

On this deep structure the following T-rules apply to derive the surface sentence.

Deep Str : (Someone pres. visit relatives) pres. can be a nuisance TR<sub>1</sub> Complementizer.

Placement (Poss-ing) ⇒ (Someone – Poss ing visit relatives) Pres. can be a nuisance  
 TR<sub>2</sub> someone (+ Poss) deletion ⇒ (ing vist relatives) Pres. can be a nuisance

TR<sub>3</sub> Affix switch ⇒  $\frac{\text{visit-ing}}{\text{visiting}}$  relatives  $\frac{\text{can-pres}}{\text{can}}$  be a nuisance.

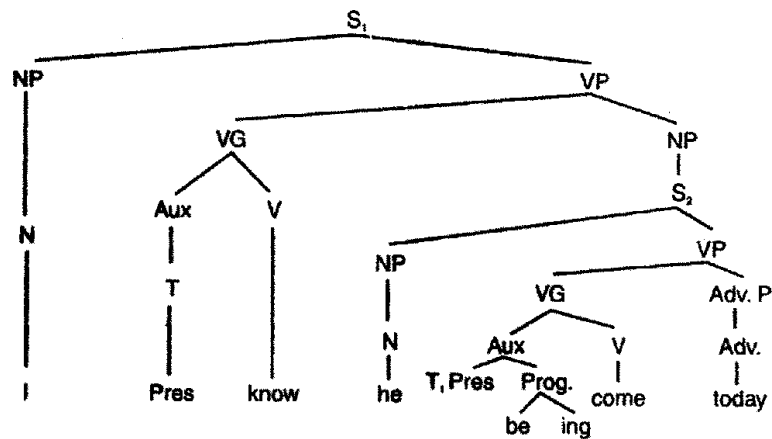
Notice that in the deep structure for meaning I we have a relative clause configuration in which relatives is the subject NP for the verb visit whereas in the structure for M<sub>2</sub> we find a complement clause configuration in which relatives is the object NP for the verb visit. This explains the ambiguity. And after the ambiguity is captured at the deep structure level the application of the Transformational rules (which are different) ultimately map these two different deep structures on to the same surface sentence – ‘Visiting relatives can be a nuisance’.

This model, therefore, becomes an ‘externalization’ of native speaker’s ‘competence’. In other words, the grammar structurally interprets the syntactic interrelations the way the native speaker does it.

Here are some examples worked out for you to look into the deep structures of sentences.

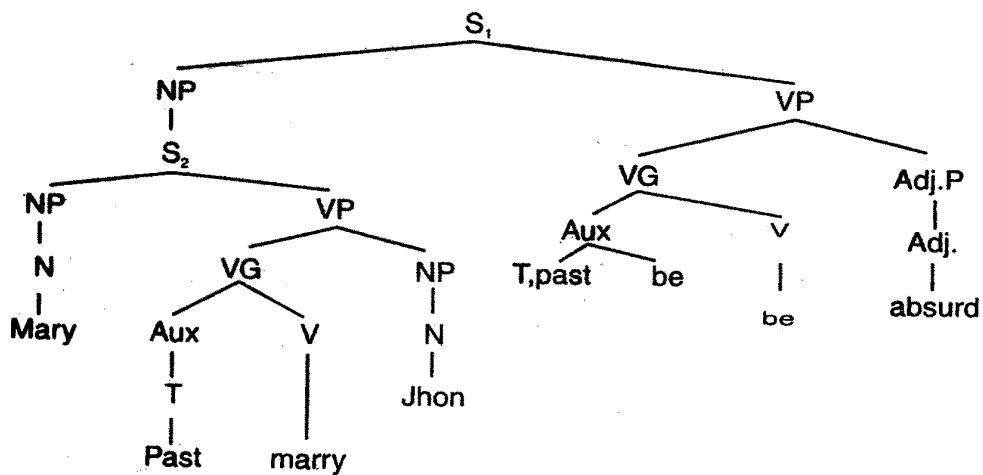
(i) Complement clauses :

1. I know that he is coming today.



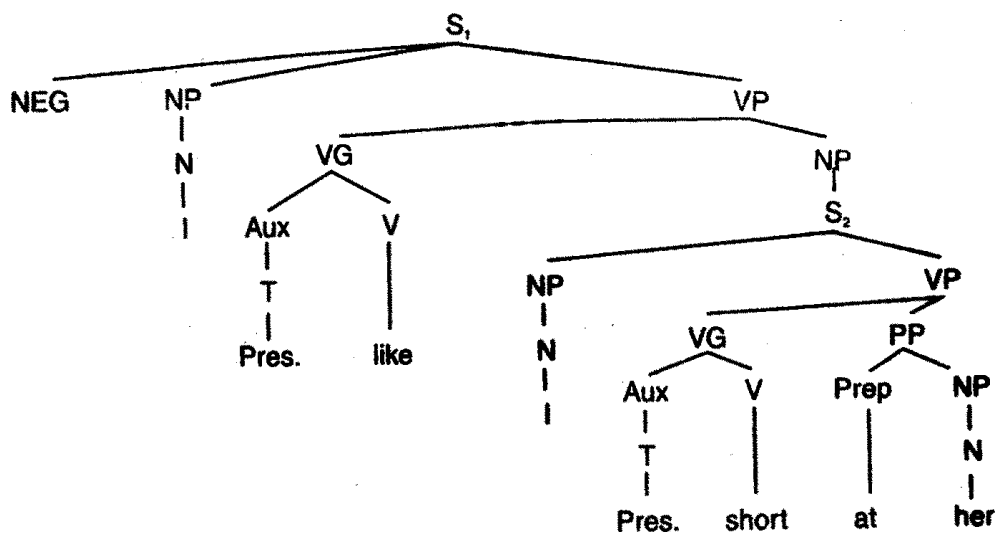
On this deep structure complementizer placement rule will place that complementizer before the complement clause (S<sub>2</sub>) and then the Affix switch rule will apply.

2. For Mary to marry John was asurd.



On this deep structure phrase marker complementized placement rule will place for...to complementizer in the p.m. and then the affix switch rule will apply.

3. I don't like shouting at her.

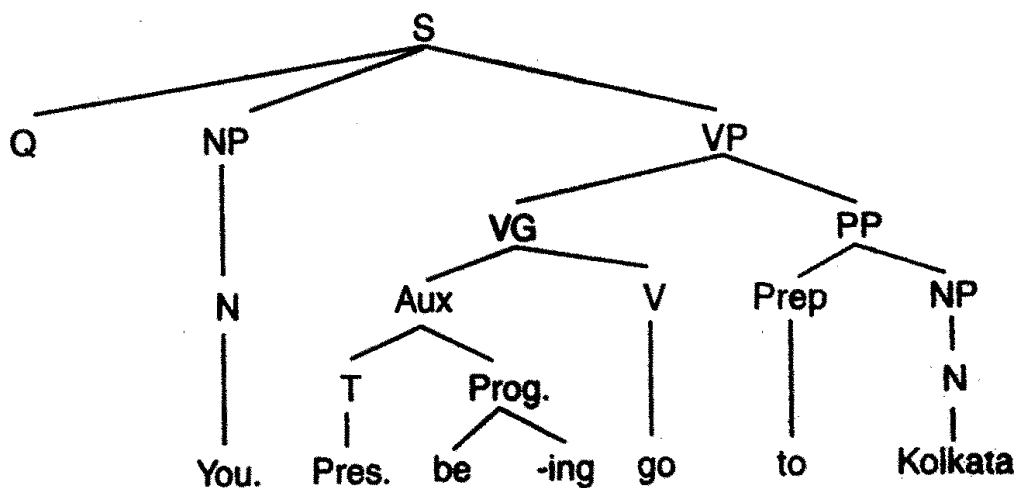


Neg I pres. like (I pres. shout at her)

On this deep structure the complementizer Poss.....ing will be placed in the S<sub>2</sub> and other T-rules including rules of negation will apply to derive the surface sentence.

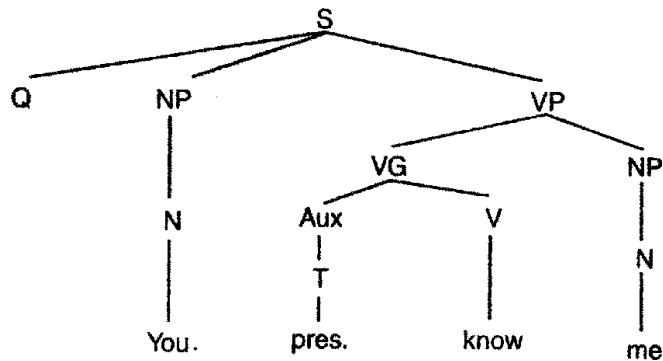
**(ii) Interrogative structures :**

4. Are you going to Kolkata ?



Here the T-rules for interrogation will apply first which will invert Tense Pres along with the aux be across the object NP you. And then the affix switch rule will apply to derive the surface form of the sentence.

5. Do you know me ?



PM : Q you pres. know me

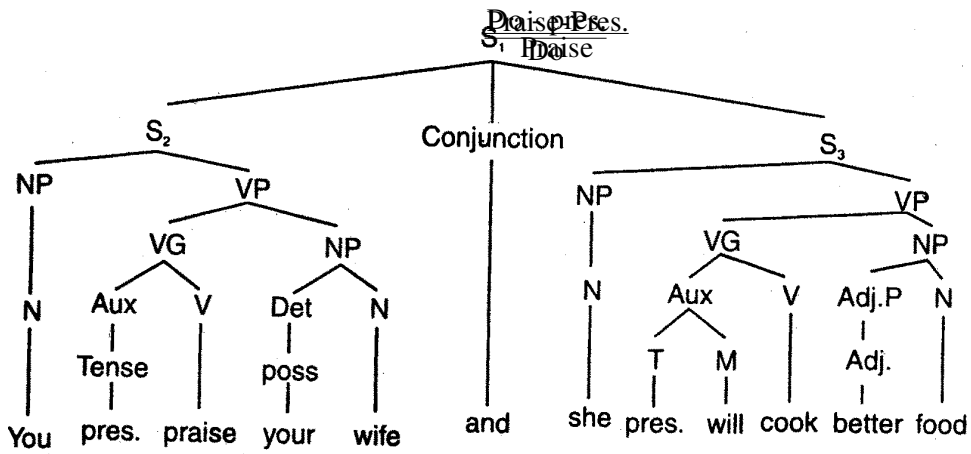
TR<sub>I</sub> Interrogative (Inversion) ⇒ Pres. you know me.

TR<sub>II</sub> Do-support ⇒ Pres. do you know me

TR<sub>III</sub> Affix Switch ⇒ you know me

(iii) The structure of co-ordination :

6. Praise your wife and she will cook better food.



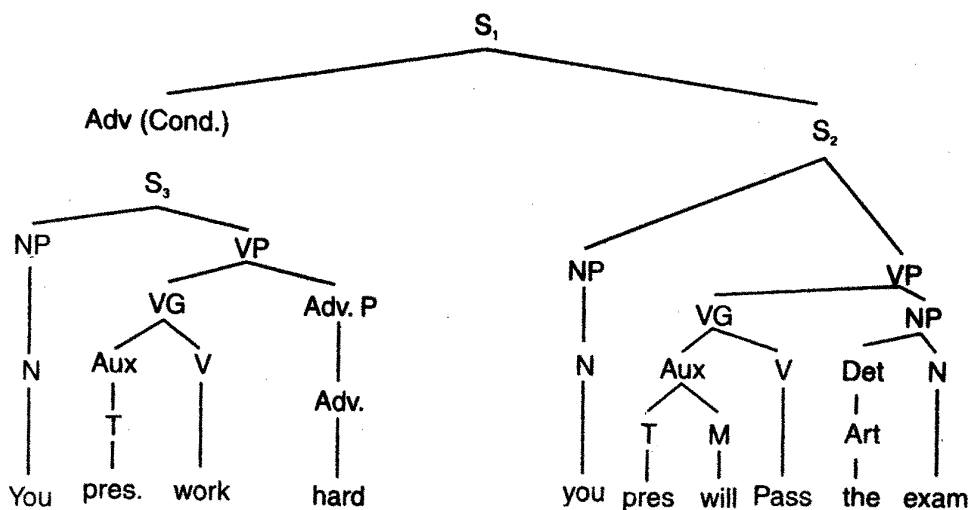
PM : you pres. praise your wife and she pres. will cook better food TRI.

Pronoun del ⇒ Pres. praise your wife and she pres. will cook better food.

Affix Switch your wife and she cook better food.

(iv) Complex sentence with adverbial clause :

7. If you work hard you will pass the examination.



A T-rule will place the conditional marker if at the beginning of the adverbial clause (S<sub>3</sub>) and then the affix switch rule will apply to generate the surface sentence.

In the 1965 model, therefore, Chomsky gave us a detailed description of the base component with the introduction of a number of new sets of rules, like strict subcategorization rules which will apply after the PS rules (PS rules have also been modified now), selectional restriction rules and lexical insertion rules. These rules he had to postulate in view of the emerging needs for a more and more adequate and sophisticated model of linguistic description. As a result, the grammar became more and more complex. This process of modification continued through the sixties, seventies, eighties and nineties.

As we said earlier, the history of any science is a history of successive modifications. And linguistics is no exception. Transformational theory in the 1990s has moved far ahead of the standard Theory formulations of the 1960s. But, for an introductory course on modern syntax this standard theory framework is a very relevant and useful framework. This gives you the insights for looking into sentence structures in a way which is never found in the earlier models. As students of English syntax you now have the awareness about the 'nuts and bolts' of the language. After this introductory course is completed you will learn more and more about the later developments in the field within the Chomskyan paradigm.

**2.71. Summary :** In this unit on English Syntax we have tried to examine (i) the inadequacies of the traditional framework, (ii) the structuralist model of Immediate Constituent Analysis and how far or whether it is a better substitute for the traditional grammar, (iii) the intrinsic limitations of the structuralist model and (iv) the Transformational Generative model of grammar. Within the TG framework we concentrated on the standard Theory model for practical reasons. We have shown how this model operates in capturing

deep structure configurations of sentences and their interrelations with their surface counterparts.

**2.72. Review Questions 10 :**

Draw deep structure phrase markers for the following.

- (i) To err is human.
- (ii) It is easy to solve problems in syntax.
- (iii) My going to your place will be useless.
- (iv) Who is a genuine friend ?
- (v) What's your name ?
- (vi) If you study linguistics you'll go crazy.
- (vii) Drink wet cement and get really stoned.

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**2.8. Books Recommended**

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1. Chomsky, N. (1957) : *Syntactic Structures*, Mouton and Co., The Hague.
2. (1965) : *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, MIT Press, Cambridge, Mass.
3. Verma, S. K. And N. Krishnaswamy (1989) : *Modern Linguistics*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi.

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## **Unit 1 □ Language in Use**

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### **Structure**

#### **1.0 Objectives**

#### **1.1. Introduction**

**1.1.1. The “reach” of English ; Exploratory Questions**

**1.1.2. Native and non-native varieties of English;  
Exploratory Questions**

**1.1.3. English in India**

**1.1.4. The uses of English in India;  
Exploratory Questions**

**1.1.5. Contexts of use**

**1.1.6. The position of English in India**

#### **1.2. Varieties of language and language use**

**1.2.1. Temporal variation**

**1.2.2. Geographical variation**

**1.2.3. Standard vs non-standard varieties;  
Exploratory Questions**

**1.2.4. Social or Class variation**

**1.2.5. Caste variation**

**1.2.6. Gender variation**

**1.2.7. Pidgins and Creoles**

**1.2.8. Summing up**

#### **1.3 Variation according to use**

**1.3.1. Field of discourse**

**1.3.2. Mode of discourse**

**1.3.3. Style of discourse**

**1.3.4. Summing up**

**1.3.5. Recommended Reading**

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## 1.0 Objectives :

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After going through this module, you will become familiar with

- \* various aspects of language use and perspectives for such analysis
- \* the concept of stylistics and
- \* some rhetorical devices and their patterning within a text.

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## 1.1. Introduction :

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Language is an indispensable feature of human life. In our everyday life, we use language for getting things done, for social interaction, for communicating, for gathering knowledge and information, for speculating, for solving problems and for other activities. It is such an integral part of our existence that we often take it for granted.

But it is possible to study systematically such uses of language. In the earlier modules you may have seen how language operates as a ‘system’. In this module you will find out how such a system operates as a code for conveying messages.

### 1.1.1. The ‘reach’ of English :

English, originally the language of England, is today no longer confined to the country of its origin. In fact, it is referred to as a “world language”. Let us see what this phrase means.

First of all, geographically, English is spread all over the world. It is used in both the hemispheres, and in all the continents. English is spoken as a first language (= native variety or mother tongue) in a large number of countries including Australia, Canada, Great Britain, New Zealand, South Africa and U.S.A. Further, it is used as a second language (= non-native variety) in about 75 countries including Bangladesh, India, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore and Sri Lanka. In countries like China, Japan, Russia, Saudi Arabia, West Germany and other European countries, English has the status of a “foreign language”. As a consequence, an estimated number of about 1500 million people are exposed to English in one way or another. This “spread” of English across geographical, linguistic, political and socio-cultural boundaries has led to a complex situation where its function and use vary along multiple dimensions.



### Exploratory Questions :

1. a) What is a 'first' language ?  
b) Can you think of another name for it ?  
c) Do you have a first language ?  
d) If yes, what is it ?
2. a) What is a "second" language ?  
b) Do you have a second language ?  
c) If yes, name that language.

### **1.1.2. Native and non-native varieties of English :**

In this section we will try to look at some of these factors in some detail.

A 'first language' [= a native variety] in respect to a particular person is usually the language he or she learns at home and uses in the family and at home. It is also referred to as the mother tongue,  $L_1$ , the native or source language of that person. In monolingual countries like England or Germany, the first language is also the official language and the language of education, administration, and everyday use. In countries where English is used as a first language, we find a native variety of English.

Any language learnt in addition to the first language is sometimes referred to as a second language or an additional language. Depending on the sequence of learning, it is possible to speak of third or fourth languages. However, the term "second language" has taken on another dimension as well. It is now widely accepted that a non-native language learnt and used in the sociolinguistic context of a nation has the status of a second language in that country. In this sense English is a second language in India. The focus for identification here is not on personal use as such, but on use in a wider context. For example, an Indian may use Spanish in India and this may be his or her second language, but Spanish is not used as a second language in India.

It was Professor Braj B. Kachru, an eminent applied linguist of international repute, who first characterized a second language in this way. According to him, such use constitutes an "institutionalized" variety the main characteristics of this variety or second language are the following :

- i) It has an extended range of uses within the country where it is used.
- ii) It has an extended register and style range (these terms will be explained later on)
- iii) In this variety a process of nativization of the registers and styles has taken place, both in formal and contextual terms.
- iv) A body of nativized English literature has developed [Also see 1.1.3]

In contrast, a foreign language is one which is used with reference to a community outside national boundaries. It has a highly restricted functional range in specific contexts, for example, in tourism, commerce and international transactions. In this sense, Japanese, French, German, Spanish and Chinese are foreign languages in India.

Prof. Kachru (1983) further points out that an ‘institutionalized’ variety (= a second language) always begins its life as a ‘performance’ variety (= a foreign language). It then acquires various features which give it a different status. The main features of an institutionalized variety seem to be the following :

- \* the length of time in use
- \* the extension of its use
- \* the emotional attachment of the users with this variety
- \* functional importance
- \* sociolinguistic status

Exploratory Questions :

3. i) Do the five features of an “institutionalized” variety apply to English in India ?
- ii) Consider each feature separately.
- iii) In your view is English in India a second language or a foreign language ?

### **1.1.3. English in India :**

English in India then has the status of a ‘second’ language not because a large number of people learn it after they learn their mother tongues, but because it operates within the country in a certain way.

First of all, English has been in existence in India for more than 200 years. In the beginning its use was restricted to specific contexts, but gradually the range of use was extended. It is

now used for many purposes and in various contexts within the country (some of these will be explained in the next sub-section, 1.1.4)

Some of these functions and uses have assumed a great significance in the day-to-day lives of a section of the people. As a consequence, this section has developed an emotional attachment to the language. In the process, English has achieved a socio-cultural status, so that its acquisition and use is looked upon favourably.

#### **1.1.4. The uses of English in India :**

For what purpose or purposes is English used in India ? All uses of language within a society take place within a context. This context of situation is an amalgam of a large number of factors – linguistic, social, political, geographical and economic. The framework of sociological context helps us to understand the functional uses (= the work it does) of English in a second language situation. B. B. Kachru suggests that in India, indeed in the whole of South Asia, English is used for four broad categories of functions, the instrumental, the regulative, the interpersonal, and the imaginative / innovative.

The instrumental function : English is used as a means for achieving something. This function is performed by English when it is used as a medium of instruction and learning in the education system of a country. Countries like India, Nepal, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Pakistan illustrate the instrumental function of English.

The regulative function : This function is involved in contexts where a language is used to regulate conduct. The use of English in administration and in the legal system are examples of such a function.

The interpersonal function : Such a function operates in two ways. First of all, English provides a link between speakers of mutually unintelligible languages within a country. For instance, English acts as a link between speakers of Hindi and Tamil, Bangla and Malayalam, Gujrati and Mizo and so on. Secondly, at a personal level, English provides a ‘code’ which symbolizes “modernization” and “elitism”.

The imaginative / innovative function :

This function refers to the use of English in various literary genres. Non-native users of English have shown great creativity in this function. They have deftly used English in “un-English” contexts. The growing body of commonwealth literature and Indian writers writing in English is a testimony to this phenomenon. You are perhaps already familiar with the works of writers like R. K. Narayan, Salman Rushdie, Bhabani Bhattacharya, Amitava Chowdhury,

Kunal Basu, Jhumpa Lahiri, Vikram Seth and many others, who have used English for this creative function.

Exploratory Questions :

4. Within which of the four functions will you include Newspapers published in English ? Give reasons for your answer.

### **1.1.5 Contexts of Use :**

In what contexts or situations is English used in India ? This of course is related to the four functions mentioned in the previous subsection 1.1.4. If we look around us and consider the situations where English is usually employed in India, we can identify at least some of the following :

advertisements	education
newspaper	legal transactions
official use	government
administration	medical practice
social interaction	science and technology
business and commerce	e-mail
letters	literature

This is not an exhaustive list. Can you think of some more contexts in which English is used ?

Arrange the uses already mentioned under the four functions mentioned.

### **1.1.6. The position of English in India :**

During the colonial rule, English was learnt by a relatively small number of people, and such people were routinely absorbed in the administrative and colonial machinery of the empire. Since Independence, the situation has changed somewhat. The rapid spread of education has exposed many more people to English. Immediately after Independence, English was declared to be the associate official language of India. It was envisaged that after 15 years or so, its use in education and administration will be discontinued and English will remain a “library” language, used for gathering knowledge and information. For various reasons, this has not happened. English continues to be used in administration, business, the legal system,

medical education, science and technology, higher education, newspaper, TV, radio, advertisements and so on. Some states like Nagaland have adopted English as the State language. Other states teach English through the school system. The recent trend of using computers and accessing the internet suggests that more people will need to use English in the coming years.

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## **1.2. Varieties of Language and Languages Use (variations in language) :**

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A language is not a single uniform or monolithic entity. Within any language there are variations of different kinds. All these variations together make up a language. In this section we will consider the various parameters or dimensions along which languages vary, with special reference to English.

### **1.2.1. Temporal Variations :**

It is a characteristic of all natural languages that they change with time. The change is slow and gradual and almost unnoticeable at the time of change. But within a span of 25 or 30 years, the changes can be detected. These changes take place in the areas of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and meaning. Over a period of hundred years or more, such changes are clearly noticeable. For example, English at the time of King Alfred is very different from the English used by Chaucer. Shakespeare's English is different from that of Chaucer, and modern English differs in many ways from Shakespeare's English. So we can say that language varies with time, or time is a parameter along which language varies.

### **1.2.2. Geographical variation :**

English used in America and the English spoken in England are not the same. English spoken in Australia differs from both of these. Even within England, the English spoken in the South of England differs from that spoken in the Midlands or the north of England. These are regional or geographical variations and are known as dialects.

Can you think of regional variations for Bangla and Hindi ?

### **1.2.3. Standard vs non-standard variation :**

Of the many regional varieties found in a language, one usually comes to have more prestige and is utilised for providing education, writing text and other books, publishing newspapers, for broadcasting on T.V. and radio and creating literature. Such a variety is referred to as the Standard variety. The other regional varieties are then referred to as non-standard varieties. Within English, the English used in and around London, the capital of England, developed to become the Standard. There may, however, be more than one standard form for the spoken language. So, there is only one standard variety for written English all over the world, but there are several standard varieties of spoken English : British, Scottish, American, Australian and so on.

Exploratory Questions :

5. Is there a standard variety for Bangla ?
6. If yes, is there a name for it ? What is this name ?

### **1.2.4. Social or Class Variation :**

In England, the variety spoken by the aristocratic or upper class English men and women differs from that spoken by the members of the working class and cuts across regional distinctions. R. P. or the southern educated variety of English is one such example. The use of this variety (sometimes referred to as BBC English) marks its speaker as belonging to an educated upper class stratum of society.

### **1.2.5. Caste Variation :**

Some languages show a distinction according to caste. For example, the variety of Tamil spoken by Brahmins is distinct from that used by non-Brahmins. Since among native speakers of English there is no caste system, English does not have this variation.

### **1.2.6. Gender Variation :**

In some communities the male members use a variety not used by the females. In reverse, in the Sylhet district of Bangladesh, we find the women using Naggar, a script not used by men. In English, such gender distinction has been found to operate in the range of adjectives used by men and women.

### **1.2.7. Pidgins and Creoles :**

A pidgin is something referred to as a trade or market language. This is a reference to the origin and context of use of this variety. When two linguistic communities come in contact in circumstances where there is a limited relationship, pidgin languages evolve. Such circumstances are typically a market place or a master-slave relation in a plantation. Neither of the groups speak the other's language. The groups continue to speak their own language inside their own communities and learn the pidgin within the contact situation. Hence a pidgin is not a native language of either group.

In form, a pidgin involves the mixture of two or more languages. Sometimes the grammatical system is based more or less on one language and the vocabulary is largely taken from another. In all cases, the grammar is simplified, that is, many features of the base language are dropped.

Pidgins have evolved in many parts of the world, from trade and colonizing endeavours. Some of these are Nigerian Pidgin English, Papuan Pidgin English, Vietnamese Pidgin French, New Guinea Pidgin German, Kenya Pidgin Swahili and many others. The names indicate which language started the process of pidginization. To the writer's knowledge two pidgin varieties exist in North East India : Bazaar Hindi in Shillong, Meghalaya and Nagamese in Nagaland. The former is based on Hindi and the latter on Assamese.

Pidgins can develop further. You will remember that pidgin is not a native variety. However, there are situations when there is intermarriage of a couple whose languages are different but who both speak a pidgin. In such cases, the pidgin is spoken at home and learned by the children as a first or mother tongue. This leads to an extension of the range and functions of the language. Instead of being limited to contact functions, this variety is required to deal with an increasingly wide range of social needs and functions. This process is known in linguistics as creolization. The language expands and develops, acquiring greater phonological and grammatical complexity. Some examples are Haitian Creole and Hawaiian Creole English. New Guinea Pidgin English, adopted as the official language of Papua and New Guinea, has evolved into the Creole Tok Pisin.

Typically, pidgins and creoles lack formal recognition and are looked upon as inferior varieties.

### **1.2.8. Summing Up :**

All the variations mentioned so far except temporal variation, are features of a speaker or user. That is, depending on the variety a person uses, he or she can be identified as

belonging to a particular region, a particular social class or a particular caste or gender. For example, it is possible to identify an English speaker as originating from Yorkshire and belonging to the working class. So these are variations according to the user.

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### **1.3. Language Variation according to use :**

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So far we have seen how one speaker of a language can differ from another speaker of the same language. In this section we will consider the situation where one single speaker uses different varieties of the same language depending on the situation and purpose. Such variations are said to be the consequences of language use. An example will make this clear. The English used by a lawyer in a courtroom is different from the English he uses in discussing the same points with his colleagues in his chamber or in explaining the legalities to his client. Similarly, a lecturer in chemistry will use language in the classroom to lecture to his students in a way different from the language he is likely to use for explaining the same concepts to his twelve year old child at home.

M.A.K. Halliday, a noted British linguist, labels the variety of language according to use as register. For example, a sports commentary, a church service and a school lesson are linguistically (= in grammar and vocabulary) quite distinct, and hence belong to different registers. Such distinctions help us to identify differences in the type of language selected for a particular context and purpose. This relates to the appropriateness of a particular piece of language.

All languages have the convention that a certain kind of language is appropriate to a certain use. Because of this, we can identify a piece of language as occurring in a certain context and domain. For example, the phrase “Mix well” is likely to occur in a recipe whereas the phrase “Mixes well” is likely to occur in a testimonial. So we find registers specific to different domains : legal, sports, newspaper headlines, advertising, education and so on.

According to Halliday, registers differ primarily in form : “the crucial criteria of any given register are to be found in its grammar and lexis” (1964 : p 68). Registers can be distinguished along three parameters : i) Field of discourse, ii) Mode of discourse and iii) Style of discourse.

#### **1.3.1. Field of discourse :**

Put very simply, “field” of discourse refers to what is going on, that is, to the area where a language activity is taking place. Hence it can refer to the topic or subject matter, and alternatively can refer to the whole event, e.g. lecturing. Hence field of discourse is manifested



mainly through lexis or vocabulary (e.g. technical and scientific terms, legal phrases, special vocabulary related to a profession or an area of activity). Field of discourse also includes “domain” or the area of operation e.g. the domain of education or advertising.

### **1.3.2. Mode of discourse :**

Mode of discourse refers to the medium or mode of language activity : whether it is written or spoken, being read aloud, written for being spoken, etc. Within either mode, subclassifications are possible — spoken forms for instance, can include conversation, lecture, speech, discussion, seminar, debate and so on. In the written mode, the register of journalism can be sub classified into reporting, editorial comment, features writing etc. The point to be remembered is that a difference in medium is manifested in a difference in language forms. In refusing an oral invitation, it is possible to say “Thanks a lot - sorry. I can’t make it”, but if the refusal is in writing, such a response will be inappropriate.

### **1.3.3. Style of discourse :**

This refers to the relations among the participants or the speaker(s)/sender(s) and hearer(s)/receiver(s). Since these relations “affect and determine features of the language” (Halliday 1964 : p92). they contribute to the appropriateness and effectiveness of the language. Such relationships suggest a distinction between colloquial (or relaxed or less careful) and polite (formal, careful) forms of language. However such differences are extremely difficult to specify clearly. Such relationships are therefore seen as a scale or a cline, one gradually changing into the other, rather than watertight compartments. The terms or categories usually used for distinguishing the ‘style’ of discourse are casual/informal, intimate, neutral, formal (deferential) and frozen.

### **1.3.4. Summing up :**

In order to define and identify register, we need to amalgamate the three dimensions of classification : field, mode and style of discourse. The accurate use of each will result in an appropriate and effective register. You must remember that registers are part of our everyday use of language, both written and spoken. In fact literature can be looked upon as a special register, having a special function and purpose.

### **1.3.5. Recommended Reading :**

1. Halliday, M.A.K., McIntosh and Stevens, 1964 *Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*. Longman
2. Kachru, Braj B., 1982. *The Other Tongue, English across Cultures*. Paragon Press.
3. Kachru, Braj B., 1984. *The Indianization of English : The English Language in India*. Oxford University Press.
4. Leech, Geoffrey N., 1968. *A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry*. Longman.
5. Quirk. R and Gabriele Stein, 1990. *English in use*. Longman.

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## Unit 2 □ Stylistics

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### Structure

- 2.1. Stylistics : Introduction
  - 2.1.1. Style and Stylistics
  - 2.1.2. Early efforts : M. A. K. Halliday
  - 2.1.3. Geoffrey Leech
  - 2.1.4. Summing up
  - 2.1.5. Recommended Reading

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### 2.1. Stylistics : Introduction

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The genesis of Stylistics as a branch of study can be attributed to linguistics. At present it is considered to be a part of Applied Linguistics. The use of systematic analysis for understanding the working of language made people hopeful that one of the special uses of language, that is literature, might also be amenable to systematic study.

Students of literature have to be familiar with literary criticism and are expected to be able to make critical analysis of pieces of literature themselves. Most students beginning to study literature discover to their dismay, that making a critical analysis of a literary text is neither easy nor can it be “picked up” automatically. Further, the interpretation provided by a literary critic does not tell the readers how the critic arrived at it. If another critic or reader arrives at a different interpretation, deciding between the two is extremely difficult since there does not seem to be any clear-cut criteria for the purpose. Students beginning to study literature have no clue as to how to go about such a task. [Genral aesthetic principles normally evoked for critical analysis are notoriously difficult to apply]. Linguists were interested in exploring this seemingly confusing and chaotic area, hoping to bring in some amount of systematicity and learnability. And this is how stylistics came to be born.

#### 2.1.1. Style and stylistics :

Stylistics is often defined as the systematic study of ‘Style’. However this word has several meanings. It can refer to the linguistic habits of a particular writer as in the “Style of

Dickens". It can be applied to the way language is used in a genre, particular period or school of writing as in "Epistolary Style", "early eighteenth century style", "euphuistic style", "the style of Victorian novels" and so on. Stylistics however, is concerned with the style of texts. As Leech and Short point out, style is "the linguistic characteristics of a particular text" (1981, p 12). According to H.G. Widdowson, an eminent Applied Linguist, "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. It is concerned with pattern of use in given texts". (1974, p 202).

This definition tells us that stylistics need not necessarily be confined to literary texts. In fact all uses of language can be the object of stylistic analysis. Since you are students of literature, the following sub-sections will focus on the efforts to apply stylistic analysis to literary texts.

### **2.1.2. Early Efforts : M. A. K. Halliday and others :**

In the early phase of stylistics efforts were made to analyse literary texts by applying to them the categories and methods of description as used in linguistics. These early exponents were not concerned with the interpretation or the aesthetic evaluation of the literary texts. For example, Halliday considers the verbal groups in Yeats's poem Leda and the Swan and tabulates the results. But neither does he relate the organization of the verbal forms to other kinds of patterning in the poem, nor does he draw any conclusion as to the relevance of his findings to the interpretation of the poem as a whole. Understandably, teachers of literature have ridiculed and rejected such a 'mechanical' approach to the analysis of literature.

J. Sinclair uses a similar approach for analysing Philip Larkin's poem First Sight. His analysis is given in a tabular form and the interpretation is left for the reader. He however mentions two aspects of linguistic organization which play an important part in establishing intra-textual patterns in literary texts. These relate to syntactic patterns. When a predictable pattern is interrupted, and its completion is delayed by intervening linguistic units, we have an instance of arrest. When a pattern is extended after all grammatical predictions have been fulfilled, we have an instance of release. In Larkin's poem, in the lines

Lambs that learn to walk in snow  
When their bleating clouds the air  
Meet a vast unwelcome...

the Noun Phrase (lambs that learn to walk in the snow) and the verb phrase (meet a vast unwelcome) is interrupted by the adverbial phrase (when their bleating clouds the air). This is an example of arrest. In the line

They could not grasp it if they knew,

the clause beginning with if is releasing element since the preceding clause is already complete.

There are a few other exponents like Roman Jakobson, Samuel Levin and J.P. Thorne who show other approaches but these have not been discussed here.

### 2.1.3. Geoffrey N. Leech :

Among the many theoreticians and practitioners, Geoffrey N. Leech has contributed significantly in making Stylistics acceptable to teachers and students of literature.

Leech attempts to relate linguistic description with critical interpretation and tries to show how interpretation can benefit from linguistic description. He identifies three features of literary expression representing different dimensions of meaning and uses them to analyse and interpret a literary text, specially a poem. These features he labels as cohesion, foregrounding and cohesion of foregrounding.

**1. Cohesion :** refers to the intra-textual relations of a grammatical and lexical kind. These bind the various parts of a literary text into a complete unit and convey the meaning of the text as a whole. Repetitions, parallelism and the use of semantically related words operate as a means of cohesion. Leech demonstrates this with the help of Dylan Thomas's poem This bread I break. There is lexical cohesion in the repetition of the words 'oat' and 'break' and in the connection between items which share common semantic features as in bread-oats-crops, wine-tree-fruit-grape-vine-drink, day-night-summer-sun etc. Leech further points out that cohesion is not a unique property of poetry but is a property of all types of text.

**2. Foregrounding :** This is a feature where a particular use is made prominent, or made to stand out from the surrounding items. This is achieved through the deliberate deviation from the rules of the language code or from the accepted conventions of its use. There can be lexical, grammatical, phonological graphological, semantic or dialectal deviations, as well as deviations of register, leading to foregrounding. All foregrounding is significant and draws attention to some aspect of the total meaning. In Dylan Thomas's poem, expressions like 'The oat was merry', 'Man broke the sun', '...pulled the wind fown' are examples of foregrounding. There are syntactic parallelisms in the lines "Man in the day and wind at night" and "My wine you drink, my bread you snap."

**3. Cohesion of foregrounding :** This refers to the way in which deviations in a text are related to each other to form intra-textual patterns. For example, the deviant expression

“broke the sun” is foregrounded, but is related to deviations of a similar kind found in the poem : “broke the grape’s joy”, “pulled the wind down”. Another intra-textual pattern is found in the expressions “the oat was merry”, “desolation in the vine” and “sensual root”.

#### **2.1.4. Summing up :**

We thus see that stylistics by drawing attention to the utilization/use of language in a literary text, can provide a clue to its interpretation and can support, confirm or disconfirm a reader’s intuitive response to literature.

#### **2.1.5. Recommended Reading :**

Fowler. R., 1966. *Essays on Style and Language*. RKP. Leech, Geoffrey N. *A Linguistic Guide to English*. Poetry Longman.

Leech G. and M Short, 1981. *Style in Fiction*. Longman.

Nowotting W. 1962. *The Language Poets Use*.

Sebeok. T.A, 1960. *Style in Language*. MIT Prem

Turner, G.W., 1973. *Stylistics*. Penguin

Widdowson, H.G. 1974, ‘*Stylistic*’. In *The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistic*. Vol 3. Oxford University Press.

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## Unit 3 □ Rhetoric

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### Structure

- 3.0. Introduction
- 3.1. Repetition and figures of speech
  - 3.1.1. Transference of meaning
  - 3.1.2. Summing up
- 3.2. Conclusion
- 3.3. Recommended Reading

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### 3.0. Introduction :

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Dictionaries define rhetoric as the art of persuading or influencing people. In other words it is a particular “use” of language for a particular purpose. For such purposes certain linguistic devices are used for achieving the desired effect. Such devices are usually referred to as ‘figures of speech’. These bring about cohesion, foregrounding and patterning in a text. So a consideration of figures of speech can provide an entry to the interpretation of the text.

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### 3.1. Repetition and figures of speech :

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Repetition of words and phrases in various positions in a line, sentence or utterance have been given different names.

1. EPIZEUXIS = immediate repetition e.g. “come away, come away death”  
“O my son Absalom, my son, my son Absalom”

2. PLOCE = intermittent repetition, e.g. the lament of the dying John of Gaunt in Shakespeare’s Richard II “O, how that name befits my composition! Old Gaunt, indeed; and gaunt in being old”

3. ANAPHORA = initial repetition of a word, phrase or sentence, e.g. Keats’s La Belle Dame... O what can ail thee, knight-at-arms, Alone and palely loitering ? O what can ail thee, knight-at-arms So haggard and so woebegone ?

4. EPISTROPHE = involves final repetition and is the opposite of anaphora.  
Formula : (.....a) (.....a) etc. Example from T.S. Eliot's Marina : Those who sharpen the tooth of the dog, meaning Death./Those who glitter with the glory of the humming bird meaning Death./Those who sit in the sty of contentment, meaning Death

5. SYMPLOCE = initial repetition combined with final repetition, that is, anaphora and epistrophe together e.g. I will recruit for myself as and you as I go :I will scatter myself among men and women as I go.

6. ANADIPLOSIS = the last part of one unit is repeated at the beginning of the next Formula : (.....a) (a.....)

Example : The same that oft-times hath. / Charm'd magic casements, opening on the foam / of perilous seas, in faery lands forlorn. Forlorn ! The very word is like a bell /

To toll me back from thee to my sole self

7. EPANALESIS = the final part of each unit repeats the initial part e.g.

With ruin upon ruin, rout upon rout

confusion worse confounded.

8. ANTISTROPHE = the repetition of items in a reverse order. e.g. What's Hecuba to him or he to Hecuba That he should weep for her ?

9. POLYPTOTON = here a word is repeated with varying grammatical inflections:

e.g. And singing still dost soar and

Soaring ever singest.

10. HOMOIOTELEUTON = the repetition of the same derivational or inflectional ending on different words :

-Not for these I raise

The song of thanks and praise,

But for those obstinate questionings

Of sense and outward things

Fallings from us, ravishings

Blank misgivings of a creature

Moving about in worlds not realized.....

Similar and other kinds of repetition form patterns within a text. Similarly, verbal parallelism (repetition of words as well as syntactic patterns) performs the same function.



### 3.1.1. Transference of meaning :

In this subsection we include figures of speech based on transference of meaning.

Language already contains rules of transference or mechanisms for deriving one meaning of a word from another. In literature these are used more daringly.

1. SIMILE : An overt comparison, with words like as or like.

Example : My love is like a red, red rose

or

I wanderd lonely as a cloud.

2. METAPHOR : It is a covert comparison and can be rephrased as a simile where the ground for comparison can be specified. Below are some examples of a metaphor :

i) Life's but a walking shadow., a poor player

That struts and frets his hour upon the stage

ii) The sky rejoices in the morning's birth.

3. SYNECDOCHE : a figure in which a part is made to represent the whole. Examples :

Many hands make light work

Two heads are better than one

4. METONYMY : This is a figure of speech which uses the name of one thing for another which is related to it. Given below are some examples of metonymy :

i) Led on the gray-haired wisdom of the east

ii) And all the pavements streamed with massacre

(There are various other ways of substitution)

### 3.1.2. Summing up :

There are many more figures of speech which have not been included here. However, figures of speech by themselves are fairly mechanical devices. They become significant when they contribute to the meaning of the whole text and provide clues to interpretation.

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## **3.2. Conclusion :**

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In this module you have come across various aspects of language variation and language use. You have also formed some idea of what stylistics is and how rhetoric is involved in the creation of meaning within a text.

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## **3.3. Recommended Reading :**

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C. Brooks and R. P. Warren, *Fundamentals of Good Writing : A Handbook of Modern Rhetoric*, London.

Robert McCrum, *The story of English*, BBC, London.

**NOTE**

**NOTE**