CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.0 Background

Over the last ten years there has been considerable attention in using short story as a tool of education. There are many conferences and workshops that have been held in the use of short story in EFL classroom. A short story is a work of fiction that is typically written in prose, often in narrative format. This configuration has a tendency to be more pointed than longer works of fiction, for example, novellas (in the twentieth and 21st century) and novels. The stories build up one's creative ability by bringing new thoughts into their world – thoughts regarding fantastical universes, different planets, and distinctive focuses on time and imaginary characters. It'll urge you to understand that you can, and ought to, imagine anything you need. The magnificence of stories is that they can be super practical or inconceivably fantastical. However, several major learning theorists have influenced instructional practices in whole language. The theorists include Dewey, Vygotsky, Halliday, and Piaget stressed the importance of integrating language with other subjects and explored how the social context influences individual learning.

Literary works, are regularly utilized as a part of language classes, for they are fun, persuading, and successful in extending intercultural awareness, empowering interpretative, and most of all promoting communicative competence. Current approaches show that learning a second language should not just involve linguistic competence but also include intercultural competence. Now days, it is known as a fact that teaching and learning a foreign language cannot be decreased to the immediate instructing of linguistic perspectives like phonology,
morphology, vocabulary, and sentence structure. Current approaches demonstrate that learning a second language should include linguistic competence as well as intercultural competence. So, many of the contributions to improve communicative competence have been to question the absence of culture which leads directly to communicative competence. The contemporary models of communicative competence show that there is much more to learn a language, and they include the vital component of cultural knowledge and awareness. In other words, to learn a language well, usually, requires knowing something about the culture of that language. Communication that lacks appropriate cultural content often results in humorous incidents, or worse, is the source of serious miscommunication and misunderstanding. The use of literary texts can promote reflection on cultural differences, develop understanding of the home culture, and consequently, enhance more tolerant and open attitudes towards other cultures. Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004), for instance, claim that cultural awareness might be accomplished through encountering the way of life, either straightforwardly through going to a society, or in a roundabout way through films, music or literature. According to what have been mentioned; the researcher will investigate the effect of short stories in developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence.

1.1 Statement of the Problem:

The researcher has stemmed from personal observation over many years of learning and teaching English language that as if there is not a weak of communicative competence only but also the absence of intercultural awareness. It is a medium that always is developing, changing, and advancing. The situation is further complicated by the great importance attached to scores in most language capability tests,
such as TOFEL, IELTS, CET, TEM and etc., held by authorities of different kinds worldwide. Such tests are designed either for students who want to study abroad or for those who want a certificate that will enhance their opportunities in handling a good job. These tests aim at showing the aspect of culture impairment as well as communicative competence. The basic issue with defining communication as nothing more than information exchange is only a necessary but not an adequate condition for understanding the complex process of communication. So the current research aims to investigate the use of short stories as an effective strategy in developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence of EFL university student.

1.2 Questions of the Study

This study raises some questions which are:
1. To what extent will short stories result in developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence?
2. To what extend is there a significant statistical correlation between short story and development of intercultural awareness?
3. To what extend is there a significant statistical correlation between short story and development of communicative competence?

1.3 Hypotheses of the Study

1. Short story is expected to result in developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence.

2. There is a significant statistical correlation between short story and development of intercultural awareness.

3. There is a significant statistical correlation between short story and development of communicative competence.
1.4 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to investigate the effect of short story in developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence in addition to achieve the following:

1. To highlight the importance of short story in reflecting the intersection of culture and language in EFL classroom.

2. To show how to foster students’ intercultural awareness and communicative competence by having them read short story.

3. To highlight the importance of cultural aspects in communication context.

1.5 Significance of the Study

According to Porto (2010), in fact, a more comprehensive view of culture, understood as the particular beliefs, ways of life, and even artistic expressions of a specific society, should obviously be the goal of current EFL education. This study draws its significance from examining the use of short story and in developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence of Preparatory Year Students at Omdurman Islamic University (OIU), and suggests some useful activities to develop their intercultural awareness and communicative competence. Also, this study may be counted as one of the few studies that are applied at OIU addressing modern issue. The short story is defined, in this study, in terms of what it does rather than what it is.

1.6 Methodology

In this study experimental method and analytical statistical methods will be adopted. pre-test and post-test will be designed to
examine a random sample of students at Omdurman Islamic University Preparatory year Students. In addition to a questionnaire for teachers in data collection. The questionnaire involves data that might help investigating the different factors that influence intercultural awareness and communicative competence. The sample of the study consists of two groups: experimental group and controlled group. Collected data will be processed by statistical package for social science (SPSS). The findings will be the results which may suggest some recommendations to conclude the study. However, validity and reliability of the research instruments will be confirmed before these instruments are applied.

1.7 Limits of the Study

In this study, the limits are as follows:

1. The population of the study are students of Omdurman Islamic University, faculty of Arts - English language Dept. both male and female (preparatory year students - 2nd semester.)

2. The study takes place at Omdurman Islamic University during 2017.

1.8 Summary of the Chapter

In this introductory chapter, the researcher has presented an introduction of the study, the statement of the problem, questions, hypotheses, objectives, significant of the study, methodology, delimitation of the study, the summary of the study and definition of terms. In the following chapter, a review of related literature and previous studies will be presented.
1.9 Definition of the Terms

Here by and in this study the following terms mean:

**Intercultural Awareness** is the ability to take on the perspectives of a conversational partners from another culture or with another nationality, and of their cultural backgrounds, and thus, to be able to understand and take into consideration interlocutors’ different perspectives simultaneously.

**Communicative Competence** is the ability to use language appropriately, both receptively and productively, in real life situation.
CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review and Previous Studies

2.1 Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Overview

The aim of this chapter is to put the research problem into theoretical framework and theories relevant to the topic. There is also some related previous studies stated at the end of this chapter. As far as this study explores short story; first, it gives a background to the genre and its history in English literature; then the literary characteristics of short story followed by its elements: explore the features of short story in enhancing intercultural awareness as well as communicative competence. It particularly presents the power of short story in EFL classroom. Also, it goes further to present its role in showing the cultural aspects which enhancing communicative competence. Later in this chapter, previous studies and its method, findings and recommendation will be discussed and concludes with a summary.

2.1.2 Background

Since the beginning of language, stories have given an extraordinary approach to children to find out about the history, culture, values and pragmatic aptitudes of their society. Short story have the great advantage of contextualizing newly met cultural items; with their apparent interest that serves to make the target language more memorable. Leslie Marmon Silko (2012) states that: “The human capacity for language and storytelling go hand in hand”. Being able to communicate in a language involves more than simply understanding the words and having the capacity to deliver and claim sentences. It likewise
requires learning and comprehension of the social parts of the language. Fictional literature is more than just fiction. Stories about individuals and cultures that are unique in relation to our own give an awesome window into worlds that are generally removed to us. The way of stories is to such an extent that they frequently give an option and more private path into another culture than what factual texts can offer. This is the beginning point for this thesis.

2.1.3 What is Literature?

As indicated by Evangelia (2003). Most definitions of literature have been criteria definitions; definitions based on a rundown of Criteria which every literary work must meet. What is implied by literature and what sorts of literature are described as literary texts is begging to be proven wrong since there are no guidelines which can clearly characterize what literature is? Furthermore, what is most certainly not? Also she distinguished the three kinds of literary texts are:

A. visual texts like films, television advertisements, cartoons, photographs etc.

B. spoken and written texts like spoken drama, interviews, films and TV commentaries, poetry, novels, play scripts, journalism etc.

C. Musical texts such as vocal instruments, records, CDs, etc.

She further points out the reason why all the above texts can be characterized as literary work is that they are all social documents offered to their spectators, readers or listeners a full cultural understanding of the country where the target language is the first language.(ibid:2003). Also Edmonson (2012) states that “literature for some people is only written texts with a certain aesthetic value”. Others still try to find in the texts
special characteristics like rhyme, metaphor and similes. Anyhow, the researcher believes that literary texts like sweet with different tests.

Brumfits and Carter (1986) agree that there is no such thing as literary work. However, they don't deny that language is used in ways which can be recognized as literary work. Still, they think that it's difficult to isolate a single or an exceptional property of language which is exclusive to literature. For instance, the metaphor which is conventionally thought to be a distinguishing feature of literature is pervasive in the daily discourse and is not unique to literature. Another aspect of literature is a striking phonological example which recognizes poetic language, in spite of the fact that it is not impossible to literature and can be found in common language such as proverbs and commercials advertisements. Indeed, even semantic thickness of language as a rule connected with literature can be identified in ordinary language. They further argue that literature is not a language variety like the language of daily newspaper features or legal language. Literature, rather, is the main setting where distinctive assortments of language can be blended and admitted. Littlewood (1975) adds that literature is not subjectively not exactly the same as other semantic execution, and that is a case of the profitable use of a foreordained number of etymological structures with a particular objective to fulfill correspondence; the major center of the phonetic framework is the same, whether it is used for talked chatter or for writed literature. Littlewood agrees with Brumfit and Carter in tolerating that literature can draw on each open style, from the most "raised" to the most casual, to get its effects or to give its representation of life.

Carter and Long (1990) have correspondingly suggested the conversation starter of whether there is anything unique about the dialect of writing. They keep up that there, would appear to be an awesome arrangement
that recognizes writing from ordinary dialect. 'But the dialect of writing has a mix of components, shared by an endless choice of different writings'.

Littlewood also agrees with Brumfit and Carter in assuming that literature can draw on all available styles, from the most elevated to the most informal, to gain its effects or to give its representation of life.

Carter and Long (1990) have similarly posed the question of whether there is anything special about the language of literature. They maintain that there would seem to be a great deal that distinguishes literature from ordinary language.’ But the language of literature has a combination of features, shared by a vast selection of other texts’. They, however, conclude that there are no rules to distinguish between literature and non - literature, but there may be a personal scale or a cline of literariness which allows the reader to place a text higher or lower on the scale.

Lazar (1993) also agrees with Brumfit and Carter in that there is considerable controversy among literary theorists and critics as to how to define literature. Citing a number of texts Lazar points out that it is quite difficult to identify which text are literary and which ones are not - she justifies this by saying that “ This is probably because there is no specialized literary Language which can be isolated and analyzed in the same way as the language of special field”.She concludes by agreeing with Brmfit and Carter in that literature does not constitute a particular type of language in itself, but that it may reveal a higher incidence of certain kind of linguistic features which are tightly patterned in the text.

A useful definition of literature by Ronald and Carter (1996), is that literary discourse is: "A culturally rooted language which is purposefully
patterned and representational, which actively promotes a process of interpretation and which encourages a pleasurable interaction with and negotiation of its meanings."

Short and Candlin (1982) also agree with Lazar and Carter and Long in that it is difficult to make a linguistic distinction between literature and the rest of the language. They have compared the language of poetry with that of advertising and found out that features traditionally associated with poetry (e.g. rhyme, meter, metaphor, etc.) are also found in advertising. They also agree with Fowler (1991) in rejecting the traditional notion that there is a separate literary language, claiming that literature should be defined in socio-cultural rather than in linguistic terms. But they agree that there may be a quantitative difference between the occurrences of certain linguistic features in literary as opposed to non-literary texts. However, for the purpose of this research, the researcher agrees with Lazar (1993: 5) in taking literature to mean: "...those novels, short stories, plays and poems which are fictional and convey their message by paying considerable attention to language which is rich and multi-layered”.

Lazar’s definition of literature includes besides the traditional literary Canon, contemporary works of non-native English speakers. About this notion of the expansion of literature to include literatures in English of non-native speakers.

Carter and Rae (1992) write that:

*English is no longer the language of a few islands of the north-west coast of Europe. It is the first or*
second language of many millions. It is no longer possible to speak dismissively of local varieties as being in some way inferior or deviant. Over the past twenty years or so, there have been far-reaching and welcome revaluations of the range of English's and more literatures than ever before.

2.1.3.1 Using Literary Work in the EFL Classroom: A Historical Perspective

Carter and Rae (1992) shed light on the use of literature in the EFL class-room by saying that language and literature have been kept distinct in many curricular in many parts of the world and often for good reasons; but much of mutual benefit can be earned from our better understanding of the continuities between the study of language and the study of its literature.

About the status of literature in the EFL curriculum at large Carter and Long (1991) write that until relatively recent times the teaching of literature in foreign language classes was an activity whose justification was assumed to be obvious. The study of certain classic pieces of literature is considered a sine qua non for the truly educated person. But the status of the English literature in the EFL curriculum is no longer as important as it is used to be during the 1970 and 1980. This is justified by the fact that more recently, particularly in the last fifteen years, the emphasis on the study of English for specific practical purposes, and on the spoken more than on the written language, has severely challenged the place of literature in the EFL/ESL curriculu. Ibid (1992) They also write about the lack of any writings on the role of literature in the EFL classroom, or of the relation between language and literature teaching in
the seventies and early eighties. Littlewood (1975) depicting the status of literature in the EFL curriculum, saying that at present there is a high degree of uncertainty about the role of literature in the EFL curriculum. Changes in educational and social conditions have shaken the once unquestioned status of literature study amongst our educational goals, and literature also plays a more problematic role in a new pattern of language teaching which aims primarily at practical communicative skills. Recent discussions about advanced courses in schools have generally advocated less emphasis on literature in favor of language. On the neglect of literature in the EFL classroom. Maley and Duff (1990) write that for many years literature, and in particular poetry has not been regarded as a “proper” material for foreign language learning. The Structuralism Approach tended to exclude literature except in the form of Simplified readers, and the utilitarian bias of the communicative approach deflected attention away from anything which did not seem to have a practical purpose. They criticized the traditional approach of literature teaching by saying that literature continues to be included in some foreign language programs. But unfortunately, it has survived in a traditional model which is no longer constant with the rapid changes which have taken place in mainstream language merely illustration. Benton (1992) also writes about the cause of neglecting literature and the focus on language:

Comprehension skills and critical skills became valued by an examination system that has largely by-passed’ literary experience as such and certainly paid scant attention to the role of the reader and the nature of literary I response.
But Benton points out that the emphasis has now changed when closer relationship has been discerned between reading and literature teaching. Maley and Duff (1990) also write about the earlier period of grammar-translation model when literature texts were the very stable of foreign-language teaching, representing both models of good writing and illustrations of grammatical rules of language.

They further write about the dominance of the structuralism approach when the status of literature has negatively changed and literature found itself side-lined. The formal properties of the language took precedence, and literature study was seen as part of the bad old ‘traditional’ method. It became difficult to justify the use of literary texts in a world where the grading of vocabulary and structures was given so much emphasis. After the advent of the communicative approach, they point out that the new functional-notional communicative movement also ignored literature. The emphasis was on pragmatic and efficient communication. Literature seemed ‘to be irrelevant’. Yet, in the last ten years or so there has been a remarkable revival of interest in literature as one of the resources available for language learning.

Zafeirakou (2004), however, says that during the 1980 the situation has changed quite radically and literature is undergoing an extensive reconsideration within the language teaching profession, provoking a series of articles in professional journals, books and curricular review. The issue of teaching English literature in non-native contexts dates back from the early years of this century when literature was considered of high prestige in language study and access to literary works was assumed part of the purpose of language learning. This approach was characterized by a concentration on the Classics assuming that constant exposure to the
best uses of English language would develop the student's performance in the target language.

Zafeirakou (2004) cites the difficulty, the inaccessibility of many literary texts to nonnative English speaking students and the lack of a consistent and suitable methodology as the primary causes why literature has failed in the language classroom. And so literature has gradually disappeared from the language classroom, and surrogate literature replaced authentic texts in the form of situational text books, dialogues and short tales that were devised to carry structure only but not of the literary effect that characterizes a genuine text. The place and role of literature in the language classroom was questioned, furthermore, by the BLT approach during the period 1960, which did not encourage students to develop a feeling for the language of response to texts. He also writes about the advent of structuralism which was incompatible with the teaching of literature because of its emphasis on correctness in grammatical forms and repetition of a restricted lexis. Depicting the use of literature in the EFL syllabus in Brazil, Zingier (1994) points out that until the early sixties, reading literature in a foreign language was part of language teaching and the student was expected to translate the text from the target to source language or vice versa. She claims that the main objective of learning a foreign language in those days was to enable the student to read literary texts produced in the target language in order to acquire the foreign culture from the collection of texts produced in the target language in order to acquire the foreign culture from the collection of texts canonized by tradition. This objective was based on the belief that by learning English literature the student would become a morally better person.
She further cites reasons for the disappearance of literature from the EFL curriculum. Though she is depicting the situation in Brazil, her statements can be held true for the EFL situation in general; literature gradually lost its prestigious position in the classroom. This stage begins with the expansion of the market, the growth of practical needs and interests. These were, according to Zingier dark times for literature. The ambiguity and polysemy which are part of the nature of literary texts had no place here. Literature was banned from the EFL classroom.

But since the eighties there has been a gradual change in some experts' attitudes towards literature. Investments were made on books which worked on the interface between language and literature and linguists had also been claiming that the language of literary texts was not much different from the language of every day communication. Argument was that literary texts were amenable to same analytical tools used for the language of ads, political speech, etc. (Cook: 1992, Fowlerz1986, Carter and Nash: 1983) cited by Zingier (1994: 3). The communicative approach coming after the structurally-based methodologies welcomes the use of literature in the EFL classroom, since the representational nature of literary texts come to be regarded as a rich potential learning area where social patterns of interaction could be experienced in contextualized situations.

This reawakening of interest in the teaching of literature to nonnative students was a major motive for the design and publication of several books, in the 1980 and early 1990. These comprised among others: Language For Literature (1983) by R. Walker, Reading Between the Lines, (1994) by J. Me Ray and Board man; A course in English Language and Literature (1986) by B. Lott; The Web of Words (1987) by
These publications beside others attempt to bridge the gap between language and literature studies and to introduce students to some of the finest literature in English making use of texts as a basis for language practice and to improve and develop students’ understanding and use of the language through the reading and discussion of literature texts. Zafeirakou (2004)

2.1.4 Reasons for Selecting Short Story

The choice of the short story as the literary genre for exploration of the questions posed in this thesis is not a random one. Neither is the selection of the short stories which have been analyzed. Though the short story often has been viewed as an inferior genre to other literary forms, and has often been defined as a shorter, less accomplished version of the novel, it has come to be recognized as a genre in its own right, and as something more than a story which is short. In order to explain why the short story is a genre especially suited as a source of cultural insight in a teaching context, the researcher will give a very brief account of the development of short story theory, and how this form of literature is viewed today. Then the criteria for choosing the five particular short stories will be explained. According to (Bachman 1990, Council of Europe 2001) Current approaches show that learning a foreign language should not just involve linguistic competence but also include intercultural competence. Also, it is known as a fact that teaching and learning a foreign language cannot be decreased to the immediate instructing of linguistic perspectives like phonology, morphology, vocabulary, and sentence structure. So, many of the contributions to
improving communicative competence have been to question the absence of culture which leads directly to communicative competence. The contemporary models of communicative competence show that there is much more to learn a language, and they include the vital component of cultural knowledge and awareness. In other words, to learn a language well, usually, requires knowing something about the culture of that language. Communication that lacks appropriate cultural content often results in humorous incidents, or worse, is the source of serious miscommunication and misunderstanding. The use of literary texts can promote reflection on cultural differences, develop understanding of the home culture, and consequently, enhance more tolerant and open attitudes towards other cultures. Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004), for instance, claim that cultural awareness might be accomplished through encountering the way of life, either straightforwardly through going to a society, or in a roundabout way through films, music or literature. According to what have been mentioned; the researcher will investigate the effect of short stories in developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence.

2.1.5 What is Short Story?

The short story is defined as short work of literature often written in narrative prose. It is focused on a sequence of events that shaped the story. That is to say, it is rather short form of prose fiction. It often narrates a specific set of events with focusing on one aim with one plot. It usually comprises a small set of characters. The short story made up of a beginning, middle and end. Each story consists of single simple plot. The short story involves setting, central character, action and takes single place during a short period, such as an hour, few hours, and a day. For instance, Ernest Hemingway's "Hills like White Elephants" is a short
story concentrating on a conversation that occurred on a single day. The writer of a short story shuns unimportant repetition and fine descriptions due to the fact that the short story requires economy and conciseness.

2.1.6. Origins of Short Story

James (1991) writes that the short story started to develop for the first time before man learns how to write to help himself in building and memorizing stories. The early storyteller frequently relies on stock phrases, fixed rhythms, as well as rhyme. As the result, many of the oldest narratives in the world, such as the famous Babylonian tale the Epic of Gilgamesh (c. 2000 bc), are in verse. Indeed, most major stories from the very old Middle East were in verse: "The War of the Gods," "The Story of Adapa" (both Babylonian), "The Heavenly Bow," and "The king Who Forgot" (both Canaanite). These tales took wedge-shaped on mud during the second millenary BC. The short story is related to the novel while the lyric is related to the epic — the first is personal, compressed, fragmented and emotional, and the second universal, expansive, totalizing and objective. According to Harold Orel, there is great difference between the British and American tradition in short fiction, for whom the short story, he writes developed independently. In North America' magazines: The pioneer Poe was writing for and about a American version 'of the short story, which he called the "tale ". American literature is completely not just British of English literature with a different accent; it has a specific history and a number of contexts. In a sequence of essays and reviews from the 1840 in which he repeats and purifies his ideas, Poe explains the short prose the tale as his ideal form of fiction for the modern world. He was attempting to develop a new style that would speak particularly to and for the "new’ country America, contrasting the modernity of the United States with the near death
traditions of fiction in Europe, especially Britain. Poe's short stories focused on the sensational, the shocking, and the ghostly and unnatural features. Indeed, in a piece published in 1838, "How to write a Blackwood’s Article", he wrote: "Sensations are the great things after all". His stories also reveal — as this quotation would suggest — a lively eye to the main financial chance. Therefore, in spite of the fact that there are problems with adopting Poe as a founding father for the British short story. He identified two key ways in which the short story might be approached.

The short story has originated in magazine fiction: it is commercial fiction, produced for the marketplace, usually as filler material to pad out editorial matter and occupy the space between advertisements. That economic fact has a pivotal effect on its artistic shape. Emphasis on reading, perhaps Short stories have been found in the sense of short tales being told, since the dawn of time. Third element of definition is the question of what we mean by “British”. A handful of the writers to whom attention has been paid are not specifically British. Katherine Mansfield (1888 - 1923) was born in New Zealand, Henry James (1843 - 1916) in the United States, James Joyce (1882 - 1941) in Ireland and there are many other examples. As we have already suggested, then, compared with writers and critics in the United States, where the short story has for a long time been known a form with its own moral, social and artistic dimensions, British writers and critics have been far less willing to write about it. Certainly it is the case that when we look at mid-nineteenth century Britain, there is no exact starting point; it is impossible to find an Edgar Allen Poe— like figure who supports the kind of unified influence excelled by early American critics. Moreover, a great deal of the influence on the British short story has come from elsewhere, from figures such as the French realist writer Guy de Maupassant (1850 — 93)
and the migrant American Henry James. The emergence of James's 1871, "The Passionate Pilgrim", a story which depicted the clash between American and Europe cultures, seemed to reveal how the short story or novella could offer the surface really much larger than the mere offered face of the work'. According to James(1991), the fiction of the creative Russian dramatist and short story writer Anton Chekhov (1860 - 1904), which consist of more than fifty stories has great influence on the development of the form, especially in its modernist incarnations. Translated into English in the early years of the twentieth century, his tales of frustrated love affairs, economic worries' and the dullness of middle-class marriage, which admirably condensed the subject matter of the nineteenth century novel into key episodes in a 'character's life, offered a blueprint for the realist short story in Britain during the twentieth century. His interest in character and psychology, and his skill at dialogue gained from his success as a dramatist, were imitated by important modernist writers of the 1920, including Katherine Mansfield, who cited his work as a key influence on her own. The British short story is thus a complex, multiform creature. It is made up of relationships between the material world of the demands of publishing and the marketplace, particular aesthetic schemas and program, the conventions of genre and the influence of the writers of other nations.

2.1.7 The Genre

What makes a short story more than a story which is simply short? Several attempts have been made to give an answer to this question. Edgar Allan Poe was considered to be one of the first to write on the short story, and his pieces are basic to short story theory. He focuses on the unity of effect and that a story should “not exceed in length what might be read in an hour” Poe (1994). “In the brief tale, however, the author has
an ability to carry out the fullness of his intention, be it what it may. During the hour of perusal the soul of the reader is at the writer’s control” Poe (1994 p.). Poe means by this, is that when the reader reads a novel, he/she takes breaks, gets impressions from other parts of his/her life; there is what you might call interference. Whereas when reading a short story, the story is (mostly) the focus of attention from beginning to end. The unity of effect is fulfilled when the reader dives into the universe of the story and stay there, uninterrupted, until the story ends .Another classic in short story theory is American writer and educator Brander Matthews. In his 1901 article entitled “The Philosophy of the Short Story” he shows the difference between a novel and short story. He utilizes the hyphen and capital S to stress the difference between a true Short story and a story that is simply short. He agrees with Poe that a Short-story has a unity of impression which a novel cannot have. He writes that “A Short-story deals with a single character, a single event, a single emotion, or the series of emotions called forth by a single situation” . Matthews (1994) argues that the short story writer possesses greater freedom concerning choice of theme than the writer of a novel, but he does stress the need for a Short story writer to be concise, original and have ingenuity and fantasy. Another difference between the novel and the Short story, he claims, is the need to tell a story. He says a Short story is nothing without a plot, whereas there are many examples of novels without a plot. He claims the aim of the novel is often to give a personal impression of life, not so much to tell a story. The story itself, then, is at the core of the short story, while story is of less significance in the novel. Matthews concludes that the Short story is one of the few defined literary forms – a genre, and that the Short-story was developed long before the novel in the history of literature. Van Dijk (1994) argue that there has been a great difference as to how to define the short story
and whether or not it is inferior to other literary forms. In recent decades, however, there has been a shift towards recognition of the genre. There has also been a turn towards cognitive theories in defining the short story and how it is understood by readers.

Cognitive short story theory has a link to cognitive psychology. Studies of story comprehension have been conducted to find out how much knowledge a reader needs in order to understand stories and single parts of stories (e.g. at the sentence level). Terms like frame and script emerged from these studies, as well as links to traditional schema theory.

What short story critics think of the genre is one thing, what writers themselves think, is another. One example of the short stories included in this thesis is written by Nadine Gordimer, who wrote an essay on what characteristics of the genre. She compares the short story to the flash of fireflies, which, according to her is more true to human existence than the consistent nature of the novel: Short story writers see by the light of the flash; theirs is the art of the only thing one can be sure of – the present moment. Ideally, they have learned to do without explanation of what went before, and what happens beyond this point. A discrete decisive moment is aimed at – not the decisive moment, because the short story doesn’t deal in cumulative. Gordimer (1994)
The aim of the short story and the novel, is to communicate human experience. In real human experience, moments of truth come like flashes, in single moments, single situations. Another short story writer, Raymond Carver says almost the same thing: “First the glimpse. Then the glimpse given life, turned into something that illuminates the moment and May, if we’re lucky – that word again – have even further ranging consequences and meaning” (May, 1994).

This is what definition of the short story does; it shows us that one moment of revelation and insight with no need to explain the context.
What we can agree upon when discussing the short story is that it has a density, intensity that makes it necessary to read between the lines, and it requires great effort to be exerted to go beneath the surface to get to the meaning of the text. May, (Ibid, 2002) writes that most short story critics have classified the short story closer to the lyric than to the narrative in terms of sense that it makes use of “metaphorically over determined language”. My claim is that this makes it a highly relevant genre to use in the English classroom. Not only does this require close attention to language and interpretation, but it also important to reflect and search for meaning. Another advantage of the genre is that it is by virtue an accessible genre. It is not a difficult task for a student to read a short story, and often the short story is very short to read and discuss within the span of one session. In other words, there are many characteristics of the short story makes it highly appropriate to be used in language education.

2.1.8 Elements and Characteristics of Short Stories

Short stories tend to be less complex than novels. Usually, a short story will focus on only one incident, has a single plot, a single setting, a limited number of characters, and covers a short period of time. In longer forms of fiction, stories tend to contain certain core elements of dramatic structure: exposition (the introduction of setting, situation and main characters); complication (the event of the story that introduces the conflict); rising action, crisis (the decisive moment for the protagonist and their commitment to a course of action); climax (the point of highest interest in terms of the conflict and the point of the story with the most action); resolution (the point of the story when the conflict is resolved); and moral. Because of their short length, short stories may or may not follow this pattern. Some do not follow patterns at all. For example, modern short stories only occasionally have an exposition. More typical,
though, is an abrupt beginning, with the story starting in the middle of the action. As with longer stories, plots of short stories also have a climax, crisis, or turning-point. However, the endings of many short stories are abrupt and open and may or may not have a moral or practical lesson. Of course, as with any art form, the exact characteristics of a short story will vary by author.

2.1.8.1 Length

Determining what exactly separates a short story from longer fictional formats is problematic. A classic definition of a short story is that one should be able to be read it in one sitting, a point most notably made in Edgar Allan Poe's essay "The Philosophy of Composition" (1846). Other definitions place the maximum word length at 7,500 words. In contemporary usage, the term short story most often refers to a work of fiction no longer than 20,000 words and no shorter than 1,000. Source: www.en.wikipedia.org

2.1.8.2 Short Story Structure

- Create a narrative lead: show the main character in action, dialogue, or reaction.
- Introduce the main character’s character.
- Introduce the setting: the time place, and relationships of the main character’s life.
- Introduce and develop the problem the main character is facing.
- Develop the plot and problem toward a climax: e.g. a decision, action, conversation, or confrontation, or confrontation that shows the problem at its height.
- Develop a change in the main character: e.g. an acknowledgement of understanding of something, a decision, a course of action, a regret.
- Develop a resolution: how does the main character come to terms – or
not – with his or her problem? Source: Lessons that Change Writers, Nancie Atwell, (2002)

2.1.8.3 Short Story Terminology

Atmosphere – the general mood, feeling or spirit of a story.

Characterization – the way that the author creates characters.

Protagonist – the main character who is faced with a problem.

Antagonist – the person, place, idea or physical force against the protagonist.

Climax – the point of the highest dramatic intensity; the turning point.

External conflict – happens outside the character.

Internal conflict – happens inside the character; (character vs. himself/herself)

Foreshadowing – clues of hints which prepare the reader for future action or events.

Irony – contrast or contradiction of what is expected and what results.

Verbal irony – occurs when a character or narrator says one thing but means the opposite.

Dramatic irony – occurs when the reader knows more than the character.

Situational irony – occurs when the contrast between what appears to be and what actually exists.

Plot – action of the story.

Chronological – places events in order of time from first to last.

Flashback – looks back at events that have already occurred. Point of View – the angle from which the author tells the story.

First Person Narrative – the narrator uses “I” and participates in the action.

Third Person Narrative – the narrator uses “he” and “she” and is an outside observer.
**Omniscient** – narrator can see, know and tell all of the characters of a story.

**Limited Omniscient** – narrator can only see, know and tell all of one character.

**Objective** – narrator describes the characters statements but doesn’t reveal thoughts or feelings.

**Resolution** – the outcome of a story.

**Setting** – the background where the action takes place.

**Suspense** – anticipation as to the outcome of events.

**Symbol** – a similar object, action, person, or place or something else that stands for something abstract. (www.flashcardexchange.com)

**2.1.9 The power of Using Short Story in the EFL Classroom**

This section looks at ways to put down story roots in students through further exploration of the relationship between storytelling and language development.

The National Story Telling Association(1994) point out that since stories are organized encounters with a plot and a beginning, center and end, they are among the absolute best language experiences. Story structures move toward becoming framework for the experiences in life and in story.

This impact has a several causes. first, stories are made out of words typically talked musically, and have both primary meaning and secondary, or connotative, meaning. even simple rhymes, for example, "Jack be agile, Jack Jump over the Candlestick" are rich with a sound and sense and sense not found in ordinary speaking and reading. Second the story is a springboard for related types of speaking, thinking, writing and reading. At the point when young adults are language rich, they convey more experience and as a result engage the subject more deeply and come
away with more additional.
Hearing an extensive variety of stories from an early age in both the classroom and home presents a treasure upon a child. The early stories root in a child's inner life and grow and develop, giving it structure and significance. The individual sufficiently favored to have had a lifetime of hearing stories resembles all around watered tree: the roots dive deep; the branches reach to the sky.

2.1.10 Short Stories Develop Receptive and Productive Skills
They also argue that writing is however one segment of the gathering of abilities student must utilize as they investigate language. The language abilities reading writing listening and speaking—all work together. Students may write about what they have read or talk about what they have listened, write or read.
Maybe some portion of the issue is that written work is frequently educated as an end in itself, for instance, writing a book report is required for its own purpose as opposed to as a methods for sharing a book the student appreciated. The problem is exacerbated when students realize that their syntax, punctuation, and spelling will be checked. Under this approach, writing turns out to be more exercise as opposed to methods for considering, making. Investigating, or reacting to encounters. Something is absent for the student: a living association with the words themselves.
Storytelling gives the missing connection, as the narrating related exercises in this part illustrate. When narrating in all its myriad forms is added to the educational programs, writing turns into a way to an attractive end. The articles that follow explore ways of meshing stories is that storytelling can contribute to the teaching of writing because it is after all, spoken literature. (Ibid 1994) Writing is however one part of the gathering of abilities student must utilize as they investigate language.
Preferably the language aptitudes perusing writing in the Armenian convention narrating includes an audience, a speaker and one speaker or audience who comprehends the story profoundly enough to follow up on its significance. This is knowledge we can all profit by. In the current classroom numerous instructors feel students don't listen well, don't notice them.

Maybe a halfway answer for the issue lies in basic practice of human expressions of listening and speaking by turns. Both listening and speaking include a few exercises in the meantime: language, thought and sensory awareness. Utilization of these facilities in a setting in which they are esteemed can yield amazing outcomes with young adults who once in the past demonstrated poor speaking and listening abilities.

Narrating gives truly necessary involvement in speaking and listening. While a story is told, individuals from the gathering of people are called to listen effectively, creatively, and responsively paying little respect to their age. One has just to be available amid narrating and to hear the capable addressing realize that student end genuinely take care of each word.

2.1.11 Nature, Culture and Language

One of the methods of thinking about culture is to contrast it with nature. Nature refers to what is born and grows organically (from the Latin nascere: to be born); culture refers to what has been grown and groomed (from the Latin colere: to cultivate). The word culture evokes the traditional nature/nurture debate: are human beings mainly what nature determines them to be from birth or what culture enables them to become through socialization and schooling?

2.1.11.1 What is culture, and how does it relate to narrative?

When working with questions of the relationship between culture and
literature, it is useful to have a definition of culture in mind. Culture can be defined as “the actual grounded terrain of practices, representations, languages and customs of any specific society” Barker (2003) quotation from S. Hall). What culture is concerned with is how we make sense of the world, and meanings are generated through different signs, of which language is the most important signifying system. Studies of language and stories are therefore of great importance in culture studies. Barker (Ibid, 2003) writes that: “Narratives offer us frameworks of understanding and rules of reference about the way the social order is constructed” If we want to learn something about the norms, values and customs of a society, stories can help us understand how that particular society makes sense of the world and create meaning through language and narratives. When analyzing the short stories, I shall be looking at what the stories reveal about the practices, representations and customs of the societies the stories emerged from. Narrative theory provides tools that enable us to look at how culture is represented in a text. Choices made in relation to for example narration and time and space are often reflections of the explicit and implicit cultural issues the text deals with, and can reveal something about values and ways of seeing the world of both the world of the text itself, and the cultural formation from which the narrative emerged.

2.1.11.2 Understanding Culture

This section briefly overviews the anthropological literature which has shaped the definition of culture which underlies today’s intercultural view of target language development. Changes in the understanding of culture have brought about significant change in the direction and methodologies of language education research. Achieved noteworthy alter in the course and systems of language instruction look into.
2.1.11.3 Culture in Anthropology

Early concepts of culture grew out of interest in the origins, or evolution, of culture at the turn of the nineteenth century. The French sociologist Durkheim (1858–1917) offered a key text for serious positivist social researchers in his Rules of the sociological method (Durkheim, Ibid 1938). The typical method of the ‘lone ethnographer’ Rosaldo, (1989) was to go into a country, spend very little time at the site, and remove as many artefacts ('culture') as possible. Artefacts would be collected, classified and displayed in museums, separated from their social context. Culture was fixed, ‘edifying’ for the masses, and subject to colonial discourses (Hall, (1997). The classic ethnographies of social anthropology, such as Radcliffe Brown (1933), made concise empirical notices of observable behaviour. Unseen internal motivations were considered irrelevant.

2.1.11.4 The Power of Short Story in Enhancing Intercultural Awareness in EFL Classroom

Short stories are effective when EFL learners focus on others culture. Short stories transmit the culture of the people about whom the stories were written. By learning about the culture, students learn about the past and present, and about people customs. Culture teaches students to understand and respects people differences. When using literary text, teachers muses or be aware that culture roe whom the text was written should be studied. As student faces a new culture, they become more aware of their own culture. They start comparing their culture to see whether the fine similarities or differences between the two culture.

2.1.11.5 The Rise of Teaching Culture in the EFL Classroom

During, (2004). Current interest in teaching culture worldwide is due to inter-disciplinary efforts made in cultural studies. It came into
existence in the 1940s in English literature studies and has entered the forefront of academia since the latter part of the 1980s. Meanwhile, the study of English literature as an academic discipline is on continuous decline and its heyday has been over. Just as Simon During has observed, "English is losing ground to a wide spread of contemporary culture forms advertising and the internet to cartoons and art movies- what we call cultural studies".

What is During is attempting to discuss here is that people all over the world are no longer interested in English as a language, but that cultural studies in connection with English have a significant role to, play in the age of economic globalization as indicated by the blurring of the boundary between high culture (of English literature) and popular culture (of advertisements, cartoons and art movies). Jones, (2002). In accompany with economic globalization, there is a tendency of cultural globalization, which in finality will annihilate the cultural products produced by the few hegemonic powers. Whereas, English been used, first by Britain in the colonial period, and then by America in the postcolonial period, as a vehicle in the construction of "western capitalist hegemony and globalization". For this reason, the English language has been regarded by some as a form of hegemonic power, and the learning of it, due largely to the cultural superiority it represents, will possibly lead to the loss of cultural identity of the learners through the process of acculturation imposed upon them by the hegemonic powers. Cultural studies, on the other hand, are able to break the hegemony , if there is any, imposed by the English language, by adopting a multicultural policy of applauding "the wide spread of contemporary culture forms from advertising and the internet to cartoons and art movies." The study and maintenance of one's own culture in process of learning English as a foreign language help and motivates the learners maintain their own
distinct cultural identity. Hence, the great significance of cultural awareness in today's world of globalization.

Rather than one's own culture, the EFL learners also develop an awareness of the cultures belonging to all the English-speaking countries, or even other cultures. Such a cultural consciousness is often referred to as intercultural awareness, which has always been talked about as though it were a "fifth skill" – the ability to be aware of cultural relativity following reading, writing, listening and speaking. There is something to be said for this as an initial attempt to understand or define something that may seem a difficult concept but, as Kramsch, C (1993). points out: "If…language is seen as social practice, culture becomes the very core of language teaching. Cultural awareness must then be viewed as enabling language proficiency… Culture in language teaching is not an expendable fifth skill, tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading and writing".

Or just as Hudson, (1980). argues, language itself is defined by and contained within its culture and a society's language is an aspect of its culture. The learner cannot be competent in the language if we do not understand the culture that has shaped and informed it. We cannot learn a second language if we do not cultivate through teaching an awareness of that culture, and how that culture relates to our own first language/native culture. It is not only therefore essential to have cultural awareness, but also intercultural awareness.

Consequently, great significance has been given to the teaching of culture in teaching of English as a foreign language. The exposure to cultures both of the EFL learners' and of the ones related to the English language is considered by many linguists much in consistence with the language-acquisition process manifested in our first language learning and acquisition. Though not testified, the seemingly effortless child
language acquisition underlies the importance of the culture in the acquisition of human language. This assumption is best echoed in the findings by psycholinguist Scovel, (1998) Among the four stages (i.e. the stage of crying, the stage of cooing, the stage of babbling, and the production of the first word) of children' first language acquisition, the stage of babbling is the first stage where we have strong evidence that infants are influenced by all those months of exposure to the cultural environment they are living in. In conclusion, the teaching of culture in the EFL classrooms will be of same positive influence upon the second language acquisition.

Wardhaugh (1972), language is a system of arbitrary symbols used for human communication. In fact, every action in connection with English as a foreign language, either in the aspect of listening (to audio or audiovisual materials in English) or speaking (either with persons with English as their first language, or with persons who speak English as a second or foreign language), or in the aspect of writing or reading (materials in English), can be regarded as intercultural communication, for in each of the actions, there is an encountering of the native culture embodied in the EFL learners and the exotic culture (s) carried either in the English materials or by the persons who communicate with the learners of EFL. Intercultural communicative competence is an attempt to raise the learners' awareness of their own culture and help them to interpret and understand other cultures. In other words, the EFL learners will be able to predict the behavior patterns of the peoples from the target cultures. As a result, the intercultural communication will be greatly facilitated.
2.1.12 Intersection of Culture and Language: Intercultural Language Learning

This review of the theoretical bases of intercultural language learning has concluded that the intersection of culture and language as represented in current Intercultural Language Learning theory. It is suitable to first briefly review the theoretical and research developments, which have contributed to intercultural language learning theory.

This review has stated that a Chomsky view of language competence comprised the syntactical ability to form sentences correctly (1957). Hymes (1972) coined the phrase communicative competence to explain the attention which needs to be paid to the conditions of use and social knowledge required to interpret messages and to what a learner really needs to know to participate in a speech community. In redefining the nature of linguistic competence, there is a need to move away from models which have sole emphasis on linguistic structures, and towards an emphasis on a more sociocultural determined model of language as communication.

2.1.12.1 Example of (intercultural) Communication Situation

Moving house

The people

Robin is 26 years old and works for a Communications Consultancy that specializes in global management solutions. She/he has just bought a new house and wants to move in next weekend. She/he could use some extra help to move a number of her/his belongings. She/he hopes that Kaoru, a work colleague who owns a large car, is able to help her/him move house next Saturday.

Kaoru is 27 years old. She/he moved to Europe from Japan two years ago. Kaoru and Robin work in the same department. Sometimes they also
work together on the same project. They never meet up socially outside of work.

The Setting:
Robin and Kaoru run into each other on the way to have lunch in the company’s canteen.

The Dialogue

Robin: Hi Kaoru. So what are you working on at the moment?
Kaoru: Oh you know, that Microsoft project we talked about at last month’s meeting. What about you?
Robin: Big plans! That have nothing to do with work, by the way. I’m in the middle of moving house. And now you mention it, I meant to ask you a favor. I still need to move a few things, such as my stereo, TV, computer, speakers, and I was thinking that maybe you could help me next Saturday.
Kaoru: Well-
Robin: You have a bigger car than I have, you see.
Kaoru: (Silence) My parents are flying in from Japan this week. But I’ll see whether I can get away for a few hours to help you out.
Robin: That’s great!

2.1.13 Intercultural Competence

The use of the term competence in this context is contested (Armour, 2004), as it implies a concrete set of skills in what is, however, a complex personal growth process. The term intercultural competence, as used in this thesis, refers to the elements of intercultural communication – that is, where knowledge of another language and culture enables a learner to interact effectively with people from that culture, and negotiate between that culture and his/her own (Guilherm, 2004). As suggested above a precise contextual definition may be said to
be still under construction. The researcher similarly suggests that better definition of this term will be for teachers an important element in more effectively describing and recognizing the desired student outcomes of intercultural language learning.

Deardorff (2006) conducted a survey of academic definitions of intercultural competence which identified specific component skills. Deardorff (Ibid, 2006) found that skills identified included analysis and interpretation, and cognitive skills that included comparative thinking skills and cognitive flexibility. Yershova, DeJeagbere and Mestenhauser (2000) argue that intercultural perspective and intellectual skills are both integral to developing intercultural competence. This study has chosen, from a study of the literature, three principal characteristics of intercultural competence. Various authors describe the learner as being a purposeful interactive user of language Liddicoat et al., (2003) with correct contextual use Kramsch, Liddicoat et al., 2003) being knowledgeable about target culture Liddicoat, Byram, 1997), being reflective about the relationship between learner’s cultures (Liddicoat et al., 2003; Sercu, 2002), having an ability to notice, and reflect on different interactions with culture Carr, 1999, Scarino, 2000,) and developing a sense of an intermediate ‘place’ in ownership of an independent identity (Kramsch,1993; Armour,1999) Measurement of intercultural development. This first section of the literature review concludes with reference to language and non-language research which has sought to measure development in intercultural competence, referred to variously as intercultural sensitivity and intercultural awareness. Paige et al. (1999) and Bennett, Bennett and Allen (1999) developed an integrated model which acknowledges the concept of culture in general (Paige et al., (Ibid, 1999) discussed the transformation of the learner in a
complex process of change. Due to its use in modified form in this research project, the Bennett, Bennett and Allen (1999) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), designed for use in the broad field of intercultural education and training, is briefly described. The DMIS model (see Appendix J) is framed in two tiers. The first tier consists of three ethnocentric stages: Denial, Defense (the language user perceives difference as a threat) and Minimization (user can appreciate some difference, but still sees own values as the universal). The second tier which follows has three ethno relative stages: Acceptance (understanding of own context), Adaptation (able to take perspective of other culture and operate within it) and Integration (able to completely shift perspective between two or more cultures, experience of some marginality). Bennett linked this to language development, with ‘novice’ and ‘intermediate’ language matching ethnocentric stages, and ‘advanced’ matching ethno relative stages 2 and 3. For Bennett, intercultural sensitivity is multidimensional, in that it affects the person cognitively, affectively and behaviourally. The model is contested by Liddicoat et al. (2003) and Armour (2004) for its linear nature and as inappropriate to learners who may be beginners in language but have prior knowledge of culture. There have been a number of studies, however, which have measured intercultural sensitivity using the Bennett DMIS model. Spenader (2005), Medina-Lopez-Portillo (2004), Burnett (2004), and Straffon (2001) all included the use of the Intercultural Development Inventory (Hammer, 1998), an instrument developed from the Bennett DMIS model, to measure intercultural development in high school students abroad. Corbaz (2001) used two ‘complementary’ frameworks, the Bennett (1993) DMIS and the Miville-Guzman (1999) Universality-Diversity Orientation (UDO) scale (Miville, Gelso, Pannu, Liu, Touradjji, Holloway & Fuertes, 1999), and found that elementary
students enrolled in a foreign language immersion program, both in French and Spanish, in a school in Oklahoma, US, had a higher intercultural sensitivity than students attending a mainstream all-English program. Another way of ‘measuring’ intercultural development is through analysis of writing. Bagnall (2005) has used a three-tiered model, developed by Harris, Smith, Merrit, Simons and Reid (2002) to describe the progressive level of intercultural reflective ability apparent in a group of university students doing practicum teaching in different cultural contexts. Analysis of student written reflection after the practicum demonstrates a progressive development in cultural development. Comparisons with the Bennett DMIS levels can be made in noting the three levels used by Bagnall (2005): 1 culturally descriptive reflection: writing about the cultural practices and information 2 culturally dialogic reflection: analytic conversations with themselves and the practices of their home culture 3 culturally critical reflection: synthesis of new cultural information, questioning of relationships, and shifts in behaviour. A cross-reference can be made to the similarity of the sixth stage of intercultural development, integration, as described by the Bennett, Bennett and Allen (1999) DMIS which describes this stage as the ability to shift perspective between two or more cultures. Such instruments may be useful supplementary tools to contribute quantitative information about a student, but alone may be unlikely to represent the whole range of complex personal processes taking place in a student involved in interactive learning in a bilingual immersion class. This study is informed by many of the theoretical models detailed above. It seeks to develop a theory-informed model to describe the intercultural competence in the casestudy students. Section 2.3 of the review turns to research literature relating to the students, their teachers and their school setting.
2.1.14 The Definition Communicative Competence

The term communicative competence was coined by Hymes (1972), who defined it as the knowledge of both rules of grammar and rules of language use suitable to a given context. His work clearly revealed that there is a shift of emphasis among linguists from the study of language as a system in isolation, a focus shown in the work of Chomsky (1965), the study of language as communication. Hymes’ (1972) conceptualisation of communicative competence has been further developed by researchers such as Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983), Bachman (1990) and Celce-Murcia et al. (1995), who attempted to define the certain components of the construct of communicative competence. The widely cited model by Canale and Swain (1980), later expanded by Canale (1983), comprises four competencies under the heading of communicative competence: grammatical competence (i.e. knowledge of the language code); sociolinguistic competence (i.e. knowledge of the sociocultural rules of use in a particular context); strategic competence (i.e. knowledge of how to use communication strategies to tackle breakdowns in communication) and discourse competence (i.e. knowledge of achieving Teaching Intercultural Communicative Competence through the Four Skills coherence and cohesion in a spoken or written text). Pragmatic competence is basically included in this model under sociolinguistic competence, which Canale and Swain (1980) described as ‘sociocultural rules of use’. However, it was not until Bachman that pragmatic competence came to be considered as one of the key components of communicative competence.

Bachman’s (1990) model of communicative language ability comprised three elements, namely language competence, strategic competence and physiological mechanisms. Language competence comprises two further
components: organizational and pragmatic competence. On the one hand, organisational competence comprises grammatical and textual competence, thereby paralleling Canale’s (1983) discourse competence. On the other hand, pragmatic competence includes illocutionary Competence and sociolinguistic competence, the former referring to knowledge of speech acts and language functions and the latter referring to the knowledge of how to use language functions appropriately in a given context. This distinction between these two sub-competencies echoes Leech’s (1983) and Thomas’s (division of pragmatics into pragma linguistics, which has been defined as ‘the particular resources which a given language provides for transferring particular illocutions’, and socio pragmatics, which has been defined as ‘the sociological interface of pragmatics’. Apart from language competence, the model also includes strategic competence and physiological mechanisms. The former refers to the mental capacity to implement language competence especially in the situation in which communication occurs, whereas the latter refers to the neurological and psychological processes that are involved in language use. The most notable advance on Canale’s (1983) model is that Bachman’s (1990) model identifies pragmatic competence as a main component of the construct of communicative competence that is coordinated with grammatical and textual competence rather than being subordinated to it and interacting with the organiSational competence in many ways (Kasper, 1997). Ever since then, the importance of this competence has been maintained as, for example, in the pedagogically motivated model of communicative competence proposed by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995)
2.1.14.1 Models of Communicative Competence

A succession of theorists has contributed to defining the elements which constitute communicative competence, and also to the idea of an integral cultural component in language learning. Canale and Swain (1981) showed that communicative competence, which include grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. Bachman (1990) identifies only two areas of language competence.

This review acknowledges the contribution of the discipline of pragmatics, in its study of the acquisition of speech acts in situated language functions. It gives a similar model to intercultural theory, but is largely focused on form and development as viewed through performance data. In common with intercultural language theory, pragmatics acknowledges the role of the first or home language in the socio pragmatic target language development, but seems to have less interest in cultural perspective. Roever (2006) promotes the inclusion, and assessment, of explicit pragmatic material in learning tasks. Kasper and Rose (2002) emphasize that ‘unless learners consciously attend to the complex interaction between language use and social context they will hardly ever learn the pragmatics of a new language’ (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. ix). Liddicoat (2006) has positioned a study of language use in students of French in the bridging discipline of intercultural pragmatics. Organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Van Ek (1986) developed multi competent models to include six competences in language. They are linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, strategic competence sociocultural competence and social competence. Liddicoat et al. (2003) critique Van Ek’s models for their assumption of the native speaker as the only desirable norm,and
their exclusion of learners’ knowledge and attitudes developed as part of their first language experience. Steele and Suozo (1994) took a sociocultural focus on the particular nature of the culture that is essential for language learning. For Meyer (2000) intercultural competence is a balance of social and communicative skills, including empathy and social skills, but to the extent that the linguistic component is almost unrepresented. Byram and Zarate (1994) have defined five sets of skills and knowledge (‘savoirs’) as the components of intercultural language learning: knowledge of self, knowing how to understand, knowing how to learn, knowing how to be, knowing how to commit oneself (critical and political awareness). Liddicoat et al. (2003) confirm that many of the models above lack a fully elaborated model of language competence, and do not show the relationship between the components. Paige et al. (1999) draw a useful distinction between culture-specific and culture-general processes in intercultural learning. Culture-specific denotes knowledge and skills specific to operating within a particular language and culture. Culture-general denotes having an understanding of the nature of culture itself, and acknowledges cultural adaptation, personal identity and emotions involved in intercultural communication. Intercultural language learning theory situates all language as a cultural act Kramsch (1993). Language, culture and learning are understood as fundamentally interrelated. Both the form of the language and the messages conveyed in it are understood to provide cultural knowledge. The learner is involved in a process of developing are festive and critical understanding of their use of languages and cultures, through comparing, inferring and negotiating both the languages and their own intercultural identity. Corbett (2003) Crozet & Liddicoat (1999) Liddicoat et al., (2003)

Liddicoat et al. (2003) write that ‘culture is not about information and things; it is about actions and understanding.’ Moran (2001, p.8)
similarly asserts the experiential learning approach to culture learning. The intercultural language user comes to understand that all language behaviours (verbal and non-verbal) have particular cultural meaning and significance in context.

The conceptualisation of culture used by intercultural language learning a knowledge sits debt to Geertz: the paradigm for teaching culture takes culture as sets of practices, as they lived experience of individuals (Geertz 1973, 1983). Cultural competence, the focus of this study, is seen as ‘the ability to interact in the target culture in informed ways’ (Liddicoat et al., 2003).

Liddicoat (2002) argues for a non-linear, cyclical learning process of intercultural competence over time. This model turns attention to the learner’s internal processes of noticing difference in language production itself, suitability of language used, and non-verbal behaviour. This noticing is important in progressive change in production of their speaking/writing output. The learner evaluates or reflects on his/her output, comparing it with other language models or behaviours, and the learner modifies that ongoing output. It is the last section of Figure 2, which is cyclical (output, noticing, reflection, amending the output), involving intercultural negotiation in action, an ongoing learning process of making language and behaviour more culturally aware and appropriate.

Figure 2: A pathway for developing intercultural competence (Liddicoat, 2002) The position of the intercultural learner has been described as being in a ‘third place’, a term originally coined by Bhabha (1992). Byram (1989) and Kramsch (1993) explain a process of the student developing intercultural competence through de-centering from input noticing reflection noticing output30his/her own first culture or place, observing a second culture or place, and finally occupying this ‘third place’ from which he/she can
make reflective observations of both his/her own home culture and the target culture. The third place or ‘space’ refers to a conceptual place ‘where negotiation takes place, where identity is constructed and reconstructed English,( 2002). The dissertation returns to a discussion of this concept in Chapter 4.

Hymes (1972) affirms that 'communicative competence' refers to the level of language discovering that empowers language users to pass on their messages to others and to comprehend others' messages within one context. It additionally suggests the language learners' capacity to relate what is learnt in the classroom to the outside world. From this point of view depicted the able language user as the person who knows when, where and how to use language properly as opposed to simply knowing how to deliver precise syntactic structures.

Hymes' thoughts regarding the 'communicative competence' were later created by Canale and Swain in 1980 who presented a hypothetical model of 'informative competence'. Their idea of 'communicative competence' refers to "the relationship and association between linguistic competence, or learning of the principles of syntax, and sociolinguistic competence, or information of tenets of language use" Canale and Swain (1980) point that the model of 'communicative competence' comprises of three areas of information and aptitudes. They are 'syntactic competence', 'sociolinguistic competence' and 'strategic competence'. Linguistic competence refers to precise learning of sentence arrangement and vocabulary. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the language user's capacity to deliver and comprehend language in various social settings. Key competence refers to the capacity of utilizing language to accomplish communicative objectives and upgrade the competence of correspondence. The multifaceted nature of the idea of 'informative
Increased by the improvement of the term 'Communicative Language Competence' by Bachman in 1990. This term refers to both "information, or competence, and the limit with regards to actualizing or executing that skill in suitable contextualized communicative language use" (Ibid, 1990) suggests that a structure for Communicative Language Competence comprises of three parts including 'language competence', 'vital skill' and 'mental systems'. He characterized 'language competence' into 'authoritative competence' and down to 'business competence'. The previous incorporates 'linguistic competence' and 'printed skill'. The last two sorts of skills 'bargains those capacities required in controlling the formal structure of language for creating or perceiving linguistically revise sentences, grasping their propositional substance, and requesting them to frame writings' He included that the 'pragmatic competence' was separated by Bachman into 'illocutionary competence' and 'sociolinguisic competence'. He clarified that 'illocutionary competence' can be used for communicating the language to be taken "with certain illocutionary drive" and for deciphering these language 'illocutionary strengths'. He characterized the 'sociolinguistic competence' as the "affect competence to, or control of, the traditions of language use that are controlled by the elements of the particular language use setting. As it were, it empowers us to use the language fittingly to accomplish certain capacities in specific settings. A particular element of this structure is the consideration of the neurological and mental figures language use through the presentation of the segment of mental systems which refers to "neurological and mental procedures required in the genuine execution of language as a physical marvel. Macaro (1997) states that language instructors can encourage the acknowledgment of the level of informative competence'. These convictions include: giving more regard for talking and listening aptitudes than perusing and composing, rehearsing more in
conveying new data instead of 'definitely known' data, improving students' contribution to beat latent learning and concentrating on honing the language in important circumstances as opposed to on delivering very much shaped sentences or in individual words. However, it ought to be noticed that looking for the goal of building up students' 'communicative competence' ought not prompt concentrating more on talking and tuning in than perusing and composing skills. The great order of any language requires achieving adequate comprehension of all the language aptitudes. Field (2009) claims that the significance of working inside the field of language we need to ace and brought up the little research directed on this part of informative competence. In light of the discoveries of his exploration which was directed in West Africa, he reasoned that field language communicative skill "is reliant on more than the learning of and capacity to use a given field language in ways that are linguistically and sociocultural suitable. This contention may put the objective of creating language learners' informative competence as far as local speakers through formal instruction which does not include field language encounter into question.

2.1.14.2 Challenges for Communicative Competence

Despite the popularity of the term 'communicative competence' many teachers frequently discover it an extensive objective for outside language (FL) settings. Sanoetal (1984) demonstrates that many arguments have been raised against planning language programs for FL settings to accomplish this level of competence. This is because of the difficulties that have been experienced by both EFL teachers and students in these settings since the presentation of this idea. The language instructors in these settings will confront trouble in picking what aptitudes are to be educated for students and in distinguishing the
powerful techniques for building up students' informative skill. Huda (1999) states that another trouble may come about because of teachers' misconception of the idea of 'informative competence'. Nazari (2007) reports that three Iranian EFL teachers had particular perspectives about this idea and were not ready to recognize its "more extensive" and "smaller" which means.

Head servant (2005) brings up the absence of clear definition about 'what constitutes 'informative skill' for FL and about what educating for accomplishing this point constitute. He contended that actualizing communicative exercises in classrooms would not really prompt improve students' learning. Another huge test which may experience EFL teachers in showing language programs going for building up students' communicative competence is the high competence level required for the compelling instructing of these projects. In accordance with this contention, EFL instructors' low competence level is constantly announced as an obstacle for executing specialized techniques for language educating and learning. Another significant issue could be identified with the trouble of measuring language learners 'informative competence or communicative language capacity as there are many variables more than the language capacity we mean to gauge can influence the language user's execution.

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Klein (1986) clarifies that the language learner "must take in the language by which he expects to convey" and "should impart by methods for the language he plans to learn". be that as it may, coordinating correspondence and learner-centeredness as two correlative parts of FL instructional methodologies may prompt enhancing students' relational abilities. The dynamic interest of FL students in completing correspondence exercises, for example, combine and gathering work, pretends, recreations and critical thinking freely can build up their relational abilities keeping in mind the end goal to have the capacity to apply what they realize in classrooms in the outside world. 4, -
2.1.15 Communication Skills

Although there is extraordinary enthusiasm for the idea of informative competence in science and genuine application, the idea is difficult to characterize for the most part. The reasons lie in the intricacy of correspondence, the wide assortment of related psychological and social capacities, and furthermore the enormous situational inconstancy. What we require in the field of correspondence, like the field of insight, is the detail of area particular capacities. A current handbook dedicated to correspondence and social cooperation abilities.

John and Burleson (2003) point out that various key association aptitudes, for example, nonverbal relational abilities, talk and discussion aptitudes, message generation and gathering abilities, and impression administration aptitudes. The volume additionally examines pragmatic abilities, for example, educating, clarifying, contending and per-suasion, and particular aptitudes in individual connections and out in the communicative and expert fissional settings. Determining relational abilities for a somewhat limit scope of specific practices and circumstances makes it simpler to characterize them and to examine techniques for appraisal and intercession. A specific expertise is identified with particular information, feeling and, obviously tangible engine conduct.

Brian and Spitzberg (2003) remark that the proposes of the following definition of skills: therefore, are generally thought to be to manifestations of some underlying ability, which is a capacity for action. This capacity is typically conceptualized as a function of numerous motivations (e.g., confidence, goals, reinforcement potential, etc.) and knowledge (e.g., content and procedural knowledge, familiarity, etc.)
components as any social behavior, communication skills are not independent of functional and situational influences. It often occurs that people manifest very different skill qualities in different situations, be itself presentation, empathy or conflict management.

### 2.1.16 Short Stories Develop Communicative Competence

Short stories allow teachers to deal the four skills to all levels of language competence. Murdoch (2002 p. 9) indicates that: "short stories can, if selected and exploited appropriately, provide quality text content which will greatly enhance English language teaching courses for learners at intermediate levels of proficiency". He clarifies why stories ought to be utilized to reinforce ELT by discussing exercises educators can make, for example, writing and carrying on discoursed. Teachers can create a variety of writing activities to help students to develop their writing skills. They can ask students to write dialogues or more complex writing activities if students have reached a high level of language proficiency. Also teachers can make an assortment of writing exercises to help teachers to build up their composition aptitudes. They can request students to write dialogues or more complex writing activities if students have reached a high level of language proficiency. Also, Oster (1989) affirms that such literary works help students to write more creatively. In addition, stories can be improve to enhance teachers vocabulary and reading. Lao and Krashen (2000) exhibit the aftereffect of an examination between a gathering of teachers that read artistic writings and a moment gathering that read non-abstract writings. The gathering who read abstract writings indicated change in vocabulary and in reading. As Oster (1989), high-intermediate and advanced students likewise advantage from literary text. What they read gives them chance to think of their own bits of knowledge, helping them to talk the language in more inventive way.
They turn out to be more innovative since they are confronted with their own perspective, that/those of the principle character(s) of the story and those of their companions. This insightful procedure prompts basic considering. As Oster affirms, concentrating on perspective in writing augments students' vision and cultivates basic thinking by performing the different ways, when teachers read they cooperate with the content. By connecting with the content, they translate what they read, they can progress in the direction of communicating in English all the more imaginatively.

2.1.17 Classroom Language

Moloney (2000) revealed that teachers can display a unexpected orientalist discourse, with ethnocentric mentalities and "learning" of nation which have been framed by their own particular social milieu. Klein (2004) in her survey of 14 US classroom language teachers likewise found that culture showing happens independently from language direction'. Klein recommends that teachers' emphasis on boosting language creation tends to keep culture learning at 'a surface level, and may meddle with the accomplishment of teachers' social objectives'. Also she watched that teachers hold 'incongruent speculations of activity of which they may not be aware'. Teachers' conventional point of view on culture has been classified as High culture approach It may feature study of the literature music or specialties of the objective nation; this 'cultural footbath' is held to positively affect teachers' mentality. Sercu, (2002). In this viewpoint, as saw above culture is viewed as static and as typified inside the work of art or movement. A typical culture studies' perspective describes studies of the country, geography, food and lifestyle. Jorstad, Siaya, Klein and Colby (1999) clarify that Cultural certainties are effortlessly assertive, however they by and large
concentrate on shallow practices without looking at basic esteem and are not associated with language utilize. Liddicoat (2006) affirms that there is nothing totally wrong with these data rich sorts of culture instructing, however their shortcoming is that they frequently develop stereotypical pictures and offer teachers no individual methodologies for intelligent abilities. Moran (2001) clarifies the ideal four sorts of knowing incorporated into culture learning: think about/know how/know why/know oneself. Information-rich conventional models of culture educating are strong in empowering teachers to think about practices, however weak in being developed of alternate areas. Lankshear, (1997) show that the new model of intercultural language learning goes about as a vehicle for culture. Kramsch and Sercu (2002) express that teachers' responsibility lies in two ranges:

(a) Development of teachers' objective language 'relational abilities
(b) teachers' general self-awareness, prompting 'deep rooted individual instructive and professional advantages'.

Board (2003) adds intercultural language figuring out how to be significant to teachers it must be seen by them to be promptly applicable to these two areas, the language aptitude and the hole learner.

2.1.18 Conclusion

The use of short stories in EFL classroom has always been recommended by the experts in the field for developing communicative competence as stories offer infinite linguistic as well as personal, socio-cultural, cognitive and emotional benefits for the language learners. Being the product of creative writers who have better command over language, stories are considered to be rich in language and amusing in nature and help in overcoming the problem of intercultural awareness. Stories expose EFL learners to the functional, situational and idiomatic
use of language and thus, help in understanding and mastering the intricacies and nuances of a foreign language like English. However, as the learners and their perceptions determine the success of any material used for developing communicative competence, it was essential to investigate the effect of short stories in developing both communicative competence and intercultural awareness among the students of Omdurman Islamic University.
2.2 Previous Studies

This part of chapter two focuses on the previous relevant studies related to the current research.

2.2.1 Zeinab, Ahmed Abdalla Mohammed. (2016). "Using Short Stories to Enhance Speaking Skills at Sudanese Secondary Schools".

A PhD dissertation in Education (English language Teaching, ELT). This study intends to develop authentic material in using "Short Stories Technique" to enhance students' speaking skills. The study also intends to investigate teaching the speaking skills at Sudanese secondary schools and the problems that face EFL learners when speaking in English and to suggest some solutions for these problems. The researcher applied the descriptive analytical method for data collection. The population of the study was Sudanese second-class students from Al-Sheik Hamad Secondary School for Girls and English language teachers and experts in English language teaching. All of them from Atbara town, River Nile State.

The study has arrived at the following results:
- Teachers are not well-trained to teach the speaking skills. It also found out that the brain drain of competent teachers in the Sudan has negatively affected not only the process of teaching English but also the educational system.
- The study also has showed that the overcrowded classes in general education hinder the students from practicing the speaking skills inside the classrooms.

Finally, the researcher recommends the following:
- the speaking skills should be practiced in a small group outside the classroom to improve the students' spoken language.
- Secondary school students should be provided at least with some visual aids to be used in teaching the speaking skills.
- Using of video, computer, pictures and real objects as teaching skills.
- teaching short stories can improve EFL students in learning the four skills.
- Using of TV and Internet as teaching aids develop the speaking skills.
- teaching short stories increases learners' vocabulary and power of expression.
- short stories play a significant role in teaching the speaking skills if they contain authentic materials from students' environment.


This research tries to highlight the effects of the use of English short stories as an authentic material for developing speaking skill, based on the rationale that short stories can provide students with motivation necessary in speaking as well as in reading. The research intends to provide some practical use of short stories to create lively and communicative lessons with the occasional provision of forms and functions. It aims to integrate communicative speaking activities with four short stories selected from second year English specialization text book of the Yangon University of Distance Education. Exercises and activities are devised according to the Communicative Language Teaching and Task-based Approach. The research was carried out at a private class with twelve learners who had sat for the first year English specialization study. Drawing upon the findings and results of the students’ performance, the study showed that short stories help to improve students’ spoken fluency and the cultivation of interest in literature.

This study intends to promote authentic material in using of short stories technique” contributes to enhancing students’ the speaking skills. The study also attempts to suggest solutions for the problems that face EFL learners when speaking English. For data collection, the researcher applied the descriptive analytical method. The population of the study consists of hundred and ten Sudanese students from AlsheikHammad Secondary School for Girls (second class) Atbara. The method carried in this study is about implementing "short story technique" in teaching about fifteen short stories with difference purposes in experimental group while the absence of this technique on the controlled group. Then to see the difference between the two groups by comparison through a pre-test and a post-test, analysis to the results and discussion was held. The researcher sums up all that was done, linking it with the study, the experiment and the results expending it with promotion and recommendation to what would be applied at schools and suggestions for future studies.

All the above studies agreed upon the use of authentic materials such as short story in the classroom to enhance speaking skills. however they neglect its role in enhancing other aspects i.e. intercultural awareness. So, the researcher focused on both receptive skills and productive skills in addition to cultural aspects.

This study "Promotion of Authentic Material in Teaching English Language through Story Telling Technique- University Level" is carried out to improve the standard of English language, because it is very obvious that English language at schools is declining and this follows, of course with students who enter the universities. The method used in this study is about implementing story telling in experimental group while the absence of this technique on the controlled group.

The researcher has arrived at the following findings:
- Implementing "story telling" will improve English language standard in the four skills.
- Both groups did the pre-test and the post-test. The results were favoring the researcher's assumption. The experimental group result was 80% positive success against 37% positive success to the controlled group and as elaborated by statistical analysis.
- It was clear that in the experimental group the mean score increase from 24.9 to 57.17 which indicates significant improvement in performance for the experimental group.
- The shift in distribution shows the area that witness improvement in performance is very small compared to the experimental group.

The researcher recommends the following:
- To implement story telling in teaching English language besides the pre-test syllabus.
- To train teachers of English especially of basic level.
- to motivate the teachers. If teachers are motivated, best results will appear.
- Teachers should be given extra care and to be supported so that they can hold their responsibilities, obligation and fulfill their future hopes and lead an easy secured life.


A PhD dissertation in investigating vocabulary learning strategies from different perspectives, but few have surveyed the effects of teaching short stories strategy on vocabulary learning. The main concern of the present study is to probe the effects of teaching short stories on solving Sudanese university student vocabulary learning difficulties. The researcher used the descriptive, experimental and analytic methods for data analysis by designing questionnaire which addressed ELT teachers in Khartoum locality to this end, 50 participants were selected from Sudan university of Science and Technology. The participants were randomly assigned to an experimental group that received instruction on using short stories strategy and a controlled group which received no treatment. In order to guarantee the participants’ homogeneity, a pretest (PET test) was administered to them. After the treatment, a posttest was administered to the participants to find out the effectiveness of the instruction strategy. For analyzing the data, a T-test was employed. The result of this study has provided significant empirical evidence together with theoretical insights for of vocabulary research.

The study has come out with the following results;

- Vocabulary Learning creates difficulties for the sample of this study.

- The study participants hardly understand the meaning of word from the context.
-The study participants are unable to differentiate between the root of word and its affixations and face difficulties in learning synonyms.

Based on the above mentioned results the researcher recommends the following:

- Short stories should be taught for solving vocabulary learning difficulties, short stories should be taught widely in tertiary level to enhance students to learn English language vocabulary.

- Short stories those are taught to university student should be selected to help them understand the meaning of the new words within context.

- Short stories should be taught for teaching word affixation and it will be better to teach short stories if the aim is understand the meanings of the new word.

This study is similar to the current study in using short story as a technique of learning English as a second language. It focused on the four skills while neglected the intersection of language and culture. However the researcher focused on both receptive skills and productive skills in addition to cultural aspect.

2.2.6. Mohammad ,Khatib.( 2012)  "Enhancing Reading Comprehension through Short Stories in Iranian EFL Learners". Faculty of Foreign Languages and Literature, AllamehTabatabai University, Tehran, Iran

Incorporating literature in language classes had many ups and down. In hay days of Grammar Translation Method, literature was the core source of foreign language learning. However by the emergence of Direct Method literature has been generally out of favor. In recent years literature came back to language classes. Literature has been discovered as a valuable and interesting material for improving students’ language
ability (Premawardhena, 2005). It has been found that if appropriate literary texts are chosen it would —be an effective tool for stimulating and achieving language learning and equipping learners with relevant linguistic and socio-cultural competences (Sell, 2005, p. 92). This study tries to test using literary text in improving reading comprehension ability of Iranian foreign language learners. A group of 26 students majoring in English at the Islamic Azad University Babol Branch and Amol Branch has been sampled for the purpose of this study. The students were then divided into two groups— the control group and the experimental group. Both the groups were administered identical Pre-Test and Post-Test which consists of selected reading passage from different TOEFL books. Contrary to the previous researches the result of the present study shows that the experimental group did not show a significant improvement over the control group. So the using of literary texts seems unsatisfactory for Iranian EFL learners’.

The above studies agreed upon the use of short story as authentic material in enhancing EFL students English language. But also they neglected the culture aspects. However, in this study, the researcher focused on both receptive skills and productive skills in addition to cultural aspects.


This thesis, main concern has been to show how short stories can provide a great source of insight into and knowledge of cultural and social issues. Through an analysis of three different short stories and a discussion of theories about reading and story comprehension in relation to these stories, The researcher have attempted to answer the questions posed in the introduction to this thesis: Short stories as a source of
cultural insight in English: What possibilities and challenges can be encountered when working with short stories in a teaching context? The choice of the short stories was made on the basis of having to be accessible to students of 16-17 years of age, both linguistically and with regard to content. In addition they were chosen because of their potential to provide cultural insight and knowledge. Being quite different both in form and content, the short stories present a variety of challenges and possibilities for students. So the researcher employ what McCormick (1994) terms a social-cultural approach. This approach sees reading as both an individual constructive act, but the reader is also situated in time and space, as a subject in his/her historical context. The researcher have found that the texts not only providing certain insights in and of themselves, but also that they can serve as good starting points for doing more research into contexts like historical events or discussing cultural and social issues such as prejudice and injustice. The main findings of this study are:

Students will develop their awareness of language and meaning through a close reading and analysis of formal features of the short stories, developing their skills in reading ‘between the lines’, understanding metaphors and the effect of choice of narrator and can help the students better understand both the text and the cultural issues the narrative describes.

This study is similar to the current study in using short story as a tools of overcoming the missing link between language and culture which will promote the use of language in context. However the researcher highlighted its effect on developing receptive and productive skills.
CHAPTER THREE

Research Methodology

3.1 Overview

In this chapter the researcher will illustrate the methodology more closely. The researcher uses the experimental method. It is an approach to educational research in which an idea or hypothesis is tested or verified by setting up situations in which the relationship between different subject or variables can be determined. The description of the purposes of the research, its plan, the statistical procedures used, etc, in an experimental study is called the experimental design. Seliger and Shohamy (2002) describe it as a method, which is "… concerned with studying the effects of specified and controlled treatments given to subjects usually formed into groups." The study stemmed from personal observation over many years of learning and teaching English language. Also, the chapter presents the target subject, research instruments and procedures for data collection. Then it goes further to present tools, reliability, validity, content of the test, and the questionnaire. It also illustrates the steps used in the study and concludes with a summary.

In order to collect the data the researcher uses a test for the students (pre-test & post-test) to examine a random sample of the preparatory year students at Omdurman Islamic University to measure their intercultural awareness and communicative competence.

3.2 Population of the Study

The population of this study is students of the preparatory year in the department of English Language. Subject’s data which this study used to analyze were collected from 360(190 females and 170 males) students from both male and female of English language and Literature Department at Omdurman Islamic University. English department is one
of the largest departments in the university. The students were chosen randomly without any knowledge of the researcher about them, so that the finding can reflect the real situation. Most of the subjects in the department at age of sixteen to eighteen and graduated from high school all over the Sudan. They are about the same age and both genders. Because most students in this university are female, the number of females as subjects in this research is more than of males. However, most of them had studied English for 7 years or more before entering this university. They are from various backgrounds as coming from different parts of Sudan, so some of them had got the local dialect which relatively affects their English speaking and pronunciation. However, Their exposure to English language and culture seemed very limited. When this study was conducted, all of them had been studying in English department for one semester and they didn't study literature course. So the outcomes of the study reflected the real effect of short story on developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence.

3.2.1 The Sample of the Study:

The experimental sample amounts to 200 (90mals & 110 females) students in the first level who are randomly chosen to undergo a test measuring their intercultural awareness and communicative competence. The researcher choose 110 female students because of their number to reach an equal representation for both gender. They were classified as pre-intermediate EFL learners.
Distribution of the students according to gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range of Years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bar chart showing years of experience:
- 1-5 years: 20.0%
- 5-10 years: 27.5%
- More than 10 years: 52.5%
3.3 Instruments of the Study

In this research, two types of tools were used to gather the required data and information from the subjects of this study. These two tools are:

1. Pre-test and post-test for the students of Omdurman Islamic University – preparatory year.
2. A questionnaire for English language teachers at Khartoum state universities.

3.3.1 The Test:

The test contains three dimension which are: intercultural awareness test, receptive skills test and productive skills test. Each one measures a certain aspect of language.

The researcher chooses two groups (A) the controlled and (B) the experimental group.

A diagnostic test is prepared to be given to the two groups (A) & (B) before application of the technique and is called the pre-test. The test check the proficiency in English which covers all skills beside the intercultural awareness to evaluate both groups levels, the results are kept.

Then the researcher applied the technique of "story telling" on the experimental group, for an hour pre week. The researcher suggest fifteen hours, that makes 15 weeks.

The same test is to be given to the two groups, the controlled group and the experimental group which known as the post-test.

3.3.2 The Questionnaire:

The questionnaire is designed to collect data from EFL teachers in Khartoum State about their opinion on the effect of short story on developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence. The questionnaire contains 15 item which covers three dimensions as follows:

1. Short story develop EFL students' intercultural awareness.
2. Short story develop EFL students' receptive skills.

3. Short story develop EFL students' productive skills.

The collected data processed through the statistical package of Social Sciences (SPSS) to enhance the overall outcomes.

### 3.4 Reliability:

Reliability and validity are too much common terms in research field. They are mostly related to each other and each one is dependent on the other. ([http://dissertation.laerd.com/reliability-inresearch.php](http://dissertation.laerd.com/reliability-inresearch.php)). Reliability is a way of assessing the all types data collection data in a research study. the results a study is valid, only if the measurement procedure must previously prove to be reliable. A number of factors affect reliability in general. Researchers errors during the dissertation process, environmental changes and participant changes. To ensure the reliability of data analysis methods the research will look at inter-rater reliability; that is, would different individuals assessing the same thing score the results and play the role in all the mathematical operations in the same way.

### 3.5 Validity

Throughout all this research sections, the researcher seeks to ensure validity. This research is about a particular topic and it has a specific setting with a specific set of elements found in the research topic" The Effect of Short Story on Developing Intercultural Awareness and Communicative Competence. Mackey A. & Susana G. (2005) suggest that external validity cannot be achieved if the researcher does not carefully carry the internal validity in his research.

### 3.6 Ensuring the Validity of Data Analysis

At the outset, researchers need to consider the face validity of a data analysis procedures applied to their researches. The validity data analysis will be achieved through the check list the researcher outlines here
1. Are all the tools used to analyze the study data valid to achieve a logical findings?
2. Does the tool look like it will analyze what it is intended to analyze?
3. Are all the participant engaged in the process of data analysis capable to carry out the data analysis process?
4. Are the questions seem to be appropriate for tools of analysis selected?

3.7 Validity and Reliability of the Study

To test the reliability and validity of test that applied to students, 15 answer sheets were randomly selected, then the degrees of the students were recorded for each of the three dimensions of the essay and manipulated using the features of Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS), through Pearson Coefficient Factor Test (for the validity of the test) and Alpha Cronbach's (for the reliability of the test). The following tables illustrate the results of this procedure.

Table 3.1: Validity Test for the Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Coefficient factor with dimension</th>
<th>Coefficient factor with Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural awareness</td>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acceptance</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive skills</td>
<td>Readiness</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productive skills</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 3.1, all the values of Pearson Coefficient Factor between items and total of the dimension and with the total of the test are
positive and greater than 0.20, which indicate good validity for all the items of each dimension of the test for answer the questions of the current study.

**Table 3.2: Alpha Cronbach's Test for measuring the reliability of test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>No of items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha based On Standardized items</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha (Internal validity)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural awareness</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive communication skills</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productive communication skills</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to findings in Table (3.2) Alpha reliability factor for cultural awareness = (Cronbach's Alpha based On Standardized items): **0.89**, thus Internal validity = (Squire Radical of Alpha reliability factor) = **0.94**.

Alpha reliability factor for receptive communicative skills = (Cronbach's Alpha based On Standardized items): **0.90**, thus Internal validity = (Squire Radical of Alpha reliability factor) = **0.95**.

Alpha reliability factor for productive communicative skills = (Cronbach's Alpha based On Standardized items): **0.84**, thus Internal validity = (Squire Radical of Alpha reliability factor) = **0.92**.

As it has been evident from the data above the items of each dimension of the test has attained high level of reliability and internal validity. Accordingly, it is valid to answer the questions of the current study.

**3.8 Validity and Reliability of the Teachers' Questionnaire**

To test the reliability and validity of the teachers questionnaire 10 questionnaires were randomly selected, then manipulated using the
features of Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS), through Pearson Coefficient Factor Test (for the validity of the questionnaire) and Alpha Cronbach's (for the reliability of the questionnaire). The following tables illustrate the results of this procedure.

**Table 3.3: Validity test for the teacher's questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No items</th>
<th>Coefficient factor with dimension</th>
<th>Coefficient factor with Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural awareness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive commutative skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productive communicative skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 3.3, all the values of Pearson Coefficient Factor between items and total of the dimension and with the total of the questionnaire are positive and greater than 0.20, which indicate good
validity for all the items of each dimension of the questionnaire for answering the questions of the current study.

**Table 3.4: Alpha Cronbach's Test for measuring the reliability of the teacher's questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>No of items</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha based On Standardized items</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha (Internal validity)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural awareness</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive communicative skills</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productive communicative skills</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to results in Table (3.4) Alpha reliability factor for cultural awareness items = (Cronbach's Alpha based On Standardized items): **0.81**, **thus** Internal validity = (Squire Radical of Alpha reliability factor) = **0.90**.

Alpha reliability factor for receptive communicative skills = (Cronbach's Alpha based On Standardized items): **0.76**, **thus** Internal validity = (Squire Radical of Alpha reliability factor) = **0.87**.

Alpha reliability factor for productive communicative skills = (Cronbach's Alpha based On Standardized items): **0.85**, **thus** Internal validity = (Squire Radical of Alpha reliability factor) = **0.92**.

As it has been evident from the data above the items of each dimension of the teacher's questionnaire has attained high level of reliability and internal validity. Accordingly, it is valid to answer the questions of the current study.
3.9 A model for Work with Short Stories

This model is to be used in work with stories in class towards communicative skills development:

- Interactive Presentation
- Repetition in Meaningful Context
- Communicative Activities
- Funny Activities
- Conversation
CHAPTER FOUR

Data Analysis, Results and Discussion

4.0 Introduction:

In this chapter, the data of the study were analyzed and the results obtained from the analysis were tabulated and discussed. The instruments used to collect data of the study were: two tests for preparatory year students at Omdurman Islamic University; they were pre-test and post-test as well as a questionnaire for English language teachers.

To evaluate the data of the study, different techniques were used in the analysis. These techniques were: Statistical Package for Social Studies (SPSS), Alpha Cornbach and Pearson Coefficient Factor.

4.1 Results of the Tests

The two tests (pre-test and post-test) were the first tool used to collect data of the study. These two tests were constructed; validated and piloted to investigate and measure intercultural awareness and communicative competence of Preparatory Year Students at Omdurman Islamic University.

Table (4.1) shows a comparison of EFL Students' performance on the pre-test (experimental and controlled group) for measuring intercultural awareness.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69.0%</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31.0%</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62.0%</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>38.0%</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen in table (4.1) that the percentage of succeeded students on the dimension of the test (intercultural awareness) was 31% at pretest with mean value (12.6) for experimental group while 38.0% with mean value (10.9), for controlled group which indicates no clear significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension between the two groups in the pretest.

Table (4.2) shows a comparison of EFL Students' performance on the post-test (experimental and controlled group) for measuring intercultural awareness.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excremental</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48.0%</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52.0%</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen in table (4.2) that the percentage of succeeded students on the dimension of the test (intercultural awareness) was 52% at post-test with mean value (21.8) for experimental group while 40.0% with mean value (11.2), for controlled group which indicates clear significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension between the two groups in the post-test.

Table (4.3) shows a comparison of EFL Students' performance on the pre-test and post-test (experimental group) for measuring intercultural awareness.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Pre</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69.0%</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-11.9</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Post</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48.0%</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52.0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen above in the table that the percentage of succeeded students on first dimension of the test (intercultural awareness) was 31% at pretest measurement with mean value (12.6) increased at posttest to 52% with mean value (21.8), which indicate a significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension between the pretest and posttest of experimental group.

**Table (4.4) shows a comparison of EFL Students' performance on the pre-test in receptive skills listening (for experimental and controlled group.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excremental</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56.0%</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>59.0%</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above table revealed that the percentage of succeeded students on second dimension of the test (receptive skills: part one "listening") was 44% at pretest with mean value (4.2) for experimental group while 41% with mean value (4.0), which indicates no significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension between the two groups in pretest with P value (P = 0.021 < 0.05).

**Table (4.5) shows the comparison of EFL Students' performance on posttest in receptive skills listening (for experimental and controlled group.)**
The above table revealed that the percentage of succeeded students on second dimension of the test (receptive skills: part one "listening") was 70% at post-test with mean value (7.8) for experimental group while 50% with mean value (4.6), which indicates a significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension between the two groups in the posttest with P value (P = 0.013 < 0.05).

Table (4.6) shows the comparison of EFL Students' performance on the pretest and the posttest measuring receptive skills listening only for excremental group.
The above table revealed that the percentage of succeeded students on second dimension of the test (receptive skills: part one "listening") was 44% at pretest with mean value (4.2) increased at posttest to 70% with mean value (7.8), which indicate a significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension between pretest and posttest (P = 0.021 < 0.05).
Table (4.7) shows the comparison of EFL Students' performance on the pretest measuring receptive skills (reading)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>53.0%</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>47.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57.0%</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>43.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage of succeeded students on second dimension of the test (receptive skills: part two "reading") was 47% at pretest for experimental group with mean value (3.9) and 43% with mean value (3.0) for controlled group, which indicate no significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension between the two groups.
Table (4.8) shows the comparison of EFL Students' performance on the posttest measuring receptive skills (reading)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28.0%</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>72.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56.0%</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage of succeeded students on second dimension of the test (receptive skills: part two "reading") was 72% at posttest for experimental group with mean value (8.0) while 44% with mean value (5.1), for controlled group which indicates a clear significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension between the two groups.
Table (4.9) shows the comparison of EFL Students' performance on the pretest and posttest measuring receptive skills (reading) for the experimental group only.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiment Pre</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>53.0%</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>47.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiment Post</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28.0%</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>72.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage of succeeded students on the second dimension of the test (receptive skills: part two "reading") was 47% at pretest measurement with mean value (3.9) increased at posttest to 72% with mean value (8.0), which indicates a significant differences in the degrees of the students on this dimension between pretest and posttest (P = 0.011 < 0.05)
Table (4.10) shows the comparison of EFL Students' performance on the pretest measuring productive skills (speaking)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70.0%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>73.0%</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage of succeeded students on third dimension of the test (productive skills: part one "speaking") was 30% at pretest measurement with mean value (2.4) for experimental group while 27% with mean value (2.1), which indicates no significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension of the pretest with P value (P = 0.047 < 0.05).
Table (4.11) shows the comparison of EFL Students' performance on the post-test measuring productive skills (speaking)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51.0%</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>72.0%</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage of succeeded students on third dimension of the test (productive skills: part one "speaking") was 49% at post-test with mean value (6.7) for experimental group while 28% with mean value (3.4), which indicates a significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension of the post-test with P value (P = 0.021< 0.05).
Table (4.12) shows the comparison of EFL Students' performance on the pretest and posttest measuring productive skills (speaking) only for experimental group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiment Pre</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70.0%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>-7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiment Post</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51.0%</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>49.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage of succeeded students on third dimension of the test (productive skills: part one "speaking") – for experimental group - was 30% at pre-test with mean value (2.4) while 49% with mean value (6.7), which indicates a significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension of the pre-test and post-test with P value (P = 0.034 < 0.05).

Table (4.13) shows the comparison of EFL Students' performance on the pretest measuring productive skills (writing)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Success N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>74.0%</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>0.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>77.0%</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be shown in table (4.13) percentage of succeeded students on third dimension of the test (productive skills: part two "writing") was 26% at pretest with mean value (2.1) for experimental group and 23% with mean value (2.0) for the controlled group which indicate no significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension between the two groups in the pretest.
Table (4.14) shows the differences in student's performance on posttest measure on productive skills (writing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed N</th>
<th>Failed %</th>
<th>Success N</th>
<th>Success %</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44.0%</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>-9.4</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>77.0%</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be revealed from table (4.14) that the percentage of succeeded students on third dimension of the test (productive skills: part two "writing") was 56% at posttest with mean value (5.9) for experimental group and 23% with mean value (2.0) for the controlled group which indicate a significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension between the two groups in the posttest.
Table (4.15) shows the differences in student's performance on pretest and posttest measuring the productive skills (writing) only for experimental group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Failed</th>
<th>Success</th>
<th>Theoretical mean (pass)</th>
<th>Mean (student degree)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiment Pre</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>74.0%</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiment Post</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44.0%</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56.0%</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be noticed from table (4.15) that the percentage of succeeded students on third dimension of the test (productive skills: part two "writing") was 26% at pretest with mean value (2.1) for experimental group and 56% with mean value (5.9) for the experimental group in posttest which indicate a significant differences in the performance of the students on this dimension between the two test.
To sum up, there is a clear significant differences between the pretest and posttest of the experimental group in all the dimensions of the test, which are: intercultural awareness, receptive skills and productive skills.
4.2 Results of the English Language Teachers' Questionnaire

The questionnaire was the second tool used to support data of the study. The aim of this questionnaire was to find out views of English language teachers about whether the use of tales and short stories has an effective role in developing students' intercultural awareness and communicative competence or not.

Likert 3-point scale was used to show responses of the participants. In scoring the participants' answers, three points were given to agree, two points were given to neutral and one point was given to disagree. The questionnaire was divided into three dimensions. They are: Intercultural awareness skills among students, receptive communicative skills among students and productive communicative skills among students.

Table (4-16) Opinion of the Participants about Intercultural awareness skills among students:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1- Short stories develop students' awareness of the target culture as well as their home culture.</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>95.0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Short stories play an effective role in facilitating students' cross cultural borders.</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>77.5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- Short stories help students in reflecting the diversity of culture</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Short stories raise students' awareness of the danger of generalizing cultural behaviours.</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- Short stories help students in respecting other cultures.</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (4-16) shows the frequency and percentage of English language teachers toward intercultural awareness skills among students.

When the participants were asked to answer item number 1, (Short stories develop students' awareness of the target culture as well as their home culture.), 38 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (95.0 %), whereas 1 of them responded (neutral) which represents (2.5 %), and 1 responded (disagree) which represents (2.5 %).

When the participants were asked to answer item number 2, (Short stories play an effective role in facilitating students' cross cultural borders.) 31 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (77.5 %), 6 of them responded (disagree) which represents (15.0 %), while 3 of them responded (neutral) which represents (7.5 %).

When the participants were asked to answer item number 3, (Short stories help students in reflecting the diversity of culture.) 37 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (92.5 %), 2 of them responded (neutral) which represents (5.0 %), while 1 of them responded (disagree) which represents (2.5 %).

When the participants were asked to answer item number 4, (Short stories raise students' awareness of the danger of generalizing cultural behaviours.) 33 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (82.5 %), 5 of them responded (neutral) which represents (12.5 %), while 2 of them responded (disagree) which represents (5.0 %).

When the participants were asked to answer item number 5, (Short stories help students in respecting other cultures.) 35 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (87.5 %), 3 of them
responded (neutral) which represents (7.5 %), while 2 of them responded (disagree) which represents (5.0 %).

From the results of this dimension, it was found that 95.0 % of the total participants agreed that short stories develop students' awareness of the target culture as well as their home culture. 77.5 % agreed that short stories play an effective role in facilitating students' cross cultural borders. 92.5 % of them agreed that short stories help students in reflecting the diversity of culture. 82.5 % agreed that short stories raise students' awareness of the danger of generalizing cultural behaviours. 87.5 % agreed that short stories help students in respecting other cultures.

In conclusion, according to the above results majority of English language teachers agreed that, short stories have an effective role in developing students' intercultural awareness toward other cultures.

**Table (4.17) The T-test Results of the First Dimension's Items:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- Short stories develop students' awareness of the target culture as well as their home culture.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Short stories play an effective role in facilitating students' cross cultural borders.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- Short stories help students in reflecting the diversity of culture.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Short stories raise students' awareness of the danger of generalizing cultural behaviours.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- Short stories help students in respecting other cultures.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-17) shows The T-test results of the first dimension's items of the questionnaire. According to the tables (4-16 and 4-17) the opinions
of the participants on the first dimension (Intercultural awareness skills among students.) tend to be agree, because all items of this dimension got the highest marks which was high percentages for all items. This is confirmed by that all the means of the answers of the participants on the five items of this dimension were higher than 2 (neutral value). All the standard deviations' results were greater than (0.05) which indicated that there was no difference in the participants' response and majority of them agreed with the all items of this dimension, so these results of standard deviations reinforce validity of the questionnaire.

**Table (4.18) Opinions of the Participants on Receptive Skills among Students:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>D A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- Short stories increase students' motivation in reading skill.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7- Short stories increase students' vocabulary.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8- Short stories promote students competence in understanding denotative as well as connotative meaning.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9- Short stories increase students' listening skill.</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10- Short stories increase students' power of expression.</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-18) shows the frequency and percentage of English language teachers toward receptive communicative skills among students.
When the participants were asked to answer item number 6, (Short stories increase students' motivation in reading skill.), 32 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (80.0 %), 5 of them responded (disagree) which represents (12.5 %), whereas 3 responded (neutral) which represents (7.5 %).

When the participants were asked to answer item number 7, (Short stories increase students' vocabulary.) 30 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (75.0 %), 7 of them responded (neutral) which represents (17.5 %), while 3 of them responded (disagree) which represents (7.5 %).

When the participants were asked to answer item number 8, (Short stories promote students competence in understanding denotative as well as connotative meaning.) 34 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (85.0 %), 4 of them responded (neutral) which represents (10.0 %), whereas 2 of them responded (disagree) which represents (5.0 %).

When the participants were asked to answer item number 9, (Short stories increase students' listening skill.) 37 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (92.5 %), 2 of them responded (neutral) which represents (5.0 %), while 1 of them responded (disagree) which represents (2.5 %).

When the participants were asked to answer item number 10, (Short stories increase students' power of expression.) 36 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (90.0 %), 3 of them responded (neutral) which represents (7.5 %), while 1 of them responded (disagree) which represents (2.5 %).
From the results of this dimension, it was found that 80.0 % of the total participants agreed that short stories increase students' motivation in reading skill. 75.0 % of them agreed that short stories increase students' vocabulary. 85.0 % of them agreed that short stories promote students competence in understanding denotative as well as connotative meaning. 92.5 % agreed that short stories increase students' listening skill. 90.0% agreed that short stories increase students' power of expression.

To sum up, according to the above results majority of English language teachers agreed that, short stories have an effective role in developing students' receptive communicative skills, which consist of reading and listening.

Table (4.19) The T-test Results of the Second Dimension's Items:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6- Short stories increase students' motivation in reading skill.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7- Short stories increase students' vocabulary.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8- Short stories promote students competence in understanding</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>denotative as well as connotative meaning.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9- Short stories increase students' listening skill.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10- Short stories increase students' power of expression.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-19) shows The T-test results of the second dimension's items of the questionnaire. According to Tables (4-18 and 4-19) the opinions of English language teachers on the second dimension (receptive communicative skills among students) tend to be agree, and this is confirmed by that all the means of the answers of the participants on the five items of this dimension were higher than 2 (neutral value). The mean
of item number 6 was (2.68); the mean of item number 7 was (2.68), the mean of item number 8 was (2.80), the mean of item number 9 was (2.90) and the mean of item number 10 was (2.88). All the standard deviations' results indicated that there was no difference in the participants' response and more than 70% of them agreed with the five items of this dimension.

Table (4.20) Opinions of the Participants about Productive Skills among Students:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11- Short stories help students to overcome missing link between language and culture.</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12- Short stories develop students' creative writing.</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13- Short stories develop students' narrative writing.</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14- Short stories expose students to everyday language.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15- Short stories help students in developing re-telling ability.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-20) shows the frequency and percentage of English language teachers toward productive communicative skills among students.

When the participants were asked to answer item number 11, (Short stories help students to overcome missing link between language and culture.), 35 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which
represents (87.5 %), 3 of them responded (disagree) which represents (7.5 %), and 2 responded (neutral) which represents (5.0 %).

When the participants were asked to answer item number 12, (Short stories develop students' creative writing.) 39 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (97.5 %), while 1 of them responded (disagree) which represents (2.5 %).

When the participants were asked to answer item number 13, (Short stories develop students' narrative writing.) 37 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (92.5 %), 2 of them responded (disagree) which represents (5.0 %), while 1 of them responded (neutral) which represents (2.5 %).

When the participants were asked to answer item number 14, (Short stories expose students to everyday language.) 32 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (80.0 %), 5 of them responded (disagree) which represents (12.5 %), while 3 of them responded (neutral) which represents (7.5 %).

When the participants were asked to answer item number 15, (Short stories help students in developing re-telling ability.) 30 of the 40 participants responded (agree) which represents (75.0 %), 6 of them responded (disagree) which represents (15.0 %), while 4 of them responded (neutral) which represents (10.0 %).

From the results of this dimension, it was found that 87.5 % of the total participants agreed that short stories help students to overcome missing link between language and culture. 97.5 % of the agreed that short stories develop students' creative writing. 92.5 % agreed that short stories develop students' narrative writing. 80.0 % of the participants
agreed that short stories expose students to everyday language. 75.0% agreed that short stories help students in developing re-telling ability.

In conclusion, according to the above results majority of English language teachers agreed that, short stories have an important role in developing students' productive communicative skills toward other cultures.

Table (4.21) The T-test Results of the Third Dimension's Items:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11- Short stories help students to overcome missing link between language and culture</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12- Short stories develop students' creative writing.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13- Short stories develop students' narrative writing.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14- Short stories expose students to everyday language.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Short stories help students in developing re-telling ability.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4-21) shows The T-test results of the third dimension's items of the questionnaire. According to Tables (4-20 and 4-21) the opinions of the participants on the third dimension (productive communicative skills among students.) tend to be agree, because all items of this dimension got the highest marks which was high percentages for all items. This is confirmed by that all the means of the answers of the participants on the five items of this dimension were higher than 2 (neutral value). All the standard deviations' results were greater than (0.05) which indicated that there was no difference in the participants' response and majority of them agreed with the all items of this
dimension, so these results of standard deviations reinforce validity of the questionnaire.

To sum up, all the results of the three dimensions showed that tales and short stories have an important role in developing EFT students' intercultural awareness, receptive communicative skills and productive communicative skills toward other cultures.

4.3 Verification of the Study Hypotheses

From the analysis of the tools, it was found that the first hypothesis which was: (Short stories will result in developing intercultural awareness communicative competence.) was confirmed by the results of the first dimension of the two tests (pre-test and post-test) and which has been enhanced by the questionnaire.

The frequency and percentage of the second dimension of the test and the questionnaire proved and confirmed validity of the second hypothesis which was (There is a significant statistical correlation between short story and development of intercultural awareness.)

As for the third hypothesis which was (There is a significant statistical correlation between short story and development of communicative competence.) was confirmed by the analysis of the third dimension of the test and which has been enhanced by the last dimension of the questionnaire.

4.4 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, two instruments were used in data collection. The first one was two tests (pre-test and post-test) for Omdurman Islamic University Preparatory year Students. In addition to a questionnaire for English teachers. Both of them were statistically analyzed and discussed.
Different statistical methods were used in the analysis. The results of these instruments were presented in terms of the means, standard deviations, P values and T values.

In conclusion, the main findings obtained from the results of the analysis were as follow: The two tests were conducted to investigate the effect of short stories in developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence. The results of these two tests showed that

The second instrument was the questionnaire which was conducted to fine out views of EFL teachers about the effect of short story on intercultural awareness and communicative competence among the students. After the analysis, the results indicated that Short stories has an effective role in developing intercultural awareness communicative competence. From the results, it was found that 95.0 % of the total participants agreed that short stories develop students' awareness of the target culture as well as their home culture. 77.5 % agreed that short stories play an effective role in facilitating students' cross cultural borders. 92.5 % of them agreed that short stories help students in reflecting the diversity of culture. 82.5 % agreed that short stories raise students' awareness of the danger of generalizing cultural behaviours. 87.5 % agreed that short stories help students in respecting other cultures.
CHAPTER FIVE

Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

5.0 Introduction
This is the last chapter of this research. It includes the following sections: summary of the study, the main findings and suggestion for further studies in the subject.

5.1 Summary of the Study
The present study has been conducted to investigate the effect of using short story in EFL classroom on developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence. So three questions were set out in this study:

1. To what extent will short stories result in developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence?
2. To what extend is there a significant statistical correlation between short story and development of intercultural awareness?
3. To what extend is there a significant statistical correlation between short story and development of communicative competence?

Three hypotheses were generated from the questions mentioned above these were:

1. Short story is expected to result in developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence.
2. There is a significant statistical correlation between short story and development of intercultural awareness.
3. There is a significant statistical correlation between short story and development of communicative competence.

The population of this study is students of the preparatory year in the department of English Language. Subject’s data which this study used
to analyze were collected from 360 (190 females and 170 males) students from both male and female of English language and Literature Department at Omdurman Islamic University. English department is one of the largest departments in the university. The experimental sample amounts to 200 (90 males & 110 females) students in the first level who are randomly chosen to undergo a test measuring their intercultural awareness and communicative competence. The researcher choose 110 female students because of their number to reach an equal representation for both gender. They were classified as pre-intermediate EFL learners.

5.2 Conclusion

The use of short stories in EFL classroom has always been recommended by the experts in the field for developing intercultural awareness. Short stories offer infinite linguistic as well as personal, socio-cultural, cognitive and emotional benefits for the language learners. Being the product of creative writers who have better command over language, stories are considered to be rich in language and amusing in nature and help in overcoming the problem of intercultural awareness. Stories expose EFL learners to the functional, situational and idiomatic use of language and thus, help in understanding and mastering the intricacies and nuances of a foreign language like English. However, it was essential to investigate the effect of short story on developing intercultural awareness and communicative competence among the students of preparatory at Omdurman Islamic University.

5.2.1 The Findings of the Study

The most important findings of this study are:

1. Using short story in EFL classroom develop students' intercultural awareness.

2. There is a significant statistical correlation between short story and development of intercultural awareness.
3. Short story enhances students' power of expression by identifying the cultural aspect.
4. Short story develop students' awareness of the target culture as well as their home culture.
5. Short story play an effective role in facilitating students' cross cultural borders.
6. Short story helps students in reflecting the diversity of culture.
7. Short story raises students' awareness of the danger of generalizing cultural behaviours.
8. Short story helps students in respecting other cultures.
9. Short story increases students' motivation in reading skill.
10. Short story increases students' vocabulary
11. Short story promotes students competence in understanding denotative as well as connotative meaning.
12. Short story increases students' listening skill.
13. Short story increases students' power of expression.

5.3 Recommendations

As a result of the experiment carried out by the study, which is obvious and confirms the hypotheses of the study about the effect of short story in EFL classroom on developing intercultural awareness, and for all the previous reasons the study recommends,

1. short story should be implemented in EFL classroom in teaching English language besides the pre-set syllabus for the students of preparatory year. This because it get inside the mine of individuals.
2. Short story should be taught to solve the missing link between language and culture.
3. Short story should be taught if the aim is to develop both receptive and productive skills.
5.4 Further Studies

Exploring an effective teaching strategies for short story as amazing technique of learning English language as forging language.
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Appendices

Students’ Test

Name: ………………………………………………………………………

Part one:

Please individually and silently answer the test questions to the best of your ability.

1. Cultural Contrast is a way to learn about differences and realize why differences exist.
   A. True (       ) B. neutral (        ) C. False (       )

2. Being respectful and understanding the power of your actions is not required for cultural competency.
   A. True (       ) B. neutral (        ) C. False (       )

3. A cultural attitude that different from yours is a bad attitude.
   A. True (       ) B. neutral (        ) C. False (       )

4. When cultural diversity is recognized and respected, cultural sensitivity occurs.
   A. True (       ) B. neutral (        ) C. False (       )

5. Ineffective culturally diverse relations can lead to prejudice, discrimination and racism.
   A. True (       ) B. neutral (        ) C. False (       )

6. Social economic status; occupation; sexual orientation; and religious beliefs are cultural characteristics.
   A. True (       ) B. neutral (        ) C. False (       )
7. For good moral decision making, you must be aware of others' beliefs, motives, and inclinations
   A. True (    )          B. neutral (      )          C. False (    )

8. There is no cultural diversity present at Health bridge.
   A. True (    )          B. neutral (      )          C. False (    )

9. When you believe that your culture is the best, you are ethnocentric
   A. True (    )          B. neutral (      )          C. False (    )

10. Poor grammar and mispronunciation of words shows a lack of intelligence.
    A. True (    )          B. neutral (      )          C. False (    )
Part two: reading, writing & speaking

There once was a Princess. She was not an ordinary princess, however. This Princess loved to play alone in the palace gardens while she tossed around her favourite beaming golden ball.

Now, the problem with playing alone was that no one was ever there to catch the ball if she tossed it too high in the air. One day, as she was running around lilies and daisies and hedges and roses, she tossed her ball higher in the air than she ever had before.

*SPLASH!!*

Her beautiful golden ball had plopped right into a small pond nearby! She ran over to the pond and watched sadly as the golden sphere sank deeper and deeper into the water. The princess looked down at her dress. She was wearing her favourite golden dress; the sparkles and gems on the front of the brilliant gown were rare and she was afraid that if she entered the water she would destroy her outfit. Frustrated with her situation, the princess began to cry.

Suddenly, the Princess heard a strange noise coming from the middle of the water. *Hop! Hop!*

“Do you not know how to swim?” asked a small frog. *Hop!* The Princess looked up and scrunched her face up at the sight of the green creature sitting on the lily pad.

“I do,” she replied.

“Well, why don't you come on in?” he asked.

“I don't want to spoil my beautiful gold dress!” the Princess replied, rolling her eyes at the frog.

“Well, I suppose I could get it for you...” the frog started.
“You can? Oh! Please do! Please do!” she cried.

But before he jumped into the water, the frog turned to her and asked:

“What will you give me in return for grabbing your golden ball?”

“Oh! You can have anything you desire!” the Princess replied, impatient to be playing again.

“What I would like is a friend. That's all. A friend to spend time with me, to eat supper with me, to read for me, to sleep beside me, and to kiss me goodnight!” the frog said.

“Anything! Anything!” the Princess cried.

And with that, the small green frog hopped into the water and retrieved the Princess' gold ball. The minute he handed it over, the girl ran around giggling and tossing her beloved ball up in the air; she had completely forgotten all about the frog.

At supper, the girl was seated at the table with her father, the King. Before either of them could take a bite, there came a small knock at the door. The King got up and walked to open it. Hop! Hop! Hop! In walked the small green frog.

“I have come to eat supper with you, Princess!” the frog said happily, hopping up on the table. The Princess gently grabbed the frog and placed him outside the door.

SLAM!!

She turned her heel and sat down at her spot once more, ignoring the suspicious look from the king.

“And who was that, Princess?” he asked her.

“Oh, no one,” she replied.

The stern look from her father caused her to go red with embarrassment. She told him that she had promised the frog that she would spend time with him, and eat supper with him, and read for him, and let him sleep with her, and kiss him goodnight.

“But I don't want to hang out with him. He's gross!” she continued.
“A promise is a promise, Princess. We must always keep our promises,” the King said wisely. With that the girl slowly shuffled over to the door and opened it up.

*Hop! Hop! Hop!*

The frog ate supper with her, and then followed the Princess into her bedroom where she began to read.

“What are you reading?” he asked trying to peer over her shoulder to see.

“Nothing,” she replied shrugging him off.

Sadly, the frog hopped over to her bed and sat down on her pillow. Before he could get comfortable, the Princess ran over to him, picked him up, and placed him by the window.

“But you promised!” he cried.

She sighed and took him back with her to bed. She read him a bedtime story and, surprisingly, the frog was quite smart and funny. She actually enjoyed his company.

When it was time to sleep, the frog asked her for a bedtime kiss. She refused, scrunching her face once more at the sight of the green creature before her.

The Princess shut out the light and tried to go to sleep. Suddenly, she heard the sounds of weeping. She turned the light back on to see the frog beside her, wiping tears from his eyes.

She was hit with a wave of guilt for making the poor frog cry. She tucked him in bed beside her and kissed him gently.

*WHOOOSH!!*

All of a sudden, the small green frog transformed into a handsome young prince right before her eyes; she jumped back from the bed in surprise. The Prince informed her that an evil witch had put a spell on him and only a kiss could return him back to his original state. It just so happened that the Princess was the first one to break the spell.
Forever after, the Prince and Princess were able to play together in the palace gardens. The Princess was happier than ever to have a playmate and, whenever she accidently threw the ball too high in the air, she was ecstatic to have a companion to go and fetch it for her.

Read the above story, then (in brief) respond to the following questions:

1. What happened when the princess was having dinner?

2. What did the frog want?

3. Who said "Honor your word"?

4. Was the princess happy with the visit of the frog?
5. What did the frog do the next morning?

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**Fill the gaps with the proper form of a verb.**

(1) The frog……… (come) to the castle and…… (start) to live with the princess in the castle.

(2) they……….. (become) very close friends.

(3) One day, the princess ……..(kiss) the frog.

(4) Then, suddenly, the frog ……….. (turn) into a handsome prince.

(5) They soon …………. (get) married and lived happily forever.

**Choose the best option for each sentence:**

1) Hey Jim,……………….. go to the movies with us?
   (a) Would you like to   (b) how about   (c) shall       (d) do you like

2) So, we all want Italian, right?............... that restaurant near the beach?
   (a) would you like   (b) let's     (c) how about   (d) shall

3) What can we do this evening?............... we watch the game in a bar?
   (a) Shall       (b) let's     (c) would you like   (d) what about

4) A: It's so hot in here!
   B: …………………get out of here an\'d go that bar near the bay!
   (a) Shall       (b) let's     (c) would you like   (d) what about
5) Helen called and said she's going for a walk. ...........going with her?
(a) Let's   (b) how about   (c) shall   (d) Would you like to

Write briefly about a journey that you have been.

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English Teachers Questionnaire

Dear colleague, the following questionnaire is prepared for the purposes of PhD thesis. The data of this questionnaire will be used only for the research purpose, and will be highly confidential.

This questionnaire has been planned and designed to collect data about the teachers’ opinion on The Effect of Short Story on Developing Intercultural Awareness and Communicative Competence. The questionnaire covers three main aspects:

- Intercultural awareness.
- Receptive skills.
- Productive skills.

1. Teacher's Information

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>…………………………………………………(Optional)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>1-5year( ), 5-10 years ( ), more than 10 years ( )</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td>Short stories develop students' awareness of the target culture as well as their home culture.</td>
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<td>2-</td>
<td>Short stories play an effective role in facilitating students' cross cultural borders.</td>
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<td>3-</td>
<td>Short stories help students in reflecting the diversity of culture.</td>
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<td>No.</td>
<td>Benefit</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Short stories raise students' awareness of the danger of generalizing cultural behaviours.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Short stories help students in respecting other cultures.</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Short stories increase students' motivation in reading skill.</td>
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<td>Short stories increase students' vocabulary.</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Short stories promote students competence in understanding denotative as well as connotative meaning.</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Short stories increase students' listening skill.</td>
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<td>Short stories increase students' power of expression.</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Short stories help students to overcome missing link between language and culture</td>
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<td>Short stories develop students' creative writing.</td>
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<td>Short stories develop students' narrative writing.</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Short stories expose students to everyday language.</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Short stories help students in developing re-telling ability.</td>
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