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# Supplementary Reading Materials For EFL Secondary School Students in Cote d'ivoire

Dagbassoue Cecile

*University of Massachusetts Amherst*

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**SUPPLEMENTARY READING MATERIALS  
FOR EFL SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS  
IN COTE d'IVOIRE**

*Master's Project Completed by :*  
**DAGBASSOUE CECILE**

*SUBMITTED TO THE*  
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*ADVISOR :*  
**PROFESSOR DAVID KINSEY**  
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Cecile Dagbassoue

## Introduction

The focus of my Project is Supplementary Reading Materials for EFL Secondary School Students in Côte d'Ivoire. Supplementary reading materials and process writing play an important role in developing students' reading and writing skills in both native and foreign languages. But EFL secondary school students in Côte d'Ivoire do not have access to reading materials <sup>other than</sup> ~~except~~ their textbooks. Therefore, for students to develop their reading and writing abilities in EFL, there is a need for improved supplementary reading materials and a shift from reading and writing as products to reading and writing as processes. This Project will make some suggestions and recommendations for the shift and the increase of the reading materials.

The paper as a whole will be about issues around Reading and Writing as processes versus Reading and Writing as products. The rationale for choosing this topic is that, despite the efforts that most teachers make, Reading and Writing are still viewed and taught as products.

As a practitioner, I <sup>bel</sup> think that teachers need to enlarge their knowledge about teaching these two language processes. By doing so, they will help their students in the learning process. It is <sup>on</sup> part of the teachers' duties and <sup>of</sup> ~~(even)~~ the <sup>entire</sup> ~~whole~~ educational system to find <sup>the</sup> ways and means to give students a chance to develop these language processes. It is also a way for me to <sup>to</sup> bring in my modest contribution in the secondary school students' learning processes.

The Project will be composed of four main sections. In the first

section, I will look at theories about Reading and Writing processes.

It would be unrealistic on my part to claim to cover the whole field.

<sup>Therefore</sup> So, I will limit myself to those <sup>processes</sup> which will give a critical look at what happens in EFL Reading and Writing classes. These theories will include: psycholinguistics, sociopsycholinguistics, schema theory and transactional reader response theory.

The above theories will serve as a foundation for the next section which will deal with the description of the sociocultural background situation in which literacy learning takes place in Côte d'Ivoire. This will include descriptions of the students, their social, linguistic and cultural background, and the reading materials they have at their disposal. I will include a description of the instructional approaches in which Reading and Writing are taught in secondary school classes in Côte d'Ivoire.

The third section will focus on the need for secondary EFL reading classes to shift from an emphasis on Reading and Writing as products to an emphasis on Reading and Writing as processes. I will look at both approaches and point out why there is a need for shifting toward a process approach for teaching reading.

The fourth section will deal with some challenges that the shift will certainly bring about including <sup>those that are</sup> instructional and financial challenges. I will also look at some strategies to meet these instructional and financial challenges.

Before closing the introduction, I would say that many of the terms used in this thesis are not rigidly defined in the literature. And for the purposes of this paper, I will use the following working definitions: Supplementary Reading Materials are those materials used

for instructional purposes other than a textbook. Process writing (and process reading) are further defined in section three. Briefly, these terms represent a philosophy of language instruction which emphasizes the meaning aspects of communication rather than the formal syntactic aspects. EFL (English as a Foreign Language) is further defined in section two. As English is not one of the languages spoken in homes, schools or offices in Côte d'Ivoire, it is taught along with Spanish and German as a foreign language. Languages such as French which are spoken in schools and offices are considered second languages.

As a whole, this project will be an issue and position paper, since I will be describing, discussing, and examining many facts of reading instruction in secondary schools in Côte d'Ivoire.

## Section One: Theories of Reading and Writing Processes

### Introduction

Before I get to the theories, I would like to point out two important problems in my study. I am aware of the fact that I am taking a risk in applying these theories to a new domain - EFL (English as a Foreign Language). They address first language learners and I will use them in a context which is completely different. It is neither a first language environment nor a second language situation. It is, rather, a context where English is a third, fourth, or even a fifth language. This is a crucial limitation that I have to bear in mind as I write this project.

The second problem is that, as there are very few research projects on EFL, I had to resort to the literature about English as a Second Language (ESL) in order to find connections to the concerns I will address in this paper.

As I know that I cannot adopt these theories in the context that I am dealing with, I will look at them in terms of adaptation, feasibility and practicality. My role is very much like that of a "mirror door" which sees the inside and the outside. The inside is the EFL classroom and the outside is the current research and theory that I have studied during my experience at the University of Massachusetts.

As I became acquainted with the Reading and Writing processes, I realized that I taught them as products not as processes. My focus was on the students' oral skills that I tried to develop by using the Standard Oral Lesson (SOL). The Standard Oral Lesson will be defined



and described in depth in section two. <sup>It is</sup> It was the methodology that teachers were trained to use in their instruction. Even <sup>new</sup> young teachers who are trained in ENS (Ecole Normale Supérieure), at the Teacher Training College use the same methodology.

Teaching consisted of providing students with new words and grammatical structures through mechanical drills. Reading <sup>was</sup> going through a passage and answering teachers' questions. As for writing, it consisted of copying the lessons on the blackboard, answering questions and writing essays in tests. When marking students' papers, I looked for good organization of ideas, well structured pieces of writing; in short, I was interested in their final products. As I look back ten years ago, I understand some mistakes that I made unconsciously because I was not aware of the way language teaching and learning was evolving elsewhere in the English-speaking world. I acknowledge that it is not fair for teachers to test what they do not teach. I think that just as teachers need to understand what they teach, students need to understand what they learn. Meaning is important in teaching as well as in learning.

Many meaning-based instructional methods are more effective for Reading and Writing teaching. My project will try to show that there can be much more reading and writing in EFL. Therefore, Reading and Writing instruction in EFL should use meaning-based instructional methodologies.

The theories which will help me in my study are: psycholinguistics, sociopsycholinguistics, schema theory and the transactional reader response theory. There is not a clear distinction among them as they seem to overlap mainly in the instructional

implications where collaborative teaching and learning occurs. First, I will describe the theories by focussing on what they have in common which could be applied to EFL. Then I will get into their instructional implications.

Traditionally, reading was viewed as something that happened in a reader's head. It should be noted that writing was not researched before 1970; so, I would limit myself to reading. Later on I will include writing. Reading was studied in an experimental setting isolated from the everyday context where it naturally took place. For example, the reader was given a test in a laboratory of identifying isolated sight words without concern for context, purpose or meaningfulness.

The new approach to Reading and Writing as processes emphasizes the active role of a reader or a writer in constructing meaning. They emphasize the inherently social nature of Reading and Writing. Constructing meaning often refers to the use of background knowledge to interpret a text.

### Psycholinguistic Theory

From the psycholinguistic point of view with Kenneth Goodman, Frank Smith and many others, Reading involves an interaction between thought and Language. Goodman calls it "a psycholinguistic guessing game":

Efficient Reading does not result from precise perception and identification of all elements but from skill in selecting the fewest, most productive cues necessary to produce guesses which are right the first time. The ability to anticipate that which has not been seen, of course, is vital in Reading, just as the ability to anticipate what has not yet been heard is vital to listening. (1967, p. 127)

Smith, Goodman and Meredith agree that:

Reading is the active process of reconstructing meaning from language represented by graphic symbols (letters), just as listening is the active process of reconstructing meaning from the sound symbols (phonemes) of oral language. (1970, p.247)

Suzanne Salimbene who shares these ideas, defines Reading in the following terms:

Reading is a building process. When you read you build a bridge between what you already know and what the writer is trying to communicate to you.  
(1986, Preface p. IX)

These theories obviously agree that the reader brings a wealth of information to the Reading process from his/her socialcultural background. S/he is not just a "blank slate" or an empty vessel for the teacher to fill. Mary P. Melvin says that:

Reading does require that the reader see the print but the Reading Process involves much more. The reader must contribute what s/he already knows about the language in which the material is written and about words in general. When children first face the task of learning to read, they already have extensive knowledge of their language. They have learned much about the meanings of words and the ways in which words are put together to convey messages. (1979, p.277)

Melvin goes on to say that as children read, they use their knowledge of language to anticipate the flow of words. This knowledge of language and how it works is the primary contribution that a reader makes to the act of Reading. Visual scrutiny of the letters and the words is of secondary importance in the Reading process. Thus, the deeper meaning

structure is more important than the surface features of a text being read.

Mary P. Melvin points out three cue systems which are vital in the Reading process: the graphic, syntactic and semantic cues. The graphic cues are the printed letters and words; the syntactic cues come from the reader's intuitive knowledge of the language and the semantic cues are the meanings of words and concepts that the reader brings to the Reading process. The reader uses these three cue systems simultaneously but the semantic cues usually lead the <sup>one/first</sup> to the other two cueing systems.

Another insight from the psycholinguistic theory is the cyclical nature of written language processes when people listen or read, they go through a cycle of sampling, predicting, testing and confirming.

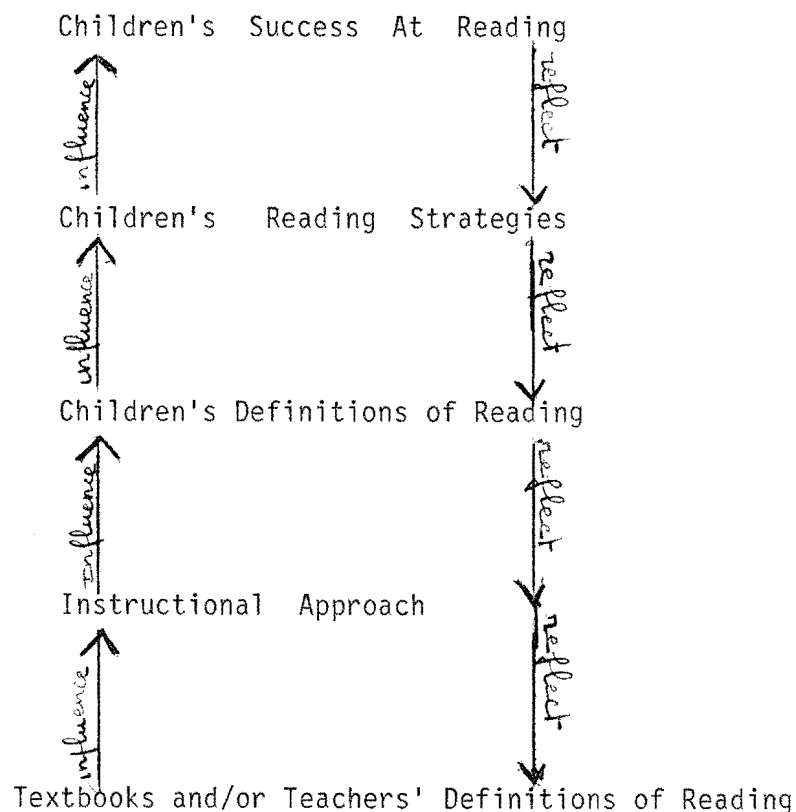
Readers <sup>read</sup> need some words, predict (subconsciously) what will come next, then read just enough to test their prediction. If the prediction is confirmed, readers proceed at a smooth pace. But, if the prediction turns out to be incorrect, readers stumble and look back to see whether something was misread or overlooked. For Constance Weaver (1980):

<sup>The</sup> Reader brings his/her own knowledge and experience to bear in getting meaning from the print. It seems to assure that learning to read means learning to glean meaning from a text and that in order to get the meaning; we must bring meaning to what we read.

She divides readers into four categories: a) the highly effective readers; b) the moderately effective readers; c) the somewhat effective readers; d) the ineffective readers. Highly effective readers have no trouble using preceeding syntactic and semantic contexts to predict what is coming next. They also use syntactic syntactic and semantic contexts which follow unknown word to confirm their tentative interpretation of

that word or to correct this interpretation if it does not fit within the reading context.

Moderately effective readers use preceding syntactic and semantic context to predict what is coming next. But they are less successful in using the contexts which follow an unknown word to correct inappropriate interpretations. Somewhat effective readers use preceding syntactic context to predict. They are not successful in using preceding semantic context to predict a word that is appropriate to the meaning. They make no or little use of contexts which follow an unknown word to confirm or correct their tentative interpretation of a word. Ineffective readers make little or no use of the preceding context. They use much less of the contexts which follow an unknown word. They tend to deal with each word as if it stood in isolation. Weaver's diagram summarizes her theory:



She points out that teachers' definitions of Reading and/or textbooks influence the instructional approach which influences children's definitions of Reading. The latter influence children's Reading strategies which influence their success at Reading.

The diagram also shows that children's success at Reading reflect their Reading strategies which reflect their definitions of Reading. The latter reflect the instructional approach which reflects textbooks and/or teachers' <sup>definitions</sup> of Reading. In short, Weaver makes the point that there is a link between textbooks and/or teachers' definitions of Reading and children's success at Reading. For example if a teacher's definition of Reading is sounding out words, children's will read by sounding out words. Theorists such as Frank Smith think that Reading is not sounding out words only, therefore the children who use this definition will not be successful at Reading.

Paulo Freire's view of Reading is similar to the psycho linguistic theory:

Reading does not consist merely of decoding the written word or language; rather, it is preceded by and intertwined with knowledge of the world.

( From a paper originally presented at the opening of the Brazilian Congress of Reading, Campinas, Brazil, November 1981, p. 29).

In line with the theorists that I mentioned above, Spiro, Bruce and Brewer(1980) state that in the Reading process, participants bring their knowledge of the world and their knowledge of language to the text as they construct a meaningful representation for the text.

As for Adams and Bruce (1982), background knowledge consists of several components including conceptual knowledge, social knowledge and story knowledge.

John G. Barnitz extends the ideas to ESL affirming that:

The less familiar readers are with the concepts or content of the text, the more they will struggle to construct a meaning. Thus, specific content area material can be especially difficult for ESL readers, if they have to struggle with the content in addition to the language.

(1985, p. 14)

With regard to the reader's background knowledge, Carol Gilles, Mary Bixby and collaborates state that:

. . . effective readers use their backgrounds, experiences and knowledge of the world and of language to construct meaning from print.

(1988, p. 22)

Readers' background includes their lives outside the classroom and this diversity of life experiences both in and out of school weave a valuable background knowledge and information. Psycholinguistics suggest that the student's language and cultural background knowledge is important in the Reading process and the psycholinguists underline it in their theory of the Reading process.

### Sociopsycholinguistic Theory

The second theory has a great deal in common with the psycholinguistic theory: it is the socio-psycholinguistic theory. The socio-psycholinguist theorists such as Tierney, Leys, Rogers, just to name a few of them, claim that there should be interaction between the world of the text and the reader's and writer's perceptions. They would

like to see the development of a theory that welds thought and processes and Reading and Writing outcomes to the transactions that occur as readers and writers collaborate with peers, their teachers and themselves as well as with published authors and readers.

The psycholinguistic theory sees Reading as an active process which involves an interaction between the mind of the reader and the language of the text. The reader predicts, samples and confirms or corrects his/her hypotheses about the written text. The focus is on meaning since without meaning there is no Reading and readers cannot get the meaning without using the process. These theorists agree with Frank Smith to say that:

Anything that children cannot relate to what they already know will be nonsense to them, whether or not it is nonsense to the teacher. Expecting a child to read nonsense is the easiest method of making learning to read impossible. (1985, Preface to first edition p.XII)

According to the socio-psycholinguistic theory, Reading is a transactive process between the reader and the text involving the reader's active use of his/her knowledge both of language and of the world in order to construct meaning. The basic Reading strategies used by the reader are: sampling, predicting and inferring. When sampling, the reader chooses and makes use of only those cues in the text which are most useful for the construction of meaning.

As the reader reads a text s/he anticipates what is coming in the text and what the meaning will be; this is predicting. Concerning inferring, the reader infers not only what is not explicit but also what will become explicit later.



### Instructional Implications -- Psycholinguistics and Sociolinguistics

Though both the psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic theories share a lot of concepts with the schema and the reader's response theories, it would be interesting to have a look at the instructional implications of the psycholinguistic and the sociopsycholinguistic theories. I will use the same procedure with the other two. For Melvin, perfection at first attempt, is not important; she adds that:

Students should be allowed to stumble, to hesitate, and to make errors while learning to read. Most children - and adults who are learning to do something new are awkward at first. Learning to ride a bicycle requires a few spills; learning to manipulate numbers requires repeated attempts; learning to play the piano requires repetition, practice and time. Learning to read requires at the very least, the opportunity to stumble and to find ways to make sense of the suffixes - ed and - ing correcting.  
(Volume 79, No. 5, 1979, p.281-2)

Kenneth and Yetta Goodman made it clear that:

Teaching children to read is not putting them into a garden of print and leaving them unmolested.  
(1979, p.139)

Still with Kenneth and Yetta Goodman, acquisition of literacy is an extension of natural language-learning for all children. Instruction consistent with this process will facilitate learning. Instruction that does not build on the process of natural language learning will be at cross-purposes with learners' natural language tendencies. It will neutralize or blunt the force of their language learning strengths and may become counter-productive. Kenneth and Yetta Goodman also suggest that an appropriate environment for Reading development must be rich in print of every variety. They add that Reading instruction, particularly during beginning instruction, plays a vital role in creating and

enhancing the conditions that will bring the reader's natural language learning competence into play. They make it clear that instruction does not teach children to read; that what instruction does, is to help children to learn to read.

To join the Goodmans' point of view, Frank Smith (1985) affirms that children cannot be taught to read -- It is only through reading that children learn to read and that a teacher's role must be to make Reading easy for every child. He also suggests that children should join the Literacy Club. As he says:

To understand reading children must become members of a group of language users, they must join the literacy club. (1985 p. 124)

The Literacy Club functions in the same way as any other special interest group. Members are concerned about each other's interests and welfare. In the Literacy Club children see what written language does. No one expects them to read or write like more experienced members of the Club, but no doubts that they will do so in due course. Members help newcomers to become experts. There are no formal tests, no examinations, and no one expects new members to be as good as each other or to progress at the same rate.

In a speech delivered in 1987, Mary Ellen Giacobbe said that, as teachers, we have two obligations:

a) to like what we do;

b) to know what we are doing.

One feeds the other. As we like what we do, we learn more about it and come to like it more. The more we like it, the more we learn; the more we learn, the more the more we know what we are doing; and the more we

like it. Thus, teachers need to like to read and to teach reading. They need to understand the processes of reading in order to help students accomplish them. For Carol Gilles, Mary Bixby, et al.:

The teacher is a resource person who provides opportunities and materials for students. The teacher is a facilitator, sometimes, the teacher's role is to step back and learn from students as they engage in an activity. (1988, p. 23)

In his paper mentioned earlier, Paulo Freire confirms that:

Learning to read and write cannot be reduced to merely to learning words, syllables or letters, a process helping children to learn to read is, as Smith (1973) has put it "responding to what the child is trying to do." That is possible given children's language competence, language learning competence and the social function of written language. (1981, p.140)

In addition to these viewpoints, David Bloome at the University of Massachusetts at Amherst, raises two fundamental questions about Reading and Writing. The first one is about the nature of academic Reading and Writing in our classrooms. The second questions concerns the kind of readers and writers that our students are becoming. His conclusion is that the readers and writers are the creations of what happens in our classrooms.

To sum up the instructional implications, I would say that according to these theories, instruction should strengthen the cueing systems that readers use in the reading process. Teachers should develop more efficient reading and writing strategies such as sampling, predicting and confirming or correcting. <sup>Then</sup> Teachers should build on the background knowledge and self-confidence in the learner. Teachers' role consists of motivating, arranging the environment, monitoring development, <sup>such as</sup> providing relevant and appropriate materials. As Whole Language theorists with Kenneth Goodman say:

The most important question teachers can ask a reader or a writer is "Does that make sense?" And learners need to be encouraged to ask the same question of themselves as they read and write. (1986, p. 40)

### Schema Theory

Schema theory and cooperative learning also consider Reading and Writing as processes. As Perin (1988) states it: in both language-learning and Reading, motivation is crucial. Activating the familiarity and interest prior to a Reading Comprehension task by using students' already existing background knowledge can motivate them to carry out Reading comprehension activities.

The term "schema" was first used by the cognitive psychologist, Bartlett, in 1932 to describe "an active principle in our memory which organizes elements of recall into structural wholes." (1932, p.15)

David Rumelhart has recently spoken of a schema theory in this way:

A schema theory is basically a theory about knowledge, a theory about how knowledge is represented and about how that representation facilitates the use of knowledge in particular ways. According to schema theories, all knowledge is packed into units. These units are the schemata. Embedded in these packets of knowledge, in addition to knowledge itself is information about how this knowledge is to be used. A schemata, then, is a data structure for representing our knowledge about all concepts. (1984, p. 2-3)

Smith (1985) adds that according to schema theory, information resulting from experience is stored in memory as abstract knowledge structures or schemata. When an individual becomes aware of words or phrases representing concepts relating to any component of a schema, the schema can be activated, so that the larger subject is brought to mind.

For Smith, poor readers are just likely to have gaps in knowledge which would infer with the comprehension process. Another problem that he raises is that syntactic complexity or unfamiliar vocabulary may prevent a poor reader from realizing that the written material concerns a familiar topic, thus predicting the action of schemata. If readers can be assisted in activating schemata, they should comprehend text more efficiently. This is what cooperative learning approach to schema theory tries to do.

Perin (1988) makes it clear that the strategy of involving students in their own learning process is a basic tenet of Paulo Freire's pedagogy (1973) and cooperative learning methods that seek to creating conditions that are conducive to meaningful interaction among the participants.

#### Instructional Implications - Schema Theory

Concerning the instructional implications of schema theory and cooperative learning approach, the theorists agree that the "schema activation" activity will be used to teach cognitive strategies in a tension free environment where learning takes place in cooperative groups...to enable students to build meaning from their background knowledge and derive meaning from context. Context is very important in Reading and Writing processes and instruction should take it into account when teaching these language skills.

Both David Bloome (1985) and Ellis (1986) suggest the use of a non-threatening forum such as the cooperative schema activation model, where groups of students help each other learn as an application of Reading and language-learning theories that allows learning to be a

social, interactive process. For Bassano and Christison (1988) the purpose of a cooperative classroom is to provide opportunities for learners to take more control, show more initiative and learn to work together cooperatively with the teacher giving structure to the learning process. In cooperative classrooms, learners begin to feel more successful and confident, become more self-disciplined and blossom into independent thinkers and willing explorers.

Smith (1985), Krashen (1981-1983) and Pugh (1989) affirm that by providing culturally relevant texts for the Reading comprehension activity, cognitive Reading strategies will be fostered. This is based on the theory that Reading comprehension is the result of hypothesis making by the reader from his/her background knowledge and competence in other areas. When texts are not relevant, students' background knowledge is not "activated" and comprehension does not result because they do not become involved in the Reading process.

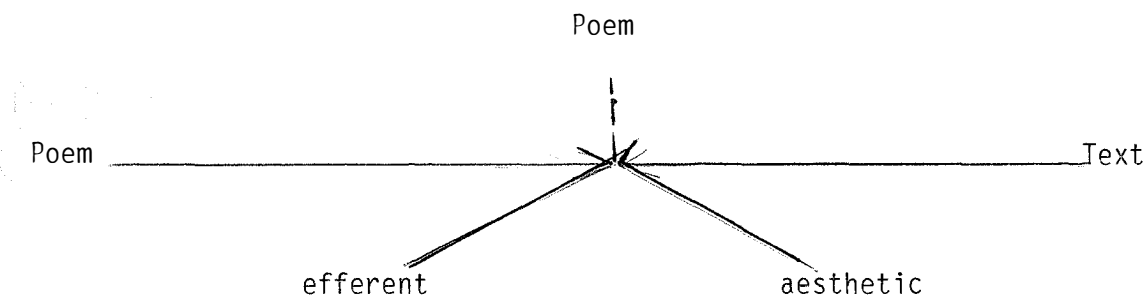
To summarize schema theory, cooperative schema activation and language learning, I would say that they focus on three main points: learner's background knowledge which includes his/her socio-cultural background; the learning context and the instructional Reading materials. Teachers should bear these dimensions in mind when dealing with Reading and Writing processes.

### Transactional Reader Response Theory

The next theory I will explore is transactional reader response. Both this theory and schema theory have a lot of points in common and my intention is not to approach these theories chronologically, but

rather in the order in which I got acquainted with them through my experience at the University of Massachusetts. In my readings, I often came across some quotes from Rosenblatt, Hardy and Britton just to name a few of them but I did not have a clear idea about their theories or approaches. As I read about these theorists, I realize that they have the similarities to the other three theories but use different terms.

For Rosenblatt, Reading is a two-way process, involving a reader and a text at a particular time under particular circumstances. She uses John Dewey's term, transaction, to emphasize the contribution of both reader and text. She agrees that the reader brings his/her past experience of language and of the world to the task in order to set up tentative notions of a subject, of some framework into which to fit the ideas as the words unfold. She adds that when a reader reads s/he narrows her/his attention to build up the meanings, the ideas, the directions to be retained; attention focusses on accumulating what is to be carried away at the end of the Reading. This is what she calls *an efferent stance* on her continuum. To better understand her theory it would be helpful to bear this continuum in mind:



On the left side of the continuum, we have the reader and on the right side the text. The reader and the text transact together and create the "poem". At the level of the "poem", the reader decides quite

unconsciously which stance to adopt. If s/he is looking for information to carry away then s/he will read efferently. If s/he wants to read for pleasure or enjoyment, then s/he will take the aesthetic stance. The focus is outward to carry away information in efferent reading and in aesthetic reading the focus is inward and the global attention is on the feelings and attitudes of the reader. Aesthetic reading centers on what is being created during the Reading process and the whole is more important than parts. In the speech that she delivered on her transactional theory, she mentioned that the reader selects from his/her language reservoir what is needed for the present moment.

She also makes a connection between Reading and Writing. For her any writing is an event which is transactional, the writer is the first reader of his/her own writing. She adds that Reading is related to oneself, that Writing is a mode of Reading.

#### Instructional Implications - Transactional Reader Response Theory.

With regard to instruction, Rosenblatt points out that traditional teacher-dominated teaching of literature puts the emphasis on approved or conventional interpretations, does not produce many readers capable of handling their initial aesthetic responses or relating them to the text. For her, transactions with texts that offer some linkage with the child's own experience and concerns can give rise aesthetically to new experiences. Understanding the transactional nature of Reading would correct the tendency of adults to look only at the text and the author's presumed intention and to ignore as irrelevant what the child actually does make of it.

She also underlines the negative emphasis on efferent stance in literature classes. She says (Theory into Practice):



Throughout the entire educational process, the child in our society seems to be receiving the same signal: adopt the efferent stance. What can be quantified - the most public of efferent modes - becomes often the guide to what is taught, tested or researched. . . . More disconcerting is the neglect of the aesthetic stance when the declared aim is "the teaching of literature", when stories and poems are presented, not as exercises for reading skills, but presumably for their value as literature, for their capacity to present images of life, to entertain, to deal with human situations and problems, to open up vistas of different personalities and different milieus.

(Volume XXI, No. 4, p.274).

She goes on affirming that if reading is presented as a meaningful, purposive activity, and if texts are presented in meaningful situations, the two kinds of stance should naturally emerge. She makes it clear that transactions with texts that offer some linkage with the child's own experiences and concerns can give rise aesthetically to new experiences.

She finds that in instruction, sometimes there is a tacit steering toward an efferent or analytic stance, toward the kinds of subjects the adult thinks interesting or important. The reader is often hurried away from the aesthetic experience and turned to efferent analysis by questions that check whether the learner has read the text. And she adds that:

Questions that call for the traditional analyses of character, setting, and plot are often premature or routine, contributing to shallow, efferent readings.

(Volume XXI, No. 4, p. 276)

In order to deal with the young reader's responses without inhibiting the aesthetic experience, she proposes two possibilities. First, a truly receptive attitude on the part of teacher and peers.

Comments by other children and the teacher also contribute to the learner's imaginative recall of the experience. The second proposition is that questions should be sufficiently open to enable the readers to select concrete details or parts of the text that had struck them most forcibly. The point is to foster expressions of response that keep the experiential, qualitative elements in mind.

Another dimension that she adds to the teaching implications is that as students grow older, sharing of responses becomes the basis for valuable interchange. Discovering that others have had different responses, have noticed what was overlooked, have made alternative interpretations, leads to self-awareness and self-criticism. Transactional theory centers on the reciprocal interplay of reader and text.

She applies her theory in the classroom as she affirms that there is always a transaction between teachers and students. There is a transaction when listening, reading, writing and speaking occur. In other words, wherever there is an activity which involves language skills, there is a transaction. Her speech raises five main points: thinking, selecting out, synthesizing, organizing for meaning and shaping. In doing so, the reader brings in his/her language, life background to what s/he reads.

She also suggests that:

. . . the experience of literature, far from being for the reader a passive process of absorption, is a form of intense personal activity. The reader counts for at least as much as the book or poem, itself; he responds to some of its aspects not others; he finds it refreshing and stimulating or barren and unrewarding.

(Preface to the third Edition of Literature as Exploration.  
July 4, 1976, p. V)

### Summary of Section One

The common point among these theories is their emphasis on the active construction of meaning on the part of the reader. They agree that a reader uses his/her background of knowledge and experience to construct meaning from text; that there is no meaning on the page until a reader decides there is.

As for the teaching implications, Rosenblatt points out that instruction usually favors efferent readings and neglects aesthetic readings. She insists that students should learn how to practice aesthetic reading.

With regard to English as a Foreign Language learning, I am convinced that these theories could be applied. When a reader meets a text written in a native, second, third or fourth language, s/he is engaged in the process of making meaning. In the case of EFL, this process is further complicated by the learner's inexperience with the sounds and syntax of English. Hence, the challenge to teachers is to enable learners to interact meaningfully with texts despite incomplete schemes, limited opportunity to play with meaning outside of class and to play with few written texts which correspond to his/her culture and world.

In the main this theoretical background will help me as a back-up in the description of EFL teaching and learning in Côte d'Ivoire. This is the second section of the Project that I entitled, Background Situation.

## Section Two: Background Situation

### Introduction

This section will deal with the background situation in which EFL (English as a Foreign Language) is taught and learned in Côte d'Ivoire. This will include the description of the students: their age and what characterizes this period, their linguistic, cultural and social backgrounds. This section will explore what the secondary school students bring to the learning process. This information is important in the sense that it can help parents, teachers and educators to better understand these students as readers and writers. The second part of this section will be a description of the reading materials that the students have at hand to develop listening, reading, speaking and writing skills in EFL. I will also include the methodology which is taught in the Teacher Training College and which is used in dealing with the materials.

### Adolescence

The age of secondary school students in Côte d'Ivoire ranges from eleven to twenty. These young people are no longer children and they are not adults yet. This adolescence period is situated between childhood and adulthood. Recent studies in the U.S.A. have pointed out that adolescence is a difficult stage in the development of any child.

For Nancie Atwell:

Surviving adolescence is no small matter; neither is surviving adolescents. It's a hard age to be and teach.  
(1987, p. 25)

She goes on saying that:

One of the best things junior high teachers can do for students is acknowledge that the thorns of adolescence are real and cause real pain. (1987, p. 26)

Secondary school students have all the characteristics of adolescents in the world. Alleen Pace Nilsen and Kenneth L. Donelson assert that:

. . . parents, teachers, librarians, social workers, and young people themselves agree that during the teenage years, tremendous changes take place -- physically, intellectually, and emotionally. Of course, such changes necessitate adjustments that often result in friction between young people and their associates. (1985, p.3)

The authors who write about adolescence acknowledge that during this period, young people have internal conflicts as they look for their own identity. Stone and Church observe that:

The central theme of adolescence is the finding of one's self. The adolescent must learn to know a whole new body and its potential for feeling and behavior, and fit it into his picture of himself. He must come to terms with the new constellation of meanings presented by the environment. He must define the place he will occupy in adult society. (1968, p. 270)

Maia Pank Mertz, from Ohio State University, asserts that:

In addition to the changes brought about by puberty, adolescence is the time when a major shift occurs in the individual's ability to think. Using Piaget's (1958) terms, this is the change from "concrete operations" to the capacities of "formal operational" thought. (Volume XIV, No. 3, p. 181)

Piaget and Inhelder state that:

The child develops concrete operations and carries them out on classes, relations, or numbers. But their structure never goes beyond the level of elementary logical "groupings" or additive and multiplicative groups. (1958, p. 355)

They add that the adolescent, in contrast, is developing the ability to control not only hypothetic-deductive reasoning and experimental proof based on the variation of a single factor with the others held constant (all other things being equal); but also a number of operational schemata which he will use repeatedly in experimental and logic-mathematical thinking. Basically, as Piaget says:

. . . the essential difference between formal thought and concrete operations is that the latter are centered on reality, whereas the former grasps the possible transformations and assimilates reality only in terms of imagined or deduced events. (1969, p. 149)

Concrete operational thought ranges from approximately ages six through ten; formal operational thought begins at about age eleven and even continues throughout adulthood. In their relationships with adults, Mertz points out that:

Adolescents are ambivalent in their relationships with adults: they strive to be independent but, because of limited experiences, they must occasionally depend on adults. Adults are also used as models to experiment with various roles and values. Through this process of experimentation with roles and values, adolescents acquire the necessary experience which will aid them in discovering the roles, attitudes, and beliefs which seem to best fulfill their conception of self.  
(Volume XIV, Number 3, p. 181)

Whereas adolescents are ambivalent in their relationships with adults, their relationships with peers acquire greater importance and become an essential part in their lives. Studies have indicated that:

Neither parental nor peer influence is monolithic. For example, peer influence is more likely to be predominant in such matters as taste in music and entertainment, fashions in clothing and language, patterns of same and opposite sex peer interaction, and the like; while parental influence is more likely to be predominant in such areas as underlying moral and social values and understanding of the adult world. (Conger, 1971, p. 1128-29)

Just as adults and peers have an influence on adolescents, school has an impact on them. School fulfills a number of purposes: it is a place where adolescents can meet friends as well as a place for learning. In other words, school is an environment where important interactions occur between the adolescent, his or her peers and adults. Mertz asserts that:

Adolescents' relationship to school, like their relationship to adults, is characterized by ambivalence. On the one hand, schools present challenges to values, beliefs and the perception of one's capabilities; on the other hand, schools are sources for new information and insights and provide a training ground for the responsibilities of the adult world.  
(Volume XIV, Number 3, p. 182)

So, schools provide a locus where both the influence of adults and of peers plays an important part in the adolescent's search for identity. And teachers, educators should know about adolescents' internal conflicts, about the changes that occur within them in order to better understand them and help them go through this period. Many authors wrote about adolescence using different terms. G. Stanley Hall called it "Sturm and drang" that is "storm and stress" in the early 1900s. Later in the 1950s, A.L. Gesell named adolescence "alternating cycles of conflict and calm". In the 1960s, E.H. Erikson called it "identity crisis".

#### Adolescents in Côte d'Ivoire

Though many theories talk about the universality of adolescence, I

think that there are specific aspects of this period which are related to the sociocultural background of the young people.

In the traditional societies in Côte d'Ivoire an adolescent is a young man who is getting ready to be part of men. In order to enter manhood, the adolescent will go through initiation when he is submitted to a series of hardships to prepare him for adulthood. When he comes back from the "sacred forest", he knows where his place is in the community and he is aware of his responsibilities as a man in the society.

Young girls get prepared to be good wives and mothers. Though they do not go to the "sacred forest" to undergo some ordeals, they learn a good deal from their mothers on other relatives.

Unfortunately, with the introduction of Western culture, some of the values of traditional societies have disappeared. Today, very few young men go through initiation because of school. Usually, initiation period coincides with school year. And even some parents are no longer keen on sending their boys to the "sacred forest". Young men do not like these practices, they prefer to go to school, complete their studies and get a job even if the rate of unemployment has increased.

In general, adolescents in Côte d'Ivoire like their friends in the technology world, question things, strive for independence but they have to be dependent on their parents. Sometimes they get easily influenced by the groups that they associate with but they behave according to the rules of their families and the society in which they live.

Many of these adolescents come from rural areas. They usually leave their villages for town where they attend secondary schools. They represent a lot of investment for their parents; their parents pay for



their education because they know that when these young people get a job they will help them with better health. For example, if the parents are sick, their children will take them to hospital and buy medicines for them. Parents also know that their children will improve their living conditions by building better houses for them or by providing them with modern tools to better their working conditions on their farms. It should be noted that adolescents in the main, are conscious of their responsibility toward their parents and even their whole families. And this is one of the important differences with their peers in the developed world. In addition, secondary school students come from a variety of linguistic environments and this is a point worth discussing in this project.

### Languages in Côte d'Ivoire

The population of Côte d'Ivoire has reached eleven million. These people are divided into four main ethnic groups. These groups are subdivided into sixty local languages and so far none of them is written and used in school. If in a class of sixty students the sixty languages are represented, and if each student speaks his/her mother tongue, the classroom will be a "babel of tongues" or a real Tower of Babel. But in Côte d'Ivoire every student speaks at least two or more of the sixty local languages. For most students, English is the third, or the fourth or even the fifth language. All these students started their primary school in French which is the lingua franca. There was a time when students brought what they called "symbols" to school. Any student who spoke his/her mother tongue was given a symbol which was either a necklace made of snail shells or bones. The student had to look for

someone who spoke his/her mother tongue; it was a way to urge students to practice French. For most students, in the rural areas, school was the only place where they could speak French. Even today this situation exists though the "symbols" have disappeared because they were a way to bully the students. So, students reach the secondary school level with the background which is described above: their mother tongues and French.

In secondary school, besides French, they learn English, German or Spanish. To sum up, secondary school students learn three foreign languages. They have a genius for language learning: they learn these languages in a particular context. They are taught by non-native speakers of these languages far from the target communities.

A point which is worth noting is that these multilingual young people do not master their mother tongues and they do not master the foreign languages. They end up creating their own language which is called "Nouchi". "Nouchi" is a mixture of local languages, French and English. For example, they would say:

"La go n'a rien dans son Kongolo"

La is a French determinant, "Le, la"

go is an English word which means "woman or girl" in their

"Nouchi"

Kongolo is a local language word which means "head"

The sentence means "The girl or young woman is crazy." The other problem that these students face is linguistic interferences in their writing. For example, they write "und" for "and", "ist" for "is" just to mention a few of them. These are English and German interferences but they occur in French and Spanish. These students have some natural

predispositions to learn foreign languages. Besides their predispositions, secondary school students are motivated to learn: a look at a seventh grade classroom will show that these young people are eager and enthusiastic to learn. If they bring a wealth of linguistic background to the learning process, they also bring a variety of cultural and social backgrounds.

Actually, there are diverse cultures from north to south, from east to west and this diversity makes tourism interesting in Côte d'Ivoire. Despite the multiplicity of these cultures, people know about each other's cultures. For example, people know that "Poro" is a traditional dance from the north; "Zauli" is from the west...So, people live together in unity and diversity. In class, students' background knowledge which is very important in the reading and writing processes.

With regard to social backgrounds, students come from different social classes. In rural areas, most of them come from farming families and usually these families are illiterate. As secondary schools are located in towns, some students' parents are civil servants who work in the towns. In big cities such as the capital city, farmers' children are very few among the students. Some students live in literate homes and before they start school, they already speak French fluently.

#### Current Instructional Literacy Materials

So, as we can see, secondary school students are not "blank slates" or "empty vessels" to fill. They come to the learning process with a good deal of experiences and knowledge. Adequate materials and instruction could make the learning process easy and enjoyable for them.

The only materials that students gave to develop their reading and writing skills are their textbooks (see Appendix 1). Appendix 1 is a sample text from a junior high textbook. Title of the text: An Elephant Hunt, Grade 8, from "English for French Speaking Africa: Working with English-Pupils' Book 3" p.30. (by David Mills, Boniface Zodeougan Tim Doust and Barry Tomalin). Junior high school students' textbooks are entitled "English for French Speaking Africa". Grade eleven students' textbooks are entitled "African Ways".

In the textbooks mentioned so far, the setting is familiar to students so are the themes of the texts. In grades twelve and thirteen, students use a textbook entitled "The World Today". Though there is a variety of themes and texts, teachers add some texts of their own.

Even if these textbooks sound culturally relevant, still they are not sufficient to develop students' reading and writing skills. The texts are just pieces of writing and to improve their language processes, students need to go beyond their textbooks; they need to be exposed to much more varied literary genres. These textbooks help in the "input" stage of the learning process; they enable students to acquire some language skills that they need to develop through extensive reading. As the theories point it out, instruction should help students their abilities through the processes of reading and writing. In addition, these materials are designed for classroom purpose; in general, they lack authenticity, the language is so refined that sometimes, some native speakers think that students and teachers "talk like books".

### Teacher Training

As for the methodology, the teacher training college developed one called "Standard Oral Lesson" (S.O.L.). Initially its focus was on oral language because for many years, teaching English had consisted of explaining grammar rules, of translating sentences from French into English or vice versa. Students at that time excelled in writing but their speaking skills were depressing. A brief description of SOL would give an idea of what happens in EFL classes. The teacher chooses a text from the textbook. S/he does <sup>not</sup> choose at random, s/he follows a syllabus which is curriculum grounded. So, the text that the teacher selects must be eight to sixteen lines long. The second step is to choose some words which are unknown to the students; the new words should not exceed seven. If they do, then the teacher has to find a strategy to cut the paragraph. After selecting the words, the teacher chooses a new grammar structure. S/he must teach the vocabulary words and the structure in a context and not translate them. Most of the time, the grammar exercise consists of drilling under the control of the teacher. Usually, there is much more reproduction than production on the part of the students. Sometimes, the drills are so mechanical that we wonder if the students understand what they say. After teaching the vocabulary words and the structure, the teacher reads the passage aloud. Then s/he gives the students five to seven minutes to re-read it silently. The students read five or seven minutes out of fifty-five minutes and if they meet three times a week, they read fifteen or twenty one minutes per week. (See Appendix 2). Appendix 2 is the plan of a typical Standard Oral Lesson plan with the different steps and the time devoted to each phase.

As for writing, they write essays when they have tests and if they have three or four tests per term, they write nine or twelve essays in a school year. The teacher is the one who gives the topics and the students write; s/he marks the papers and most of the time there are so many red lines on the papers that the students are not encouraged to read the comments and they repeat the same mistakes over and over again. In the main, teachers' feedback tells students about their mistakes but it rarely tells or shows them how to avoid them. In other words, students do not go through the different steps of reading and writing processes.

Fortunately, some teachers took advantage of their stay in the United Kingdom or the U.S.A. to bring an improvement to S.O.L. They introduced some communicative activities which integrate all the language (English) processes. But still, as most teachers are not familiar with these new approaches, they prefer to stick to what they know better - SOL.

Though there is an effort on the part of the teachers to improve their instruction and also to vary their teaching materials and methods, reading and writing are still taught as products and not as processes. There is a long way to go from the "traditional" conception of teaching reading and writing as products to the conception of teaching them as processes.

As a summary to section two, I would say that secondary school students in Côte d'Ivoire have problems as adolescents. And adolescence is a period hard to handle for the parents as well as for the adolescents, themselves. In addition, most adolescents already have some responsibilities vis a vis their families which urge them to work

very hard in order to complete their studies and face their duties as sons and daughters. And the language complexities and diversities, the teaching strategies and materials do not help them that much in the learning process.

Therefore, there is a need to find ways and means to respond to their expectations. The next section will deal with this necessary change in EFL classes.

### **Section Three: A Shift from Viewing Reading and Writing as Products to Viewing Reading and Writing as Processes.**

Though teachers strive to improve EFL instruction, reading and writing are still viewed as products in most classrooms. In this section, I will first try to clarify the two terms, products and processes; in doing so, I will make a parallel between reading and writing taught as products and reading and writing taught as processes. The second point will deal with the shift from products to processes; this will include the rationale for shifting and how this shift will be possible. The third part will discuss how the theories behind the shift can be applied in EFL context.

The whole Project is based on four main theories that I described in Section One. They agree upon the importance of meaning and background knowledge in the reading process and they are a clear break with theories that emphasize Reading as a product.

#### **Reading and Writing as Products**

In EFL classrooms, reading consists of reading a short passage as previously described in Section Two and answering teachers' questions. In processing the questions, teachers are encouraged to vary them; in other words, they should ask literal and inferential questions as well as personal and general questions. Literal questions have their answers in the texts that students read. Inferential questions help students form opinions from or make judgements based on the texts they read. As for personal and general questions, they promote conversation among



students. In order to make sure that there is variety in their questions, teachers will refer to the following chart developed by the teacher training college to guide teachers in preparing their questions:

	Literal	Inferential	Personal	General
Yes / No				
WH (questions)				
Either / Or				

In addition to these types of questions that I mentioned above, teachers ask yes/no questions, "WH" questions - questions starting with "wh" such as What, where, who... They also ask either/or questions. So, a good reading lesson is the one in which teachers succeed in filling the above boxes.

A reading lesson is successful when teachers use a text as a pretext to engage students in discussion. According to this product approach, if students answer teachers' questions that means they have comprehended the text. As we can notice, teachers are concerned with the products after reading, they are not concerned with the process during reading. Some questions come to my mind: Is reading just answering questions? Is reading only answering someone else's

questions? Is reading asking questions about texts only? In doing so, as Calkins says:

. . . students learn more about the text than they learn about reading. They do not develop skills which will help them another day on another text. (1986, p. 236)

Calkins also points out that:

In real life, there are no questions at the end of a chapter. It is up to the readers to do their own probing of a text. Students need to ask questions as well as to answer key questions. Reading is a composing process. The reader drafts and revises meaning.  
(1986, p. 238)

Very often, teachers make students read aloud but as soon as they stumble over a word or mispronounce it, <sup>if they are</sup> teachers will stop them on the spot and correct the mistake before <sup>they go on reading</sup> they go on reading. Some teachers will let students finish reading the passage <sup>and</sup> then they will go back to the beginning and start correcting the mistakes. It is obvious that this disrupts students' reading. In making students read aloud, teachers claim that they want to check pronunciation, intonation, stress. . . . For them, poor readers are those who stumble over words, hesitate, mispronounce letters or words; <sup>good</sup> good readers are those who read everything correctly and fluently. It is clear that the teacher's focus is not on the readers but on the text. Besides, <sup>the</sup> reading in EFL classroom is generally followed by a test and writing mostly serves to test reading. <sup>After</sup> After learning to read through the instruction that I described in Section Two, teachers think students have enough reading and writing skills. They give them one, two or three hours' texts <sup>which</sup> <sup>are</sup> depending on the grades. Students have to answer multiple-choice questions, fill in blanks. . . . and even write short essays. Even if they

try to integrate reading and writing, writing is also viewed as a product.

Writing usually consists of imposing topics on students: teachers come up with topics and ask students to write about them. Whether students are interested in the topics or not, they have to write. As they write, teachers move around not to watch them but to check if a student is cheating or looking up a word in a dictionary. Teachers also time them and at the end of the hour or the two or three hours, they collect the copies in order to mark them. When they finish marking, teachers give back students' papers, they deal with correction and feedback in class. Teachers keep the marks in their records and students keep their marked copies. If they write three or four papers, that will be the opportunity for them to do writing.

This is the type of reading and writing that takes place in most EFL classes in Côte d'Ivoire. Current theories have another perception of reading and writing. These two are no longer viewed as products but as processes. I will have a look at reading and writing as processes in order to see how they differ from reading and writing as products.

### Reading and Writing as Processes

Jack Richards, John Platt and Heidi Weber define products as completed acts of communication or language output and processes as the underlying abilities and skills used in producing them. For instance, letters, compositions and essays are examples of the products of writing. But in order to write them, a number of processes are involved such as collecting information, outlining, drafting, and revising.

(Adapted from Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics 1985, p.229).

Another point worth noting is that reading and writing are language processes and, as such, they cannot be considered just as products. Current theories (Halliday, 1975) point out that reading and writing have the same functions as language and they found seven functions to language which are the following:

1. instrumental: language is used to get something needed.
2. regulatory: language is used to regulate somebody's behavior and even our own.
3. interpersonal or interactional: language is used to get along with other people; in other words, language establishes social relationships between people.
4. heuristic: language is based on learning by one's own personal discoveries and experiences. "Language is used for exploring the world around and inside one."
5. imaginative: language is used for creating a world of one's own.
6. informative: language is used for communicating new information.
7. personal: language is used for identifying and expressing the self.

Some linguists (Richards et al., 1985) reduce them to three main functions: descriptive, expressive and social. Some others (Halliday, 1975) call them ideational, interpersonal and textual functions. In the main, language researchers agree that reading and writing are language processes more than they are products.

Reading as a Process

Concerning the actual perception of reading, a number of studies agree that:

Reading is a multifaceted, complex, interactive process which involves many subskills and many types of reader, as well as text, variables.

(Research in Reading in English as a Second Language, TESOL, 1987, p. 2)

For the language researchers, reading can no longer be a passive process. Nor can reading be simply an active process; rather, efficient and effective reading requires a true interaction between reader and text. They agree with Pearson-Casanave (1984) to affirm that:

. . . the text does not carry meaning; it provides clues that enable readers to construct meaning from existing knowledge.

(TESOL Quarterly Volume 23, Number 3, September 1989, p. 539)

As I mentioned in Section One, these theories focus on the reader as well as the text in the reading process; the key words are interaction, negotiation of meaning, transaction, reader's background knowledge. For Marilyn Gillespie from the Read/Write/Now Project for adult beginning readers in Springfield:

A reader is not just a "blank slate" taking in meaning. As we read we bring our own previous knowledge and understanding to the words.

(Using process writing with adult beginning readers (a reading packet) p. 1)

To sum up the theories on which reading as a process is based, I would say that in the reading process, the reader predicts samples and confirms or corrects his/her predictions. For Kenneth S. Goodman and Yetta M. Goodman (1976) reading involves sampling from available cues, predicting syntactic structures and subsequent graphic cues, confirming or disconfirming predictions, correcting when necessary, and

accommodating the developing sense as new information is decoded. These theories are no longer interested in defining what reading and writing are but they are concerned with what happens when a reader reads or when a "writer" writes.

### Writing as a Process

Current studies link reading and writing: both reading and writing are similar and complementary. Researchers view the reader as a mental writer, one who summarizes, gains information and readjusts. Both reader and writer revise text and meaning during the process. In both reading and writing, meaning plays an important role. Mary Ellen Giacobbe states that writers are readers, that a writer reads; a reader writes. Theorists describe the writing process in different terms. For some researchers the writing process is pre-writing, writing and re-writing. Some others see it as rehearsal, drafting, revision and editing. Lucy McCormick Calkins underlines that:

For many writers, rehearsal also includes gathering raw materials. . .

Just as sculptors are fond of saying that they discover their subject in the block of marble (Barzun 1957), so too, writers begin to sense the shape of their subject as they explore and gather their raw materials.

(1986, p. 17)

For Calkins drafting is the stage when the writers find the contours of his/her subject. Revision means re-vision or seeing again. Donald Murray describes the writing process as follows:

The writing stands apart from the writer, and the writer interacts with it, first to find out what the writing has to say and then to help the writing say it clearly and gracefully.

(1980, p. 5)

Calkins adds that:

. . . it is helpful to think of writing as a process of dialogue between the writer and the emerging text.  
(1986, p. 19)

To conclude this section about reading and writing as processes, I would say that the focus is on meaning, comprehension, background knowledge that the reader or writer brings to the process. David Ausubel, an educational psychologist once said:

The single most important factor influencing learning is what the student already knows.  
(1968, p. VI)

Frank Smith, in chapter five of his book Essays into Literacy (1983), elaborates on the idea that nothing is comprehended if it does not reflect or elaborate on what the reader already knows.

After describing reading and writing as products and reading and writing as processes, the second part of this Section will deal with the need for a shift from products to processes.

#### Need for a shift from reading and writing viewed as products to reading and writing viewed as processes.

In this section I will discuss three main points: first, the rationale for shifting from reading and writing as products to reading and writing as processes; second, how can the shift be possible and third, the theories behind the shift.

#### The rationale for shifting

For many years English was taught through translations and the explanation of grammar rules. Students were good at writing but unable to communicate; so teachers found that there was a gap somewhere in the learning process. They realized that instruction helped students to

develop their writing skills but not the speaking ones. They also acknowledged that language learning is not parroting rules. But as they changed their instructional strategies, they lapsed back into the same mistakes. The result today is that they focus on oral skills and neglect the writing skills. For them, the first objective of teaching English is to enable students to communicate with speakers of English, to acquire information for academic and cultural purposes. But even for these reasons English cannot be taught through speaking only. There is a need to integrate the language skills that is listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Though there is a tremendous effort on teachers' part trying to help students develop their language skills; still, a lot of them need to get informed and acquainted with current language learning and teaching theories. It is usually the supervisors and those who went either to Great Britain or the USA who are informed about those theories and try to share their experiences with their colleagues. But it is not easy because these supervisors do not have regular classes so they work with teachers in workshops or seminars. We know that in general teachers do not take the risk of trying those new approaches to language learning. Some points which are worth noting in the shift are that in teaching reading and writing as processes, the learning process will be easier for students; they will be empowered and proud of being "authors" or "writers". In doing so the mystery or myth around reading and writing will disappear and this will make room for students as readers and writers. In the main, every teacher feels the need for shifting but the answer to how to shift is another story.

How to shift from products to processes.



Textbooks play an important role in EFL learning. As I described them in Section Two, they are culturally adequate, they deal with students' everyday lives. But they are composed of pieces of texts written for classroom purpose. They surely help in what Krashen calls the "intake" stage of the learning process. They are not sufficient to extend or develop students' reading and writing skills; they should not be the only materials. So, in shifting from products to processes, there is a need to look at students as partners and not as objects in the learning process; there is also a need to increase the materials.

#### Students as partners in the process.

Teachers often forget that students are potential readers and writers and that students know a great deal of things that they (teachers) ignore. So, a way to shift from reading and writing products to reading and writing processes would be to use students' writing. This point will be discussed in depth in Section Four. In addition, there is a need to vary the reading materials.

#### Increasing the reading materials.

Variety in these materials includes: newspapers, books, magazines...but before getting them, teachers need to know about what students reading and writing interests or preferences are. A lot of studies have worked in this field and they might serve as a back-up in finding the reading and writing preferences of EFL students in Côte d'Ivoire.

#### Students' reading preferences.

The dynamics of adolescence affect young people's attitudes toward reading and toward their preferences in reading. Numerous studies have explored students' reading interests at a variety of age and grade levels.

Psychologist G. Stanley Hall predicated reading interests of girls and boys on psychological differences. He found that:

Boys love adventure, girls sentiment. . . Girls love to read stories about girls which boys eschew, girls, however, caring much more to read about boys than boys to read about girls. Books dealing with domestic life and with young children in them girls have almost entirely to themselves. Boys, on the other hand, excel in love of humor, rollicking fun . . . and tales of wild escapades. Girls are less averse to reading what boys like than boys are to reading what girls like. A book popular with boys would attract some girls, while one read by most girls would repel a boy in the middle teens. The reading interests of high school girls are far more humanistic, cultural and general, and that of boys is more practical, vocational, and even special.  
(Children's Reading: As a Factor in Their Education.  
Library Journal 33. April 1908, p. 124-25)

In his twelve-year study of the reading interests of young people, George W. Norvell came up with seven factors that affect children's reading preferences. Those factors were: sex; age or maturity; intelligence; special interest factors such as adventure, humor ...; the classroom situation; the teaching methods used; community influences including the influence of the school. For Norvell:

. . . sex is a universal and highly significant factor. If children are to be provided with satisfactory materials, the reading interests of boys and girls must receive separate consideration.  
(The Reading Interests of Young People 1950, chapter eight).

He found that boys gave a favorable rating to novels, plays, short stories and biographies of men. Science was primarily a boys' reading field. Girls rated favorably the same literary types and further, included biographies of women. With respect to essays and poems, girls placed them higher than boys. In his study Carlsen pointed out that:

Sex differences are reflected not only in the kind of story each usually prefers, but in the type of characters, the plot, the setting and the time units within those kinds.  
(1971, p. 22)

He summarized the preferences of boys and girls as follows:

Boys want the leading character to be masculine; girls will read about both sexes. Boys like a large cast of characters; girls a small cast.  
Boys like a story with a setting that takes characters halfway around the world.  
Girls like a confined setting on a country estate or in a small town, or in a particular neighborhood.  
Boys like the intrigue of much action, often involving several different plots; girls like a much more direct and straightforward plot line. . .  
Boys tend to prefer description of external action, of the characters while girls are interested in the details of emotional reactions. (1971, p. 22)

In addition, some studies have distinguished between the types of stories preferred by junior high school and those favored by senior high school students. Smith and Eno's study (1961) showed that junior high boys preferred mystery, sports, animals, adventures, sea stories and science fiction. The majority of the girls wanted to read about romance though some liked career stories, mystery and comedy. Senior high boys chose adventure, but were also interested in sea stories, mystery, science fiction, comedy and historical works. Senior high girls' top preferences were the same as it was for the junior high girls. Some senior high girls were interested in adventure, comedy, career stories and mystery.

In the main, studies on young people's reading interests and preferences are sexist in the sense that their data gathering consists of -- trying to figure out what boys liked to read, and what girls liked to read. Those (Norvell, 1950) who tried to point out what both sexes like reading, did not go any further. They lingered on sex differences. Even Norvell in his twelve year study says that science is boys' reading field. Does this mean that girls cannot be scientists? Studies in the

future should go beyond sex differences in order to come up with objective and realistic findings and not results based on assumptions.

As I made it clear in the beginning, in using these studies, we cannot apply the findings directly to the EFL context. They will serve as a back-up in the strategies we might use in finding out what EFL students' reading preferences are. These preferences are part of the shift that I described earlier. But this shift should take place gradually because teachers and students and even the whole educational system are not used to it. Even the activities that I proposed in the next section are built on traditional approaches. It will take time but if, in the end, students explore reading and writing processes, it will be the instructional reward for EFL teachers in secondary schools in Côte d'Ivoire. It would be helpful to bear in mind the theories behind this shift.

#### Theories behind the shift.

K. Goodman and Y. Goodman's study(1978) showed that linguistically different children can develop basic reading strategies: sampling, predicting, correcting and confirming. In addition Barnitz affirms that:

With continued functional reading exposure, combined with second language instruction, second language readers can develop the universal process of reading.  
(1985, p. 72-73)

So, EFL students, like any learners, bring a great deal to the learning process: their language, cultures, social backgrounds, etc. They can transact with a text, constructing meaning if the reading materials allow them to. Some researchers (James, 1987) have pointed out that students may fail (in reading) for several reasons:

1. They do not have the appropriate formal schema to match.

2. They are not familiar with the content or topic.
3. They may have the wrong perception or a different perception of the ideas being presented.

(Adapted from Research in Reading in English as a Second Language p. 181).

And this can be applied to any reader. Frank Smith confirms this saying that:

Expecting children to learn to read through nonsense is the easiest method of making learning to read impossible . . .  
(1985, p. XII)

I would add that reading materials which are not related to students' prior knowledge is the easiest way to make the reading process impossible for them.

A point that some studies have raised is that ESL/EFL students may have background knowledge: their world, cultures, social background; still they may fail because they do not have sufficient linguistic schema. Frank Smith would respond by saying that children learn to read by reading. And I would say that the linguistic schema increases as students get the habit of reading, as they are exposed to varied literary genres. Another thing is that there are few researchers on ESL or EFL. There is a need to increase investigations before drawing conclusions.

In summary, I would say that little reading and little writing happen in EFL secondary schools in Côte d'Ivoire. There is a need to shift to reading and writing process approaches. But this change should not happen overnight; it will take time because teachers need to get used to it and adapt their instructional strategies. This shift will

surely bring along a trail of challenges that administrators and practitioners will face. These challenges will include instruction, finances. Teachers and administrators will have to find strategies to meet them.

## Section Four: Challenges Resulting From a Shift to Process Literacy Instruction and Materials

### Introduction

This section will deal with two major points: firstly, challenges brought about by the shift from reading and writing as products to reading and writing as processes. Secondly, strategies needed to meet these challenges.

### Challenges from Process Approaches to Literacy.

There are two types of challenges resulting from a shift away from traditional product literacy instruction to process literacy instruction.

#### Instructional Challenges

This shift from traditional product to process literacy approaches will result in instructional challenges because the theories behind the shift are new to most Côte d'Ivoire teachers. Even those teachers who read about these approaches cannot use them properly because of the lack of a variety of reading materials beyond textbooks. One of these instructional problems is that teachers are not trained and prepared to use these new theories. So, they will not feel comfortable with them. Therefore, they will remain with the theory and practice, the traditional product literacy approach, that they have used for a long time. This means that the supervisory team who work with teachers in the field will have to increase teachers' awareness of the newer process literacy approach. There will be a need for more and more national, regional, local seminars and workshops. These inservice workshops

should help teachers become aware of reading and writing process theory and practice.

A point worth noting is that though there is a teacher training college, the supervisory board are the ones who do the inservice training for the teachers in the field. It is a team composed of teachers who have a lot of experience in teaching and who help their colleagues in the field. Most of them went either to the U.S.A. or to Great Britain to prepare their Masters. Their areas of concentration is EFL teaching and learning; thus, each of them brought their contribution to the effort that teachers have made to improve EFL teaching and learning in Côte d'Ivoire. Their role is very important in the educational system.

One of the objectives of the team is to build on the strengths of "SOL" (Standard Oral Lesson) and introduce current strategies to improve "SOL" instructional strategies. Supervisors are responsible for the follow-up of "SOL" through training teachers and evaluating their work.

They already organized several workshops on testing, reading comprehension, writing... For a week, teachers and supervisors were engaged in issues on the topics that I mentioned above; they also dealt with a variety of activities in order to expand teachers' ideas. From time to time, a guest speaker would come and share his/her experience in language teaching and learning and other domains. For example, in January 1989, a team from the Center for International Education at the University of Massachusetts went to Côte d'Ivoire to share their experience in experiential learning. And they worked with teachers and supervisors; they have planned to go back there next year for another workshop. When these people leave, the team of supervisors continue



with the follow-up; they help teachers try the new approaches and see how they work in our EFL classrooms.

Secondary school teachers are between elementary and high education. Students come to them with the different backgrounds that I described in Section Two. Most students get to secondary school without any experience with English. Teachers have to help them develop their language processes: listening, speaking, reading and writing with very limited resources.

Given their position in the learning process, secondary school teachers have a challenging role to play. Administrators and decision-makers rely on them to be creative with the few traditional materials that they have on hand -- the textbooks. Through concrete and practical activities, teachers have to prove that there is a need to go beyond the textbooks. But the shift from reading and writing as products to reading and writing as processes will also be along with financial problems.

### Financial Challenges

Public schools in Côte d'Ivoire live on budgets that are allocated by the government; even most private schools are grant-aided. But as the economic situation is getting more and more difficult, there are more and more cuts in these budgets. And what is dramatic is that the budgets are tighter and tighter but the numbers of students who get to secondary school increase. As some classes are overcrowded, the administration divides them into two groups. So, when a teacher has class with seventy students, for example, s/he takes them in groups thus s/he spends two hours with the same class. This is one of the many reasons why the shift will not be easily accepted by the administrators. This is why teachers should think of materials which are inexpensive.

Concerning parents, I would say that the change will surely increase their economic problems because most of them are farmers. They do not have monthly salaries. They live off their food crops; though they produce cash crops such as coffee and cocoa, the latter do not sell as well as they used to in the past. With their meager incomes, these farmers have to feed their large families and send their children to school. For example, a seventh grader's parents have to buy his/her uniform, school fees, school stationery...and textbooks. Textbooks are very expensive for these farming families. This is why parents, in general, are scared of a new school year. If in addition to these expenses, parents have to buy supplementary books and magazines, they will withdraw their children from school. Therefore, teachers have to find approaches which allow students to remain in school. Families need not bear the major burden of a teacher's shift to process literacy approach.

To come back to school administration, I would say that given the increasing budget cuts that I mentioned earlier, schools cannot take additional responsibilities in these financial dilemmas. They cannot provide students with supplementary reading materials. Besides, the school's focus is currently on Science and Technology rather than on literacy. So, school administrators would strive to obtain materials for the Biology Science or Physics laboratories before they would financially support language classrooms. Even if teachers are excited and willing to implement current reading and writing process teaching strategies; this is an undeniable reality they have to face.

As for teachers, there is not much that they can do in the financial problems. They cannot buy reading materials such as novels,

magazines, newspapers for students. They cannot afford to subscribe to magazines or newspapers for students. Teachers' contributions consist of becoming acquainted with current instructional strategies and adapting them to their instructional contexts.

With regard to students, they cannot solve the financial problems. Very few can get a job and earn their own money because of the high rate of unemployment. They still depend on their parents economically. But they can contribute to the learning process: they can use their latent background knowledge, experiences and skills in order to produce some reading materials. This is especially possible with teachers help. As it is said "where there is a will, there is a way"; I would add that where there is desire and motivation for reading and writing processes, there should be ways and means to accomplish its implementation.

### Strategies

Both instructional strategies and pragmatic strategies which can help secondary school students develop their reading and writing skills will be discussed.

#### Instructional Strategies:

The point in this project is not to provide recipes for English as a Foreign Language instruction. Rather it is a way to lighten students' reading and writing difficulties. There is no unique way of teaching that works one hundred percent. As Frank Smith says:

. . . although every method of reading instruction seems to achieve some success with some children, no method succeeds with all children.

(1985, p. 5)

One of the strategies which is vitally important in English as a Foreign

Language instruction is for teachers to know when and how to stop controlling the learning process. When teachers are the center of the learning, students become dependent on teachers rather than themselves. Also, they lose confidence in themselves. The image that I have about reading and writing instruction is like that of a child who learns how to walk. S/he will hesitate, stumble and even fall several times. But, as the parents help him/her, encourage him/her, s/he will try by himself/herself. As soon as the child is self-confident, as soon as s/he can walk properly or run, the parents focus on some other aspects. They watch him/her so that s/he cannot hurt or burn himself/herself.

Teachers should play this same supportive and nurturing role with their students. As students gain self-confidence, teachers should not interfere with the learning process. This is one of the difficulties that teachers face in teaching English as a Foreign Language.

Some researchers, though few in number, have designed some activities. Some activities which could be used in English as a Foreign context. Jeremy Harmer has proposed a good deal of communicative activities in his book, The Practice of English Language Teaching, 1983.

It is said in the preface of the book that:

"The Practice of English Language Teaching" is concerned with Teaching English as a Foreign Language (often referred to as TEFL)

Chapter eight is devoted to promoting communication in the classroom through oral and written activities. The latter can be adapted for beginners as well as more advanced students. An activity like "writing messages" can be done with seventh and eighth graders. This consists of writing messages to each other. It is easy and cheap to carry out.

Stage one: Students are told to write a message to any of their peers in the classroom.

Stage two: The completed message is given to the addressee.

Stage three: The addressee writes a response which is passed back to the original writer.

The original message might be:

TO MARIA,  
WHAT KIND OF HOUSE DO YOU LIVE IN?  
FROM JOSE

and the reply might be:

TO JOSE  
MY HOUSE HAS THREE BEDROOMS AND A SMALL  
GARDEN AT THE FRONT.  
FROM MARIA

Adapted to English as a Foreign Language classroom in Côte d'Ivoire, the messages might be:

TO AKISSI  
HOW MANY BROTHERS AND SISTERS DO YOU HAVE?  
AND WHAT ARE THEIR NAMES?  
FROM KOKO

TO KOKO

I HAVE TWO BROTHERS AND THREE SISTERS. MY

BROTHERS' NAMES ARE ADOMOON AND ANI. MY

SISTERS' NAMES ARE CHIA, BELE AND AHO.

FROM AKISSI

This is where teachers and students use their creativity skills. As follow-up activities, students could write their own dialogues and turn them into role playing. Beginners especially seem to enjoy acting.

In the upper grades, story construction can be another activity performed by students. The example that the author proposed is "the hospital case" (See Appendix 3). In order to perform this activity students are divided into groups of four people. Each group is given a picture which represents a part of the story. When they have *absorbed the information in the pictures, groups are recombined* so that each member of the new group has seen a different picture. By telling each other what their picture contained, the group can build up the complete story. Here are the different stages of the activity.

Stage one: Students are divided into groups (four per group).

Stage two: Each member is given a letter, A - B - C - D.

Stage three: Each group is given a picture and told to read it.

Stage four: The teacher collects the pictures, then asks students to form new groups matching the letters they have. (All the As together, Bs together, etc.).

Stage five: Each group tries to piece together the whole story.

Stage six: The different groups say what their stories are.

This activity can be adapted for junior high classes. In their textbooks, there are interesting illustrations. Instead of sharing the

stories orally, students can write about the pictures and read them to their peers and get their reactions.

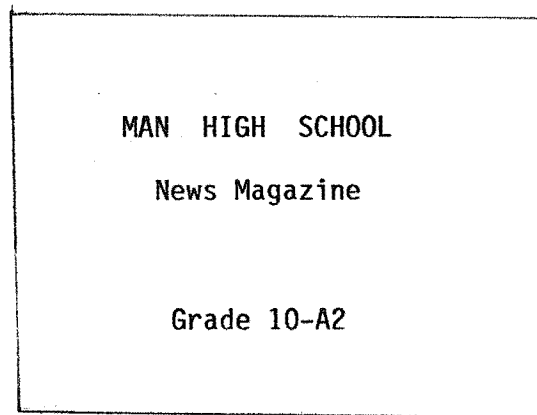
Another approach could be, instead of pictures, teachers could cut a story in several parts or paragraphs. From what they have, students could guess the beginning, middle or end of the story and write the whole story. This jigsaw type of activity works well with beginners.

With more advanced students, teachers can try more challenging activities such as <sup>newspaper form</sup> daily or weekly journals. They write about whatever they want and they are free to share or keep <sup>it</sup> for themselves. One of the mistakes teachers usually make is to impose topics on students. It is better for students to choose their own topics; it is easier and more enjoyable when the piece of writing comes from within the authors. In normal life, we write because we have something to communicate, not necessarily something from someone else.

Teachers can also share their own free writing. They might write on the chalkboard while students observe their use of process writing approach. Students will see them thinking, looking for words, and editing as they cross out inappropriate words or sentences. As soon as teachers complete their written pieces, they can suggest students do the same.

Students need to be able to write about anything they want: their friends, families, villages. After students have written their stories, they can be divided into groups in order to read their pieces to each other. As they share their pieces of writing, they react as readers. At stage three, each student chooses his/her best story shared in their groups over various periods of the school year that they want to publish.

At stage four, students publish their best stories with the names of the authors. They can bind all the pieces together in a book that they will make themselves. They can give a title to the bound stories, with the name of their school and their classroom such as:



Before I point out what can be done with students' pieces of writing, I would like to draw attention to three facts in the above activities. First, they start with controlled type of exercises. Then as they move toward more advanced students, teachers keep themselves in the background as much as possible in order to let them carry out the activities by themselves. The third point worth noting is group work which has to do with collaborative learning. Goodman and Hood (1989) suggest that "in groups, children have the benefit of using individual peers as resources as well as drawing on the group as support."

In addition, most students live in village communities where people collaborate and cooperate. It is part of their lives and realities. So teachers should take this background into consideration in their instruction.

Concerning what can be done with students' writing, they can create



their own library and choose a classmate to be in charge of it. If their pieces of writing are kept in the classroom, they can consult them. They can also keep them in their school library in order to share them with their peers. Another alternative will be to exchange their stories with other classes even other Côte d'Ivoire schools.<sup>9</sup> As a follow-up, students, themselves, can decide on what to do. It should be noted that Reading goes along with Writing. As students become acquainted with a variety of reading materials, they develop their reading skills as well as their writing skills. The more they read, the more they explore literary genres. And instruction should encourage and help students read and write. Very often, teachers underestimate their students' talents.

Two years ago students in Man (i.e. the town where I work) decided to organize what they called "English Day". Some students sang in English while some danced to the sound of rock and roll on a tape. Some others acted out a play written by an African author. The setting in the play was a traditional village community. The actors were so comfortable with their different roles; they replaced the names in the play by their own. Only junior high students performed in these activities. Students invited some teachers and supervisors to be part of it. They got some presents for the best actors or singers or poets.

It was a long way for them to move from what they learned in class to using it in real life. They showed teachers what they could do with what they learned. It was an opportunity for them to show their different talents that they could not reveal in the classroom. Even those who did not win any prize were happy to have taken part in the activities. Such activities could be encouraged and even extended to

neighboring towns. But, unfortunately, because of the lack of resources, students have to suppress their skills.

To conclude, I would say the philosophy behind the shift from viewing reading and writing as products to viewing them as processes is based on the saying:

"If you catch someone a fish, they will eat for a day.  
If you teach them to fish, they will eat for a lifetime."

One of the main goals of the project is to provide students with materials that make sense to them and help them develop their language processes. So far I have dealt with materials that teaches and students can create. But still ~~reading~~ is not reading each other's messages or stories. Reading goes beyond that. I will try to suggest some strategies that I call pragmatic strategies.

#### Pragmatic Strategies

By pragmatic strategies, I mean ways to find supplementary materials that instruction strategies cannot provide. These include: magazines, newspapers, novels and poems. In short, other literary work produced by professional writers. My first suggestion would be to start with the existing institutions in Côte d'Ivoire = ENS (Ecole Normale Supérieure) which is the national teacher training College and the national university. The inservice training board <sup>must realize</sup> needs to explain the need for reading materials in secondary schools. They need to discuss <sup>the problem</sup> with teachers and heads of the English Departments in order to see if there are any reading materials in these institutions that could be used in secondary schools. If they cannot find any alternative then they could contact the branch of the Ministry of Education which is in charge of teachers and supervisors. With persistence and insistence, they can

draw the authorities' attention to the lack of supplementary reading materials in secondary schools.

Another alternative approach to obtain other literacy materials might be through contacting neighboring English-speaking embassies in order to get some information about how we could get some reading materials for our students. Other countries which might help would be: Great Britain, The United States of America, Australia, New Zealand and Canada. We might contact the British Council and the American Cultural Center which usually collaborate with teachers. Even if they do not have anything on hand for secondary school students, they could provide some advice about how to contact publishers in their respective countries. Most African writers publish their work either in Great Britain or the United States.

The point in this section is how to find resources and ways to increase reading materials in secondary schools. Given the problems that I mentioned throughout the project, there will be some difficulties in reaching these goals that I mentioned earlier. My suggestions are based on the saying "where there is a will there is a way". I would add that where there is motivation and commitment on the part of adults to help young people develop their language processes, there would be a way. It will be tough to put all these new ideas into practice, but it will not be impossible.

As for the curriculum which is nationwide, I would say that the aim of getting materials other than textbooks is not to disrupt the curriculum. I believe that the process approach to literacy will bring changes that will be for the best. As life, itself, is a series of new beginning, I would say that learning is a process of new discoveries and

challenges. But the intention in this paper is not to move quickly. The changes need to occur gradually. So, if decision-makers are concerned about the outcomes of these new ideas, teachers might negotiate for opportunities to experiment with these new process literacy approaches in one or two grades -- those which do not have examinations at the end of the school year. Then little by little teachers could extend them to other grades.

### CONCLUSION

Reading and Writing viewed as processes cannot be taught. They are learned through practice. Isn't it said that "Practice makes Perfect"? It would be unrealistic to talk about perfection in instruction, but we dream about it and try to move toward it.

A number of studies have proved that reading is not reading word by word. Reading is not reading a piece of writing for five minutes. Reading is not answering teachers' questions without asking one's own. Reading is more than that. Reading is a part of everyday life. Therefore, readers need to read a variety of materials because by reading they improve their literacy abilities.

The same holds true for writing. Writing is not only filling in blanks. Writing is not only writing about topics imposed by teachers. Writing is choosing what one wants to write about and going about it as professional writers do. A writer should be able to draft, revise, edit and publish his/her piece of writing.

By exposing students to other materials than their textbooks, they can make their own choices in both reading and writing. Secondary school students are at a period when imagination is fertile and when

curiosity continues to develop. We should not confine them in a classroom where they cannot take advantage of their mental development.

So, if supplementary reading materials are provided, teachers will find adequate techniques to use them in order to address students' needs.

They are necessary in learning to read and write in any language

classroom and <sup>can be used successfully, however,</sup> mainly in English as a Foreign Language. <sup>(p. 104 of 110)</sup>



## Lesson 15

### An elephant hunt

Sikiru, Allasani, Doma (Allasani's son).

An elephant has been eating the crops in Allasani's village. One night the hunters got ready to hunt it. Sikiru went with them. They all carried their guns on their shoulders. A full moon was shining. Nobody spoke. They crossed a little stream and climbed over some rocks. The path got narrower and narrower. As they were walking through a thick forest, Allasani stopped suddenly and held up his hand.

Doma: Here we are. This is the river where the elephants drink.

Sikiru: What a dangerous place! The water looks so deep!

Allasani: The river's not very wide. When the elephant comes, we'll be able to shoot it easily.

While the hunters were hiding themselves behind bushes, Sikiru tried to find a dry place to sit.

Sikiru: We won't have to wait long, will we? These leaves are so wet!

Doma: We can sit on those rocks over there.

Sikiru: Oh, that's better. Ow! These mosquitoes! I've never seen such big ones!

Doma: Ssh! I can hear the elephant.

Sikiru: (whispering) Where? I can't see anything. It's so dark.

As Sikiru was whispering, a large elephant came out of the trees and began drinking. The hunters aimed carefully. Suddenly one of the rocks slipped and Sikiru fell into the river! There was a loud splash. The elephant turned round and rushed off. The hunters tried to shoot it, but they missed.

Allasani: Who's fallen in the river? It isn't Sikiru, is it?

Doma: Yes, father. He fell off those rocks.

Allasani: How stupid! Get him out quickly. This river's full of crocodiles.

Doma: Here, sir. Give me your hand. Are you all right?

Sikiru: My leg hurts. I've cut myself, I think. What a stupid thing to do!

Doma: What will we say when we get home?

Allasani: The women will be angry when they hear what's happened.

Doma: We can try again tomorrow night, can't we?

Sikiru: Yes, but I'll stay at home. You can come by yourselves.

APPENDIX (two)

LESSON PLAN

12.20.89

Time: 55 min.

Lesson 15: An Elephant Hunt (Part 1); 1.1...1.6

I. Warm up (2mn)

Teacher finds a topic to discuss in class which will lead to the text. For example, s/he can bring a picture of an elephant and ask students what they know about it. It is a way to get students started.

II. Teach New Vocabulary Words (about 12 mn)

To hunt/ A hunter  
Crops  
A gun  
To cross  
A stream  
A path  
Narrow  
Thick

A rock (students might know it because it sounds like the word in French "roc" but the teacher has to check to make sure that they know). With these eight words, the teacher either constructs a story where w/he will put them all or s/he will teach them separately. The new words are taught in context and written in illustrative sentences.

III. Grammar structure (about 7 mn)

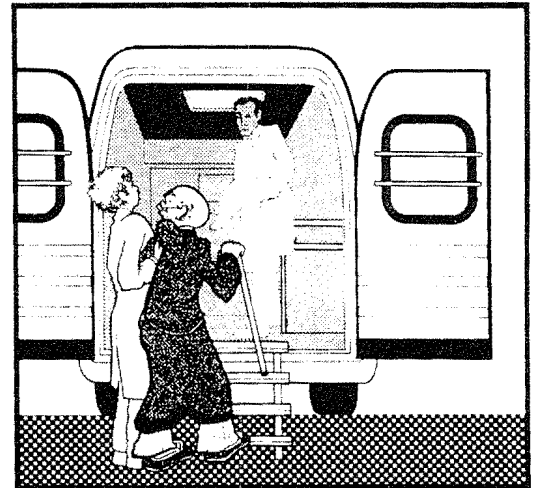
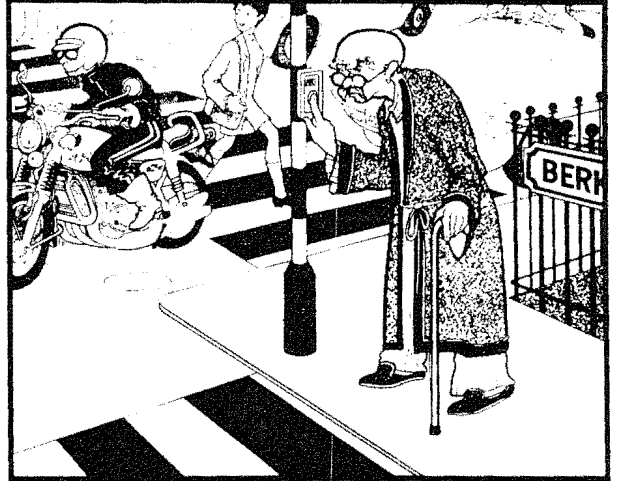
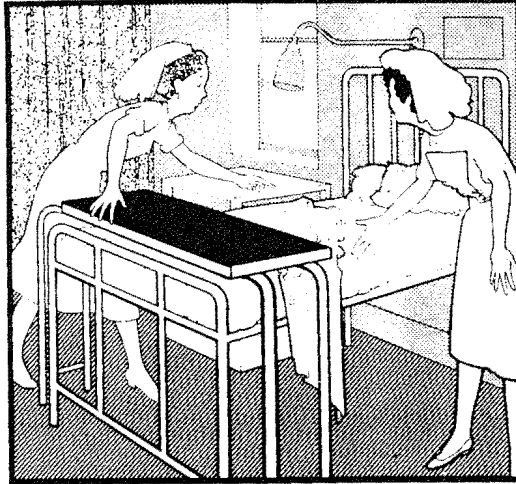
"narrower and narrower" will serve as an example on which students will build their own sentences. For example: Kofi eats too much, he will get fatter and fatter.

IV. Exploitation of the text (15 - 20 mn)

Consists of asking questions and promoting conversation in the classroom.

V. Notes taking (students are given 10 mn to copy what is left on the blackboard).

# Appendix 3





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