Literary Texts in the EFL Classrooms: Applications, Benefits and Approaches

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ABSTRACT

Literary texts play an important role in learning English language, especially enhancing communication competence, raising cultural awareness, and generating motivation among students. Research studies have shown the potential advantages of using literary texts in the EFL classrooms, which promote authentic materials, help increase language skills, and extend linguistic knowledge. This paper documents comprehensive literature on the application and benefits of literary texts in learning and teaching English language to EFL learners. It explains how different language skills can be learnt successfully using literary texts. This paper shows the significance of literary texts in English language teaching program. It explores the historical background, covering various phases, studies from various countries, including the Arab world where literature teaching shows positive responses. The paper is distinct in its entirety since it explains how different literary texts can help enhance language skills and describes the different teaching approaches for teaching literature which will be a healthy guide for teachers. It also shows how literature enriches the EFL learners’ overall learning experience.

Key words: Literature, EFL, Short Story, Language Skills, Poem, King Khalid University

INTRODUCTION

In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching, literature is instrumental in engaging students’ minds and feelings in meaningful communication in English (Sage, 1987). Moody (1971) noted that “the study of literature is fundamentally a study of language in operation” and “literature can fit into virtually any language methodology”. The language of literature is usually normal since it is the normal language which becomes elegantly poetic (Carter 1999; Hall, 2001). Balaki-an (1977) highlighted that “literary language bridges the subjective state and the physical reality of the outside world”. Collie and Slater (1990) suggested four essential reasons: profitable and authentic material, language enrichment, personal involvement and cultural improvement. Maley (1989) offered some fundamental reasons for the use of literature in language classroom while C S Lewis proclaimed: “literature adds to reality, it does not simply describe it. It enriches the necessary competencies that daily life requires and provides … it irrigates the deserts that our lives have already become” (Holmer, 1976). Literature can offer much to the language learning because it familiarize the learners with natural language, or simply ‘language at its finest’ (Ghosn, 2002).

E M Forster (1962) lauded thus: “What is wonderful about great literature is that it transforms the man reads it towards the condition of the man who wrote” while Povey (1972) asserted: “literature will help increase language skills because literature will extend linguistic knowledge by giving evidence of extensive and subtle vocabulary usage and complex and exact syntax”. Other studies (Bassnett & Grundy, 1993; Carter & Long, 1991; Carter, Walker, Brumfit, 1989; Collie & Slater, 1987; Brumfit and Carter, 1986; Gower & Pearson, 1986; Maley & Moulding, 1985; and Carter & Burton, 1982) provided theoretical basis for effective use of literature in EFL classroom. Bassnett and Gundy (1993) argued that literature illustrates language usage as the sublime skill while Allen (1978) compared the tie-up between language and literature thus: “If human experience is the what of literature then surely language is part of the how”.

This paper shows the significance of literary texts in English language teaching program. It explores the historical background, covering various phases, studies from various countries, including the Arab world where literature teaching shows positive responses. The paper is distinct in its entirety since it explains how different literary texts can help enhance language skills and describes the different teaching approaches for teaching literature which will be a healthy guide for teachers. It also shows how literature enriches the EFL learners’ overall learning experience.
HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF TEACHING LITERATURE

Phases of Literature Teaching

Eagleton (1996) argued that the concept of literature encompassed the entire gamut of valuable writing on history, poetry, philosophy, essays and letters, etc. According to Hall (2005), the University College London established the first Department of English Literature in 1828, and the first Departments of English at Oxford and Cambridge were founded in 1849 and 1878 respectively. Kramsch & Kramsch (2000) summarized the phases of literature teaching thus: “Throughout the 20th century, literature has been given many purposes in language study: aesthetic education of the few (1910s), for the literacy of the many (1920s), for moral and vocational uplift (1930s–1940s), for ideational content (1950s), for humanistic inspiration (1960s–1970s), and finally for providing an ‹authentic› experience of the target culture (1980s–1990s)”. Tayebipour (2009) reported that literature, with the exception of Grammar-Translation Method period has been Cinderella, and treated like a redundant subject. Hence, during 1940s and 1960s literature almost disappeared from the language curriculum (Carter, 2000).

During 1960 and 1980s, there was hardly any substantial research on the effectiveness of literature in language teaching was undertaken because Functional-Notional Method sidelined literature for its paucity on communication competence while Structural Approaches downgraded literature as an old-fashioned tool (Llach, 2007). Topping (1968) wanted literature to be completely excluded from the EFL curriculum because it did not help in enhancing linguistic proficiency among EFL learners. The historic division between literature and language which Short (1996) called a ‘border dispute over territory’, paved the way for teaching of language and literature as two ‘disconnected pedagogic practices’ (Carter and McRae, 1996).

After analyzing the 1954-1998 Northeast Conference Reports, Davis (2000) placed 1967 as a watershed year when language teaching was divided into two: teaching of literature and teaching of language. Hall (2005) called Baldick (1983), Doyle (1989) and Palmer (1965), a as the leading researchers who provided the best works till date on languages and literatures for the first language learners”.

In the beginning of the 20th century, the relationship between literature and language “was excellent” but then the notion “literary language was superior to spoken language” changed the scenario and literature was left out of the language programmes (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). In the 1980s, researchers focused on teaching language skills via literary texts which would help learners “interact, express, negotiate, and provide personal interpretations (Harper, 1988). The advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach saw the reintroduction literature because literary texts offered real, cultural and pleasurable materials to the learners (Hall, 2005). Moreover, research on the value of reading was done the 1980s which promoted ‘reader response’ approaches to use literary texts in language classes (Hirvela 1996; Elliott, 1990).

Research Studies in Arab World

However, in the Arab region, there were no research studies to showcase the effectiveness of literature in language teaching. Issues such as benefits and losses, cultural barriers, usefulness, methods, models and attitudes of students in learning English language through literature have been explored (Obeidat, 1996 &1997; Asfour, 1983; Adam et al, 2015; Shaaban, 2015; Shakfa, 2012; Tehan et al, 2015; Babae et al, 2014; Lakshmi & Jayachandran, 2012; Paesani, 2011; Ögeyik, 2007; Yılmaz, 2012; Hişmanoğlu, 2005; Erkaya, 2003; Ceylan, 2016; Gencer et al, 2011; Muhammed, 2013; Ghouti el al, 2014; Dahiyyat, 1983; Zid, 2015; Al-Maraohi, 2012).

In Saudi Arabia, various studies have shown the role, factors, approaches and benefits of literary texts in English language classrooms, (Alfauzan et al, 2016; Alsaed, 2013; Al-Jabry et al, 2014; Abdulmughith, 2015; Yadav, 2014; Alsaed, 2013; Lakshami & Jayachandran, 2014; Choudhury, 2015; Ahmad, 2014). In Iran, studies on significance, effect, advantages and suggestions on using literature to enhance language skills have been illustrated (Khatib et al, 2011; Tayebipour, 2009; Aghagolzadeh, 2012; Khatib et al, 2011; Kanshir, 2012; Khatib et al, 2013; Keshavarzi, 2013; Rezaanjad et al, 2015; Mohammadzadeh, 2009; Alemi, 2011; Yar-ahmadi, 2016).


ROLE OF LITERATURE

“Literature is an ally of language”, claimed Brumfit and Carter, (1986) and Mckay (1982) pronounced that “literature presents language in discourse”. For Carter & Long (1991), the study of literature is “a sine qua non for the truly educated person”. Literary language is helpful for learning a language since the important purpose of it is “the revelation of creativity, of the knowledge of the self and of others manifested by that language used in literary context” (Balakian, 1977). Literature can best depict people and places, situations and scenarios, including stimulation that learners can understand since literature depicts universality (Sage, 1987).

During 1960-80, ELT approaches questioned the application of literature in the EFL/ESL classroom, but Zafeiriadou (2001) observed that “theoretical principles obviously go right back to the early 20th century» when scholars like Sassure (1916), Baldick (1996) and Richards (1929) advocated the contribution of literature. Barthes (1975, 1977), Isher (1974), Eco (1979, 2005), Fish (1981) and Leech and Short (1986) provided important works to back it up. Practical


Two Positions on the Role of Literature

Scholars highlighted two positions – essentialist and non-essentialist – on the usefulness of literature in language learning (YukSEL, 2007; Donato & Brooks, 2004; Scott & Tucker, 2002; Edmondson, 1997). The essentialist position argued that teaching literature can make language learning easier (McKay, 1982; Widdowson, 1984; Lazar, 1993), instill cultural knowledge (Ghosn, 2002; Parkinson & Thomas, 2000; Shanahan, 1997; Lazar, 1993, 1994; McKay, 1982), promote analytical thinking (Ghosn, 2002; Parkinson & Thomas, 2000; Lazar, 1993) and invigorate motivation (Ghosn, 2002; Parkinson & Thomas, 2000; Lazar, 1993; McKay, 1982) in EFL/ESL classroom. The non-essentialist position, on the other hand, considered nil or very limited use of literature in language learning. They argued that “it is not essential to handle literature in the interest of developing L2 proficiency” (YukSEL, 2007).

In developing different aspects and skills of English language, the role of literature is multi-facet since it promotes knowledge of vocabulary, phrases and specified expressions (MacKenzie, 2000; Frantzen, 2002), knowledge of grammar (Atmaca et al, 2016; Tayebipour, 2009), awareness of language (Carroll, 2008), pragmatic and sociolinguistic proficiencies (McKay, 2001), educational, linguistic and psychological competencies (Carter & Long, 1991) and emphasis culturally authentic literary texts into EFL curriculum (Dupuy, 2000; Swaffar, 1999). Hall (2005) identified literature “as potentially playing a role in facilitating the learner’s access to English language”. In EFL class, literary texts are significant for both learning language and accomplishing educational goals (Bredella, 2000; Widdowson, 1992). Literature is regarded as “the highest form of expression of the target language” (Gilroy and Parkinson, 1996).

Principle Bases for Incorporating Literature

According to, Duff and Maley (1990), as quoted by Savvidou (2004), principal bases for incorporating literature in the EFL classroom are: linguistic, methodological and motivational. Short and Candlin (1986) stated: “if literature is worth teaching qua literature, then it seems axiomatic that it is the response to literature itself which is important”. The systematic study of vocabulary, structure, register, the stylistic features of a text, are meant to explore “not just what a text means, but also how it comes to mean what it does” (Short, 1996). Lazar (1993) suggested following five reasons for integrating literature in ELT:

1. Expanding students’ language awareness
2. Encouraging language acquisition
3. Developing students’ interpretative abilities
4. Motivating materials
5. Educating the whole person.

BENEFITS OF USING LITERATURE

Mckay (1982) listed three major benefits of using literature: it fosters learners’ reading skill; it promotes tolerance; and it helps learners become creative. Literature motivates learners towards personal and dynamic learning (McRae, 1991). Research studies have explored the potential benefits of integrating literary texts in the language classroom (Edmondson, 1997; Carter and McRae, 1996; Kramsch, 1993; Lazar, 1993; Widdowson, 1992; 1989; Carter et al., 1989; Maley and Duff, 1989). If Kim (2004), Yang (2001), Belcher and Hirvela (2000) and Gilroy and Parkinson (1997) explained the methods to incorporate literary texts in EFL classroom, Denka (2005), Hall (2005), Keunen and Eeckhout (2001), and Schröder (1977) investigated the place of literature in language learning. Carter and Stockwell (2008), Paran (2008) and Parkinson and Thomas (2000) described comprehensive classroom practices and practical teaching narratives. Frye (1964) claimed that literature provides encouragement of tolerance, promotion of creativity and transfer of imaginative energy to students. Moon (2000) argued that literature helps enhance learners’ interests and involvement, stimulates their critical thinking, and transforms the entire teaching process into a lively exercise.

Broad Benefits of Literature in Language Learning

Maley (2001) opined that literature, as an ideal tool, develops creative comprehension and enhances the communicative competence of learners. Arthur (1968) discussed three processes of language learning through literature: syntactic pattern, large stock of vocabulary, and knowledge of other cultures. Povey (1972) pointed out subtle vocabulary usage and promotion of language use for communication. Maley (2001) mentioned the following seven broad benefits of literature in language learning:

- Universality
- Non-triviality
- Personal Relevance
- Variety
- Interest
- Economy and Suggestive Power
- Ambiguity.

Some studies pointed out benefits of using literature like dimension of depth, liberal thinking, special depth and
Human qualities (Sánchez, 2008; McKay, 2001; Stevick, 1976; Burke and Brumfit, 1986). Literary texts act as a model for language learners to get acquainted with various forms and conventions of a language (Ur, 1996; Collie and Slater, 1991). Literature enriches the skills of learners to critically examine discourse presented in different cultural and social contexts (Savvidou, 2004). More importantly, literature helps learners in their intellectual and personal growth since they begin to know and value other cultures, societies and ideologies (Carter and Long, 1991). Parkinson and Thomas (2000) listed the following ten benefits of literature:

1. Linguistic Model
2. Linguistic Competence
3. Cultural Enrichment
4. Authenticity
5. Mental Training
6. Memorability
7. Rhythmic Resource
8. Motivating Material
9. Open to Interpretation
10. Convenience.

Learning Language Skills Through Literature


How Literature Enhances Listening

Listening is a dynamic activity but twice as hard as speaking. According to Mckay (2001), literature provides a perfect setting for enhancing listening skills as it familiarizes learners with a variety of voice qualities and dialects. Jacobs (1990) recommended that learners should be provided with listening opportunities of literary texts which help them get engaged – both intellectually and emotionally. In EFL classroom, reading out to learners on a regular basis is better than other language learning activities (Hall & Williams, 2000). Stories and children’s books stimulate learners to create visual images in their minds, which lead them to remember the events of the story, characters, and sequence with utmost accuracy (Aiex, 1988; Raines & Isbell, 1989; Hoag, 1996; Trelease, 1996; Hall & Williams, 2000; Miles, 2002).

“Using literature will help students develop an awareness of the beauty in the rhythm and sound of language, and how to visualize characters, settings, moods and situations while listening” (Hoag, 1996). Stephens and Brown (2000) suggest that “a teacher read-aloud meets the objectives of the lesson. Its purpose is to create interest and curiosity about the selection among students. Hence, read-aloud, listening guides, readers’ theater, and listening logs provide students with a heightened involvement with literature. Storytelling immensely help develop learners’ listening skills. In the post-listening session, the students tell stories to classmates, and in the process each learner gets an opportunity to listen to each one (Paley, 1990; Jalongo, 1995; Hoag, 1996).

How Literature Stimulates Speaking

Widdowson (1994) argued that “speaking is the active production skill and use of oral production. It is the capability of someone to communicate orally with others”. Khankhien (2010) believed that “speaking is considered to be the most important in a second language”. In the literature class, question-answer, debate, and role play are some of the effective activities to improve the students’ speaking skill. Harmer (1984) reported: “since there were stimulations activities in the classroom for motivating the students, they get the self-confidence of being part of the classroom including answering the question, sharing the idea, and also presentation”.

According to Bygate (1987), “speaking is the vehicle ‘par excellence’ of social solidarity, of social making of professional achievement and of business. Yet, speaking is in many ways an undervalued skill... which deserves attention”. Stevick (1996) observed: “ease of speaking is not just nice; it is also useful”. McKay (2001) said that “because literary texts depend on how the language is used to create a particular effect, literature demonstrates for learners the importance of form in achieving specific communicative goals”. As per Collie and Slater (1987), “literary texts serve as an excellent prompt for oral work, as they provide unexpected compactness of meaning leading to a variety of interpretations through imagination and discussion”.

How Literature Promotes Reading


Mckay (1982) argued that literature helps promote reading skill. For Widdowson (1979), reading is “not as a reaction to a text but as interaction between writer and reader mediated through the text.” Yopp & Yopp (2013) provided various ‘pre, during and post-reading activities, while Rosenblatt (1978) offered two reading methods: eff erent (a reading whereby the learners is concerned with language skill) and aesthetic (learners’ feeling of inner joy). Brumfit and Carter (1986) reported: “reading literary texts will help our students to understand and appreciate multiple levels of meanings, metaphors and phonological patterning in many other types of texts”.

How Literature Inspires Writing

Stern (2001) stated that literature is a rich source of inspiration for writing in EFL/ESL – both as a subject matter and
as a model. Readers of literature are motivated to imitate the original writing, its theme, content and style, and at the same time readers show original thinking when they analyze and interpret texts. Many students of literature metamorphosed into a highly creative writers Classroom activities such as discussion or exercises after text comprehension reading motivate students to analyze, interpret and criticize the work of literature (Stern, 2001). Various contents, themes, styles and organizations of literary works help generate original thinking among learners which they tend to write (Hişmanoğlu, 2005).

Literary texts are rich sources of figurative language, beautiful sentences, idiomatic expressions, interesting proverbs, and suitable vocabulary items filled with connotative meanings. In addition, range of vocabulary, grammatical structures and style of writing woven into a gripping narration enthrall the readers. According to Custodio and Sutton (1998), literature provides motivation among learners to explore, to ask, or to criticize. Vandrick (2003) asserted that learners will be exposed to different language patterns to see how sentences and paragraphs can be put together.

Exploiting Short Stories for Language Learning

Since “the world of short fiction both mirrors and illuminates human lives” it attracts immediate attention of learners (Sage, 1987). Murdoch (2002) argued that “short stories can, if selected and exploited appropriately, provide quality text content which will greatly enhance ELT courses for learners. Kilpatrik et al (1994) opine that “through the power of imagination we become participants in the story. We literally ‘identify’ ourselves with our favourite characters, and thus their actions become our actions”.

Oster (1989) argued that short story is a powerful and motivating factor for teaching four skills, for example, teacher-oral reading, role-play, enactment of characters, dramatic presentation, interpretation, and discussion can lead the learners enhance their language. According to Collie and Slater (1991), short stories are beneficial because of:

• its short length;
• its clarity and simplicity;
• its different tastes and interests; and
• its vast and varied topics.

According to Pardede’s (2011), a great number of English language trainers found short stories as fascinating to be used both as texts for individual enjoyment and as model for language classrooms. Spack (1985) suggested that the language teacher should select short stories which can be interesting for learners. According to McKay (2001) and Rivers (1968), if a literary text is relevant to their life experience and interests, learners do read and enjoy it. Morgan and Rinvulucri (1983) provided range of classroom exercises and more than 70 storylines (‘skeletons’) for learners.

Using Poetry for Language Learning

According to Maley and Duff (1989), “poetry offers a rich resource for language learning. A poem offers a readymade semantic field for learners to enter”. Benton et al (1987) affirmed “the main objective of using poetry in language lessons is to find a means of involving the learners in using their language skills in an active and creative way”. Bagher-kazemi and Alemi (2010) claimed that poetry “engages the reader in interpretation, meaning negotiation and the generation of coherent discourse-based meaning”. Widdowson (1992) said that poetry offers value-added understanding of other cultures while Hanauer (1997) suggested two theories for understanding poetry: formalist and conventionalist. While the former talks of learning the basic characteristics of poems the latter deals with ‘conventions of reading related to poetry’. Roman Jakobson (1960) proposed the following six crucial functions for language used in a poem:

• Emotive
• Referential
• Phatic
• Conative
• Metalingual
• Message.

“Teaching reading, and writing, as quoted in Sage (1987), “has been successfully defended over the centuries by Sir Philip Sidney (1554-1580), S. T. Coleridge (1772-1834), and T.S. Eliot (1888 1965)”. From a wider educational perspective, poetry possesses a special artistry to boost learners’ empathetic attitude and fashion their emotional life. (Paran, 2008; Hall, 2005; Belcher & Hirvela, 2000; Gilroy & Parkinson, 1997). Hanauer (1997) argued that “the reading of poetry is a task in which the discussion of meaning inherently involves a consideration of form”. Sage (1987) listed five benefits of poetry: (a) linguistics; (b) educational and learning; (c) cultural; (d) emotional; and (e) esthetic. According to Maley and Moulding (1985), “If carefully selected, poems can open up themes which are common to us whatever our cultural background, and can thus act as a powerful stimulus to the students’ own reflective thinking. Sarac (2003) listed the following educational benefits of poetry:

• it presents a language use which is different;
• it stimulates readers to react and analyze; and
• it makes readers familiar with figures of speech.

Lazar (1993) explored various teaching activities like brainstorming word associations, speculating the symbolic meaning of a word and writing clusters of figurative meanings. Collins (2012) offered the following five strategies to study poetry:

1. Discussion-director: a process of writing questions related to a poem to be discussed;
2. Passage-picker: selection of difficult sentences from text containing figurative language;
3. Word-finder: investigation of meaning of tough words;
4. Connector: connection of the themes of a poem with personal experience of learners; and
5. Reporter: questions raised during teaching and group mind map.

Utilizing Drama for Language Learning

Drama makes learners to become active participant who experience similarity in language use in the classroom to that of real-life. Abdulmughni (2016) argued that “drama is the
most appropriate to teach speaking skills. It is a recreation of real life dialogue. It utilizes all of the communication skills. “Drama can be used to bring literature to life for the students. It is more dynamic than simple text and helps the visual learners as well as recycles new vocabulary” (Boudreault, 2010). Drama and language games introduce natural dramatic activities like ice-breakers, energizers, brain-teasers, improvisation and role-play which provide similar experiences (Davies, 1990). Drama guides learners to comprehend the experiences of their life and contemplate specific situations and through a deeper linguistics world (Sarıçoban 2004). According to Lenore (1993), drama helps:

- In creative thinking;
- In developing language development;
- In enhancing listening skills;
- Teachers with renewed outlook for teaching;
- In creating a light classroom atmosphere; and
- Understand the problems in other cultures.

Drama reveals the aspects of both theory and practice of how English language is used in various perspectives (Whiteson, 1996). Learners get engaged in learning process and they try to express themselves in the language of the character.

APPROACHES TO TEACHING LITERATURE

According to Moody (1983), an approach aims to “provide a framework, or sequence of operations to be used when we come to actualities”. Richards and Rodgers (1986) argued that different types of activities form the basis for different philosophies at the level of teaching approach. For Duppen-thaler (1987), an activity is “anything that is designed to increase students’ motivation, participation in the learning process and the interaction between learners”. Whitehead (1968) suggested that teachers must have the knowledge of various approaches and techniques for making literature teaching a success. Among many, some of the approaches to teach literature are discussed below.

The Critical Literary Approach and the Stylistic Approach of Maley

Maley’s (1989) offered two approaches: the critical literary approach (the study of literature as a cultural artifact), which focuses on background, plot, literary concepts, motivation, characterization, psychology and value etc., and the stylistic approach (the study of literature as a resource for learning language), which focuses on description of text, analysis of language and critical interpretation. While the critical approach requires expertise in linguistics the stylistic focuses on linguistic competence without covering the teaching needs about four language skills.

Three Models of Carter and Long

For teaching literature, Carter and Long’s (1991) suggested three models – the language model, the cultural model and the personal growth model. The cultural model focuses on providing knowledge of historical background, authors, cultural trends, and certain periods. The language model focuses on developing four skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing, in addition to motivating learners to become creative in language use. The personal growth model aims at students’ growth as individuals by inculcating imagination, creativity, critical thinking, and aesthetic taste in their personality.

Six Approaches of Van

Van (2009) offered the following six approaches:
1. The Stylistic Approach
2. The Reader-Response Approach
3. The Language-Based Approach
4. The Critical Literacy Approach
5. New Criticism

According to Simon (2006), Stylistic Approach “considers literature primarily as discourse and studies it from a linguistic perspective, which means, how literary texts exemplify the system of language”. Widdowson (1989) explained that “the purpose of stylistic analysis is to investigate how the resources of a language code are put to use in the production of actual messages”.

The Reader-Response Approach considers literature as interaction between the text and the reader or what changes occur in reader’s mind in going through a text, not as linguistic objects printed on a page. Eco (1984) observes that “the reader as an active principal of interpretation is a part of the picture of the generative process of the text”.

According to Van (2009), the Language-Based Approach considers literature as “an excellent vehicle for CLT methods that result in four-skill English language development through interaction, collaboration, peer teaching, and student independence”. Carter (1988) believed role play, poetry debate, cloze, prediction and ranking tasks should be used for language learning (Carter, 1996; Rosli, 1995). This approach is more practical than other ones (Littlewood, 1986; Carter, Long, 1991).

Critical Literacy motivates students to learn how texts are associated with issues of class, culture, identity, gender, ethnicity, religion and political power. Osborn (2000) argued that “literary truth revealed as knowledge is the manifestation of myriad relationships. The teaching of language has far has failed to addresses how literature tackle dominant problems of ideology and power relations in society (Cummins 2000; Comber 1994).

The New Criticism puts much attention on close reading, especially of poetry to explore how literary text works as self-referential, self-centered aesthetic piece to be interpreted by readers. Ogden and Richards (1923) said: “in literature there are intertwined two distinct kinds or levels of art – a generalized, non-linguistic art, which can be transferred without loss into an alien linguistic medium, and a specifically linguistic art that is not transferable”.

Barry (2002) showed that the proponents of structuralism analyze a piece of prose narrative vis-à-vis other related text including the following structures:

- a set of intertextual connections;
- a set of conventions of a particular literary genre;
• a notion of narrative as a complex of recurrent patterns of motifs; and
• a designed model of an underlying universal narrative structure.

Wellek and Warren’s Intrinsic and Extrinsic Model
Wellek and Warren (1994) presented two approaches: intrinsic and extrinsic. In intrinsic approach, reader focuses on the structure, language, form, images, symbols, style, contrasts, and growth of a plot in a literary text. The extrinsic approach focus is directed to the biography of the author, historical background, and social aspects. In intrinsic approach, following levels are explored:
• grammatical
• lexical
• structural
• cultural.
The major focus of extrinsic approach are:
• biographical
• historical
• aesthetic
• philosophical.

Four Methods of Durant (1995)
Durant (1995) stated four methodological approaches to teaching literature: lecture, informal dialogue, workshop and self-access learning. He provided the following activities in classroom:
• silent reading
• comprehension task
• Listening tasks
• Personal response
• Dictionary learning and study skills and dictionary work
• Talk in the target language
• Stylistic analysis
• Creative writing and written response.

Integrative Approach to Literature Teaching
Some known linguists and language teachers who offered integrated approach are Lucas (1990), Timuchin (2001), Amer (2003), Savvidou (2004), Divsar & Tahiri (2009), and Dhanapal (2010). They are discussed below.

Lucas Text Type Approach (1990)
Lucas (1990) divided texts into two major types: artistic and functional. Artistic texts include novels, short stories, essays, poems and plays. Functional texts consist of whatever texts other than the artistic as shown in Figure-1 below:

Functional text comprises six categories:
1. Casual texts include newspapers, magazines and non-fiction
2. Personal texts include letters and diaries.
3. Transactional texts include business letters, legal documents and reports.
4. Reference texts include dictionaries, catalogues, directories and inventories.
Dhanapal’s (2010) Integrated Approach

Dhanapal (2010) integrated reader-response approach with stylistics analysis approach to address the critical and creative thinking skills upon Malaysian high school students. While “reader-response approaches would enlist a variety of interpretation but with stylistics in play, readers would follow some similar interpretive conventions”. Figure-2 shows the Dhanapal’s Integrated Approach.

SELECTING LITERARY TEXTS

For McKay (1982), selecting appropriate literature is “the key to success in using literature in the ESL”. The short, less complex, and have few characters are ideal literary texts for EFL learners. Niles & Donelson (1980) offered various books and materials for students and teachers. Honeyfield (1977) put emphasis on simplification of texts for producing a homogenized uniformity to dilute the information. Some scholars, quoted in Kramsch (2000), suggested to tailor the texts to the level of learners’ competence. (Swaffar, 1985, 1988; Bernhard (1986) pressed for making the task simple, not the text. Others called for ‘reading for meaning’ which means the text must be related to learners’ cultural milieu not in the alien culture (Swaffar, Arens, & Byrnes, 1991).

There are a number of books for the advanced level students offering useful activities to develop literacy sensitivity through greater linguistic awareness (Short 1986; Durant and Fabb 1990; Widdowson 1992; Cook, 1994). Then there are collections of practically oriented articles by Carter et al. (1989) and Carter and McRae (1996) which would serve as an invaluable introduction to the area for trainee teachers or the uninitiated. Also, there are books for students at intermediate level (McRae and Vethamani 1999; Lazar 1993, 1999; Bassnet and Grundy 1993; McRae 1991, 1992; Carter and Long 1991; McRae and Pantaleoni 1990; Maley 1989, 1994; Duff and Maley 1990; Greenwood 1989; Tomlinson 1985, 1998; Collie and Slater 1987; Maley and Moulding 1986; Maley and Duff 1982, 1989).

For language teachers who use literature in the language classrooms, there are a number of books on style (Weber, 1996; Wales, 1989;) which offer rich source of practical illustrations on form, genre, and style under the learner-centered teaching practice without ignoring the historical and social and historical of the material (Tooian, 1998; Widdowson, 1975, 1992; Short, 1996; Carter & McRae, 1996; Fowler, 1996; Simpson, 1993, 1997; Cook, 1994; Kramsch, 1993). Narrative and reading response theorists (Britton, 1990; Bruner, 1986; Rosenblatt, 1995, 1978; Scholes, 1989) do claim, and research confirms (Langer, 1995; Short, 1992; Wells, 1990) that literary texts must have the potential to generate quality discussion which reflect and explore inter-textual connections.

**CONCLUSION**

This paper has illustrated the prospective advantages of using literary texts in the EFL classrooms. It is distinct in its entirety since it explains how different literary texts can help enhance language skills and describes the different teaching approaches for teaching literature which will be a healthy guide for teachers. It also shows how literature enriches the EFL learners’ overall learning experience. For EFL teachers and learners, the paper offers examples of texts on styles and genres on literature for much better performance in the classroom.

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