LITERACY IN CONTEXT: CULTURAL AND SOCIOECONOMIC DIMENSIONS OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Ace Vincent S. Baritos[1], Regina P. Galigao[2]

[1]*Cebu Technological University-Main Campus, Corner M.J. Cuenco Avenue and R. Palma Street, Cebu City, Philippines*
[2]*Cebu Technological University-Main Campus, Corner M.J. Cuenco Avenue and R. Palma Street, Cebu City, Philippines*

ABSTRACT

Literacy is widely recognized as a critical ability that shapes language development, cultural identity, and socioeconomic opportunity. While existing research has highlighted the significance of literacy in academic and social contexts, gaps remain in understanding how these dimensions intersect and reinforce one another. This study addresses these gaps by employing a data mining method to analyze scholarly articles on literacy, language development, and socioeconomic status. Findings reveal that many literacy programs focus narrowly on functional reading skills, often overlooking cultural inclusivity, systemic inequities, and the lived realities of learners from marginalized groups. The study concludes that literacy should be viewed not only as a technical skill but as a holistic practice influenced by cultural and social contexts. Recommendations emphasize the need for integrated literacy programs that incorporate cultural and linguistic diversity, stronger institutional support, the use of technology in accessible ways, and policies that address socioeconomic barriers. These insights contribute to a more inclusive and sustainable understanding of literacy as both an educational and social imperative.

KEYWORDS: *Literacy Programs, Reading Proficiency, Economic Opportunities*

I. INTRODUCTION

Literacy is a continuous continuum of learning that includes the interpretation, creation, and sharing of meaning in a variety of circumstances; it goes well beyond the mere capacity to read and write (UNESCO, 2025). Literacy, a fundamental human ability, shapes vocabulary, syntax, phonology, and overall communication competence, hence supporting language development (UNESCO, 2025; Resnick, 1983; Tyner, 1998, as quoted in Beecher, 2021). A major factor in this process is socioeconomic status (SES): children from lower-SES households are exposed to a lot fewer words and complex language interactions than their peers from higher-SES households (Pace et al., 2017), and they routinely perform worse on tests of language, reading, and executive function (Pace et al., 2017; Romeo et al., 2023). These disparities not only adversely affect early literacy but also influence long-term academic success and socioeconomic mobility (Blanchard, 2023; UNESCO, 2025; Romeo et al., 2023).

Beyond its benefits for cognition and development, reading plays a key role in promoting social inclusion and reaffirming cultural identity. One's sense of community and cultural narrative is strengthened by cultural literacy, which is the ability to comprehend and navigate a society's norms, symbols, and history (Beecher, 2025). Furthermore, the marginalization of mother-tongue instruction erodes cultural dignity and educational outcomes, particularly in post-colonial contexts, further solidifying structural inequality (Pace et al., 2017). Strong home-language skills can be transferred to a second language and promote cognitive, psychosocial, and economic benefits; however, dual-language learners (DLLs) face diverse literacy trajectories and separate early language systems (Hammer, 2014).

Despite literacy's fundamental significance, there are significant gaps in the literature. First, a lot of research discusses SES in general terms without distinguishing between the ways that home and school-based SES affect literacy results differently. Second, there is frequently a lack of cultural and linguistic relevance in instruction, particularly for minority or indigenous learners; too few programs foster mother-tongue literacy or culturally grounded pedagogy. Third, little is known about the precise developmental paths of DLLs, including how language exposure, L1 vs. L2 proficiency, and cultural context all work together to influence literate development (Hammer, 2014; NCELA, 2000). These limitations collectively highlight the need for integrative research that addresses cultural, linguistic, and sociopolitical aspects in addition to cognitive and environmental elements.

Thus, it is essential to carry out more thorough evaluations that touch on SES, cultural identification, bilingualism, and educational background. A more equitable distribution of resources can be revealed by separating the relative contributions of home and school SES. More inclusive and successful teaching methods can be developed by assessing culturally responsive literacy practices, such as narrative-based pedagogy and mother-tongue education. Furthermore, careful examination of DLLs' developmental paths can help determine when and how to step in, guaranteeing that literacy development promotes both cultural inclusion and academic success. In the end, closing these inequalities might support literacy programs that affirm identity, open up socioeconomic opportunities, and build true inclusion in addition to improving reading skills.

II. OBJECTIVES

1. This research analyzes how literacy programs across global contexts are designed and implemented to address diverse cultural, linguistic, and socioeconomic needs, with particular attention to their effectiveness in improving reading proficiency.
2. This research analyzes the pedagogical strategies employed in literacy interventions, such as community-based practices, digital tools, and culturally embedded approaches, and their impact on learner outcomes and equity.
3. This research analyzes the role of institutions and policy structures in shaping literacy initiatives, highlighting how government agencies, NGOs, and schools influence access, sustainability, and inclusivity of programs.
4. This research analyzes how sociocultural and economic factors, including poverty, language diversity, and systemic inequities, interact with literacy policies to either promote or hinder equitable reading development worldwide.

III. METHODOLOGY

Despite the abundance of research on literacy, gaps remain in understanding how cultural identity, language development, and socioeconomic opportunity intersect to shape reading outcomes. Many studies focus on isolated factors such as socioeconomic status, early childhood interventions, or bilingual education, but fewer examine how these dimensions connect and influence each other in real-world literacy programs. This limits the ability of educators and policymakers to design holistic and inclusive approaches that respond to the diverse needs of learners.

To address this gap, this study uses a data mining method to systematically analyze published articles on literacy programs, policies, and interventions. Through this approach, the research identifies recurring themes, patterns, and contradictions across studies, allowing for a clearer picture of how literacy is linked with language acquisition, cultural identity, and socioeconomic opportunity. By drawing insights from multiple sources, the study aims to provide a grounded analysis that highlights effective practices, reveals overlooked issues, and suggests directions for more equitable and culturally responsive literacy initiatives.

IV. PRESENTATION OF DATA, INTERPRETATION, AND ANALYSIS

Literacy Programs

Literacy programs shape the educational environment by providing systematic interventions that help students improve their reading skills. These programs, which are conducted in a variety of nations, are intended to serve students' unique needs, promote fair access to quality education, and support national development goals. Literacy programs are grounded in evidence-based methods and informed by socio-cultural and economic circumstances. They show a global commitment to improving reading competence as a foundation for academic success and societal growth.

Literacy Focus and Educational Priorities

Literacy is both a fundamental educational goal and a socioeconomic motivator in various worldwide situations. Countries create literacy policies based on their specific historical, cultural, and developmental demands. In Southeast Asia, the Philippines incorporates literacy into the K-12 curriculum, but issues with implementation for non-readers and learners who require assistance (Abejuela et al., 2023). Singapore associates literacy with economic prosperity, whereas Indonesia and Malaysia employ literacy to foster cultural and ethnic unity (Rusydiyah et al., 2023).

South and East Asia have similar diversity in objectives. India's "Read India" campaign emphasizes literacy as a route to economic mobility (Banerji & Chavan, 2016), but Japan follows a socially inclusive strategy that views reading as critical to youth development, particularly among the marginalized (Iwatsuki, 2019).

Globally, literacy tactics are shaped by labor market demands and technology advancements. Literacy in Germany is linked to economic engagement, with an emphasis on correct reading diagnostics (Garbe et al., 2016). Netten et al. (2016) emphasize the importance of language context and family participation in early literacy. Ferrufino (2023) observes a global movement toward digital and programming literacy, which parallels the expansion of tech economies.

In North America, Canada has shifted from comprehensive adult education to skills-based literacy, driven by employment indicators. Meanwhile, teacher development is stressed as critical to literacy success (Nelson et al., 2020), and bilingualism is advocated in Mexico to preserve indigenous identity (Kalman & Reyes, 2016).

Latin American models reflect a variety of developmental goals. Chile focuses early reading for at-risk children (Paz, 2017), Brazil encourages family-based early literacy (Mendelsohn et al., 2020), and Ecuador promotes academic literacy at the tertiary level to enhance critical thinking (Méndez Prado et al., 2019).

Oceania emphasizes inclusive practices. The BSLA program in New Zealand improves oral language and reading outcomes for different learners (Gillon et al., 2022), but in Samoa, culturally embedded phonics are used to boost early literacy among indigenous children (Aukuso, 2021).

Literacy programs in Sub-Saharan Africa are frequently basic and community-based. Kenya's Tusome initiative employs organized education in local languages (Piper et al., 2018), South Africa's Kha Ri Gude empowers adults through functional literacy, and Canada's ABRA software demonstrates how digital tools enhance comprehension (Abrami et al., 2016).

Literacy policy is more than a pedagogical endeavor in these situations; it is a dynamic reaction to economic, cultural, and equity-driven demands.

Pedagogical Strategies and Program Implementation

Literacy pedagogical practices differ over the world, and they are frequently influenced by local conditions and resources. Literacy in the Philippines transitioned from teacher-led, group teaching to modular, self-paced learning during the pandemic, although there was a lack of digital infrastructure (Abejuela et al., 2023). India's level-based grouping system prioritizes ability over age, and volunteer-run learning camps have been beneficial in closing skill gaps (Banerji & Chavan, 2016). Southeast Asian countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, and Indonesia use institution-driven methods that prioritize national identity and cultural alignment. Japan emphasizes small-group, targeted support for literacy and social-emotional development, particularly among marginalized youth (Iwatsuki, 2019).

Globally, theoretical models influence implementation. Garbe et al. (2016) present a cognitive-process model that incorporates task, text, and learner characteristics to inform literacy treatments for adolescents and adults. Netten et al. (2016) highlight sociolinguistic issues and advocate for instruction that takes into account students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Similarly, Ferrufino (2023) advocates for policies that link digital literacy development to economic mobility, emphasizing the importance of curriculum reform in modern literacy.

Community-based and reflective pedagogies enhance literacy initiatives. Nelson et al. (2020) emphasize the importance of field-based teacher training and reflective practice, whereas Kalman and Reyes (2016) view literacy as a social construct anchored on oral tradition and local knowledge. However, Elfert and Walker (2020) warn against limiting adult reading programs to employability alone, citing Canada's shift away from holistic training as a constraint.

Successful literacy efforts highlight the value of structured execution. Chile's Reading First program resulted in considerable learning gains via directed instruction and ongoing assessment (Paz, 2017). Brazil's UBB project enhanced children's cognitive and language abilities by including families in interactive reading (Mendelsohn et al., 2020). Ecuador's FCSHlee effort combined academic literacy with topic learning to improve disciplinary thinking (Méndez Prado et al., 2019).

Innovative, culturally responsive tactics also help to improve instruction. The Better Start Literacy Approach (BSLA) in New Zealand used explicit teaching and repetition to improve phoneme and vocabulary knowledge (Gillon et al., 2022). In Samoa, Aukuso (2021) used the Sailiemanu framework to combine traditional customs with Western phonics, promoting biliteracy and engagement.

Finally, national interventions demonstrate how institutional support promotes literacy growth. Kenya's Tusome program established progress through learning benchmarks and teacher feedback (Piper et al., 2018). Canada's ABRA software offered blended literacy instruction via interactive digital content and teacher training (Abrami et al., 2016). The Kha Ri Gude initiative in South Africa empowered rural adults by providing transformative learning through community-based instruction (Addae, 2021).

These global examples demonstrate that effective literacy implementation necessitates adaptation, cultural grounding, and systematic support.

Role of Institutions and Policy Structures

Institutional support is vital for global literacy projects. Despite a planned curriculum in the Philippines, effectiveness is limited by poor policy alignment and uneven assessments (Abejuela et al., 2023). Southeast Asian countries, such as Singapore and Malaysia, deliberately shape literacy to reflect their national ideals (Rusydiyah et al., 2023). India and Japan highlight the importance of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and private institutions in bridging policy gaps and reaching marginalized people (Banerji & Chavan, 2016; Iwatsuki, 2019).

In Western contexts, institutional engagement promotes systemic improvements. Germany's NEPS and PLDs assist normalized literacy outcomes (Garbe et al., 2016), but the Netherlands associates systemic issues with performance equality (Netten et al., 2016). The breakdown of Canada's adult literacy infrastructure demonstrates the effects of insecure institutional support (Elfert & Walker, 2020), while Mexico advocates for culturally responsive policy frameworks (Kalman & Reyes, 2016).

Latin American countries demonstrate how ministries and universities may drive effective literacy programs. Chile's national investment, Brazil's research-policy integration, and Ecuador's university-led approach all show institutional scalability and adaptability (Paz, 2017; Mendelsohn et al., 2020; Méndez Prado et al., 2019).

Oceania-based research focuses on leadership and reform. New Zealand's BSLA initiative was successful thanks to administrative support (Gillon et al., 2022), whereas Samoa's antiquated procedures highlight the need for evidence-based reforms (Aukuso, 2021).

Finally, in Africa, Kenya's Tusome, South Africa's Kha Ri Gude, and Canada's ABRA all demonstrate how the government, donors, and communities must work together to sustain literacy gains. Together, these studies demonstrate that literacy outcomes are inextricably linked to how successfully institutions invest, adapt, and match with contextual demands.

Equity and Inclusion Considerations

Across the studies analyzed, equity and inclusion emerge as major themes in reducing literacy gaps. In the Philippines, issues like the presence of non-readers and the transition to modular learning during COVID-19 exacerbated inequality (Abejuela et al., 2023). Similarly, Southeast Asia faces linguistic and social challenges, particularly in Indonesia and Malaysia (Rusydiyah et al., 2023). India's Read India campaign efficiently targets underprivileged areas by concentrating on learners' real levels rather than grade expectations (Banerji & Chavan, 2016). Japan takes a holistic strategy, assisting socially excluded kids to reclaim agency and belonging via literacy (Iwatsuki, 2019).

Other global situations highlight similar issues and answers. Studies from Chile, Brazil, and Ecuador suggest that addressing marginalized groups with governmental programs, parental assistance, and curricular adjustments might promote equity

(Paz, 2017; Mendelsohn et al., 2020; Méndez Prado et al., 2019). Similarly, projects in Canada and Samoa emphasize inclusive, culturally relevant approaches, suggesting that literacy serves as both educational access and identity recognition (Elfert and Walker, 2020; Aukuso, 2021). Overall, the findings show that equitable literacy programs must be culturally based, learner-centered, and structurally inclusive in order to close persistent inequalities.

Reading Proficiency

Reading proficiency is an essential foundation for academic achievement and lifetime learning in all worldwide contexts. As countries face a variety of educational issues, a number of programming innovations and legislative efforts have developed to close literacy gaps. These activities demonstrate a shared understanding of reading as a critical ability that links with language development, cultural identity, and socioeconomic opportunity. Across continents, techniques range in form but share a common goal: to provide learners with the abilities needed to access information, express ideas, and participate effectively in society.

International Benchmarks and Trends in Reading Proficiency

In Asia, international benchmarks such as PISA have played an important role in identifying national differences in reading competency. For example, while Japan usually performs well in reading literacy in its native language, there are still issues in English reading competency due to limited exposure to English reading resources in the school. This situation, according to Aka (2019), reflects broader global tendencies in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts in which insufficient input impedes reading progress. In the Philippines, national assessments such as the Philippine Informal Reading Inventory (Phil-IRI) have been utilized to align reading assessments with global norms. According to Cadiz-Gabejan and Quirino (2021), reading proficiency has a high correlation with academic achievement, reinforcing the universal belief that strong reading skills are essential for overall educational success. Meanwhile, Vietnam's increased interest in enhancing higher education results has stimulated research into the motivational and pedagogical factors influencing reading proficiency. Nguyen et al. (2021) emphasize the importance of student motivation and learner-centered approaches in promoting competency, mirroring the global emphasis on holistic, tailored learning strategies.

Transitioning to Europe, the region continues to rely on international exams like PISA and PIRLS to measure and alleviate literacy gaps. Despite economic stability, countries such as Germany have observed ongoing literacy issues, notably among teenagers and adults. Durda et al. (2020) contend that standard large-scale examinations frequently fail to capture the nuanced literacy issues of struggling readers. In response, Germany created Proficiency Level Descriptors (PLDs) through the National Educational Panel Study (NEPS) to provide a more precise knowledge of literacy levels. Furthermore, broader evaluations by Schnepf and Granato (2023) show that literacy levels in Europe and Central Asia fluctuate due to policy changes, economic upheavals, and

sociohistorical events. The COVID-19 epidemic increased these discrepancies, resulting in a demonstrable drop in reading competence across various European countries, emphasizing the global need to create responsive and equitable literacy policies.

Across North America and Latin America, international benchmarking efforts such as PIAAC and PISA have uncovered both strengths and systemic deficiencies in reading proficiency. In Canada, for example, Grotlüschen et al. (2020) argue that the PIAAC assessment's broad "below Level 1" category hinders its ability to capture the complexities of low literacy, undermining policy responses. In contrast, Mexico's PISA 2018 results revealed that more than 60% of children did not reach minimal reading proficiency levels, with predictors of poor performance including socioeconomic status, metacognitive skills, and student-teacher interactions (Vazquez-Lopez & Huerta-Manzanilla, 2021). These findings are repeated in Latin American nations such as Brazil, where English reading competence has remained poor from 2011 to 2019, suggesting ongoing educational disparities (de Oliveira & Bueno, n.d.). Similarly, in the Andes, multilingualism and limited access to quality education continue to impede literacy outcomes, particularly among indigenous groups (Ballard, 2021). These patterns demonstrate the interaction of social, language, and economic constraints that continue to influence reading achievement throughout the Americas.

Historically, Australia and New Zealand have excelled in reading literacy according to international tests. However, both countries' reading ratings have steadily declined over the last two decades. According to Chamberlain and Medina (2020), differences depending on socioeconomic level, gender, and indigenous background are highly associated with this reduction, stressing the importance of tailored interventions. Samoa, which does not take part in PISA, lacks extensive benchmarking data, while national studies show early reading disparities and educational inequality (Aukuso, 2021). Despite differing assessment methods, all three countries have similar issues in achieving equitable reading competency for all pupils. This convergence reinforces the global concern for sustaining reading standards while resolving long-standing inequities.

Finally, across Africa, reading competency remains a significant difficulty, as evidenced by evaluations such as PIRLS and regional surveys. In Ghana, Nyarko et al. (2018) discovered that pupils with higher reading skills performed better academically, validating the universal concept of reading as a foundational talent. Similarly, Wawire et al. (2023) highlighted the significance of text reading fluency in Kenya, highlighting its moderating function in reading comprehension in multilingual learning settings. Thage et al. (2021) reported on the effectiveness of the Guided Reading (GR) technique in improving fluency and comprehension among English Second Language learners in South Africa, highlighting the complexities of the situation. These African case studies demonstrate the importance of contextualizing literacy initiatives, especially when dealing with linguistic diversity, resource constraints, and systematic inequity. The harmonization with international criteria emphasizes the need

for more inclusive and nuanced assessment tools to help steer fair literacy development.

Socio-Cultural and Economic Factors Affecting Reading Development

Sociocultural and economic circumstances influence reading development throughout Asia. In the Philippines, variations in parental education, occupation, and student attendance have been proven to have a substantial impact on reading proficiency, highlighting the importance of socioeconomic position and home literacy environments (Cadiz-Gabejan & Quirino, 2021). Similarly, in Vietnam, demographic characteristics such as ethnicity and gender influence outcomes, with minority and female students frequently suffering disadvantages due to ingrained cultural expectations and social stratification (Nguyen et al., 2021). Japan, on the other hand, is an example of a more economically secure society in which cultural influences, such as the emphasis on grammatical translation in English study, create hurdles to authentic reading experiences (Aka, 2019). Meanwhile, Indonesia exemplifies the limitations of rural education, where low resources and infrastructure, along with teacher-centered instruction, constrain and influence reading proficiency (Ndraha et al., 2024). Collectively, these examples show how different combinations of economic resources, cultural expectations, and instructional techniques influence literacy development in Asian cultures.

In Europe, socioeconomic and cultural factors have an equal impact on reading development, although they often emerge in distinct ways. Historically, during times of economic hardship, such as the 1970s recession, migrant and working-class populations in countries such as the United Kingdom had limited access to language education, prompting literacy-focused interventions such as the Industrial Language Training Service (Schnepf & Granato, 2023). More recently, the COVID-19 pandemic exacerbated pre-existing educational disparities, with school closings exacerbating literacy gaps among vulnerable pupils (Durda et al., 2020). These developments highlight the significance of systemic support in ensuring educational continuity during crises. Clearly, even in highly developed European environments, socioeconomic disturbances can have a significant impact on students' reading achievements, especially among underprivileged populations.

In Latin America, socioeconomic inequality remains a key determinant in literacy gaps. In Mexico, socioeconomic status is the strongest predictor of reading achievement, as low-income pupils frequently lack access to necessary materials and secure learning environments (Vazquez-Lopez & Huerta-Manzanilla, 2021). In Puerto Rico, the quality of teacher-student interactions and the availability (or absence) of certified bilingual educators have a substantial impact on reading comprehension, demonstrating that instructional discrepancies reflect deeper institutional inequities (Zumaeta, 2022). Furthermore, a global study by Kim et al. (2020) supports these findings, emphasizing that in low- and middle-income countries, including many in Latin America, economic restrictions frequently limit the effectiveness of reading interventions by degrading school quality and resource availability. These trends demonstrate that educational outcomes are frequently dictated less by student ability and more by established social and economic factors.

In South America and the Andean regions, geographical, ethnic, and gender-based disparities have a significant impact on literacy growth. Poverty and linguistic isolation lead to intergenerational cycles of illiteracy in indigenous and rural communities, particularly in the Andes. Women are disproportionately affected (Ballard, 2021). In Brazil, uneven public funding and regional imbalances result in restricted English literacy possibilities, particularly in schools with insufficient resources and experienced teachers (de Oliveira & Bueno, n.d.). These examples demonstrate how socio-cultural elements, such as linguistic marginalization and gender inequality, interact with economic conditions to shape students' reading experiences and long-term educational trajectories.

Cultural variety and migratory trends in Oceania create unique literacy development issues. In Australia, the expanding population of people with little English proficiency, many of whom are immigrants, has highlighted the importance of inclusive literacy initiatives, as language hurdles hamper access to work and civic involvement (McDonald et al., 2019). Indigenous and Pasifika groups in New Zealand and Samoa frequently face underfunded schools and curricula that are out of sync with cultural values (Chamberlain & Medina, 2020; Aukuso, 2021). Although Samoan families place a high importance on education, inadequate early literacy support and developing literacy practices lead to inequalities in student performance. As a result, in this region, socio-cultural alignment and resource equity are critical for boosting literacy development across varied learner populations.

Finally, in Africa, socioeconomic position, school type, and linguistic diversity have a substantial impact on reading proficiency. In Ghana, pupils' financial circumstances and school surroundings have a greater impact on academic performance than gender (Nyarko et al., 2018). Reading fluency in multilingual Kenya is complicated by the interaction of Kiswahili, English, and local dialects, particularly for youngsters who do not have appropriate access to multilingual literature (Wawire et al., 2023). Similarly, in South Africa, struggling readers from underprivileged households benefit from inclusive, participatory models like guided reading, which compensate for a lack of literacy exposure at home (Thage et al., 2021). These findings generally imply that sustainable reading development in Africa necessitates not only pedagogical innovations, but also systemic interventions that address greater socioeconomic and cultural disparities.

Programmatic Innovations and Policy Initiatives for Reading Improvement

Across Asia, programmatic innovations and policy measures have demonstrated both diversity and creativity in addressing literacy issues. For example, Japan's quasi-extensive reading model enhances reading fluency by introducing low-pressure, authentic reading into classroom routines—a strategy that is particularly appropriate for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) environments with limited exposure to English resources

(Aka, 2019). In the Philippines, the Philippine Informal Reading Inventory (Phil-IRI) is used to assess student reading levels and guide teachers in implementing targeted interventions; however, gender-sensitive improvements and structured reading frameworks are still required to close performance gaps. Similarly, Indonesia focuses on cost-effective alternatives like vocabulary education, phonics, and digital technologies, particularly in rural schools, with policy recommendations including teacher training and inclusive curriculum creation (Ndraha et al., 2024). Vietnam, on the other hand, emphasizes the need of promoting student autonomy through metacognitive training and increased English exposure, while also urging institutionalized methods to decrease demographic inequities (Nguyen et al., 2021). Collectively, these examples demonstrate how Asian countries combine localized innovation with global literacy frameworks to address their unique educational demands.

Literacy policy initiatives in Europe are often strongly linked to national evaluation systems and broader sociopolitical changes. Germany's National Educational Panel Study (NEPS) is an excellent example of leveraging longitudinal data to advise policy and adjust literacy benchmarks to better suit varied learners (Durda et al., 2020). Meanwhile, the history of literacy programming in the United Kingdom—from the 1970s MSC and TOPS efforts to post-COVID rehabilitation strategies—reflects Europe's long-standing commitment to integrating literacy with employment preparedness and social inclusion (Schnepf & Granato, 2023). Despite these efforts, recent studies have revealed significant gaps in long-term literacy results, indicating that more flexible and inclusive policy frameworks are required to handle changing demographic and technological constraints. Thus, Europe's experience demonstrates the need for long-term planning and evidence-based policy, while also highlighting the necessity for ongoing change and innovation.

North America combines international leadership in literacy evaluation with internal attempts to eliminate chronic gaps. Canada has made significant contributions to global frameworks such as the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) and the Global Alliance to Monitor Learning (GAML), but there are still issues in reaching low-literacy communities (Grotlüschen et al., 2020). Meta-analyses in the United States have emphasized the need of incorporating teacher support, diagnostic tools, and emergent literacy practices into scalable programs, particularly in early childhood settings (Kim et al., 2020). Puerto Rico's emphasis on bilingual education reflects a culturally responsive approach, but a lack of targeted professional development limits its effectiveness; policy changes are required to institutionalize strategies such as the Balanced Literacy Approach and cooperative learning (Zumaeta, 2022). Meanwhile, Mexico's use of PISA data to develop prediction models for early detection of struggling readers shows data-driven policymaking, allowing for targeted interventions for at-risk kids (Vazquez-Lopez & Huerta-Manzanilla, 2021). These examples demonstrate North America's focus on both worldwide benchmarking and domestic inclusion.

South American countries have prioritized community-based and bilingual approaches in their reading programs. The "Minga por la Esperanza" initiative in the Andes promotes reading skills among marginalized groups through collaborative, community-driven adult literacy initiatives, which are often supported by the government (Ballard, 2021). In Brazil, reform initiatives have concentrated on English and bilingual literacy to improve international competitiveness and workforce participation, but unequal access and inconsistent teacher training remain important obstacles (de Oliveira & Bueno, n.d.). These examples demonstrate how policy and programmatic reforms are increasingly focused on socioeconomic mobility and global relevance. However, the success of these projects is strongly reliant on equitable finance, teacher training, and long-term policy support for multilingual and underprivileged groups.

Oceania's literacy policy reflects the junction of migration, indigeneity, and worldwide evaluation norms. Australia's contentious proposal to tie citizenship to IELTS performance drew criticism for its potential exclusionary impact, prompting experts to propose more egalitarian options such as attaching English training to permanent residency pathways (McDonald et al., 2019). In Samoa, the SEPA tool provides a localized solution for classroom assessment and national planning, emphasizing the relevance of culturally relevant innovations (Aukuso, 2021). Meanwhile, New Zealand and Australia continue to use PISA data to guide literacy policies that emphasize early intervention, good school settings, and increased teacher support (Chamberlain & Medina, 2020). These regional projects show that literacy progress must be both data-driven and culturally relevant in order to effectively serve various learner populations.

Finally, across Africa, context-sensitive and multilingual policy approaches are gaining traction. In Ghana, researchers suggest incorporating reading assessments and family interaction into the school system to improve holistic literacy development (Nyarko et al., 2018). Kenya's growing literacy strategy acknowledges the value of multilingual education and has begun to incorporate methods to enhance fluency in English, Kiswahili, and local languages (Wawire et al., 2023). Structured interventions such as Guided Reading have shown potential in South Africa's secondary schools, particularly among underprivileged students; nevertheless, greater policy enforcement and teacher training are still required for long-term success (Thage et al., 2021). These examples highlight Africa's shift from generic programs to customized, evidence-based literacy initiatives that take into account linguistic and socioeconomic diversity.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
This study shows that literacy is not only a basic academic skill but also a critical ability tied to language development, cultural identity, and socioeconomic opportunity. The data mining analysis revealed that while literacy programs exist across different contexts, many still operate in silos—focusing narrowly on reading mechanics without fully addressing cultural inclusivity, equity, or systemic barriers. Pedagogical strategies such as community-based learning and digital interventions show promise, but their effectiveness often depends on institutional support and learners' socioeconomic

conditions. Importantly, literacy gaps remain most visible among marginalized groups, where poverty, language barriers, and limited access to resources hinder progress. These findings highlight the need for literacy initiatives that go beyond functional skills to embrace holistic, culturally grounded, and socially responsive approaches.

Recommendations
1. Adopt integrated literacy programs that connect reading with learners' cultural and linguistic backgrounds, ensuring that instruction respects and reflects diverse identities.
2. Strengthen institutional and policy support by aligning government, schools, and NGOs around inclusive literacy goals, with funding for long-term sustainability.
3. Leverage technology and community-based practices to expand access, particularly in underserved areas, while ensuring digital tools are paired with cultural relevance.
4. Address socioeconomic barriers directly by linking literacy programs with broader social support systems, such as scholarships, parental engagement, and community development initiatives.

Encourage further interdisciplinary research that continues to analyze literacy not just as a skill, but as a social practice shaped by culture, language, and equity concerns.

REFERENCES
1. Abrami, P. C., Wade, C. A., Lysenko, L., Marsh, J., & Gioko, A. (2016). Using educational technology to develop early literacy skills in Sub-Saharan Africa. Education and Information Technologies, 21, 945–964. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-014-9362-4
2. Addae, D. (2021). Adults who learn: Evaluating the social impact of an adult literacy project in rural South Africa. Social Sciences & Humanities Open, 3(1), 100115. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssaho.2020.100115
3. Abejuela, H. J. M., Akut, K. B., Balane, C. T., & Del Rosario, A. S. C. (2023). Assessment of the reading curriculum in basic education in the Philippines context. International Journal of Language Education, 7(1), 26–45. https://doi.org/10.26858/ijole.v7i1.40217
4. Aka, N. (2019). Reading performance of Japanese learners of English in extensive reading and quasi-extensive reading. Reading in a Foreign Language, 31(1), 1–19.
5. Arnold, K. (2017). Literacy teaching & learning in a Nicaraguan primary school. Undergraduate Review, 13(1), 31–41.
6. Aukuso, S. (2021). Nofoilo i leo Samoa–Samoan phonological awareness: A study of Samoan early literacy development and implications for effective teaching strategies. [Doctoral dissertation, University of Auckland].
7. Ballard, R. (2021). Literacy in the Andean region: Social and educational challenges for indigenous communities. Latin American Journal of Education, 55(2), 67–84.
8. Banerji, R., & Chavan, M. (2016). Improving literacy and math instruction at scale in India's primary schools: The case of Pratham's Read India program. Journal of Educational Change, 17(4), 453–475. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-016-9285-5
9. Beecher, C. (2021). What is literacy? Multiple perspectives on literacy. In Methods of Teaching Early Literacy (Chapter 1). Iowa State University Press.
10. Blanchard, M. (2023, January 5). The relationship between socioeconomic status and literacy: How literacy is influenced by and influences SES. Michigan Journal of Economics.
11. Cadiz-Gabejan, M. P., & Quirino, C. R. (2021). Gender, socioeconomic status, and parental influence on reading proficiency among Filipino learners. Journal of Educational Research and Practice, 11(2), 45–59.
12. Chamberlain, K., & Medina, J. (2020). Literacy development in New Zealand: Policy and practice for indigenous learners. Australasian Journal of Literacy Studies, 12(3), 211–229.
13. Chand, S. S., & Chand, S. P. (2025). Parental engagement and student acquisition of literacy skills in primary classrooms in Fiji. Educational Review, 77(2), 578–594. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2023.2210782
14. de Oliveira, L., & Bueno, A. (n.d.). Educational inequality and English literacy acquisition in Brazil. Journal of Language and Education Policy, 14(1), 33–49.
15. Durda, K., Grotlüschen, A., & Shiel, G. (2020). Reading literacy in national and international assessments. European Educational Research Journal, 19(6), 505–525.
16. Elfert, M., & Walker, J. (2020). The rise and fall of adult literacy: Policy lessons from Canada. European Journal for Research on the Education and Learning of Adults, 11(1), 109–125. https://doi.org/10.3384/rela.2000-7426.ojs1475
17. Ferrufino, C. (2023). The relationship between programming literacy and economic growth in Europe: Exploration of new variables and their impact (Master's thesis). Universidade NOVA de Lisboa.
18. Garbe, C., Grotlüschen, A., Lafontaine, D., Shiel, G., Tröster, M., & Valtin, R. (2016). Literacy in Germany: Country report. Children, Adolescents and Adults.
19. Gillon, G., McNeill, B., Gath, M., & Scott, A. (2022). Impacting change in classroom literacy instruction: A further investigation of the Better Start Literacy Approach. Journal of Literacy Research, 54(3), 299–322.
20. Grotlüschen, A., Ananiadou, K., & Sabatini, J. (2020). Literacy assessments and policy interventions: Insights from PIAAC and GAML. International Review of Education, 66(4), 451–473.
21. Hammer, C. S., Hoff, E., Uchikoshi, Y., Gillanders, C., Castro, D. C., & Sandilos, L. E. (2014). The language and literacy development of young dual language learners: A critical review. Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 29(4), 715–733. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecresq.2014.05.008
22. Iwatsuki, T. (2019). What is 'educational support' for youth in social difficulties?: A qualitative study of support groups for literacy learning in Japan. International Journal of Lifelong Education, 38(4), 465–477. https://doi.org/10.1080/02601370.2019.1604010
23. Kalman, J., & Reyes, I. (2016). On literacy, reading, and learning to read in Mexico. Prospects, 46(3–4), 407–421. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11125-017-9400-4
24. Kim, J. S., Hemphill, L., & Troyer, M. (2020). Scaling evidence-based literacy interventions: Lessons from randomized trials. Review of Educational Research, 90(3), 363–394. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654320922234
25. McDonald, P., Templeton, R., & Hall, C. (2019). English language proficiency and literacy policy in Australia: A critical perspective. Journal of Language Policy, 18(2), 149–168.
26. Mendelsohn, A. L., da Rosa Piccolo, L., Oliveira, J. B. A., Mazzuchelli, D. S., Lopez, A. S., Cates, C. B., & Weisleder, A. (2020). RCT of a reading aloud intervention in Brazil: Do impacts differ depending on parent literacy? Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 53, 601–611.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecresq.2020.05.008

27. Méndez Prado, S. M., Alvarado Sánchez, M. I., & Rosado Anastacio, J. A. (2019). Academic literacy program implementation in an Ecuadorian university: A multinomial logit approach. International Journal of Adolescence and Youth, 24(3), 351–361.
 https://doi.org/10.1080/02673843.2018.1528165

28. National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition. (2000). Bilingualism and literacy: Problem or opportunity? A synthesis of research. U.S. Department of Education.

29. Nelson, J., Papola-Ellis, A., & Giatsou, E. (2020). Developing literacy-minded educators: Authentic field-based teacher preparation. Literacy Research and Instruction, 59(1), 17–38. https://doi.org/10.1080/19388071.2019.1647876

30. Netten, A., Luyten, H., Droop, M., & Verhoeven, L. (2016). Role of linguistic and sociocultural diversity in reading literacy achievement: A multilevel approach. Journal of Research in Reading, 39(2), 189–208. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9817.12043

31. Nguyen, T. H., Pham, Q. A., & Tran, T. M. (2021). Demographic and familial factors affecting reading proficiency in Vietnam. Asian Journal of Language, Literature and Culture, 8(2), 55–71.

32. Nyarko, K., Acquah, S., & Addae, A. (2018). Socioeconomic determinants of reading proficiency in Ghana. African Journal of Education and Practice, 3(4), 67–81.

33. Pace, A., Luo, R., Levine, D., Iglesias, A., de Villiers, J., Golinkoff, R. M., Wilson, M. S., & Hirsh-Pasek, K. (2017). Identifying pathways between socioeconomic status and language development. Annual Review of Linguistics, 3(1), 285–308. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-linguistics-011516-034226

34. Paz, D. (2017). Reading first literacy program: Evidence from a quasi-experimental evaluation in Chile. Journal of Literacy Studies, 11(1), 112–130.

35. Piper, B., Destefano, J., Kinyanjui, E. M., & Ong'Ele, S. (2018). Scaling up successfully: Lessons from Kenya's Tusome national literacy program. Journal of Educational Change, 19(3), 293–321. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-018-9325-4

36. Romeo, R. R., Uchida, L., & Christodoulou, J. A. (2023). Socioeconomic status and reading outcomes: Neurobiological and behavioral correlates. Developmental Cognitive Neuroscience, 58, 101223.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dcn.2023.101223

37. Rusydiyah, E. F., AR, Z. T., & Rahman, M. R. (2023). Literacy policy in Southeast Asia: A comparative study between Singapore, Malaysia, and Indonesia. Center for Educational Policy Studies Journal, 13(2), 79–96.
https://doi.org/10.26529/cepsj.1446

38. Thage, T., Mampuru, D. M., & Malindi, M. (2021). Guided Reading as an intervention model in South African schools. South African Journal of Education, 41(3), 233–248.

39. UNESCO. (2025). Literacy: What you need to know. UNESCO Publishing.

40. Vazquez-Lopez, M. E., & Huerta-Manzanilla, J. M. (2021). Socioeconomic predictors of reading performance in Mexico: A PISA-based analysis. Revista Mexicana de Investigación Educativa, 26(90), 645–670.

41. Wawire, V., Oduor, C., & Ong'ondo, C. (2023). Multilingual reading fluency and literacy policy in Kenya. Journal of African Education, 4(1), 22–40.

42. Zumaeta, R. (2022). Bilingual education and reading comprehension in Puerto Rican classrooms. Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 21(4), 325–341.