Utilizing Short Story for Developing EFL Learners’ Writing Performance:
A Case Study of Third Year Students at Al- haj Abdalla Secondary Schools, Southern Gezira Locality, Gezira State, Sudan (2017)

Ahmed Kharfan Ahmed El-nour

July/ 2018
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Ahmed Kharfan Ahmed El-nour

B.A Faculty of Economics and Social Studies-University of Khartoum (1991)
M.A Faculty of Education-El-Hasahiesa- University of Gezira (2013)

A thesis Submitted for the Degree of PHD in Applied Linguistics
Department of Foreign Languages
Faculty of Education-El-Hasahiesa
University of Gezira

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<td>Dr. El-Mubark AlSiddig Saeed</td>
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Date of Examination 28/ 7/ 2018
DEDICATION

To the soul of my Parents,
To my son Muhammad and my wife
    Nawal
To all my family members,
And all English Language teachers
Acknowledgements

Thanks and praise are exclusively to Allah, the almighty and prayer and peace be upon our truthful messenger of Allah. I would like to express my sincere thanks and gratitude to Dr. Abdul Al-Gadir M. Ali, my supervisor, for continuous and wise guidance, support, encouragement and patience throughout the period of the study. I also extend my sincere thanks to Dr. Mubarak Assiddig Saeed for his close monitoring and wise guidance. Also my particular thanks are extended to Dr. Ahmed Gasm Aseed and Dr. Abdul Galil Abdalla Salih for their valuable assistance. Thanks are also due to secondary school English teachers in Al-manhal Private School in Al-haj Abdalla for their precious help and support. Also my particular thanks are extended to English department secretary, Amal Yusuf and Sarah Elhebir. My thanks are also extended to all staff of faculty of Education- Hasahisa and all those who work there, particularly the staff of English department and the librarians.
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Abstract

EFL learners face real problems in writing when they express their views and ideas. It has been observed that many students lack vocabulary, ideas and organizations and even the simple grammatical structures in their writing. So this study aims at identifying EFL students’ difficulties in writing, promoting students’ writing level through the short story medium and setting methods and techniques that may help teachers in teaching writing through short stories. To achieve these objectives, the study used the descriptive analytical method. A diagnostic test and a questionnaire were used as tools for data collections. The questionnaire is distributed to (50) English teachers at Al-haj Abdalla secondary schools. The results of the test and the questionnaire were analyzed by using the statistical package for social sciences programme (SPSS). Results of the study revealed that the third class students at secondary school have a low proficiency level in English writing; they face difficulties on both form and content levels. The results of the study showed that the writing problems are mainly in spelling, grammar, using of connectives and punctuation marks as well as the choice and use of vocabulary; besides, lack of effective practice of these areas of language. The results also indicated that, after teaching the short story, there was improvement in the selection of words, subject-verb agreement, using of linking words and capitalization, besides, fewer errors in spelling, and improvement in using the correct word order and paragraphing. In addition, the results showed that there was improvement in the use of tense, articles, pronouns and prepositions in the writing of students. Based on the findings of the study, it was recommended that teachers should adopt effective updated techniques to teaching writing through short stories such as using films adapted from literature; much concern should be devoted to cohesion and coherence teaching; grammar should be taught in context and by referring to areas of differences and overlapping between the two languages. Besides, there is need for focusing on spelling rules exceptions and differences between the two languages spelling systems as well as the necessity of providing students with feedback to their writing.
استخدام القصة القصيرة لتطوير الأداء في الكتابة لدارسي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية
دراسة حالة طلاب السنة الثالثة بمدارس الحاج عبد الله الثانوية، محلية جنوب الجزيرة، ولاية الجزيرة، السودان (2017)
أحمد خرفان أحمد النور

ملخص الدراسة

يواجه الدارسون للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية مشاكل حقيقية في الكتابة عند التعبير عن أفكارهم وآرائهم، حيث أظهر أن العديد من الطلاب تنقصهم المفردات والأفكار وحتى التركيب القواعدي البسيط وتنظيم ما يكتبونه. هدفت الدراسة إلى تحديد الصعوبات لدى الطلاب عند الكتابة، واستخدام القصة القصيرة كوسيلة فعالة لتطوير مهارة الكتابة لدى الطلاب، وإعداد طرق وتقنيات تساعد المعلمين على تدريس مهارة الكتابة خلال القصة القصيرة. استخدمت الدراسة المنهج الوصفي التحليلي، كما تم استخدام الاختبار التشخيصي والإستبانة بوصفهما أدواتاً لجمع البيانات، حيث تم توزيع الإستبانة على 50 معلماً من معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية بمدارس الحاج عبد الله الثانوية. بعد تحليل نتائج الاختبار التشخيصي والإستبانة بواسطة برنامج الحزم الإحصائية للعلوم الإجتماعية (SPSS) توصلت الدراسة إلى العديد من النتائج منها: انه يوجد ضعفاً شديداً من حيث الإداء في الكتابة وأنهم يواجهون صعوبات في الشكل والمضمون، عدم إلمام الطلاب بالقواعد الأساسية للقواعد والهجاء وأدوات الربط وعلامات الترقيم، وعدم إملاكهم لمفردات كافية، وغياب الممارسة الفعالة لكل هذه الجوانب من اللغة، وأن تطوراً قد حدث في كل من الشكل والمضمون والتنظيم بعد استخدام القصة القصيرة لتدريب مهارة الكتابة، حيث تحسن قدراتهم في اختيار المفردات المناسبة والهجاء الصحيح لها، بالإضافة إلى صياغة الجمل الصحيحة، مع استخدام علامات الترقيم الصحيحة ومد الطلاب بالتغذية الراجعة المناسبة لما يكتبونه. أوصت الدراسة بضرورة إيجاد طرق وتقنيات وفعلاء مثل استخدام الأفلام المأخوذة من القصة القصيرة، التي من شأنها تطوير أداء الطلاب في الكتابة، وتسريع قوانين الهجاء والقواعد، بالإضافة إلى أدوات الربط وضرورة استخدام التمارين والأنشطة التي تناسب الطلاب مع الاختبارات المنظمة وإتباع الطرق الفعالة في تصحيح الأخطاء التي يقع فيها الطلاب.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background

Language is the principle means used by human beings to communicate their ideas, feelings, and identities with one another, (Gasm Elsied, 2010:1). Therefore, one of the main objectives of teaching and learning a foreign language is to use it in different situations in order to communicate thoughts and information. Learning a language is a long process through which learners attempt to master its basic four skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing. So during this process of mastering the language, the EFL learners face many problems. Almost all teachers complain that the students at secondary schools have a very poor performance in writing proficiency. It has been observed that this underachievement in writing is caused by the difficulties the learners face in grammar, vocabulary and spelling. Writing is an act of communication. Nowadays a great deal of communication takes place in written forms. Writing connects people across time, space and culture. Moreover, using written language individuals can learn from yesterday, gain knowledge about today and design for tomorrow. Furthermore, it is necessary to point out that writing motivates students’ thinking and helps them organize ideas and it develops the students’ ability to summarize, analyze and criticize. Besides, writing skills are essential to academic success and are required to many occupations and professions.

After observing and discussing EFL students’ writing with English teachers, almost all teachers complain that, despite the great efforts they have made, the students at secondary schools have a very poor performance in writing proficiency. It has been observed that this underachievement in writing is caused by the difficulties the learners face in grammar, vocabulary, spelling, ideas and organizations and even the simple grammatical structures in their writing. They put simple sentences together and pay little emphasis to whether these sentences form a complete whole or not. It is also noticed that the students have difficulties in exploring and formulating ideas, sharing information and engaging in debate. Besides, students’ writing demonstrates difficulties in word choice, sentence formation and connection of ideas. In addition to its communicative function, writing is a major classroom procedure, and important language activity, and an effective technique to
reinforce the oral and written language material. In addition to that, writing provides
evidence of students’ achievements, and a source for later reference (Salih, 2008:11).

Since writing is considered as a skill, it needs study and practice to be developed. To
students, writing is very important since through it they will be able to demonstrate to
teachers that they have acquired the information and skills necessary to join the ranks of the
educated. Hence, knowing how to write effectively is one of the essential abilities that EFL
students need to develop. Those students are expected to respond to different writing tasks
and be able to explore and express their ideas clearly and appropriately.

However, recent trend in EFL teaching and learning processes indicates the necessity of
integrating literary texts in writing classroom, as a tool rather than an end. It has been
found that many learners want and love literary texts as they wish to be close to patterns of
social interaction in the country which uses the target language. Literature depicts these
social interaction patterns in contextualized situations and this decodes the assumptions
behind this interaction (Collie and Slater: ur, 1987:2). Including literature in a language
teaching program is significant in furthering the learner’s mastery in the four basic skills of
language, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing. This proves that literary texts
are most suited to adult or young adult learners, from the intermediate level onwards,
including the upper years at secondary school. Among literary genres, short stories seem to
be the most suitable choice for this. It is potential to help students enhance the four skills of
language more effectively because of the motivational benefit embedded in the stories.

In line with these ideas, Littlewood (2000:179) emphasizes the importance of the use of
literature in EFL classes by showing the fact that a major problem of language teaching in
the classroom is the creation of an authentic situation for language. All language
classrooms, especially those outside the community of native speakers, are isolated from
the context of events and situations which produce natural language. Literature can
overcome this problem because, in literary works, language creates its own context. The
actual situation of the reader becomes immaterial as he or she looks on the events created
by language. These events create, in turn, a context of situation for the language of the
book and enable it to transcend the artificial classroom situation. In short, literary works
undoubtedly enable students to understand the language better by providing them with real
world experiences, relationships between society and people where the target language is spoken, even if they are fictions. In this concern, Hismangolu (2005) indicates that:

*Short story can be a powerful and motivating source for writing in ESL/EFL, both as a model and as subject matter. Short story as a model occurs when students’ writing becomes closely similar to the original work or clearly imitates its content, theme, organization, and/or style. Short stories allow teachers to teach the four skills to all levels of language proficiency.*

Murdoch (2002: 9) shows the importance of the selection and exploitation of the short story in providing a source of ELT courses for learners at intermediate levels by stating that “*short stories can, if selected and exploited appropriately, provide quality text content which will greatly enhance ELT courses for learners at intermediate levels of proficiency*”. Thus, the major benefit of using short story in a writing class is that it provides invaluable sources to develop students’ writing qualities.

Finally, the efficient integration of short stories in writing classroom will result in proficient acquisition of highly valued writing ability. Thus, what students read, listen to or speak about is expected to be reflected in their writing. It is the job of syllabus designers utilizing the short stories in the writing class to secure the learner’s writing competence and performance (Salih: 2008:3).

**1.1 Statement of the Problem**

In recent years, it has been noticed that the secondary school students’ writing performance are declining. Evidence for this poor writing is the third class students at Al-haj Abdalla secondary schools who exhibit inabilities to produce short sentences, paragraphs, and even to perform their writing assignments. These learners have lack of word order, grammatical structures, vocabulary and organization. It is also observed that these students are unable to perform even the basic writing task so as to communicate in effective way. Using of the short story in writing classroom has been tried to improve the students’ writing skills.

**1.2 Objectives of the Study**

This study aims at:

- Identifying EFL students’ difficulties in writing.
- Promoting students’ writing level through the short story medium.
1.3 Questions of the Study
This study is conducted to investigate the above stated problem by finding answers to the following questions:

a. To what extent can students communicate their thoughts appropriately through writing?
b. What medium may be used to develop the students’ writing performance?
c. How can teachers use the short story to develop the students’ writing skills?

1.4 Hypotheses of the Study
This study suggests the following hypotheses:

a. Students can not communicate their thoughts appropriately through writing.
b. The short story may develop the students writing competence and performance if well selected and utilized.
c. Teachers may use appropriate and effective methods and techniques to develop the students’ writing through short stories.

1.5 Significance of the Study
It is hoped that this study will be useful to both teachers and learners of English as a Foreign Language in utilizing short stories to develop writing competence and performance. It is also hoped to provide EFL teachers with significant methods and techniques to improve their students’ writing skills. Moreover, the study is significant in that it highlights the importance of integrating the short story to English language classroom in general and to writing classroom in particular.

1.6 Research Methodology
1.6.1 Population
The population of this study is 90 students of Alhaj Abdalla secondary schools third year students enrolled in the academic year 2015/16. They had an average of weekly of formal instruction in English as a foreign Language for the duration of 6 years at Basic level and Secondary Level.
1.6.2 Sample

A number of 50 students of the third year at Alhaj Abdalla secondary Schools distributed at two schools are used as a sample for the study population.

1.7 Scope of the Study

This study will be limited to secondary level, third class students, Gezira state, Sudan.

1.8 Definitions of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms are defined as shown below:

**Spelling:** Al-Saedi (1989:17) defines spelling as: “Putting the elements (letters) of each word in the right sequence. It is also the ability to write words correctly depending on the memory”.

**EFL:** English as a Foreign Language.

**Errors:** They are breaches of the code: The deviation from what is regarded as the norm. Corder (1973:259).

**Mistakes:** They are deviations due to performance factors such as memory limitations, fatigue, stress, emotional strain etc. They are typically random and are readily corrected by the learner when his attention is drawn to them (Salih: 2008:6).

**Interlingua:** This term refers to the systematic result of a second language learner’s attempt to produce a target language norm, Selinder (1974:35).

**Learning Strategy:** It is a way in which a learner attempts to work out the meaning and uses of words, grammatical rules and other aspects of a language.

**Short story**

1- A narrative that can be read at one sitting of from one- half hour to two hours, and that is limited to ‘a certain unique or single effect,’ to which every detail is subordinate, Abrams( 1970:158).

2- A short story is a work of prose fiction....It differs, for example, from anecdote- the simple and unelaborated narration of a single incident- in that it organizes the action, thought, and interaction of the characters into the artful pattern of a plot, which has a beginning and develops through middle to some sort of denouement at the end. Abram (1978:163)
Style
Leech and Short (1981:38) “Style is a way in which language is used: i.e it belongs to parole rather than langue. A domain of language use “e.g what choices are made by particular author, in particular genre or in a particular text”.

Approach
“…. An approach is an overall assumption dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught…”

Method
“... Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, not part of which contradicts, all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural.

Technique
“…A technique is implementation- that is which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well. (Anthony: 1963:63-7).

Procedure
“It is the level at which we describe how a method realizes its approach and design in classroom behavior. At the level of procedure we are concerned with how these tasks and activities are integrated into lessons and used as the basis for teaching and learning” Richard and Rodgers (2003:69).
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction
This chapter is concerned with reviewing literature on nature of writing, the writing skill, approaches to teaching writing as well as nature and forms of a short story. It also reviews approaches to teaching short story, besides previous studies that are related to the present investigated study.

2.1 Nature of Writing
According to Lado (1964: 143): “To write is to put down the graphic symbols that represent a language one understands so that other can read these graphic symbols if they know the language and the graphic representation”. Thus, according to this definition pictures can also convey meanings, but they (pictures) do not represent language units. So writing is a partial representation of unit of language expression—and this is the essential difference between ‘drawing’ and writing. When people write, they use graphic symbols: that is a letter or combinations of letters, which relate to the sounds they make when people speak, on one level, then, writing can be said to be the act of forming these symbols: making marks on a flat surface of some kind. But writing is clearly much more than the production of sounds. The symbols have to be arranged, according to certain conventions, to form words, and words to have to be arranged to form sentence, these sentences in a coherent form constitute a text. Brooks, (1960:167) states that: “Writing is much more than an orthography symbolization of speech; it is more importantly a purposeful selection and organization of expression”.

This means that writing is a group of organized expressions that form a whole, and convey specific meanings. In encyclopedia Britannica: “Writing is a system to human intercommunication by means of visible marks used conventionally”. This broad definition encompasses two important chronological states: The earlier stage, in which the needs of writing were fulfilled by the use of a simple picture or a combination of pictures, which being understandable in themselves, did not have to correspond to any linguistic elements, this stage called semi-photography, belong varies types of forerunners of writing. The later
stage, in which the signs of writing, whether pictorial or linear, become visual substitutes for the signs of the oral language, such as words, syllables, and distinct sounds; this stage called photography, includes full writing.

The most widely quoted definition of writing was given by Aristotle. The second part of his propositional logic, *Peri Hermeneias*, begins with some basic explanations about things, concepts and signs. Before discussing nouns and verbs as parts of sentences that can be true or false, Aristotle discusses how these linguistic entities relate to ideas and to things of the material world. Aristotle (1938: 115) explains:

It is evident that, in literate cultures, writing intrudes into the linguistic behaviour of people and that without writing many languages would not be what they are, this supports the notion that writing is an active agent of language. Writing is as important as speaking since people communicate through speaking as well as through writing. The valuable thoughts of past generations have been transmitted to us through writing. However, in the recent past, writing was considered the most ignored and tedious language skill. But approaching writing witnessed many changes as the change of attitude towards the role of writing which has led to the understanding that writing is a natural outlet for students’ reflection on the other skills of the language, Adam (2008:4). The following part is devoted for talking about aims of teaching writing.

### 2.2 Aims of Teaching Writing

The importance of teaching writing to EFL learners comes from the notion that writing reinforces the grammatical structure, idioms and vocabulary that teachers have been teaching their students. In addition, when students write, they also have a chance to be learned to say, to take note risks, further, when they write, they necessarily become very involved with the near language, the effort to express ideas and the contact use of eye, hand and brain in a unique way to reinforce learning Helen (1986:35). The true reason for writing in the real world, whether it is a report on scientific research, a technical manual, an office memo, or a personal letter is to communicate some meaning to another person (Salih, 2009:11). Noteworthy are the pedagogical purposes of teaching writing that Byrne (1988:7) states
a) The introduction and practice of some form of writing enables providing different learning styles and needs. Some learners especially those who do not learn easily through oral practice alone feel more secure if they are allowed to read and write in the language. For such students writing is likely to aid retention if only because they feel most at ease and relaxed.

b) Writing work serves to provide the learners with some tangible evidence that they are making progress in the language. It is not likely to be a true index of their attainment but once again it satisfies a psychological need.

c) Exposure to the foreign language through more than one medium especially if skills are properly integrated appear to be more effective than relying on a single medium alone even at an elementary level there are many opportunities for activities that effectively integrated skills.

d) Writing provides variety in classroom activities serving as a break from oral work and is therefore quieter and more relaxed time for both students and teacher. At the same time it increases the amount of language contact work that can be out of class.

As learners usually struggle with what to put down next, how to put it down on paper, they often find the essential assistance from the short story in finding the right word and the right sentence to use and in discovering something new to write, or new way of expressing their ideas. The short story may provide the students who do not learn easily through oral practice alone with many opportunities for activities that effectively integrated skills. The close relationship between reading, writing and thinking makes writing a valuable part of any language course (Helen, 1989: 36). To conclude this area, linguists assume that the discourse, be a spoken or written, is designed primarily to create some sort of communication between writers/readers or speakers/listeners (Salih, 2008) So EFL teachers and learners have to bear this notion in mind. For achieving these aims, writers need to take into account the requirements of writing skills.

2.2.1 Requirements of Writing Skill

Writing is considered a language skill that should be developed at an early stage of learning the foreign language. Writing as a process requires understanding and knowledge
of many different aspects and items of the language. For the sake of more clarification to the different types of writing requirements it is better to quote the words of Gasm Elsied (2010:82) in this concern as follows:

(a) Knowledge of the English alphabet so that pupils can learn how to spell and how to identify letters in print.

(b) Understanding of the orthographic system i.e. the relationship between sounds and written symbols. That is, pupils must learn control of the graphic symbols that represent the sounds of the language.

(c) Knowledge of the mechanics of writing: spelling, capitalization, punctuation, paragraph indentation, leaving spaces between words, syllable division, and other writing conventions.

(d) Knowledge of possible sentence structures in English.

(e) Familiarity with grammatical, referential, or anaphoric connectors.

(f) Familiarity with lexical connectors, e.g. repetition of key words or the same word in a different form (deciding / decision), or the use of synonyms and antonyms, etc.

(g) Skill in sentence-combining to create an effective paragraph, and knowledge of the organization of the whole composition.

(h) Familiarity of transitional words or phrases.

(i) Adequate control of syntax and vocabulary in order to put ideas into writing.

(j) Some experience in listening, speaking and reading.

Accordingly, to develop EFL learners writing skills, students need to acquire adequate understanding and knowledge of the orthographic system of English language and mechanics of writing. Adding to that, providing the students with the essential grammar structures and the skills of controlling these structures while writing, is a necessity to writing process. Above all, students need to have adequate control of both syntax and vocabulary in order to be able to perform a consistent writing product. Worth mentioning is the importance of learning writing in integration with the other main skills of language, namely, listening, speaking and reading which may effectively be done through utilizing the short story in writing classes.
2.2.2 Significance of Spelling in Writing

Spelling is very important in the learning of any language. This idea has been discussed by some linguists and educators. For example Murcia and McIntosh (1979: 202) state: “A writer may not communicate well if he/she cannot spell; that is, a reader must be able to interpret marks on the pages as meaningful words and he/she cannot do this easily when words are misspelled”.

From the above statement, spelling is important in language learning as a writer may not communicate well if he/she cannot spell. Thus a reader cannot understand what the writer has written since his/her product is full of misspelled words. On the other hand, good spelling is essential to convey the intended surface meaning. Moreover, proficiency in spelling constitutes a base from which students can write well-formed meaningful sentences. While poor spelling limits the writer’s choice of words, which negatively impacts creativity and leads to short or incoherent pieces of writing.

2.3 Definitions of Spelling

Spelling is a thinking activity not a rote learning activity. It is said that spelling is the formation of words by using letters orthographically; a letter or combination of letters representing a word. Also AL-Saedi (1989:17) defines spelling as: Putting the elements (letters) of each word in the right sequence. It is also the ability to write words correctly depending on the memory.

It is observed that English language has strange spelling for many of its words. A word like “enough”, for example, has a shape that is quite different from its sound. English spelling is so hard due to the complex system of alphabet. It is difficult to tell what sound a letter is going to make in a word. To conclude, it is important to say that the correctness of spelling is essential in written communicative process success as misspelling or poor spelling hinders it and may lead to its failure.

2.4 Approaches to Teaching Writing

Gardner and Johnson (1997:36) state that writing is a fluid process created by writers as they work. In actuality, writing process is not a highly organized linear process, but rather a continual movement between different steps of the writing model. Teaching writing has seen numerous approaches and methods crossing their way since the early eighties. The
focus has shifted from sentence structure and grammar drills to usage and text organization. Its understanding and use are largely valued in every discipline, each of which requires a specific method of teaching. Teachers first, students then, have become aware of the fact that writing takes particular conventional forms in different contexts. Consequently, a great number of approaches and methods of teaching have come out. Although none of these approaches can be considered as ideal, they have all proved to be successful in one period or another. The immediate consequence is that today there are several approaches which are competing in writing classrooms and in course books. For effective writing in EFL classroom, ELT practitioners suggest three approaches: product, process and genre. The best practice in any situation will depend on the type of student’s competence level, the text type being studied, the curriculum and many other factors.

2.4.1 Product Approach

Traditionally writing was viewed as a tool for practicing and reinforcing of specific grammatical and lexical structures. So, the focus was on accuracy and little attention was paid to content and fluency of expression. The product approach as one of the approaches of teaching writing is defined by Gabrielatos (2002:5) as follows: “A product approach is a traditional approach in which students are encouraged to mimic a model text, usually is presented and analyzed in an early stage”. This approach is classified as the first approach in teaching writing. The approach focuses on the products of writing by examining texts in varying ways, either through their formal surface elements or their discourse structure. This pattern views writing as textual products, establishing concern for material form. To Byrne (1998:22) “The approach stresses the importance of the paragraph as the basic unit of written expression and is therefore mainly concerned to teach students how to construct and organize paragraphs”. In fact, it attempts to make the students concern with the conventions of writing through a model, before they get their final draft. Before the advent of the communicative approach, language teaching was concerned with pre-specified objectives for the learners. Their needs were carefully identified, and the syllabus designers had to provide the means that would enable these needs to be realized. The product approach was a means-to–an-end, and the teaching of writing was language focused. Since the far past, writing was viewed as secondary and priority was given to speaking. The emphasis was on correctness and copying models. White (1988:6) points out that “such a
model-based approach remains popular in EAP for one very good reason—much EAP writing is very product-oriented, since the conventions governing the organization and expressions of ideas are very tight”. Thus, the learner has to become thoroughly familiarized with these conventions and must learn to operate within them. It would seem to make sense, therefore, to adopt a model-based tradition when teaching students such conventions. The interest of such an approach is in the correct use of form. Naturally, the role of the model is important in the sense that it leads the students from a point of departure to an end with a task to replicate. The model then comes first and shows a competed text as well. “What the model does not demonstrate is how the original writer arrived at that particular product. In other words, it gives no indication of process”.

Another explicit description of the product approach is proposed by Pincas (1984:5) who sees writing as “being primarily about linguistic knowledge, with attention focused on the appropriate use of vocabulary, syntax, and cohesive devices”. She identifies four stages in the approach: “familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing”. She explains that the teacher introduces a topic or uses guides provided by a textbook, discusses them and maybe provokes a little class discussion and then explains how students are going to write a composition based on them. Then, the students would be invited to write before handing their writings to the teacher. The teacher grades the composition and makes some comments on the paper focusing on form rather than on content. Such an approach is thoroughly teacher-centered.

The advantages of the product approach can not be denied since it supplies the learners with the essential linguistic knowledge. It recognizes and satisfies the students’ needs in terms of rules and structures. A model text gives a clear idea about the organization of words and sentences. After all, imitation is one efficient way among others through which we can learn, and under some particular circumstances there is no other way except imitation to communicate some special structures. Despite the fore-mentioned advantages, Escholz (1980: 232) criticized the model-based approach pointing out that “models tend to be too long and too remote from the students’ own writing problems”. He argued that such detailed analytical work encourages students to see form as a mould into which content is somehow poured. In general, Escholz views the imitation of models as being “stultifying and inhibiting writers rather than empowering them or liberating them”. Generally, in this
approach, models of writing are given to students and then asked to imitate these examples. So, the attention is paid to students’ writing as a final product as well as grammatical and linguistic accuracy. This approach is primarily concerned with "correctness" and form of the final product. Moreover, this approach fails to recognize that people write for an audience and for a purpose and that ideas are created and formulated during the process of writing. This notion is adopted by the process approach to teaching writing.

2.4.2 Process Approach

This approach sees writing as a communicative act. It helps students understand the discourse constraints and develop audience awareness. Here the focus on meaning content rather than form. The teaching of writing is moved away from concentrating on written product to an emphasis on writing as a developmental process. Badger and White (2000: 157) state that “the main advantages are that they (learners) understand importance of the skills involve in writing, and recognize that what learners bring to the writing classroom contributes to the development of writing abilities”.

However, the process-oriented approach emphasizes that writing itself is a developmental process that creates self-discovery and meaning. While the mechanical aspects of writing are important, they should not interfere with the composing process. This composing process requires much revision and rewriting. The teacher intervenes and guides students during the composing process but initially does not emphasize "correctness" and the final product; the emphasizes on "correctness" and the final product comes only towards the very end of the writing process (and, often, a major concern with "correctness" is put off until towards the middle or even end of the writing course). Instead of worrying about form, students concentrate on conveying a written message.

2.4.3 Genre Approach

In the field of second language writing, ‘The Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning’ has defined the genre approach as “a framework for language instruction” and “It is based on examples of a particular genre. By framework is meant guiding students. The genre framework supports students’ writing with guiding principles about how to produce meaningful passages,” (Byram: 2004:234). But first, what is a genre? Swales (1990:58) referred to genre as “a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes”. His definition offers the
basic idea that there are certain conventions or rules which are generally associated with a writer’s purpose. For example, personal letters tell us about their writers’ private stories. Most genres use conventions related to communicative purposes; a personal letter starts with a cordial question in a friendly mood because its purpose is to maintain good relationships with friends, and an argument essay emphasizes its thesis since it aims at making an argument.

Traditionally, genres were seen as fixed types of development classified into categories and subcategories. For example, exposition, argument, description, and narratives were considered as the large categories, with sub-types such as definition, cause and contrast, business letter etc (Freedman and Medway, 1994). Thus, in the traditional view of genres, teaching genres means teaching textual regularities in form and content of each genre; i.e. teaching the rules that govern each type of development. The positive sides of the genre approach are that it acknowledges that writing takes place in a social situation and is a reflection of a particular purpose, and it understands that learning can happen consciously through imitation and analysis. It is important for writing teachers to connect these two elements in order to help students understand how and why linguistic conventions are used for particular rhetorical effects. Because genres reflect a cultural ideology, the study of genres additionally opens for students an awareness of the assumption of groups who use specific genres for specific ends.

Using the most effective approach to teaching EFL writing is insufficient if learners do not practice adequate writing. Writing is a skill acquired only through practice. It is, like dance and sport, an activity that could be improved only through practice (Andrews, 1999), and through “the exposure to written texts in a natural process of communication rather than grammatical and rhetorical rules on writing” (Leki, 1992:17). Therefore, EFL learners do not need more work with language but rather with writing. However, this practice requires that EFL learners have at least some linguistic competence because competence in the organization of written discourse develops late (El-Shafie, 1990). This is why many EFL student writers spend a long time looking for the words they need to express already existing ideas in mind. To conclude, the three approaches to teaching writing are undoubtedly useful; however, the researcher believes that every teaching
situation is unique. In other words, writing instructors should select the writing approaches that work well with their students or they may make use of eclectic method.

2.5 Contrasting Writing and Speech

As writing and speech seem to be different in fundamental ways, strong intuitions about the kinds of language use appropriate to different channels have been designed, all language teachers are familiar with this way of dividing up language. Most syllabuses gave spoken and written elements. Course books are often developed to one skill, and many teachers are assigned classroom roles which focus on either ‘speaking’ or ‘writing’. Therefore, the researcher in this part of the study tries to shed some light in the area of the differences between writing and speech—known also as ‘productive skills’.

Differences between writing and speech are generally attributed to the distinct functions that both have evolved to perform. Halliday (1976:57) in discourse be written—text or spoken, the function of creating some sort of interaction between the writer/speaker from a side and reader/listener from the other side. In the attempt of establishing what make the difference between writing and speech, a variety of two opposite opinions has emerged. One maintains the favor of writing over speech, while the other advocates the speech. Thus, for further clarification the main differences between writing and speech are quoted as stated by Byrne (1988:3).
Table (2: 1) the main differences between writing and speech by Byrne (1988:3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speech</th>
<th>Writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Takes place in a context, which often makes references clear (e.g. that thing over there).</td>
<td>1. Creates its own context and therefore has to be fully explicit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Speakers and listeners in contact. Interact and exchange roles.</td>
<td>2. Reader not present and no interaction possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Usually person addressed is specific.</td>
<td>3. Reader not necessarily known to writer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Immediate feedback given and expected.</td>
<td>4. No immediate feedback possible. Writer may try to anticipate reader’s reactions and incorporate them its text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(a) Verbal: questions, comments … murmurs, grunts.</td>
<td>5. Writing is permanent. Can be re-read as often necessary and at own speed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Non-verbal: facial expressions.</td>
<td>6. Sentence expected to be carefully constructed, and linked and organized to form a text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Speech is transitory. Intended to be understood immediately. If not, listener expected to interact.</td>
<td>7. Devices to help convey meaning are punctuation, capitals and underlining (for emphasis). Sentence boundaries clearly indicated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Sentences often incomplete and sometimes ungrammatical. Hesitations and passes common and usually some redundancy and repetition.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Range of devices (stress, intonation, pitch, speed) to help convey meaning. Facial expressions, body movements and gestures also used for this purpose.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in the above table, there are many differences between writing and speaking, from these differences at the part of speaking speakers usually make incomplete sentences with repetition and redundancy while writers are expected to use well constructed and organized sentences. Each skill uses different devices to convey meaning, for example speech uses stress, intonation as well as facial expressions whereas writing has devices such as punctuation, capitals and underlining. Taking into account the subject of the study, further details of writing skills may be tackled in the coming lines.

2.6 Writing Skills

Writing skills could be defined as the ability to communicate thoughts and ideas into structured patterns, in order to help readers understand what is meant by writing, (El-habiri:2013:22). Thus, EFL students need to be able to express themselves in coherent and organized sentences to form a meaningful whole. It is worth providing some details on both levels of writing, namely, content and form.
### 2.6.1 Content and Form Levels

Writing includes both what is said (content) and how it is said (form). It embodies different cognitive features of the writer which are addressed to specific readers, not necessarily to share the same viewpoints, but at least to convince or provide them an acceptable writing despite the distance between them, (Brooks: 1960:167). Oshima and Hogue (1990:2) point out:

> “Whenever you write, consider your specific audience, that is, the people who will read what you have written. Knowing your audience will help you to communicate clearly and effectively. In academic writing, your audience is primarily your professors and instructors”.

In this respect, Hedge (1991) views that ‘less’ skilled writers are those who tend to produce ‘writer based’ rather than ‘reader based’ prose i.e. they tend to focus on the topic at the expense of the reader. As a result, this later will face difficulties in comprehending the ideas and the arguments presented. A discourse can not be comprehensible unless it is characterized by cohesion and coherence. Cohesion is only a guide to coherence and coherence is something created by the reader in the act of reading the text. It is the feeling that a text hangs together and that it makes sense, and not a jumble of sentences,(McCarthy:1996:26).

At the content level, coherence should be achieved. Coherence refers to the logical relationship between the different parts of the discourse, namely, the relationships between ideas in the text that create a meaningful discourse. Moreover, it enables readers to move from one sentence to the other, without feeling that there are any missing points. In this concern, the writers’ opinions, perspectives and reference to previously mentioned ideas that are newly introduced should be relevant, (Bani, Salama and Fatihi 2010:101-110). Johnstone (2002:101) notices that the ability of people to interpret any set of sentences as a coherent text even if they know there is no relation at all between them. She indicates that any decision we take about textuality is not based purely on the structure of the text but there are situational cues that help us interpret discourse.

At the form level, more attention should be paid to cohesion. The term cohesion is treated by Halliday and Hasan (1976), this is referred to by Johnstone (2002:101) and Brown and Yule (1988:192). They said that the primary determinant of whether a set of
sentences do or do not constitute a text depends on the cohesive relationships within and between the sentences. Cohesion is then, those lexical and grammatical elements in the text which can create connections between parts of it (Tanskanes, 2006). Halliday (1978) notes that cohesion could not be discussed without mentioning ‘text’, ‘texture’ and ‘tie’. Text is generally used in linguistics to refer to written or spoken stretches that form unified whole rather than isolated sentences. Halliday and Hasan (1976) propose that the language of the text should follow a linear sequence, in which each line of the text follows and links the previous one. This means that there are certain features that characterize a text and distinguish it from something that is not a text. A text has texture which makes any length of text meaningful and coherent i.e. it is the basis for text unity. Here organization is important; it refers to the logical arrangement of sentences and paragraphs, in order to coherently express ideas for the reader. Students need to state the main idea in the topic sentence, to tell the reader what the paragraph is about. Then, it should be supported by different examples and details that have a single focus. This helps the reader move smoothly from one idea to the other. So for a text to have texture, it must include ties that link it together. The concept of ties then are those items which turn the separation of clauses, sentences and paragraphs into units of related prose, making the relationship between ideas and clarifying the meaning the writer is trying to communicate (Zamel, 1983).

### 2.6.1.1 Reference
Reference is one of the options that grammar of English offers to create surface links between sentences. Halliday and Hassan (1976) state that there are some items that cannot be semantically interpreted without referring to some other items in the text. The most common linguistic elements as referring devices in a textual environment are pronouns. However, there are other linguistic elements used to fulfill the same function, such as: articles, demonstratives and comparatives.

### 2.6.1.2 Substitution
In substitution, an item is replaced by another item in order to avoid repetition, the sentence “did you come yesterday? Yes, I did” is a good example of substitution. The word “did” is a substitution for “came yesterday”. Items commonly used in substitution in English include: “do”, “one” and “the same”.

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2.6.1.3 Ellipsis

Ellipsis, on the other hand, involves the omission of part of sentences on the assumption that an earlier sentence will make the meaning clear Akindele (2011: 102). E.g. my kids practice lot of sport. Both are incredibly energetic. In this example, “my kids” is omitted.

2.6.1.4 Conjunctions

Another type of cohesion is conjunction which is used to show the relationship between clauses and paragraphs. Osisanwo (2005) identifies the following conjunctive types: Coordinating like: and, but, because...etc / continuative: anyway, well...etc compound adverbs: furthermore, moreover....etc / subordinating: although, since…etc. Wagner (2002:43) states some transitional words and phrases that help writers organize their ideas.

**Transitional Words and Phrases, adapted from Wagner, (2002:43).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizing Principle</th>
<th>Transitional words Or Phrases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Order of Importance</td>
<td>First, second, third, in addition, moreover, furthermore, more importantly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chronological</td>
<td>then, before, as, since, later, during, when, until, while, first, second, third, next, after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td>beside, around, beyond, under, next to, above, behind, near, along, below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause and Effect</td>
<td>therefore, so, consequently, because, as a result</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>likewise, similarly, just as, like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>on the other hand, unlike, rather, however, but, on the contrary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduce an Example</td>
<td>for example, in other words, in fact, for instance, that is, specifically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Show Addition</td>
<td>and, again, in addition moreover, also, furthermore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Show Emphasis</td>
<td>indeed, in fact, certainly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledge another Point of View</td>
<td>Though, despite, although</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The transitional words and phrases mentioned in this table can be used by writers to ensure the arrangements of thoughts, the relationship between parts of the writing, and the relationship between parts to the whole. They help consistency of the thoughts.
2.6.1.4 Lexical Cohesion

The last type identified by Halliday and Hasan (1976) is lexical cohesion. It is defined as cohesion that is created via the use of vocabulary and it is the central device that makes a text hangs together. Lexical cohesion has two subclasses: Reiteration and collocation. Lexical reiteration consists of three categories: repetition of the same word (people, people), use of synonym (meal, food) and use of a super ordinate (car, vehicle). Collocation, on the other hand, involves the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur, e.g. Order/obey, joke/laugh beach/waves/sand/swim....etc. Besides, punctuations play a vital role in clearing the meaning and separating the structural units of language. Thus, it is worth mentioning the functions of these marks in the following lines.

2.7 Punctuation

According to Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary (1993:1216) punctuation is “The act of practice of interest standardized marks or signs in written matter to clarify the meaning and separate structural units”. As a matter of fact the significance of teaching punctuation marks comes as a result of the vital role played by these marks in paring and facilitating the way of understanding the written texts easily and smoothly. On contrary lack of putting stress and emphasis on teaching the marks will definitely appear in an ill–written text. The following marks constitute the most known and usable punctuation marks in written language.

- Period (or full stop).
- comma.
- Semi colon.
- Colon.
- Apostrophe.
- ’ Quotation marks, single [or chiefly Birt inverted commas].
- “ ” Quotation marks double [or chiefly Brit inverted commas].
- « » Guillemots.
- ? Question marks, double [or interrogation point].
- ! Exclamation point.
- / slash.
In FL/SL learning and teaching linguists have strong believe that areas like handwriting, punctuation and layout have a lot to do with any final written product. The three elements create a negative impression on the reader of the text. Punctuation constitutes a principal factor in the EFL structure. For foreign learners punctuation marks play a facilitative element for their understanding the relative complexity of English syntax Karadawi (1990:96). Punctuation significance in text writing is not less important than spelling. Although modern linguistics does not give much concern to punctuation–as it is clear in the scarcity of research on the subject. The language properly has a lot of important in the EFL text writing. It arranges the language written components in a way that conveys the intentions of the writer clearly.

In the spoken language pauses and repetitions represent verbal punctuation marks that regulate parts of meaning to facilitate human written communication especially in the EFL composition. The focus on the spoken language in the current time has prevented researchers from including into EFL writing investigations including punctuation (they consider writing with its subsidiaries of secondary importance giving primary to speech. From another angle Hago and Idress (2005:39) state “if there were no marks of punctuation, sentences may be hopeless jumbles. We would not be able to communicate ideas so that others could understand exactly what we were trying to convey”. So a quick comparison between a punctuated piece of prose and an unpunctuated one certainly validates its significance. After discussing the content and form levels of writing, the second part may essentially be stages of writing.

2.8 Writing Stages

Brumfit (1984:86) states that “It is generally held that learners should first master the language system in a mechanical way and only then hope to branch out on their own”. Thus, writing skills need a process which has four stages. Oshima and Hogue (1990) mention them as follows:

1. Pre writing Stage,
2. Planning (Outlining),
3. Writing and Revising Draft and
4. Writing the final draft.

2.8.1 Pre-writing

It is the first stage in the writing process. Two steps are taken into consideration, the first one is to choose and narrow the topic and the second one is to gather ideas; brainstorming. The most important part of pre-writing stage is discovering ideas, for writing, it was mentioned that the most effective pre-writing, techniques not only help discovering ideas, but also supporting learner to focus on topic and also inspiring him/her to begin writing about it. The nature of each writing assignment can help deciding which types of pre-writing technique will be most useful. For example, before writing technique short report, the person needs to read magazine articles, take notes, and make outline. In contrast, pre-writing activities for writing a poem might include different skills, such as observing, imaging, clustering or using own senses, to see, hear, smell, taste or touch something, (Winterowed and Murray:1985:3).

Regardless of type of writing tasks, the teacher might favour assigning; a good place to begin class–work is to explore the pre-writing stage, the stage prior to actual production of a working text. Because there is no one composing process, the goal of the teacher should be to expose students to a variety of strategies for getting started with a writing task and to encourage them to try to discover which strategies work best. It is worth mentioning some strategies and techniques that suit this stage:

2.8.1.1 Brain Storming

Brain storming carried the notion of the ability as well as the students’ readiness to generate as many ideas they afford. One way to structure this (brain storming) is for the
teacher to suggest abroad topic, such as reasons for choosing a particular academic major, and have the students call out as many associations as possible, which the teacher can then write them down on the board. The result would be far more materials generated than any one student is likely to think of on his/her own, and then all students can utilize any or all of the information when turning to the preparation of their first draft, (Kroll: 1990: 122).

2.8.1.2 Clustering

Clustering is a pre-writing method, in which a student brainstorm on a subject and writes his ideas in clusters or groups. Clustering is also valuable in focusing ideas and narrowing a topic, for if the writer i.e. the student who made the previous word cluster tried to include all the details, from the cluster in a composition, no doubt the composition would be too general.

2.8.1.3 Questioning

Questioning is another effective pre-writing technique. For example, reporters often use the basic who? What? When? Where? , why? And how? questions to gather information. This technique consists of five basic questions that focus on action, actors, scene, method, and reason. These basic questions presumably lead to other questions.

Peterson (1985:47) suggests that activities such as brainstorming, clustering, lists, and first thoughts are helpful both in encouraging communication in class and as pre-writing activities.

2.8.2 Planning (outlining)

At this stage students need to organize their ideas (that were generated by brainstorming) into an outline.

2.8.3 Writing and Revising Draft

It is the stage of composing the draft, the writer needs different steps such as: writing the first rough draft, and proofreading.

According to AL. Sadig (1989:41) for any piece of writing to be sound clear, fluent and effective, eight requirements must be met:

1- Purpose: i.e. the reason for writing.
2- Audience.
3- The writing processes, i.e. generating ideas, getting started, preparing drafts and revising.

4- Organization, i.e. paragraphing, topic and support, cohesion and unity.

5- Content, i.e. relevance, clarity, originality and logic.

6- Syntax, i.e. sentence structure, sentence boundaries, stylistic choices.

7- Grammar, i.e. rules of verb agreement articles and pronouns.

8- Mechanics, i.e. handwriting, spelling and punctuation.

Because there is not one composing process, the goal of the teacher should be to expose students to a variety of strategies for getting started with a writing task and to encourage each student to try to discover which strategies (in which circumstances) work best for him/her. According to AL. Sadig (1989:41) in Raimes (1983: 6) “A student who is given the time for the process to work, along with the appropriate feedback from readers such as the teacher or other students, will discover new ideas, new sentences, and new words as he plans, writes first draft, and revises what he has written for a second draft”.

Students also need to learn the styles and formats for a variety of writing purposes, and the grammatical and lexical terms relevant to those purpose as well. In addition, they need to be trained to act as an audience for other writers and to comment on the logicality, factualness, and appropriateness of what a writer puts down on paper as well as the form in which he (the writer) does it. Hedge, (1991:97) states “first good writers concentrate on the overall meaning and organization of a text, and engage in planning activities.” This will involve thinking about the purpose of the writing, for example, a letter of complaint about poor service, or a letter to inform friends about a daughter wedding. The particular purpose implies an organization for writing and style appropriate for the readers: The letter of complaint would have formal conventions of layout and be in a serious disapprobatory style. The letter to friends would be informal, expressive, probably colloquial, and a mixture of description and comment”.

2.8.4 Writing

It is the last and final stage in the writing process. Writers have to rework the written drafts into a final form and then polish them for presentation or publication. This stage includes: revising and proofreading.
2.8.4.1 Revising

Revising means ‘making changes in the content of writing’. The word revision literally means “seeing again” while revising, students may decide to change words, rewrite sentences, omit unnecessary information, adds specific details, recognize paragraph, or write new introductory paragraph. Revision may mean making a few minor changes, or it may involve rewriting the entire piece on a more specific topic. While revising it is better focusing on communicating ideas clearly and organizing them logically, (Winterowed and Murry: 1985: 15).

2.8.4.2 Proofreading

Proofreading is the final step of the third stage of the writing process, i.e. post writing. Proofreading means checking a piece of writing for errors in spelling, grammar, and mechanics, (Winterowed and Murry: 1985: 9). The intended purpose of proofreading is reaching the correctness of the written text be composition, summary etc. So proofreading focuses on correctness. Proofreading can be carried out by the learner himself or may ask another person to do so, the tangible value of the other proofreading is that, the person i.e. a teacher or text reader may catch errors that miss by the learner. Furthermore, Oshima and Hogue (2005:2) point out that:

“When you first write something down, you have already been thinking about what you are going to say and how you are going to say it. Then after you have finished writing, you read over what you have written and make changes and corrections. Therefore, writing is never a one step action; it is a process that has several steps”.

Thus, the different writing stages are expected to contribute in developing and strengthening students’ thinking skills, because they engage them in processes such as: connecting, analyzing and evaluating ideas.

2.9 Literary and Non-Literary Texts

Before discussing the distinction between literary and non-literary texts, it may be essential to explain what is meant by the word ‘text’. According to the Oxford Advanced Learners’ dictionary (2000) a ‘text’ is defined as the author’s original words (Honly, 2000). Moreover, the text is not only the written form of the language but also the spoken one. Texts were initially perceived as organized units that consist of morphs syntactically and
semantically related utterances unified thematically as well. Later, the notion of textuality started to be elaborated; De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) define it in terms of communicative function the text is supposed to realize.

In the academic world, writing is not only used for the manifestation of language system but also it is used for communication. A text derives its communicative value from its conformity to the following standards of communication: cohesion, Coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality.

To achieve its communicative purposes, the text should not be just a mere sequence of sentences linked together, but a sequence of units, sentences or parts of sentences, connected in some contextually appropriate ways (ibid). De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) sum up the above standards as follows:

i. Cohesion: refers to the surface relations obtaining among the sentences and clauses that create a text.

ii. Coherence: it is responsible for organizing and understanding texts at different levels, starting from the clause to the larger discourse elements.

iii. Intentionality: it concerns the text producer’s attitudes in providing a text that fulfils the procedures intentions, and communicates the message to be conveyed. Intended goals are not achieved without cohesion and coherence.

iv. Acceptability: it concerns the text receiver attitudes that the text should provide him/her relevant details and abilities to perceive information that is worth accepting.

v. Informativity: it refers to information presented in the text, whether it is known or not to the text receiver. The level of informativity should not be so complicated or so low in order to not hinder communication or create boredom and rejection of the text.

vi. Situationality: it refers to the factors that make up a text relevant to a situation of occurrence; the situation in which the text is presented provides a context that influences how text receivers will interpret it.

vii. Intertextuality: refers to the factors that make the use of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or more previously encountered texts. Prior knowledge in this case helps the receiver understand the intended message. Generally speaking, non-
literary texts are characterized by precision, while literary texts are vague and leave a wide scope for different interpretations (ibid).

Brumfit and Carter (1986:06) state that “there is no language that is exclusively concerned with literature but there are rather some uses of language which are more or less literary than others” what they refer to as ‘literariness’. However, although it has been maintained that literary texts are characterized by features such as ‘literariness’ which differs from non-literary texts, Rosenblat (1978) stated that differentiating between the two kinds of texts is not accepted, since the same text may be read either efferently or aesthetically” (qtd in Kramch (1993:124). Efferent reading is the readers’ ability to retrieve the meaning of words i.e. the reader is not interested in the rhythms of the language or the prose style, but is focused on obtaining a piece of information. While in aesthetic reading, the reader goes beyond the meaning which the words convey to include the feelings, attitudes and ideas they refer to.

2.10 Features of Literary Texts

Literary texts can foster learners’ motivation to read and write and consequently their overall reading and writing proficiency. Gajdusek (1988) explains two features of literary text: internal coherence and conscious patterning.

1. Internal Coherence: it makes the literary text as a means for developing communicative competence in learners. Each line has a relationship with other lines in order to create an internally coherent meaning, this will help readers interpret and negotiate meaning. Literally, the word cohere means to hold together, a paragraph is said to have coherence when its sentences are woven together or flow into each other. If the paragraph is coherent the reader moves easily from one sentence to the next without feeling that there are gaps in the thought, puzzling jumps, or points not made. (McCrimmon: 1967:120). A paragraph is said to be characterized by ‘unity’ and ‘coherence’ when all its sentences are related to a single point represented by a topic sentence, and when each sentence follow the other in a logical order by using some transition.

2. Conscious Patterning: Literary texts are characterized by recurring patterns of sounds, meanings and structures. By exploring and discovering those patterns, the reader starts interacting with the text (reader-text interaction) and develops his/her
communicative as well as interactive competence. Moreover, literary texts use the language to create a real or an imaginary world. Conversations and symbols for instance are used to describe different emotions and different responses to life situations. This will open the possibility for learners to express their own opinions, feelings and interpretations, hence, develop their overall writing performances. According to Musalat (2012) literary texts are used as a source and an agent of knowledge, where one can learn the beauty and the richness of the language. Moreover, Ibnian (2010) and Neranjani (2011) summarize some main characteristics of literary text elements, namely, features of plot, theme, characters, setting and style as follows:

i. Plot: the structure and sequence of events that are related to each other to make up the story.

ii. Theme: the underlying meaning of the literary texts and the main idea or message.

iii. Characters: the individuals that the writing is typically based upon, in a story line.

iv. Setting: Generally refers to the location of the literary text; it is the time frame and place that help define the situation in which the work takes place.

v. Style: is the form the author uses, or "how" things are said. It can involve word choice and language usage that convey the writer's ideas in a particular way: imagery, metaphor, symbol and sound devices such as alliteration, rhyme, rhythm, etc, may be use.
2.11 Reasons for Using Literary Texts in Foreign Language Classes

According to Collie and Slater (1987:3-5), there are four main reasons which lead a language teacher to use literature in the classroom. These are valuable authentic material, cultural enrichment, language enrichment and personal involvement.

1. Valuable Authentic Material: In a classroom context, learners are exposed to actual language samples of real life / real life like settings. Literature can act as a beneficial complement to such materials, especially when the first “survival” level has been passed. In reading literary texts, because students have also to cope with language intended for native speakers, they become familiar with many different linguistic forms, communicative functions and meanings (ibid:4).

2. Cultural Enrichment: Literature is perhaps best regarded as a complement to other materials used to develop the foreign learner’s understanding into the country whose language is being learned. Also, literature adds a lot to the cultural grammar of the learners (ibid: 4).

3. Language Enrichment: Literature provides learners with a wide range of individual lexical or syntactic items. Students become familiar with many features of the written language, reading a substantial and contextualized body of text. They learn about the syntax and discourse functions of sentences, the variety of possible structures, and the different ways of connecting ideas, which develop and enrich their own writing skills. Students also become more productive and adventurous when they begin to perceive the richness and diversity of the language they are trying to learn and begin to make use of some of that potential themselves. Thus, they improve their communicative and cultural competence in the authentic richness, naturalness of the authentic texts (ibid: 5).

4. Personal Involvement: Literature can be useful in the language learning process owing to the personal involvement it fosters in the reader. Once the student reads a literary text, he begins to inhabit the text.

In addition to the above mentioned reasons, Maley (1989:12) lists some reasons for regarding the use of literature as a powerful resource in the classroom context. These factors are: universality, non-triviality, personal relevance, variety, interest, economy and suggestive power and ambiguity. It would be beneficial to tackle these factors as follows:
a) Universality: Because we are all human beings, the themes literature deals with are common to all cultures despite their different way of treatment - Death, Love, Separation, Belief, Nature ... the list is familiar. These experiences all happen to human beings.

b) Non-triviality: Many of the more familiar forms of language teaching inputs tend to trivialize texts or experience. Literature does not trivialize or talk down since it is about things which mattered to the author when he/she wrote them. Thus, it may offer genuine as well as merely “authentic” inputs.

c) Personal Relevance: Since the literary text deals with ideas, things, sensations and events which can either constitute part of the readers’ experience or which readers can enter into imaginatively and consequently able to relate them to their own lives.

d) Variety: Literature includes all possible varieties of subject matter. It is, in fact, a battery of topics to use in ELT. Within literature, we can find the language of law and of mountaineering, of medicine and of bull-fighting, of church sermons and nursery talk; in short, a literary text includes a wide range of language variety which writers may utilize to promote their writing proficiency.

e) Interest: Literature deals with themes and topics which are intrinsically interesting as they are part of the human experience, and treats them in ways designed to engage the readers’ attention.

f) Economy and suggestive power: One of the great strengths of literature is its suggestive power. Even in its simplest forms, it invites us to go beyond what is said to what is implied. Since it suggests many ideas with few words, literature is ideal for generating language discussion. Maximum output can often be derived from minimum input.

g) Ambiguity: As it is highly suggestive and associative, literature speaks subtly different meanings to different people. It is rare for two readers to react identically to any given text. In teaching, this has two advantages. The first advantage is that each learner’s interpretation has validity within limits. The second advantage is that an almost infinite fund of interactive discussion is guaranteed since each person’s perception is different. That no two readers will have a completely convergent
interpretation establishes the tension that is necessary for a genuine exchange of ideas.

Apart from the above mentioned reasons for using literature in the foreign language class, one of the main functions of literature is its sociolinguistic richness. The use of language changes from one social group to another. Likewise, it changes from one geographical location to another. A person speaks differently in different social contexts like school, hospital, police station and theatre (i.e. formal, informal, casual, frozen, intimate styles speech). The language used changes from one profession to another (i.e. doctors, engineers, and economists use different terminology). To put it differently, since literature provides students with a wide range of language varieties like sociolect regional dialects, jargon, idiolects etc., it develops their sociolinguistic competence in the target language. Hence, incorporating literature into a foreign language teaching program gains importance as it is a powerful source for reflecting the sociolinguistic aspects of the target language.

2.12 Why Short Story?

According to Power (1986: 321) short stories are interesting, the students enjoy them and teacher's attention also is engaged, so the teachers and students are interested in stories and like to talk about them. This process raises classroom discussion and broadens sharing the ideas. Short fiction is a supreme resource for observing not only language but life itself as characters act out all the real and symbolic acts people carry out in their daily lives, and is done in a variety of registers and tones. The world of short fiction both mirrors and illuminates human lives (Sage 1987:43). EFL students may face limitation of vocabulary, poor grammar knowledge, lack of organizational competence and lack of information to support discussion. To overcome those problems, different language studies have shown that literary texts may provide a variety of content for language students, in order to exploit in their writing. Moreover, Povey (Cited in Pardede: 2012:16) argues that:

Containing real examples of grammatical structures and vocabulary items, the literary texts raise learners’ awareness of the range of the target language and advance their competence in all language skills.

Short stories are generally defined as brief works of fiction that generally focus on one or two main characters that face a single problem or conflict. The term story refers to the traditional myths and legends, modern stories, anecdotes, personal stories, the reporting of
real events...etc. Murdock (2002) indicates that based on short stories, teachers can create a variety of writing activities. These activities can help students develop their writing skills, since the short story is considered as “*easy for students to follow the story line of the work*” (ibid: 17).

The stories selected should not be so complex i.e. they should suit students’ level and not discouraging them while reading. In addition, they need to provide examples of different grammatical structure and vocabulary as well as guarantee opportunities for the integration of the four language skills (Pathan and El-dersi, 2013). Moreover, Erkaya (2005) asserts that short stories help students to learn the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing more effectively, because of the motivational benefits embedded in the stories. On the other hand, Pathan and El-dersi (2013:04) state that:

*Short stories are considered as highly useful resource material in EFL classrooms as they provide rich linguistic input, effective stimuli, for students to express themselves in other languages, and a potential source of learner motivation.*

In addition to that, students will benefit from short stories by learning new ideas and knowledge; they will develop an awareness of how language works in communication. Elliott (1990:198) notes that: “*Literature provides students with an incomparably rich source of authentic material*”. Thus, an appropriate choice of short stories will provide learners with different features of the written language i.e. sentence structure, form variety and different ways of connecting ideas. Moreover, they will extend learners’ awareness about language use.

In brief, the use of a short story seems to be a very helpful technique in today foreign language classes. As it is short, it makes the students’ reading task and the teachers’ coverage easier. An important feature of short fiction is its being universal. To put it differently, students all over the world have experienced stories and can relate to them. Moreover, short fiction, like all other types of literature, makes contribution to the development of cognitive analytical abilities by bringing the whole self to bear on a compressed account of a situation in a single place and moment (Sage 1987:43).

This reason, that short stories are the most suitable literary genre to use in English teaching due to its shortness, is supported by Collie and Slater (1991) when they list four advantages of using short stories for language teachers. First, short stories are practical as their length
is long enough to cover entirely in one or two class sessions. Second, they claim that short stories are not complicated for students to work with on their own. The third advantage of the short stories, Collie and Slater indicate, is that they have a variety of choice for different interests and tastes (ibid: 196). Also, Widdowson (1992:54) gives one reason for incorporating short stories on the syllabus as he maintains that short stories are “protected by some vague notion, that like religious education, it is somehow morally uplifting and good for the soul”. Students, in short story, response and analyze its elements as Zyngier (1988: 22) states that “students in short story can concentrate in depth on the piece under study and analyze its tiniest logical elements as a part of the whole”. It is true to say that its prominence has diminished of late but it is still there in schools for language and enjoyment. And in universities it remains a very weighty presence, sustained; it would seem, not so much by any cogent rationale inertia of convention. Widdowson (1992:74) argues that literary prose can be pitched at EFL context “to develop some of the reading and writing skills which can be directed to practical purposes”. Also, the short story as one form of literature is universally valid as Prasad (1953: 229) sees it as follows: “The short story will long continue to meet the needs of authors and readers alike and find new materials for its special purpose in a constantly changing world.”

According to Arıoğul (2001:11-18) the inclusion of short fiction in the ESL/ EFL curriculum offers the following educational benefits it:

1. makes the students’ reading task easier due to being simple and short when compared with the other literary genres,
2. enlarges the advanced level readers worldviews about different cultures and different groups of people,
3. provides more creative, encrypt, challenging texts that require personal exploration supported with prior knowledge for advanced level readers,
4. motivates learners to read due to being an authentic material,
5. offers a world of wonders and a world of mystery,
6. gives students the chance to use their creativity, promotes critical thinking skills,
7. facilitates teaching a foreign culture (i.e. serves as a valuable instrument in attaining cultural knowledge of the selected community,
8. makes students feel themselves comfortable and free,
9. helps students coming from various backgrounds to communicate with each other because of its universal language,

10. helps students to go beyond the surface meaning and dive into underlying meanings, and acts as a perfect vehicle to help students understand the positions of themselves as well as the others by transferring these gained knowledge to their own world.

It is worth saying that the short story motivates the students to read, write, speak and listen creatively, besides, facilitating the communication between students coming from different backgrounds as it provides them with authentic and universal language. Referring to all these educational benefits, it may sound essential to conclude by saying that the short fiction can be used with all levels of students (beginner to advance), all ages (young learners to adults) and all classes. In brief, the use of a short story seems to be a very helpful technique in today foreign language classes. Thus, it is the job of syllabus designers and EFL teachers utilizing the short stories in the writing class to secure the learner’s writing competence and performance. For further clarification, some definitions of the short story might be stated in the following part, besides, indicating some of its old forms.

2.13 What is a Short Story?

It is noteworthy to define what a short story is in order to consider some aspects of the genre which will have some classroom implications. The name, actually, covers a great diversity of prose fiction, all the way from the short story, which is a slightly elaborated anecdote of perhaps 500 words, to such long and complex forms as Henry James’ “The Turn of the Scene” and Conrad’s “The Heart of Darkness”. These two works, for example, lie in between the highly control of the short story and the length of the novel. Such stories are called novelette. A number of definitions have been stated by practitioners and critics. For example, the short story is defined by Poe (in Abrams, 1970: 158) as follows: “a narrative that can be read at one sitting of from one-half hour to two hours, and that is limited to ‘a certain unique or single effect,’ to which every detail is subordinate.” Also Friedman (cited in Cross and Croft, 1996: 150-151) states two definitions of the term as follows:
1. A short story may be short because the material itself is narrow in its range or area of interest.

2. A short story may be short because although the material has a potentially broad range the writer cuts it down to focus on one aspect and maximize the story’s impact or artistic effect.

The implication of these definitions is that the content may be short or broad but it can be cut into one aspect. Lazar (1993: 73) cited some definitions of the short story as follows:

i. It is a work of fiction, so it involves the imagination.
ii. A short story tells one event in a very concentrated way.
iii. It’s about people who do not really exist.
iv. It describes something at a moment of crisis.
v. It has a plot, and characters who are somehow connected with each other.

The classroom implication of the above mentioned definitions is what to teach of the story to help students make meanings. Another definition of the short story is stated by Fisher (1984:22) as follows: “Symbolic actions, words, and/or deeds that have sequence and meaning for those who live to create or interpret them”. He argues that all human communication is a form of story telling. This definition supports the claim that stories are meaningful communication. Poe (cited in Abram, 1978:164) defines what he calls ‘the prose tale’ as a narrative that can be read in one sitting. Poe states that it is “limited to a certain unique or single effect to which every detail is subordinated”. The same view is expressed by Cross and Croft (1997:151) in that a short story “focuses on a single accident, moment in time, or experience”. This view expresses the economy of language management that distinguishes the short story. That is every word in it should contribute to its effect. The choice and the use of the language that the writers made is a key element in the effect that the story creates in the mind of the reader (student). The short story has developed in its form; from old form to the modern one. In the following lines some old forms would be mentioned with distinction between them.
2.14 Old Forms of the Short Story

There are some old forms that preceded the modern form of the short story; they are stated here with some distinction between them. Abram (1978) in his “A Glossary of Literary Terms” defines some old forms as follows:

- **Fable**: A short story that exemplifies a moral thesis or a principle of human behavior, usually in its conclusion either the narrator or one of the characters states moral in the form of an epigram (ibid: 6).
- **Allegory**: A narrative in which the agents and the actions and sometimes the settings as well are contrived not only to make sense in themselves but also signify a second correlated order of persons, things, concept or event (ibid: 4).
- **Parable**: A short narrative presented so as to stress the implicit but detailed analogy between its component parts, and thesis or lesson that the narrator is trying to bring home to us (ibid: 6).
- **Exemplum**: Story told as a particular instance of the general text of a sermon. The device was extremely popular in the middle Ages when extensive collection of exempla was prepared for use by preachers (ibid: 6).
- **Fabliau**: A short comic or satiric tale in verse dealing realistically with middle-class or lower-class characters and delighting in the ribald and the obscene (ibid: 60-61).

The old forms described above fall out of the scope of the study since they almost all focus on the normal or the lesson for which they are created and besides the language is outdated as a subject matter is no longer interesting. The author that is preferably selected for the purposes of linguistic analysis is succinctly described by Cross and Croft (1997:164) in the quote below:

“... begins his story close to, or even on the verge of the climax, minimizes both prior exposition and the details of the setting keeps the complication down and clears up the denouement quickly-sometimes in a few sentences”.

Accordingly, the story that is intended for linguistic stylistic analysis is the one which presents a few characters and can not afford the space for detailed description of the narrative structure and more importantly the text is coded in updated style, (Nugud: 2009:30). The short story that is intended for utilizing in language classroom may be expected to include some essential rationales and criteria.
2.15 The Rationale for Short Stories in EFL Context

Vincent and Carter (1986:215) in their essay “simple text and reading text” point to the appropriateness of using short story texts in language classroom:

*Stories are less daunting than novels simply by being shorter and they are usually easier that either place or poetry by being in prose. The success of relatively short text may lie in their combination of brevity and straightforward language. The comparative linguistic simplicity of these texts enables the learner to respond to them as works of literature not as reading puzzles.*

In elementary intermediate EFL contexts, short story texts are advocated as a source of language teaching materials because, according to Vincent and carter, they are short, easy and the learner can quickly respond to them linguistically and aesthetically. Pederson (1995:14) mentions some of the social, cultural and behavioral benefits that the students can gain from a short story class as follows:

“...students experience a vicarious feeling for the past and oneness with various cultures of the present as the gain insight into the motives and patterns of human behavior. Stories have numerous affective for social and emotional development”.

A part from the linguistic benefits of using short stories with students, short story has become very popular recently. It is not uncommon to see it used frequently in language classrooms (e.g. Nile course, spine series) to teach grammar and vocabulary. Parasad (1953:228) states the reason of the growing popularity of the short story as follows: “...perhaps the chief, being the many other demands upon the leisure of the reader, which in its turn has assisted the fast development of the magazine which contains several complete stories in one issue.”

2.15.1 Choosing Short Story

The use of short story in English teaching should be aimed to encourage the students to use what they have previously learnt. By doing this, the learning process will be student-centered. However, the teacher plays a great role. She/he must choose a suitable text to use in class, and should help her/his students understand the story with various activities. In using short stories to teach English, story selection is indeed one of the most important
roles of the teacher. Since the lengths of short-stories quite vary, choose a story short enough to handle within course hours. The shortness of the text is important for the students because they will see that they can read, understand and finish something in English, and it will give the students a feeling of achievement and self-confidence. Besides the length of the text, Hill (1986: 15) points out three other basic criteria of choosing the text:

(1) the needs and abilities of the students;

(2) the linguistic and stylistic level of the text;

(3) the amount of background information required for a true appreciation of material.

The importance of considering these criteria could be perceived by realizing that the vocabulary and sentence structure of the short-story to be studied must be suitable to the level of the students. The short-stories with archaic, slang, foreign words, and allusions, having sentences imitating the speech of a particular locality or ignorant people or foreigners should be avoided if the text is intended for students below intermediate level. Similarly, very long sentences are difficult for students to understand. As students will not understand these sentences and words, they will get bored and not read the work. Therefore, before giving the short story, the teacher should decide the readability of the text. In order to meet that readability criterion, using graded or simplified stories is possibly the most practical way.

According to Ur (1996: 150), “… the use of ‘authentic’ text with less proficient learners is often frustrating and counter-productive”. Therefore, the use of simplified text with less proficient readers is highly suggested for the sake of suiting the texts with the level of students. In addition to the previous criteria, Spack (1985) suggests the aspect of interest to be considered. According to him, it is important for the teacher to choose stories that would interest students that he/she most likes to read and teach, and that have been made into film to provide visual interpretation. McKay (1982: 322) and Rivers (1968: 230) point out that students read and enjoy a text if the subject-matter of the text is relevant to their life experience and interests. When selecting the literary texts to be used in language classes, the language teacher should take into account needs, motivation, interests, cultural background and language level of the students.
However, one major factor to take into account is whether a particular work is able to reveal the kind of personal involvement by arousing the learners’ interest and eliciting strong, positive reactions from them. Reading a literary text is more likely to have a long-term and valuable effect upon the learners’ linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge when it is meaningful and amusing. Choosing books relevant to the real-life experiences, emotions, or dreams of the learner is of great importance. Language difficulty has to be considered as well. If the language of the literary work is simple, this may facilitate the comprehensibility of the literary text but is not in itself the most crucial criterion. Interest, appeal, and relevance are also prominent. Enjoyment; a fresh insight into issues felt to be related to the heart of people’s concerns; the pleasure of encountering one’s own thoughts or situations exemplified clearly in a work of art; the other, equal pleasure of noticing those same thoughts, feelings, emotions, or situations presented by a completely new perspective: all these are motives helping learners to cope with the linguistic obstacles that might be considered too great in less involving material (Collie and Slater: 1987:6-7).

2.15.2 Reading Literary Texts

Reading can be defined as the process of acquiring information from a written or printed text, and relating it to what one already knows to construct a meaning from the text as a whole (Eskey, 2002). Moreover, reading literary texts can capture learners’ attention through offering them meaningful and an authentic material. For many students, literature can provide a key to motivating them to read in English. Literary texts are used as a vehicle to illustrate language use, and introduce the cultural background of the studying text. Langer (1997:607) points out that reading literature can open “horizons of possibility, allowing students to question, interpret, connect, and explore”. The literary text has different benefits on EFL students' achievements “because it taps what they know and who they are, literature is a particularly inviting context for learning both a second/foreign language and literacy” (ibid).

Reading literary texts provide learners with various ideas, vocabulary, grammar, paragraph structure, and different writing styles that help them improve their language proficiency. With information gathered through reading literary texts, students could probably acquire necessary cultural and language background that would explicitly or implicitly help them in
achieving their academic or occupational goals. Rosenblatt (1978) identifies two types of reading a text; the first one is aesthetic (more lexical, such as plot, theme or idioms...etc) and the second one is efferent (more of syntactic or grammar such as tenses, verbs, nouns...etc). EFL learners should choose between both types when reading a literary text. Thus, they need to develop certain reading strategies in order to read more quickly and more effectively. The following reading strategies are proposed by O’Malley and Chamot (1990) to help learners read and develop an adequate understanding of the text:

i. Inferring: the students tend to recognize the writer’s intention, perceive what is implicit, through making connections between the ideas being read and other ideas that are brought from outside the text and drawing conclusions.

ii. Scanning: students focus on locating specific information; looking for particular details such as: a name, a date, a phrase or certain types of words.

iii. Skimming: getting a general view of the text’s content, skipping unknown words and ignoring unnecessary details; to know how it is organized or to get an idea about the writer’s intention.

iv. Predicting and anticipating: prior information about the text will help students make guesses about what is coming next in the text.

v. Guessing: using prior knowledge about syntax, and the relationship between patterns to understand unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up in dictionaries.

vi. Paraphrasing: checking one’s own comprehension, students use their own words or different terms to rephrase ideas and information in the text.

vii. Summarizing: writing a summary of the passage main ideas and information.

viii. Visualizing: while reading, mental pictures or images are built to make connections between words being read, ideas and pictures they communicate.

ix. Self-questioning: students create questions, and then try to predict and search for answers to these questions.

When reading literary texts, students do not only interact with the language system (words and structures), but also with the language that carries and communicates a community’s ideas and practices through using words, metaphors, and forms that are common to this community. Mackay (1986:198) states that: “an interaction with a literary text depends on
a reader’s familiarity with the cultural assumption in it”. Thus, linguistic competence and reading strategies are not sufficient without the appropriate understanding of the socio-cultural aspects of a literary text i.e. students’ lack of the cultural background will lead to a misinterpretation of the text. Therefore, students fail to get the meaning and to express their ideas and thoughts in an appropriate way (Steffenson and Joag-dev, 1992). Thus, to make maximum utilizing of the short story in a language classroom requires an appropriate understanding of social and cultural aspects of the literary work as well as adequate linguistic knowledge and applicable reading strategies.

2.16 Approaches to Teaching Short Stories

The use of a short story text can be an efficient pedagogical tool in language classrooms. The thesis, however, attempts to describe some appropriate methods of teaching short stories and to provide a rationale for integrating language and literature on the basis that literature is language and language can indeed be literary. There are many approaches to teaching short stories. Some of these approaches and methods are traditional, and others are new. The examination-centred approach is considered to be one of the traditional practice in which the teacher translates passages and dictates notes (Littlewood, 1986). This approach ignores the deeper skills that students might gain from their confrontation with literature and literature examinations have become exercises in which credit is given for mere knowledge of content. The type of test in this approach is described by Wright (1993:6) as follows:

“The questions require the candidates to tell, describe, and narrate. It is perfectly possible for a candidate to gain excellent results from a test that me requires merely mechanical or even rote knowledge matter”.

It is no wonder such approaches have made the teaching of literature an inconsistent methodology for presentation to EFL students. Collie and Slater (1987) suggest that to justify the additional time and effort which will be needed for the students to come to grips with the analysis of the linguistic features of the story, there must be some incentives involved for more details. The specification of these features depends on the objectives of the lesson. These features (Carter and Mc Rae, 1996) do not refer to activities, entities and events in the external world rather they display and creatively pattern their discourse in such a way as to invite the reader to interpret how they represent the world of the story.
The first step towards interpretation and analysis is to encourage students to work at both discourse (above sentence) and language level. The students should be provided with some strategies for the study of the cohesion and the coherence of the text and they should also be given some techniques to develop the skill of interpreting the author’s style. To help students work at language level, Willis and Willis (2001) propose the use of a form-based approach. This approach can be applied by asking students to analyze the language into forms and then some models can be selected and presented to them to practice as series discrete items. The main difficulty with this approach, as Collie and Slater (1987:10), is that “Some learners may not yet possess the richness and subtlety of vocabulary and structure in which to couch their interpretation in the target language”.

Willis and Willis (2001:176) argue that when students are faced with the need to analyze the language in order to interpret and encode its meaning, they adopt new strategies to “refashion their language system to meet the new demands placed upon them”. Here teachers provide their students with more new procedures and techniques to involve them in forms analysis and meaning interpretation practice.

Another approach to teaching short stories is called language approach, it has been defined by Carter (1996) as student-centred and process oriented in classroom tasks to help students support their interpretation of a text by involving them in meaning making. This approach emphasizes a closer integration of language and literature in the classroom as this will help the learners in achieving their main aim which is to improve their knowledge of and proficiency in English. The approach has been strongly advocated since it involves the application of tried and tasted language teaching techniques and the familiarity of such procedures to EFL learners is not a difficulty. The reading should be interrupted at convenient intervals to do an exercise or part of an exercise.

2.17 The Short Story and Writing Relationship

Although lot of arguments oppose the use of literary texts in the writing classroom, because of the low proficiency of EFL students in terms of linguistic fluency and maturity, short stories still have lot of benefits in providing learners with an invaluable source of authentic materials, that can be used as a springboard for exiting discussion or writing and increasing students’ word power (Ur, 1996). Sometimes composition teachers encounter difficulties in finding the appropriate material for their writing classes, since writing has no subject
matter of its own (Hişmanoğlu, 2005). Harmer (2004:39) states that: “in the case of adult students, it is often hard to find writing tasks that are directly relevant to the varying needs of a class full of students from different backgrounds”.

Parkinson and Reid (2000) suggest that literature provides examples of ‘good’ writing, linguistic diversity, and expressive ranges and so on. Thus, placing literature component in the syllabus gives the chance to EFL students to improve their language proficiency, as well as develop their creative thinking in expressing thoughts and opinions. Immersing students in the world of literary texts will expand their learning experience. Since there is a close connection between reading and writing, students will get in contact with different models of writing. In addition to that, reading the literary texts will inspire them and give them something to write about. In this concern Vandrick, (2003:264-265) states that: When reading is enjoyable, pleasurable it arouses interest and a sense of connection and in turn motivates students to respond in discussion and in writing. This kind of motivation is extremely important in facilitating students’ investment in and progress made in improving their writing abilities.

By assigning learners to read a literary text, they will develop an understanding of how the language works. They start paying attention to organization, syntax, vocabulary and what is more they will come across the authentic use of the language. Moreover, Vandrick (2003) asserts that learners will be exposed to different language patterns to see how sentences and paragraphs can be put together. The study of literary texts often involves themes, characters and events which address a combination of situations and dilemmas that engage learners, intellectually and linguistically. In addition to that, they are written by authors from widely divergent cultures. By exposing students to such literary texts, they will become familiar with different writing styles and this unconsciously will help them develop their own writing style (Muthusawy et Al, 2010). Literary texts can help EFL learners both as a model and as a subject matter. They are used as a model when students’ writing becomes nearly similar to the original work, by imitating its content, theme or style. However, literary texts are used as a subject matter when students interpret or analyze the literary work (Hismanoğlu, 2005).
2.17.1 Literature as a Model for Writing
Hismanoglu (2005) distinguishes three main kinds of writing based on literature as a model.

i. Controlled Writing: It requires exercises such as rewriting passages, to practice some grammatical structures...etc.

ii. Guided Writing: Guided writing exercises help students to comprehend the literary work. Students are given a series of questions to respond or they are asked to complete the sentences, and put them together to sum up or retell the model.

iii. Reproducing the Model: In this activity students acquire some writing techniques such as paraphrasing (students’ use of their own words to rephrase things that they read). Summarizing (to help students organize their writings in a chronological order), and adaptation e.g. rewriting a dialogue into prose...etc (ibid).

2.17.2 Literature as a Subject Matter for Writing
Reading literature becomes the subject matter for compositions. Writing based on literature as a subject matter has two kinds:

i. Writing on/ about Literature. It encompasses the traditional assignments such as: writing paragraphs, writing responses to questions...etc.

ii. Writing out of Literature. According to Hismanoglu, (2005:59) writing out of literature means that literary texts are used as a “springboard for composition, creative assignments developed around plot, characters, setting, and theme.

This will increase students’ writing experience, by converting their knowledge into writing. Moreover, Probst (1992) distinguishes between ‘writing about literature’ and ‘writing from literature’. This later uses literature as a prompt for language classroom activities i.e. literary texts are used as a resource rather than an end in them (cited in Karolides, 1992). In this respect, Butler (2002:44) says:

Writing skills can be further developed from this base, through extension activities. For example, themes found in literary texts and the students’ own narrative writing could provide the rough data for the planning and writing of an argumentative essay: here, the concrete world of the narrative has to be translated into more abstract, objective discourse. The literary texts as well as the students’ own writing can then provide meaningful and motivating contexts for the study of the grammatical forms and functions.
This means that reading literary texts can facilitate students’ own writing. Providing learners with activities will help them learn different aspects of the written language such as paragraph structure. Besides, students will gain knowledge of vocabulary, interactive communication skills, and different styles of writing. Thus, writing activities will not only help EFL students formulate and express their thoughts, but also generate new ones.

Bachman (1990) and Canal and Swain (1980) divide language knowledge into three types: the first type is linguistic knowledge, which includes the basic structural elements of the language; syntactic/structural knowledge, vocabulary, knowledge of the written code (mechanics)...etc (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996). The second type is sociolinguistic knowledge, which includes the ways in which the language is used in different social settings (functional uses of the written language, awareness of sociolinguistic differences across languages and cultures...etc). The last type is concerned with discourse knowledge (cohesion and coherence of text construction); knowledge of semantic relations across clauses, information structure...etc.

Students need to learn how to write in the EFL context, since they have to write homework, summaries, reports and sit for written exams in almost all their modules. They are expected to master both the structural and the communicative aspects of the language.

Furthermore, Widdowson (1978:62) distinguishes between the usage and use of writing. He defined the first aspect as “the use of the visual medium to manifest the graph logical and the grammatical system of the language” or the knowledge of linguistic rules, while he explains the second as “the use of sentences to build discourse” i.e. using linguistic rules for effective communication. Moreover, literary texts expose learners to coherent writing, which help them arrange their ideas in a coherent logical way through related paragraphs. One should bear in mind that lack of coherence in writing will fail to communicate its intended message to readers Bamberg, (1983). Bani Salama and Fatihi (2010:102) state that:

*To make a text comprehensible, there should be two main ways in which sentences are combined with each other within a text; they are cohesion and coherence. These concepts work together rather than independently, in helping one to understand the ways in which a text makes sense.*
This means that cohesion and coherence complement each other in making texts comprehensible and meaningful for the readers. Moreover, teaching writing while exposing learners to a literary text bring together “the technical skills of composition, the cultural knowledge within the linguistic form and the cultural content literature has to offer” (Mueller, 1986:1). Furthermore, if selected carefully, literary texts will engage learners’ interest and motivation. Moreover, Krashen (1989) says that when the text is both interesting and comprehensible, it will capture the learners’ attention. In this respect, Collie and Slater (1987) note that short stories offer greater chance of finding something to appeal to each individual’s tastes and interests. However, in order to enjoy literary texts, students need to be able to read and understand the language, and also be able to grasp the subtle ideas conveyed by the writer implicitly.

2.18 Procedures and Strategies to Teaching Writing through Short Story

According to Nunan (1989:19) an organic approach to teaching language in the literary text should follow these procedures:

1. Offer a set of choices.
2. Provide opportunities for learners to explore grammatical and discoursal relationship.
3. Make the form/function relationships transparent.
4. Encourage learners to become active expressers of language.
5. Encourage learners to explore relationships between grammar and discourse.

A systematic teaching strategy for the short story can include the following stages:

I. Pre-reading activities,
II. In-class oral reading,
III. Textual analysis and group work and
IV. Post-reading assignments.

Keeping in mind that the comprehension of the text is the central focus of the reading of the short story, as Richard A. Raschio (1991:1140) elucidates the teacher must pay attention to nonlinear process of the skill of reading:

“It involves the integration of sound, symbol, word, phrase, context, text, and cultural information as presented by the author and comprehended by the reader.... When cultural information is considered to be important to the
comprehension of a text ...by providing the author's cultural perspective, we [teachers] encourage students to rely on it rather than on their own view of the cultural content, which might have distorted their comprehension”.

For each short story, a number of tasks can be designed to cover the basic language skills required for an efficient reading comprehension. These tasks may include vocabulary work, reading comprehension questions, oral presentation of the text, in-class discussion and interpretation, and finally follow-up tasks which can take the form of written responses or keeping a journal.

2.18.1 Pre-Reading Activities: Vocabulary

As Riley (1993:426) asserts, "Pre-reading, during reading, and post-reading activities tailored to the specific learning context may help the learner gain access to the story by becoming more aware of its structure”.

One vital issue concerning preliminary comprehension involves the task of overcoming the vocabulary presented by the text. Research studies have confirmed that the comprehension of reading passages which might present linguistic difficulties can be facilitated by appropriate pre-reading tasks. One aspect of the reading material is the vocabulary work. When presenting new vocabularies through the use of literary texts, EFL teachers need to take into consideration their students’ level of proficiency in the target language, as well as their needs and interest. Stern, (1985:4), in her investigation into the issue of effective acquisition of vocabulary by ESL learners, reports that there are three ways of improving L2 learner’s vocabulary:

1. through word-study exercises, i.e., the study of word derivations—prefixes, suffixes, roots, cognate, and word formation;
2. by presenting new vocabulary in meaningful situations, i.e., in an appropriate context so that in practice is not usually feasible to isolate the learning of vocabulary from comprehension of the subject matter generally or in relation to words which are grammatically or semantically related to them; and
3. through regular practice in determining the meaning of words from the context, i.e., using contextual clues to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words and using contextual redundancies to determine lexical meaning.
This last strategy for coping with unfamiliar words is especially important for non-native speakers, not only because it encourages them to be more self-reliant, but because, as Gorman (1975:39-40) points out, it is generally impossible to ensure that students have been presented with all the lexical items they are likely to encounter in advanced texts. Short stories serve as excellent material for exercising the second two ways described above since introducing students with literary texts and giving them the choice of writing personal essays or writing summaries will increase their word usage. Thus, they may perform properly on their written assignments. In this respect, Solange (2001, qtd in Obando and Donoso, 2011:11) explains that:

“We must take into account that a lexical item is most likely to be learned when a learner feels a personal need to know it, or when there is a need to express something to accomplish the learner’s own purposes, therefore, it means that the decision to incorporate a word in ones productive vocabulary is entirely personal and varies according to each students’ motivation and needs.”

Students can be required to identify the new vocabulary in the text. The teacher can work together with the students to make a vocabulary list which includes new and targeted vocabulary list. The list can, then, discussed in class. Students can form groups and work on portions of the list to find their meanings, both denotative and connotative. Since unfamiliar vocabulary will usually interfere with the students' comprehension and may demotivate them to finish the text, such a list can be very useful. Pre-reading the vocabulary items can also be used to facilitate the introduction of the necessary cultural background and even refer to thematic features of the short story.

However, the real vocabulary task occurs when students try to use these words in the textual context. A related and accompanying activity can be preparing a brief cloze-type exercise to encourage the students to guess meaning from the context. In selecting and making the final vocabulary list, items which contain vital or emotional clues should be chosen.

2.18.2 In-Class Oral Reading

After overcoming the vocabulary items, the students are required to focus on the whole text. A thorough reading is suggested here. In the second stage, students focus on smaller units of the text. At the third stage, the teacher may activate the students' initial response to the text and finally in the fourth stage the teacher can introduce the formal features
(figurative language) of the text. During the reading process Drake (1939: 10) explains three types of language exercises as follows:

1. Questions on the text. These are to make certain that the students have really understood the passages they have read. They may be used both as oral and written exercises.

2. Exercises on idioms. English is very idiomatic. Very often, the simpler a passage is the more idiomatic it is. Idiom, however, must be learnt not only for its meaning but in its use. These exercises should be done with continual reference to the text, so that the students may see how the idioms are applied.

3. Exercises on vocabulary. Their aim is to fix new words in the memory by repletion and association; that is to reinforce by definite drill aim of the reading itself. To do this, each new word shown in the fullest connexion with

   a) words of similar meaning

   b) words of opposite meaning, and

   c) words of the same root.

The teacher can help students prepare questions which can ultimately lead to the overall understanding of the text and thus facilitate the reading comprehension objectives. This list of questions can serve various purposes. It can stimulate a motivated reading at home, prior to the short story's live presentation in the classroom. At the same time, it aids the comprehension of the text. It can also draw the students' attention to the major issues and ideas presented in the text.

It will also serve to prepare and assist the students' capacity for developing independent literary and critical skills. It is not, however, suggested that the teacher provides a plot summary or a statement of the theme since that should be reserved for the end result. The teacher should allow the students to enjoy the pleasure of discovery and learn how to comprehend and appreciate literature.
2.18.3 Textual Analysis and Group Work

Knutson (1993:20) in "Teaching Whole texts" puts a great deal of significance on text interpretation done through group work as follows:

“A discussion/interpretation phase can include whole group work with semantic mapping, that is, brainstorming followed by organization of themes or ideas, as well as supporting examples on the board... Once examples from the text have been written on the board, students can begin to formulate their interpretation of the novelistic perspective on these issues. The instructor can also present certain story elements and invite group discussion of possible outcome”.

A useful activity at this stage is allowing time to the students to think about major issues of the text. To initiate this process, the text can be given to the student, to read at home, using the prepared glossary, and requiring the students to comment on basic issues of the text. The teacher can stimulate their imaginative power by inviting the students to write one or two paragraphs on the main ideas of the text or relate these ideas to their own real life experiences or even imagining themselves in circumstances suggested in the text. When working with motivated students, even two readings of the short story at home, prior to its oral presentation in the classroom, can be achieved. The first reading can accomplish comprehension objectives and the second one interpretation and critical analysis. Linda Gajduesk (1988:238) states the merits of two readings as follows:

“The first time to gain an overall sense of the piece and enjoy the story, a second time to look for answers to problems and questions prepared for them in anticipation of the factual and analytical work that is to follow”.

It is worth noting that the primary purpose of the use of a literary text in ESL curriculum is not just to expose our students to literature, but to involve them in direct experience. In addition, the objectives of a language class should be carefully followed and implemented. As Stern (1985:75) observes, "the objectives of some of the ESL/EFL literature textbooks for including exercises in syntax do appear, however, included the ability to use syntactic devices productively". She further mentions various short story textbooks, such as 20th century American Short stories, which follow each story with exercises in grammar and syntax designed

   a. to enhance the readers' understanding of what they have just read, and
b. to help them assimilate new words and grammatical constructions for their own use. Students' interest should be stimulated by activating their particular skills. They should be encouraged to read aloud the parts of the story, supply summaries of the parts or whole of the text, and take part in group discussions concerning important issues of the text. At this stage, students can move towards more mature critical analysis of the text. This can lead to their personal involvement with the text as Gajduesk (1988:224) asserts,

"Having established the facts, students now begin to ask why and to develop their own attitudes towards the characters, values, and situations of the story, in short, to move beyond information to involvement and experience... ".

Arens, Swaffar, and Byrenes (1991:82), however, favor learner-directed questions, e.g., "What do you think about the main character? What do you think will happen next? Why do you consider this as an important idea?" Knutson (1993:21) believes that "questions of this nature place emphasis on the students' cognitive processes and thinking skills". Knutson further suggests small group activities which can follow whole group work. These small group activities, focusing on a specific task, such as close reading of a significant part of the text, can encourage students to write relevant questions and later try to answer them. Knutson concludes that,

"Close textual analysis in small groups allows students to confirm their hypotheses about meaning by working 'bottom up' with the text. Students, in pairs or small groups, can also be asked to focus on broader pragmatic issues, such as the inscribed audience, or the reception/interpretation of the text, from various reader perspectives" (ibid: 21).

2.18.4 Post-Reading Assignments

Re-reading of the short story provides the students with an added advantage of establishing their previous knowledge about the text. To consider the effect of this pre-reading activity, short writing assignments can be given to students to enable them to articulate and further develop their thoughts and the thematic meaning they have discovered through class discussions. Here the teacher should pay attention to the meaning expressed by the students and the development of the ideas while linguistic features and accuracy are of secondary importance.

Writing assignments based on the assigned short story enhances the students' involvement with the text and encourages them to think about, re-read, and further explore the text. Tierney and Shanahan (1991:267-269) confirm that recent researches have indicated that writing tasks as a follow up activity promote better learning and comprehension compared
to reading alone; they lead to long-term recall of text content. A view in this concern was stated by Knutson (1993:22) as follows:

"Re-reading is an appropriate closing activity for many texts. ...For novels or short stories, a writing assignment involving re-telling of a particular portion of the narrative from a different perspective (the point of view of a different character for example) offers an effective vehicle for re-interpretation. But even the most traditional kind of essay writing can stimulate the reading and manipulation of text which are essential to comprehension and appreciation”.

Indeed, students should be able to carry an interaction with the short story beyond the oral class discussion to develop their language skills effectively. A more useful task would be to require the students to prepare creative, relevant written responses and reaction reports. This opportunity allows the students to express their independent attitudes and opinions about the significant issues of the story. Writing tasks at this stage can take various forms. Students may be encouraged to keep a short story journal. Thus, they may be asked to write their personal attitudes about the short story. They may also be asked to comment on the outcome of the story and how they evaluate the ending. In accomplishing these tasks the following tips are very useful:

1. Make sure that students understand the notion of “the reader” and anticipate the potential reader when they write their creative responses to short stories.
2. Require them to prepare an outline of the plot of the short story. Then, ask them to write a paper based on their own life experiences, following a similar outline.
3. Students can write their variations of the ending of the short story. They can create their own favorite endings. Follow the Rhetorical Triangle: Encourage the students to see the three important components of the rhetorical triangle in the short story-the relationship between the three forms of rhetoric - Ethos (character), Pathos (emotion), and Logos (logic). Then, they can employ the same principles in their own creative writings.
4. Encourage the students to discuss the main theme(s) of the short story in their own independent writing by keeping a course journal. In this way they will develop a writing habit beyond the routine classroom assignments.
2.19 Errors Correction and Feedback

Providing feedback is very important during instruction because it gives learners a sense of their progress and reveals where they need to focus their attention. Raimes (1983) argues that providing learners by an appropriate feedback (giving students structured responses about their writing) will help them discover new ideas, new sentences and words, when they plan, write their first drafts and even when they revise their written essays. In this respect Williams (2003:140) states that: “A key to improving students’ writing skills does not lie in simply having them write. They must write and receive meaningful feedback on work in progress, and then they must use that feedback to revise”.

Providing learners with feedback will support their writing development, identify their strengths and weaknesses and help them improve their writing abilities. Thus, every student’s writing essay should be adequately valued so as to help him/her build up self-confidence. When it comes to error correction we are dealing with one individual, reaction to student's piece of writing or utterance. This inevitably means that there will be some disagreement among teachers about what, when, and how to correct. Donald (2007:67). In this respect Willis (1981:13) states that:

"Correction of mistakes should be kept to a minimum or your students will lose confidence and give up...if you understand what a student says despite his mistakes, then he has communicated successfully. Encouraged by his success, he will try again, gain more practice, and his mistakes will gradually disappear”.

Since learning a language is a highly complex process, pupils’ errors and mistakes should be seen as a natural outcome of this process. Accordingly errors should be regarded with great tolerance, i.e. mistakes sometimes should be allowed to pass before they are directly corrected, Alfaki and Ahmed (2007:34). Attitudes to error correction vary not only among teachers but also among students. How to respond to student writing is a controversial topic in second and foreign language writing instruction and theory.

Teachers of English invest many hours in correcting student writing. Yet it is one of the areas that most teachers hesitate to discuss. Several studies have investigated the effects of various types of teacher feedback on students writing skills. Before correcting or giving students feedback, teachers have to consider students age and approach to learning for some students are risk takers, while others will only say something if they are sure it is
correct. While being a risk taker is generally positive as it leads to greater fluency, some students only seem to be concerned with fluency at the expense of accuracy. The same can be true when it comes to writing. Correction in writing classes is based as in the Gray’s view (2000: 4) on the idea that

“If a teacher points out to students the error they have made, and provide, indirectly or directly, the correct form, the students will then understand the mistake they have made, learn from it, and their ability to write accurately will improve”.

Here the teacher works as a coach or a facilitator through providing his/her learners with pieces of advice and suggestions during their writing process. Williams (2003:106) says that teachers need to: “Intervene regularly in the learning process, immediately correcting those things students do wrong and praising those things they do right, giving reinforcement when it is most useful and most beneficial”.

It is also widely felt that “if teachers do not correct their students’ mistakes be in grammar, Lexis etc. ‘Fossilization’ will occur and it will become very difficult later eliminate these errors. Studies have shown these arguments correct. Providing feedback is very important during instruction because it gives learners a sense of their progress and reveals where they need to focus their attention. According to Celce-Marcia (2001) the teacher can provide feedback in three main ways: 1) Self-correction 2) Peer-correction 3) Teacher-correction.

1. Self-correction: Corder, (1975:292-294) argues that” errors are evidence about the nature of the rules and categories used by the learner at a certain stage”. Accordingly, it is clear that language learning is not so much a question of acquiring, a set of automatic habits, but rather a process of discovering the underlying rules, categories and system of choice in the language by the learner through using some sort of processing of the data of the language presented to him by the teacher. Brumfit (1977: 67) suggests that: “All written work should be corrected soon and if possible by the students themselves.”

So self-correction is the most valuable since it encourages the student to be autonomous. Students can correct themselves and improve their writing work by listening to the recordings of own speech.
2. Peer-correction: as Witbeck (1976: 325) argues peer correction results in ‘a greater concern for achieving accuracy in written expression in individual students and creates a better classroom atmosphere for teaching the correctional aspects of composition’.

So if the learner failed to repair or correct himself/herself, the teacher who is in charge, may encourage another student to do the job. What is important in learning is that learner’s errors should find a response be verbal or written, more importantly from a teacher or schoolmate.

3. Teacher-correction: Teacher correction is the third technique of error correction. It is believed that the teacher’s function in error correction is to provide data and examples, and where necessary to offer explanations and descriptions, and more importantly verification of learner’s hypothesis.

Therefore, Corder (1975: 336) determined the function of the learner by saying that “the learner must have data on which to base his hypothesis about the semantic functions of each new item. He may or may not benefit by explicit description, and explanations about how it works. He (learner) must in any case, develop hypotheses and be given the opportunity to test his/her correctness”. It is worth saying that feedback influences student’s learning, and can be very motivating or very demotivating depending on its nature, scope and timing. Thus, the type of feedback that it ought to be given to the learners should enhance students learning rather than just giving them information, or marks about their performance.

There are two forms of assessing students’ essays. The first one is impressionistic (holistic), and the second one is analytical. The former means that a single mark is assigned to the entire written texts. While, the later gives more detailed information about learners’ writing performances; it shows their strengths and weaknesses. Thus, it helps teachers to develop instructions according to their learners’ needs. Weigle (2002:114) states that:

“In analytical scoring, scripts are related on several aspects of writing or criteria rather given a single score. Depending on the purpose of the assessment scripts might be rated on such features as content, organization, cohesion, register, vocabulary, grammar or mechanics.”
In this respect, the present research deals with the analytical assessments of students’ essays. This practice helps the researcher to generate helpful diagnostic input about the students’ writing skills, which is the major merit of analytic schemes. Students’ writing tests are scored based on Jacobs et Al (1981) analytic rating scale for scoring essays. The researcher uses the analytical scoring, in order to decrease the degree of subjectivity and personal judgments. Moreover, this kind of scoring involves using different components and features (organization, ideas, spelling, mechanics...etc). In addition to that, it is used to assess students’ essays for the sake of providing them with feedback concerning their major strengths and weaknesses. Thus analytic scoring provides detailed information in order to check learners’ writing performances, and make reliable conclusions.
Table: 2.5 Assessment Scale for Written Work [adapted from Jacobs et Al, (1981), cited in ElHabiri, (2013:64)]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>04- EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: considerable variety of ideas * knowledge of subject * relevant to assigned topic * thorough treatment of topic</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03- GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate knowledge of subject * adequate range * limited development of thesis * mostly relevant to topic, accurate details.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02- FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject and ideas * little substance * inadequate development of topic, lack details</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01- VERY POOR: hardly any or no variety of ideas * non-substantive * not pertinent * or not enough to evaluate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>04- EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression * ideas clearly stated / supported * well organized; logically sequenced (coherent); connectives appropriately used (cohesive).</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03- GOOD TO AVERAGE: loosely organized but main ideas stand out * limited support * logical but incomplete sequencing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02- FAIR TO POOR: ideas confused or disconnected * lacks logical sequencing and development.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01- VERY POOR: does not communicate the topic * ideas often confused * no organization * or not enough to evaluate.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>04- EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: wide range of vocabulary * effective word choice and usage * word form mastery *</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03- GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range * occasional errors of word, form choice usage but meaning not obscured</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02- FAIR TO POOR: limited range * frequent errors of word choice usage * meaning confused or obscured.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01- VERY POOR: translation of words * little knowledge of English vocabulary, word form * or not enough to evaluate.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Language usage** | 04- EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions * meaning never obscured * few errors of agreement, tense, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions.
03- GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions * minor problems in complex constructions* some errors of agreement, tense, word order, articles, pronouns, prepositions and meaning sometimes slightly obscured.
02- FAIR TO POOR: not sufficient variety in simple/complex constructions * several errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments * meaning confused or obscured
01- VERY POOR: Major problems in sentence construction* dominated by errors* does not communicate *or not enough to evaluate |
| **Mechanics** | 04- EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: mastery of conventions * few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing.
03- GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but meaning not obscured
02- FAIR TO POOR: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, Capitalization, paragraphing* meaning confused.
01- VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions * dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing. |
| **Total score** |

In Jacobs et Al’s (1981) scoring profile, students’ writings are rated based on five criteria. These criteria involve: content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. Moreover, each criterion has four levels varied from excellent to very poor, and each one of them is scored differently from the others. There are many different methods of marking learners’ written work but the researcher uses a method suggested by Willis (1981) cited in Alfaki and Ahmed (2007:82) as follows:

**Stage 1**- (elementary) underline the mistake and write the symbol in the margin.

**Stage 2**- Underline the whole word/phrase and write the symbol in the margin.

**Stage 3**- Do not underline the word or mistake only write the symbol in the margin.

**Stage 4**- Put a dot or (x) in the margin for each mistake.
A variety of symbols can be used provided that the students understand clearly what they mean. The symbols used for marking the students’ test in this research are suggested by Byrne (1988:125).

**Symbols for Correcting Written Work, adapted from Byrne (1988) cited in Alfaki and Ahmed (2007: 82).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Incorrect spelling</td>
<td>S receive jour letter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W.O.</td>
<td>Wrong word order</td>
<td>w. o. We know well this city w.o. I am happy here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Wrong Tense</td>
<td>T If he will come, it will be too late.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Concord Subject and verb do not agree</td>
<td>C Two policemen has come. That news are bad today.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WF</td>
<td>Wrong Form</td>
<td>WF We want that you come. WF The table is our.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/P</td>
<td>Singular or Plural form wrong</td>
<td>S We need more informations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^</td>
<td>Something has been left out</td>
<td>They said^ was wrong. He hit me on^ shoulder.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>Something not necessary</td>
<td>[ ] It was too much difficult.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M?</td>
<td>Meaning is not clear</td>
<td>?M Come and rest with us for a week. ?M The view from here is very suggestive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NA</td>
<td>The usage is not appropriate</td>
<td>NA He requests me to sit down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Punctuation wrong</td>
<td>P What is your name He asked me what I P wanted?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was believed that unless students recognize the type of errors they are making, they will continue to make that error. The best and the practical way which will help them (students) to recognize the error type is to know the symbols or marking codes. These symbols are intended to be operational, focusing on the correction rather than on error.
2.20 Previous Studies

Mohammad AbdAlla AbdAllgane Mohammed (2011): his PhD thesis entitled “Towards an Effective Role of literature in promoting EFL Reading and Writing skills”, University of Gezira, faculty of education Hasahiesa.

This study is an attempt to investigate the effective role of literature in promoting EFL learners reading and writing skills. The study aims at concerting EFL learner's educational background and personal experiences based on the subject matter of literature work, assisting EFL learners to comprehend the semantic signification that author attempts to convey in order to enhance their reading abilities, enhancing EFL learners critical thinking and judgmental abilities and promoting EFL learners of writing essays and comments related to the theme of literature work.

The study reached some findings such as literature does promote learners listening and speaking skills. Literature can so easily be comprehended and appreciated via televisions, films, computers, etc, rather than the strict and rigid modes of teaching only out of backs. Mohammad’s study investigates the role of literature in promoting EFL reading and writing skills at university level while this research investigates utilizing short stories for developing EFL secondary school students’ writing.

Robert, E. Probst (1988) "The Reader and the Text ". This research aims at teaching literature with a concentration on responsive and responsible reading. It's a matter of responding to the text and thinking about the response and words on the page then develop the relationships among readers to show how the responses of students could raise question, that compel them to look closely at the words on the page for answers. The researches also aims at grounding literature in students’ insights as they respond to the text and then share in the on going dialogue about significant issues concern their culture.

The tools of this study were experiments in the classroom of secondary schools. The researcher found that , if a work touches upon matters in which students have a vital interest, and if the students can read it with enough ease to be able to grasp the fundamental issues, then they may react strongly enough to the text to feel the need to speak. The
difference between Probst’s thesis and this study is that Probst’s aims at grounding literature in students’ insights as they respond to the text and then share in the ongoing dialogue about significant issues concern their culture, while this research aims at using literature to develop students’ writing competence and performance. This thesis used a questionnaire and a test as data collection tools whereas Probst’s study used experiments in classroom.

**Houria Elhabiri (2012)**, her study is entitled “Teaching the Writing Skills through Literary Texts” at university of Tlemcen, Algeria. It is a case study of 2nd Year EFL Students at Djilali Liabes University. This Dissertation is submitted in candidacy for the degree of MA. Here the researcher deals with EFL students and teachers from the department of foreign languages at Djilali LIABES University of Sidi Bel Abbes as sample population during the academic year 2012/2013.

The present research aims to help learners develop their writing skills, through the medium of English literary texts. It tends to enable students explore, express and communicate their ideas into structured patterns to help readers understand what is meant by their writing in one hand, and build up and strengthen their proficiency in English on the other. It has the following recommendations:

1. Integrating the four language skills and should not be treated in total isolation from one another,
2. make use of materials and activities which will arouse learners’ motivation and interest,
3. providing learners with pair and group works activities and
4. giving a chance to students to read others’ works to analyze and comment on them.

The difference between Alhabiri’s study and this study is that Alhabiri investigated the problem at university level while this study investigates the problem at secondary level. Besides, Alhabiri used a test, a questionnaire and an interview for data collection while this research used a test and a questionnaire only.

**Rabaa Ibrahim Ahmed (2011)**, The researcher has a study entitled “The Importance of Literature in Secondary Schools' Syllabus” for MA degree. It used a questionnaire as a tool
for data collection. The study aims to (1) discuss the absence of literature at secondary schools syllabus, to (2) investigate the obstacles of using literature at this level and to (3) investigate the opinions of teachers about using literature in secondary school classes. It found that there is a significant relation between teaching literature as reading materials and LT to non-native student. The study revealed that supplementary reading materials widen the capacity of the learners and develop communicative abilities and that language skills could be taught through teaching supplementary reading materials. The researcher suggests some recommendations such as

1. literature should be used in the form of cassette to improve listening skills as well as speaking and
2. the stories should be simplified well selected to create motivation and entertainment in the syllabus for secondary schools.

The difference between Rabaa’s study and the present research is that Rabaa’s study used only questionnaire as data collection tool while the present research used questionnaire as well as a test. Also Rabaa’s thesis used literature for supporting the secondary level syllabus whereas the present research used short stories for developing students’ writing.
CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction
This chapter focuses on the methodology used in the study targeting the achievement of the aims and objectives that are set. It contains subjects, tool and procedures.

3.1 Subjects
The population of this study is 90 students of Alhaj Abdalla secondary schools third year students enrolled in the academic year 2016-2017. They had an average of weekly of formal instruction in English as a foreign Language for the duration of 6 years at Basic level and Secondary Level.

A number of 50 students of the third year at Alhaj Abdalla secondary schools distributed at two schools are used as a sample for the study population. Their ages are between 16 and 19 years. The students, like all Sudanese, started learning English at grade 5 at basic level. Now they have an average of six years of formal instructions in English as a foreign language. Thus, the students under investigation are homogenous in terms of their linguistic, socioeconomic background, educational system, field of study and age.

3.2 Instrument
The study used a test and a questionnaire as instruments of data collection. Furthermore, the collected data are based on the students’ test as a primary instrument and the questionnaire as a secondary instrument.

3.3 Procedures
In the attempt of eliciting and obtaining the required data from the subjects under investigation, the researcher sees that a test consists of a summary, scrambling sentences and rearranging a story, is practical and convincible eliciting technique for testing students writing performance, since it has been chosen as the best eliciting technique by the researcher. The students took the test in two different periods: first period test is called pretest and second period test is posttest. The time provided for each tests was 60 minutes.
3.3.1 Pretest

A pretest is designed to assess students’ abilities in expressing ideas, thoughts and opinions in a coherent manner. Before exposing students to a literary text, they were asked to respond to the pretest questions. The subjects were also asked to take the test seriously, and were also told that the test has both educational and linguistic aims. To avoid any possible influences students were identified only by number, therefore, the students were asked not to write their names, scores were given to the students’ test papers, the researcher used symbols to represent the type of error e.g. ‘s’ stands for incorrect spelling, ‘w.o’ wrong word order …etc.

3.3.2 Posttest

A literary text is used to conduct students’ test. The short story “Anna and the Fighter” was used as a supporting material in the EFL writing classroom. Moreover, it was distributed to students before the post-test was conducted. The story was taught and discussed with the students to explain grammar structures and linking words as well as meaning to help them respond properly to the writing test. The purpose from selecting this story is because of its interesting storyline, the average difficulty of language and varied linguistic aspects i.e. in terms of ideas, language function, vocabulary and lexis. The selected short story may arouse students’ interest and motivation to respond in writing. Thus, it may develop their writing performance. The posttest had the same tasks as those of the pretest but it differed from the pretest in period of time. The posttest was taken two weeks after the pretest.

3.4 Validity

For the sake of achieving both face and content validity the researcher submitted the chosen set of writing tasks to a group of experts of English language teaching and assessment departments at Gezira University. The tasks were approved as they took to have both face and content validity, in addition they were familiar to the students and suit their age.

3.5 Reliability

To estimate test reliability it is suggested to follow the method of test–retest. Testees are not expected to get precisely the same scores on every occasion even the circumstances seem the same or identical, this because human beings do not behave in exactly the same way on every occasion. In order to fulfill the test’s reliability, the two sets of scores should
be corrected by using the correlation coefficient. The coefficient can be marked out by applying the following formula:

\[ r_{xy} = \frac{N(\Sigma XY) - (\Sigma X \Sigma Y)}{\sqrt{[N(\Sigma X^2) - (\Sigma X)^2][N(\Sigma Y^2) - (\Sigma Y)^2]}} \]

Where

\( r = \) correlation

\( R: \) Reliability of the test

\( N: \) number of all items in the test

\( X: \) odd scores

\( Y: \) even scores

\( \Sigma: \) Sum

\( R = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r} \)

Val = \sqrt{\text{reliability}}

Correlation = 0.87

\[ R = \frac{2 \times r}{1 + r} = \frac{2(0.87)}{1 + 0.87} = \frac{1.74}{1.87} = 0.93 \]

Reliability = 0.93

Val = \sqrt{0.93}

Validity = 0.96
CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction
This chapter is concerned with the analysis and discussion of the data that are collected by means of the teachers’ questionnaire and students’ test. The findings of this analysis and discussion of the data serve to verify the hypotheses and answer the questions and achieve the objectives of the study. Students’ test is two parts: pretest and posttest. It is worth mentioning that data analysis is conducted by using the SPSS programme which means "Statistical Package for Social Science”.

4.1 The Pre-Test Analysis and Discussion
In the present section, the researcher tries to present a close examination of the results obtained in the pretest and sets grounds for a later description of their improvement. The pretest analysis is in terms of content, organization, vocabulary, language usage and mechanics respectively.

4.1.1 Content
Table and figure (4.1.1) show that student’ answers provided information not required, inappropriate and even irrelevant to the topic. This reflected that learners neither tried to brainstorm nor plan their writing. In addition to that, some students’ responses of description have too few words than the expected. Eleven students (22%) had a good to average level, twenty six of them (52%) had fair to poor while thirteen students (26%) description’s contents were very poor. However, none of the students’ content was excellent or very good. Thus, the students need more satisfactory practical help in order to improve this part of their writing, namely, the content.
Table (4.1.1) pretest-content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good to average</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to poor</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students’ Level in Terms of Content
4.1.2 Organization

The pretest statement as shown in table and figure (4.2) revealed that only five students (10%) had excellent to very good level on using connectives and putting the events and ideas in proper order. Twelve of the students (24%) had good to average which reveals a logical but incomplete sequencing, twenty two of them (44%) had fair to poor while eleven students (22%) had very poor level in terms of organization. Concerning the consistency of text, namely, coherent and cohesive relations, the students’ product is loosely organized, full of confused ideas and lacks logical sequencing. The students are unable to use the appropriate connectives and references, so their product lacks the cohesive relationships within and between the sentences which identify whether a set of sentences do or do not constitute a text.

**Table (4.1.2)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pretest-organization</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent to very good</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good to average</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to poor</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students’ Level in Terms of Organization
4.1.3 Vocabulary

Table and figure (4.3) showed that ten students (20%) had good to average level, twenty four students (48%) were fair to poor in using the vocabulary and sixteen students (32%) were very poor in vocabulary. These statistical figures indicate that inappropriate choice of vocabulary was among the many difficulties students encounter when doing the test. Mistakes were found as a result of mother tongue transfer or ineffective translation. Furthermore, students displayed little knowledge of English vocabulary, particularly the word class.

Table (4.1.3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good to average</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to poor</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.1.4 Language usage

Table and figure (4.4) showed that good to average level was reflected by twelve students (24%), eighteen of them (36%) had fair to poor level while twenty students (40%) were very poor in using the language. According to these statistical percentages, many mistakes were recorded in the use of verbs’ tense, subject verb agreement, word order, word function or inappropriate sentence construction that affected the clarity of students’ writing. The great number of errors in the students’ writing covers the use of articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments and this makes meaning confused or obscured.

Table (4.1.4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pretest-language usage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good to average</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to poor</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.1.5 Mechanics

Table and figure (4.5) showed that lot of spelling mistakes and errors were found in the students’ pretest performance as a result of little knowledge and ineffective practice of spelling rules and their exceptions. Punctuation and capitalization were disregarded by students as they were not taught these areas effectively. These difficulties were reflected in the statistical results as follows: only eight students (16%) had good to average level in using mechanics, nineteen of them (38%) had fair to poor level and twenty three students (46%) were very poor in these structures of language.

Table (4.1.5)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mechanics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good to average</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to poor</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Bar chart showing pretest mechanics frequencies]
4.2 The Post Test Analysis and Discussion

Students were taught the story “Things Fall Apart” by Chinua Achebe then they were asked to answer the questions of the posttest. Results obtained from the posttest were displayed below is in terms of content, organization, vocabulary, language usage and mechanics respectively.

4.2.1 Content

Table and figure (4.6) showed that nineteen students (38%) had good to average level which explain that the short story allowed them to experience new ways of using language and acquire the form of the literary text. Twenty students (40%) had fair to poor while eleven of them (22%) had very poor performance in this area of writing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good to average</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to poor</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students’ Content Level after reading the story
4.2.2 Organization

As table and figure (4.7) below illustrate, it was clear that a slight improvement has occurred in using different words that link individual sentences and parts of sentences. Only three students (6%) had excellent to very good level on clearly stating and supporting their ideas. Seventeen students (34%) had good to average level as they offered little supports to organization and twenty four students (48%) had fair to poor level in terms of organization because they had lack of knowledge in sequencing and linking words and phrases. Meanwhile, six students (12%) had very poor performance as they totally misused the transitions or connections.

Table (4.2.2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post-test-organization</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent to very good</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good to average</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to poor</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.3 Vocabulary

In terms of vocabulary, table and figure (4.8) showed that twenty students (40%) had good to average level. This shows that, after reading the short story, the students seemed to acquire a wide range of vocabulary since they illustrate a good word choice in their writing. Eighteen students (36%) had fair to poor as they fail in using the right word in the right way. Meanwhile, twelve students (24%) had very poor level because they used inappropriate words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post-test-vocabulary</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good to average</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to poor</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.4 Language usage

The posttest, in terms of vocabulary, explained that the students have a subject/verb agreement problem. Table and figure (4.9) showed that ten students (20%) had good to average level and twenty four of them (48%) had fair to poor level. Meanwhile, sixteen students (32%) were very poor in forming meaningful sentences.

Table (4.2.4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good to average</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to poor</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.5 Mechanics

The posttest results illustrated that the students have the same punctuation and spelling problems. They over-generalize the use of punctuation marks, particularly capitalization, and spelling rules. Besides, the participants frequently missed or used incorrect punctuation marks. Table and figure (4.10) illustrated that eleven students (22%) had good to average level, twenty one of them (42%) had fair to poor level on posttest results in terms of mechanics while eighteen students (36%) had very poor level concerning using mechanics in their posttest answers.

Table (4.2.5)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good to average</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair to poor</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very poor</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to table (4.2.6), t-test was used to estimate the students’ performance of art group and control group in the pretest and posttest. The pre-test was submitted to determine the students’ actual level before they exposed to the experimental treatment.

A comparison between the two groups result was hold to check if there are differences noticed after using the treatment. As the table (4.1) above shows: the mean score of the pre-test for the art group is (1.13), while for the education is (1.19) which means the two groups were at the same level. The post-test tests the impacts of learning with new techniques and strategies that reflect the students’ linguistics performance. With reference to table (4.1)it is noticeable that the two groups improved and the mean of the post-test was higher than of the pre-test. The difference of the two means for the art was (.07), from (1.12) to (1.19) and the standard deviation was (.73). For the control group, the difference was (.05) from (2.11) to (2.20), and the standard deviation was (. 71). The t-value ranged from (1.44) to (1.01). As table (4.1) shows, the probability (p) values were less than the significance level (0.05), which means there is a significant difference between the two groups. The experimental group achieved the highest scores. So the above results confirm the validity of hypothesis one:

Table (4.2.6) Comparison of Students’ Performance on the Pre-Test and Post-Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Pre</th>
<th>Post</th>
<th>Difference of means</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language usage</td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanics</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 The Analysis of the Result of the Questionnaire

Item (1) the use of short stories can provide practical procedures by which students can improve their writing skills.

The researcher asks the EFL teachers their responses to the statement. The complete result is given in table and diagram (4.3.1), it shows that most of the participants of the sample (80%) agree that a short story provides students with useful activities and procedures that will help them improve their writing skills. Four teachers (16%) are neutral and only one teacher (4%) thinks that using a short story in EFL writing classes can’t improve students’ writing skills.

Table (4.3.1)

Analysis of Item (1) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.3.1)
Item (2) Lack of guidelines to teaching short stories weakens their effectiveness in language classes.

Table and diagram (4.3.2) show that, eighteen of the respondents (72 %) agree with the idea that the absence of guidelines to teaching a story makes its use in EFL classroom inefficient. (16 %) of the sample’s answer is neutral and (12%) of the teachers disagree with the statement, therefore the statement is accepted.

Table (4.3.2)

Analysis of Item (2) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.3.2)
Item (3) if there are clearly stated specific aims to teaching short stories, students will linguistically benefit.

The statistical analyses of statement (3) in table and diagram (4.3.3) show that sixteen respondents (64%) agree that clear and specific aims to utilizing a short story in classroom help students to develop their linguistic competence and performance. A 24% of the sample chooses to be neutral and three participants (12%) disagree that clear and specific aims can help students benefit from the story linguistic varieties.

Table (4.3.3)

Analysis of Item (3) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.3.3)
Item (4) a systematic short story teaching strategy will help improve students’ writing skills.

Concerning using a systematic short story teaching strategy table and diagram (4.3.4) show that nineteen respondents (76 %) agree with the statement, five teachers (20 %) were neutral and only one teacher (4%) of the sample disagree with the statement.

Table (4.3.4)

Analysis of Item (4) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.3.4)
Item (5) teacher-centered approach fails to provide students with coherent strategies for studying the language of the text.

The statistical analyses of statement (5) in table and diagram (4.3.5) show that fifteen respondents (60%) agree that teacher-centered approach fail to provide students with coherent strategies for studying the language of the text. So it should be replaced with student-centered approach to have positive participant students. (28%) of the sample chose to be neutral and only three respondents (12%) disagree with the statement.

Table (4.3.5)

Analysis of Item (5) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.3.5)
Item (6): treating the main four skills of language in integrated way will lead to improving students’ writing abilities.

As far as dealing with the four skills is concerned, table and figure (4.3.6) show that sixteen teachers (64%) agree that, for improving students’ writing, the four skills should be treated in integrated way and not total isolation as they complete each other. Only three respondents (12%) are neutral while six of them (24%) express their disagreement.

Table (4.3.6)

Analysis of Item (6) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.3.6)
**Item (7):** If the teaching is effective this will enable students to analyze and acquire the coherent and cohesive relationships in the text.

Table and figure (4.3.7) illustrate the answers of teachers concerning the contribution of effective to the students’ writing as follows:

Nineteen respondents (76%) agree that effective teaching of a short story can result in appropriate acquisition of coherent and cohesive links of the text. Thus students can use this consistency factors to improve their writing. Besides, four teachers (16%) have neutral view and two of them (8%) disagree with the idea.

**Table (4.3.7)**

Analysis of Item (7) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure (4.3.7)**
**Item (8)** if teachers do provide their learners with a meaningful feedback, they can develop their writing work.

Concerning the present question, teachers are asked to tell their view on the importance of meaningful feedback to developing students’ writing. The results, shown in table and figure (4.3.8), indicate that fourteen teachers (56%) agreed that providing students with appropriate feedback, on their writing after reading the story, contribute to improving their writing. Seven participants (28%) are neutral while four of them (16%) chose disagreement with the statement.

**Table (4.3.8)**

**Analysis of Item (8) in the Questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure (4.3.8)**
Item (9): if reading is enjoyable and pleasurable, Learners will be adequately motivated to writing tasks.

As shown in table and figure (4.3.9), more than half of the participants (52%) agree with the statement that when story reading is enjoyable and pleasurable, the students will be strongly motivated to writing tasks. Meanwhile, five teachers (20%) have neutral view and seven of them (28%) have a response that disagrees with the statement that enjoyment and pleasure of story reading motivate students to write.

Table (4.3.9)

Analysis of Item (9) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.3.9)
Item (10): short stories expose learners to a variety of language mechanics like spelling and punctuation.

Table and figure (4.3.10) reveal that nineteen participants (76%) agree that reading a story helps students know more about language mechanics and acquire them. Four teachers (16%) reveal a neutral view while two of them (8%) disagree on that reading a short story is a good way to develop students’ acquisition of language mechanics.

Table (4.3.10)

Analysis of Item (10) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.3.10)
Item (11): teaching of carefully selected short stories will enable learners to access the text in a systematic and methodical way.

More than half of participants (60%), as table and figure (4.3.11) show, agree on that if the story to be taught is appropriately selected, taking into account students’ levels, age and culture, this will help students deal systematically with the literary text. (24%) of the participants hold neutral view on the statement whereas four teachers (16%) disagree on that teaching a well selected story enhances the students to deal with the text in a systematic and planned way.

Table (4.3.11)

Analysis of Item (11) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.1.11)
Item (12): reading literary texts will develop learners’ knowledge of language use and usage.

Responses of the participants to this statement are shown in table and figure (4.3.12) which reveal that sixteen teachers (64%) agree on that reading short stories will increase students’ knowledge of how the writer use the language and the way that words are normally used in a language. Besides, five participants (20%) are neutral and four of them (16%) disagree on that literary text can develop students’ linguistic knowledge.

Table (4.3.12)
Analysis of Item (12) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.3.12)
Item (13): effective using of short stories in EFL classroom will provide learners with an adequate range of vocabulary and grammar.

Table and figure (4.3.13) show responses of the participants concerning the contribution of effective teaching of stories in students’ acquisition of vocabulary and grammar. Fourteen respondents (56%) agree on that utilizing short stories in EFL classes exposes students to a large variety of vocabulary and grammar structures in a way that they can appropriately acquire these structures. Meanwhile, three teachers (12%) are neutral and eight of them (32%) have answers disagree with the view that short stories contribute to students’ knowledge of vocabulary and grammar.

Table (4.3.13)

Analysis of Item (13) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.3.13)
Item (14) Short stories help students explore the power of the written language.
Table and figure (4.24) show that most of the participants (88%) agree on that teaching writing through short stories will motivate students to explore that written language is very powerful and effective in expressing ideas, feelings and impressions. Thus, this indicates the effectiveness of the short story in reflecting the beauty and attraction of the written language. Besides, two teachers (8%) have neutral view while only one teacher (4%) disagrees with this statement.

Table (4.3.14)
Analysis of Item (14) in the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>88.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (4.3.14)
4.4 Testing the Hypotheses

The hypotheses of the study will be presented individually and related to the results obtained from the data analysis and discussion.

**Hypothesis One:** Students can not communicate their thoughts appropriately through writing.

Results obtained from the statistical analysis of the pretest show that more than half of the students had fair to poor level on using information relevant to the topic, they failed in using connectives and putting ideas and events in correct order. In the area of vocabulary, an inappropriate choice of vocabulary was among the many difficulties students encounter when doing the test. It is also worth mentioning that the students’ performance indicated that students provided information not required, inappropriate and even irrelevant to the topic. Their product lacks the cohesive relationships within and between the sentences which identify whether a set of sentences do or do not constitute a text. Besides, the students’ product indicated poor spelling. This poor spelling limits the writer’s choice of words, which negatively impacts creativity and leads to short or incoherent pieces of writing and poor spellers often have low motivation to write (Sitton, 1995). This poor and weak performance of the students in the pretest may answer the first question: “Can students communicate their thoughts appropriately through writing? Thus all these results strongly support this hypothesis and confirm its validity.

**Hypothesis Two:** Short stories may develop the students writing competence and performance if well selected and utilized.

The statistical results of the posttest, i.e. after involving students in writing after being taught a short story, indicated a difference in the students’ scores. The results reveal that the short story allowed them to experience new ways of using language and acquire the form of the literary text as they clearly stated and supported their ideas. It is clear that a slight improvement has occurred in using different words that link individual sentences and parts of sentences even though sentence structure is still problematic. Besides, somewhat development in terms of spelling and punctuation was shown despite some spelling and punctuation mistakes that did not affect the meaning. Thus, teaching an appropriately selected story, students may benefit from reading to writing through exploring the linguistic features of the literary text. Teachers, on their responses to the questionnaire, assert to
promote reading as being a good means to enrich learners’ writing abilities. All these findings seem to support this hypothesis greatly and prove it was true and logical.

**Hypothesis Three: Teachers may use appropriate and effective techniques to develop the students’ writing through short stories.**

According to the responses of teachers’ questionnaire, the teachers agreed on that clearly stated aims of teaching short stories can lead to effective techniques to teaching writing. Meanwhile, the same teachers confirm that effective teaching of a short story in EFL classroom will provide learners with an adequate range of vocabulary and grammar, so improves students’ writing skills. Teachers also agreed on that if reading is made enjoyable and pleasurable, Learners will be adequately motivated to writing tasks. All these result support and prove this hypothesis is valid and positive.

**4.6 Conclusion**

In this chapter, the researcher has attempted to analyze and discuss the results of the main data gathered through tools of questionnaire and test. First, an analysis and discussion of the data gathered from students’ writing test have been displayed. Then, results of teachers’ questionnaires are analyzed and discussed. Thus, on the basis of the results obtained, the next chapter will be devoted to summary, findings and recommendations which are supposed to contribute to the improvement of students’ writing competence and performance.
CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction
This chapter is confined to the summary of what is mentioned in the previous chapters. The researcher also provides some suggestive points which might be important to treat the problems of students’ low achievement in writing.

5.1 Summary
EFL teachers want to help their students to be able to express and communicate their ideas in a clear manner, since writing occupies a centre stage at the main skills of language. Moreover, it is widely argued that reading and writing mutually develop each other. For this end, teachers need to expose their learners to a meaningful, interesting and relevant language learning materials in order to help them develop their writing competence and performance. The objective of the present study is to enhance students’ writing abilities through the medium of English short story. Also, it tries to help EFL learners explore, express and communicate their ideas into structured patterns, since writing is considered as a challenge for them. The researcher first started dealing with the relationship between reading and writing skills. Then moved on to state how EFL students could benefit from reading literary texts (short stories) by learning new ideas, use and usage of language. In chapter three, the investigator has provided a detailed description of the research methods, sample population, instrumentation and the different procedures used in the study. Moreover, the fourth chapter dealt with the analysis of data obtained from the students’ tests and questionnaires. Finally, in chapter five, the researcher provided some suggestions based on the obtained results.

5.2 Findings of the Study
With the analysis of students’ test and teachers’ questionnaire, the study reaches the following findings:
1. Errors that are committed by the students in writing are very noticeable in spelling, punctuation, and capitalization and paragraphing.
2. Syntax problems appeared in subject/verb agreement.
3. In terms of vocabulary, the students were unable to use appropriate words in their writing.
4. The students committed several errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments.
5. After teaching the short story, there were: (a) slight improvement in the selection of words subject-verb agreement, (c) using of linking words and capitalization developed, (d) fewer errors in spelling, and (e) improvement in using the correct word order and paragraphing.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the objectives established at the beginning of the research work in chapter one, and the above findings, the following are the possible recommendations for remedial work in the area of composition writing.

1. There is need for focusing on the spelling rules exceptions and differences between the two languages spelling systems while reading the story.
2. Grammar should be taught in context and by referring to areas of differences and overlapping between the two languages.
3. Providing students with excerpts from short fictions is recommended to teach cohesion and coherence. Besides, the activities that are proposed by Zamel (1983), namely, a sentence combining and completion exercises, organization of scrambled sentences, or the addition of any different cohesive devices, are also recommended to teach this area of writing.
4. When teaching new vocabularies through a short story, students’ level of proficiency in the target language as well as their needs and interest should be taken into consideration.
5. Using the technique of comparing-contrasting between the main characters of the story as an effective activity to practice writing.
6. Much concern should be devoted to providing learners with appropriate feedback since this will support their writing development, identify their strengths and weaknesses and help them improve their writing abilities.
5.4 Suggestion for Further Studies

This study investigates in the field of Language learning and teaching which definitely is still rich with areas of further investigations. This study was an attempt to investigate the effectiveness of integrating short stories to writing classes to develop writing competence and performance of EFL secondary school students. Further study is needed to tackle the area of integrating literature to language classes and course design.
REFERENCES


Gasm Elsied, A. (2010), English Language Teaching: Approaches, Methods and Techniques. Publisher: University of Gezira Press.


Zamel, V. (1983). Teaching those Missing Links in Writing. ELT journal vol. 37/1
Dear teacher,
I would be grateful to receive your response to the following statements which are intended to collect data for a study under the title: Utilizing Short Stories for Developing Writing Competence and Performance in EFL Classroom; Read the following statements carefully then tick (✓) your choice.

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<th>No</th>
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<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
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<td>1</td>
<td>The use of short stories can provide practical procedures by which students can improve their writing skills.</td>
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<td>Lack of guidelines to teaching short stories weakens their effectiveness in language classes.</td>
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<td>If there are clearly stated specific aims to teaching short stories, students will linguistically benefit.</td>
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<td>A systematic short story teaching strategy will help improve students’ writing skills.</td>
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<td>Teacher-centered approach fails to provide students with coherent strategies for studying the language of the text.</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Treating the main four skills of language in integrated way will lead to improving students’ writing abilities.</td>
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<td>If the teaching is effective this will enable students to analyze and acquire the coherent and cohesive relationships in the text.</td>
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<td>If teachers do provide their learners with a meaningful feedback, they can develop their writing work.</td>
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<td>If reading is enjoyable and pleasurable, Learners will be adequately motivated to writing tasks.</td>
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<td>Short stories expose learners to a variety of language mechanics like spelling and punctuation.</td>
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<td>Teaching of carefully selected short stories will enable learners to access the text in a systematic and methodical way.</td>
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<td>Reading literary texts will develop learners’ knowledge of language use and usage.</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Effective using of short stories in EFL classroom will provide learners with an adequate range of vocabulary and grammar.</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Short stories help students explore the power of the written language.</td>
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</table>
Appendix (2)

Writing Test: Pretest

Time: 60 minutes

Answer all questions

Q1 Use the clues to form sentences:
1- are – where – going – you – ?

……………………………………………………………………………………………………


……………………………………………………………………………………………………

3- are – two – his – reading – hobbies – watching – and – T.V – of

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

Q2 Use the suitable word from the list below to fill in the spaces

(July- French - in – His – daughter – an)

Alexander Dumas was………………. He was born on 24th…………1802 in Villers-Cotteret …northern France. …………father was ………..important soldier. Dumas’
mother was the …………………of an innkeeper.

Q3 Put the following connectives in the suitable spaces to make correct text

(as well as – in order to – because – However - But )

We are here …………. we want change for the better. ……………, recent studies have
shown that women have a remarkable contribution in development. …………. show that
they do contribute to the economy, something needs to be done. ………… what can be
done? Women should be given practical help …………………. encouragement.

Q4 Use suitable punctuation marks to punctuate the following sentences
1- I was coming to see you soon said Ali.
2- is everything all right asked Huda
3- Nada’s shopping list contains vegetables cooking oil sugar tea coffee and onions.
4- What a nice day

Q5 Make the suitable form of the words in brackets and put them in the spaces
1- Look! That man ………………………………to the town. (drive)
2- Read this passage …………………… (careful)
3- They …………… the village a week ago. (leave)
4- Cancer is one of the ………………… diseases. (curable)
5- This kitchen has four …………… . (shelf)
6- They make their classroom more ………………… (attract)
7- Going to school is a formal …………………… (educate)
8- Mona ……… not at home now. (be)
9- We do the work ………………… (selves)
10- People of France are……….. (France)

Q6 Rearrange these sentences to make story

1- In 1964 he was awarded Nobel Peace Prize.
2- Martin Luther King was born in Atlanta.
3- In 1965 Black people were given vote.
4- Martin organized ‘bus boycott’.
5- He was shot by Earl Ray.

Q7 In a short paragraph describe your brother

..........................................................................................................................
..........................................................................................................................

Good Luck
Appendix (3)

Writing Test: Posttest

Time: 60 minutes
Answer all questions

Q1 Use the clues to form sentences:

1- People – fight – Do- really – malaria - ?
...............................................................................................................

2- because – did – not –she – come – yesterday – here – was – Mona- sick
...............................................................................................................

3- Information – Computers - and - Technology- satellites – types – of -are
...............................................................................................................

Q2 Use the suitable word from the list below to fill in the spaces

(He– born – in – ill - stories – 1894- his )

Robert Louis Stevenson was ...............in Edinburgh, Scotland, .............. November 1850. Treasure Island is one of.................most famous............Stevenson was....................for much of his life. ...............died in Samoa in December ............

Q3 Put the following connectives in the suitable spaces to make correct text
( because – but – when – and – also )

My main hobby is playing the guitar. I usually play classical music..........
I can ..........play some folk songs. I started to play about fifteen years ago...
......... I was eighteen years old............I am still learning. I don’t play as much now .......... I don’t have a lot of spare time.

Q4 Use suitable punctuation marks to punctuate the following sentences

1- treasure island is not a true story
2- I want really to speak to okonkwo said uchendu
3- Proteins are found mainly in meat fish eggs milk and chicken
4- how old are you asked Taha
5- Help Mamma John shouted.

Q5 Make the suitable form of the words in brackets and put them in the spaces

1- Sudanese people have unique .................. (hospital)
2- ............., few people suffer from malaria this year.  (Fortunate)
3- They ..........Arabic monthly exam a week ago.  (sit )
4- These days, big cities are ...................... ( crowed)
5- This child has lost two of his .............. .  (tooth )
6- Huda is the ....................... girl in all the school.  (good )
7- She visited a friend of .......... in the town.  (she )
8- Mona doesn’t enjoy.................up late at night.  (stay )
9- We have good relations with .................government.  ( China )
10- People use mosquito-net ...............to fight malaria.  ( so )

Q6 Rearrange these sentences to make story
1-The dowry was paid by Ali’s parents.
2- He asked for her hand in marriage.
3- Finally, the bride and bridegroom went away on their honeymoon.
4- Ali met Huda at the college.
5- After that they had the wedding ceremony.
6- Ali informed her parents the next day and they agreed.
7- She accepted him, but told him to see her parents.
8- The couple got engaged.

Q7 In a short paragraph describe your house.

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# Appendix (4)

## Students’ Pretest Results

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## Appendix (5)

### Students’ Posttest Results

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