learning of the group of students
- previous knowledge with respect to the didactic proposal

And the students show a hypothesis of conceptualization of the written language without phonetization or with an initial level of phonetization (maternal language or second language).

Then … The level of development in relation to capacities is:
- Cognitive: They do not understand the phoneme-grapheme association.
- Emotional: They demonstrate insecurity and dependency in solving the grapheme-phoneme association. They look for elements that offer them security (to ask, to copy, the adult...).
- Metacognitive: They become mentally blocked when searching for graphemes that solve their own level of phonetization. They show dependent behaviour when they try to solve reading or writing problems.
- Socio-interactive: They cannot share or discover how written language is constructed in a group context.

When the teacher's methodology and the criteria of evaluation assumed:
- cognitive mistakes in the learning of the written language
- level of learning of the group of students
- previous knowledge with respect to the didactic proposal

and they are considered important in supporting the development of each student, we find that both sorts of students, (a) students with a hypothesis of conceptualization of the written language without phonetization or with an initial level of phonetization (maternal language or second language), (b) students with a hypothesis of conceptualization of the syllabic-alphabetical and alphabetical language (maternal language or second language), have the same answer.

Then…
The Level of Development in Relation to Capacities (Students A and B) is:
- Cognitive: They can understand alphabetical combinatory skills based on the conceptualization stage that they have.

- Emotional: They accept their knowledge with respect to the alphabetical code.
- Metacognitive: They use strategies to solve alphabetical combinatory skills according to the knowledge they have.
- Socio-interactive: They share and can discover how construct written language in a group context is.

Throughout this article, we can see how a methodology that is careful to respect learning processes and life experiences of the students contributes to the development of the language and communicative skills and also improves emotional aspects associated with learning and the school environment.

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Dynamic Assessment and Learning During the First Months in School

Ann-Sofie Selin and Pehr-Olof Rönnholm,
Cygnaeus School, Turku, Finland

In this article we will describe the work done in Cygnaeus School, with some 450 pupils. Cygnaeus School is a regular school for pupils in grades 1–6 in Turku, Finland. Finland has a public school system with practically no private schools. The school has nine grades. Children enter school in August of they year in which they are 7. The language of instruction in this school is Swedish. The majority of schools teach in Finnish. Finland has two official languages by constitution. Swedish is the language of instruction in 6% of the schools in Finland.

The results of the PISA assessment of 15-year olds suggests that students and schools perform better in a climate characterised by high expectations and the readiness to invest effort, the enjoyment of learning, a strong disciplinary climate, and good teacher-student relations. Andreas Schleicher (2005) from the OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development), which is responsible for the PISA study, says that in higher-achieving countries, national research teams report a strong "culture of performance" which drives students, parents and teachers and the educational administration to high performance standards. In our view the staff at Cygnaeus School is representative of those teachers that have a strong "culture of performance" and have set their goals high.

Looking at proficiency at or below Level 1 in PISA 2000, that is, poor reading skills, we note that just 7% of Finnish students were classified in this way, compared with an OECD average of 18%. The only country where the proportion of poor performers was smaller than in Finland was Korea. In the other well-performing countries, the percentage of students at or below Level 1 clearly exceeded that of Finland (Välijärvi, J. et al 2002). We think that the school in Finland takes good care of at-risk students.

In the following we will give the reader a glimpse of how the special teacher at Cygnaeus deals with the tentative learning difficulties she meets among the poor performers at the school start.

SCREENING AND ASSESSMENT

Most children begin school well equipped to rapidly acquire and increase their reading and writing skills. Some children do not have the relevant skills and the dispositions to accomplish this. It is our task as professionals to catch these children before they become at risk of failing and loose their motivation. In this presentation we will describe how teachers in collaboration meet the needs of the individual child entering school.

The special teacher describes her work as follows: My pupils are 7 to 12 years old. I work with all pupils in the school. I screen them on a yearly bases and offer remedial and special education in periods of six weeks. Below I will describe the first six weeks working together with pupils in grade 1. These six weeks are the most exciting weeks for my pupils and me.

Annually, some sixty children begin formal education in Cygnaeus School. They are eager, full of confidence and finally in school! They have yet not encountered setbacks and the feeling of failure. It is of outmost importance that we hold on to their feeling of confidence. This requires professionalism in observing and assessing the children's abilities and learning prerequisites.

Finland has no mandatory testing before the end of the gymnasium at the age of 18. This is something we believe in. There is too big a risk in mandatory testing, a risk of loosing sight of the individual needs and an individual's potential, too big a risk to start teaching to the test in order to show results that look good in comparison with other schools or to enhance the teacher's ego or the reputation of the school.

In this article we describe how the screening and the assessment is used for the purpose of preventive instruction, never for grading of pupils. The assessment includes both static and dynamic elements. Static assessment gives the professional teacher a base line. Dynamic assessment is part of instruction. It is targeted at the zone of proximal development and helps the teacher construct the optimal scaffold for the individual pupil.

During the first week of school, the special education teacher meets all school beginners, and they get acquainted. In Cygnaeus School it is natural to work with the special teacher.

Assessment one: Phonological awareness

During the following days all pupils are invited to the special education class where their phonological awareness is assessed using a group-administered Swedish assessment tool "Fonolek" (Olofsson, Å. & Hemmingsson, I., 1997). Participation requires no letter knowledge or reading skills and works with limited vocabulary. The special education teacher does it with half a class – 10-12 pupils per group works well. The assessment includes phoneme segmentation (6 tasks), sound comparison (6 tasks) and phoneme blending (6 tasks). Examples of the assessment tasks are:

- *Phoneme segmentation*: draw a line for each sound you hear in RAT!
- *Sound comparison*: Boys and girls this is a … SUN (sol), yes, what sound comes first? … SSS, and here beside is a … MOON, SVAMP (mushroom), PICTURE and CAR. Which one of them sounds like SUN in the beginning?
- *Phoneme blending*: what am I thinking of when I say /b/ – /o/ – /k/?

Any child with 12 correct answers or less out of 18 (6+6+6) possible will be included in small group intervention for increased linguistic awareness twice a week for at least a 6-week period. This group is for prevention purposes and by the end of the period these pupils will be reassessed. The results in phoneme blending are of particular interest. The researchers at the Centre for Learning Research at Turku University have found that initial difficulties in this area increase the risk for persistent difficulties in reading in grade 3 (Poskiparta et al, 1999). Therefore a low score (less than 4 of 6) in blending will alert the teachers despite total scores of 12 or above of 18.

Assessment two: Decoding

During the second school week reading proficiency is assessed individually, focusing on letter knowledge and reading of words and sentences. Also in the process of working through words and sentences, which are organised from phonologically simple to complicated, questions are presented which assess both comprehension and awareness within the child. The reason for doing this is to establish knowledge of metacognition.

Assessment three: School readiness

The third form of assessment is a task of Controlled Observation of Drawing, which is developed by Tove Krogh in Denmark. This group-administered assessment task is conducted in half class with the special education teacher administering the test and the class teacher observing the pupils and taking notes without intervening in the process. The purpose is to assess the children' ability to pay attention, ability to follow directions, knowledge of vocabulary and strategies used etc. This is a static assessment conducted by the book. When the child does not get it, the teacher moves on. The class teacher is observing. The special education teacher is in charge. Following the 30-40-minute session the two teachers sit down and compare their observations and finalise the notes. This drawing observation task is used for planning of classroom administration and individualisation of the teaching.

PROFILE OF SCHOOL BEGINNERS

Within two weeks the phonemic awareness and reading skills of all first grade pupils are described and we have a profile of the school beginners. The results from both the reading and the phonological awareness assessment are used when the special education teacher meets with the class teacher for two purposes: to choose the first reading book on the optimal level and to decide on possible inclusion in small group instruction. Individual or small group instruction by any teacher in the school should be considered as a natural part of the schoolwork.

Within three weeks a schedule for preventive education for potentially at-risk pupils is set and running.

In first grade we have pupils who read a couple of sentences and others who can almost read Harry Potter like novels. This is at school start. Thus it is obvious that some children need a good boost to get going without loosing their self-confidence and eagerness to learn. During the first six weeks such pupils are included in small group intervention twice a week for strengthening linguistic

awareness. And by the end of the first 6-weeks period dynamic and static assessment has resulted in the first re-evaluation and new learning groups.

Ten years ago we learned from scholars in neighbouring Scandinavian countries, Torleiv Høien and Ingvar Lundberg (1996), Karin Taube (1995), Jørgen Frost (1995) and others that linguistic awareness is essential for learning to read and write. We also learned how to assess phonological awareness, and we learned how to give individual support both in the classrooms and individually. Applying this knowledge makes the foundation for the scaffold for learning. Since most of the pupils we work with during the first period score low in the phonological awareness assessment we can start working with them using almost identical exercises with the same picture cards, the same wording. Part from phonological awareness the pupil's learning prerequisites differ from each other. The children are taught in groups of two, three or four. But after a couple of mini-lessons of 20 minutes there may be a need for regrouping, more challenging tasks, easier tasks or the same tasks over and over again. Working with ongoing dynamic assessment can help a child make a huge leap in a fortnight. In two weeks we may focus on the next stage in learning. Other pupils are still struggling after six months, but the work goes on.

Follow-up

During the first six weeks from school start last year 16 out of 60 pupils had special instruction. During the following six weeks 11 pupils continued. In twelve weeks we run a second set of screening assessment with those first grade pupils who had low scores initially or who had not cracked the code by school start. This time we look for rhyming skills and, phonological position analysis, segmentation and blending. Last academic year the results left us with five pupils still lacking phonological proficiency. We also found five new ones who needed special attention.

For screening purposes we look at what the pupil can and cannot do. But in our work we focus on what the child could learn and how. This helps us to be professionals with a positive attitude to each learner we work with. We need to know the base line and see the potential and how the job should be done, or quoting Vygotsky "See the possibilities, not the limitations."

CONCLUSION

On concluding we want to stress that in the future a knowledge-based society needs all of its citizens to be committed to the pursuit of learning. We must create a solid and flexible infrastructure for education, which provides all learners with opportunities to obtain an education at the highest level and allows flexible routes to facilitate the continuation of education at any stage of life, education, which is equal and encouraging to different learners. This is a task for every one of us in education.

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On the Way to Changing the Future
Tatiana Potyaeva, Moscow, Russia

 At school all students take the same journey, but they don't travel at the same speed. With the help of the teachers, however, they will all make it their destination: reading (Robert Millard).

When several years ago we were proposed to enter the project: *Schools Where Literacy Thrives (SWLT)*, carried out by the European Committee of the IRA, we took the decision immediately because of several reasons:

- We had low test scores on quality of reading and writing at school, at regional level, and at national level
- Our students did not exercise higher-order thinking strategies.
- They did not engage in critical thinking.
- Comprehension level was low, though reading skills and habits were not altogether bad.
- We were aware that we help and support of best practices used in the world to teach the students
- We wanted to apply reading strategies to everyday classroom practice.
- We were interested in new methods of testing and assessment especially after PISA results.
- We needed professional development to improve teaching because good teaching is important.

Imagine: An entire generation of children who can read. Imagine: What they can build, what they can achieve, what they can become.

So SWLT project is a good start for those who are striving for a successful school and successful students. In all parts of the world school administers and teachers dream of creating an interesting, effective and creative school.

Today in our country we have several (four) types of schools with their curriculum, culture and traditions. They chose their set of textbooks, educational materials, methods, and strategies. Though a school has some opportunities, it is not easy to find those good new things which help a school to create its image.

EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

Before joining the project we made a list of characteristics of a good effective school. An effective school is a school which is characterized by:

1) high students results in learning;
2) professional teachers;
3) good successful students;
4) a positive school environment and atmosphere, where students and teachers, teachers and parents, administors and teachers understand each other, share the aims and objectives and become supportive and creative in their realization.

An effective school is a school where the students themselves feel comfortable and safe, where they study with interest, where their motivation is supported, and where they develop into persons. An effective school:

- is a school that gives opportunities for self-development;
- is a school the parents support the innovations of the school;
- is a school with good reading halls and classrooms full of good literature for students and for teachers, that allows them to create projects and to do research;
- is a school with harmony between "I and WE". Solidarity and cooperation in work is impossible without communication and responsibility.
- is a school that implements the implements main principles of the quality education of the XXI century – learning to know; learning to do; learning to be; learning to live together.
- is a school of good traditions, culture and history;
- is a school which cultivates respect for nature, for the school, for parents, for society;
- is a school of love and trust;
- is a school where the administration is open to the new, to experimental work and supports the innovations;

- is a school of reflection and self-determination.
- is a school where development of students, teachers, the staff is a priority.

After listing the characteristics, we turned to our experience. Our school is famous for the quality of language studies, for its extra-curricular work, for keeping traditions, and for high quality of instruction. After finishing school all our students enter Universities. But reflecting on our experience in innovations and our efforts to reinforce the humanistic, ethical, cultural dimensions of education, we understood that the time has come to start international projects, which in general, are extremely beneficial.

Modernization of educational system in Russia is closely connected with integration into the international system of education.

STEPS IN THE PROCESS

The following steps are landmarks on our journey:

1981 – We received a certificate of a UNESCO school.

1987-89 – The first USSR school to introduce computer sciences. Joint work with the IBM company to prepare software for the Russian market.

At that period of time children in the Soviet Union read a lot, though it was difficult to buy good books. Each new publication started a discussion; the most widely discussed books were included into our curriculum. We were proud of the fact that our students knew a lot about international and national literature and all our students visited libraries and reported to the teachers monthly about books they read.

At the same time we were very poor with computers. And we dreamed about having computer sciences in our curriculum. Attending presentations by the managers of the IBM company made us think that we would never reach such a level.

Years passed. Now we have modern computers, Internet, computer laboratories where the students work. But reading shocked the teachers: both quantity and quality of reading skills dropped dramatically. Now students spent more time in computer classes, and stopped visiting libraries. So we faced the problems in reading and writing.

1995 – We joined the group of experimental schools in Moscow, working with foreign languages and foreign literature.

1996 – The school became IBO school, we joined MYP in the IBO.

1998 – The school joined the International Reading Association.

All these organizations contributed to school modernization. Now we are proud to become one of the most famous schools in Moscow thanks to SWLT project.

Another motive of our schools to join the project was to form and develop study skills based reading. National research shows that only 5% of students of middle school (grades 5- 6) enjoy study skills connected with reading.

As with other school-participants of SWLT project, we started our work by combining reading across curriculum and beyond it. We have incorporated into the curriculum an extra unit on reading in the middle of the working day from grade 5 to grade 9. An extra reading lesson has increased the role of the library as a resource center where the students not only get information, but also are looking for information about the information. The lesson is sometimes structured as a silent reading lesson, sometimes as a discussion, sometimes as a reading in-circle-process. The outcome is the increase in literacy skills, expansion of reading repertoire, character building and above all promotion of reading and fostering it. The annual Questionnaire showed that the students like reading, that reading has become popular, "cool", fashionable, that they are reading more sophisticated books.

"We create our tomorrow by our today dreams"

The main extra-curricular activities in our school are the following:

- Literacy week (1-8 September): From the Day of Knowledge to the Day of Literacy;
- Leaders of Reading school;
- Book clubs;
- Reader-groups (students and teachers);
- Readers conferences;
- Sustained Silent Reading Program;

- Reading Logs;
- Dramatization of books;
- Reading Theatre;
- Publishing;
- Books restorations;
- Reading Festivals.

Searching for information has been one of the most sensitive issues for our students. When a student was asked to find some information in the text, he/she often couldn't distinguish facts for opinions, main idea from supporting details, or analyze the relationship between the text and graphic information presented in tables, charts and graphs. Central concepts were never fully comprehended.

So, the teachers included into their set of methods reading strategies for searching for information in the texts across curriculum so that the students improved their comprehension. The students have learned to skim and scan large portions of texts to find information quickly; they have acquired skills to read graphs, charts, maps and notations specific to the content area; and they have expanded their vocabulary.

Another reason for our participation in this project was to apply in our system of education interactive methods and develop critical thinking which can't be done without a teacher development course.

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

Teacher development included:
- Promotion of reading among teachers, when teachers build and share with the students a joy of reading;
- Discussion of texts and sharing impressions with colleagues and students;
- Expansion of vocabulary, awareness of vocabulary building strategies;
- Spelling and editing strategies;
- Modeling thinking activities, "think aloud" strategy;
- The importance of background information for the students and introduction of an engagement or before-reading stage of the rationale when planning a lesson;
- Various methods of assessment and monitoring including tests, performance-based assessment, forms of authentic assessment, such as Portfolio, Checklists, rubrics.

The teachers of our school have learned to apply a wide range of reading strategies before, while and after reading:

Before reading	*While reading*	*After reading*
- Brainstorming - Anticipation Guide - Making prognosis - Hypothesizing - Modeling - Demonstration - Think aloud - Question Dissection - Choosing a book for independent reading	- Reading aloud - Singing parts of the text - Guided reading - Time out - Read-Stop-Discuss - Chapter Tour - Self-monitoring - Visualizing - Graphic Organizers - Listening and Reading - Reading in Pairs	- Comprehension check strategies - Inferences - Making connections to other texts and background information - Text organization strategies - Language development strategies

Forms of assessment have also changed. Nowadays we have introduced into schools practice Portfolios of Achievements for students and Professional Portfolios for teachers.

Five years of hard and creative work have changed both teachers and students. The students have become independent readers, who choose more and more sophisticated literature which needs high order thinking, analysis, reasoning etc.

ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

Any project requires the leadership of administration. It is one of the key features of success and is no less important than a positive school environment.

The principal has to adopt and adjust project content, to define the aims and objectives, to distribute the roles and to monitor it. The principal:

- builds the relationships of the parties to the project;
- communicates with all the participants teachers, students, parents, local authorities, etc);
- uses information to make decisions;
- monitors classroom teaching;
- creates the atmosphere of responsibility;
- supports and encourages;
- organizes training and professional development of teachers and staff.

The success of the project in Moscow makes it popular among other schools of the city and the country. Some other schools would like to join in and to start to work on to literacy, literacies and culture.

I'd like to recommend the project to other participants and to announce two more reports of our school teachers, one in charge of Reading, the other of foreign languages.

A Medium for Learning to Think: Literacy in Foreign Languages in Schools Where Literacy Thrives

Svetlana Ushakova, Moscow, Russia

The project "School where Literacy Thrives" was launched at Linguistic School 1531, Moscow, Russia in 2000. It made us think of the philosophy of the project, and the approaches to the creation of an educational environment which could better meet the demands of modern society.

Nowadays the society needs young people with highly developed cognitive capacity and respect for learning, the capacities which are the prerequisites for intellectual growth. These include the ability to reason and take multiple perspectives, to be creative and to take risks, to adopt an experimental and problem-solving orientation, and to access, understand, transform and transit information at ever-faster rates. There is a demand in society for young people with self-esteem, motivation, character and civic responsibility, who have respect for individual, cultural, religious and racial differences. There is a demand for literate citizens.

There are different definitions of literacy. Some imply that literacy is static and absolute; once you are able to sign your name, or finish a certain grade level you are considered "literate". Other definitions view literacy as dynamic or relative; they assume literacy should be defined only within a certain context of functioning, which may change from country to another, or over time.

We agree that a literate person is the one who is able to engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning in his/her country. The PISA literacy concept which regards "the ability to read and write as essential to personal fulfilment, to full adult participation in social, cultural and political life, to personal empowerment, and to success in securing and maintaining employment" is also appealing.(OECD,2002,p9)

That is why when the writing project started at school in 2003 a broad context was chosen as an approach to teaching it. It included integration of reading and writing in both mother tongue and foreign language as "natural acquisition", as discussed by S. Krashen (1984) in his works.

By that time a lot of changes had taken place in the school development; a "Sustainable Reading Programme" and an "Extensive Reading Programme" had been introduced; and a strategic approach to reading instruction was being applied. This resulted in a list of the most popular and effective reading strategies. The compiled list of the most popular strategies among the students is as follows:

- GSR – gist, summary, retelling (by N. Smetannikova) helps the students to present the text with different degrees of completeness; (Smetannikova,2005)
- KWL – What I know – What I want to Know – What I Learned – (by D Ogle) makes it possible to include prior knowledge into the context of teaching;
- Q-A-R (Question Answer Relationships) -question- answer – relationship (by T. Raphael) which develops the students' ability to find the answers in the text; (Buehl, 2004)

The teachers added some more strategies to the list:
- Oral reading in a circle by students which develops both the reading aloud skills and comprehension;
- QD – Question Dissection – (by D. Williams) which helps understand, interpret and paraphrase the task;
- Graphical organizers for the texts of different formats, genre and frame;
- "Following the Character"(by D. Buehl,) which helps the student to analyze the story characters; (Buehl, 2004)
- Authentic assessment and "Portfolio" assessment which make the students autonomous and develop their reflection skills and self-confidence.

A WRITING PROJECT

The writing project started with the definition of aims in four spheres: school environment, school curriculum, the teachers and the students. (Zimnyaia, 2001).The main objective at the level of school was to promote literacy. At the level of curriculum, we planned to define the writing skills of

the learners to promote their development and help teachers learn how to do it in the course of lessons. The project was also aimed at helping teachers become aware of the national and international methods of teaching writing as well as adopting and adjust the writing strategies.

In the course of discussing the project with the students-participants the following aims were defined: to learn to read as a writer; to learn to write as a reader and to do a character development.

The students of high school became the participants of the writing project. They were 15 boys and 35 girls. Their level of English as a foreign language varied from pre-intermediate (A2) to lower advanced (C1) according to the standards of "Common European Framework of Reference for Languages – Learning, Teaching, Assessment"(Morrow ,2004). Each student defined his or her personal aims for the project. Among the most common ones was the wish to develop writing skills in English, to publish and share the stories with the classmates, to discuss sensitive, important problems, to improve and enrich vocabulary and grammar structures, to learn editing as well as to learn to write in different genres.

The students were engaged in the project for two years. They spent 20 minutes at each English lesson (4 times a week) and 20 minutes at home each night on writing. We witnessed the first progress after the first year of the project.

Good results were achieved at the end of the second year when alongside the time at the English lessons and at home two extra lessons on developing reading and writing skills were brought into the curriculum. So the students spent 160 minutes per on writing on English in the academic year lasting 32 weeks.

The students were learning to write in three formats: an article (an informational text), a story (a narrative text), and a composition (an expository text). At first it was important to define the order of teaching these formats.

Writing a story was the easiest task for the students. It might result from the fact that the story has a clear format and the students have had considerable story reading experience, which provided enough background information for developing plots and characters. Their personal experience and vision of the problems made story construction interesting for them.

Writing informational texts such as articles, reports and projects was more difficult as this text format needs deeper curriculum knowledge, a higher level of language development as well as language competence in general. Studying a lot of informational texts previously with different reading strategies helped the students in creating their own texts of this format.

Composition turned out to be the most difficult task for the students. One reason might be lack of competence in writing texts of expository format not only in English but in their mother tongue as well. Another reason was a relatively high level of content knowledge as well as means appropriate to expressing their ideas in rather sophisticated language. Writing expository text needs a certain level of creative and critical thinking as the structure of the format includes argumentation, reasoning and explanation.

The results of the project suggest that expository text type should be presented, only after the students have had enough experience in writing stories and informational texts.

Other results of the project that are worth mentioning include some effective organizational approaches for the Russian students of high school.

Teaching writing skills as well as other communicative skills in EFL, as in mother tongue, includes three stages: pre-writing, during writing, and after writing. (Zinkin, 1998) So it was important to define the strategies and the conditions of their effective use at each stage.

Strategic processing includes: input, intake and output. Intake turned out to be extremely important because the moment when a student took in a certain strategy provided an indication of his/her readiness to use it in a productive activity – in this case, writing. (Routman,2005)

That means that if the student takes in what he or she has been shown by the teacher in the context of guided discussion, then he or she is ready to use them in independent practice, to apply strategies in writing. If they don't internalize the strategies, they might be successful in guided exercises but will most certainly fail in independent writing. The project proved that the teacher should not take it for granted that after some guided practice all the students will be successful in independent writing. The choice of effective strategies is quite individual and each student will take in only those which are the most suitable and effective for him/her.

It goes without saying that effective organization of a pre-writing stage plays an important role in developing writing skills: the students generate ideas, plan and organize them to produce effective writing.

The research showed that a pre-writing stage need not be time consuming or laborious. Moreover, it should be concise and selective. The teacher should focus on the most important thing for the lesson, remembering that one can effectively do one thing at a time, no matter if you work on ideas, text organization or work with words or grammar.

Pre-writing discussion is important for students to share ideas, to get into the context and clarify what they want to write about, to bring out individual voices and boost their self-esteem.

The students discussed the topic, defined the aim of their writing (frame), and named the elements and the structure of the text (format) and reading strategies which could be also effective in writing. They learned to state a thesis, suggest premises, and make assumptions and analogies to support their ideas.

The students were engaged in free writing activity at every lesson. It took about 10 minutes to write their ideas down so that they could develop them later at home. It is a great way to build endurance, confidence and writing fluency. Free writing sometimes helped to uncover a topic. (Graves, 2003)

The teacher and the students negotiated the following values as the themes for their writing project: differences, tolerance, care and consideration, responsibility, friendship and love.

The students examined their beliefs and convictions as they brought to light assumptions and kept alive the sense of wonder about the world. They discussed their new understanding of the notion, and questioned and made connections to themselves, other texts and their world.

The students started with a whole piece of writing for an intended reader, so that they could then look at the parts and connect them back with a whole. They were learning to ensure that the text was meaningful and clear to the reader as well as accurate, legible and engaging.

At the pre-writing study stage the students experimented with verbs, nouns, adjectives and structures of paragraphs. They practised creating engaging beginnings so that the reader could be attracted right from the start, and developed endings that could bring a sense of closure. They tried different grammar patterns to make the dialogues of the characters vivid and engaging, to include humour and point of view.

While organizing the during-writing stage, we paid attention to some activities such as making decisions and reviewing while going along the text. That's why the development of three Rs in this process was the objective of teaching. Three Rs stand for rereading, rethinking, and revising while composing. It turned out to be one of the most difficult parts of the project. Most of the students didn't have any habit of doing it. And before they started to reread, rethink and revise their text while writing, the pair work helped a lot to improve the quality of writing. The students shared their draft papers with their classmates, going over and over previously written text, crossing things out, adding some new ones in the margins. Their partners helped them find answers to the questions, like the following: Does it make sense? What can I leave out? What is still missing that I need to add? Will it sound better if I change the word? The students were developing meaning when they were writing. Writing made them think deeper and better.

As the nature of writing is recursive, the post writing or reflection stage is of great importance. The students learned to reflect and analyze their writing. They worked with their "Portfolio" where they arranged their writing biographies and reflected on them.

Shared discussions were very helpful in the development of students' reflection skills. They discussed the topic, register, the style, the target audience. They learned to edit and apply correct conventions and form. They were learning to write as readers.

We assumed that through the process of discussion and creative writing the students would develop insight, independence and more mature levels of judgment. The project was to help us develop the students' levels of justifying knowledge at a higher level of reasoning where the highest level of justification is based on careful questioning about and evaluation of observations, experience, expertise, evidence, data, biases and a context through a process of inquiry. In its turn, such inquiry can serve as an effective standard for the personal decision making. (Friedman,& Cataldo, 2002).

In the course of the project the students developed their awareness of the values; gained insight about the nature of some problems connected with them and discussed their possible solutions.

They became interested in these values which led to more reading and discussion. They became confident in sharing their personal experience. They started to realize that life is not about good and bad or black and white. It's about resolving life's dilemmas through careful reasoning, open-mindedness, patience, understanding, respect and tolerance.

The project stated that reading and writing are closely connected processes that support each other and participation in strong writing processes clearly benefits both reading and writing development. The students started to read widely and deeply, paying attention to what other authors do, how they craft their writing.

Besides, the project showed the positive influence of writing activities on the development of oral speech and habits. The students learned to elaborate ideas and present them clearly in a logical, well-organized way.

The project proved again the statement made by a distinguished Russian psychologist Leo Vygotsky (1999, p321) who wrote that "communication in writing relies on the formal meanings of words and requires a much greater number of words than oral speech to convey the same idea. It is addressed to an absent person who rarely has in mind the same subject as the writer. Therefore it must be fully deployed; systematic differentiation is at a maximum..... In written speech, as tone of voice and knowledge of subject are excluded, we are obliged to use many more words, and to use them more exactly. Written speech is the most elaborate form of speech."

RESULTS OF THE PROJECT

At the end of the second academic year we got the following results: The students started to read as writers. And it helped them develop the awareness of how different genres work and apply that knowledge and develop their own writing. Their reading comprehension improved greatly in a wide range of different genres.

The teachers defined the effective reading strategies for writing, and learned about approaches to teaching writing at its different stages and the importance of strategic processing. The project showed the effectiveness of the integrated approach to teaching language skills and showed the order of teaching different formats of the texts. The course of reading and writing was introduced into school curriculum for high school.

The way to introduce, discuss and write about values was suggested as a possible approach to foster and up-bring character education on the school environment level.

The materials of the project became a practical manual on how to start to discuss and write about values.

The results of the writing project made it possible for us to recommend its introduction in the curriculum of schools involved in the project "School Where Literacy Thrives".

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Schools Where Literacy Thrives:
Experiences from Russia

Natalia N. Smetannikova, Moscow, Russia

A large classroom in "Nadezhda" school, full of school teachers, administrators, and research leaders, is incredibly quiet. The students are attentive. Natalia Naidenova, Russian expert for PIRLS and PISA is announcing the latest results of school test that was similar to PIRLS 2000: "In general, the results of your school are higher than average of Russia and Moscow, in some cases dramatically higher." (PISA Survey,2001), (Naidenova, 2003) ,(Kovaleva G, Krasnovsky E, Krasnianskaya, 2001)

The results were beyond the teachers expectations. In what way is this school different from thousands of others in Moscow and Russia?

It uses the framework of the project "School where Literacy Thrives."

HISTORY

The International Development in Europe Committee (IDEC) of IRA launched the Schools Where Literacy Thrives project in London in 1998 in a context of changing paradigm of European education connected with several important events. Among them were the following:

- four main competences declared by UNESCO as the aims of education: learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together, learning to be;
- learner-centred approaches to instruction which places a student in the process of learning and defines the relationship between teachers and students as those of partners;
- a broad social context which stressed the role of parents, community, social and cultural organizations, etc;
- a multiple literacies approach which includes not only functional and academic literacies but also informational, computer, economic, and judicial literacies, among others;
- a decision of the European Parliament to reject the idea of one language, either artificial (Esperanto) or living (English) for Europe, and introduction of several languages into school curricula;
- "one classroom for different children" – enrolment of children with special needs into ordinary schools;
- first international assessment programs.

Carol Santa, then the president of IRA read in London her report about effective help for slow readers and Peter Harmon, a well-known researcher from the USA, spoke about relationship between teaching literacy and family. A lot of educators, researchers and teachers took part in the discussion which resulted in a challenge: try to describe a school which might be a model for a European educational system, though everybody realized that such a school could not exist in any country. It might be called an image or a collection of features and characteristics towards which a real school might strive. It is a school where literacy thrives. Since that time, the questions of school environment and school development, teaching literacy and strategies, cognition and metacognition, languages and multilingual schools and a lot of other questions have been discussed in Braga (Portugal), Stavanger (Norway), Vienna (Austria), Oakland (New Zealand), Turku/Abo (Finland), Dublin (Ireland), Tallinn (Estonia), Moscow (Russia), Edinburgh (Scotland), Rethymnon (Greece), Reno-Tahoe (USA), Linkoping (Sweden), and Zagreb (Croatia).

The objectives resulted from the following aim: all the participants had to contribute national experience into this international pool, to learn from each other and to make the teachers and researchers aware of the project.

There are so far three schools in Russia which have joined the project. They are: linguistic school № 1531, Moscow, comprehensive non-government school "Nadezhda" ("Hope"), Moscow, and comprehensive school № 700, St. Petersburg. The first joined the project in 2001, the latter in 2004. The international team of educators decided to structure school characteristics into four spheres: School environment, instruction, teachers and learners. Today, the experience of the two

Moscow schools in three spheres is described below.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SWLT SCHOOLS

The School Environment

The school environment is characterised by:

1. Positive psychological and educational aspects;
2. A school library which is a resource centre, a reading hall and a discussion club;
3. Professionalism and culture of the staff;
4. Leadership of the administration;
5. Support of parents;
6. Respect for languages and literacy: instruction in several languages;
7. Creative learning;
8. Educational, supportive, cultural, special needs, fostering and other extra-curricula projects and programs connected with literacie;
9. Interaction of school and community, young and elderly people.
10. Supplementary reading lessons in middle school (grades 5-8) for all students.
11. "Learning to learn" projects, which may be curricular or extra-curricular.
12. Free time project, which includes monitoring of students free time activities
13. A greater role for the school environment, and less emphasis on socio-economic and cultural background.

Instruction

The following are aspects of instruction in the schools:

1. Variety and expediency of applied methods, strategies and techniques
2. Variety and appropriateness of applied organisational forms: pair and group work, whole class and individual work
3. Variety and appropriateness of learning: strategies and interaction, explicit and implicit learning.
4. Reading strategies across the curriculum; monitoring of comprehension levels.
5. A communicative approach to learning: developing reading, listening, speaking and writing skills
6. Various forms of assessment: tests, checklists, rubrics, portfolios.

Teachers

These are characteristics of effective teachers:

1. Philosophy, methodology, skills of a teacher are important.
2. Professional development of a teacher inside and outside school is important.
3. Vision, culture, literacy, and "reading personality" of a teacher is important.
4. Respect and position within the school are important for the teacher

The list needs some commentary. The school curriculum in Russia is adopted by a school's administration. It includes mandatory federal and regional components. Besides these two, there is a school component that includes several hours per week which might become an extra lesson in reading or mathematics or arts or languages.

Reading is a subject of elementary school (1-4 grades) in Russia. Starting from grade 5, the students have two subjects: the Russian language and Russian literature. Russian literature is a

difficult, sizable and extensive course. Pupils are supposed to read fiction at home and discuss it in the classroom. The majority of literature texts are narrative. Informational texts about the writers *support* the course. There is little time for reading aloud, or reading texts of other formats. The situation is reflected in PISA results: Russian students got better results in reading narrative rather than informational texts.

SWLT PROJECT ACTIVITIES

Schools which take part in the SWLT project orient their school component into literacy programs and projects. For example, in linguistic school 1531 where three foreign languages are learnt, there are extra lessons devoted to reading and discussion of books in foreign languages (in English, French, Spanish, German).

In "Nadezhda" school, the school-wide component includes a reading lesson in school library. This is called "Beyond the pages of your textbook". It's a "learning to learn" lesson, based on text analysis. Targeted at grades 5-8, this supplementary reading lesson   gives the teachers a chance to do "read aloud", to read various texts pairing them with mandatory reading materials, and to apply reading strategies.

Extra-curricula programs in SWLT are also centred on books. School № 700 in St. Petersburg has centred its educational, character-building and fostering reading programs on the book of Antoine de Saint-Exupury "Little Prince"; in school "Nadezhda", the theme is "Blue Bird" by Morris Mitterlink.

Reader-centred groups are a form of work more typical of libraries. It is a group activity that involves sharing feelings and impressions about the books which have been chosen and read by group members. Reading groups work in these schools not only with students but with teachers, and this is very important for school environment. Teachers, administration and school staff makes up reading groups to discuss the books they have read and connect them with their problems. It's a "live through" book conversation.

Supportive programs for students with special needs are carried out by both speech therapists and psychologists. Classroom teachers are also involved into them.

The "Reading in free time" project is a loose variant of Sustained Silent Reading Project. Pilgreen J (2000) When SSRP collects the students in one classroom and is held usually after a lunch time, giving students and teachers some time to rest with a book, a reading in free time project is aimed at promoting reading when students really have their free time and have a choice of activities. It is to make reading a popular, fashionable, "cool" activity. Competitions, discussions, news about books, posters with book titles are components. School library and classroom book clubs are becoming popular in schools. It changes school environment. It makes students less dependent on socio-economic background of the family, home library and cultural pursuits of their parents.

Extra-curricula programs include such events as "Literacy week" from September 1 that is the first day of schooling marked in the country as the "Day of Knowledge" until September 8 that is "International Literacy Day". A lot of events take place that week including: "School of Leaders of Reading", Reading conferences, Letters to the Writer, publishing school newspapers and many others.

Immersion into reading, meaningful functional written language which becomes the subject of communication and an integral part of instruction, are essential for SWLT schools.

These activities concern not only mother tongue but second and foreign languages as well. Russian is the mother tongue at the three schools which are project members. Foreign languages have been taught since the 2000-01 school year in year 2 in all comprehensive schools in Russia. Before that it was the privilege of only linguistic schools. Comprehensive schools used to teach foreign languages from year 5.

When a school supports "respect for languages and literacy" it means it provides opportunities for children to learn any foreign language among those provided by school. The students are taught and given opportunities to read books in mother tongue and other languages.

Student-friendly school literacy environments are established by highly professional staff led by the administration which shares and supports the philosophy of the project. School staff includes teachers and librarians, psychologists and speech therapists, etc. A project program of any specialist working in school is adopted if it adheres to the philosophy of SWLT.

The school library becomes a resource centre, a discussion club and a reading hall of the school. If there is no space there, then reading parlours and reading corners, reading sofas and benches, shelves and bookcases provide access to books, magazines and newspapers. These are organized and placed around the premises. Table 1 provides a summary of the literacy environment in SWLT.

Table 1: Literacy Environment in Schools Where Literacy Thrives

Curriculum	*Extra-curricular*
• Reading lessons • Reading strategies across curriculum • Learning to learn • Monitoring and assessment	• SSRP • Beyond the textbook • Reader-centred groups • "Little Prince" project • "Blue Bird" project • School Newspaper • Independent Students' Projects • School of Leaders of Reading • Literacy Day and Literacy Week • Reading conferences

Progression through the stages of school involvement in the project is also very important. Of course, each school begins differently. For example, "Nadezhda" started with extra-curriculum projects supported by a teacher development program for classroom teachers. While reading was becoming more and more fashionable at school, the teachers were paying more attention to it introducing reading strategies, reading logs, conferences, discussions and debates. Reading and language teachers of elementary and middle schools, teachers of history, biology, chemistry and other subjects started to "join the club". The work has been supported by monthly methodological seminars with each group of teachers.

KEY PROJECT OUTCOMES

Linguistic school 1531 started with extra-curricular Ample Reading program in EFL supported by curriculum-based home reading lessons in English. Both were devoted to English.

In the course of the first program students could read books in translation and in the second only in English, though authentic books could be adapted and abridged. They were supported by SSRP. The first year (grade 8) resulted in great interest in reading and development of reading tastes, habits and culture. The most readable materials of teenagers in September were the magazines for young people of rather low quality. However, by the end of the school year the students had read the plays of W. Shakespeare in translation.

After the first year in both schools, students were eager to read books and to discuss them sharing their opinions.

Each year of working in the project ended with the Questionnaire for both students and teachers where they were asked if the students were reading more and better, and if they were learning better. Their opinions are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2: Opinions about Reading

	Teachers about students		Students about themselves	
	Year I	*Year II*	*Year I*	*Year II*
Read more	75%	90%	71 %	75%
Read better	50%	70%	25%	50%
Learn better	55%	75%	9%	30%

After the first year in the SWLT project 75% of teachers said that their students were reading more, 50% noticed that they were reading better and 55% believed that they were learning better because they were reading more, with better comprehension. The students also said that they

began to read more, but only 25% noticed that their reading had improved and 9% reported that they were learning better. When the questionnaire was repeated after the second year, all the figures increased (see Year II columns in Table 2).

For two school years the teachers were learning about the Reading strategies in the Teacher Development Program and started to apply them in various subject areas.

The leaders were Elementary School teachers, the teachers of Languages and Literature, followed by the teachers of Biology, Chemistry, History, and Arts. The records maintained by the teachers showed attention not only to guided learning but also to autonomous use of reading strategies by the students. The most widely used effective strategies are presented at Table 3. (Buehl , 2000), (Smetannikova ,2005)

Table 3: Effective Strategies Used by Learners (2003-2004; 2004-2005)

#	Strategies	Guided learning	Autonomous use
1.	Gist-Summary-Retelling	100%	100%
2.	Question-Answer-Relationship	100%	83%
3.	Text outline	100%	33%
4.	K-W-L	82%	17%
5.	Tables	82%	20%
6.	Reading with Questions	79%	66%
7.	Reading with Notes	76%	33%
8.	Reading in Circle	71%	66%
9.	Prediction	66%	66%
10.	Graphs	66%	33%
11.	Story Map	66%	63%
12.	Think aloud	50%	10%
13.	Stop and Say	50%	10%
14.	Clusters	33%	10%

Final school tests ("Nadezhda") for grades 2- 4 involved a recount of a narrative story with open-ended questions using "Story Map" reading strategy. Ten year-old students were supposed to define its genre, topic, main idea, characters, setting of the story, problem of the characters and its solution, make up the text outline or plan in text or graphic form, and use all these notes to recount the story and write answers to several open-ended questions.

Pupils of grades 2 and 3 wrote a text recount outlining the main idea, showing comprehension of the facts, events and impressions tested with "on the lines" and "between the lines" questions.

The assessment included accuracy, adequacy, sentence complexity, style and vocabulary range. The pupils got a better mark if they paraphrased the sentences using their own words when retelling the story and especially answering the questions. The teachers expressed apprehension before the test and were very much surprised by better than usual results, though the test from their point of view was more complicated (See Table 4).

Of all the results, two things are worth discussing. The first is equal figures of understanding information "in the lines" and "between the lines" questions (72% and 72%). It proves that the teachers had worked hard to attract the children's attention to "reading between the lines".

#		
1.	Genre	78%
2.	Topic	85%
3.	Setting: Time	79%
	Setting: Place	82%
4.	Problem of the character	93%
5.	Solution of the problem	83%
6.	Comprehension 'in the lines'	72%
	Comprehension 'between the lines'	72%
7.	Text outline: point by point	50%
	Text outline: graph	50%
	Text outline: story map	63%
8.	Main idea	77%
9.	Adequacy of facts	84%
10.	Adequacy of style	80%
11.	Accuracy	75%
12.	Sentence complexity	77%
13.	Paraphrase	12%
14.	Open- ended questions: accuracy	83%
	Open-ended questions: adequacy	77%
	Open-ended questions: complexity	77%

Otherwise children may miss the information embedded in the text. The second important figure is 12% for paraphrase. It shows that children tend to rely on the words in the text. Even if they feel free when writing or speaking in the classroom, they tend to simply repeat words and sentences when writing a test paper. Memory rather than thinking work better at that age and normally children depend on it. So, 12% shows that the children had just begun to paraphrase the text of the author. The second school year was crowned by a mock PIRLS and PISA tests carried out by an expert from Russia, Natalia Naidenova.

This article will deal only with the PIRLS results by 10 year old children, 4th grade of the private "Nadezhda" school. PIRLS tests literacy that is comprehension and application of some personally important forms of written language in social life.

The aspects of the test are comprehension, aims of reading, reading behaviour and attitude to reading. Twenty percent of the tasks (questions) on the test require students to retrieve explicitly-stated information, 40% to comprehend the text at a basic level, 25% to interpret the text, and 15% to reflect on the text. PIRLS included two text types, one narrative, one informational, and about 12 questions, 6 of which where multiple choice and 6 open-ended. The test is accompanied by a Questionnaire which investigates reading experience and reading behaviour, background information and attitude to reading.

The most difficult narrative text in PIRLS was used in the school and its results are discussed here. The average score "Nadezhda" school was 550, while the average for all schools in Moscow was 545, and of Russia 528. "Nadezhda" school's score was also higher than the PIRLS international average (500), and equalled the highest level attained by a country with a Cyrillic alphabet (i.e., Bulgaria, 550 points). It is close to the three best results of Great Britain (553), the Netherlands (554) and Sweden (561).

Table 5 presents percent correct scores on multiple choice questions open-ended questions, as well as percent correct scores. The final three rows summarise the performance of the three highest-achieving students.

Table 5: Outcome of PIRLS Assessment

	% multiple-choice	% written	% Test Passage
Russia average	60.94 %	18.71 %	40.02 %
Moscow average	60.83 %	20.58 %	41.26%
1. Tevanyan	77.78 %	11.11 %	44.44 %
2. Yashin	66.67 %	66.67 %	66.67 %
3. Chizhov	100%	70.00 %	84.21 %

One can read that school average score on multiple choice questions is about 20% higher that that of Russia and Moscow, which is a bit above 60%. Written answers are worse but not 3 times like in Russia and Moscow but only twice. Overall percent correct is also higher. These results show that two school years of meaningful literacy work bring fruit. If you look at individual results you can see that student №2 (Yashin) got about two-thirds of questions correct. The written answers of student №1 (Tevanyan) are somewhat poorer than her overall performance. The results of student №3 (Chizhov) are at the ceiling level.

Figure 1: Percent Correct Scores in Individual PIRLS Tasks
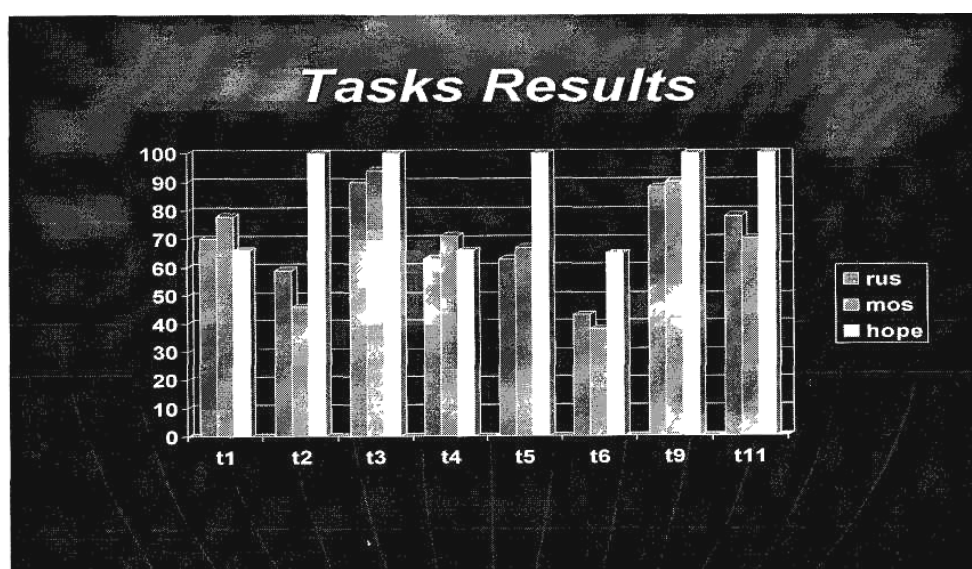
Task 1 was to answer the question using information given in an introduction to the story. The results of "Nadezhda" students are slightly below than those in Moscow and Russia. It shows that the children still tend to omit everything that is given before the text itself.

The teacher worked a lot with the title, predictions, and gist but still it turned out not to be enough.

Tasks 2, 5 and 6 were much better than the average results of Moscow and Russia. All three questions belonged to the type that we call "on the lines"; thus they required attentive, careful reading. But the answer to question 2 included some paraphrase; moreover it was given in the same sentence after the answer to question 3, which was potentially misleading.

The answer to question 6 also needed some vocabulary paraphrase though it was "in the lines". The answer to question 5 was a "put together" type. Work with the Question-Answer-Relationship strategy helped the students to get the result. Task 4 required interpretation of the text and here the pupils obtained a lower average score than the comparison groups. This may be explained by a traditional methodology aimed at broad text interpretation.

Both tasks 9 and 11 require students to search the information and the results were better that those of Moscow and Russia.

The results support the methodology used in the school. But still they give a challenge for the schools of the project SWLT and other schools which would like to join it.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion it is necessary to point out that:

- the project SWLT helps schools to start with change;
- two school years of work bring results;
- at least one school year of explicit teaching of reading comprehension across curriculum is needed to make a difference;
- strategies for informational texts are extremely important, not less than narrative text strategies;
- multiple choice results are better than those of short-response (written) questions;
- tests results reflect the teaching methodology used in the schools;
- reading strategies help to get better results in programs of international assessment;
- reading across curriculum should be supported by extra-curricular activities;
- the project makes reading fashionable, prestigious and popular;
- students become eager self-confident readers who choose good literature;
- the project makes schools successful.

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The Reading Habits of Teachers and Pupils in Estonia

Loone Ots, Mare Leino, Viive-Riina Ruus, Ene-Silvia Sarv and Marika Veisson, Estonia

The current research is focused on the habits, cultural interests and reading of students and teachers of general education in Estonia. Since the second half of the 20th century reading using paper texts has been on the decline while using new technology, such as TV and, more recently, computer-based environments such as the World Wide Web has been on the increase. Unquestionably, nothing can be compared to the role of a teacher in forwarding a knowledge of international and local culture, held, mostly, in museums, plays performed in a theatre; and last but not least, literary works, preserved in books. As proved by Pierre Bourdieu (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990), school acts as an active mechanism of the social structures of culture. Imparting cultural heritage is a part of the school process. In Estonia, the perception of the role of a teacher as one who transmits values created by people of culture is long, reaching back to the 18th-19th centuries (Vinkel, 1966; Rannap, 1985; Jaagosild, 1995; Meius, 1997) and is still considered important in Estonia (Toom, 2001) although the advance of the consumer society can be problematic (Vöörmann and Helemäe, 2004).

The age of the new media has changed students' reading habits a lot, as well as their interest in other aspects of culture. Some interesting research has been carried out in neighbouring countries, notably the PISA research of 2003 where students from Latvia, Finland and Russia reported high levels of cultural interests. More research has been done on a local level (e.g., Dezde, 1999). Estonia has now set up research of its own to investigate the importance of reading from the points of view of teachers, as representatives of the previous generation belonging more to the 'paper' society, and their students, growing up in the digital age.

The state-financed research project "School as a developmental environment and students' learning" started in 2003 and is expected to end in 2007. The project is focused on factors associated with school dropout, which has been increasing in the last ten years. The study is based on the research methods of Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979 and 1998), and Richard S. Lazarus (Lazarus, 1984), advanced in Monat and Lazarus (1985), and Skinner and Wellborn (1997). Some questions were adapted from the PISA 2000 project to enable comparison of the results on an international level. 6,626 self-assessment questionnaires were sent to 65 schools in 2004. The questionnaires were given to 3838 students of grades seven, nine and twelve, to 620 teachers, 120 school managers and 2048 parents. The age of the students ranged from 11 to 20, the seventh grades average being 13, the ninth grade average 15 and the twelfth grade average 18 years old. The sample includes *ca* 10 % of all general primary and secondary education students in Estonia and covers, proportionally, schools with Estonian, Russian, or Estonian-Russian language of instruction. The density of the school network in different counties has been taken into account.

THE POSITION OF LITERATURE AND READING AT SCHOOL

Curriculum

According to the Estonian National Curriculum, the number of literature lessons and Estonian or Russian language lessons, taught together, is 12 per week in primary school. In secondary school, the number of literature lessons is 6 and that of Estonian or Russian also 6. Usually, both students and teachers use the separate terms 'literature' and 'Estonian/Russian'. Each school must have a library as determined in the Primary and Secondary School Acts[57].

A student must, according to the Acts, read literature of value, suitable to his or her age, and by reading develop his or her intelligence. The list of the general aims of language and literature subjects[58] in primary school includes:

- To effect an enrichment of the student's understanding of literature, scope of imagination, creativity and a taste for art

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[57] Law on Basic and Upper-Secondary School, approved 15 September 1993, validated 10 October 1993, and its amendments¸§ 15 (4).

[58] The National Curriculum of Basic and Upper-Secondary School, Appendix One, Section 1.

- To engender an interest in fiction and in the culture of his or her local region.

The Acts demand that students graduated from primary school have read a minimum of 12 works of fiction. A student graduated from secondary school is required to have read a minimum of 20 works of fiction. The general aims of study are related to the shaping and understanding of ethical and aesthetic values, the creation of identity, the development of creativity, the discerning use of language and knowledge of world culture. A student should be able, after schooling, to appreciate the value of literary fiction. It can be concluded that the basic purpose of literary studies at school is to help advance a multi- cultural understanding of both the native country and the world.

Position of Literature as a Subject at School

The leading positions among favourite subjects were gained by ;
- Physical education (19.1%)
- Mathematics (12.9%)
- English (7.6%)
- Computer study (7.2%)
- History and handicraft (both 6.4%)

When students in our study were asked to list their favourite 5 subjects, literature was rated by 4.6% of the students as first favourite subject, 4.7% the second favourite, 4.5% the third favourite, 5.7% the fourth favourite and 4% the fifth favourite. Literature (4.6%) was eighth among the 42 subjects, between biology (5.2%) and art study (4.2%). The popularity of literature as a subject is presented on Table 1.

Table 1: Literature in the List of Favourite Subjects

Position among 5 favourite subjects	% of Preferences	Position on List
First favourite	4.6	8
Second favourite	4.7	9
Third favourite	4.5	10
Fourth favourite	5.7	7
Fifth favourite	4	10

The number of compulsory subjects in the basic school is 16-17, depending on the language of instruction; in secondary school, the number is the same[59]. The 7th-10th position of literature is "average".

TEACHERS AND READING

According to teacher respondents, reading dominated as a favourite, primary hobby. 39.9% of the teachers mentioned it as their first hobby and handicraft followed with 17.4%. Other primary hobbies were of less importance. They included folk dance with 4.3%, theatre, concert or museum visits (3.5%), knitting (2.7%), photography (2.3%) and crosswords (2.3%). The direct question 'How often do teachers use books and reading of fiction as a way of coping with school stress?' received the following answers. "Almost always" 47.3% and "Often" 49.1%.

It can be concluded that reading is an essential part of leisure activities of teachers, having a firm position among the primary interests. Next, the reading habits of the teachers were reviewed. 23.3% of teachers fully agreed that they read for pleasure only and 38.9% agreed somewhat with the proposition. 24.7% rather did not agree with that and 13.1% did not agree. 57.4% of teachers agreed that reading improved their self-development, and 40% agreed somewhat. 5.6% of the respondents stated that they are usually so tired that have no energy to read and 18.7% agreed somewhat with the proposition. 33% did rather not agree and 42.8% did not agree.

Next, reading materials and teachers' access to them were investigated. 80.6% of the teachers used their home library for reading encyclopaedias and dictionaries, 50.4% read them in the school library

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[59] Põhikooli ja gümnaasiumi riiklik õppekava (The national Curriculum of Basic and Upper-secondary School). The Decree No 56 of the Government of the Republic from 25 January, 2002, § 20 and 23

and 38.8% from the Internet. 81.7% of the teachers read professional literature, using their home library, 51.9% used the school library and 47.8% from the Internet. Professional magazines published in Estonian were read at school by 45.8% of the teachers and at home by 20.1%. A professional newspaper was read in the school library by 69.1%, at home by 29.3% and from the Internet by 18.7% of the respondents.

Roughly summarised, two third of the teachers read for pleasure and almost all of them were convinced that reading improved their self-development. Meanwhile, about one quarter said that they were too tired to enjoy reading after work.

Information was obtained mainly from personal libraries. Professional periodicals are read more at workplace than at home; about one fifth of the teachers use the Internet for that purpose. The Internet is used by about one half of the teachers to find information. Teachers also forward their reading experiences to their students. The frequency of teacher-student discussions about books and cultural events compare as follows. Only 1% of the teachers never spoke about books with their students and 5.4% almost never did it. 29.2% discussed books and literature several times per year, 44% several times per month and 20.4 % almost every day (doubtlessly, teachers of literature and languages are included into the group). In comparison, films and TV programmes were never discussed by 2% of teachers and almost never by 5.8% of teachers. 29.9% of the teachers did it some times per year, 48.7% some times per month and 13.7% almost every day. Parents have discussions about books with their children less often: the question "Do you sometimes talk about books with your child?" was answered as follows. 19.4% of parents answered that they hardly ever do it. 40% agreed that they do it sometimes each year. 32.2% did it sometimes per month and 8.5% several times every week. As a comparison, films and TV programmes were hardly ever discussed with children by 4.4% of parents. 11.2% discussed the topic some times per year, 40.3% some times per month and 44.2% several times per week. Students rated the frequency of discussions held with parents on literature and books as follows. 35.8% of parents never discussed literature with their children. 35% did it some times per year, 23.5% some times per month and 5.6% several times per week. Films and TV programmes were the subjects of parent-student discussions as follows: 11.3% hardly ever talked about them, 21.7% talked sometimes per year, 38.5% sometimes per month and 28.6% several times per week.

It must be added that in the section where parents were asked to list the unnecessary activities their children waste their time on, no parent claimed that too much time was spent on reading; it is not clear if the students just *do not read* or if parents are *pleased with reading activity* and never complain about or deny that activity.

ECONOMIC STATUS OF PARENTS AND CHILDRENS' READING

What factors influence the reading of the students? The economic status of their parents was investigated, and the following answers were obtained:

- 3.3% had not enough resources even for food.
- 29.5% had sufficient resources for food but it was hard to purchase clothing.
- 27.1% had enough for food and clothes and were able to make some savings.
- 32.8% were able to purchase some expensive goods
- 7.3% were able to purchase almost all items they were interested in.

Privacy and home study conditions were looked at:
- 78.4% of the students had got a computer at home
- 64.3% had also an Internet connection
- 88% of the homes were fitted with a telephone connection
- 85.2% of the students owned at least one mobile phone
- 73.7% of the students had a room of their own
- 91.5% had a personal table for studies
- 95.2% of the students had dictionaries at home, 97.5% had textbooks, and 95.2% workbooks and 90.3% had various reference books.
- Literary classics were owned by 66.2% of the homes of the students
- 84.9% of the students possessed poetry

Student's access to books and to virtual media is presented on Table 2.

Table 2: Students' Access to Books and Modern Technologies

Item	Percent of Students Reporting Ownership
Fiction classics	66.2
Poetry	84.9
Computer	78.4
Internet	64.3
Cell phone	85.2

From the data presented, it can be concluded that the students are well supplied with new technologies, increasing the speed of transfer from paper-printed literature to the virtual. Still, the homes of the students are also well supplied with literary classics, especially poetry.

THE POSITION OF READING AMONG STUDENTS' HOBBIES AND CULTURAL ACTIVITIES

Reading every day for pleasure was rated as follows by the students. 4% did not read at all for pleasure. 28.9% spent less than 30 minutes reading. 21.6% read from half an hour to one hour per day, 11.8% from one to two hours and 9.2% more than two hours every day. Periods in the library were the absolute favourite for 5.1%, 6.4% rated it with 6 and 11.8% with 5. 19.7% gave the rating 3, 18.8% 2 and 21% were not interested at all.

Summarised, 23.3% of the students in the survey were interested in libraries and 59.5% were not. Compared to some other favourites, the last mentioned was the absolute favourite for 41.2%; according to the summarised data, 81.5% of the students were interested in cinema, 77.1% of the respondents were interested in the Internet and 47.6% were interested in computer games. Compared to the 20% of the students spending more than one hour a day on reading activities, the percentage is big enough to indicate that *reading* of books is currently being replaced with *playing* in virtual environments.

CONCLUSIONS

The new age of virtual media has influenced students' attitudes towards reading: although they mostly have access to both books and virtual media, they seem to prefer virtual media. Teachers, belonging to the pre-computer generation, regard reading as hobby, and also as something to be used for coping with school stress. Two thirds of teachers read for pleasure. Compared to the other interests of the teachers, reading is prevalent. Turning back to reading, one-third of parents and two-thirds of teachers talk at least some times each month with the young about literature, so the role of the teachers in enhancing students' awareness of literature and reading is more important than that of the parents. Students are well equipped with both literary classics and poetry, and with modern technologies like the computer and Internet. Literature as a subject is not the favourite of students, remaining on a middle position among the list of the subjects with some 4-5% of the students mentioning it in their list of the five favourites. One can only hope that the group of dedicated readers will increase, or, at least, remain the same.

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With Greatest Respect to Each Word:
British Literature in Russia. Reading Shakespeare.

Irina V. Bochkova, Modern University for the Humanities, Moscow, Russia

> *"-This mace was fixed on the roof of the Kamenita vrata,*
> *the only preserved gate of old Zagreb, to defend*
> *the town from...Can you guess what or who from?*
> *-From witches?*
> *-How could you guess?*
> *-My presentation is connected with witches. I have been thinking about them..."*
> *(From the conversation with a guide during an excursion around Zagreb)*

It is a well known fact that the reader's appreciation of a book depends upon their personal experience. A literary work that presents the epoch and social or cultural settings familiar to the reader will, no doubt, be more profoundly perceived by them than one with an entirely alien setting. The reader's appreciation of the literary work also depends upon their age and education, as well as upon their intellectual and emotional impressionability - the innate ability to share in the attitude with others. The gift of appreciation develops when one gains experience in reading. Texts of imaginative literature are used in the foreign language department of the Modern University for the Humanities during almost the whole period of studies. They are employed primarily as a source of linguistic information, as a store of everyday topics for conversation, reproduction and the like. In short, literary pieces (mostly works of great writers) are used, almost exclusively, as an aid in learning the language. Little or no attention is generally paid to a literary work as a work of verbal art, and its main function, the aesthetic, is only casually referred to, if not altogether ignored. This practice, when cultivated during the whole course of studies, results in the students developing an oversimplified attitude to literature, an inability to grasp the thought that is imaginatively expressed.

This workshop followed RWCT (Reading and Writing for Critical Thinking) principles; it was based on some RWCT strategies and consists of three stages: evocation, realization of meaning and reflection. The workshop deals with the outstanding play "Macbeth" by William Shakespeare. Considering what topic I should offer for the presentation, I thought over some very significant issues: should we discuss *the story of Macbeth* or *the language and imagery* of the play? *S*hould we deal with *the characters* of the play *or its construction?* Or, perhaps, it would be most thought-provoking to share ideas about the play as drama?

Choosing *The Weird Sisters* as the topic for my presentation I expected the audience to be involved (in some way) in each of the areas mentioned. *The Weird Sisters* symbolize the inward moral history of each man, and therefore they may be expected to live in the faith of reason so long as the present moral order or disorder of things shall last. The Witches are not portrayed so much to deprave as to develop the characters on whom they act. They do not create the evil heart; they only untie the evil hands. So they may be aptly enough described as poetical or mythical impersonations of evil influences.

DESCRIPTION OF THE LESSON

Evocation

William Shakespeare... Could we find a single person who doesn't know this name? A wide range of sonnets, historical plays, comedies and tragedies are well known all round the world. Now I ask my students to try and guess the title of the play we are going to speak about, with the help of the letters it consists of: T H M C A E B (Macbeth).

First of all I suggest that the audience should list the characters of the play they can remember, and then show the page from the book with 'Dramatis Personae'. After that the following questions are asked: What does the play start with? Who do we see at the beginning of the play? Who do we meet first? If students can't remember, I ask them to try and guess, thinking of the play as drama and taking into consideration the historical period of its creation. (This needs a short discussion.)

Realisation of Meaning

Now we read the first page of the play that tells us about the first appearance of the witches, and I ask the students to fill in the table (task A), find in the text and write down the most expressive and significant words (task B), and a phrase/phrases, which denotes the meaning of the play and which we could use as an epigraph for the whole play (task C).

The Story of Macbeth	The Play as Drama
The characters (THE THREE WITCHES) meet in order to ...	The characters (THE THREE WITCHES) are needed for/to ...
arrange another meeting *(an answer of a student)*	*the three witches capture our attention at once* *(an answer of a student)*

The most expressive, significant and content-rich words/phrases you found in this part of the text are: *hurly-burly, the battle lost and won (an answer of a student).* A phrase you choose for an epigraph: *Fair is foul, and foul is fair.* After these tasks are completed the students are supposed to express in brief their understanding of the characters - The Three Witches (task D). For this purpose they are given the rules of writing a 5-line verse with an example (App.1). (It is the stage of REFLECTION for this part of the activities.)

The second appearance of the witches should be examined in the same way and order. The students go on to complete the second part of the task and write a verse to evaluate the role and describe the image of the witches in this part of the text.

The Second Appearance of the Three Witches

First, the student completes the following table:

The Story of Macbeth	The Play as Drama
The characters (THE THREE WITCHES) meet in order to ...	The characters (THE THREE WITCHES) are needed for/to ...

Then students are asked to list the most expressive, significant and content-rich words/phrases they can find in the text: *killing, wind, rat without a tail, start, fear, foul and fair a day.* Now, the students write another 5-line poem, following the guidelines in the appendix. *The last appearance of the witches* should be examined in detail as some more characters appear (three apparitions and Banquo's Ghost with eight Kings coming before him) in the third part of the text. After or while reading this part of the text and writing down some expressive and significant words from it (task I) the students are asked to fill in a graph – *FISHBONE* (task K).

The Last Appearance of the Three Witches

The Story of Macbeth	The Play as Drama
The characters (THE THREE WITCHES) meet to ...	The characters (THE THREE WITCHES) are needed for/to ...

The most expressive, significant and content-rich words/phrases: dark cave, boiling cauldron, thunder, a charm of powerful trouble, blood, wicked, secret, black midnight hags, profess. Students then write a 5-line poem.

Fill in the 'FISHBONE' graph:

The upper bones of the graph are for describing the 4 apparitions; one of them - the last – is followed by 8 Kings, so the fourth bone has additional appendages; those below are for the words and predictions of the apparitions. So the students are able to complete the graph (task K) and write one more verse (task J) to evaluate the role and describe the image the witches have in this part of the text.

Reflection (Writing a Diamond)

After all the tasks having been completed, the students are asked to write a DIAMOND - a 7-line contrast verse - to express in short their understanding of the characters (The Three Witches) in the whole play (task L). For this purpose they are given the rules for writing DIAMONDS with an example (App.2). I believe writing DIAMONDS at this stage will bring students to realize the changeable nature of both the characters and their predictions. I organise a presentation of DIAMONDS.

Two questions need to be answered: (i) The prediction of the second apparition was true, but Macbeth was killed. Are there any contradictions in the text?; (ii) The prediction of the third apparition was true, but Macbeth was killed. How could this happen?

This phase might conclude with students writing an essay on: "The role of the Three Witches in the tragedy 'Macbeth' by W. Shakespeare." I hope that the whole work, presentations, discussions and ensuing writing of an essay will help those who are but vaguely aware of the intrinsic properties of the literary work to develop a more appreciative approach to reading.

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APPENDIX 1
Five Line Poem

1 word	Subject Noun
2 words	Adjectives or participles (-ing, -ed)
3 words	Verbs
4 words	A phrase
5 words	a Noun – synonym or definition of the subject noun

Macduff
Brave and just
Fights, suffers, wins
Smash the enemy!
The winner

APPENDIX 2
Diamond

(A 7-line contrast poem that forms a diamond)

1 word	Subject noun
2 words	Adjectives
3 words	Participles (-ing, -ed)
4 words	Nouns related to subject
5 words	Participles
2 words	Adjectives
1 word	Noun (opposite of subject)

WATER
CLEAR, GENTLE
BUBBLING, MEANDERING, FLOWING
CURRENT, CASCADE, WHIRLPOOL, RAPIDS
POURING, DRENCHING, DRIVING
ANGRY, DESTRUCTIVE
TORRENT

WATER
CLEAR, GENTLE
BUBBLING, MEANDERING, FLOWING
CURRENT, CASCADE, WHIRLPOOL, RAPIDS
POURING, DRENCHING, DRIVING
ANGRY, DESTRUCTIVE
TORRENT

(The example is taken from the materials
of the 19th World Congress on Reading in Edinburgh, 2002)

Thoughts about Little Prince

Tatiana Galaktionova, Saint Petersburg State University, Russia

The Prize of Children's Gratitude for Literacy was established especially for the teacher who familiarises a child with the world of reading. It is an award for pedagogical achievements in the development of reading culture among schoolchildren. Those schools that are invited to participate in the project, consist of staff who consider it necessary and important to give a close attention to the development of reading culture in children. The selection of schools is made on the basis of an application. After identifying participating schools, the Coordinating Unit of the project implements a research activity at these schools. Pupils from 5th to 11th grades are asked to complete a questionnaire outlining their teachers' involvement in developing a culture of reading.

The purpose of questionnaire is to reveal the teachers, who, in the course of teaching a particular subject, are most successfully (in the opinion of pupils) in helping g children to become good readers. This approach to identifying teachers meets with great approval among teachers, as they are pleased to be nominated and acknowledged by their pupils. The teacher who receives the most support in his/her school becomes the winner of the Prize.

The further purposeful work with applicants involves:

1. Acquaintance with their pedagogical experience
2. The analysis and generalisation of their experience in publications.
3. Popularisation of the teacher's methods in conferences, round tables, seminars, creation of website.
4. Adaptation of successful teacher's techniques to training programmes for children with special needs (migrants, refugees, and as teenagers having social or emotional problems)

The prize is a reduced author's copy of work of the outstanding modern sculptor, a member of the union of artists of Russian Federation, Arsen Avetissian 'Thoughts about Little Prince'.[60] Skilful plastics, dynamics, the feeling of rhythm as well as inventiveness and irony – all this is blended into a harmonious unity in little bronze sculpture. The original of the work is the sculpture composition in the 'Park of Modern Sculpture' on front of the building of the Philological Faculty of the St. Petersburg State University. (The unveiling took place on 21 October 2002.) According to the Dean of the faculty , Prof. S.Bogdanov, Arsen's sculpture "Thoughts about Little Prince" is well within the spirit of the time, has deep philosophical meaning. 'The Little Prince, this dreamer and philosopher lives in every one of us, says Arsen. 'Exupery's philosophical story of Le Petit Prince is inexhaustible. You can keep reading it and always find something new, something close to your heart and soul.' We see this sculpture as a symbol and a talisman of the idea of reading. We are sure that it could be a symbol and prize, not only in Russia, but in the international community also.

PROJECT GOALS

What are the goals of the program?

- Identifying and distributing the best samples of pedagogical experience and its usage in work with 'reading' and 'not-reading' children.
- Stimulation of pedagogical research aimed at development of children' culture of reading and preservation of the best traditions;
- Opportunity to receive children's gratitude, as well as public and professional recognition for purposeful work in the sphere of children's reading;
- Increase of the reading prestige at modern school by joint efforts of the pedagogical and library public (work of organizing committee);

PROJECT OUTCOMES

This project has a number of positive outcomes.

- It helps to reveal teachers whose pedagogical skills have real positive results and promote the development of young readers.

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[60] More information about Arsen Avetissian and his sculptures can be found at www.arsen.net.

- It gives an opportunity for pupils to express their gratitude to their teacher.
- It summarises and generalises successful pedagogical experience in order to adapt and apply it in various educational institutions, including schools for children with special needs.

PROGRAMME DESIGN

1. In order to design the project first of all organisers should distribute information and define the participants. The second step is to invite schools to participate in the project. When they go on to the next point it is development, duplication and realisation of the questionnaire for pupils. The procedure of questionnaire administration involves professional knowledge, and is facilitated by volunteers who are recruited among the employees of children's city libraries or reading workshop programme participants.

2. The next key part of the project is the acquaintance with the pedagogical activity of teachers – applicants nominated to receive the Prize. They give interviews and demonstration lessons. Also, they are invited to prepare methodological materials for the publication which is held in the context of the project. Each of the participants prepares a presentation of his or her experiences which should be presented at the conference. In the ceremony, teachers with the most interesting techniques of reader development win the Prize. Then teachers share experiences with their colleagues with the help of different seminars and gatherings.

   Nominated teachers are judged on the following criteria:
   - Quantitative indicator based on children's votes (questionnaire)
   - Desire and readiness to share secrets of their skill (interview)
   - The level of children's motivation in class (visiting lesson,)
   - Skill to generalise and systematise available methodical experience (preparation of the publication)
   - Openness to professional cooperation (participation in conference, realisation of seminars)

   The algorithm of teacher's actions in his or her reading classes should be completely adequate, simple and clear to all participants of the project. Activity within the limits of the programme may be carried out at a level of city, region, country and, perhaps, internationally.

CONCLUSION

Using data from the project, the project team hopes to:

1. create the computer database of the best teachers methods and techniques directed to raise a modern reader.
2. systematise, summarise, generalise new pedagogical findings and methods of dealing with problems in children's reading
3. help teachers achieve professional and social recognition for purposeful work in the sphere of children's reading.

In the future, we hope that the Prize for Children's Gratitude for Literacy (Thoughts about Little Prince) can become as widely recognised and as significant a prize in the area of reading pedagogy as the Oscar in is in cinematography or the Nobel Prize in science. It is always possible to entrust the prize to a deserving winner. There are lots of talented teachers all over the world. And in future we see this project as an international one.

Questionnaire for School Children (Classes 5-11)

Dear friends, adults all over the world are concerned with the today's decline in children's reading. Is there anything that we can do to encourage children to read? What teachers do, or don't do, has a lasting impact on their pupils' reading skill and literacy. What can be done in order that books and reading take a worthy place in the life of a society? For this purpose it is important to know what children think. Please complete the statements below.

1. I read with pleasure, if _____.
2. I don't like to read, because _____
3. I read more when I prepare for the following lessons _____. (list names of subjects)
4. The teacher, who has helped me (or helps) to become the good reader is
_____ (name, surname, a subject)

Details about this teacher
1. We frequently discuss books with the teacher– yes, no?
2. The teacher offers interesting tasks on books that we read– yes, no?
3. The teacher tells us about different books – yes, no?
4. We do very interesting work with the textbook– yes, no?
5. We frequently read newspapers and magazines in a class – yes, no?

Please, fill in your age and say whether you are a boy or girl.

THANK you very much for your cooperation!

APPENDIX 2
Questionnaire for School Administrators

1. What forms of class (out-of-class) activity aimed at familiarizing children with reading and stimulation of reading skills you use in your schoolwork?

Age step	Forms of work
Elementary school	
Secondary school	
The senior classe	

2. Do you have a special reading environment in your school which assists pupils and teachers to read and discuss books? Yes/No
    If 'yes' - how it is formed? _____
    If 'no', how can you address this? _____
3. Are teachers of your school encouraged to do successful work in the sphere of children's reading.   Yes/No
    If 'yes' - how it works? _____
    If 'no', how can more attention be paid to it? _____
4. How does your school support the prestige of reading? Are "reading pupils" encouraged in your school? _____

5. What ways are used for cultivating reading among the non-reading pupils?
    _____

Please, add schools, area, address, directors' names.

_____ Specify,

Thank you for participation.

Tekst dječje književnosti u funkciji bogaćenja učenikove pismenosti

Stjepan Hranjec, Visoka učiteljska škola u Čakovcu, Hrvatska

U knjizi članaka i rasprava *Književni jezik u teoriji i praksi (1965.)* Ljudevit Jonke jedan je odjeljak naslovio «Piši onako kako dobri pisci pišu», htijući njime dokinuti krilaticu «Piši onako kako narod govori» i ukazati na njegovanje jezične kulture upravo čitanjem dobrih pisaca. Jezik književnoga djela treba biti uzor u izražavanju čitateljevu, objašnjava i Jonke. Tome se, kako ga naziva – «prosvjetiteljskom mističnom» naputku, suprotstavlja Krešimir Bagić knjigom upitno formulirana naslova: *Treba li pisati kako dobri pisci pišu* (Bagić, 2004.). Neslaganje Bagić argumentira s nekoliko razloga: krilatica poistovjećuje jezik književnosti i književni jezik, točnije, jezik komunikacije; pitanje je koji su to dobri pisci, tko će biti kvalificiran odrediti ih i odvojiti od ostalih; znači li pristajanje na krilaticu ugledanje samo na jednog ili više pisaca; ti isti pisci kad pišu nefikcionalan tekst pišu posve drukčijim diskursom; napokon, jezik književnoga teksta odlikuje se jezičnom kreativnošću i semantičkom konotativnošću, ukratko, individualnim odnosom spram jezičnoga sustava. Može li, dakle, takav tekst biti valjanim predloškom u stjecanju (praktične) pismenosti?

Temeljni nesporazum počiva u činjenici da se općenito neprecizno ili necjelovito tumači pojam «pismenost». Već u nezaobilaznom *Pristupu književnom djelu* (1964.) naglašava se kako pismenost nije samo gramatička kategorija, ne podrazumijeva samo poznavanje gramatike nego i stilistike. Rudolf Bultmann naglašava: «Već se kod aleksandrista zahtjev za gramatičkim poznavanjem jezika dopunjuje zahtjevom za poznavanjem *individualne autorove uporabe jezika…*» (Bultmann, 1998., 261). Ukratko, pismenost uključuje gramatiku i stilistiku, pravilo i odstupanje od njega jer se tek tako i tada jezična objava može kompleksnije sagledati i usvojiti. Načelo jedinstva gramatike i stilistike treba stoga osobito njegovati u školi pa «nastavna praksa ne pristupa jeziku samo sa stanovišta njegove komunikativne funkcije već i sa stanovišta ekspresije» (Frangeš i dr., 1964., 22), to jest, «da bismo učenike uveli u carstvo hrvatske gramatike, služimo se pjesničkim ostvarajima» (Težak, 1999., 279). Škola, dakle, činom školske interpretacije teksta ne priprema učenika za pjesnika nego književnim tekstom nastoji razvijati njegovu pismenost. A to je i logično: učenje gramatike nije samosvrhovito, ali i drukčije, poetski doživljaj nije moguć bez poznavanja književne norme.

Osim toga, zaboravlja se još nešto upravo kad je riječ o dječjoj književnosti, onim književnim tekstovima koje pisci svjesno namjenjuju mladome čitatelju ili pak onima koji su vremenom, širenjem recepcijskih obzora, postali prikladni za dječju dob. Radi se, naime, o književnosti s drukčijom poetikom. U njoj će se, upravo obzirom na recipijenta, osobito naglašavati problem funkcije književnosti. Dječja književnost ne može sebi dopustiti samosvrhovit stilski egzibicionizam ni larpurlartizam, ona se ne bavi samom sobom, kakve smo pozicije počesto svjedoci u «odrasloj» (koja tada zanemaruje svoga čitatelja, vraća se sebi i piše za sebe!), nego tekst dječje književnosti djeluje – primjerom, na planu jezične postave i jezičnoga izbora (pravopisno-gramatički i stilistički plan). Zapravo, drukčiji pristup tekstu dječje književnosti ne bi ni imao smisla. Stoga se ona i treba promatrati s gledišta Jaussove estetike recepcije u kojoj se, primjerice, naglašava da je «horizont razumijevanja ovisan o empirijskim i specijalnim obzirima, npr. dobi, spolu, stanju, načinu života…» (Jauss, 1998., 324).

Djela dječje književnosti moguće je – obzirom na funkciju koju (očekivano) vrše – promatrati dvojako, onako kako se otprilike i shvaća stilistička norma: ona je s jedne strane kodeks a s druge ukupnost svih sredstava «radi postignuća jače izražajnosti (ekspresivnosti, stilske obilježenosti) pri čemu se dopušta odstupanje od gramatičke norme» (Rosandić, 2003.,13). «Prevedeno» na dječju književnost mogli bismo, s gledišta učenikove pismenosti, govoriti o *uzor-tekstovima* i *igrivim tekstovima*.

Prvima je primjetno nastojanje da ukupnom organizacijom, strukturom, djeluju primjerom na mladoga čitatelja strogo poštujući norme. Takvi tekstovi pripadaju mahom «starijoj» dječjoj književnosti, onoj koja je nastajala usporedno s procesom kodifikacije hrvatskoga standarda, kad je dječji pisac imao na umu djelovati ne samo sadržajem, pričom, nego i njezinom jezičnom organizacijom. Između više primjera izdvojimo tri klasična pera te književnosti: Jagodu Truhelku, Ivanu Brlić-Mažuranić i Matu Lovraka.

Stil Jagode Truhelke primjer je *jezične regionalizacije* i upravo uranjanjem u taj stilski izbor moguće je razvijati učenikovu pismenost, poglavito u širem slavonskom prostoru. Naime, javivši se koncem 19. stoljeća, Truhelka svojim jezičnim izborom svjedoči o razvoju i mijenama u standardiziranju hrvatske jezične norme. Tako će s jedne strane njezin jezik biti «ukorijenjen u hrvatsku jezičnu tradiciju» (Težak, 1997., 159), poglavito nasljedovanjem jezika Šenoina, Kumičićeva i Kozarčeva, ali s druge strane zapažamo i lokalnu boju toga jezika, obilje slavonizama i «regionalnih» sinaktičkih konstrukcija:

A ja ko i druge cure. Kad se podivojčim, poći ću u kolo, onda ću se udati pa eto!

Primjer aktualizira temeljno obilježje Truhelkina stila – oslanjanje na kolokvijalan pučki stil koji slijedi usmenoknjiževni stil (ispuštanje suvišnog, kontrakcije, ikavizmi, semantemi), a u tom će se nasljedovanju naći i pregršt parafraziranih usmenih oblika: stihova, poslovica, frazeologizama, čak i cjelovitih proznih struktura, ispripovijedanih stilom usmenog pripovjedača (u trilogiji *Zlatni danci*). Tako je Truhelkin jezik u interpretaciji zahvalan poradi dvojega:

a) detektiranjem regionalizama na raznolikim razinama mladi će interpretator lakše i spontanije uspostaviti kontakt s tekstom, a tad je do «prevođenja» u standard znatno lakše,

b) upoznat će se s usmenoknjiževnim bogatstvom, onim i onakvim kakvo je donedavno ravnopravno cirkuliralo uz standard i štoviše, bivalo u mnogih pisaca stožernicom u građenju njihova stila.

Regionalnim (provincijalnim) stilom eto, do standarda, to bi ukratko mogla biti svrha poniranja u jezik *Zlatnih danaka* Jagode Truhelke.

Jezik Ivane Brlić-Mažuranić uzoran je model za bogaćenje učenikova pismenoga izraza upoznavanjem autoričina postupka *arhaizacije jezika*. Zbirka *Priče iz davnine* tome najbolje svjedoči, zbirka u kojoj se izvrsno usklađuju izraz i sadržaj: već naslovna sintagma najavljuje bajkovit pristup, autoričin izlet u davninu i daljinu a on će biti primjenjivan u svih osam priča. A ta će davnina biti interpretirana svjesnom jezičnom arhaizacijom te zbirka «mora biti neizbježni predložak u nastavi stilistike» (Težak, 1997., 159). Tako bi se u osnovnoj školi, obzirom na korelativno načelo s nastavom jezika, upoznavanje stila Ivane Brlić-Mažuranić moglo ostvariti na ovim segmentima/obilježjima:

- učenici već u nižim razredima mogu prepoznati naglašen ritmički ustroj koji pojačava sadržaj (recimo, kad Domaći plešu u *Šumi Striborovoj*: *Igraj!Igraj! Brzo!Brže!*) a ujedno upućuje, kao i u Truhelke, na nasljedovanje stila usmenoga pripovjedača;
- u stilu se jasno mogu osluškivati raznolika onomatopejska sazvučja, isto tako sukladna motivu: *Cikću, vrište, guraju se i krevelje. Sol prosuše, kvas proliše, brašno rastepoše – sve od velike radosti. Vatra na ognjištu plamsa i sjaji, pucka i grije...*;
- napokon, osobitu jezičnu arhaizaciju autorica postiže na morfonološkoj razini – glagolskim vremenima, i leksičkoj razini – u izboru i uvršćivanju zastarjelica i pučkih frazema, oboje stilsko izrazito obilježeno:

Zašao neki momak u šumu Striborovu, pa nije znao da je ono šuma začarana i da se u njoj svakojaka čuda zbivaju. (…) Nasjekao dakle onaj momak drva i sjeo na panj da počine, jer bijaše lijep zimski dan.(…) Počelo njih troje živjeti zajedno, ali ono zlo i naopako. Snaha jezičljiva, nazlobna, proždrljiva i goropadna.

Arhaizacija potvrđuje spisateljičinu književnu veličinu: ona arhaizaciju ne ostvaruje samo poradi ugođaja nego i poradi ritma i konotativnosti – recimo, *jezičljiva snaha* istodobno znači «govorljiva» ali i snaha-guja, zbog zmijskoga jezika! Takvim primjerima autorica potvrđuje opravdanost jezične arhaizacije te bi se «prevođenjem» na standard izgubila izražajnost iskaza. Jezik *Priča iz davnine* upravo je uzoran primjer za potvrdu ove činjenice (Težak, 1993., 165).

No narečena se ova tema najbolje može eksploatirati na primjeru stila Mate Lovraka. Javivši se u doba prevladavajućega modela socijalnoga romana, odnosno društveno angažirane proze (koja tad želi poučavati fabulom i stilom) Lovrak je sa svojim dječjim romanima čvrsto, lovrakovski na zemlji, nema u tim djelima mjesta nikakvoj fantaziji, posrijedi je angažirana proza, mahom ruralne provenijencije (i stava). Nakon Ivane Brlić-Mažuranić pa i Jagode Truhelke (obzirom na stupanj poetizacije) Mato Lovrak afirmira tip realističkoga romana u dječjoj hrvatskoj književnosti. A takav roman, načelno, ne trpi nikakvu stilsku razbarušenost već mu je imanentna jednostavnost, jasnoća, *gramatička besprijekornost*, umivenost i discipliniranost:

Vani je studen kidala uši, ledila nos, udarala po očima i davila pluća. Disati se nije dalo! Snijeg pod nogama škripao je, kao da je živ. Cvili i jedva se po njemu živom i hoda. Polja su sva pod debelim snijegom. Proviruju samo suhi češeri i crne grane trnove živice uz međe.

Ovakva stilska postava uzorak je za razvijanje učenikove pismenosti – reklo bi se, kod Lovraka se najbliskije sastala gramatika i stilistika. On je «tipičan predstavnik estetike jednostavnosti, njegov izražajni inventar odgovarajuće odražava jednostavnu dječju viziju svijeta» (Težak, D.,1993., 25). Mato Lovrak nastojao je stvoriti uzoran jezični model te time potvrditi da djelo ne funkcionira samo sadržajem nego i stilom. Nije stoga nimalo slučajno da je slavni pisac bio učitelj, što mu očito ne bijaše tek zanimanje nego i životni poziv… Mogli bismo kratko reći da je dječja književnost – igra! Osobito to vrijedi za suvremenu književnost: pisac je svjestan da o krajnjoj sudbini njegova djela odlučuje mali čitatelj, dijete. A što je dijete nego igra? U hrvatskoj dječjoj književnosti model igre u književnosti začeo se 50-ih godina 20. stoljeća (koje se vrijeme, uzgred, poklapa s otporom vulgoutilitarizmu u «odrasloj» književnosti!) a najavili su ga Grigor Vitez i Ivan Kušan. Kušan dokida lovrakovski roman višestruko: afirmira novu strukturu, dječji krimić, a «detektivski je roman organizirana igra, okruženja u kojima se zbiva radnja najčešće su mjesta igre» Crnković, 1993., 51), no ponajviše igrivim zamišljajima samoj jezičnoj postavi (poglavito u romanu). Kušanov stil je ogledni primjer igre u dječjoj prozi, ujedno viševrsno poticajan za razvijanje učenikove pismenosti. Zamišljaja je više. Tako, primjerice, na sintagmatskoj i sintaktičkoj razini Kušan «hini nemoć» a zapravo ironizira svaki takav sličan diskurz, ironijom poučavajući da su slične konstrukcije stilski neprimjerene:

Maloga Tomu su zvali mali Tomo jer je bio mali; *Kad je Majer odložio lopatu, jama je bila već duboka kao jedna duboka jama.*

Slične zamisli mogli bismo pronalaziti redom, recimo razne usporedbe u službi humornoj, zamjena (iskrivljavanje) poznatih frazema, uzrečica ili stihova (*Prazan Dunav, dubok Srijem*), mnoge žargonske tvorbe, razni oblici grafijske i pučkoetimologijske igre (*Emc jtvlm –*Emice ja te volim, *pucao je po Turkovima*). Na jezičnoj igri počiva čak čitavo djelo, roman *Ljubav ili smrt*, «piše» glavni lik Koko a Kušan se učiteljski javlja tek kao ispravljač. Njegove «intervencije» u djelu mogli bismo ovako grupirati:

a) ispravljanje osoba i pojmova iz filma, književnosti, opće kulture: *Dulčinijema-*Dulčineja, *vitez od La Manša-*La Mance, *Tata Hari-*Mata Hari, *Mađar Kipling-Mađar? Valjda Rudyard (čit. Radjard), Prohujalo s vihorom*;

b) ispravljanje krivo napisanih općih pojmova: *grehote-*griotte, *parna psihologija-*parapsihologija;

c) ispravljanje dijalektalizama, kolokvijalizama, vulgarizama: *štrik-*uže, *rit-*stražnjica, *posrala-*uneredila;

d) gramatičke i pravopisne intervencije: *moj Žohar-znaš li ti, Koko, što je vokativ?, paseće-valjda pseće*;

e) stilske sugestije: *mali crni psić-psić je već mali*;

f) razni crteži i precrtavanja u tekstu: *Ne vjerujte! Ja sam napisao ovu knjigu. Koko –*sve je precrtano…

Uočavajući pogreške učenik biva uvučen u Kokove doživljaje i njegovo «pisanje» te kroz smijeh nehotice – uči! Nema, stoga, boljega recepta za (idealan) prozni diskurz od Kušanova.
Još je razigranija dječja poezija. Ništa neobično, stih je podatljiviji, kondenziraniji, slikovit i metaforičan. Između više reprezentanata jezične poetske igre spomenuti nam je najprije Paju Kanižaja. U zbirci *Prsluk pucam* (1976.) autor hotimice zazire od svih pravopisnih, naročito interpunkcijskih pravila i pravila jezične skladnje, oslobađa stih od svih njegovih normativnih spona na ortografskoj razini:

pravil za pis-pis	
sam početak	*malo slovce*
točka metneš	*ime gora*
nikad to sa	*za č na ćuk*
um ne smetneš	*tu je ora*
(…)	
velik slovce	*sam ja smije*
u sredin	*pisat tak*
a na čičak	*a ti piši*
mek ć rin	*ispravak*

Ovdje nije posrijedi samo jezična igra poradi nje same, nego se njome pjesnik želi približiti djetetu, ne mu samo podilaziti (u pozitivnom smislu) nego je takav stih moguć model dječjega govora. Dijete se u susretu s jezikom susreće s nečim novim, pa kao što će se odnositi prema igračkama rastavljajući ih (da vidi «što je unutra») tako je i s jezikom – dijete ga shvaća kao prikladan «materijal» za igru pa ispušta pojedine glasove, rastavlja riječi, umeće slogove i, jasno, pritom ne će imati pojma o malom i velikom slovu, o točci i zarezu, o slaganju rečenice «u rodu, broju i padežu». Naravno, pjesnik ne gubi mjeru te igru materijalizira u razmjerno discipliniranu strukturu a ne zaboravlja ni naglasiti da je posrijedi ipak samo njegova igra, nakon nje đaka čeka – jezična norma!

Stanislav Femenić igra se rastačući i premodelirajući riječi a to postiže desufsikacijom o deprefiksacijom: *Jedna četka,/Etka,/Ka-,Četkala je – ala-la...* Od dijeljenja riječi pjesnik ide dalje, ne samo što stvara nove pojmove nego među njima stvara i nove suodnose: *kravata kravu nosi, osi je stan u kosi, san spava u sanduku, slava čuva lava, pas se sakrio u kompas a slon u naslon.* Femenićeve pjesme *Znanje* i *Četka* ponuđene su učenicima drugih i trećih razreda da i sami budu «mali Femenići»(anketirano je 70 učenika drugih i trećih razreda u tri čakovečke škole u jesen 2004.). U prvoj pjesmi zamijetili su da pjesnik «razabacuje riječi», «miješa riječi», «rastavlja riječi na smiješne dijelove», «mota riječi», a u drugoj da «oduzima slogove», «postiže ritam» i «oponaša četkanje». Takvom stvaralačkom igrom, kada se dakle i sami okušaju u sličnom eksperimentu oponašajući pjesnika, učenici usvajaju predodžbu o fonemu i morfemu, o rastavljanju i sastavljanju te slaganju (komponiranju) riječi, što je uvijek znatno efektnije od suhoparna bubanja…

Najveći igrač, poticajan i silno atraktivan svakako je Zvonimir Balog, pjesnik koji je djelom pokazao da je jezik, hrvatski standard živ organizam s kojim se, kao sa živim suigračem, moguće beskrajno igrati. Evo nekih Balogovih jezičnih igrivih modela:

a) fonemska igra, kad je fonem fonostilem:
- tzv. «fiziološki fonostilem»: *Moj fafa vove fe Maffin* (Moj tata zove se Martin),
- sličnu funkciju ima i početni fonem riječi koji se razlijeva na druge riječi: *Dobzo jutzo gozpodine Zezirlovski, kako zte zpavali?- upita zid na svom jeziku*,
- fonem-grafostilem: *Tren prije negoli je preminula,/ šibici je sjajna ideja/ sssssssssssssssssssssinula*;

b) morfemske igre:
- nonsensna etimologija: *RUS-pRUS-viRUS,*
- metateze: *rogonos-nosorog*; ovamo idu i zamjene slogova/morfema u sintaktičkoj cjelini: *Kasan je strauboj/ jednodžeki og*,
- osamostaljivanje dijelova riječi: *nevidljiva Iva*,
- nonsensne tvorbe: *ide jedna iduskara (odonuskara, gleduskara…), visibaba-visimama, visiteta*;

c) sintaktičke varijacije:
- anagrami: *Oko mene su hodi ljudali i u gledu me čudali*,
- zamjene rečeničnih dijelova: *Čim sunce svane, jutro izađe*,
- rečenične inačice: *I tako idem ja a za mnom neki pas. Tako ja idem a neki pas za mnom. Idem ja tako a pas neki za mnom. Pas neki za mnom, a ja idem tako*;

d) leksički ludizam:
- nonsensna analogija: *žarulja-mrakulja, trgovina-prebirovina,repovina*,
- tvorba riječi prema jednom modelu: *ćubasti kakadu-cerekasti smijadu, budalasti vikadu*;

e) ortografske igre: *blijesava pritća* itd.

Balog je «pokazao i dokazao sposobnost identifikacije s djetinjstvom pomoću dvije bitne konstante: igre i humora(smijeha)» (Diklić, 1993., 56). Isto tako Balog je uvjerljivo potvrdio da pismenost, zapravo, jest jezična stvaralačka vedra igra, tek takvom pismenošću, tako shvaćenom i organiziranom učenik usvaja zajedno gramatičku i stilsku razinu. Zato Balog (i balogovci) nije samo duhovit igrač (riječima) nego je njegova poezija nezaobilazna činjenica u ostvarivanju unutarkorelacijskih zadataka na satu hrvatskoga jezika. Balog smijehom i igrom opismenjuje!

Vratimo se u zaključku početnom: što je pismenost, zašto djeca uče jezik? Je li to poradi gramatičkih pravila koja su često sama sebi svrhom ili je usvajanje zakonitosti jednoga jezika «premosnica» za usvajanje njegovih stilističkih vrjednota? A njih, prvo, nudi pisac a onda, drugo, potiče da slično kuša pokušati i njegov mali čitatelj. Tekst dječje književnosti zato je u najužoj svezi s

razvijanjem učenikova pismenoga izraza, to je zapravo jedno od poslanja umjetnosti riječi riječi u školi. Od lijepoga (estetskoga) u jeziku do korisnoga (gramatičkoga), to je pravi put i smisao teksta dječje književnosti.

TEXT IN CHILDREN'S LITERATURE SERVING TO ENRICH STUDENT'S LITERACY

SUMMARY

Can a student acquire and improve literacy and writing skill through literary works of art? Certainly, because writing implicitly includes the knowledge of stylistics as well as the knowledge of grammar. In addition to that, the acquired knowledge of grammar and of orthography rules leads to creative usage of language. Therefore, the relationship literature-literacy is valid in children's literature, whose aim is not self-purposefulness but an emphasised function of moral and thus it gives a model language organisation.
In (Croatian) children's literature one can generally notice two basic realisations: model texts and playable language ideas. The former are frequent in older children's literature and the latter in modern. Representatives of the former are Jagoda Truhelka, Ivana Brlić-Mažuranić and Mato Lovrak, whereas the second model can be represented by Ivan Kušan's prose and Pajo Kanižaj's, Stanislav Femenić's and Zvonimir Balog's verses.

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Literature Should Be Brought Closer to Young People:
A Study on Required Reading

Marinko Lazzarich, Secondary Medical School, Rijeka, Croatia

While recently reading the novel, *Ljeto s tetom Doris,* by Srećko Cuculić, from the town of Rijeka, I came across an interesting extract in which the hero, a young man, Joško, is talking to his good-looking elder neighbour, with whom he is secretly in love (Cuculić, 1988, p.25).

> They sat at the table.
> *-Have I interrupted your reading?*
> *-Nnno... you haven't. It doesn't matter...*
> *-Are you reading?*
>
> He showed her the front page of the book that he was holding in his hand, marking with index finger the page he had been reading.
> *-I haven't read it. Is it good?*
> *- I don't know yet. It's required reading.*
> *-Oh, required reading! I see. I graduated just before the war started and I know required reading is always something you would never otherwise read.*
> *-Excellent definition!*
> They laughed."

I laughed quietly, too – to myself. With a pinch of bitterness though. As a teacher, I have a guilty conscience about the fact that children are reluctant to read the required books. Are we teachers not partly responsible for indifference to the written word – but not only the indifference of pupils, but also of society as a whole? There are few readers in Croatia!

On the occasion of Book Day on April 22, 2003, researchers published *Who Reads in Croatia and How Much* (*Akademija,* 2003, 4, p.13), reporting the results of their study of the personal contact Croatians had with books during the year 2002.

PERSONAL CONTACT WITH BOOK	%
read	50
borrowed	38
bought	26
received as a present	19
none of the above	45
total	100

Personal interviews conducted at homes on the sample of the adult population older than 15 included 1000 persons and offered some interesting figures: even 45 % of population in Croatia in the 2002 did not have any contact with book and each person read five books on average. Almost 40 % of the surveyed persons borrowed the book they read, and among genres, fiction was leading (67%), women read slightly more than men (58%), and people who live in cities and communities that number more than 100 000 people, on average read the most.

Stated figures are not at all encouraging, and it seems that the attitude toward books is consistent in Croatia – namely, in the 1930's, Antun Barac dealt in a more systematic way with problems of literary communication. His empirical research on the reception of literature indicates that the crisis of readership is a permanent condition of Croatian literature (Barac, 1934). However, the tendency toward the decline in reading is present in other countries as well. For instance, in neighbouring Italy the research of the market indicated drastic decline of interest for reading among the children. Uran (2003) reported that in 2001 the percentage of reading was 11.4% less in relation to the year 1998 when the percentage was 71.4%.

It would be interesting to explore literary genres, but it is obvious, and not exclusive to Croatia that popular fiction has a wider readership than literature does. Igor Mandić, Croatian journalist and writer, used to joke in his own fashion, by pointing out that "so- called elitist or real literature" is dying of ennui while people are reading Janko Matko" (Mandić, 1997, p.226). It is an issue that

sociology of literature should be dealing with, but this discipline is poorly developed in Croatia. Analyses of professor Antun Barac conducted eighty years ago, are still valid today, since our market is rather small and disunited. Culture of reading should be developed gradually – "reading is a complex and demanding process" (Peleš, 1999, p.87), and a young person should be raised to love literature. The teacher of Croatian language is the central person in the process of literary maturation of the future readership, and his role is even more demanding due to the social changes in the modern computerized world where the positions of a reader and a book are considerably changed in relation to the recent history. The aim of the literature classes is "to make" the reader capable for independant aesthetic communication with a text because "a true reader is a prerequisite for the survival of the institution of literature"(Solar, 1995, p.9).

These thoughts were starting points for a study conducted in June 2001 in Secondary Medical School in Rijeka, titled: "Are high school students interested in their required reading". A study was conducted within the course "Methodics of literature classes," Dr. Karol Visinko from The Faculty of Philosophy in Rijeka, postgraduate study *Literature and its socio-humanistic context.*

Since the required reading represents the first encounter of the young people with the art of the written word, it determines to a great extent their attitude toward reading even after they have finished their education. The study in question cast light on the attitude of students toward required reading in their second year of education in trade schools. The results were published in a magazine "Life and School" in December 2001. Unfortunately, the survey confirmed teacher's misgivings about how students saw their required reading. Indeed, 56% of the students were dissatisfied with the choice of books, 64% thought that the books chosen were not relevant to their everyday lives, 76% read required books only because they had to, and only 22% read as a result of personal interest. The majority of students thought that required reading would be much more interesting if students had an opportunity to choose the books they liked.

Seeing the results and critical attitudes of my students, as well as realizing that required reading does not particularly interest them but on the contrary, that it represents a tedious task, I decided to bring certain changes to the presentation and interpretation of required reading. Three classes who participated in the study had an opportunity to experience so-called "combined reading" or different ways of interpreting literature in the third and fourth years of their high school education. In short, it is a tripartite structured reading which includes: *obligatory* titles that all students have to read, *combined* titles among which the students can choose and *free-choice* reading where students can choose a book that does not have to be a part of syllabus neither does it have to belong to a certain literary period. Model for the graduate class was as follows:

Obligatory reading:
Kafka*: Metamorphoses*, Krleža: *Gospoda Glembajevi*, Camus: *The Stranger,* Ionesco: *The Chairs* and Krleža: *Povratak Filipa Latinovitza*

Combined reading:
Proust: *Combray*/ or Sartre: *Nausea, /* or Faulkner *The Sound and the Fury*
Andrić: Prokleta Avlija/ Hemingway*: For Whom the Bell Tolls, /* or Selimović*: Derviš i smrt*
Ujević*: Kolajna /* or Cesarić*: Slap /* or Tadijanović*: Poezija*
Fabrio*: Vježbanje života* / or Pavličić: *Večernji akt* / or Brešan: *Predstava Hamleta u selu Mrduša Donja*
Beckett: *Waiting for Godot*/ or Brecht: *Mother Courage and Her Children*/ or Ionesco: *The Bald Soprano*

Free-choice reading:
Hesse: Steppenwolf, Kundera: The Joke, Tomić: što je muškarac bez brkova, Hornby: All About A Boy, Cuculić: Ljeto s tetom Doris, Majdak: Kužiš stari moj, Cuelho: The Alchemist...

We tried to avoid the usual "text analysis" that merely cheks whether studens have read the book by different methods – discussions, debates or written analyses. Moreover, the methods were not repeated not only to avoid monotony but also to motivate the students to read. In the attempt to build a positive attitude toward literature students were stimulated by high marks for their effort while the teacher allowed some extra time to those students who failed to read the book in the required period. After a two-year peiod of the combined reading the study was repeated in order to gather feedback on

its success and on the possibility of its application on teaching in high schools. I used a survey (as well as in the first study), where anonymity was necessary for honesty and objectivity of the students. The survey included 74 students of three high school graduate classes - medical technicians, laboratory and sanitary technicians and dental technicians, who also participated in the previous study.

AIMS OF THE STUDY

- to gather feedback on how students view "combined reading"
- to determine whether the changes in interpretation of the books influence readership rating
- to determine whether the students recognize the changes and how they asses them
- to determine whether we can share, depending on the feedback, our own experience of combined reading with Croatian language teachers in other schools

RESEARCH RESULTS

The survey consisted of thirteen questions, and students chose one of the offered replies. Even 59 students think that required reading in the third and fourth years of their high school education was interesting, whereas 14 students think it was the same as in the first or the second year. Fourty-one student read more books than in the first two years, 5 students read less, and 28 students read approximately the same number of books. Most of the students think that the changes in the interpretation of the books were positive, nobody thinks that they were negative, while 10 students did not notice any changes. Compared to the first two years, 42 students were more motivated for reading in the third and fourth years, 8 students were less motivated and 24 students think that they were motivated about the same as in the beginning of their high school education.

What they liked the most was the possibility to combine and change certain titles (56), as well as the fact that they could personally choose the titles (26) and reversely, they disliked the texts that were of no interest to them (27) and the fact that reading is obligatory (24). In the next question they explained their attitudes with some interesting comments:

I liked the fact that we were not limited by only one book / Some books did not interest us, but the possibility to combine the titles solved that problem / I do not like obligatory reading because I do not like to read. / I could read those books that seemed interesting at sight / Combined reading is an excellent strategy because I could change the book I did not like for the one I liked and I ended up reading more books...

When they had to point which books they found the most interesting they mentioned *Metamorphoses* by Franz Kafka and *The Stranger* by Albert Camus. The books they mostly didn't like were *Kiklop* by Ranko Marinković and *Povratak Filipa Latinovitza* by Miroslav Krleža. In the third and the fouth years 19 students read less than ten books, 22 students read 10-15 books, 21 student read more than 15 books and 12 students read all the books.

To the question of whether they approve of the combined reading or not, all of them replied affirmatively!

Students thought that successful interpretation of books and a high reading rate result from the possibility to combine the titles and to choose certain books (42 students), from the organization of required reading classes (36 students) and from topics (35 students). It should be noted here that students were offered several replies to this question.

When asked whether they think the combined reading is more appropriate for students than so-called "classic approach to required reading", even 68 students replied affirmatively, 5 students replied negatively and only one student did not reply to the last question.

ANALYSIS

The analysis of the given replies confirms a positive attitude of high school graduates toward changes in the interpretation of the books. Taking into consideration the fact that the school in question was trade school, we were glad to find that even 80% of the students view required reading in their third and fourth years of their high school education more interesting than in the previous years. The majority read more titles than last year (55%). Nobody had a negative attitude toward the way of interpreting the books that are part of the required reading; a smaller number of students (14%) did not notice any changes, and most of them (86%) regarded these changes as positive. Similarly, the

relationship of students toward reading is as follows: majority of students were more motivated (57%), and just 11% of the students thought that they were not motivated to read.

Explaining why they were motivated to read, they primarily credited it to the possibility of combining and changing certain titles (76%) as well as to their own choice of books (38%), and finally to reading the books that interested them (31%). On the contrary, they disliked obligatory reading (32%) as well as the books that did not interest them (36%). Of all the writers, their favourite was Kafka, but they also embraced modern avant-garde writers, such as Camus and Ionesco and so-called "chick-lit" and "lad-lit" writers like Hornby, Fielding and Cuculić. This confirms the thesis that funny and effortless read that deals with the lives of the young people in urban areas easily finds its way to the high school readers. The smaller number of students is not inclined toward meditative and associative prose because it is more demanding and thus psychological novels written by Krleža or Marinković are not always wholeheartedly embraced by students of secondary medical school.

We can be fairly pleased with the reply to the question "How much students actually read?". The greatest number of the students who underwent the survey read in two years 10-15 books; 28% of the students read more than 15 books, 26% read less than 10 books, 16% read all the books that were part of the combined reading. To sum up, 74% of the students read more than a half of all offered texts.

Students share the opinion that the freedom of choice of titles for required reading is an important element in developing a positive attitude toward required reading and the perception of literary text in general. They agree that successful interpretation of the required reading and a high reading rate are the results of the possibility to combine texts and personally choose titles, as well as of the organization of required reading classes and finally, of the topics themselves. Almost all students (92%) expressed positive attitudes toward combined reading considering it to be more appropriate for the students than so-called "classic approach to required reading" was, which indicates the fact that students felt certain changes in literary education and reacted positively to them.

CONCLUSION

The basic problem of required reading in Croatia is the fact that it is of no great interest to the young people. While European and American schools favour freedom in reading, which brings significant results, Croatian schools do not. In Croatia, there is no systematic research that would determine which books are adequate for which phase of a reader's development. Thus, Croatian students view literature as something important, but inevitably boring. The results of the survey conducted in Secondary Medical School in Rijeka show that the interest in reading exisists but that it should be steered in the right direction – Internet does not have to be the death of literature!

In Lotman's communication triad (Lotman, 2001) writer-text-reader, the latter should not be taken for granted because if we neglect student's opinion we deliberately create an aversion in them toward reading. Since the main purpose of Croatian Language classes is to create "an intelligent literary audience", their basic task is fulfilled through required reading. The outdated syllabus and inferior methods in the interpretation of required reading are some of the reasons why Croats are reluctant to read... Urging students to adopt a humanistic and normative approach to interpreting a didactic literary text and insisting on only one meaning of the text will delicately lead to an even wider gap between artificial "order" of the school and "disorder" of the reality, and the world of the school as well as the world of the text will remain beyond students' understanding of reality˝ (Šabić, 2001).

It is clear that the world of school and literary text is fighting a losing battle with the world of home, television, computer and video.

Main guidelines of the *combined reading* were the ideas of bringing required reading closer to the aesthetic sensibility of the students and ensuring free choice. Students who underwent the survey recognized the changes and reacted positively to them. The tripartite structure is no major discovery, but the reaction of students indicates the feasibility of this project in teaching practice Having the students read contemporary texts of their own choosing that are set in their own area and deal with current issues would be a feasible way of reinvigorating literature classes and increasing the students' interest in reading. Some students will gradually develop their interest for more demanding literature if they first read less demanding texts. Zdenko Škreb says that commercialization of literary production is a characteristic of market policy. Therefore, trivial literature in which a literary work is a *commodity* is booming. In his text *Trivijalna književnost* (Škreb, 1973) Škreb says that sociologically speaking, trivial literature fulfills collective spiritual needs and a reader finds certain pleasure in it.

Since the author of this text is not indifferent to whether his students will be interested in browsing bookshops or not (according to professor Barac this would worth much more than learning all literary-historical facts by heart), he accepted with pleasure the results of the conducted study. Croatian language classes are specific because its contents encourage student's emotional and aesthetic sensibility. Professor Solar said: *"The spirit of Croatian language classes cannot be programmed, it should be cultivated, because it is what the word suggests: culture.*" (Solar, 1981, p.119).

While conducting the study, the author of this text was guided by the principle that young people should be raised to love literature and that their reading should not be a tedious task because it is more than obvious that old aesthetic patterns are outdated.

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The Child's Right to Become a Reader! – IBBY's Efforts to Reach an Equal Access to Children's Books of quality for all children of the world

Peter Schneck, President of the International Board on Books for Young People

As the president of IBBY (International Board on Books for Young People) I am grateful to be here and to have the chance to speak to you. I thank for showing your interest in IBBY and I heartily welcome you to this Symposium. IBBY and the International Reading Association are friend associations, and in several countries there is also a special collaboration on the national level. So it happened during my period as the Chairperson of the International Development in Europe committee of IRA that I came into contract with Djurdja Mesic of the National Library here in Zagreb, and the first steps were taken in founding the Croatian Reading Association and the Croatian Section of IBBY. I had the chance to meet her several times since then, here in Zagreb as well as in Vienna, where she spent several months to finish her project on sources of Croatian Literature in the Vienna archives. I will never forget these precious moments I could share with here before she passed away so early. So thanks to her efforts Croatia is well established in both the International Reading Association and , since 1995, in IBBY.

IBBY was founded in Zurich, Switzerland in 1953. When it was founded 50 years ago by celebrities including Jella Lepman, Astrid Lindgren, Lisa Tetzner and Erich Kaestner it was mainly based in Europe, but this has changed, and now it consists of worldwide 66 National Sections.

IBBY's membership represents some countries with well-developed book publishing and literacy programmes, and other countries with only a few dedicated professionals who are doing pioneer work in children's book publishing and promotion. IBBY's National Sections are organized in many different ways and operate on national, regional and international levels. In countries that do not have a National Section, individual membership in IBBY is possible. The membership of the National Sections includes authors and illustrators, publishers and editors, translators, journalists and critics, teachers, university professors and students, librarians and booksellers, social workers and parents.

IBBY's policies and programmes are determined by its Executive Committee: ten people from different countries and a President, elected biennially by the National Sections at a General Assembly during the IBBY Congresses. They work on a voluntary basis. The daily anagement of IBBY's affairs is conducted from its Secretariat in Basel, Switzerland. The annual dues from the National Sections are IBBY's only source of regular income. Independent financing is necessary to support IBBY activities.

As a non-governmental organization with an official status in UNESCO and UNICEF, IBBY has a policy making role as an advocate of children's books. IBBY is committed to the principles of the International Convention on the Rights of the Child, ratified by the United Nations in 1990. One of its main proclamations is the right of the child to a general education and to direct access to information. Thanks to the initiative of IBBY in its formulation, the resolution appeals to all nations to promote the production and distribution of children's books.

IBBY's statement of mission challenges us to find ways to promote international understanding through children's books, to give children everywhere in the world access to books with high literary and artistic standards, to encourage the publication and distribution of quality children's books, to provide support and training for those involved with children and children's literature and to stimulate research and scholarly works in this field.

We all are sadly aware that in the world in which we live, these targets have not been reached yet. There is neither a sufficient international understanding nor equal access to the rights and privileges of the world's wealth; we also know that the burdens of poverty, insecurity, underdevelopment and illiteracy are not the same for all of. The aim to give all children of the world access to books with high literary and artistic standards has not been reached even in the most developed and prosperous regions of the world. To increase literacy we need books for children that are available in homes, in schools, libraries and bookshops; we also need a regionally based independent system of publishing and we need well-trained parents, teachers, librarians and scholars.

<center>**ACTIVITIES OF STANDING COMMITTEES**</center>

IBBY's standing activities are:
  The Hans Christian Andersen Award
  The IBBY Honour List
  The IBBY Asahi Reading Promotion Award
  The International Children's Books Day
  The IBBY Documentation Centre of Books for Young People
  IBBY's Magazine *Bookbird*
  IBBY Congresses

The Hans Christian Anderson Award.

  This award is presented very other year by IBBY to an author and an illustrator, living at the time of the nomination, whose complete works have made a lasting contribution to children's literature. The Award is known as the highest international recognition given to an author and an illustrator of children's books. As Hans Christian Andersen was Danish, Her Majesty Queen Margrethe II of Denmark is the Patron of the Award. The nominations are made by the National Sections of IBBY and the recipients are selected by a distinguished international jury of children's literature specialists.

  Jeff Garrett from USA is the current acting Jury President. The members of the Hans Christian Andersen Award Jury 2006 come from Finland, France, Iran, Italy, New Zealand, Russia, Slovenia, South Africa, Venezuela and the United States. IBBY National Sections from 28 countries have made their selections, submitting names of 26 authors and 25 illustrators as candidates for the 2006 Hans Christian Andersen Awards. The Author's Award has been given since 1956 and the Illustrator's Award since 1966 and so the next ceremony to present this highest international recognition for an author and an illustrator of children's books will also celebrate 50 years of author's and 40 years of illustrator's award.

The IBBY Honour List

  This is a biennial selection of outstanding, recently published books, honouring writers, illustrators and translators from IBBY member countries. The titles are selected by the National Sections which can nominate one book for each of the three categories. For a country with a substantial and continuing production of children's books in more than one language, up to three books may be submitted for writing and translation in different languages. The Honour List book exhibition is shown at the International Bologna Children's Book Fair and many places worldwide. The book selection is also accessible on IBBY's website.

The IBBY Asahi Reading Promotion Award

  This award was established in 1986 during the IBBY Congress in Tokyo under the sponsorship of the Asahi Shimbun newspaper company. It is given annually to a group or an institution which, by its outstanding activities, is judged to be making a lasting contribution to reading promotion programmes for children and young people. The nominations are submitted by the National Sections of IBBY and may include projects from any part of the world

The International Children's Book Day

  This day has been celebrated since 1967, on or around Hans Christian Andersen's birthday, April 2nd, to inspire a love of reading and to call attention to children's books. Each year a different National Section of IBBY has the opportunity to be the international sponsor of ICBD. It decides upon a theme and invites a prominent author to write a message to the children of the world and a well-known illustrator to design a poster. Patron for 2005 was India; the Indian author Manorama Jafa wrote the message called "Books are my Magic Eyes**"**, written after an Indian legend. The poster was illustrated by Jagdish Joshi. Patron for 2006 will be Slovakia, for 2007 New Zealand, for 2008 Thailand.

The IBBY Documentation Centre of Books for Disabled Young People

  Established in 1985, the Centre offers information, consultation and documentation services. Target groups are young people with special needs and their support organizations, research workers, teachers, students, librarians, publishers, authors, illustrators, policy makers and the media. In addition

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to literature for children and young people with special needs, the Centre includes books for adults with language disabilities or reading difficulties. The 2005 selection with a new catalogue was launched at the Bologna Bookfair in April, 2005.

Bookbird: A Journal of International Children's Literature

This is published quarterly by IBBY. It is currently edited in Ireland and printed in Canada. It covers many facets of international children's literature and includes also news from IBBY and IBBY National Sections.

IBBY Congresses

The Congress take place every two years in different regions of the world, 2000 in Colombia, 2002 in Basel, Switzerland. The Basel congress was a very special event; it was the jubilee congress marking "50 years of IBBY", and included the participation of Empress Michiko of Japan and Egypt's First Lady, Mrs. Suzanne Mubarak. The congress in 2004 took place in Cape Town, South Africa. The 30th IBBY Congress will take place in Macau, China in September 2006, and the congress theme "Children's Literature and Social Development" will guarantee profound discussions. The 31st Congress will follow in Copenhagen in Denmark in 2008 and the 32nd in Santiago de Compostela in Spain in 2010.

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FACING CURRENT CHALLENGES

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This was an overview on IBBY's ongoing activities, but there are also new needs: IBBY nowadays is sitting at a very important crossroads. The challenges facing children, books and their connection to each other throughout the world have to be met in dynamic ways. Children around the world do not have equal access to books. Many of them are illiterate. Even literate children are often too poor to have equal access to books; many children who are literate don't read; many children in developed countries do not have access to books which reflect their own culture or circumstances; even children in rich countries do not get access to books which represent other cultures than their own; a small number of publishing companies are going to dominate the world publishing, which means more pressure for profit, less editorial risk-taking and worse conditions for small and independent publishing.

So what can IBBY do? Firstly, it can better use and   strengthen its network. An important step in relation to this was IBBY's new website, re-launched on Hans Christian Andersen's 200th birthday, April 2nd, 2005. Instead of telling you what's new there I would recommend you to go there and to look yourself. Address is: www.ibby.org

IBBY is also developing its project activities. IBBY projects will help to produce and develop a book culture for children within regions that have special needs and lack support. IBBY's Campaign "The Child's Right to become a Reader" will include the following components:

Books for Africa – Books from Africa:
- Workshops for African writers and illustrators
- In-job training for African publishers
- Expanded Book Flood (book collections for school libraries)
- Teacher-training for working with books
- Worldwide Touring Exhibition "Books for Africa – Books from Africa" accompanied by an online catalogue
- IBBY Committees for Regional Collaboration

To develop networking in Asia and in the Pacific:
- Asian Regional Collaboration Committees
- Continuing development after the Tsunami
- Inviting representatives from Asian and Pacific Countries that are not yet linked internationally to IBBY to the Macau IBBY Congress

A campaign for reading in Central America and the Caribbean:
- Workshops for writers, illustrators and publishers
- Creating a translation pool to ensure that IBBY's online and published materials are available to all Spanish-speaking countries

A campaign for reading in the Arab speaking countries:
- Workshops for writers, illustrators and publishers

To keep national children's literatures alive:
- Supporting independent and regional based publishing in Southeast Europe and former Soviet countries.

THE TSUNAMI APPEAL

These are all projects based on a long term planning, but sometimes reality forces immediate reaction. Within day IBBY started a collection at its members and friends for the children affected by the tsunami in South of Asia. Up till now it brought in more than 140,000.- Swiss Franks. This money will support children's literature projects in the region, which will be led by the IBBY sections in India, and Thailand, and IBBY's member in Indonesia. The Maldives and Sri Lanka will also benefit from IBBY's help.

You can imagine that this is a lot for a staff of two employed people at IBBY's Headquarter at Basel and a small number of volunteers. And it would be impossible to act successfully if we did not have our wonderful National Sections such as IBBY Croatia. Additionally everybody who is interested in children's welfare and educational development is welcome to join our efforts.

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The World of Grimms' Fairy Tales Today

Iris Šmidt Pelajić, University of Zagreb, Croatia

According to the UNESCO's statistics, the collection of *Children's and Household Tales (Kinder- und Hausmärchen)* of the Brothers Grimm is, next to Luther's Bible, the most known and most widespread book of German culture worldwide. They are translated in over 160 languages and cultural dialects. In almost every European home, but also in playrooms for children in other continents, one can find these fairytales in the form of picture books, films, tapes, videos, multimedia, etc.

At its World Conference in Lijang (China), on June 17th 2005, the International Advisory Committee of UNESCO declared and officially registered *The Annotated Reference Copies of Children's and Household Tales Collected by the Brothers Grimm – Kasseler Handexemplare –* as UNESCO's Memory of the World. Kept safe in Brother-Grimm-Museum in Kassel, the *Annotated Reference Copies* contain, among other Grimms' handwritten materials, 16 volumes of fairytales, published in the first seven editions during the Grimms' lifetime. Providing numerous autobiographical notes and philological comments written by the Grimms themselves in 1812-1857, the *Kasseler Handexemplare* became the most important preserved source for studying the motives for starting and the ways of collecting fairytales and for research about their origins and effects.

ORIGINS AND WAYS OF COLLECTING FAIRYTALES

When 200 years ago, those two Kasseler law students in their early twenties, enthusiastically started collecting popular poetry for the collection *Des Knaben Wunderhorn* (*The Boy's Magic Horn*), published 1806-1808 by Achim von Arnim and Clemens Brentano, they were instantly fascinated with the medieval, not only German, but also European – e.g. Danish, Scottish, Irish, Spanish – and Oriental (pre)literary tradition and with the uniqueness of popular folk culture. By collecting fairytales and legends, they wanted to write down the German folk treasure and in that way reach the origins of German mythology, those "hidden smithereens of a shattered jewel" (Grimm, 1981, p. 9), which would lead them to the awareness of the *essential ancient German spirit*. But, something else happened.

In collecting and writing down the folktales, they consulted written sources –as mentioned above – and numerous storytellers. There is documented evidence of over fifty people, who helped them with the collection. These were e.g. market woman Dorothea Viehmann, constable Krause, but also Grimms' friends such as Wilhelmine von Schwertzell and Dorothea Wild – Wilhelm's future wife. Those people came from different social classes, had different levels of education and qualifications, were different ages and of different national backgrounds. Many of them were Huguenots of Dutch or French provenance who told their own traditional tales. Many of them were already familiar with Charles Perrault's popular booklet *Tales of Mother Goose* (1697), versions of which appeared again in the Grimms' collection more than a hundred years later. The Grimms themselves pointed out the cross-cultural references and correlations in prefaces to several editions.

Although rooted in the tradition of romanticism, the Brothers Grimm did not use folktales simply as inspiration for their own literary creations, or as evidence of their brilliant art of narration, but tried to write down the genuine and original *folk poetry*. So they created and achieved the first "systematic compilation and the first scientific documentation of the entire European and Oriental fairytale tradition. ... in their literary encoding of the pre-literary tradition, they extended beyond the German and European frame of reference and created a universal pattern for the cross-cultural fairytale tradition" (Lauer, 2005, p.1).

Nevertheless, we call them *Grimms'* fairytales. By collecting heterogeneous materials, they – above all Wilhelm with his stylistic sensitivity – transformed these tales into a new, harmonious entity with a unique, recognizable style, which reflected the new *zeitgeist* and the spirit of the German tradition, remaining at the same time on the level of universal validity. As they said in their comments – "Fairy tales are everywhere at home" (Grimm, 1981, p. 23). Perhaps that was the reason why the authors didn't label them as "German", as opposed to their other mutual work, but addressed them to children and adults in their middle-class homes.

EXHIBITIONS OF GRIMMS' FAIRYTALES – PICTURE-BOOKS BY GOETHE-INSTITUT, ZAGREB

Thus, the fairytales arrived in nearly every home worldwide. Although it is important that children have their own books at home, it is necessary that, as much as possible, public institutions also promote the development of children's affinity and support their affection for and interest in literature. The exhibition by Goethe-Institut Zagreb initiated by Mrs. S. Teichmann – head of its library –supported the above mentioned cause. The exhibition took place from early May till the end of December 2004, in three Croatian towns, and contained about 100 exhibits. In addition to a selection of picture-books, it offered numerous creative activities to more than 1100 visitors of all ages who came to the exhibition.

This carefully selected exhibition offered a representative overview of the developments, changes, influences and reception of those tales – mostly in the German speaking area. It gave insights from early 19th century first editions by Ludwig Emil Grimm through the complete anniversary edition from 1907 by Otto Ubbelohde to the latest editions from 2004, in which, for example, Henriette Sauvant created her own magical surreal wonderland within Grimms'enchantment. Only a small part of the exhibition was dedicated to the reception of the Grimms' fairytales as picture-books in Croatia.

The exhibition included 81 picture-books with fairytales, among them 75 picture-books in German (i.e. 29 collections and 45 editions with single fairytales), and 6 picture-books in Croatian, (i.e. 4 collections and 2 picture-books with single fairytales). It also included 7 teaching materials for foreign language teaching, one illustrated map (offering an illustrated overview from 1819 till the present day), and 12 wall-posters, designed either as anniversary editions or as teaching materials.

Considering the literary artistry, linguistic complexity, layout and illustration, the presented picture-books addressed readers of all ages, according to their interests and ability of reception. They ranged from richly illustrated picture-books for pre-school-aged children, through books for beginner readers in a carefully chosen text format (appropriate font size and type in layout), to picture-books with original wording as it was in Grimms' time – rich in archaisms and presuming a solid knowledge of German language and cultural context.

The exhibition began in early May 2004 in Split, in City Library 'Marko Marulić', office Spinut, where about 500 school children were involved in the creative activities, such as story-telling by German actress S. Dordel and creative workshops, which resulted in a new exhibition – the exhibition of children's drawings named by their inspiration "Wonderland of Brothers Grimm Fairytales".

From the coast, the exhibition moved to the northern part of Croatia – to Koprivnica, where it was presented in the City Library 'Fran Galović' during October and November 2004. About 300 visitors of all ages participated in individual and organised visits, creative workshops and in the lecture about the Brothers Grimm and their fairytales, given by I. Šmidt Pelajić.

At the end of the year 2004, the exhibition was warm-heartedly welcomed by the Teacher Education Academy in Zagreb, where about 300 students and professors from different study groups were regularly involved in creative activities. These included discussions, round tables about the fairytales in teaching, lectures stressing the importance of fairytales for children and FLT, given by I. Šmidt Pelajić and lectures about the characteristics and importance of appropriate picture-books, given by Vladimir Kuharić. Future teachers could experience and remind themselves why children are fond of leafing through a picture-book. They came to the exhibition spontaneously, even when there was no organized activity. Following is a detail from the book of impressions: "...and so we walked into the room, many big children, peeking into picture-books, playing and even acting. It's so easy to leave worries behind and ... just for a second to hang out with fairies and wizards in this unique world – The World of fairytales. ..." Elizabeta (21).

CHANGES AND RE-INSCRIPTIONS IN THE GERMAN SPEAKING AREA

If one would attempt to present the changes that these fairytales have undergone till today, it would require at least several books to do so properly. Therefore, for the purpose of this paper, only a few examples of these general changes will be given, based on the selection of picture-books presented at the exhibition mentioned above.

The exhibition offered an insight into the development, position and reception of Grimms' fairytales today, considering general tendencies in fine arts and literature. Up until the present day,

these fairytales continue to be a constant source of inspiration for both illustrators and writers, but also other artists.

llustrations

The illustrations in picture-books reflect not only the author's inner world and artistic imagination and expressiveness, but also actual tendencies in art. We can observe the changes that the illustrations have undergone in nearly 200 years. If we compare the first illustration from 1819 of a tale *Little Brother and Sister* (Brüderchen und Schwesterchen) by L.E. Grimm with the contemporary version of the same fairytale, offered by B. Junghans, we can notice how the guardian angel from the first illustration disappears and the only protection that those little children get from the artist is the warm illumination and vagueness of the blurred scenery. The fairytale collection enjoyed great popularity in other European countries, and important impulses and ideas for creating illustrations came from abroad. One was the great English cartoonist G. Cruikshank, who made the illustrations for the first English edition (1823) of Grimms' tales. He not only succeeded in presenting the highlights of the plot with sparkling humour, but also gave incentives to new tendencies in the development of the illustrations. With his scenic and encapsulated presentation of episodes of *Lucky Hans* (Hans im Glück) as a station-show, he created a model for a large number of illustrators and by publishing his illustrated selection of fairytales, he gave an idea to the Brothers Grimm to create their own illustrated selection – which became an extremely successful edition – *Kleine Ausgabe* (1825).

At the turn of the century, the art nouveau artists also considered fairytales as *total work of art* (*Gesamtkunstwerk*) and contributed to their artistic autonomy. The great German Jugendstil artist Otto Ubbelohde inserted some recognizable motives from the fairytales-region Hessen in his Indian ink scenery drawings. These particular drawings are stylized and transposed at the same time to a general level which corresponds to the universal nature of fairytales. H. Vogeler von Worpswede often used the typical "picture-in-picture" composition, where the bigger picture with ornaments or motives from the plot frames the central static motive. But every 20th century art movement dealt with fairytales in its own ways. If we compare, for example, the same scene from *The Frog Prince*, illustrated by W. Crane (1874) and by B. Schröder (1989), we can observe how the typical central motive – scene by the fountain – shown in static-mode, transforms into surreal simultaneous scenes, film clips alike, and carries the reader into the picture.

Numerous contemporary publications give evidence on how powerful the individual artistic imagination is. When we compare the same scene from *Hänsel and Gretel*, where the kids are talking to the witch, we can observe how suggestively the artists express the atmosphere of fear and hidden danger, by using different techniques such as indicative colours, and oversized or twisted details.

It is interesting how the authors internalize the experience of a nice story by inserting into it motives from their own cultural context. The North American illustrator P. O. Zelinsky created a character of *Rumpelstilzchen* (1986) upon a tradition and mythical creatures known in his own country and his own childhood.

Re-inscriptions and Transpositions in Other Arts

The tendency for a masterpiece to be reinterpreted is typical for postmodernism. The collection of Grimms' fairytales is the canonical work of short form, which evolved from inscribing into already existing folktales, retold through generations. Those constant re-inscriptions confirm the actuality and vitality of these fairy tales even today.

The popular German author called Janosch (1991) transposes the old fairytales in modern society, and uses their basic plots and allusive titles as comments on the twisted/ kinky manifestations in it. In the fairytale *Die 13. Fee* (*The 13th Fairy*) by N. Heidelbach (2002), "The Sleeping beauty" is only a starting point for post-structural analysis of fictional readers, who are looking for points of irritation in the original and for ways to overcome their fears through dreams. J. Müller illustrates *Aufstand der Tiere* (*The Animals' Revolt*) (1989), based on *Bremen Townplayers*, which evolves into a totally new fairytale, auto-referential, with new protagonists, a new moral and plot, and whose pages are presented as TV-screens with disillusioning interferences. And the lonely anti-hero leaves the nocturnal city-scenery – multiple alienation and motives typical for *film noire*.

Inspired by the fairytale *The Moon*, Carl Orff composed the opera (1939), whose libretto is part of the exhibition, as is the libretto for "Hänsel and Gretel" by Engelbert Humperdinck (1987), who incorporated new characters and successfully modified folksongs into the new media.

RECEPTION OF GRIMMS' FAIRYTALES IN CROATIA

In the early 20th century there were several large publishers in Croatia who began systematically publishing children's books, including Grimms' fairytales. Publishers like M. Breyer and Kugli were available with their luxury editions, as well as the Croatian Literary and Educational Union. In mid 20th century, V. Kirin gave a significant contribution to the reception of Grimms' fairytales, whose illustrations are popular even today.

Today, a large number of artists are inspired by Grimms' fairytales, but the focus will be on the authors whose picture books were presented in the exhibition. There is I. Antolčić, whose illustrations are inspired by the rural environment in which he grew up; E. Dragičević who creates garish, cheerful illustrations with a lot of details, close to the children's world; S. Junaković, whose protagonists are presented as suggestive caricatures; and N. Macolić, who is creating a world of refined elegant characters.

THE IMPORTANCE OF FAIRYTALES IN A YOUNG PERSON'S DEVELOPMENT

During the 1960s century, the opponents of fairytales claimed that fairytales remove children from reality and encourage sexism, conservative values, fear and aggressive behaviour. But, over the last decades, the fairytale experienced a re-affirmation and its supporters continue to underline why fairy tales are important for a healthy childhood. Here are several reasons that support this view.

Through fairytales children learn how to distinguish between reality and fiction, and fairytales help them in overcoming aggression and innate fears by confronting dangers and monsters from the tales. A happy ending evokes feelings of comfort and security and points out that problems are solvable. The fairytales develop ethics, not by moralising, but by leaving free space for their own solutions. The children enrich their vocabulary, they create their own mental images and creative potentials and develop from *consumer* to *author*.

It is important that the adults create a relaxed and cosy environment while reading or telling the story to the children. Some theorists claim that reading is important, other say that it is storytelling that counts. I ask – why not both? Can we talk about "read-telling" as a combination? What really counts is the development of intimacy with the child by being physically present and 'mediating' in accordance with inner needs of the little listeners – to comment, to discuss specific points, to imagine, to talk about their ideas, fears, to encourage, to listen...to learn how to be patient, how to be tolerant.

THE NEED FOR A SUITABLE INTRODUCTION OF LITERATURE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

By presenting a fairytale in FLT, we always have to adapt it to students' interests, age and abilities! As most of the children have already developed a positive attitude towards fairytales in their early childhood, the linguistic obstacles are minimised through familiar plot and visual components in picture-books.

Literary texts encourage creative expression by writing new versions of fairytales, drawing illustrations, making posters, singing, dancing or role-playing.

A holistic approach can be achieved – learning with the head, heart, hands and feet. By encouraging creativity we increase students' positive attitudes towards foreign language, foreign culture and foreign literature. By developing intercultural competences in children, we lead them to actively and independently search for answers, how to understand, accept and respect the others.

If we continue to wonder what makes us adults read and like fairytales, perhaps we can find the answer in the words of the great Croatian author Antun Šoljan: "...by reading fairytales we will discover, maybe even surprisingly, that in spite of our scientific education, deep inside of us, still lives a simple, open minded, hungry benefactress of our soul – belief in miracles" (Težak, 1997, p. 10).

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Comprehensive Reading and Understanding of Scientific Articles in Information Sciences

Jadranka Lasić Lazić, Marija László and Damir Boras, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Zagreb, Croatia

The paper deals with a pilot evaluation of comprehensive reading skills of 30 students studying information sciences at the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Zagreb. After having read freely chosen articles from information science journals, the participants were interviewed using a questionnaire in written form. The answers were examined by researchers, classified and evaluated with the respect to the degree of the students' comprehension of the articles. It has been found that their understanding is incomplete, and therefore attention should be devoted to teaching an introductory course on how to make use of reading material in order to accomplish fuller understanding of scientific articles.

The hypothesis is that the students in the Department of Information Sciences at the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Zagreb, who have passed the classification exam after having graduated from high school, possess sufficient reading skills in order to be able to follow the lectures, exercises, seminars and to write term papers based on library resources. It is assumed that the students are prepared to comprehend reading materials without special instructions. They are supposed to know how to learn facts and concepts in information sciences, computer sciences, social studies, behavioural sciences, and other related subjects through reading.

Working with the students, reading their term papers, and examining them often reveals that the reading materials are not understood completely. In most cases, the subject of the articles read are retold using the same vocabulary without applying a broader context, or linking with similar fields.

Reading comprehension is explained by some educators as a series of subskills. They include skills like understanding word meaning in context, making inferences about information implied, finding the main idea, and distinguishing between facts and opinion. Reading materials become more abstract in high school and college and contain more technical vocabulary. At that stage the students must not only acquire new information but also they must critically analyse the reading materials. They must achieve an optimal reading rate that is based on the difficulty of the material and the purpose of the reading.

An attempt to test students' skills at comprehensive reading and understanding of scientific reading materials involving a certain amount of critical thinking. A sample of 30 students was instructed to choose freely an article in an information science journal and read it carefully. Then they were interviewed and asked to write a term paper answering relevant questions about the subject.

OBJECTIVES

It is well known that scientific journals follow a particular style, which does not often occur in other publications. The purpose of a scientific article is to communicate the scientific findings as clearly as possible using highly stylised expressions and specific vocabulary. For the applied professionals, not only for the students, it is sometimes difficult to grasp all that an article offers.

The structure of a scientific article is in most cases standardised. It usually begins with an A*bstract* that summarizes the subject. Next there is usually an introductory part where the *Purpose, Problems,* and *Hypotheses* elaborated in the study are defined. The *Methods and Procedures* section explains why, what, where, and how the study was performed. The final parts of a scientific article usually include the *Results, Discussion* and *Conclusions*. The results require more detailed explanations. The *Discussion* and *Conclusions* sections explain, discuss and draw conclusions about the findings and compare the findings with those of other studies in the same field or related ones.

The experienced reader of a scientific article is challenged to evaluate the methodology in order to best ascertain the credibility of the study. Students might not reach that level but they can be made aware of the difficulties. They should also improve their vocabularies by paying attention to any new term or word or find the meaning of a word from the context. They can try to develop an awareness of the main points and details of a selected and carefully read article.

In a pilot study, we wanted to find out if the students have understanding and interpretation problems with some specific parts of a scientific article. At the beginning level of the project, the students were asked to choose for reading an article from an information sciences journal. After having read it carefully, they had to photocopy it and attach it to their term paper. The titles of the journals and their ISSN are given here in the footnote. In their term paper, the students had to write a short overview of the subject of the article, supply bibliographic citations, and answer the following main questions and subquestions to gather data for statistical processing:

1. *Title.* Was the subject of the article clearly expressed in its title?
2. *Purpose.* What was the purpose of the introductory part of the article?
3. *Problems.* What did you learn from its introductory section?
4. *Hypotheses.* What was the problem or the question that was studied (or what were the hypotheses of the study)?
5. *Methods and Procedures.* What is the theoretical base of the study?
6. *Results.* What is the result of the study? What were the data and how are they presented?
7. *Discussion.* What is said in the discussion section of the article? Are there some assumptions about the practical applications of the study?
8. *Conclusion.* What is the achievement of this study in the field of information science?
9. *Abstract.* Did you meet your expectations about the value of the article because you selected it for reading?

The statistical survey of the 270 answers to the 9 questions follows in a tabular form.

PROCEDURES

The answers were examined, classified, counted, and together with the questions presented in the *Table.* The table consists of ten columns. In the first column with the heading *Question*, the ordinal number of the question is given as explained in the preceeding section of this article entitled *Objectives.* The second column called *Section* contains the ideal composition of the article. The items in this column refer to the questions enumerated in the *Questionnaire*. The *Title* (row 1) of an article is supposed to point to the subject of it. The *Purpose* (row 2) deals with the objective of the research. The *Problems* (row 3) comprises the questions to be considered, solved or answered and may be accompanied with some theoretical explanations. The *Hypotheses* (row 4) is an assumption on something to be investigated. The *Methods & Procedures* (row 5) section elaborates the theory on which the research is based. The *Results* (row 6)*, Discussion* (row 7)*,* and *Conclusion* (row 8) sections facilitate the evaluion. The column ends with the *Abstract* (row 9)*.*

The answers to our questions were given verbally. They are summarized in four categories in columns 3 to 6 according to the questions indicated by their numbers in rows 1 to 9. If a particular answer was considered affirmative by the researcher on the basis of the written explanations given by the subject of the research, it was counted as *Understood&explained* in column 3. If the answer was vague without any explanation, it was registered under the category *Vague or not understood.* Columns 5 & 6 *Not sure* and *No answer* are self-explanatory.

The classification of the answers into categories had to be as homogeneous as possible to enable detection of differences between them. It had to be established which elements in this research on understanding a scientific article are easier to understand and which are more difficult.

The population of 30 individuals in the pilot study makes it possible to apply some statistical measures using so-called nominal scale. However, the study falls short compared to a full-scale statistical analysis based for instance on larger population, application of numerical measuring tools in addition to verbal ones, and objective evaluation of obtained answers following predefined criteria. The aim is to prove or disprove our hypothesis that the students will have some problems with understanding and interpretation of an scientific article. Objectionable shortcomings of the current study from the statistical point of view may be that it dealt with the smallest statistically feasible

number of individuals involved. Another objection could be that the instrument (questionnaire) for the data collection was not elaborated enough and also that no numerical scale was used to make the processing of responses more precise and reliable.

Table 1: Results of the Evaluation

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Question.	Section	Understood & explained	Vague or not understood	Not sure	No answer	Numbers of the students
1	Title	20	10	0	0	30
2	Purpose	30	0	0	0	30
3	Problems	24	6	0	0	30
4	Hypotheses	10	7	13	0	30
5	Methods & Procedures	20	3	7	0	30
6	Results	15	8	0	7	30
7	Discussion	15	8	0	7	30
8	Conclusion	24	0	6	0	30
9	Abstract	15	10	5	0	30

Since classification is fundamental to any science, all other levels of measurement, no matter how precise, basically involve classification as a minimal operation. That is why classification is to be considered the lowest level of measurement in the broadest sense of the term. The names assigned to the categories in columns 3 to 6 serve as a nominal scale suitable for research on comprehensive reading of a scientific article. The term 'nominal scale' as is used here refers to the simplest level of measurement and constitutes the minimal condition necessary for the application of numeric statistical procedures.

The nominal scales enable the use of the basic arithmetic operation, that is, counting the number of cases within each category, so that it is possible to numerically process the number of answers in each of the four categories in Table 1: *Understood and explained* (column 3), *Vague or not understood* (column 4), *Not sure (column 5)*, and *No answer* (column 8).
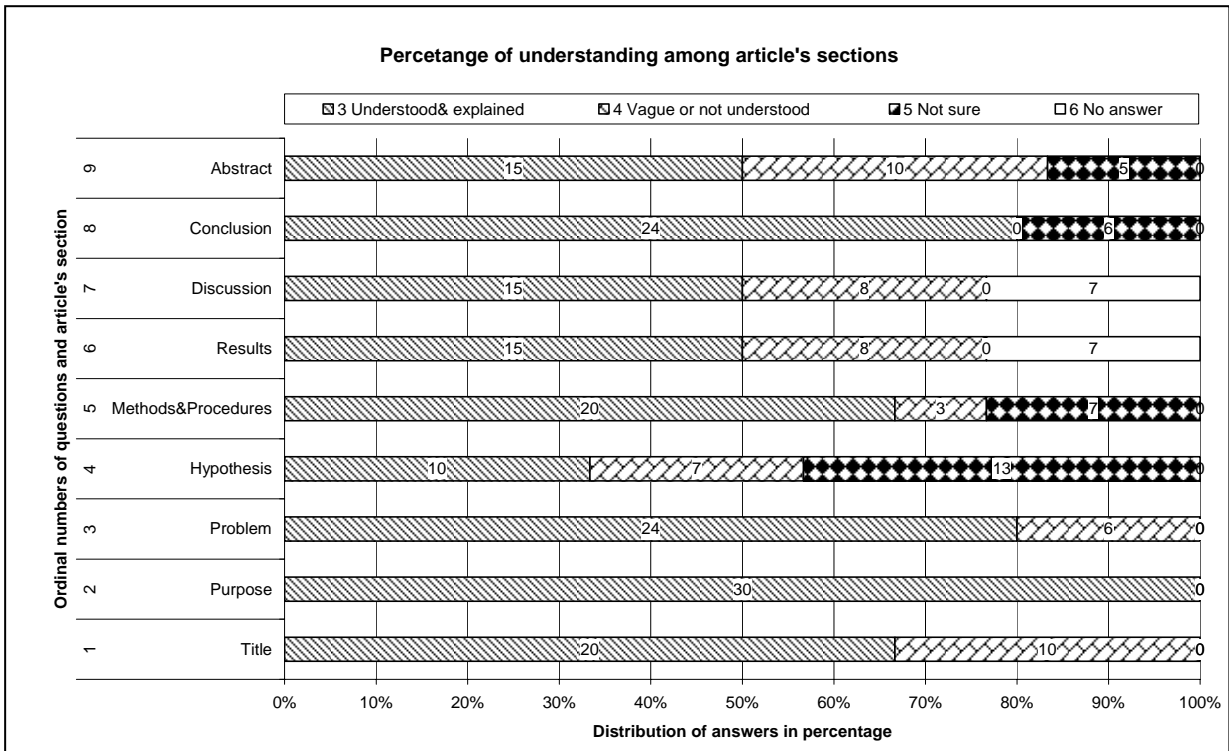
The categories are mutually exclusive and exhaustive, i.e., each answer given by the participants is placed in one and only one category. There are 30 answers for each question and the answers are distributed into four categories as presented in the table. We can then use the proportion of answers in any given category. The proportion is defined as the number of answers in the relevant category divided by the total numbers of answers (30). Expressing the data in terms of proportions makes it possible to perform a direct comparison among rows (questions) and columns (answers). A better overview is obtained if the table is transformed into a chart

The chart in Figure 1 represents each question and associated answers in two forms. Their actual number is indicated in the corresponding shaded bar. However their percentage with respect to the total may turn out to be more complicated. It is obtained by computing the difference between the abscissas of the points belonging to the vertical projections onto the bottom line of the initial and end points of the bar.

Each horizontal bar has its number (1 to 9) reflecting the ordinal number of the corresponding question. The names of the sections of the article are placed on the left side of the bars. The shadings in each bar help with visualising the percentages (proportions) of the answers indicated on top of the chart below the title. If the section of an article was understood and explained, then the shading for that category is dominant (see the bars 2, 5, 8).

For instance, the introduction about the *Purpose* of an article (bar 2) was completely understood and explained as shown by uniform shading (100%). The *Conclusion* (bar 8) was understood and explained by the group of students in 80% of cases. The *Title* (bar 1) of an article and the *Methods and Procedures* (bar 3) were understood by 65% percentage of participants. Fifty percent of the students were judged to have understood the *Results* section (bar 6), the *Discussion* (bar 7) and the *Abstract* (bar 9) of the articles processed. The *Hypotheses* section (bar 4) was the most difficult to understand. It turned out to be understood by about 30% of the participants only, while 70% of them admitted that they were either *Not sure* or *Vague or not understood.*

Figure 1: Percentages of Students in Each Comprehension Category

Percetange of understanding among article's sections

☒ 3 Understood& explained	☒ 4 Vague or not understood	☒ 5 Not sure	☐ 6 No answer

Ordinal numbers of questions and article's section

#	Section				
9	Abstract	15	10	5	0
8	Conclusion	24	0	6	0
7	Discussion	15	8	0	7
6	Results	15	8	0	7
5	Methods&Procedures	20	3	7	0
4	Hypothesis	10	7	13	0
3	Problem	24	6	0	
2	Purpose	30			0
1	Title	20	10	0	

Distribution of answers in percentage (0% – 100%)

The part of the table concerning comprehension aspects of the articles may be illustrated more graphically using the radial coordinate system displayed in the Figure 2. To facilitate readings of the values, the relevant radii are drawn, as if they were spokes, on the background of a cobweb. The graph was created by connecting points on the radii corresponding to the classification of the questions *Understood & Explained, Vague or not understood, Not sure,* and *No answer*. The connection lines border four shaded areas displayed in the *Diagram.*

The background of the graph has nine sides, nine vertices, and nine scaled radii (the spokes). The nine-sided polygon contains nine smaller similar polygons following the scales on the radii. The distance of these points from the centre shows the number of participants who understood the particular question and can be read on the vertical ordinate axis at vertex 1 named 'title'. The diagram vertices are marked with the numbers of the questions and section names read clockwise from the topmost vertex (1 *Title*). The distance between polygons is graded by five representing five participants on the vertical axis.

Figure 2: Graph Illustrating Levels of Comprehension

Connected point diagram
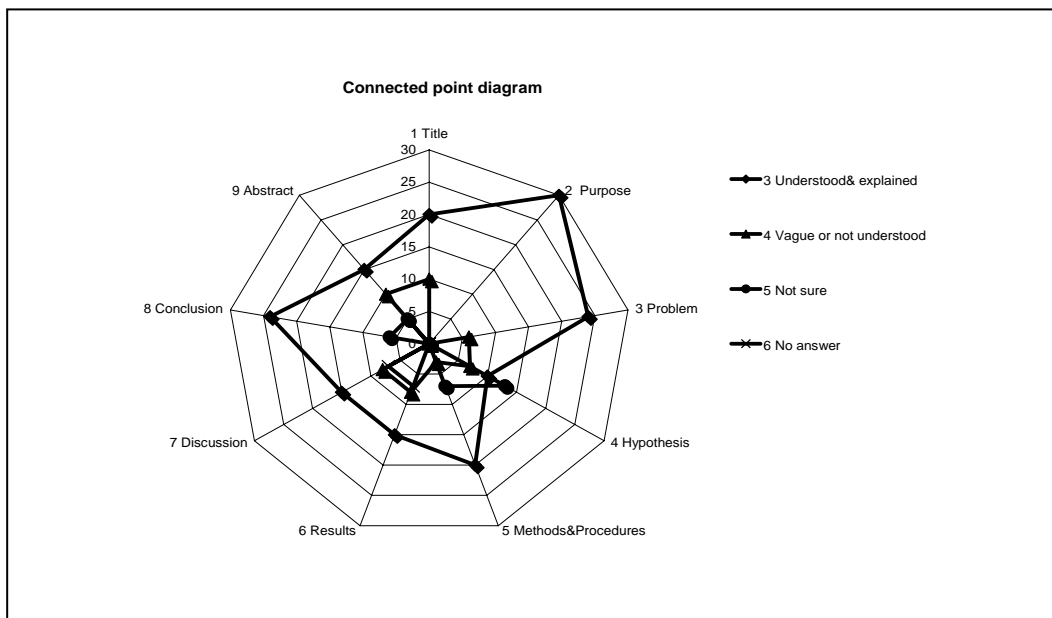
In Figure 3, we see that *Title* reaches a value of 20 participants on the graded scale. Vertex 2 *Purpose* reaches 30 participants. The other values can be read on the intersection of the particular radius with the border line of a certain shaded area. These shaded areas actually specify how much of the article was understood and the white areas indicate how much it was not. If every part of it was understood, the shaded area would fill the whole diagram.

Figure 3: Graph Illustrating Proportions of Articles Understood
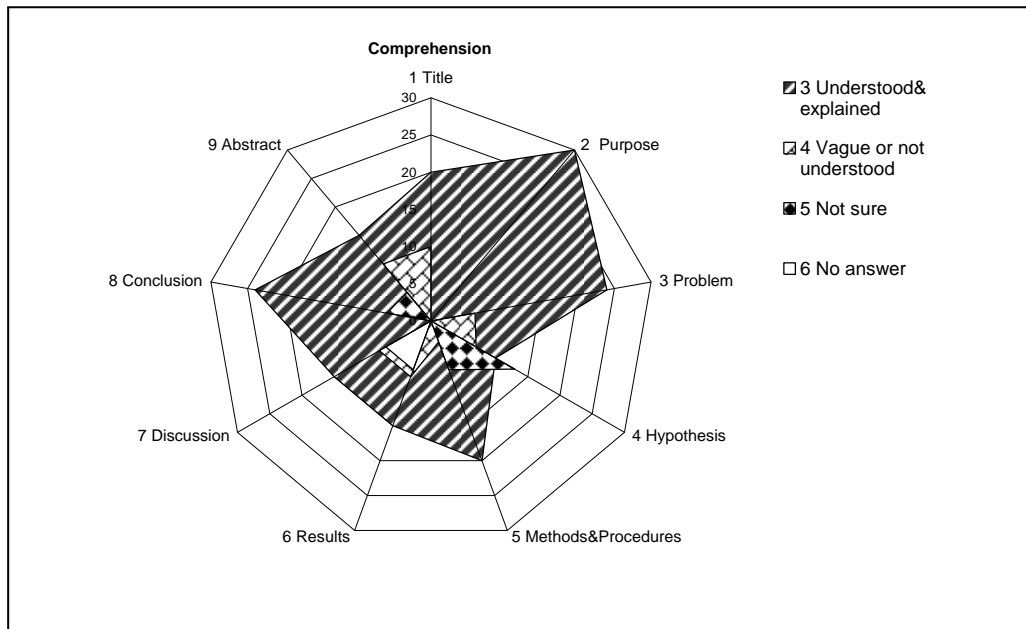
Using the *Diagram* representation it can be detected that the group of students had difficulties in grasping their articles, especially considering hypothesis (*Understood* by 10, *Vague* by 13, *Not sure* by 7), *Results* (5), *Discussion* (6) and *Abstract* (7).

CONCLUSION

In summarizing data by substituting very few terms for many words in the answers elicited from the examinees, certain information is inevitably lost. Even more seriously, it is very possible to obtain results which are misleading unless cautiously interpreted. Therefore, we are aware that the limitations of our summary measures must be clearly indicated. First of all, the students read different articles, not the same one. The questions were general in order to get insight on understanding of scientific articles. The answers of the examinees were descriptive and we had to interpret them subjectively. Statistical inference performed on the basis of these results may not be statistically reliable. Nevertheless it can still be useful for analyzing which sections of a scientific article were the most difficult parts of the articles for the examinees.

Despite of weaknesses, the results can be instructive for orientation in devising curricula to make the students aware of how to make use of reading material in order to accomplish fuller understanding of scientific articles. Relevant scientific concepts have to be introduced with more details and examples. Therefore a highly sophisticated statistical analysis may be an aid to, but never a substitute for, good sound thinking.

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Helping Foreign Voluntary Workers with English

Morag Mac Martin, Support for Learning Teacher, Perthshire, Scotland

Apart from the tourists who come to see our country, those of other nationalities who live and work here or await permission to do so, and the short-term or seasonal workers who take employment as they travel the world, there is another group of foreign workers who live, for varying periods of time, in our midst. That is the group who come as volunteers to live in communities as co-workers with those who have learning disabilities. They live as family receiving food, board and pocket money in return for help with the personal care, workshop supervision and the daily life and leisure of the residents.

These co-workers come from every continent and from many backgrounds. Some already speak English well while others have minimum knowledge of the language. They come with widely varied knowledge and experience and bring a wealth of talents and skills which they use generously for the benefit of the communities in which they live.

THE SITUATION

Each week I visit one such community with a view to helping those co-workers who desire it, with the English language i.e. the English language as required for their situation. Native speakers who feel called upon to do such work also tend to seek placements in other countries, so the methods of working which we have developed through trial, error and circumstance could generalise to other situations.

Who are these volunteers and why do they come here? They may be any age from school leaver to retired and come for many different reasons. Some merely wish to spend some time living and working in another country so that they can experience the language and culture. Some wish to gain knowledge with a view to following a career in social work or to learn English to further their own career prospects. Others are taking a career break to consider their future, taking time out after a personal crisis or choosing an alternative to military service. The group may include nurses, secretaries, teachers, engineers, students, lawyers and those who have worked in factories, on the land or in trades. They are people who already may speak several languages and have the knowledge of their structure and grammar.

This participant group is essentially fluid. Although the main changeover period is summer and early autumn there are arrivals and departures in every season. Because of the needs for cover by at least two co-workers of each of five houses and absences because of days off, illness and holidays, all who wish to attend classes can not always do so. It is preferred for the smooth running of the establishment that volunteers stay at least six months but this is not always possible and the familiarization period before full involvement is very short.

The community is quite isolated with no public transport and house parents and workshop leaders work shifts and rarely live in. Residents have limited verbal ability while co-workers have different levels of fluency and varying accents. It is management policy not to correct the English of co-workers in case it inhibits their efforts to ask questions or express worries. There is radio and the opportunity to view videos but no live television and limited opportunity for the voluntary workers to hear English spoken by native speakers or to practise it.

THE MATERIAL

Almost from their arrival, the co-workers have to help the residents in their daily routine and in the workshops. Any previous instruction in English usually has not included the vocabulary necessary for baking bread, doing the laundry, or working in the garden and immediate help is needed. What is a 'wheelbarrow', ' compost' or 'weed'? What are the names of the tools we need to use? If you have always lived in a flat in a large city, you may never have helped in a garden.

Similar problems arise in other workshops. 'What do you call these things that you use to fix the washing on the line? What are the names of the kitchen utensils, the commodities in the cupboards, etc? What is this recipe supposed to look like? Illustrated cookery books are needed for those unfamiliar with our diet.

The other area of language which needs to be mastered quickly is social language. The co-workers have not needed to know as yet, the English for such terms as 'Your lace is loose', 'back to front' or 'inside out'. There develops over time a 'community' vocabulary specific to the daily communication needs of the co-workers and residents. It needs to cover washing, dressing, mealtimes and leisure activities.

A particular worry for new volunteers is the telephone which should be answered by a co-worker on duty. The call may be for a resident or other volunteer and may be in any accent and to reduce the cost of long distance calls reaction needs to be quick. Accordingly one worksheet includes a specimen conversation e.g. 'Hello. This is M. speaking. Can I help you? I'm sorry, B. is not here at the moment. I'll try to find him/her. Please hold the line. Can I take a message? I'm sorry, I do not understand. Could you please speak more slowly?' etc.

Soon after arrival, social language is needed beyond the confines of the Community as the volunteers venture into travel, shopping, banking etc. To enable class members to make the best use of their limited free time and finances, the study of tourist brochures has proved valuable. Not only do they provide geographical and historical information but also a wealth of useful vocabulary such as 'admission', 'concession', 'accommodation' and 'guide'. They can be examined in small sections, offer much material for discussion and, moreover, many are free. Post Offices, dentists' waiting rooms, doctors' surgeries and government departments are sources of expendable teaching material.

Regardless of nationality, such previous instruction as co-workers have had tends to have been rather formal and they are most anxious that they should be grammatically correct whereas their greatest immediate need is communication. Japanese participants have additional anxiety about using the language form which shows the correct level of respect to the person to whom they are speaking. They also have special pronunciation problems with 'l', 'r' and 'w'. Many languages produce specific problems e.g. the definite and indefinite article may not exist.

Our classes always include some direct language teaching and many questions are asked about parts of speech, tenses etc. Although the pendulum has swung back in recent years, the teaching of grammar has not had a very high priority in our schools in the last twenty-five years, more emphasis being placed on communication. Undoubtedly, a thorough knowledge of grammar is necessary in learning a language but for foreign voluntary workers the first need is to understand and be understood.

My professional work has been to teach children to use their language but teaching it as a second language is very different. As a native speaker it never occurred to me before how difficult it is to explain some words and phrases in common usage to those learning it as a second language. Why, for example when 'workers', 'singers', and 'builders' are all people who do things, is a 'cooker' a piece of kitchen equipment? Why is a Yorkshire Pudding a savoury and not a dessert? Why do 'plough', 'although' and 'enough', all have such different pronunciation?

Words designating quantities – e.g. 'many', 'more', ' most' and 'less', cause problems'. Much' is generally used with uncountable amounts and 'many' with individual items. 'How many sheep in the field?' 'How much water in the kettle?' Then we say, 'How much money do you have?' Counting their money is very important for the volunteers.

'More', generally refers to a greater quantity or is used to make comparisons while 'less' is the opposite. "Can I have some more?" "The apples cost less than the pears". It seems straightforward until "Are you finished?" "More or less". That means neither more nor less but 'almost'. Why if 'was' is past tense singular and 'were' is past tense plural do we say, 'If I were…'?

Each session includes a problem-solving time when class members can raise points which have puzzled them since the previous meeting or seek information about a situation they expect to arise. The majority of questions concerns grammar and the idiomatic use of language – e.g. 'to give someone a hand', 'to put someone up', 'to be fed up', or to 'pull someone's leg' are difficult to understand from a dictionary. As well as giving information, this section of the lesson gives an opportunity for conversation.

To cater for the varying agendas of the participants, lessons include information about the history and culture of the country. So that class members might better understand what they see and hear as they travel around, background information about important architects, artists and writers etc. and Governmental, legal and educational systems is offered as are those topics peculiar to Scotland such as the origin of Tartan and 'How to walk safely on the Scottish hills'. All the annual festivals are

celebrated in the Community and much interest arises around how those are marked in other countries. There are also the special Scottish dates of St. Andrew's Day and Burns' Night. All such data expands comprehension and vocabulary. It is interesting that although they may have no idea of its words or meaning, no matter what part of the world they come from co-workers, almost without exception, recognise the tune of 'Auld Lang Syne' by Robert Burns and Beatrix Potter's illustrations of Peter Rabbit, her first book which she wrote locally. These two are international.

THE METHOD

Because of expense and the changing nature of the group, conventional courses of study are unsuitable. Each lesson has to stand independently and as co-workers are on duty six days out of seven and residents pay little attention to time, the amount of follow-up study that can be undertaken between lessons is limited. Consequently the only practical solution has proved to be that of worksheets. These can be collected and filed by class members to form a body of work at the end of their stay. During lessons, the class members can make personal notes about, for example, pronunciation or meaning on the worksheets and these are easily accessible for future reference. Lessons have to take place in the evenings and last about two hours so they have to be fairly relaxed.

THE RESULT

Attendance of co-workers at the English classes provided by the Community is entirely voluntary. Together over seven years we have developed a system of working which is extremely flexible to suit the changing needs of the members and help them to carry out a demanding and worthwhile job in another country and culture and profit from the experience. The co-workers continue to attend so the system must be working. The ideas generated may help those who find themselves in similar circumstances. There has been frustration, perplexity, fun and laughter. I have met a wonderful group of people from all over the world, gained immensely in knowledge and formed many lasting friendships. These foreign voluntary workers are special people and great ambassadors for their countries. I admire them tremendously and you should be very proud of them.

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Reading as an Anthropological Problem

Renato Nisticò, Scuola Normale Superiore di Pisa, Italy

In their works, all great writers have represented the act of reading as difficult, dangerous, deviant and harmful for the psychophysical integrity of a careless reader and counterproductive for their social identity. Reading is damaging, both for the devoted reader and for those closest to this unfortunate creature.

POSTMODERN FICTION

I will begin with Italo Calvino, and his novel *Se una notte d'inverno un viaggiatore*, often regarded as a sort of paradigm of postmodern fiction. It could also be seen as one of the finest examples of the ideology of 'pleasure of reading' so widespread today. The *Viaggiatore* represents the height of a theoretical-critical process in literature and its uses, that began with Konstanz's receptionist school, passing through the Barthesian death of the author, and finally consolidated in the cliché that considers the reader to be directly involved in constructing the significance of a text. In reality, *Se una notte d'inverno un viaggiatore* can also be regarded as a book about the crisis of literature and the literary author; and then, no less, on the crisis of reading, since the book's protagonists, the Readers, can never finish reading the ten novels they attempt, having to satisfy themselves with the opening words alone, almost like a *coitus interrupti*.

Naturally there are many other examples, such as Cervantes' *Don Quixote*, the novel that ushered in our modern tradition. Excessive reading of ancient romances of chivalry leads the ingenuous Spanish hidalgo to slide into madness; or better, into a form of immoderate reasoning that calls upon a commonly-held belief – that what is written in books is true. This established a sort of sub-genre in the tradition of reading dysphoria, according to which madness derives not only and not nearly as much from reading itself, as from innocently believing too much in books. And two centuries later, two other generous Don Quixotes of the modern era would delude themselves into thinking they could scientifically enlighten their lives by reading the best-known books. I refer to *Bouvard et Pécuchet* by Gustave Flaubert. While on the subject of an overly credulous 'momentary suspension of disbelief', referred to by receptionist theorists of reading such as Holland, after an old observation by Coleridge, we must mention Emma Bovary, emblem of this harmful abandonment to the spiritual atmosphere and psychological urges experienced when reading novels. Acting on certain romantic fantasies (as Paolo and Francesca, the doomed lovers in Dante's Inferno discovered) leads to no less than moral dissolution and death. Also to this category belongs a key character of Sartre's *Nausea*, the self-taught man, a worker who has retired in order to absorb all knowledge by reading every book in the Bouville library in alphabetical order. In this autodidact there is nothing noble, but much that is human; he is surprised while having sex with the young library patrons and is about to be lynched. Not unlike him is the eager General Stumm in Musil's *Der Mann ohne Eigenschaft* who will learn to his cost that it is impossible to read every book, even for an army of readers; in reality a military approach cannot be applied to reading. The sinologist Peter Kien, protagonist of Elias Canetti's *Die Blendung* also goes mad. And the same fate, ending with the triple splitting of his personality, awaits Mattia Pascal, Pirandello's ragged librarian.

And so forth. These literary examples serve to pass us from literary fantasies to good common sense as follows: Reading is a problematic activity and leads to trouble; however, a sort of uncontrollable impulse drives great numbers of individuals to throw themselves into it. One reads in spite of the risks. Reading is socially disgraceful, but equally inevitable. On one hand, one would like to be able to do without reading; on the other, we see that it is indispensable.

Reading was never talked about as much in past eras as it is today, when we claim that reading is in crisis; reading was never so important as in the moment of its negligibility. This is a paradox like so many others which we stumble across when discussing this topic.

SUCCESS AND FAILURE OF READING

Among the reasons for reading's success in the very age of its failure, we have already mentioned the critical trend of receptionism which puts the demands of the reader before those of the author. One could extend this responsibility to include today's cultural phase; that is, the Postmodern.

A typical trait of the postmodern is glorifying the institutional moment itself. In traditional terms, we might say that this favors form over content.

A sure indicator of this state is the now widespread conversion of the idea of the 'public' (which implies the concept of 'taste') into that of 'readers', in which the majority of readers is reduced to or sublimated into the status of buyers. The problem of quality is displaced in favor of numbers (Robine, 2000).

The potential dismantling of traditional vehicles for mediation (academic and militant criticism, the review process, etc.), makes a discussion on 'method' ("how" to approach certain works) impossible or at least obsolete, and renders comparison, a public discussion about various interpretations, completely superfluous. And yet, we know that no culture exists without conflicting interpretations. Therefore, it is first necessary to turn a singular and universal notion of *reading* into a plural and multi-versal one of *readings.* The practice of comparing *readings* would be much more effective and significant than any promotion of 'reading'.

There is another reason. One cannot isolate the problem of reading in absolute terms, that is the reading of written texts, and place it outside a more general and limitless reading of reality. This preceded books, and will continue even once they have faded away [Baricco, 2003]. For reading, from an etymological point of view as well (at least in Romance languages) is *ligare,* to put together, connect, choose. Fatally, the stimulus to read (its origin) is found outside the institutional reading environment, in everyday life, in interpersonal relationships—and fatally, there it is destined to end, to dissolve. This is why a good teacher, instead of instilling the "pleasure of reading" in a pupil (which makes no sense) should remember to place reading within a personal relationship with said pupil, *dramatizing* it. Within this relational structure reading should, or better *can,* occur, but should never be imposed. And at most, if we wish to teach about reading, we should teach the reading of, not texts, but rather landscapes, images, pictures; the street where one lives before any book.

The famous "right to not read", celebrated by Daniel Pennac in his *Decalogo del lettore* is a false right, such as the right to not vote; there is always someone who will vote in your stead, and there is always someone who reads and chooses something of social value in your stead. There is in fact a dis-pleasure in reading, that I find damnably interesting, instructive, and vital.

Thus, reading is neither a pleasure nor can it be reduced to a "duty", but instead is a need that derives from the need to interpret, I would even say *forge* the reality around us. I would like to clarify this general assertion with a specific anthropological paradigm. I allude to the work of Ernesto di Martino, the most important Italian anthropologist and religious historian of the XX century. Beginning with his notion of 'crisis and ritual reintegration of the presence', a distinguishing trait of the historical phase of the 'magical world', I believe that literature inherited that rituality by which, in primitive societies, the objective substance of reality was subjected to a crisis precisely in order to reinforce it after its ritual (that is, cultural) recomposition, which ultimately renews a sense of reality itself. This is why we read and also end up taking a certain perverse pleasure in it: because we have the need to symbolically take reality apart in order to reconstruct it according to a pattern that for us is more satisfying, more practicable.

These humble considerations direct our attention toward a phenomenon of notable interest, which is the reverse of the preceding one. When a purchaser buys and consumes a book alone, the reader in the aforementioned sense (who could be defined as "global reader") tends to favor the public aspect of the "use" of literature. On the contrary, I would like to offer a definition by French literary critic Albert Thibaudet, who distinguishes between reader (*liseur*) (*leggente*, in Italian) and *lecteur*, one who interprets, super-reads. The *lecteur* socializes that which the *liseur* tends to keep in the private sphere. To be precise, I would say that what occurs is a sort of socialization of the "losses' and a privatization of the 'gains' inherent in reading.

For some time now, readers seem to have mislaid the pain of solitary reading (one is more careful about sharing pleasures); instead they seek out the company, if not the solidarity of other readers, almost as if they must dilute an individual discomfort by sharing. There may be a grain of wisdom in this trend. In fact, if reading is discomforting, why shouldn't we attempt to share it?

THE READERS OF TODAY

From this attitude, still consistent from an anthropological point of view, descend various forms of the self-organization of readers today, evidence of the flowering, and perhaps a real

explosion, of new forms and social practices of reading. This is not so much a case of the celebrated 'bookcrossing' (which arouses some perplexity in me, as it seems to be a form of ludic compensation for the *dramatic* experience of reading) as that of the new forms of discussion found on the Internet. This new space must not be underestimated by those culture brokers who revolve around the phenomenon of reading, as long as they manage to ensure established levels of quality, that is, that criticism itself begins to mediate in the virtual world of the Internet as well. As Umberto Eco and Roger Chartier noted in their *Dialogo* concerning the future of the book [1999], the new media are not destined to replace books, but to accompany them and clarify their function, inventing new ways to enjoy them. Rather as television did years ago, when it served to revive cinema, by means of its extraordinary power of "suggestion".

Anyway, the fact that new forms of 'critical' reading are appearing in the new media should not cause us to forget the essential question: that is, that *the social aspects of reading lie in its* 'solitariness'. Its collective aspects are always traversed by a risky and inevitable individual moment.

The above-mentioned literary examples illustrate that, contrary to common belief, *reading has never really been a social value.* The powers that be have always opposed reading; and in particular the arch-power that has governed us for centuries, dominators and dominated: capitalism. Reading contradicts and inhibits capitalism's two principal values, today mostly practiced by the masses: Production (providing goods and services, making money) and Reproduction (eros, sex and family matters). Reading promotes neither one of these. Reading itself is a shock that distracts us from the reality principle, to express it in Freudian terms; a need for bewilderment, for negation/ removal from inhibiting cares.

I wish to offer a visual image of what we are saying here. In Albert Manguel's excellent book, the *Una storia della lettura* [1997, p. 102], there is the reproduction of a painting by the Belgian artist Emil Filla, entitled *Un lettore di Dostoevskj*: a cultivated man stands in a sort of amazed trance before the open pages of (perhaps) the *Brothers Karamazov*, *The Idiot* or *Crime and Punishment*. I see this painting as a sort of translation in images of the poem by Rilke " *Der Leser"* [1992, p. 394], which I will now read in support of my argument:

Wer kennt ihn, diesen, welcher sein Gesicht
wegsenkte aus dem Sein zu einem zweiten,
das nur das schnelle Wenden voller Seiten
manchmal gewaltsam unterbricht?

Selbst seine Mutter wäre nicht gewiss,
ob er es ist, der da mit seinem Schatten
Getränktes liest. Und wir, die Stunden hatten,
was wissen wir, wieviel ihm hinschwand, bis

er mühsam aufsah: alles auf sich hebend,
was unten in dem Buche sich verhielt,
mit Augen, welche, statt zu nehmen, gebend
anstießen an die fertig-volle Welt:
wie stille Kinder, die allein gespielt,
auf einmal das Vorhandene erfahren;
doch seine Züge, die geordnet waren,
blieben für immer umgestellt.

We can focus on the world precisely by means of this sort of *trance*, that lets us subtract ourselves from ordinary experience and enter a neutral space-time dimension, from which it is possible to "see" (that is, read) the world from the outside, impossible while we are in the midst of the ordinary flux of daily life. This process is by now a part of civilized man, it is his 'second nature', buried in his origins in the dawn of our civilization, and is closely connected to that historical phase of humanity's evolution that someone once called the 'magical world'.

With these (I hope suggestive) images I will conclude my speech and thank you for your attention. But first let me make it clear that since reading is an anthropological need, we should not so much promote it as remove any obstacles that could impede its natural exercise, therefore favoring the equilibrium (I would say ecological) of our institutions: libraries, universities, schools, and the publishing world.

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[61] Baricco recalls that at the dawn of the novel in the 1800s, 'respectable people' were discouraged from reading novels, from which their invasive potential could be caught, especially by persons of weak character, etc. He places reading within the dimension of historicity. From this point of view it is not only taken for granted that reading preserves its central role in the formation of awareness and understanding the world (a long-term prospect), but neither is he sure that some books, once canonical, will remain attractive to young people forever. Not only the institutional practices of reading, but taste, evolves. And young people should not retreat to a corner to read because it is "better than playing "Playstation", but should always perceive the gesture, the need for reading and its place in their world, with its technological horizons, its geography, as Baricco says, by now greatly changed and continually changing.

[62] Mere quantitative data on reading are not in themselves sufficient for a satisfactory description of the prevailing socio-cultural dynamic, as shown in a book published several years ago in France. Robine, after reviewing 50 different studies on reading in 20th -century France, based on a comparative analysis, confirms the impression that data alone are not enough, unless accompanied by a historico-critical reflection on the evolution of reading habits within the overall cultural dynamic.

Family Influence on Younger School-age Children's Reading: Results from Serbia

Nada Todorov, Teachers University, Sombor, Serbia

Reading represents an important step in every child's life. In the beginning, it is source of satisfaction, and later, it can meet a child's needs. By using books, one penetrates into heart of language, science and the world.

A fundamental basis of reading is laid in the lower grades of elementary school (from 7-12. years, I-IV grades), when, according to Piaget, children are going through two phases of development: beginning cooperation (7-8 years of age), and the process of codification (10-12 years). These stages essentially shape children's cognitive, affective and emotional development. In this period, the family has an influence on children's reading.

Because literature on the influence of family on children's reading is limited, a study was conducted. Its basic hypothesis was that parents show most interest in children's reading in first grade, and that the level of interest declines by about 10% at succeeding grade level. It was further hypothesized that the interests of parents are more directed on grades then on good reading; and that there is a difference between parental interest between city and village environments, with reading getting more attention in the village than in the city.

The research instrument was a questionnaire for parents that contained 13 questions about reading. Background information was sought on: number of family members; employment status of parents; parents' ages; and on native vs. immigrant status.

The questionnaire was implemented at the end of March, 2005. The sample consisted of 200 parents of children in grades one to four from villages, and 200 from urban areas. The rural children were enrolled in the Elementary school, "Djura Jaksic" in Curug village, while the urban children were enrolled in the Elementary school "Zarko Zrenjanin" in Novi Sad. Classes within these schools were selected at random.

Data were processed by identifying percentages, hi-quadrants, and correlation coefficients. The Kruskal-Wallis and Median tests were also used.

CHILDREN'S PERSPECTIVES

Information about Families

One of our hypotheses was that, in the city, we would find typical nuclear families consisting of parents and children, while the villages would be dominated by patriarchal families with large numbers of household members. There was limited evidence for this hypothesis. In the city, 4% of families could be described as patriarchal, while in the village, it was 7%. Based on this, it can be said that part of conditions for schooling and education in both environments are approximately the same.

The educational qualifications of parents show differences across the two environments. These relate specifically to university-level specialist training. In Curug, 3.5% of fathers and 1.7% of mothers had high education levels, while in the city, the percentages for both parents were higher. It is interesting that in both environments there are not many parents with university-level education. There are minor differences between the environments in intermediate education (ranging from 25% to 27%).

In the former Yugoslav areas, there are a lot of migrants. Migrant families often have specific problems associated with social and economic factors. Adaptation factors in the new environment, parents' employment status, and transitional changes surely leave traces in families' lives. Amongst respondents in the village environment, there are a large number of families with immigrant backgrounds.

As in most countries in transition, many people in Serbia also don't have permanent jobs. The data show that fathers' employment levels in two environments are a lot higher then mothers' employment levels. Employment of mothers in the city is higher by almost 50% than in village environment. In the terms of age structure, there are no large differences. In all, age average is points to changes in birth rate. The average age of fathers of first grade children is 37.5 years, and mothers, 34.7. The youngest father was 29 years, and the oldest 59 years. The average age of the fathers of

second-grade pupils was 33.6 years, and mothers 32.4 years. The average of third-grade pupils' fathers was 39.7, and 36.8 years for mothers. The average age of fathers of pupils in Fourth grade was 43.2, while for mothers it was 39.7.

PARENTS' PERSPECTIVES

Parents responded to a series of questions. Across the four grade levels (First to Fourth), 95.5% responded that they stimulated their children to read. No difference in stimulation levels was apparent between urban and rural sites.

Motivating Children to Read

Motivation for reading is a prerequisite for successful work. Parents are surely using different methods of stimulation, and this was confirmed by their answers to an open-ended question. Village parents pointed out different approaches to motivating children. They said that they encourage them to read fairytales, buy them children's magazines, play with them and talk about the text that has been read, give them books for gifts, and choose interesting texts. We singled out most interesting answers:

- I begin the reading of some interesting text and leave her to finish. By giving her every day what she has to read (parent of First grade child)
- Praising him that he is better, with kiss, reward-to play a computer. By constant warnings and reminding him on school books. (parent of Second grade child)
- I am always warning her. I am warning her, but she refuses to cooperate. (parent of Third grade child)
- Forcing him and listening to how he reads. Depending on how many books you read, he earns more. (parent of Fourth grade child)

City parents reported that they stimulated reading through buying books, comic books, magazines, reading together, reading of beautiful stories, and reading sport news from newspapers. City parents also mentioned rewarding children, retelling shorter parts of books and just encouraging children to read. Answers were more detailed than those of parents from the village environment, but the methods of stimulation in the village were more diverse. Examples of responses from city parents included:

- If it is needed, with pressure. Reading required literature and reading by choice. Child will regularly read, if parents read. (parent of First grade child)
- Pointing out the importance of reading as basis of all knowledge. Telling him many interesting things that he can find in books. (parent of Second grade child)
- By going often in bookstores, buying books, use of boarding school, talking about interesting themes from magazines. (parent of Third grade child)
- By using pressure if it is needed. (parent of Fourth grade child)

More than 20% of parents did not answer, suggesting that, as children grow older, their parents were less likely to follow their reading development.

Supporting Reading with Understanding

Eighty-seven percent of parents in the village site, and 81% in the urban cite reported that they supported their children in reading with understanding.

Reading Aloud

Reading aloud can be important. A character from Daniel Pennak's novel said: "Spoken words started to exist and beyond me, they really had their own life.[63] Eighty-nine percent in the village site reported that their children read aloud in front of them, compared with 81% in the urban site. For the month prior to the study, the corresponding percentages were 91.0% (village) and 93.5% (city).

Daily Time Allocated to Reading

Parents were asked to write down the amount of time that children spent in reading of important school material and the amount of time children allocated to free reading.

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[63] Pennak, 1992, p. 28.

In First grade, equivalent proportions from both rural and city environments read important school material for one hour. The difference is in free choice, with village children spending more time reading for leisure. A similar pattern of results emerged for Second-grade children. In Third grade, a larger proportion of children from the village read important school literature for more than one hour, while equal proportions in village and city environments (just over 50%) read for leisure for more than one hour. They are pretty well the same regarding reading by free choice: more than half of students read for on hour. In Fourth grade, considerable changes were noticed in both environments. The same percentage of pupils from both environments (32) read important school material for more than hour per day, which can be connected with learning transfer. Time for reading by free choice also climbed.

Frequency of Purchasing Books for Children.

Across class levels, 21.5% of parents in the village setting, and 44% in the city setting reported that the 'often' bought books for children. The corresponding percentages for 'sometimes' were 68% (village) and 50.5% (city), while, for 'never', they were 10.5% (village) and 5.5% (city).

Engagement of Children in Reading Library Books, Magazines, and Books Outside Required Reading

Again, across grade levels, 64.5% of village parents, and 76% of city parents reported that their children read library books. Forty-four percent (village) and 78% (city) reported that their children read magazines, indicating that this practice is more prevalent in cities than villages. Seventy-eight percent of parents in the village setting said that their children engaged in reading outside of required reading. The corresponding figure for the city was 87.5%.

In response to a question on whether their child progressed in his/her understanding of what they read, 91% of parents in the village setting and 93% in the urban setting reported that their child did indeed make progress. This difference is not statistically significant. All parents indicated that they helped their children with unknown words.

PUPILS' SUCCESS IN READING.

Pupils in First grade are marked descriptively. From Second to Fourth grades in the village environment, the percentage of excellent marks is 50.6, while, in the city, it is 63.3%. In the village 26.6% achieve 'very good' marks, and in city 32.6%. 'Good' progress is logged by 18% in the village, and 5% in the city. No 'unsatisfactory' marks were awarded in the city, while 4.1% in the village achieved such marks.

ASSOCIATIONS AMONG VARIABLES

The influence of certain variables on attitudes of parents to reading and school success is analyzed using the contiguous coefficient C. Coefficients are given in Table 1. As can be seen from the table, the following are statistically significantly associated with pupil marks: father's profession, mother's profession, and father's age. Also significantly associated with pupil marks with a 5% reliability level are mother's employment status and father's immigration status. Both mother's employment and father's employment are associated with parents' responses to the questionnaire. Both mother's profession and father's profession are associated with parent attitudes about reading. Finally, mother's age is associated with parent attitudes about children's reading.

Table 1: Associations between Selected Variables and Parents' Attitudes to Reading

	School success			Parents attitudes		
	C	χ^2	Degrees of	C	χ^2	Degrees of Freedom
A	0,386	103,361	16	0,371	94,082	40
B	0,355	85,999	16	0,346	81,318	40
C	0,24	36,425	16	0,282	51,368	40
D	0,323	15,360	16	0,323	69,569	40
E	O,158	15,291	12	0,315	65,730	30
F	0,183	20,779	8	0,252	40,441	20
G	0,179	19,683	8	0,168	17,390	20
H	0,12	8,731	8	0,178	19,564	20

A = father's profession; B = mother's profession; C = father's age; D = mother's age; E = employed father; F = employed mother; G = Immigrated from other areas-father; H = immigrated from other areas-mother

A number of variables were found not to have significant associations with performance and attitude. Mother's age and father's employment status are not significantly associated with pupil marks. Similarly, neither mother's employment status, father's immigrant status, nor mother's immigrant status are associated with pupil marks.

The results show that the hypothesis that family interest in reading declines by about 10% per year is not confirmed. Similarly, the hypothesis that parents in the village environment dedicate more attention to children's reading is not confirmed. The results also show that the two environments are different in terms of children's success in school (Kruskal-Wallis test, $\chi2=8.256$ df = 1), but not in the terms of parents attitudes to children's reading (Kruskal-Wallis test, $\chi2=3,542$, df = 1).

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Blurring the Boundaries: Children's Literacy in Virtual and Geographic Communities[64]

Linda Wason-Ellam and Angela Ward, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Canada

Children's literacy learning takes places in many contexts other than school. An understanding of the literacy used in families and communities has the potential to broaden teachers' knowledge of their students, improve pedagogical practices, and contribute to a broad social theory of literacy learning. With increased access worldwide to electronic media, particularly computers, videos and television, literacy practices are changing rapidly in ways often not recognized by public institutions such as schools and libraries. This paper documents an ethnographic study of families in one Canadian neighbourhood, and describes how literacy was used to blur the boundaries between formal and informal practices. Families in the study brought 'schooled' literacy home in unexpected ways, through their adoption of both print and electronic reading programs. Globalization makes it possible for children all over the world to read the same books, watch the same cable television shows, play the same computer games, engage in the same digital spaces and virtual worlds, own the same media-inspired possessions, and use the same language in dialogue about what they know. This further blurs the boundaries between geographic neighbourhoods, joining families throughout the world in a common globalized culture.

CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The study took place in Westside Park (a pseudonym), a working class neighbourhood of a small city in the prairie region of Canada. For thousands of years, indigenous peoples hunted across these plains, and spent the winters camped on the steep banks of the river that divides the city. Some of their urban descendants now live side by side with agrarian settlers whose ancestors arrived on the prairies in the 19th century, and with more recent immigrants from Asia, Africa, and Eastern Europe.

FOCUS AND METHOD OF THE STUDY

The authors became interested in the out of school literacy lives of the students with whom they had worked in a previous community school project. Our original purpose in conducting the current study was to describe the informal literacies or local "funds of knowledge" (Moll, 1992) of students in this urban community school, and to explore how literacies learned in families and the community might become building blocks for school literacy. In our view, literacy is best understood as social, that is as embedded in the daily lives of those who use it (Street, 1995); particular literacies are learned through participation in social activities. Lave and Wenger (1991) describe this as a kind of apprenticeship in a community of practice.

We used an ethnographic approach to gather data on the literacy events and practices (Barton, Hamilton & Ivanic, 2000) in the neighbourhood under study. Ethnography is a naturalistic research approach that renders a 'rich description', narratives with historical depth and contextual perspectives that reveal the everyday and insider views of each participant. Initially we collected samples of the layered texts within neighbourhood spaces by mapping the community and gathering and analyzing documents such as newsletters, flyers, posters, notices, announcements, maps, recreational guides, local newspapers, photographs of signs and logos. Later we inventoried books and other texts arrayed in local "big box' stores, or at second hand bookstores, libraries, preschools, and the leisure centre to determine the availability of print in the Westside Park community.

For our data collection we also viewed children's educational television programs, played computer or video games, and regularly participated in websites for favourite media characters or shows. The researchers engaged in conversational interviews with over 100 parents, grandparent-caregivers, librarians and storekeepers to obtain participants' perspectives. Working with a cross-cultural research team of teacher-professors and graduate students, we met frequently to interpret what we found, and, quite typically in qualitative research, refined our questions as we proceeded. Our

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focus in this paper is on the ways children engage in social and cultural activities that involve viewing texts spread across globally recognized media images, and how they and their parents are engaged by representational spaces within virtual and geographic communities. Literacy serves a range of functions for individuals and for groups; changes occur across time and virtual and geographic space in social uses of literacy. In fact, according to Gee (2003), each new literacy context requires participants to ASSUME a new identity. The 'sense of being literate' (Heath, 1991) is demonstrated in multiple contexts, leading eventually to communicative competence in literacies of many different types.

PATTERNS OF LITERACY USE IN WESTSIDE PARK PUBLIC LIBRARY

The public library in Westside Park library is part of a recreational complex that includes a swimming pool. It is a typical small community library, with 1300 users on busy days. At the time of the study the collection comprised:

- 30,000 children's books (hardcover and paperback);
- 34,000 adult/young adult books;
- 2000 audio cassettes,
- 3000 compact disks,
- 6,600 videos and DVDs
- 10 computers (one reserved for young children, the others with Internet access).

We visited the library at different times of the day; sometimes our team members brought their own children with them and participated in a variety of programs. Parents and caregivers brought young children to the library's story time and activity programs in the mornings; during the afternoons we saw older women looking for fiction and checking e-mail, while after school teenagers entered the library, ostensibly to do homework. The adolescents were observed to 'multi-task', that is to chat with friends, read magazines, and attempt homework at the same time. In effect, the high school students demonstrated multiple, concurrent participation in both schooled and informal literacies. The library spaces were used by different groups of people, and tended not to interact across generational boundaries. Our observations and interviews with the librarians revealed an uneasy co-existence between formal, schooled literacies and informal, everyday literacies.

The traditional view of public and school libraries sees these institutions as a bibliographic approach to knowledge, giving readers access to the widest possible range of literature on a subject (Schuster, 1977), in whatever form. Our study showed that many people came to Westside Park library to use technology, not to borrow materials; knowledge was accessed through the Internet as often as through 'hard print' materials. The library as a research site was especially interesting, since it revealed the 'blurred boundaries" between formal and informal literacies more clearly than recognised in most schools. Watching people's literate behaviours in a public space allowed us an opportunity to see multiple literate identities at work, particularly the increasing use of electronic media to supplement more traditional book literacies.

READING IN VIRTUAL SPACES

The transactional view of reading held by researchers and teachers through the late 20th century is of an interactive process that develops problem solving, critical and creative thinking, and independent thought as readers build bridges between the text and their own knowledge to make meaning. Response to print resources, especially high quality children's literature, can be leisured and thoughtful. For example, in *One Wish*, at the seaside, Frances Wolf (2004) poetically intertwines remnants or snippets of images as in the following: " There is a porch to sunbathe on… a beach full of treasures waiting to be discovered… sand castles are conquered by the incoming tide… the thundering waves crash on rumbling, tumbling stones". Wolfe weaves a reminiscence that makes the ordinary small moments in life extraordinary. Contrastingly, in virtual spaces, learning to read is presented as a set of autonomous or discrete technical skills 'pedagogised" like schooling.

Learning to be a reader has been extended by the mass media to a virtual community scattered across time and space. Traditionally reading has been valued for its capacity to open social, imaginative, emotional, aesthetic, intellectual, and cultural worlds. Through reading, children gain multiple perspectives to help make sense of their lives. Not only do books expand outward

knowledge, but vicariously encountering characters and places through a story shapes and deepens children's inner life as well. Whether reading silently or listening to stories read aloud or retold, literature invites children to envision images for themselves. In the process, children bring their own unique life to the reading.

Getting a child-ready-for school-reading and supporting a child-through-school-reading (Wason-Ellam & Ward, 2004) created anxiety for families in Westside Park.

Canadian parents have the privilege of purchasing books for home reading, borrowing books from a lending library, or purchasing electronic reading programs such as "Jump Start to Reading".

Televised, video and computer reading occur in the stream of daily life. In Westside Park, parents thought it was their job to help their child accumulate cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1986), that is the kind of knowledge and abilities that schools value. Through the purchase of workbooks or computerized reading games they claimed the authority to direct their children's learning in schooled-like reading that was replacing the alternative type of literacy activities that children may have encountered in the context of home or community such as storybook reading, art, and creative play.

Packaged computer reading games feature a systematic, explicit instruction of phonemic awareness, phonics and word knowledge. They are a rigid, scripted program that leaves little time for any individualization or differentiation. Moreover, electronic reading games are linked to media brands that have become resources with layers of attached meanings (Kline, 1993) that are essential for young children to possess or consume to socially belong or construct identities, selves, and relationships with peers.

Most of the major companies that market computer or battery operated literacy games to children, such as Fisher Price, Jump Start, Hooked on Phonics or Lego create their own websites, designed as "branded environments" (Montgomery, 2001) so that the web game becomes the commercial for the endless "*edutainment"* products. Edutainment is the fusion of education and entertainment offerings that invokes a pretence of education and functions to please parents who think their children are engaged in literacy learning (Creighton, 1994). Invoking education serves as a means of legitimizing many media pursuits that might otherwise be regarded as overly indulgent fun while relegated to the "back seat" of children's activities is the reading of quality children's books for pleasure.

Many Westside Park parents saw merit in using these computer games as a teaching tool because they captured children's attention. As one mother explained, *"Computer games keep children busy for hours. When my son is at the computer he is truly absorbed and I can get a lot done."*

Households were also a space for media consumption. According to eight year old Jake:
We have zillions of video games and I have a Power Touch Game for Scooby Doo… and we use the Internet and my brother e-mails all the time to his friends.

We all can see our own shows when we want because we got five televisions, one for me and that is in my bedroom, one for my brother, one for my parents, one in the basement and the big screen is for the family. But my dad uses it to watch sports *(Transcript, Jake January 13, 2001).*

These out-of-school practices blur the boundaries between media reading as popular culture and reading as learning to engage in new horizons. Off the shelf packaged reading, such as workbooks, computer games, videos, and electronic reading games enable parents to implement do-it-yourself home reading programs. Packaged reading becomes a 'fast-fix' solution.

Reading on the Web requires a reader to find, scan, digest and store information.

Reading becomes 'information foraging' or the ability to pick out individual words and sentences and attend to the information conveyed in the source's nontextual features.
One of the key features of these reading products were grade leveling and assessment tests as indicators of a child's progress. These media commodities packaged as educational tools, with their accompanying leaflets, used academic language derived from psychological literature to legitimize and reinforce their educational value. One of the hottest reading packages is the Baby Einstein video board books. Baby Einstein nuances a suggestion that their products give babies an edge on learning. For example, the Baby Van Gogh promotional notes to parents claim that the video "Exposes your child to color through the artwork of Van Gogh!" According to the publishers, when introducing the six primary colors, Baby Einstein stimulates a baby's natural curiosity; is appropriate for ages 18 months and up; and provides color questions for each piece of Van Gogh's work. The Baby Einstein

games and toys are advertised as building intelligence, but, in fact, most of them just build narrow types of skills, such as memory – memorizing letters or sounds, or some very narrow types of problem solving – something mechanical and not the type of broad problem-solving that contact with the real world and human beings promote. Eventually, parents who purchase these products will realize that their child is interacting with media not them.

LESSONS LEARNED FROM THE STUDY

As qualitative researchers we recognize that research is changed by the doers and the doing. Our understandings developed through disciplined and systematic revisiting of our multiple sources and our conversations over a three-year period. We explored literacy in both the geographic and virtual worlds experienced by children in Westside Park, and described their multiple contexts for literacy and multiple literate identities. In the globalized electronic world, texts have become the 'literacy experts'; the power of advertising and sales is harnessed to literacy materials in similar ways around the world. Many parents in our study used both print and electronic media in packaged form to foster 'school-like literacy' at home.

We live in an increasingly complex and politically charged world. Literacy spaces provoke new challenges and evoke complex and multiple interpretations. We need to continue the dialogue that ensures that quality and excellence remain the criteria for the production of a literacy culture for children.

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The BARFIE (Books and Reading for Intercultural Education) Project

Jutta Kleedorfer, Austrian Reading Association, Austria

The BARFIE Project involves a European Comenius Network of institutions and professionals from 16 European countries – Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Greece, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, the Slovac Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Turkey, and the UK – working with children and books. It is a network of teachers of all grades and types of schools, of librarians and officials working in houses for children's literature, schools, libraries, teachers' colleges, universities, ministries, and education departments etc.

BARFIE helps to promote work on intercultural education through making children's and juveniles' books and media more effective and pleasurable, and combining this with an aesthetic experience.

The aims of BARFIE are:
- to exchange information;
- to work on a collection of books by contemporary authors for children as an aid to intercultural education – e.g. teaching tolerance, mutual understanding and appreciation of diversity; and
- to develop methods for presentation of these books and their use in children's libraries and family reading settings, and also for implementing them in school curricula.

Special attention is given to schools attended by children from minority and migrant groups, and schools attended by handicapped children and by students dealing with problems arising from living in multicultural societies. The project aims to facilitate their acceptance of these children by their peers and their integration into society, and to promote European co-operation and innovation in school education in various thematic areas.

BARFIE is a typical Comenius Network. Its themes are particularly related to the European dimension in school education, including European citizenship and cultural heritage, but the BARFIE project also wants to support the types of curricula and cross-curricula that promote learning of languages, educational use of information and communication technologies, and environmental, art and intercultural education. Its focus is to raise the learning quality and achievements in schools by raising levels, combating violence, and developing strategies for evaluating the quality in school education.

BARFIE's main objectives are to promote intercultural education through children's books and media to provide a creative platform for the exchange of information, discussions, dissemination and implementation of best practice in the innovative use of literature in intercultural education. It helps disabled, minority and bilingual children as well as children who are victims of violence, racism and xenophobia to interact better with various social environments, but also contributes to art education and stimulates creativity through books combining the verbal and visual medium to increase awareness of cultural heritage in Europe, and last but not least to add language learning.

Its focus is the education of specific target groups, e.g. children of migrant workers, travelers and occupational travelers, of Roma and Sinti, but also students at risk of social exclusion and those with special educational needs.

In the last three years (2002-2005) the members of the BARFIE project developed specific teaching instruments to increase the European and intercultural dimension in school education. My personal contribution to BARFIE was so far to develop resource materials for the use of BARFIE books at school and in libraries.

Here is just one example: The BARFIE-book.[65]

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[65] Heinz Janisch/ Helga Bansch (2000), Zack bumm! Wien: Jungbrunnen
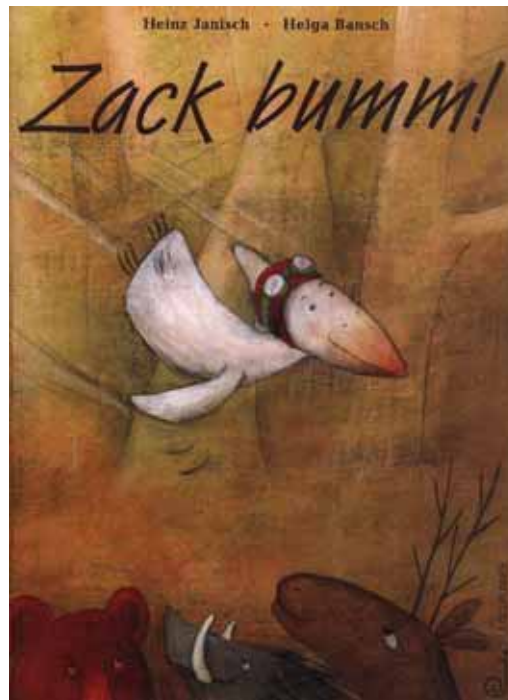
Heinz Janisch/ Helga Bansch, **Zack bumm!** is both a fable and a parable. It is the story of Sigmund, a young bird sitting in his nest. The world around him was huge. He wanted to fly like his parents. He bent forward and he fell out of the nest. He glided through the air. "Help!!!", he was about to cry. But in a second he brutally crashed his head against the ground. "Zack bumm!" was heard inside. When his parents found him, Sigmund sat in the grass quite tousled. "How are you doing?", asked his mother anxiously. "Zack bumm!", he replied. "Zack bumm?", asked his father. Sigmund nodded. "Zack bumm! Zack bumm!", he uttered with a croaky voice. It sounded as if somebody had slammed a door. Sigmund's parents looked at a loss. They fed him. They took care of him day by day, night by night. They did not leave him alone. They taught him how to fly. But Sigmund was not able to twitter, to whistle or to sing like a bird. He tried it again and again. But when he opened his beak, a sad "Zack bumm!" was heard. Sigmund became older. "Hey, Zack bumm, how are you?", the other animals of the wood asked him when they met him. They had gotten used to his strange call "Zack bumm!" One day an old, white hare came to the tree where Sigmund lived. The hare took out a book and sat down in the shade of the tree. "Zack bumm, Zack bumm!", Sigmund hoarsely croacked. After a while the hare – his name was Carl Gustav (Jung!!!) – looked up. "Your voice sounds sadly", he said. "Why are you not able to twitter like the other birds?" Sigmund shook his head. "Zack bumm!", he cried silently. Carl Gustav looked at him thoughtfully. "We must undertake something to make you happy again!", he said. "Tomorrow, at high noon, come to me. I will think about how I can help you." Sigmund nodded his head. Then he flew over the meadows and woods, over the hills and mountains to the sea. He sat down on a high rock. "Zack bumm! Zack bumm!", he shouted into the roaring sea. He shouted himself hoarse. On the next day he flew back to Carl Gustav. In the middle of the grass there was a sofa as green as grass. "This is a good place to think about things!", said Carl Gustav. "Lay down and have a rest. Try to remember what has happened. When did you cry "Zack bumm! Zack bumm!", for the first time? Take your time!" Sigmund lay with his eyes tightly shut on the sofa. At first he saw stars, circles and clouds in his mind. But then he calmed down. He was lying so still that Carl Gustav thought he had fallen asleep. Finally Sigmund opened his eyes. "Zack bumm! Zack bumm!", he said. "How did the story begin? How did it happen to you?", asked Carl Gustav. Sigmund fell down from the sofa. He held his head. Carl Gustav was thinking. "I understand", he said. "You had fallen out of the nest and you had a hard landing on your head." Sigmund nodded excitedly. "And after your fell out of the nest – you thought: 'I am doing everything wrong!' Sigmund nodded again and lay down on the sofa. Carl Gustav took off his glasses and began to clean them carefully. "But in

the meantime you learned to fly. The wind carries you through the air. You are flying like a feather … Even if you can't twitter, you are a real bird." Suddenly he heard a scream. A little something tumbled down from above. A young bird was falling out of its nest. Sigmund flew up to him like an arrow. Sigmund widely spread his wings and so he caught the little one. The little bird softly landed on Sigmund's feathers. "Bravo!", shouted Carl Gustav. I do not know any other bird that can fly so bravely like you. I have an idea. He gave Sigmund a wink. Some days later Carl Gustav invited all animals of the wood to a special celebration. He was standing on the green sofa and shouted loudly: "Welcome to the big "Zack bumm- air-show!"

Sigmund dived down from the highest tree. He performed a loop. He showed a forward and a backward somersault. He played all his tricks. It was the most wonderful air-show the animals had ever seen in the wood.

"It is so lovely to be a bird and to hover in the air", Sigmund thought. He croaked his "Zack bumm!" and this time it sounded as if somebody had again opened a door inside him.

The message of this story, beautifully and sensitively illustrated, contains so many issues of the BARFIE-project as described above. It can be read on different levels – as an exciting picture book, as a fable of a handicapped creature, as a therapeutic, psychoanalytic tool according to the methods of Freud and Jung and as a true realistic story of young people falling out of their "nests".

Meanwhile many teachers use this book in Austrian classrooms in a biblio-prophylactic and bibliotherapeutic way according to BARFIE's guidelines.

One of BARFIE's most distinguished outputs is a catalogue of 137 European "handselected" books assisting intercultural education. This Catalogue of Books (in three languages – English, French and German) is a helpful resource for teachings in that it provides a sustainable support to introducing BARFIE-books successfully to classrooms and libraries. It shows how much work was done to raise children's awareness of Europe's linguistic and cultural diversity and to enhancing co-operation among schools, libraries and educational units. The main topics are multicultural coexistence, conflicts and violence, accepting of differences, tolerance and its opposite, racism, war and peace, disabilities, as well as friendship, the home, and last but not least, the importance of "being at home".

Web sites:

For more details visit:
> http://www.barfie.net
> http://www.ncrcl.ac.uk/epbc European Picture Book Collection (activities for children)
> http://www.roehampton.ac.uk/development/eset (training course for teachers)