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SEVENTH EDITION

POETRY

An Introduction



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University of Connecticut

BEDFORD / ST. MARTIN'S

Boston ♦ New York

For Bedford/St. Martin's

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Cover Art: The feather on this cover was designed using letters from Emily Dickinson's poem "Hope" is the thing with feathers —."

Composition: Cenveo Publisher Services

Printing and Binding: RR Donnelley and Sons

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Library of Congress Control Number: 2012939211

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For information, write: Bedford/St. Martin's, 75 Arlington Street, Boston, MA 02116
(617-399-4000)

ISBN 978-1-4576-0730-1

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INTRODUCTION

Reading Imaginative Literature



Poetry does not need to be defended,
any more than air or food needs to be
defended.

— LANGSTON HUGHES¹

THE NATURE OF LITERATURE

Literature does not lend itself to a single tidy definition because the making of it over the centuries has been as complex, unwieldy, and natural as life itself. Is literature everything that has been written, from ancient prayers to graffiti? Does it include songs and stories that were not written down until many years after they were recited? Does literature include the television scripts from *Modern Family* as well as Shakespeare's *King Lear*? Is literature only writing that has permanent value and continues to move people? Must literature be true or beautiful or moral? Should it be socially useful?

Although these kinds of questions are not conclusively answered in this book, they are implicitly raised by the poems included here. No definition

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of literature, particularly a brief one, is likely to satisfy everyone because definitions tend to weaken and require qualification when confronted by the uniqueness of individual works. In this context it is worth recalling Herman Melville's humorous use of a definition of a whale in *Moby-Dick* (1851). In the course of the novel Melville presents his imaginative and symbolic whale as inscrutable, but he begins with a quotation from Georges Cuvier, a French naturalist who defines a whale in his nineteenth-century study *The Animal Kingdom* this way: "The whale is a mammiferous animal without hind feet." Cuvier's description is technically correct, of course, but there is little wisdom in it. Melville understood that the reality of the whale (which he describes as the "ungraspable phantom of life") cannot be caught by isolated facts. If the full meaning of the whale is to be understood, it must be sought on the open sea of experience, where the whale itself is, rather than in exclusionary definitions. Although they may be helpful, facts and definitions do not always reveal the whole truth.

Despite Melville's reminder that a definition can be too limiting and even comical, it is useful for our purposes to describe literature as a fiction consisting of carefully arranged words designed to stir the imagination. Stories, poems, and plays are fictional. They are made up—imagined—even when based on actual historic events. Such imaginative writing differs from other kinds of writing because its purpose is not primarily to transmit facts or ideas. Imaginative literature is a source more of pleasure than of information, and we read it for basically the same reasons we listen to music or view a dance: enjoyment, delight, and satisfaction. Like other art forms, imaginative literature offers pleasure and usually attempts to convey a perspective, a mood, a feeling, or an experience. Writers transform the facts the world provides—people, places, and objects—into experiences that suggest meanings.

Consider, for example, the difference between the following factual description of a snake and a poem on the same subject. Here is the *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* definition:

any of numerous limbless scaled reptiles (suborder Serpentes or Ophidia) with a long tapering body and with salivary glands often modified to produce venom which is injected through grooved or tubular fangs.

Contrast this matter-of-fact definition with Emily Dickinson's poetic evocation of a snake in "A narrow Fellow in the Grass":

A narrow Fellow in the Grass
Occasionally rides—
You may have met Him—did you not
His notice sudden is—
The Grass divides as with a Comb—
A spotted shaft is seen—
And then it closes at your feet
And opens further on—

He likes a Boggy Acre
 A floor too cool for Corn— 10
 Yet when a Boy, and Barefoot—
 I more than once at Noon

Have passed, I thought, a Whip lash
 Unbraiding in the Sun
 When stooping to secure it 15
 It wrinkled, and was gone—

Several of Nature's People
 I know, and they know me—
 I feel for them a transport
 Of cordiality— 20

But never met this Fellow
 Attended, or alone
 Without a tighter breathing
 And Zero at the Bone—

The dictionary provides a succinct, anatomical description of what a snake is, whereas Dickinson's poem suggests what a snake can mean. The definition offers facts; the poem offers an experience. The dictionary description would probably allow someone who had never seen a snake to sketch one with reasonable accuracy. The poem also provides some vivid subjective descriptions—for example, the snake dividing the grass “as with a Comb”—yet it offers more than a picture of serpentine movements. The poem conveys the ambivalence many people have about snakes—the kind of feeling, for example, so evident on the faces of visitors viewing the snakes at a zoo. In the poem there is both a fascination with and a horror of what might be called snakehood; this combination of feelings has been coiled in most of us since Adam and Eve.

That “narrow Fellow” so cordially introduced by way of a riddle (the word *snake* is never used in the poem) is, by the final stanza, revealed as a snake in the grass. In between, Dickinson uses language expressively to convey her meaning. For instance, in the line “His notice sudden is,” listen to the *s* sound in each word and note how the verb *is* unexpectedly appears at the end, making the snake's hissing presence all the more “sudden.” And anyone who has ever been surprised by a snake knows the “tighter breathing / And Zero at the Bone” that Dickinson evokes so successfully by the rhythm of her word choices and line breaks. Perhaps even more significant, Dickinson's poem allows those who have never encountered a snake to imagine such an experience.

A good deal more could be said about the numbing fear that undercuts the affection for nature at the beginning of this poem; the point here is that imaginative literature gives us not so much the full, factual proportions of the world but rather some of its experiences and meanings. Instead of defining the world, literature encourages us to try it out in our imaginations.

THE VALUE OF LITERATURE

Mark Twain once shrewdly observed that a person who chooses not to read has no advantage over a person who is unable to read. In industrialized societies today, however, the question is not who reads, because nearly everyone can and does, but what is read. Why should anyone spend precious time with literature when there is so much reading material available that provides useful information about everything from the daily news to personal computers? Why should a literary artist's imagination compete for attention that could be spent on the firm realities that constitute everyday life? In fact, national best-seller lists include collections of stories, poems, or plays much less often than they do cookbooks and, not surprisingly, diet books. Although such fare may be filling, it doesn't stay with you. Most people have other appetites, too.

Certainly one of the most important values of literature is that it nourishes our emotional lives. An effective literary work may seem to speak directly to us, especially if we are ripe for it. The inner life that good writers reveal in their characters often gives us glimpses of some portion of ourselves. We can be moved to laugh, cry, tremble, dream, ponder, shriek, or rage with a character by simply turning a page instead of turning our lives upside down. Although the experience itself is imagined, the emotion is real. That's why the final chapters of a good adventure novel can make a reader's heart race as much as a 100-yard dash or why the repressed love of Hester Prynne in Nathaniel Hawthorne's *The Scarlet Letter* is painful to a sympathetic reader. Human emotions speak a universal language regardless of when or where a work was written.

In addition to appealing to our emotions, literature broadens our perspectives on the world. Most of the people we meet are pretty much like ourselves, and what we can see of the world even in a lifetime is astonishingly limited. Literature allows us to move beyond the inevitable boundaries of our own lives and cultures because it introduces us to people different from ourselves, places remote from our neighborhoods, and times other than our own. Reading makes us more aware of life's possibilities as well as its subtleties and ambiguities. Put simply, people who read literature experience more life and have a keener sense of a common human identity than those who do not. It is true, of course, that many people go through life without reading imaginative literature, but that is a loss rather than a gain. They may find themselves troubled by the same kinds of questions that reveal Daisy Buchanan's restless, vague discontentment in F. Scott Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby*: "What'll we do with ourselves this afternoon?" cried Daisy, 'and the day after that, and the next thirty years?'"

Sometimes students mistakenly associate literature more with school than with life. Accustomed to reading it in order to write a paper or pass an examination, students may perceive such reading as a chore instead of

a pleasurable opportunity, something considerably less important than studying for the “practical” courses that prepare them for a career. The study of literature, however, is also practical because it engages you in the kinds of problem solving important in a variety of fields, from philosophy to science and technology. The interpretation of literary texts requires you to deal with uncertainties, value judgments, and emotions; these are unavoidable aspects of life.

People who make the most significant contributions to their professions—whether in business, engineering, teaching, or some other area—tend to be challenged rather than threatened by multiple possibilities. Instead of retreating to the way things have always been done, they bring freshness and creativity to their work. F. Scott Fitzgerald once astutely described the “test of a first-rate intelligence” as “the ability to hold two opposed ideas in the mind at the same time, and still retain the ability to function.” People with such intelligence know how to read situations, shape questions, interpret details, and evaluate competing points of view. Equipped with a healthy respect for facts, they also understand the value of pursuing hunches and exercising their imaginations. Reading literature encourages a suppleness of mind that is helpful in any discipline or work.

Once the requirements for your degree are completed, what ultimately matters are not the courses listed on your transcript but the sensibilities and habits of mind that you bring to your work, friends, family, and, indeed, the rest of your life. A healthy economy changes and grows with the times; people do, too, if they are prepared for more than simply filling a job description. The range and variety of life that literature affords can help you to interpret your own experiences and the world in which you live.

To discover the insights that literature reveals requires careful reading and sensitivity. One of the purposes of a college literature class is to cultivate the analytic skills necessary for reading well. Class discussions often help establish a dialogue with a work that perhaps otherwise would not speak to you. Analytic skills can also be developed by writing about what you read. Writing is an effective means of clarifying your responses and ideas because it requires you to account for the author’s use of language as well as your own. This book is based on two premises: that reading literature is pleasurable and that reading and understanding a work sensitively by thinking, talking, or writing about it increase the pleasure of the experience of it.

Understanding its basic elements—such as point of view, symbol, theme, tone, and irony—is a prerequisite to an informed appreciation of literature. This kind of understanding allows you to perceive more in a literary work in much the same way that a spectator at a tennis match sees more if he or she understands the rules and conventions of the game. But literature is not simply a spectator sport. The analytic skills that open up literature also have their uses when you watch a television program or film and, more important, when you attempt to sort out the significance

of the people, places, and events that constitute your own life. Literature enhances and sharpens your perceptions. What could be more lastingly practical as well as satisfying?

THE CHANGING LITERARY CANON

Perhaps the best reading creates some kind of change in us: we see more clearly; we're alert to nuances; we ask questions that previously didn't occur to us. Henry David Thoreau had that sort of reading in mind when he remarked in *Walden* that the books he valued most were those that caused him to date "a new era in his life from the reading." Readers are sometimes changed by literature, but it is also worth noting that the life of a literary work can also be affected by its readers. Melville's *Moby-Dick*, for example, was not valued as a classic until the 1920s, when critics rescued the novel from the obscurity of being cataloged in many libraries (including Yale's) not under fiction but under cetology, the study of whales. Indeed, many writers contemporary to Melville who were important and popular in the nineteenth century—William Cullen Bryant, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, and James Russell Lowell, to name a few—are now mostly unread; their names appear more often on elementary schools built early in the twentieth century than in anthologies. Clearly, literary reputations and what is valued as great literature change over time and in the eyes of readers.

Such changes have steadily accelerated as the literary *canon*—those works considered by scholars, critics, and teachers to be the most important to read and study—has undergone a significant series of shifts. Writers who previously were overlooked, undervalued, neglected, or studiously ignored have been brought into focus in an effort to create a more diverse literary canon, one that recognizes the contributions of the many cultures that make up American society. Since the 1960s, for example, some critics have reassessed writings by women who had been left out of the standard literary traditions dominated by male writers. Many more female writers are now read alongside the male writers who traditionally populated literary history. This kind of enlargement of the canon also resulted from another reform movement of the 1960s: the civil rights movement sensitized literary critics to the political, moral, and esthetic necessity of rediscovering African American literature, and more recently Asian and Hispanic writers have been making their way into the canon. Moreover, on a broader scale the canon is being revised and enlarged to include the works of writers from parts of the world other than the West—a development that reflects the changing values, concerns, and complexities of the past several decades or so, when literary landscapes have shifted as dramatically as the political boundaries of much of the world.

No semester's reading list—or anthology—can adequately or accurately echo all the new voices competing to be heard as part of the mainstream literary canon, but recent efforts to open up the canon attempt to sensitize readers to the voices of women, minorities, and writers from all over the world. This development has not occurred without its urgent advocates or passionate dissenters. It's no surprise that issues about race, gender, and class often get people off the fence and on their feet (these controversies are discussed further in Chapter 26, "Critical Strategies for Reading"). Although what we regard as literature—whether it's called great, classic, or canonical—continues to generate debate, there is no question that such controversy will continue to reflect readers' values as well as the writers they admire.

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Images



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Between my finger and my thumb
The squat pen rests.
I'll dig with it.

—SEAMUS HEANEY

POETRY'S APPEAL TO THE SENSES

A poet, to borrow a phrase from Henry James, is one on whom nothing is lost. Poets take in the world and give us impressions of what they experience through images. An *image* is language that addresses the senses. The most common images in poetry are visual; they provide verbal pictures of the poets' encounters—real or imagined—with the world. But poets also create images that appeal to our other senses. Li Ho arouses several senses in “A Beautiful Girl Combs Her Hair” (p. 51):

Awake at dawn
she's dreaming
by cool silk curtains
fragrance of spilling hair
half sandalwood, half aloes
windlass creaking at the well
singing jade

These vivid images deftly blend textures, fragrances, and sounds that tease out the sensuousness of the moment. Images give us the physical world to experience in our imaginations. Some poems, like the following one, are written to do just that; they make no comment about what they describe.

 Explore the poetic element in this chapter at bedfordstmartins.com/rewritinglit.

WILLIAM CARLOS WILLIAMS (1883–1963)

Poem 1934

As the cat
climbed over
the top of
the jamcloset
first the right
forefoot
carefully
then the hind
stepped down
into the pit of
the empty
flowerpot

5

10

This poem defies paraphrase because it is all an image of agile movement. No statement is made about the movement; the title, “Poem”—really no title—signals Williams’s refusal to comment on the movements. To impose a meaning on the poem, we’d probably have to knock over the flowerpot.

We experience the image in Williams’s “Poem” more clearly because of how the sentence is organized into lines and groups of lines, or stanzas. Consider how differently the sentence is read if it is arranged as prose:

As the cat climbed over the top of the jamcloset, first the right forefoot carefully then the hind stepped down into the pit of the empty flowerpot.

The poem’s line and stanza division transforms what is essentially an awkward prose sentence into a rhythmic verbal picture. Especially when the poem is read aloud, this line and stanza division allows us to feel the image we see. Even the lack of a period at the end suggests that the cat is only pausing.

Images frequently do more than offer only sensory impressions, however. They also convey emotions and moods, as in the following poem’s view of Civil War troops moving across a river.

From their branches and gather slowly at our feet, 20
 Sliding over our ankles, and the season begins moving
 Around us even as its colorful weather moves us,
 Even as it pulls us into its dusty, twilight pockets.
 And every year there is a brief, startling moment
 When we pause in the middle of a long walk home and 25
 Suddenly feel something invisible and weightless
 Touching our shoulders, sweeping down from the air:
 It is the autumn wind pressing against our bodies;
 It is the changing light of fall falling on us.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Given the images and tone, how does the speaker seem to feel about the fall? How do the images and tone make you feel?
2. To what extent do the first three words of line 1 sum up most of the poem?
3. Discuss how the speaker uses imagery to evoke the passage of time.

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. Compare Hirsch's images and diction with John Keats's in "To Autumn" (p. 123). Which poem do you prefer? Why?

EZRA POUND (1885–1972)

In a Station of the Metro° 1913

The apparition of these faces in the crowd;
 Petals on a wet, black bough.

Metro: Underground railroad in Paris.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Why is the title essential for this poem?
2. What kind of mood does the image in the second line convey?
3. Why is "apparition" (line 1) a better word choice than, say, "appearance" or "sight"?
4. **CREATIVE RESPONSE.** Write a two-line vivid image for a poem titled "At a Desk in the Library."

CATHY SONG (b. 1955)

The White Porch 1983

I wrap the blue towel
 after washing,
 around the damp

Figures of Speech



© Bettmann/Corbis.

Like a piece of ice on a hot stove the
poem must ride on its own melting.

— ROBERT FROST

Figures of speech are broadly defined as a way of saying one thing in terms of something else. An overeager funeral director might, for example, be described as a vulture. Although figures of speech are indirect, they are designed to clarify, not obscure, our understanding of what they describe. Poets frequently use them because, as Emily Dickinson said, the poet's work is to "tell all the Truth but tell it slant" to capture the reader's interest and imagination. But figures of speech are not limited to poetry. Hearing them, reading them, or using them is as natural as using language itself.

Suppose that in the middle of a class discussion concerning the economic causes of World War II your history instructor introduces a series of statistics by saying, "Let's get down to brass tacks." Would anyone be likely to expect a display of brass tacks for students to examine? Of course not. To interpret the statement literally would be to wholly misunderstand the instructor's point that the time has come for a close look at the economic circumstances leading to the war. A literal response transforms the statement into the sort of hilariously bizarre material often found in a sketch by Woody Allen.

The class does not look for brass tacks because, in a nutshell, they understand that the instructor is speaking figuratively. They would understand, too, that in the preceding sentence “in a nutshell” refers to brevity and conciseness rather than to the covering of a kernel of a nut. Figurative language makes its way into our everyday speech and writing as well as into literature because it is a means of achieving color, vividness, and intensity.

Consider the difference, for example, between these two statements:

Literal: The diner strongly expressed anger at the waiter.

Figurative: The diner leaped from his table and roared at the waiter.

The second statement is more vivid because it creates a picture of ferocious anger by likening the diner to some kind of wild animal, such as a lion or tiger. By comparison, “strongly expressed anger” is neither especially strong nor especially expressive; it is flat. Not all figurative language avoids this kind of flatness, however. Figures of speech such as “getting down to brass tacks” and “in a nutshell” are clichés because they lack originality and freshness. Still, they suggest how these devices are commonly used to give language some color, even if that color is sometimes a bit faded.

There is nothing weak about William Shakespeare’s use of figurative language in the following passage from *Macbeth*. Macbeth has just learned that his wife is dead, and he laments her loss as well as the course of his own life.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE (1564–1616)

***From Macbeth (Act V, Scene v)* 1605–1606**

Tomorrow, and tomorrow, and tomorrow
 Creeps in this petty pace from day to day
 To the last syllable of recorded time;
 And all our yesterdays have lighted fools
 The way to dusty death. Out, out, brief candle! 5
 Life’s but a walking shadow, a poor player,
 That struts and frets his hour upon the stage,
 And then is heard no more. It is a tale
 Told by an idiot, full of sound and fury,
 Signifying nothing. 10

This passage might be summarized as “life has no meaning,” but such a brief paraphrase does not take into account the figurative language that reveals the depth of Macbeth’s despair and his view of the absolute meaninglessness of life. By comparing life to a “brief candle,” Macbeth emphasizes the darkness and death that surround human beings. The light of life is too brief and unpredictable to be of any comfort. Indeed, life for Macbeth is a “walking shadow,” futilely playing a role that is more farcical

than dramatic, because life is, ultimately, a desperate story filled with pain and devoid of significance. What the figurative language provides, then, is the emotional force of Macbeth's assertion; his comparisons are disturbing because they are so apt.

The remainder of this chapter discusses some of the most important figures of speech used in poetry. A familiarity with them will help you to understand how poetry achieves its effects.

SIMILE AND METAPHOR

The two most common figures of speech are simile and metaphor. Both compare things that are ordinarily considered unlike each other. A *simile* makes an explicit comparison between two things by using words such as *like*, *as*, *than*, *appears*, or *seems*: "A sip of Mrs. Cook's coffee is like a punch in the stomach." The force of the simile is created by the differences between the two things compared. There would be no simile if the comparison were stated this way: "Mrs. Cook's coffee is as strong as the cafeteria's coffee." This is a literal comparison because Mrs. Cook's coffee is compared with something like it, another kind of coffee. Consider how simile is used in this poem.

Explore the poetic elements in this chapter at bedfordstmartins.com/rewritinglit.

MARGARET ATWOOD (B. 1939)

you fit into me 1971

you fit into me
like a hook into an eye
a fish hook
an open eye



© Sophie Bassouls/Corbis Sygma.

If you blinked on a second reading, you got the point of this poem because you recognized that the simile "like a hook into an eye" gives way to a play on words in the final two lines. There the hook and eye, no longer a pleasant domestic image of a clothing fastener or door latch that fits closely together, become a literal, sharp fishhook and a human eye. The wordplay qualifies the simile and drastically alters the tone of this poem by creating a strong and unpleasant surprise.

A *metaphor*, like a simile, makes a comparison between two unlike things, but it does so implicitly, without words such as *like* or *as*: "Mrs. Cook's coffee is a punch in the stomach." Metaphor asserts the identity of dissimilar things. Macbeth tells us that life *is* a "brief candle," life *is*

“a walking shadow,” life is “a poor player,” life is “a tale / Told by an idiot.” Metaphor transforms people, places, objects, and ideas into whatever the poet imagines them to be, and if metaphors are effective, the reader’s experience, understanding, and appreciation of what is described are enhanced. Metaphors are frequently more demanding than similes because they are not signaled by particular words. They are both subtle and powerful.

Here is a poem about presentiment, a foreboding that something terrible is about to happen.

EMILY DICKINSON (1830–1886)

***Presentiment — is that long Shadow —
on the lawn — ca. 1863***

Presentiment — is that long Shadow — on the lawn —

Indicative that Suns go down —

The notice to the startled Grass

That Darkness — is about to pass —

The metaphors in this poem define the abstraction “Presentiment.” The sense of foreboding that Dickinson expresses is identified with a particular moment — the moment when darkness is just about to envelop an otherwise tranquil, ordinary scene. The speaker projects that fear onto the “startled Grass” so that it seems any life must be frightened by the approaching “Shadow” and “Darkness” — two richly connotative words associated with death. The metaphors obliquely tell us (“tell it slant” was Dickinson’s motto, remember) that presentiment is related to a fear of death, and, more important, the metaphors convey the feelings that attend that idea.

Some metaphors are more subtle than others because their comparison of terms is less explicit. Notice the difference between the following two metaphors, both of which describe a shaggy derelict refusing to leave the warmth of a hotel lobby: “He was a mule standing his ground” is a quite explicit comparison. The man is a mule; X is Y. But this metaphor is much more covert: “He brayed his refusal to leave.” This second version is an *implied metaphor* because it does not explicitly identify the man with a mule. Instead it hints at or alludes to the mule. Braying is associated with mules and is especially appropriate in this context because of the mule’s reputation for stubbornness. Implied metaphors can slip by readers, but they offer the alert reader the energy and resonance of carefully chosen, highly concentrated language.

Some poets write extended comparisons in which part or all of the poem consists of a series of related metaphors or similes. Extended

metaphors are more common than extended similes. In “Catch” (p. 26), Robert Francis creates an *extended metaphor* that compares poetry to a game of catch. The entire poem is organized around this comparison. Because these comparisons are at work throughout the entire poem, they are called *controlling metaphors*. Extended comparisons can serve as a poem’s organizing principle; they are also a reminder that in good poems metaphor and simile are not merely decorative but inseparable from what is expressed.

Notice the controlling metaphor in this poem, published posthumously by a woman whose contemporaries identified her more as a wife and mother than as a poet. Bradstreet’s first volume of poetry, *The Tenth Muse*, was published by her brother-in-law in 1650 without her prior knowledge.

ANNE BRADSTREET (CA. 1612–1672)

The Author to Her Book 1678

Thou ill-formed offspring of my feeble brain,
 Who after birth did’st by my side remain,
 Till snatched from thence by friends, less wise than true,
 Who thee abroad exposed to public view;
 Made thee in rags, halting, to the press to trudge, 5
 Where errors were not lessened, all may judge.
 At thy return my blushing was not small,
 My rambling brat (in print) should mother call;
 I cast thee by as one unfit for light,
 Thy visage was so irksome in my sight; 10
 Yet being mine own, at length affection would
 Thy blemishes amend, if so I could:
 I washed thy face, but more defects I saw,
 And rubbing off a spot, still made a flaw.
 I stretched thy joints to make thee even feet, 15
 Yet still thou run’st more hobbling than is meet;
 In better dress to trim thee was my mind,
 But nought save homespun cloth in the house I find.
 In this array, ’mongst vulgars may’st thou roam;
 In critics’ hands beware thou dost not come; 20
 And take thy way where yet thou are not known.
 If for thy Father asked, say thou had’st none;
 And for thy Mother, she alas is poor,
 Which caused her thus to send thee out of door.

The extended metaphor likening her book to a child came naturally to Bradstreet and allowed her to regard her work both critically and affectionately. Her conception of the book as her child creates just the right tone of amusement, self-deprecation, and concern.

The controlling metaphor in the following poem is identified by the title.

RICHARD WILBUR (B. 1921)

The Writer 1976

In her room at the prow of the house
 Where light breaks, and the windows are tossed with linden,
 My daughter is writing a story.

I pause in the stairwell, hearing
 From her shut door a commotion of typewriter-keys 5
 Like a chain hauled over a gunwale.

Young as she is, the stuff
 Of her life is a great cargo, and some of it heavy:
 I wish her a lucky passage.

But now it is she who pauses, 10
 As if to reject my thought and its easy figure.
 A stillness greatens, in which

The whole house seems to be thinking,
 And then she is at it again with a bunched clamor
 Of strokes, and again is silent. 15

I remember the dazed starling
 Which was trapped in that very room, two years ago;
 How we stole in, lifted a sash

And retreated, not to affright it;
 And how for a helpless hour, through the crack of the door, 20
 We watched the sleek, wild, dark

And iridescent creature
 Batter against the brilliance, drop like a glove
 To the hard floor, or the desk-top,

And wait then, humped and bloody, 25
 For the wits to try it again; and how our spirits
 Rose when, suddenly sure,

It lifted off from a chair-back,
 Beating a smooth course for the right window
 And clearing the sill of the world. 30

It is always a matter, my darling,
 Of life or death, as I had forgotten. I wish
 What I wished you before, but harder.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** How does the speaker reveal affection for the daughter? What makes it authentic rather than sentimental?

2. In what sense do you think lines 1–11 represent an “easy figure” to the speaker?
3. Describe the effect of Wilbur’s second extended metaphor concerning the “dazed starling” (line 16). How does it convey the poem’s major ideas?

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. Compare the speaker’s use of metaphor in “The Writer” with the father’s method of offering advice in Jan Beatty’s “My Father Teaches Me to Dream” (p. 556). What’s the essential difference between how the two parents express themselves?

OTHER FIGURES

Perhaps the humblest figure of speech – if not one of the most familiar – is the pun. A *pun* is a play on words that relies on a word having more than one meaning or sounding like another word. For example, “A fad is in one era and out the other” is the sort of pun that produces obligatory groans. But most of us find pleasant and interesting surprises in puns. Here’s one that has a slight edge to its humor.

EDMUND CONTI (B. 1929)

Pragmatist 1985

Apocalypse soon
Coming our way
Ground zero at noon
Halve a nice day.

Grimly practical under the circumstances, the pragmatist divides the familiar cheerful cliché by half. As simple as this poem is, its tone is mixed because it makes us laugh and wince at the same time.

Puns can be used to achieve serious effects as well as humorous ones. Although we may have learned to underrate puns as figures of speech, it is a mistake to underestimate their power and the frequency with which they appear in poetry. A close examination, for example, of Henry Reed’s “Naming of Parts” (p. 173), Robert Frost’s “Design” (p. 375), or almost any lengthy passage from a Shakespeare play will confirm the value of puns.

Synecdoche is a figure of speech in which part of something is used to signify the whole: a neighbor is a “wagging tongue” (a gossip); a criminal is placed “behind bars” (in prison). Less typically, synecdoche refers to the whole used to signify the part: “Germany invaded Poland”; “Princeton won the fencing match.” Clearly, certain individuals participated in

these activities, not all of Germany or Princeton. Another related figure of speech is *metonymy*, in which something closely associated with a subject is substituted for it: “She preferred the silver screen [motion pictures] to reading.” “At precisely ten o’clock the paper shufflers [office workers] stopped for coffee.”

Synecdoche and metonymy may overlap and are therefore sometimes difficult to distinguish. Consider this description of a disapproving minister entering a noisy tavern: “As those pursed lips came through the swinging door, the atmosphere was suddenly soured.” The pursed lips signal the presence of the minister and are therefore a synecdoche, but they additionally suggest an inhibiting sense of sin and guilt that makes the bar patrons feel uncomfortable. Hence the pursed lips are also a metonymy, as they are in this context so closely connected with religion. Although the distinction between synecdoche and metonymy can be useful, a figure of speech is usually labeled a metonymy when it overlaps categories.

Knowing the precise term for a figure of speech is, finally, less important than responding to its use in a poem. Consider how metonymy and synecdoche convey the tone and meaning of the following poem.

DYLAN THOMAS (1914–1953)

The Hand That Signed the Paper 1936

The hand that signed the paper felled a city;
Five sovereign fingers taxed the breath,
Doubled the globe of dead and halved a
country;
These five kings did a king to death.

The mighty hand leads to a sloping shoulder,
The finger joints are cramped with chalk;
A goose’s quill has put an end to murder
That put an end to talk.

The hand that signed the treaty bred a fever,
And famine grew, and locusts came;
Great is the hand that holds dominion over
Man by a scribbled name.

The five kings count the dead but do not soften
The crusted wound nor stroke the brow;
A hand rules pity as a hand rules heaven;
Hands have no tears to flow.



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10

15

The “hand” in this poem is a synecdoche for a powerful ruler because it is a part of someone used to signify the entire person. The “goose’s quill” is a metonymy that also refers to the power associated

with the ruler's hand. By using these figures of speech, Thomas depersonalizes and ultimately dehumanizes the ruler. The final synecdoche tells us that "Hands have no tears to flow." It makes us see the political power behind the hand as remote and inhuman. How is the meaning of the poem enlarged when the speaker says, "A hand rules pity as a hand rules heaven"?

One of the ways writers energize the abstractions, ideas, objects, and animals that constitute their created worlds is through *personification*, the attribution of human characteristics to nonhuman things: temptation pursues the innocent; trees scream in the raging wind; mice conspire in the cupboard. We are not explicitly told that these things are people; instead, we are invited to see that they behave like people. Perhaps it is human vanity that makes personification a frequently used figure of speech. Whatever the reason, personification, a form of metaphor that connects the nonhuman with the human, makes the world understandable in human terms. Consider this concise example from William Blake's *The Marriage of Heaven and Hell*, a long poem that takes delight in attacking conventional morality: "Prudence is a rich ugly old maid courted by Incapacity." By personifying prudence, Blake transforms what is usually considered a virtue into a comic figure hardly worth emulating.

Often related to personification is another rhetorical figure called *apostrophe*, an address either to someone who is absent and therefore cannot hear the speaker or to something nonhuman that cannot comprehend. Apostrophe provides an opportunity for the speaker of a poem to think aloud, and often the thoughts expressed are in a formal tone. John Keats, for example, begins "Ode on a Grecian Urn" (p. 90) this way: "Thou still unravished bride of quietness." Apostrophe is frequently accompanied by intense emotion that is signaled by phrasing such as "O Life." In the right hands—such as Keats's—apostrophe can provide an intense and immediate voice in a poem, but when it is overdone or extravagant it can be ludicrous. Modern poets are more wary of apostrophe than their predecessors because apostrophizing strikes many self-conscious twenty-first-century sensibilities as too theatrical. Thus modern poets tend to avoid exaggerated situations in favor of less charged though equally meditative moments, as in this next poem, with its amusing, half-serious cosmic twist.

JANICE TOWNLEY MOORE (B. 1939)

To a Wasp 1984

You must have chortled
finding that tiny hole
in the kitchen screen. Right
into my cheese cake batter

WHEN I WRITE "I began writing poetry as a freshman in college. I wrote using poetic diction and sometimes rhyme. Then I discovered 'modern poetry.' Seeing what was published in literary magazines quickly changed my style."

—JANICE TOWNLEY MOORE

you dived, 5
 no chance to swim ashore,
 no saving spoon,
 the mixer whirring
 your legs, wings, stinger,
 churning you into such 10
 delicious death.
 Never mind the bright April day.
 Did you not see
 rising out of cumulus clouds
 That fist aimed at both of us? 15

Moore's apostrophe "To a Wasp" is based on the simplest of domestic circumstances; there is almost nothing theatrical or exaggerated in the poem's tone until "That fist" in the last line, when exaggeration takes center stage. As a figure of speech, exaggeration is known as *overstatement* or *hyperbole* and adds emphasis without intending to be literally true: "The teenage boy ate everything in the house." Notice how the speaker of Andrew Marvell's "To His Coy Mistress" (p. 78) exaggerates his devotion in the following overstatement:

An hundred years should go to praise
 Thine eyes and on thy forehead gaze,
 Two hundred to adore each breast,
 But thirty thousand to the rest:

That comes to 30,500 years. What is expressed here is heightened emotion, not deception.

The speaker also uses the opposite figure of speech, *understatement*, which says less than is intended. In the next section he sums up why he cannot take 30,500 years to express his love:

The grave's a fine and private place,
 But none, I think, do there embrace.

The speaker is correct, of course, but by deliberately understating—saying "I think" when he is actually certain—he makes his point, that death will overtake their love, all the more emphatic. Another powerful example of understatement appears in the final line of Randall Jarrell's "The Death of the Ball Turret Gunner" (p. 68), when the disembodied voice of the machine-gunner describes his death in a bomber: "When I died they washed me out of the turret with a hose."

Paradox is a statement that initially appears to be self-contradictory but that, on closer inspection, turns out to make sense: "The pen is mightier than the sword." In a fencing match, anyone would prefer the sword, but if the goal is to win the hearts and minds of people, the art of persuasion can be more compelling than swordplay. To resolve the paradox, it is necessary to discover the sense that underlies the statement. If we see that "pen" and "sword" are used as metonymies for writing and violence, then the paradox rings true.

Oxymoron is a condensed form of paradox in which two contradictory words are used together. Combinations such as “sweet sorrow,” “silent scream,” “sad joy,” and “cold fire” indicate the kinds of startling effects that oxymorons can produce. Paradox is useful in poetry because it arrests a reader’s attention by its seemingly stubborn refusal to make sense, and once a reader has penetrated the paradox, it is difficult to resist a perception so well earned. Good paradoxes are knotty pleasures. Here is a simple but effective one.

J. PATRICK LEWIS (B. 1942)

***The Unkindest Cut* 1993**

Knives can harm you, heaven forbid;
Axes may disarm you, kid;
Guillotines are painful, but
There’s nothing like a paper cut!

WHEN I WRITE “Good writers are always searching for the strongest personified action verbs they can find. Verbs are muscles; adjectives are fat. As Mark Twain said, ‘If you catch an adjective, kill it.’” —J. PATRICK LEWIS

We all know how bloody paper cuts can be, but this quatrain is also a humorous version of “the pen is mightier than the sword.” The wounds escalate to the paper cut, which paradoxically is more damaging than even the broad blade of a guillotine. “The unkindest cut” of all (an allusion to Shakespeare’s *Julius Caesar*, III.ii.188) is produced by chilling words on a page rather than cold steel, but it is more painfully fatal nonetheless.

The following poems are rich in figurative language. As you read and study them, notice how their figures of speech vivify situations, clarify ideas, intensify emotions, and engage your imagination. Although the terms for the various figures discussed in this chapter are useful for labeling the particular devices used in poetry, they should not be allowed to get in the way of your response to a poem. Don’t worry about rounding up examples of figurative language. First relax and let the figures work their effects on you. Use the terms as a means of taking you further into poetry, and they will serve your reading well.

POEMS FOR FURTHER STUDY

GARY SNYDER (B. 1930)

***How Poetry Comes to Me* 1992**

It comes blundering over the
Boulders at night, it stays
Frightened outside the
Range of my campfire
I go to meet it at the
Edge of the light

2. How do the images of space relate to the connections made between the speaker's soul and the spider?

JOHN DONNE (1572–1631)

A Valediction: Forbidding Mourning 1611

As virtuous men pass mildly away,
And whisper to their souls to go,
While some of their sad friends do say,
The breath goes now, and some say, no:

So let us melt, and make no noise,
No tear-floods, nor sigh-tempests move;
'Twere profanation of our joys
To tell the laity our love.

5

Moving of th' earth^o brings harms and fears,
Men reckon what it did and meant,
But trepidation of the spheres,^o
Though greater far, is innocent.

earthquakes

10

Dull sublunary^o lovers' love
(Whose soul is sense) cannot admit
Absence, because it doth remove
Those things which elemented^o it.

15

composed

But we by a love so much refined,
That ourselves know not what it is,
Inter-assured of the mind,
Care less, eyes, lips, and hands to miss.

20

Our two souls therefore, which are one,
Though I must go, endure not yet
A breach, but an expansion,
Like gold to airy thinness beat.

If they be two, they are two so
As stiff twin compasses are two;
Thy soul the fixed foot, makes no show
To move, but doth, if th' other do.

25

And though it in the center sit,
Yet when the other far doth roam,
It leans, and hearkens after it,
And grows erect, as that comes home.

30

11 *trepidation of the spheres*: According to Ptolemaic astronomy, the planets sometimes moved violently, like earthquakes, but these movements were not felt by people on Earth. 13 *sublunary*: Under the moon; hence, mortal and subject to change.

Such wilt thou be to me, who must
 Like th' other foot, obliquely run;
 Thy firmness makes my circle just,^o
 And makes me end, where I begun.

35

35 *circle just*: The circle is a traditional symbol of perfection.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** A valediction is a farewell. Donne wrote this poem for his wife before leaving on a trip to France. What kind of “mourning” is the speaker forbidding?
2. Explain how the simile in lines 1–4 is related to the couple in lines 5–8. Who is described as dying?
3. How does the speaker contrast the couple’s love to “sublunary lovers’ love” (line 13)?
4. Explain the similes in lines 24 and 25–36.

WHEN I WRITE “Vision, metaphor, feeling—these are the mysterious gifts of the muse. But revision—choosing the exact word, creating the perfect line break—can be learned and practiced, bringing its own satisfactions, even pleasures. As one of my poems puts it: ‘Revision is the purest form of love.’” —LINDA PASTAN

LINDA PASTAN (B. 1932)

Marks 1978

My husband gives me an A
 for last night’s supper,
 an incomplete for my ironing,
 a B plus in bed.

My son says I am average,
 an average mother, but if
 I put my mind to it
 I could improve.

My daughter believes
 in Pass/Fail and tells me
 I pass. Wait ’til they learn
 I’m dropping out.

5

10

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Explain the appropriateness of the controlling metaphor in this poem. How does it reveal the woman’s relationship to her family?
2. Discuss the meaning of the title.
3. How does the last line serve as the climax of both the woman’s story and the poem’s controlling metaphor?

6

Symbol, Allegory, and Irony




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Poetry is serious business; literature is the apparatus through which the world tries to keep intact its important ideas and feelings.

— MARY OLIVER

SYMBOL

A *symbol* is something that represents something else. An object, a person, a place, an event, or an action can suggest more than its literal meaning. A handshake between two world leaders might be simply a greeting, but if it is done ceremoniously before cameras, it could be a symbolic gesture signifying unity, issues resolved, and joint policies that will be followed. We live surrounded by symbols. When a \$100,000 Mercedes-Benz comes roaring by in the fast lane, we get a quick glimpse of not only an expensive car but also an entire lifestyle that suggests opulence, broad lawns, executive offices, and power. One of the reasons some buyers are willing to spend roughly the cost of five Chevrolets for a single Mercedes-Benz is that they

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are aware of the car's symbolic value. A symbol is a vehicle for two things at once: it functions as itself, and it implies meanings beyond itself.

The meanings suggested by a symbol are determined by the context in which it appears. The Mercedes could symbolize very different things depending on where it was parked. Would an American political candidate be likely to appear in a Detroit blue-collar neighborhood with such a car? Probably not. Although a candidate might be able to afford the car, it would be an inappropriate symbol for someone seeking votes from all of the people. As a symbol, the German-built Mercedes would backfire if voters perceived it as representing an entity partially responsible for layoffs of automobile workers or, worse, as a sign of decadence and corruption. Similarly, a huge portrait of Mao Tse-tung conveys different meanings to residents of Beijing than it would to farmers in Prairie Center, Illinois. Because symbols depend on contexts for their meaning, literary artists provide those contexts so that the reader has enough information to determine the probable range of meanings suggested by a symbol.

In the following poem, the speaker describes walking at night. How is the night used symbolically?

ROBERT FROST (1874–1963)

Acquainted with the Night 1928

I have been one acquainted with the night.
I have walked out in rain — and back in rain.
I have outwalked the furthest city light.

I have looked down the saddest city lane.
I have passed by the watchman on his beat
And dropped my eyes, unwilling to explain. 5

I have stood still and stopped the sound of feet
When far away an interrupted cry
Came over houses from another street,

But not to call me back or say good-by;
And further still at an unearthly height
One luminary clock against the sky 10

Proclaimed the time was neither wrong nor right.
I have been one acquainted with the night.

In approaching this or any poem, you should read for literal meanings first and then allow the elements of the poem to invite you to symbolic readings, if they are appropriate. Here the somber tone suggests that the lines have symbolic meaning, too. The flat matter-of-factness created by the repetition of “I have” (lines 1–5, 7, 14) understates the symbolic subject matter of the poem, which is, finally, more about the “night” located in the

speaker's mind or soul than it is about walking away from a city and back again. The speaker is "acquainted with the night." The importance of this phrase is emphasized by Frost's title and by the fact that he begins and ends the poem with it. Poets frequently use this kind of repetition to alert readers to details that carry more than literal meanings.

The speaker in this poem has personal knowledge of the night but does not indicate specifically what the night means. To arrive at the potential meanings of the night in this context, it is necessary to look closely at its connotations, along with the images provided in the poem. The connotative meanings of night suggest, for example, darkness, death, and grief. By drawing on these connotations, Frost uses a *conventional symbol*—something that is recognized by many people to represent certain ideas. Roses conventionally symbolize love or beauty; laurels, fame; spring, growth; the moon, romance. Poets often use conventional symbols to convey tone and meaning.

Frost uses the night as a conventional symbol, but he also develops it into a *literary* or *contextual symbol* that goes beyond traditional, public meanings. A literary symbol cannot be summarized in a word or two. It tends to be as elusive as experience itself. The night cannot be reduced to or equated with darkness or death or grief, but it evokes those associations and more. Frost took what perhaps initially appears to be an overworked, conventional symbol and prevented it from becoming a cliché by deepening and extending its meaning.

The images in "Acquainted with the Night" lead to the poem's symbolic meaning. Unwilling, and perhaps unable, to explain explicitly to the watchman (and to the reader) what the night means, the speaker nevertheless conveys feelings about it. The brief images of darkness, rain, sad city lanes, the necessity for guards, the eerie sound of a distressing cry coming over rooftops, and the "luminary clock against the sky" proclaiming "the time was neither wrong nor right" all help to create a sense of anxiety in this tight-lipped speaker. Although we cannot know what unnamed personal experiences have acquainted the speaker with the night, the images suggest that whatever the night means, it is somehow associated with insomnia, loneliness, isolation, coldness, darkness, death, fear, and a sense of alienation from humanity and even time. Daylight—ordinary daytime thoughts and life itself—seems remote and unavailable in this poem. The night is literally the period from sunset to sunrise, but, more important, it is an internal state of being felt by the speaker and revealed through the images.

Frost used symbols rather than an expository essay that would explain the conditions that cause these feelings because most readers can provide their own list of sorrows and terrors that evoke similar emotions. Through symbol, the speaker's experience is compressed and simultaneously expanded by the personal darkness that each reader brings to the poem. The suggestive nature of symbols makes them valuable for poets and evocative for readers.

ALLEGORY

Unlike expansive, suggestive symbols, *allegory* is a narration or description usually restricted to a single meaning because its events, actions, characters, settings, and objects represent specific abstractions or ideas. Although the elements in an allegory may be interesting in themselves, the emphasis tends to be on what they ultimately mean. Characters may be given names such as Hope, Pride, Youth, and Charity; they have few, if any, personal qualities beyond their abstract meanings. These personifications are a form of extended metaphor, but their meanings are severely restricted. They are not symbols because, for instance, the meaning of a character named Charity is precisely that virtue.

There is little or no room for broad speculation and exploration in allegories. If Frost had written “Acquainted with the Night” as an allegory, he might have named his speaker Loneliness and had him leave the City of Despair to walk the Streets of Emptiness, where Crime, Poverty, Fear, and other characters would define the nature of city life. The literal elements in an allegory tend to be deemphasized in favor of the message. Symbols, however, function both literally and symbolically, so that “Acquainted with the Night” is about both a walk and a sense that something is terribly wrong.

Allegory especially lends itself to *didactic poetry*, which is designed to teach an ethical, moral, or religious lesson. Many stories, poems, and plays are concerned with values, but didactic literature is specifically created to convey a message. “Acquainted with the Night” does not impart advice or offer guidance. If the poem argued that city life is self-destructive or sinful, it would be didactic; instead, it is a lyric poem that expresses the emotions and thoughts of a single speaker.

Although allegory is often enlisted in didactic causes because it can so readily communicate abstract ideas through physical representations, not all allegories teach a lesson. Here is a poem describing a haunted palace while also establishing a consistent pattern that reveals another meaning.

EDGAR ALLAN POE (1809–1849)

The Haunted Palace 1839

I

In the greenest of our valleys,
 By good angels tenanted,
 Once a fair and stately palace—
 Radiant palace—reared its head.

Sounds



Bettmann/Corbis.

In a poem the words should be as pleasing to the ear as the meaning is to the mind.

—MARIANNE MOORE

LISTENING TO POETRY

Poems yearn to be read aloud. Much of their energy, charm, and beauty come to life only when they are heard. Poets choose and arrange words for their sounds as well as for their meanings. Most poetry is best read with your lips, teeth, and tongue because they serve to articulate the effects that sound may have in a poem. When a voice is breathed into a good poem, there is pleasure in the reading, the saying, and the hearing.

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The earliest poetry—before writing and painting—was chanted or sung. The rhythmic quality of such oral performances served two purposes: it helped the chanting bard remember the lines and it entertained audiences with patterned sounds of language, which were sometimes accompanied by musical instruments. Poetry has always been closely related to music. Indeed, as the word suggests, lyric poetry evolved from songs.

“Western Wind” (p. 36), an anonymous Middle English lyric, survived as song long before it was written down. Had Robert Frost lived in a nonliterate society, he probably would have sung some version — a very different version to be sure — of “Acquainted with the Night” (p. 154) instead of writing it down. Even though Frost creates a speaking rather than a singing voice, the speaker’s anxious tone is distinctly heard in any careful reading of the poem.

Like lyrics, early narrative poems were originally part of an anonymous oral folk tradition. A *ballad* such as “Bonny Barbara Allan” (p. 597) told a story that was sung from one generation to the next until it was finally transcribed. Since the eighteenth century, this narrative form has sometimes been imitated by poets who write *literary ballads*. John Keats’s “La Belle Dame sans Merci” (p. 616) is, for example, a more complex and sophisticated nineteenth-century reflection of the original ballad traditions that developed in the fifteenth century and earlier. In considering poetry as sound, we should not forget that poetry traces its beginnings to song.

These next lines exemplify poetry’s continuing relation to song. What poetic elements can you find in this ballad, which was adapted by Paul Simon and Art Garfunkel and became a popular antiwar song in the 1960s?

ANONYMOUS

Scarborough Fair date unknown

Where are you going? To Scarborough Fair?
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme,
Remember me to a bonny lass there,
For once she was a true lover of mine.

Tell her to make me a cambric shirt, 5
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme,
Without any needle or thread work’d in it,
And she shall be a true lover of mine.

Tell her to wash it in yonder well, 10
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme,
Where water ne’er sprung nor a drop of rain fell,
And she shall be a true lover of mine.

Tell her to plough me an acre of land, 15
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme,
Between the sea and the salt sea strand,
And she shall be a true lover of mine.

Tell her to plough it with one ram’s horn, 20
Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme,
And sow it all over with one peppercorn,
And she shall be a true lover of mine.

Tell her to reap it with a sickle of leather,
 Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme,
 And tie it all up with a tom tit's feather,
 And she shall be a true lover of mine.

Tell her to gather it all in a sack,
 Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme,
 And carry it home on a butterfly's back,
 And then she shall be a true lover of mine.

25

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** What do you associate with "Parsley, sage, rosemary, and thyme"? What images does this poem evoke? How so?
2. What kinds of demands does the speaker make on his former lover? What do these demands have in common?
3. What is the tone of this ballad?
4. Choose a contemporary song that you especially like and examine the lyrics. Write an essay explaining whether or not you consider the lyrics poetic.

Of course, reading "Scarborough Fair" is not the same as hearing it. Like the lyrics of a song, many poems must be heard—or at least read with listening eyes—before they can be fully understood and enjoyed. The sounds of words are a universal source of music for human beings. This has been so from ancient tribes to bards to the two-year-old child in a bakery gleefully chanting "Cuppitycake, cuppitycake!"

Listen to the sound of this poem as you read it aloud. How do the words provide, in a sense, their own musical accompaniment?

JOHN UPDIKE (1932–2009)

Player Piano 1958

My stick fingers click with a snicker
 And, chuckling, they knuckle the keys;
 Light-footed, my steel feelers flicker
 And pluck from these keys melodies.

My paper can caper; abandon
 Is broadcast by dint of my din,
 And no man or band has a hand in
 The tones I turn on from within.

5

At times I'm a jumble of rumbles,
 At others I'm light like the moon,
 But never my numb plunker fumbles,
 Misstrums me, or tries a new tune.

10

The speaker in this poem is a piano that can play automatically by means of a mechanism that depresses keys in response to signals on a perforated roll. Notice how the speaker's voice approximates the sounds of a piano. In each stanza a predominant sound emerges from the carefully chosen words. How is the sound of each stanza tuned to its sense?

Like Updike's "Player Piano," this next poem is also primarily about sounds.

MAY SWENSON (1919–1989)

A Nosty Fright 1984

The roldengod and the soneyhuckle,
the sack eyed blusan and the wistle theed
are all tangled with the oison pivy,
the fallen nine peedles and the wumbleteed.

A mipchunk caught in a wobceb tried
to hip and skide in a dandy sune
but a stobler put up a EEP KOFF sign.
Then the unfucky lellow met a phytoon

and was sept out to swea. He difted for drays
till a hassgropper flying happened to spot
the boolish feast all debraggled and wet,
covered with snears and tot.

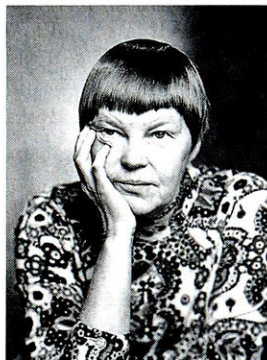
Loonmight shone through the winey poods
where rushmooms grew among risted twoots.
Back blats flew between the twees
and orned howls hounded their soots.

A kumkpin stood with tooked creeth
on the sindow will of a house
where a icked wold itch lived all alone
except for her stoombrick, a mitten and a kouse.

"Here we part," said hassgropper.
"Pere we hart," said mipchunk, too.
They purried away on opposite haths,
both scared of some "Bat!" or "Scoo!"

October was ending on a nosty fright
with scroans and greeches and chanking clains,
with oblines and gelfs, coaths and urses,
skinning grulls and stoodblains.

Will it ever be morning, Nofember virst,
skue bly and the sappy hun, our friend?
With light breaves of wall by the fayside?
I sope ho, so that this oem can pend.



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At just the right moments Swenson transposes letters to create amusing sound effects and wild wordplays. Although there is a story lurking in “A Nosty Fright,” any serious attempt to interpret its meaning is confronted with “a EEP KOFF sign.” Instead, we are invited to enjoy the delicious sounds the poet has cooked up.

Few poems revel in sound so completely. More typically, the sounds of a poem contribute to its meaning rather than become its meaning. Consider how sound is used in the next poem.

EMILY DICKINSON (1830–1886)

A Bird came down the Walk — ca. 1862

A Bird came down the Walk —
 He did not know I saw —
 He bit an Angeworm in halves
 And ate the fellow, raw,
 And then he drank a Dew 5
 From a convenient Grass —
 And then hopped sidewise to the Wall
 To let a Beetle pass —
 He glanced with rapid eyes
 That hurried all around — 10
 They looked like frightened Beads, I thought —
 He stirred his Velvet Head
 Like one in danger, Cautious,
 I offered him a Crumb
 And he unrolled his feathers 15
 And rowed him softer home —
 Than Oars divide the Ocean,
 Too silver for a seam —
 Or Butterflies, off Banks of Noon
 Leap, plashless as they swim. 20

This description of a bird offers a close look at how differently a bird moves when it hops on the ground than when it flies in the air. On the ground the bird moves quickly, awkwardly, and irregularly as it plucks up a worm, washes it down with dew, and then hops aside to avoid a passing beetle. The speaker recounts the bird’s rapid, abrupt actions from a somewhat superior, amused perspective. By describing the bird in human terms (as if, for example, it chose to eat the worm “raw”), the speaker is almost condescending. But when the attempt to offer a crumb fails and the frightened bird flies off, the speaker is left looking up instead of down at the bird.

With that shift in perspective the tone shifts from amusement to awe in response to the bird's graceful flight. The jerky movements of lines 1 to 13 give way to the smooth motion of lines 15 to 20. The pace of the first three stanzas is fast and discontinuous. We tend to pause at the end of each line, and this reinforces a sense of disconnected movements. In contrast, the final six lines are to be read as a single sentence in one flowing movement, lubricated by various sounds.

Read again the description of the bird flying away. Several *o*-sounds contribute to the image of the serene, expansive, confident flight, just as the *s*-sounds serve as smooth transitions from one line to the next. Notice how these sounds are grouped in the following vertical columns:

unrolled	softer	Too	his	Ocean	Banks
rowed	Oars	Noon	feathers	silver	plashless
home	Or		softer	seam	as
Ocean	off		Oars	Butterflies	swim

This blending of sounds (notice how “Leap, plashless” brings together the *p*- and *l*-sounds without a ripple) helps convey the bird's smooth grace in the air. Like a feathered oar, the bird moves seamlessly in its element.

The repetition of sounds in poetry is similar to the function of the tones and melodies that are repeated, with variations, in music. Just as the patterned sounds in music unify a work, so do the words in poems, which have been carefully chosen for the combinations of sounds they create. These sounds are produced in a number of ways.

The most direct way in which the sound of a word suggests its meaning is through *onomatopoeia*, which is the use of a word that resembles the sound it denotes: *quack*, *buzz*, *rattle*, *bang*, *squeak*, *bowwow*, *burp*, *choo-choo*, *ding-a-ling*, *sizzle*. The sound and sense of these words are closely related, but such words represent a very small percentage of the words available to us. Poets usually employ more subtle means for echoing meanings.

Onomatopoeia can consist of more than just single words. In its broadest meaning the term refers to lines or passages in which sounds help to convey meanings, as in these lines from Updike's “Player Piano”:

My stick fingers click with a snicker
And, chuckling, they knuckle the keys.

The sharp, crisp sounds of these two lines approximate the sounds of a piano; the syllables seem to “click” against one another. Contrast Updike's rendition with the following lines:

My long fingers play with abandon
And, laughing, they cover the keys.

The original version is more interesting and alive because the sounds of the words are pleasurable and reinforce the meaning through a careful blending of consonants and vowels.

Alliteration is the repetition of the same consonant sounds at the beginnings of nearby words: “descending dewdrops,” “luscious lemons.” Sometimes the term is also used to describe the consonant sounds within words: “trespasser’s reproach,” “wedded lady.” Alliteration is based on sound rather than spelling. “Keen” and “car” alliterate, but “car” does not alliterate with “cite.” Rarely is heavy-handed alliteration effective. Used too self-consciously, it can be distracting instead of strengthening meaning or emphasizing a relation between words. Consider the relentless *h*’s in this line: “Horrendous horrors haunted Helen’s happiness.” Those *h*’s certainly suggest that Helen is being pursued, but they have a more comic than serious effect because they are overdone.

Assonance is the repetition of the same vowel sound in nearby words: “asleep under a tree,” “time and tide,” “haunt” and “awesome,” “each evening.” Both alliteration and assonance help to establish relations among words in a line or a series of lines. Whether the effect is **euphony** (lines that are musically pleasant to the ear and smooth, like the final lines of Dickinson’s “A Bird came down the Walk—”) or **cacophony** (lines that are discordant and difficult to pronounce, like the claim that “never my numb plunker fumbles” in Updike’s “Player Piano”), the sounds of words in poetry can be as significant as the words’ denotative or connotative meanings.

A SAMPLE STUDENT RESPONSE

Lee 1

Ryan Lee

Professor McDonough

English 211

1 December 2011

Sound in Emily Dickinson’s “A Bird came down the Walk—”

In her poem “A Bird came down the Walk—” Emily Dickinson uses the sound and rhythm of each line to reflect the motion of a bird walking awkwardly—and then flying gracefully. Particularly when read aloud, the staccato phrases and stilted breaks in lines 1 through 14 create a sense of the bird’s movement on land, quick and off-balanced, which helps bring the scene to life.

The first three stanzas are structured to make the bird's movement consistent. The bird hops around, eating worms while keeping guard for any threats. Vulnerable on the ground, the bird is intensely aware of danger:

He glanced with rapid eyes
That hurried all around —
They looked like frightened Beads, I thought —
He stirred his Velvet Head (9-12)

In addition to choosing words that portray the bird as cautious — it “glanced with rapid eyes” (9) that resemble “frightened Beads” (11) — Dickinson chooses to end each line abruptly. This abrupt halting of sound allows the reader to experience the bird's fear more immediately, and the effect is similar to the missing of a beat or a breath.

These halting lines stand in contrast to the smoothness of the last six lines, during which the bird takes flight. The sounds in these lines are pleasingly soft, and rich in the “s” sound. The bird

unrolled his feathers
And rowed him softer home —

Than Oars divide the Ocean,
Too silver for a seam — (15-18). . . .

Work Cited

- Dickinson, Emily. “A Bird came down the Walk —.” *Poetry: An Introduction*. Ed. Michael Meyer. 7th ed. Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2013. 185. Print.

Patterns of Rhythm



I would define, in brief, the Poetry of words as the Rhythmical Creation of Beauty. Its sole arbiter is Taste.

— EDGAR ALLAN POE¹

The rhythms of everyday life surround us in regularly recurring movements and sounds. As you read these words, your heart pulsates while somewhere else a clock ticks, a cradle rocks, a drum beats, a dancer sways, a foghorn blasts, a wave recedes, or a child skips. We may tend to overlook rhythm because it is so tightly woven into the fabric of our experience, but it is there nonetheless, one of the conditions of life. Rhythm is also one of the conditions of speech because the voice alternately rises and falls as words are stressed or unstressed and as the pace quickens or slackens. In poetry *rhythm* refers to the recurrence of stressed and unstressed sounds. Depending on how the sounds are arranged, this can result in a pace that is fast or slow, choppy or smooth.

 Explore the poetic element in this chapter at bedfordstmartins.com/rewritingit.

¹ Photograph by W. S. Hartshorn. 1848. Prints and Photographs Division, Library of Congress.

SOME PRINCIPLES OF METER

Poets use rhythm to create pleasurable sound patterns and to reinforce meanings. “Rhythm,” Edith Sitwell once observed, “might be described as, to the world of sound, what light is to the world of sight. It shapes and gives new meaning.” Prose can use rhythm effectively too, but prose that does so tends to be an exception. The following exceptional lines are from a speech by Winston Churchill to the House of Commons after Allied forces lost a great battle to German forces at Dunkirk during World War II:

We shall not flag or fail. We shall go on to the end. We shall fight in France, we shall fight on the seas and oceans, we shall fight with growing confidence and growing strength in the air, we shall defend our island, whatever the cost may be, we shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets, we shall fight in the hills; we shall never surrender.

The stressed repetition of “we shall” bespeaks the resolute singleness of purpose that Churchill had to convey to the British people if they were to win the war. Repetition is also one of the devices used in poetry to create rhythmic effects. In the following excerpt from “Song of the Open Road,” Walt Whitman urges the pleasures of limitless freedom on his reader:

Allons! ° the road is before us! *Let's go!*
 It is safe—I have tried it—my own feet have tried it well—be not detain'd!
 Let the paper remain on the desk unwritten, and the book on the
 shelf unopen'd!
 Let the tools remain in the workshop! Let the money remain unearn'd!
 Let the school stand! mind not the cry of the teacher! 5
 Let the preacher preach in his pulpit! Let the lawyer plead in the
 court, and the judge expound the law.
 Camerado, ° I give you my hand! *friend*
 I give you my love more precious than money,
 I give you myself before preaching or law;
 Will you give me yourself? will you come travel with me? 10
 Shall we stick by each other as long as we live?

These rhythmic lines quickly move away from conventional values to the open road of shared experiences. Their recurring sounds are created not by rhyme or alliteration and assonance (see Chapter 7) but by the repetition of words and phrases.

Although the repetition of words and phrases can be an effective means of creating rhythm in poetry, the more typical method consists of patterns of accented or unaccented syllables. Words contain syllables that are either stressed or unstressed. A **stress** (or **accent**) places more emphasis on one syllable than on another. We say “syllable” not “syllable,” “emphasis” not “emphasis.” We routinely stress syllables when we speak: “Is she content with the contents of the yellow package?” To distinguish between two people we might say “Is *she* content . . . ?” In this way stress can be used

to emphasize a particular word in a sentence. Poets often arrange words so that the desired meaning is suggested by the rhythm; hence emphasis is controlled by the poet rather than left entirely to the reader.

When a rhythmic pattern of stresses recurs in a poem, the result is *meter*. Taken together, all the metrical elements in a poem make up what is called the poem's *prosody*. *Scansion* consists of measuring the stresses in a line to determine its metrical pattern. Several methods can be used to mark lines. One widely used system uses ' for a stressed syllable and ~ for an unstressed syllable. In a sense, the stress mark represents the equivalent of tapping one's foot to a beat:

Hickōry, dīckōry, dōck,
 The mōuse rān up the clōck.
 The clōck strūck one,
 And dōwn hē rān,
 Hickōry, dīckōry, dōck.

In the first two lines and the final line of this familiar nursery rhyme we hear three stressed syllables. In lines 3 and 4, where the meter changes for variety, we hear just two stressed syllables. The combination of stresses provides the pleasure of the rhythm we hear.

To hear the rhythms of "Hickory, dickory, dock" does not require a formal study of meter. Nevertheless, an awareness of the basic kinds of meter that appear in English poetry can enhance your understanding of how a poem achieves its effects. Understanding the sound effects of a poem and having a vocabulary with which to discuss those effects can intensify your pleasure in poetry. Although the study of meter can be extremely technical, the terms used to describe the basic meters of English poetry are relatively easy to comprehend.

The *foot* is the metrical unit by which a line of poetry is measured. A foot usually consists of one stressed and one or two unstressed syllables. A vertical line is used to separate the feet: "The clock | struck one" consists of two feet. A foot of poetry can be arranged in a variety of patterns; here are five of the chief ones:

<i>Foot</i>	<i>Pattern</i>	<i>Example</i>
iamb	~'	āway
trochee	'~	Lōvely
anapest	~ ~ '	understand
dactyl	' ~ ~	dēspērāte
spondee	' '	dēād sēt

The most common lines in English poetry contain meters based on iambic feet. However, even lines that are predominantly iambic will often include variations to create particular effects. Other important patterns include

trochaic, anapestic, and dactylic feet. The spondee is not a sustained meter but occurs for variety or emphasis.

Iambic

What képt | hĭs eyés | frŏm gĭv | ĭng báck | thĕ gáze

Trochaic

Hé wás | loudĕr | thán thĕ | préachĕr

Anapestic

Ĭ am called | tŏ thĕ frŏnt | ŏf thĕ rŏom

Dactylic

Sĭng ĭt áll | mérrĭly

These meters have different rhythms and can create different effects. Iambic and anapestic are known as *rising meters* because they move from unstressed to stressed sounds, while trochaic and dactylic are known as *falling meters*. Anapests and dactyls tend to move more lightly and rapidly than iambs or trochees. Although no single kind of meter can be considered always better than another for a given subject, it is possible to determine whether the meter of a specific poem is appropriate for its subject. A serious poem about a tragic death would most likely not be well served by lilting rhythms. Keep in mind, too, that though one or another of these four basic meters might constitute the predominant rhythm of a poem, variations can occur within lines to change the pace or call attention to a particular word.

A *line* is measured by the number of feet it contains. Here, for example, is an iambic line with three feet: “If she | should write | a note.” These are the names for line lengths:

monometer: one foot	pentameter: five feet
dimeter: two feet	hexameter: six feet
trimeter: three feet	heptameter: seven feet
tetrameter: four feet	octameter: eight feet

By combining the name of a line length with the name of a foot, we can describe the metrical qualities of a line concisely. Consider, for example, the pattern of feet and length of this line:

I didn't want the boy to hit the dog.

The iambic rhythm of this line falls into five feet; hence it is called *iambic pentameter*. Iambic is the most common pattern in English poetry because its rhythm appears so naturally in English speech and writing. Unrhymed iambic pentameter is called *blank verse*; Shakespeare's plays are built on such lines.

Less common than the iamb, trochee, anapest, or dactyl is the *spondee*, a two-syllable foot in which both syllables are stressed (‘’). Note the effect of the spondaic foot at the beginning of this line:

Deád sĕt | ágainst | thĕ plán | hĕ wĕnt | áway.

Spondees can slow a rhythm and provide variety and emphasis, particularly in iambic and trochaic lines. Also less common is a **pyrrhic** foot which consists of two unstressed syllables, as in Shakespeare's "A horse! A horse! My kingdom for a horse!" Pyrrhic feet are typically variants for iambic verse rather than predominant patterns in lines. A line that ends with a stressed syllable is said to have a **masculine ending**, whereas a line that ends with an extra unstressed syllable is said to have a **feminine ending**. Consider, for example, these two lines from Timothy Steele's "Waiting for the Storm" (the entire poem appears on p. 217):

feminine: The sánd | at my féet | grōw cōld | er̃,
 masculine: The dāmp | aír chill | and spred.

The effects of English meters are easily seen in the following lines by Samuel Taylor Coleridge, in which the rhythm of each line illustrates the meter described in it:

Trochee trips from long to short;
 From long to long in solemn sort
 Slow Spondee stalks; strong foot yet ill able
 Ever to come up with Dactylic trisyllable.
 Iambics march from short to long—
 With a leap and a bound the swift Anapests throng.

The speed of a line is also affected by the number of pauses in it. A pause within a line is called a **caesura** and is indicated by a double vertical line (||). A caesura can occur anywhere within a line and need not be indicated by punctuation:

Camerado, || I give you my hand!
 I give you my love || more precious than money.

A slight pause occurs within each of these lines and at its end. Both kinds of pauses contribute to the lines' rhythm.

When a line has a pause at its end, it is called an **end-stopped line**. Such pauses reflect normal speech patterns and are often marked by punctuation. A line that ends without a pause and continues into the next line for its meaning is called a **run-on line**. Running over from one line to another is also called **enjambment**. The first and eighth lines of the following poem are run-on lines; the rest are end-stopped.

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH (1770–1850)

My Heart Leaps Up 1807

My heart leaps up when I behold
 A rainbow in the sky;
 So was it when my life began;
 So is it now I am a man;

So be it when I shall grow old,
 Or let me die!
 The child is father of the Man;
 And I could wish my days to be
 Bound each to each by natural piety.

Run-on lines have a different rhythm from end-stopped lines. Lines 3 and 4 and lines 8 and 9 are iambic, but the effect of their two rhythms is very different when we read these lines aloud. The enjambment of lines 8 and 9 reinforces their meaning; just as the “days” are bound together, so are the lines.

The rhythm of a poem can be affected by several devices: the kind and number of stresses within lines, the length of lines, and the kinds of pauses that appear within lines or at their ends. In addition, as we saw in Chapter 7, the sound of a poem is affected by alliteration, assonance, rhyme, and consonance. These sounds help to create rhythms by controlling our pronunciations, as in the following lines by Alexander Pope (the entire poem appears on p. 200):

Soft is the strain when Zephyr gently blows,
 And the smooth stream in smoother numbers flows;
 But when loud surges lash the sounding shore,
 The hoarse, rough verse should like the torrent roar.

These lines are effective because their rhythm and sound work with their meaning.

Suggestions for Scanning a Poem

These suggestions should help you in talking about a poem’s meter.

1. After reading the poem through, read it aloud and mark the stressed syllables in each line. Then mark the unstressed syllables.
2. From your markings, identify what kind of foot is dominant (iambic, trochaic, dactylic, or anapestic) and divide the lines into feet, keeping in mind that the vertical line marking a foot may come in the middle of a word as well as at its beginning or end.
3. Determine the number of feet in each line. Remember that there may be variations; some lines may be shorter or longer than the predominant meter. What is important is the overall pattern. Do not assume that variations represent the poet’s inability to fulfill the overall pattern. Notice the effects of variations and whether they emphasize words and phrases or disrupt your expectation for some other purpose.
4. Listen for pauses within lines and mark the caesuras; many times there will be no punctuation to indicate them.
5. Recognize that scansion does not always yield a definitive measurement of a line. Even experienced readers may differ over the scansion of a given line. What is important is not a precise description of the line but an awareness of how a poem’s rhythms contribute to its effects.

The following poem demonstrates how you can use an understanding of meter and rhythm to gain a greater appreciation for what a poem is saying.

TIMOTHY STEELE (B. 1948)

Waiting for the Storm 1986

Bree'ze sent | a wrink | ling dark | ness
 Ácross | the bay. || I knelt
 Beneath | an up | turned boat,
 And, mo | ment by mo | ment, felt
 The sand | at my feet | grow cold | er,
 The damp | air chill | and spread.
 Then the | first rain | drops sound | ed
 On the hull | above | my head.

The predominant meter of this poem is iambic trimeter, but there is plenty of variation as the storm rapidly approaches and finally begins to pelt the sheltered speaker. The emphatic spondee (“Breeze sent”) pushes the darkness quickly across the bay while the caesura at the end of the sentence in line 2 creates a pause that sets up a feeling of suspense and expectation that is measured in the ticking rhythm of line 4, a run-on line that brings us into the chilly sand and air of the second stanza. Perhaps the most impressive sound effect used in the poem appears in the second syllable of “sounded” in line 7. That “ed” precedes the sound of the poem’s final word, “head,” just as if it were the first drop of rain hitting the hull above the speaker. The visual, tactile, and auditory images make “Waiting for the Storm” an intense sensory experience.

A SAMPLE STUDENT RESPONSE

Pacini 1

Marco Pacini
Professor Fierstein
English 201
2 November 2011

The Rhythm of Anticipation in Timothy Steele's "Waiting for the Storm"

In his poem "Waiting for the Storm," Timothy Steele uses run-on lines, or enjambment, to create a feeling of anticipation. Every line ends unfinished or is a continuation of the previous line, so we must read on to gain completion. This open-ended rhythm mirrors the waiting experienced by the speaker of the poem.

Nearly every line of the poem leaves the reader in suspense:

I knelt
Beneath an upturned boat,
And, moment by moment, felt

The sand at my feet grow colder,
The damp air chill and spread. (2-6)

Action is interrupted at every line break. We have to wait to find out where the speaker knelt and what was felt, since information is given in small increments. So, like the speaker, we must take in the details of the storm little by little, "moment by moment" (4). Even when the first drops of rain hit the hull, the poem ends before we can see or feel the storm's full force, and we are left waiting, in a continuous state of anticipation. . . .

Pacini 3

Work Cited

Steele, Timothy. "Waiting for the Storm." *Poetry: An Introduction*. Ed. Michael Meyer. 7th ed. Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2013. 217. Print.

This next poem also reinforces meanings through its use of meter and rhythm.

WILLIAM BUTLER YEATS (1865–1939)

That the Night Come 1912

She lived | in storm | and strife,
 Her soul | had such | desire
 For what | proud death | may bring
 That it | could not | endure
 The com | mon good | of life, 5
 But lived | as 'twere | a king
 That packed | his mar | riage day
 With ban | neret | and pen | non,
 Trumpet | and ket | tledrum,
 And the | outrag | eous can | non, 10
 To bun | dle time | away
 That the | night come.

Scansion reveals that the predominant meter here is iambic trimeter: each line contains three stressed and unstressed syllables that form a regular, predictable rhythm through line 7. That rhythm is disrupted, however, when the speaker compares the woman's longing for what death brings to a king's eager anticipation of his wedding night. The king packs the day with noisy fanfares and celebrations to fill up time and distract himself. Unable to accept "The common good of life," the woman fills her days with "storm and strife." In a determined effort "To bundle time away," she, like the king, impatiently awaits the night.

Lines 8–10 break the regular pattern established in the first seven lines. The extra unstressed syllable in lines 8 and 10 along with the trochaic feet in lines 9 ("Trumpet") and 10 ("And the") interrupt the basic iambic trimeter and parallel the woman's and the king's frenetic activity. These lines thus echo the inability of the woman and king to "endure" regular or normal time. The last line is the most irregular in the poem. The final two accented syllables sound like the deep resonant beats of a kettledrum or a cannon firing. The words "night come" dramatically remind us that what the woman anticipates is not a lover but the mysterious finality of death. The meter serves, then, in both its regularity and variations to reinforce the poem's meaning and tone.

The following poems are especially rich in their rhythms and sounds. As you read and study them, notice how patterns of rhythm and the sounds of words reinforce meanings and contribute to the poems' effects. And, perhaps most important, read the poems aloud so that you can hear them.

RACHEL HADAS (b. 1948)

The Red Hat 1995

It started before Christmas. Now our son
officially walks to school alone.
Semi-alone, it's accurate to say:
I or his father track him on the way.
He walks up on the east side of West End,
we on the west side. Glances can extend
(and do) across the street; not eye contact.
Already ties are feeling and not fact.
Straus Park is where these parallel paths part;
he goes alone from there. The watcher's heart
stretches, elastic in its love and fear,
toward him as we see him disappear,
striding briskly. Where two weeks ago,
holding a hand, he'd dawdle, dreamy, slow,
he now is hustled forward by the pull
of something far more powerful than school.

The mornings we turn back to are no more
than forty minutes longer than before,
but they feel vastly different—flimsy, strange,
wavering in the eddies of this change,
empty, unanchored, perilously light
since the red hat vanished from our sight.

WHEN I READ “For those of you who are beginning to read poetry: don’t be afraid! Keep at it. Reread, read aloud, listen to recordings, read with your friends, keep a reading journal and copy poems you like into it. Try memorizing a poem you like just for fun.” —RACHEL HADAS

5

10

15

20

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** What emotions do the parents experience throughout the poem? How do you think the boy feels? Does the metrical pattern affect your understanding of the parents or the boy?
2. What prevents the rhymed couplets in this poem from sounding sing-songy? What is the predominant meter?
3. What is it that “pull[s]” the boy along in lines 15–16?
4. Why do you think Hadas titled the poem “The Red Hat” rather than, for example, “Paths Part” (line 9)?
5. **CRITICAL STRATEGIES.** Read the section on psychological strategies (pp. 652–54) in Chapter 26, “Critical Strategies for Reading.” How does the speaker reveal her personal psychology in this poem?

ROBERT HERRICK (1591–1674)

Delight in Disorder 1648

A sweet disorder in the dress
Kindles in clothes a wantonness.
A lawn^o about the shoulders thrown
Into a fine distraction;

linen scarf

An erring lace, which here and there 5
 Enthralls the crimson stomacher,
 A cuff neglectful, and thereby
 Ribbons to flow confusedly;
 A winning wave, deserving note,
 In the tempestuous petticoat; 10
 A careless shoestring, in whose tie
 I see a wild civility;
 Do more bewitch me than when art
 Is too precise in every part.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Why does the speaker in this poem value “disorder” so highly? How do the poem’s organization and rhythmic order relate to its theme? Are they “precise in every part” (line 14)?
2. Which words in the poem indicate disorder? Which words indicate the speaker’s response to that disorder? What are the connotative meanings of each set of words? Why are they appropriate? What do they suggest about the woman and the speaker?
3. Write a short essay in which you agree or disagree with the speaker’s views on dress.

BEN JONSON (1573–1637)

Still to Be Neat 1609

Still^o to be neat, still to be dressed, *continually*
 As you were going to a feast;
 Still to be powdered, still perfumed;
 Lady, it is to be presumed,
 Though art’s hid causes are not found, 5
 All is not sweet, all is not sound.

Give me a look, give me a face
 That makes simplicity a grace;
 Robes loosely flowing, hair as free;
 Such sweet neglect more taketh me 10
 Then all th’ adulteries of art.
 They strike mine eyes, but not my heart.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** What are the speaker’s reservations about the lady in the first stanza? What do you think “sweet” means in line 6?
2. What does the speaker want from the lady in the second stanza? How has the meaning of “sweet” shifted from line 6 to line 10? What other words in the poem are especially charged with connotative meanings?
3. How do the rhythms of Jonson’s lines help to reinforce meanings? Pay particular attention to lines 6 and 12.

Perspective

LOUISE BOGAN (1897–1970)

On Formal Poetry 1953

What is formal poetry? It is poetry written in form. And what is *form*? The elements of form, so far as poetry is concerned, are meter and rhyme. Are these elements merely mold and ornaments that have been impressed upon poetry from without? Are they indeed restrictions which bind and fetter language and the thought and emotion behind, under, within language in a repressive way? Are they arbitrary rules which have lost all validity since they have been broken to good purpose by “experimental poets,” ancient and modern? Does the breaking up of form, or its total elimination, always result in an increase of power and of effect; and is any return to form a sort of relinquishment of freedom, or retreat to old fageyism?

From *A Poet’s Alphabet*

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. Choose one of the questions Bogan raises and write an essay in response to it using two or three poems from this chapter to illustrate your answer.
2. **CREATIVE RESPONSE.** Try writing a poem in meter and rhyme. Does the experience make your writing feel limited or not?



Research the poets
in this chapter at
[bedfordstmartins.com/
rewritinglit](http://bedfordstmartins.com/rewritinglit).

3. Look up the word *brave* in the *Oxford English Dictionary*. Which of its meanings is appropriate to describe Julia's movement? Some readers interpret lines 4–6 to mean that Julia has no clothes on. What do you think?

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. Compare the tone of this poem with that of Paul Humphrey's "Blow" (p. 204). Are the situations and speakers similar? Is there any difference in tone between these two poems?

Terzarima consists of an interlocking three-line rhyme scheme: *aba, bcb, cdc, ded*, and so on. Dante's *Divine Comedy* uses this pattern, as does Robert Frost's "Acquainted with the Night" (p. 154) and Percy Bysshe Shelley's "Ode to the West Wind" (p. 259).

A **quatrain**, or four-line stanza, is the most common stanzaic form in the English language and can have various meters and rhyme schemes (if any). The most common rhyme schemes are *aabb, abba, aaba*, and *abcb*. This last pattern is especially characteristic of the popular **ballad stanza**, which consists of alternating eight- and six-syllable lines. Samuel Taylor Coleridge adopted this pattern in "The Rime of the Ancient Mariner"; here is one representative stanza:

All in a hot and copper sky
 The bloody Sun, at noon,
 Right up above the mast did stand,
 No bigger than the Moon.

There are a number of longer stanzaic forms, and the list of types of stanzas could be extended considerably, but knowing these three most basic patterns should prove helpful to you in talking about the form of a great many poems. In addition to stanzaic forms, there are fixed forms that characterize entire poems. Lyric poems can be, for example, sonnets, villanelles, sestinas, or epigrams.

Sonnet

The **sonnet** has been a popular literary form in English since the sixteenth century, when it was adopted from the Italian *sonnetto*, meaning "little song." A sonnet consists of fourteen lines, usually written in iambic pentameter. Because the sonnet has been such a favorite form, writers have experimented with many variations on its essential structure. Nevertheless, there are two basic types of sonnets: the Italian and the English.

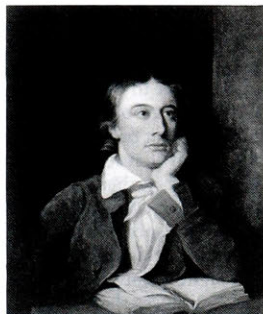
The **Italian sonnet** (also known as the **Petrarchan sonnet**, from the fourteenth-century Italian poet Petrarch) divides into two parts. The first eight lines (the **octave**) typically rhyme *abbaabba*. The final six lines (the **sestet**) may vary; common patterns are *cdecde, cdcdcd*, and *cdccdc*. Very often the

octave presents a situation, an attitude, or a problem that the sestet comments upon or resolves, as in John Keats's "On First Looking into Chapman's Homer."

JOHN KEATS (1795–1821)

*On First Looking into
Chapman's Homer*° 1816

Much have I traveled in the realms of gold,
 And many goodly states and kingdoms
 seen;
 Round many western islands have I been
 Which bards in fealty to Apollo° hold.
 Oft of one wide expanse had I been told
 That deep-browed Homer ruled as his
 demesne;
 Yet did I never breathe its pure serene°
 Till I heard Chapman speak out loud and bold:
 Then felt I like some watcher of the skies
 When a new planet swims into his ken;
 Or like stout Cortez° when with eagle eyes
 He stared at the Pacific—and all his men
 Looked at each other with a wild surmise—
 Silent, upon a peak in Darien.



Courtesy of the National Portrait Gallery,
London.

atmosphere

10

Chapman's Homer: Before reading George Chapman's (ca. 1560–1634) poetic Elizabethan translations of Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, Keats had known only stilted and pedestrian eighteenth-century translations. 4 *Apollo*: Greek god of poetry. 11 *Cortez*: Vasco Núñez de Balboa, not Hernando Cortés, was the first European to sight the Pacific from Darien, a peak in Panama.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** How do the images shift from the octave to the sestet? How does the tone change? Does the meaning change as well?
2. What is the controlling metaphor of this poem?
3. What is it that the speaker discovers?
4. How does the rhythm of the lines change between the octave and the sestet? How does that change reflect the tones of both the octave and the sestet?
5. Does Keats's mistake concerning Cortés and Balboa affect your reading of the poem? Explain why or why not.

The Italian sonnet pattern is also used in the next sonnet, but notice that the thematic break between octave and sestet comes within line 9 rather than between lines 8 and 9. This unconventional break helps to reinforce the speaker's impatience with the conventional attitudes he describes.

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH (1770–1850)

The World Is Too Much with Us 1807

The world is too much with us; late and soon,
 Getting and spending, we lay waste our powers;
 Little we see in Nature that is ours;
 We have given our hearts away, a sordid boon!
 This Sea that bares her bosom to the moon; 5
 The winds that will be howling at all hours,
 And are up-gathered now like sleeping flowers;
 For this, for everything, we are out of tune;
 It moves us not. — Great God! I'd rather be
 A Pagan suckled in a creed outworn; 10
 So might I, standing on this pleasant lea,
 Have glimpses that would make me less forlorn;
 Have sight of Proteus rising from the sea;
 Or hear old Triton blow his wreathèd horn.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** What is the speaker's complaint in this sonnet? How do the conditions described affect him?
2. Look up "Proteus" and "Triton." What do these mythological allusions contribute to the sonnet's tone?
3. What is the effect of the personification of the sea and wind in the octave?

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. Compare the theme of this sonnet with that of Gerard Manley Hopkins's "God's Grandeur" (p. 194).

The *English sonnet*, more commonly known as the *Shakespearean sonnet*, is organized into three quatrains and a couplet, which typically rhyme *abab cdcd efef gg*. This rhyme scheme is more suited to English poetry because English has fewer rhyming words than Italian. English sonnets, because of their four-part organization, also have more flexibility about where thematic breaks can occur. Frequently, however, the most pronounced break or turn comes with the concluding couplet.

In the following Shakespearean sonnet, the three quatrains compare the speaker's loved one to a summer's day and explain why the loved one is even more lovely. The couplet bestows eternal beauty and love upon both the loved one and the sonnet.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE (1564–1616)

Shall I compare thee to a summer's day? 1609

Shall I compare thee to a summer's day?
 Thou art more lovely and more temperate:
 Rough winds do shake the darling buds of May,
 And summer's lease hath all too short a date.
 Sometime too hot the eye of heaven shines, 5
 And often is his gold complexion dimmed;
 And every fair from fair sometime declines,
 By chance, or nature's changing course, untrimmed.
 But thy eternal summer shall not fade,
 Nor lose possession of that fair thou ow'st° 10
 Nor shall death brag thou wand'rest in his shade,
 When in eternal lines to time thou grow'st.
 So long as men can breathe or eyes can see,
 So long lives this, and this gives life to thee.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Describe the shift in tone and subject matter that begins in line 9.
2. Why is the speaker's loved one more lovely than a summer's day? What qualities does he admire in the loved one?
3. What does the couplet say about the relation between art and love?
4. Which syllables are stressed in the final line? How do these syllables relate to the line's meaning?

Sonnets have been the vehicles for all kinds of subjects, including love, death, politics, and cosmic questions. Although most sonnets tend to treat their subjects seriously, this fixed form does not mean a fixed expression; humor is also possible in it. Compare this next Shakespearean sonnet with "Shall I compare thee to a summer's day?" They are, finally, both love poems, but their tones are markedly different.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE (1564–1616)

My mistress' eyes are nothing like the sun 1609

My mistress' eyes are nothing like the sun;
 Coral is far more red than her lips' red;
 If snow be white, why then her breasts are dun;
 If hairs be wires, black wires grow on her head. 5
 I have seen roses damasked red and white,
 But no such roses see I in her cheeks;
 And in some perfumes is there more delight
 Than in the breath that from my mistress reeks.

I love to hear her speak, yet well I know
 That music hath a far more pleasing sound; 10
 I grant I never saw a goddess go:
 My mistress, when she walks, treads on the ground.
 And yet, by heaven, I think my love as rare
 As any she,^o belied with false compare. lady

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** What does “mistress” mean in this sonnet? Write a description of this particular mistress based on the images used in the sonnet.
2. What sort of person is the speaker? Does he truly love the woman he describes?
3. In what sense are this sonnet and “Shall I compare thee to a summer’s day?” about poetry as well as love?

EDNA ST. VINCENT MILLAY (1892–1950)

I will put Chaos into fourteen lines 1954

I will put Chaos into fourteen lines
 And keep him there; and let him thence escape
 If he be lucky; let him twist, and ape
 Flood, fire, and demon – his adroit designs
 Will strain to nothing in the strict confines
 Of this sweet Order, where, in pious rape,
 I hold his essence and amorphous shape,
 Till he with Order mingles and combines.
 Past are the hours, the years, of our duress,
 His arrogance, our awful servitude:
 I have him. He is nothing more nor less
 Than something simple not yet understood;
 I shall not even force him to confess;
 Or answer. I will only make him good.



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10

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Does the poem contain “Chaos”? If so, how? If not, why not?
2. What properties of a sonnet does this poem possess?
3. What do you think is meant by the phrase “pious rape” in line 6?
4. What is the effect of the personification in the poem?

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. Compare the theme of this poem with that of Robert Frost’s “Design” (p. 375).

Open Form



New Directions Archive.

I believe every space and comma is a living part of the poem and has its function, just as every muscle and pore of the body has its function. And the way the lines are broken is a functioning part essential to the poem's life.

— DENISE LEVERTOV

Many poems, especially those written in the past century, are composed of lines that cannot be scanned for a fixed or predominant meter. Moreover, very often these poems do not rhyme. Known as *free verse* (from the French, *vers libre*), such lines can derive their rhythmic qualities from the repetition of words, phrases, or grammatical structures; the arrangement of words on the printed page; or some other means. In recent years the term *open form* has been used in place of *free verse* to avoid the erroneous suggestion that this kind of poetry lacks all discipline and shape.

Although the following poem does not use measurable meters, it does have rhythm.

WALT WHITMAN (1819–1892)

From “I Sing the Body Electric” 1855

O my body! I dare not desert the likes of you
 in other men and women, nor the likes
 of the parts of you,
 I believe the likes of you are to stand or fall
 with the likes of the soul, (and that they
 are the soul,)
 I believe the likes of you shall stand or fall with
 my poems, and that they are my poems.
 Man’s, woman’s, child’s, youth’s, wife’s,
 husband’s, mother’s, father’s, young
 man’s, young woman’s poems.
 Head, neck, hair, ears, drop and tympan of the
 ears.
 Eyes, eye-fringes, iris of the eye, eyebrows, and
 the waking or sleeping of the lids,
 Mouth, tongue, lips, teeth, roof of the mouth, jaws, and the jaw-hinges,
 Nose, nostrils of the nose, and the partition,
 Cheeks, temples, forehead, chin, throat, back of the neck, neck-slue,
 Strong shoulders, manly beard, scapula, hind-shoulders, and the ample
 side-round of the chest, 10
 Upper-arm, armpit, elbow-socket, lower-arm, arm-sinews, arm-bones,
 Wrist and wrist-joints, hand, palm, knuckles, thumb, forefinger, finger-joints,
 finger-nails,
 Broad breast-front, curling hair of the breast, breast-bone, breast-side,
 Ribs, belly, backbone, joints of the backbone,
 Hips, hip-sockets, hip-strength, inward and outward round, man-balls,
 man-root, 15
 Strong set of thighs, well carrying the trunk above,
 Leg-fibers, knee, knee-pan, upper-leg, under-leg,
 Ankles, instep, foot-ball, toes, toe-joints, the heel;
 All attitudes, all the shapeliness, all the belongings of my or your body or
 of any one’s body, male or female,
 The lung-sponges, the stomach-sac, the bowels sweet and clean, 20
 The brain in its folds inside the skull-frame,
 Sympathies, heart-valves, palate-valves, sexuality, maternity,
 Womanhood, and all that is a woman, and the man that comes from
 woman,
 The womb, the teats, nipples, breast-milk, tears, laughter, weeping, love-
 looks, love-perturbations and risings,
 The voice, articulation, language, whispering, shouting aloud, 25
 Food, drink, pulse, digestion, sweat, sleep, walking, swimming,
 Poise on the hips, leaping, reclining, embracing, arm-curving and
 tightening,
 The continual changes of the flex of the mouth, and around the eyes,
 The skin, the sunburnt shade, freckles, hair,



Courtesy of the Bayley-Whitman Collection
 of Ohio Wesleyan University of Delaware,
 Ohio.

The curious sympathy one feels when feeling with the hand the naked
 meat of the body, 30
 The circling rivers the breath, and breathing it in and out,
 The beauty of the waist, and thence of the hips, and thence downward
 toward the knees,
 The thin red jellies within you or within me, the bones and the marrow in
 the bones,
 The exquisite realization of health;
 O I say these are not the parts and poems of the body only, but of the soul, 35
 O I say now these are the soul!

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** What informs this speaker's attitude toward the human body?
2. Read the poem aloud. Is it simply a tedious enumeration of body parts, or do the lines achieve some kind of rhythmic cadence?

Perspective

WALT WHITMAN (1819–1892)

On Rhyme and Meter 1855

The poetic quality is not marshaled in rhyme or uniformity or abstract addresses to things nor in melancholy complaints or good precepts, but is the life of these and much else and is in the soul. The profit of rhyme is that it drops seeds of a sweeter and more luxuriant rhyme, and of uniformity that it conveys itself into its own roots in the ground out of sight. The rhyme and uniformity of perfect poems show the free growth of metrical laws and bud from them as unerringly and loosely as lilacs or roses on a bush, and take shapes as compact as the shapes of chestnuts and oranges and melons and pears, and shed the perfume impalpable to form. The fluency and ornaments of the finest poems or music or orations or recitations are not independent but dependent. All beauty comes from beautiful blood and a beautiful brain. If the greatneses are in conjunction in a man or woman it is enough . . . the fact will prevail through the universe . . . but the gaggery and gilt of a million years will not prevail. Who troubles himself about his ornaments or fluency is lost.

From the preface to the 1855 edition of *Leaves of Grass*

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. According to Whitman, what determines the shape of a poem?
2. Why does Whitman prefer open forms over fixed forms such as the sonnet?
3. Is Whitman's poetry devoid of any structure or shape? Choose one of his poems (listed in the index) to illustrate your answer.

A Study of Julia Alvarez:
The Author Reflects
on Five Poems



© Daniel Cima.

When I'm asked what made me into a writer, I point to the watershed experience of coming to this country. Not understanding the language, I had to pay close attention to each word—great training for a writer.

—JULIA ALVAREZ

This chapter offers five poems, chosen by Julia Alvarez for this anthology, with commentaries written by the poet herself. Alvarez's insights on each work, in addition to accompanying images and documents, provide a variety of contexts—personal, cultural, and historical—for understanding and appreciating her poems.

In her introductions to each of the poems, Alvarez shares her reasons for writing, what was on her mind when she wrote each work, what she thinks now looking back at them, as well as a bird's-eye view into her writing process

A handwritten signature of Julia Alvarez in cursive script. The signature is fluid and elegant, with the first name 'Julia' and the last name 'Alvarez' clearly legible.

(see especially the drafts of the poem in progress on pp. 434–36). She also evokes the voices of those who have inspired her—muses that range from women talking and cooking in a kitchen to a character in *The Arabian Nights* to the poets Walt Whitman, Langston Hughes, and others. Alvarez writes, “A poem can be a resting place for the soul . . . a world teeming with discoveries and luminous little *ah-ha!* moments, a ‘place for the genuine,’ as Marianne Moore calls it.” Read on and find out, for example, who her real “First Muse” was, and what, according to Alvarez, a famous American poet and the Chiquita Banana have in common.

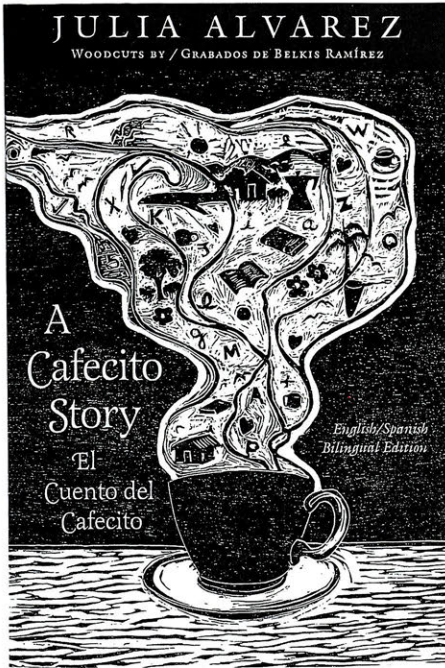
In addition to Alvarez’s inviting and richly detailed introductions, the chapter also presents a number of visual contexts, such as a photo of a 1963 civil rights demonstration in Queens, New York; the poet’s passport photo taken at age ten, just before she moved back to the United States; a collection of draft manuscript pages; and an image of one of Alvarez’s poems set in a bronze plaque in a sidewalk—part of “Library Way” in New York City. Further, a critical essay—which complements Alvarez’s own perspectives throughout the chapter—by Kelli Lyon Johnson (p. 441) allows readers to consider Alvarez’s work in a critical framework. (For a discussion on reading a work alongside critical theory, see Chapter 26, “Critical Strategies for Reading,” p. 643.)

A BRIEF BIOGRAPHY

Although Julia Alvarez was born (1950) in New York City, she lived in the Dominican Republic until she was ten years old. She returned to New York after her father, a physician, was connected to a plot to overthrow the dictatorship of Rafael Trujillo, and the family had to flee. Growing up in Queens was radically different from the Latino Caribbean world she experienced during her early childhood. A new culture and new language sensitized Alvarez to her surroundings and her use of language so that emigration from the Dominican Republic to Queens was the beginning of her movement toward becoming a writer. Alvarez quotes the Polish poet Czeslaw Milosz’s assertion that “language is the only homeland” to explain her own sense that what she really settled into was not so much the United States as the English language.

Her fascination with English continued into high school and took shape in college as she became a serious writer—first at Connecticut College from 1967 to 1969 and then at Middlebury College, where she earned her B.A. in 1971. At Syracuse University she was awarded the American Academy of Poetry Prize and, in 1975, earned an M.A. in creative writing.

Since then Alvarez has served as a writer-in-residence for the Kentucky Arts Commission, the Delaware Arts Council, and the Arts Council of Fayetteville, North Carolina. She has taught at California State College (Fresno), College of Sequoias, Phillips Andover Academy, the University of

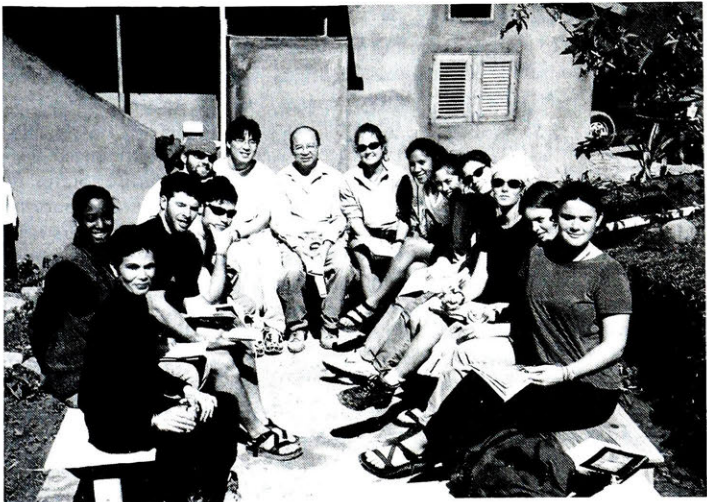


(Left) *A Cafecito Story* (2001), which Alvarez describes as a modern “eco-parable” or “green fable” and love story, was inspired by the author’s work with local coffee growers in the Dominican Republic.

Reprinted from *A Cafecito Story*.
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Publishing (www.chelseagreen.com).

(Below) Julia Alvarez with students from Middlebury College at her coffee farm, Alta Gracia, in the Dominican Republic.

Photograph courtesy of Fundación Finca Alta Gracia.



Vermont, George Washington University, the University of Illinois, and, since 1988, at Middlebury College, where she has been a professor of literature and creative writing and is currently a part-time writer-in-residence. Alvarez divides her time between Vermont and the Dominican Republic where she and her husband have set up an organic coffee farm, Alta Gracia, that supports a literacy school for children and adults. *A Cafecito Story* (2001), which Alvarez considers a “green fable” or “eco-parable,” grew out of their experiences promoting fair trade and sustainability for coffee farmers in the Dominican Republic.

AN INTRODUCTION TO HER WORK

Alvarez’s poetry has been widely published in journals and magazines ranging from the *New Yorker* to *Mirabella* to the *Kenyon Review*. Her first book of poems, *Homecoming* (1984; a new expanded version, *Homecoming: New and Collected Poems*, was published in 1996 by Plume/Penguin), uses simple—yet incisive—language to explore issues related to love, domestic life, and work. Her second book of poetry, *The Other Side/El Otro Lado* (1995), is a collection of meditations on her childhood memories of immigrant life that shaped her adult identity and sensibilities. Some of these concerns are also manifested in her book of essays, titled *Something to Declare* (1998), a collection that describes her abiding concerns about how to respond to competing cultures. In her third poetry collection, *The Woman I Kept to Myself* (2004), Alvarez reflects on her personal life and development as a writer from the vantage point of her mid-fifties in seventy-five poems, each consisting of three ten-line stanzas.

In addition to writing a number of books for children and young adults, Alvarez has also published six novels. The first, *How the García Girls Lost Their Accents* (1991), is a collection of fifteen separate but interrelated stories that cover thirty years of the lives of the García sisters from the late 1950s to the late 1980s. Drawing on her own experiences, Alvarez describes the sisters fleeing the Dominican Republic and growing up Latina in the United States. *In the Time of the Butterflies* (1994) is a fictional account of a true story concerning four sisters who opposed Trujillo’s dictatorship. Three of the sisters were murdered in 1960 by the government, and the surviving fourth sister recounts the events of their personal and political lives that led to her sisters’ deaths. Shaped by the history of Dominican freedom and tyranny, the novel also explores the sisters’ relationships to each other and their country.

In *¡Yo!* (1997), Alvarez focuses on Yolanda, one of the García sisters from her first novel, who is now a writer. Written in the different voices of Yo’s friends and family members, this fractured narrative constructs a complete picture of a woman who uses her relationships as fodder for fiction, a woman who is self-centered, aggravating, and finally lovable—who is deeply embedded in American culture while remaining aware of her Dominican roots. *¡Yo!*, which means “I” in English, is a meditation on points of view and narrative.

In the Name of Salomé (2000) is a fictional account of Salomé Ureña, who was born in the 1850s and considered to be “the Emily Dickinson of the Dominican Republic,” and her daughter’s efforts late in life to reconcile her relationship to her mother’s reputation and her own response to Castro’s revolution in Cuba. Alvarez published her sixth and most recent novel, *Saving the World*, in 2006, a story that also links two women’s lives, one from the past and one from the present, around personal and political issues concerning humanitarian efforts to end smallpox in the nineteenth century and the global AIDS epidemic in the twenty-first century.

Chronology

- 1950 Born on March 27 in New York City.
- 1950–60 Raised in the Dominican Republic.
- 1960 Alvarez family flees the Dominican Republic for New York City after her father joins efforts to overthrow the dictatorship of Rafael Trujillo.
- 1961 Rafael Trujillo is assassinated.
- 1967–69 Attends Connecticut College.
- 1971 Graduates from Middlebury College with a B.A.
- 1975 Graduates from Syracuse University with an M.A.
- 1979–80 Attends Bread Loaf School of English.
- 1979–81 Instructor at Phillips Andover Academy.
- 1981–83 Visiting assistant professor at University of Vermont.
- 1984 Publishes *Homecoming*, a volume of poems, and *The Housekeeping Book*, a handmade book of a series of “housekeeping poems,” illustrated by Carol MacDonald and Rene Schall.
- 1984–85 Visiting writer-in-residence at George Washington University.
- 1985–88 Assistant professor of English at University of Illinois.
- 1987–88 Awarded a National Endowment for the Arts Fellowship.
- 1988–98 Professor of English at Middlebury College.
- 1988–Present Writer-in-residence at Middlebury College.
- 1991 Publishes *How the García Girls Lost Their Accents*, a novel.
- 1994 Publishes *In the Time of the Butterflies*, a novel.
- 1995 Publishes *The Other Side/El Otro Lado*, a volume of poems.
- 1996 Publishes *Homecoming: New and Collected Poems*, a reissue of *Homecoming* (1984) with new work included.
- 1997 Publishes *¡Yo!*, a novel.
- 1998 Publishes *Something to Declare*, a collection of essays, and *Seven Trees*, a handmade volume of poems.
- 2000 Publishes *In the Name of Salomé*, a novel, and *The Secret Footprints*, a picture book for children.

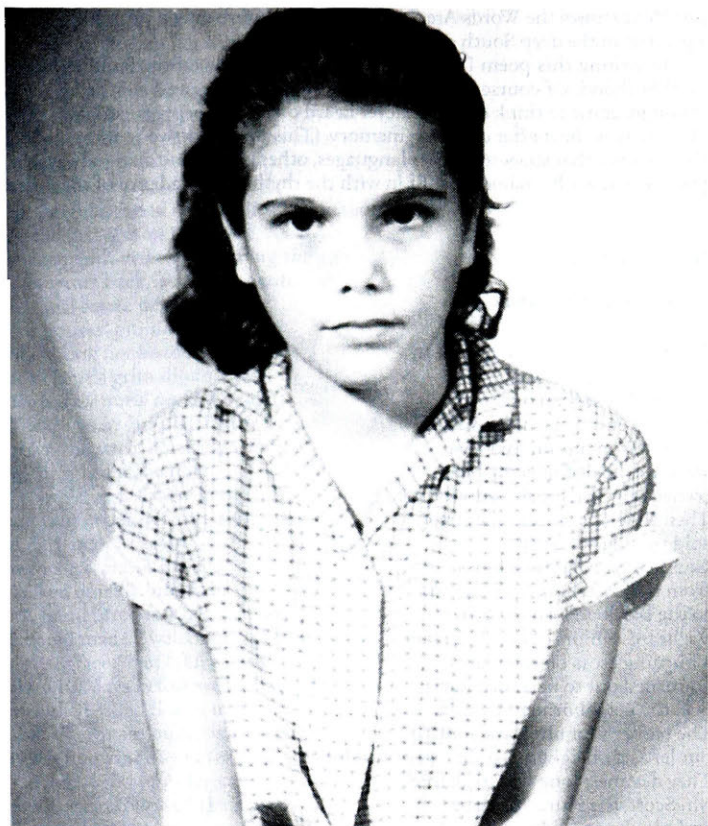
- 2001 Publishes *A Cafecito Story*, a novel or “eco-parable,” and *How Tía Lola Came to Stay*, a novel for young readers.
- 2002 Publishes *Before We Were Free*, a novel for young adults.
- 2004 Publishes *The Woman I Kept to Myself*, a volume of poems; *A Gift of Gracias: The Legend of Altagracia*, a picture book for children; and *Finding Miracles*, a novel for young adults.
- 2006 Publishes *Saving the World*, a novel.
- 2007 Publishes *Once Upon a Quinceañera: Coming of Age in the USA*, a memoir and cultural study of ceremonies for Latina girls when they turn fifteen.
- 2009 Publishes *Return to Sender*, a children’s novel.
- 2010 Publishes *How Tía Lola Learned to Teach*, for young readers.
- 2011 Publishes *How Tía Lola Saved the Summer* and *How Tía Lola Ended Up Starting Over*, the third and fourth in the series.

In “Queens, 1963” Alvarez remembers the neighborhood she lived in when she was a thirteen-year-old and how “Everyone seemed more American / than we, newly arrived.” The tensions that arose when new immigrants and ethnic groups moved onto the block were mirrored in many American neighborhoods in 1963. Indeed, the entire nation was made keenly aware of such issues as integration when demonstrations were organized across the South and a massive march on Washington in support of civil rights for African Americans drew hundreds of thousands of demonstrators who listened to Martin Luther King Jr. deliver his electrifying “I have a dream” speech. But the issues were hardly resolved, as evidenced by 1963’s two best-selling books: *Happiness Is a Warm Puppy* and *Security Is a Thumb and a Blanket*, by Charles M. Schulz of *Peanuts* cartoon fame. The popularity of these books is, perhaps, understandable given the tensions that moved across the country and which seemed to culminate on November 22, 1963, when President Kennedy was assassinated in Dallas, Texas. These events are not mentioned in “Queens, 1963,” but they are certainly part of the context that helps us understand Alvarez’s particular neighborhood. In the following introductory essay, Alvarez reflects on the cultural moment of 1963 and her reasons for writing the poem.

JULIA ALVAREZ

On Writing “Queens, 1963” 2006

I remember when we finally bought our very own house after three years of living in rentals. Back then, Queens, New York, was not the multicultural, multi-lingual place it is today. But the process was beginning. Our neighborhood was sprinkled with ethnicities, some who had been here longer than others. The Germans down the block—now we would call them German Americans—had been Americans for a couple of generations as had our Jewish neighbors, and most definitely, the Midwesterners across the street. Meanwhile, the Greek family



Julia Alvarez, age ten, in her 1960 passport photo.

Courtesy of Julia Alvarez.

next door were newcomers as were we, our accents still heavy, our cooking smells commingling across our backyard fences during mealtimes: their Greek lamb with rosemary, our Dominican *habichuelas* with *sofrito*.°

It seemed a peaceable enough kingdom until a black family moved in across the street. What a ruckus got started! Of course, it was the early 1960s: the civil rights movement was just getting under way in this country. Suddenly, our neighborhood was faced with discrimination, but coming from the very same people who themselves had felt discrimination from other, more mainstream Americans. It was my first lesson in hypocrisy and in realizing that America was still an experiment in process. The words on the Statue of Liberty

habichuelas with sofrito: Kidney beans prepared with a sautéed mixture of spices, herbs, garlic, onion, pepper, and tomato.

(see “Sometimes the Words Are So Close,” p. 433) were only a promise, not yet a practice in the deep South or in Queens, New York.

In writing this poem I wanted to suggest the many ethnic families in the neighborhood. Of course, I couldn’t use their real names and risk being sued. (Though, come to think of it, I’ve never heard of a poem being sued, have you?) Plus, there is the matter of failing memory. (This was forty-two years ago!) So I chose names that suggested other languages, other places, and also — always the poet’s ear at work — names that fit in with the rhythm and cadence of the lines.

JULIA ALVAREZ

Queens, 1963 1992

Everyone seemed more American
 than we, newly arrived,
 foreign dirt still on our soles.
 By year’s end, a sprinkler waving
 like a flag on our mowed lawn, 5
 we were blended into the block,
 owned our own mock Tudor house.
 Then the house across the street
 sold to a black family.
 Cop cars patrolled our block 10
 from the Castellucci’s at one end
 to the Balakian’s on the other.
 We heard rumors of bomb threats,
 a burning cross on their lawn.
 (It turned out to be a sprinkler.) 15
 Still the neighborhood buzzed.
 The barber’s family, Haralambides,
 our left-side neighbors, didn’t want trouble.
 They’d come a long way to be free!
 Mr. Scott, the retired plumber, 20
 and his plump midwestern wife,
 considered moving back home
 where white and black got along
 by staying where they belonged.
 They had cultivated our street 25
 like the garden she’d given up
 on account of her ailing back,
 bad knees, poor eyes, arthritic hands.
 She went through her litany daily.
 Politely, my mother listened — 30
¡Ay, Mrs. Scott, qué pena!^o
 — her Dominican good manners
 still running on automatic.
 The Jewish counselor next door,

31 *qué pena*: What a shame!

had a practice in her house; 35
 clients hurried up her walk
 ashamed to be seen needing.
 (I watched from my upstairs window,
 gloomy with adolescence,
 and guessed how they too must have 40
 hypocritical old-world parents.)
 Mrs. Bernstein said it was time
 the neighborhood opened up.
 As the first Jew on the block,
 she remembered the snubbing she got 45
 a few years back from Mrs. Scott.
 But real estate worried her,
 our houses' plummeting value.
 She shook her head as she might
 at a client's grim disclosures. 50
Too bad the world works this way.
 The German girl playing the piano
 down the street abruptly stopped
 in the middle of a note.
 I completed the tune in my head 55
 as I watched *their* front door open.
 A dark man in a suit
 with a girl about my age
 walked quickly into a car.
 My hand lifted but fell 60
 before I made a welcoming gesture.
 On her face I had seen a look
 from the days before we had melted
 into the United States of America.
 It was hardness mixed with hurt. 65
 It was knowing she never could be
 the right kind of American.
 A police car followed their car.
 Down the street, curtains fell back.
 Mrs. Scott swept her walk 70
 as if it had just been dirtied.
 Then the German piano commenced
 downward scales as if tracking
 the plummeting real estate.
 One by one I imagined the houses 75
 sinking into their lawns,
 the grass grown wild and tall
 in the past tense of this continent
 before the first foreigners owned
 any of this free country. 80

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

- I. **FIRST RESPONSE.** What nationalities are the people in this neighborhood in the New York City borough of Queens? Are they neighborly to each other?

2. In line 3, why do you suppose Alvarez writes “foreign dirt still on our soles” rather than “foreign soil still on our shoes”? What does Alvarez’s word choice suggest about her feelings for her native country?
3. Characterize the speaker. How old is she? How does she feel about having come from the Dominican Republic? About living in the United States?
4. Do you think this poem is optimistic or pessimistic about racial relations in the United States? Explain your answer by referring to specific details in the poem.

CONNECTIONS TO OTHER SELECTIONS

1. Compare the use of irony in “Queens, 1963” with that in John Ciardi’s “Suburban” (p. 511). How does irony contribute to each poem?
2. Discuss the problems immigrants encounter in this poem and in Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni’s “Indian Movie, New Jersey” (p. 533).
3. Write an essay comparing and contrasting the tone and theme in “Queens, 1963” and in Tato Laviera’s “AmeRican” (p. 281).

Queens Civil Rights Demonstration 1963



In this photograph police remove a Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) demonstrator from a Queens construction site. Demonstrators blocked the delivery entrance to the site because they wanted more African Americans and Puerto Ricans hired in the building-trade industry. Reprinted by permission of AP/Wide World Photos.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. Discuss the role played by the police in this photograph and in "Queens, 1963." What attitudes toward the police do the photograph and the poem display?
2. How do you think the Scotts and Mrs. Bernstein would have responded to this photograph in 1963?
3. Compare the tensions in "Queens, 1963" to those depicted in this photo. How do the speaker's private reflections relate to this public protest?

Perspective

MARNY REQUA (B. 1971)

From an Interview with Julia Alvarez 1997**M.R. What was it like when you came to the United States?**

J.A. When we got to Queens, it was really a shock to go from a totally Latino, *familia* Caribbean world into this very cold and kind of forbidding one in which we didn't speak the language. I didn't grow up with a tradition of writing or reading books at all. People were always telling stories but it wasn't a tradition of literary . . . reading a book or doing something solitary like that. Coming to this country I discovered books, I discovered that it was a way to enter into a portable homeland that you could carry around in your head. You didn't have to suffer what was going on around you. I found in books a place to go. I became interested in language because I was learning a language intentionally at the age of ten. I was wondering, "Why is it that word and not another?" which any writer has to do with their language. I always say I came to English late but to the profession early. By high school I was pretty set: That's what I want to do, be a writer.

M.R. Did you have culture shock returning to the Dominican Republic as you were growing up?

J.A. The culture here had an effect on me—at the time this country was coming undone with protests and flower children and drugs. Here I was back in the Dominican Republic and I wouldn't keep my mouth shut. I had my own ideas and I had my own politics, and it, I just didn't gel anymore with the family. I didn't quite feel I ever belonged in this North American culture and I always had this nostalgia that when I went back I'd belong, and then I found out I didn't belong there either.

M.R. Was it a source of inspiration to have a foot in both cultures?

J.A. I only came to that later. [Then], it was a burden because I felt torn. I wanted to be part of one culture and then part of the other. It was a time when the model for the immigrant was that you came and you became an American and you cut off your ties and that was that. My parents had that frame of mind, because they were so afraid, and they were "Learn your English" and "Become one of them," and that left out so much. Now I see the richness. Part

of what I want to do with my work is that complexity, that richness. I don't want it to be simplistic and either/or.

From "The Politics of Fiction," *Frontera* magazine 5 (1997)

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. What do you think Alvarez means when she describes books as "a portable homeland that you could carry around in your head"?
2. Why is it difficult for Alvarez to feel that she belongs in either the Dominican or the North American culture?
3. Alvarez says that in the 1960s "the model for the immigrant was that you came and you became an American and you cut off your ties and that was that." Do you think this model has changed in the United States since then? Explain your response.
4. How might this interview alter your understanding of "Queens, 1963"? What light is shed, for example, on the speaker's feeling that her family "blended into the block" in line 6?

JULIA ALVAREZ

On Writing "Housekeeping Cages" and Her Housekeeping Poems 1998

I can still remember the first time I heard my own voice on paper. It happened a few years after I graduated from a creative writing master's program. I had earned a short-term residency at Yaddo, the writer's colony, where I was assigned a studio in the big mansion—the tower room at the top of the stairs. The rules were clear: we artists and writers were to stick to our studios during the day and come out at night for supper and socializing. Nothing was to come between us and our work.

I sat up in my tower room, waiting for inspiration. All around me I could hear the typewriters going. Before me lay a blank sheet of paper, ready for the important work I had come there to write. That was the problem, you see. I was trying to do IMPORTANT work and so I couldn't hear myself think. I was trying to pitch my voice to "Turning and turning in the widening gyre," or, "Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit of that forbidden tree," or, "Sing in me, Muse, and through me tell the story." I was tuning my voice to these men's voices because I thought that was the way I had to sound if I wanted to be a writer. After all, the writers I read and admired sounded like that.

But the voice I heard when I listened to myself think was the voice of a woman, sitting in her kitchen, gossiping with a friend over a cup of coffee. It was the voice of Gladys singing her sad boleros, Belkis putting color on my face with tales of her escapades, Tití naming the orchids, Ada telling me love stories as we made the beds. I had, however, never seen voices like these in print. So, I didn't know poems could be written in those voices, *my* voice.

So there I was at Yaddo, trying to write something important and coming up with nothing. And then, hallelujah—I heard the vacuum going up and

down the hall. I opened the door and introduced myself to the friendly, sweating woman, wielding her vacuum cleaner. She invited me down to the kitchen so we wouldn't disturb the other guests. There I met the cook, and as we all sat, drinking coffee, I paged through her old cookbook, *knead, poach, stew, whip, score, julienne, whisk, sauté, sift*. Hmm. I began hearing a music in these words. I jotted down the names of implements:

Cup, spoon, ladle, pot, kettle,
grater and peeler,
colander, corer,
waffle iron, small funnel.

"You working on a poem there?" the cook asked me.
I shook my head.

A little later, I went upstairs and wrote down in my journal this beautiful vocabulary of my girlhood. As I wrote, I tapped my foot on the floor to the rhythm of the words. I could see Mami and the aunts with the cook in the kitchen bending their heads over a pot of habichuelas, arguing about what flavor was missing—what could it be they had missed putting in it? And then, the thought of Mami recalled Gladys, the maid who loved to sing, and that thought led me through the house, the mahogany furniture that needed dusting, the beds that needed making, the big bin of laundry that needed washing.

That day, I began working on a poem about dusting. Then another followed on sewing; then came a sweeping poem, an ironing poem. Later, I would collect these into a series I called "the housekeeping poems," poems using the metaphors, details, language of my first apprenticeship as a young girl. Even later, having found my woman's voice, I would gain confidence to explore my voice as a Latina and to write stories and poems using the metaphors, details, rhythms of that first world I had left behind in Spanish.

But it began, first, by discovering my woman's voice at Yaddo where I had found it as a child. Twenty years after learning to sing with Gladys, I was reminded of the lessons I had learned in childhood: that my voice would not be found up in a tower, in those upper reaches or important places, but down in the kitchen among the women who first taught me about service, about passion, about singing as if my life depended on it.

From Something to Declare

JULIA ALVAREZ

***Housekeeping Cages* 1994**

Sometimes people ask me why I wrote a series of poems about housekeeping if I'm a feminist. Don't I want women to be liberated from the oppressive roles they were condemned to live? I don't see housekeeping that way. They were the crafts we women had, sewing, embroidering, cooking, spinning, sweeping, even the lowly dusting. And like Dylan Thomas said, we sang in our chains like the sea. Isn't it already thinking from the point of view of the oppressor to say to ourselves, what we did was nothing?

You use what you have, you learn to work the structure to create what you need. I don't feel that writing in traditional forms is giving up power, going over

to the enemy. The word belongs to no one, the houses built of words belong to no one. We have to take them back from those who think they own them.

Sometimes I get in a mood. I tell myself I am taken over. I am writing under somebody else's thumb and tongue. See, English was not my first language. It was, in fact, a colonizing language to my Spanish Caribbean. But then Spanish was also a colonizer's language; after all, Spain colonized Quisqueya. There's no getting free. We are always writing in a form imposed on us. But then, I'm Scheherazade in the Sultan's room. I use structures to survive and triumph! To say what's important to me as a woman and as a Latina.

I think of form as territory that has been colonized, but that you can free. See, I feel subversive in formal verse. A voice is going to inhabit that form that was barred from entering it before! That's what I tried in the "33" poems, to use my woman's voice in a sonnet as I would use it sitting in the kitchen with a close friend, talking womanstuff. In school, I was always trying to inhabit those forms as the male writers had. To pitch my voice to "Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit. . ." If it didn't hit the key of "Sing in me, Muse, and through me tell the story," how could it be important poetry? The only kind.

While I was in graduate school some of the women in the program started a Women's Writing Collective in Syracuse. We were musing each other into unknown writing territory. One woman advised me to listen to my own voice, deep inside, and put that down on paper. But what I heard when I listened were voices that said things like "Don't put so much salt on the lettuce, you'll wilt the salad!" I'd never heard that in a poem. So how could it be poetry? Then, with the "33" sonnet sequence, I said, I'm going to go in there and I'm going to sound like myself. I took on the whole kaboodle. I was going into form, sonnets no less. Wow.

What I wanted from the sonnet was the tradition that it offered as well as the structure. The sonnet tradition was one in which women were caged in golden cages of beloved, in perfumed gas chambers of stereotype. I wanted to go in that heavily mined and male labyrinth with the string of my own voice. I wanted to explore it and explode it too. I call my sonnets free verse sonnets. They have ten syllables per line, and the lines are in a loose iambic pentameter. But they are heavily enjambed and the rhymes are often slant-rhymes, and the rhyme scheme is peculiar to each sonnet. One friend read them and said, "I didn't know they were sonnets. They sounded like you talking!"

By learning to work the sonnet structure and yet remaining true to my own voice, I made myself at home in that form. When I was done with it, it was a totally different form from the one I learned in school. I have used other traditional forms. In my poem about sweeping, since you sweep with the broom and you dance—it's a coupling—I used rhyming couplets. I wrote a poem of advice mothers give to their daughters in a villanelle, because it's such a nagging form. But mostly the sonnet is the form I've worked with. It's the classic form in which we women were trapped, love objects, and I was trapped inside that voice and paradigm, and I wanted to work my way out of it.

My idea of traditional forms is that as women much of our heritage is trapped in them. But the cage can turn into a house if you housekeep it the right way. You housekeep it by working the words just so.

From *A Formal Feeling Comes: Poems in Form by Contemporary Women*,
edited by Annie Finch

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** How does Alvarez connect housekeeping to "writing in traditional forms"?
2. Compare "Sometimes the Words Are So Close" (Sonnet 42, p. 433) to Alvarez's description in her essay of how she writes sonnets. How closely does the poem's form follow her description?
3. Why does Alvarez consider "Dusting" (p. 430) and "Ironing Their Clothes" (p. 431) to be feminist poems? How can the poems be read as feminist in their sensibility?

JULIA ALVAREZ

On Writing "Dusting" 2006

Finally, I took the leap and began to write poems in my own voice and the voices of the women in my past, who inevitably were talking about their work, housekeeping. I had to trust that those voices, while not conventionally important, still had something to say. At school, I had been taught the formal canon of literature: epic poems with catalogues of ships, poems about wars and the rumors of wars. Why not write a poem in the voice of a mother cataloguing the fabrics, with names as beautiful as those of ships ("gabardine, organdy, wool, madras" from "Naming the Fabrics") or a poem about sweeping while watching a news report about the Vietnam War on TV ("How I Learned to Sweep")? Each time I delved into one of the housekeeping "arts," I discovered deeper, richer materials and metaphors than I had anticipated. This is wonderful news for a writer. As Robert Frost once said about rhymes in a poem, "No surprise for the writer, no surprise for the reader." The things we discover while writing what we write tingle with that special energy and delight of not just writing a poem, but enlarging our understanding.

Dusting is the lowliest of the housekeeping arts. Any little girl with a rag can dust. But rather than dust, the little girl in my poem is writing her name on the furniture, something her mother keeps correcting. What a perfect metaphor for the changing roles of women which I've experienced in my own life: the mother believing that a woman's place is in the home, not in the public sphere; the girl from a younger generation wanting to make a name for herself.

And in writing "Dusting," I also discovered a metaphor about writing. A complicated balancing act: like the mother, the artist has to disappear in her work; it's the poem that counts, not the name or celebrity of the writer. But the artist also needs the little girl's pluck and ambition to even imagine a public voice for herself. Otherwise, she'd be swallowed up in self-doubt, silenced by her mother's old-world way of viewing a woman's role.

JULIA ALVAREZ***Dusting* 1981**

Each morning I wrote my name
 on the dusty cabinet, then crossed
 the dining table in script, scrawled
 in capitals on the backs of chairs,
 practicing signatures like scales 5
 while Mother followed, squirting
 linseed from a burping can
 into a crumpled-up flannel.

She erased my fingerprints
 from the bookshelf and rocker, 10
 polished mirrors on the desk
 scribbled with my alphabets.

My name was swallowed in the towel
 with which she jeweled the table tops.
 The grain surfaced in the oak 15
 and the pine grew luminous.
 But I refused with every mark
 to be like her, anonymous.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Describe the central conflict between the speaker and the mother.
2. Explain why the image of dusting is a particularly appropriate metaphor for evoking the central conflict.
3. Discuss the effect of the rhymes in lines 15–18.
4. Consider the tone of each stanza. Explain why you see them as identical or not.

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. Discuss the mother-daughter relationships in “Dusting” and in Cathy Song’s “The Youngest Daughter” (p. 89).

JULIA ALVAREZ***On Writing “Ironing Their Clothes”* 2006**

Maybe because ironing is my favorite of all the housekeeping chores, this is my favorite of the housekeeping poems. In the apprenticeship of household arts, ironing is for the advanced apprentice. After all, think about it, you’re wielding an instrument that could cause some damage: You could burn yourself, you could burn the clothes. I was not allowed to iron clothes until I was older

and could be trusted to iron all different kinds of fabrics (“gabardine, organdy, wool, madras”) just right.

Again, think of how ironing someone’s clothes can be a metaphor for all kinds of things. You have this power to take out the wrinkles and worries from someone’s outer skin! You can touch and caress and love someone and not be told that you are making a nuisance of yourself!

In writing this poem I wanted the language to mirror the process. I wanted the lines to suggest all the fussy complications of trying to get your iron into hard corners and places (“I stroked the yoke, / the breast pocket, collar and cuffs, / until the rumpled heap relaxed . . .”) and then the smooth sailing of a line that sails over the line break into the next line (“into the shape / of my father’s broad chest . . .”). I wanted to get the hiss of the iron in those last four lines. I revised and revised this poem, especially the verbs, most especially the verbs that have to do the actual work of the iron. When I finally got that last line with its double rhymes (“express / excess”; “love / cloth”), I felt as if I’d done a whole laundry basket worth of ironing just right.

JULIA ALVAREZ

Ironing Their Clothes 1981

With a hot glide up, then down, his shirts,
 I ironed out my father’s back, cramped
 and worried with work. I stroked the yoke,
 the breast pocket, collar and cuffs,
 until the rumpled heap relaxed into the shape 5
 of my father’s broad chest, the shoulders shrugged off
 the world, the collapsed arms spread for a hug.
 And if there’d been a face above the buttondown neck,
 I would have pressed the forehead out, I would
 have made a boy again out of that tired man! 10

If I clung to her skirt as she sorted the wash
 or put out a line, my mother frowned,
 a crease down each side of her mouth.
This is no time for love! But here
 I could linger over her wrinkled bedjacket, 15
 kiss at the damp puckers of her wrists
 with the hot tip. Here I caressed
 collars, scallops, ties, pleats which made
 her outfits test of the patience of my passion.
 Here I could lay my dreaming iron on her lap. 20

The smell of baked cotton rose from the board
 and blew with a breeze out the window
 to the family wardrobe drying on the clothesline,
 all needing a touch of my iron. Here I could tickle
 the underarms of my big sister’s petticoat 25

or secretly pat the backside of her pajamas.
 For she too would have warned me not to muss
 her fresh blouses, starched jumpers, and smocks,
 all that my careful hand had ironed out,
 forced to express my excess love on cloth.

30

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Explain how the speaker expresses her love for her family in the extended metaphor of ironing.
2. How are ironing and the poem itself expressions of the speaker's "excess love" (line 30)? In what sense is her love excessive?
3. Explain how the speaker's relationship to her father differs from how she relates to her mother.

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. **CREATIVE RESPONSE.** Compare the descriptions of mothers in this poem and in Alvarez's "Dusting" (p. 430). Write a one-paragraph character sketch that uses vivid details and metaphoric language to describe them.

JULIA ALVAREZ

On Writing "Sometimes the Words Are So Close" 2006

From the "33" Sonnet Sequence

I really believe that being a reader turns you into a writer. You connect with the voice in a poem at a deeper and more intimate level than you do with practically anyone in your everyday life. Seems like the years fall away, differences fall away, and when George Herbert asks in his poem, "The Flower,"

Who would have thought my shrivel'd heart
 Could have recover'd greenness?

You want to stroke the page and answer him, "I did, George." Instead you write a poem that responds to the feelings in his poem; you recover greenness for him and for yourself.

With the "33" sonnet sequence, I wanted the voice of the speaker to sound like a real woman speaking. A voice at once intimate and also somehow universal, essential. This sonnet #42 ["Sometimes the Words Are So Close"] is the last one in the sequence, a kind of final "testimony" about what writing is all about.

I mentioned that when you love something you read, you want to respond to it. You want to say it again, in fresh new language. Robert Frost speaks to this impulse in the poet when he says, "Don't borrow, steal!" Well, I borrowed/stole two favorite passages. One of them is from the poem on the Statue of

Liberty, which was written by Emma Lazarus (1849–1887), titled “The New Colossus” [p. 617]. These lines will sound familiar to you, I’m sure:

“Give me your tired, your poor,
Your huddled masses yearning to breathe free,
The wretched refuse of your teeming shore.
Send these, the homeless, tempest-tost to me,
I lift my lamp beside the golden door!”

I think of these lines, not just as an invitation to the land of the brave and home of the free, but an invitation to poetry! A poem can be a resting place for the soul yearning to breathe free, a form that won’t tolerate the misuses and abuses of language, a world teeming with discoveries and luminous little *ab-ha!* moments, a “place for the genuine,” as Marianne Moore calls it in her poem, “On Poetry.” William Carlos Williams said that we can’t get the news from poems, practical information, hard facts, but “men die daily for lack of what is found there.”

I not only agreed with this idea, but I wanted to say so in my own words, and so I echoed those lines from the Statue of Liberty in my sonnet:

Those of you lost and yearning to be free,
who hear these words, take heart from me.

Another favorite line comes from Walt Whitman’s book-length “Leaves of Grass”: “Who touches this [book] touches a man.” As a young, lonely immigrant girl reading Whitman, those words made me feel so accompanied, so connected. And so I borrowed/stole that line and made it my own at the end of this poem.

JULIA ALVAREZ

***Sometimes the Words Are So Close* 1982**

From the “33” Sonnet Sequence

Sometimes the words are so close I am
more who I am when I’m down on paper
than anywhere else as if my life were
practicing for the real me I become
unbuttoned from the anecdotal and 5
unnecessary and undressed down
to the figure of the poem, line by line,
the real text a child could understand.
Why do I get confused living it through?
Those of you lost and yearning to be free, 10
who hear these words, take heart from me.
I once was in as many drafts as you.
But briefly, essentially, here I am.
Who touches this poem touches a woman.

Sometimes the words are so close I am
 more who I am when I'm down on paper
 than anywhere else as if my life were
 practising for the real me I become
 unbuttoned from the anecdotal and
 unnecessary and undressed down
 to the figure of the poem, line by line,
 the real text a child could understand.
 Why do I get confused living it through?
 Those of you, lost and yearning to be free,
 who hear these words, take heart from me.
 I once was in as many drafts as you.

[But briefly, essentially, here I am...
 Who touches this poem touches a woman.]

pretentious

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Paraphrase lines 1–9. What produces the speaker's sense of frustration?
2. How do lines 10–14 resolve the question raised in line 9?
3. Explain how Alvarez's use of punctuation serves to reinforce the poem's meanings.
4. Discuss the elements of this poem that make it a sonnet.
5. Read carefully Alvarez's early drafts and discuss how they offer insights into your understanding and interpretation of the final version.

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. The poem's final line echoes Walt Whitman's poem "So Long" in which he addresses the reader: "Camerado, this is no book, / Who touches this touches a man." Alvarez has said that Whitman is one of her favorite poets. Read the selections by Whitman in this anthology (check the index for titles) along with "So Long" (readily available online) and explain why you think she admires his poetry.

JULIA ALVAREZ

On Writing "First Muse" 2006

I have to come clean about calling this poem, "First Muse."

I had another first muse in Spanish. Her name was Scheherazade and I read about her in a book my aunt gave me called *The Arabian Nights*. Scheherazade saves her life by telling the murderous sultan incredible tales night after night for 1001 nights. Listening to her stories, the sultan is transformed. He no



An excerpt from Alvarez's poem "Sometimes the Words Are So Close" is set by sculptor Gregg LeFevre in a bronze plaque on 41st Street in New York City, and is part of the "Library Way" — a display sponsored by the New York Public Library of sidewalk plaques that feature literary quotations from ninety-six artists and writers including Lucille Clifton, John Milton, and Pablo Picasso.

Courtesy of the Grand Central Partnership, New York and sculptor Gregg LeFevre.

longer wants to kill all the women in his kingdom. In fact, he falls in love with Scheherazade. This young lady saves her own life, the lives of all the women in her kingdom, and by changing him, she also saves the sultan's soul just by telling stories. Right then, I knew what I wanted to be when I grew up. You bet. A storyteller.

Of course, back then, I was growing up in the Dominican Republic, living in a cruel and dangerous dictatorship myself. My own father was a member of an underground freedom movement to depose this dictator. Like Scheherazade, my life and the life of many Dominicans was in danger. But stories like the ones in *The Arabian Nights* helped me dream that the world was a more exciting and mysterious place than I could even imagine. That I was free to travel on the magic carpet of Scheherazade's tales even if the dictatorship did not allow me to drive one town over without inspection and permission.

When I came into English and became a reader, I had new dreams. I wanted to be an American writer. But as I mentioned earlier, the United States of the

Long, long ago in a dim unknown land, 5
 A massive forest-tree, axe-felled, adze-hewn,
 Was deftly done by cunning mortal hand
 Into a symbol of the tender moon.
 Why does it thrill more than the handsome boat
 That bore me o'er the wild Atlantic ways, 10
 And fill me with rare sense of things remote
 From this harsh life of fretful nights and days?
 I cannot answer but, whate'er it be,
 An old wine has intoxicated me.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** What values are associated with the “primitive canoe” in the speaker’s mind?
2. Why do you think the speaker is “thrill[ed]” by the canoe?
3. Consider the final line. Does the reference to “old wine” seem consistent with the poem’s themes? Why or why not?

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. Compare the sources of the speakers’ exuberance in this poem and in Langston Hughes’s “Jazzonia” (p. 478).

LANGSTON HUGHES (1902–1967)

Langston Hughes is the best-known writer of the Harlem Renaissance. His literary production includes volumes of poetry, novels, short stories, essays, plays, opera librettos, histories, documentaries, autobiographies, anthologies, children’s books, and translations, as well as radio and television scripts. This impressive body of work makes him an important literary artist and a leading African American voice in the twentieth century. First and foremost, however, he considered himself a poet.

Born in Joplin, Missouri, Hughes grew up with his grandmother, although he did live from time to time with one or the other of his parents, who had separated early in his life. After attending Columbia University in 1921, Hughes wrote and published poetry while he worked a series of odd jobs and then traveled as a merchant seaman to Europe and Africa from 1923 to 1924. He jumped ship to work for several months as a kitchen helper in a Paris nightclub. After his return to the United States in 1925, he published poems in two black magazines, the *Crisis* and *Opportunity*, and met Carl Van Vechten, who sent his poems to the publisher Alfred A. Knopf. While working



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(Left) The publication of *The Weary Blues* in 1926 established Hughes as an important figure in the Harlem Renaissance, a cultural movement characterized by an explosion of black literature, theater, music, painting, and political and racial consciousness that began after the First World War. A stamp commemorating the centennial of Hughes's birth (2002) is but one illustration of his lasting impact on American poetry and culture.

Langston Hughes ©2002 United States Postal Service. All Rights Reserved. Used with Permission. Courtesy of Harold Ober Associates.

(Below) Langston Hughes claimed that Walt Whitman, Carl Sandburg, and Paul Laurence Dunbar were his greatest influences as a poet. However, the experience of black America from the 1920s through the 1960s, the life and language of Harlem, and a love of jazz and the blues clearly shaped the narrative and lyrical experimentation of his poetry. This image of a couple dancing in a Harlem nightclub is a snapshot of the life that influenced Hughes's work.

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as a busboy in a Washington, D.C., hotel, he met the poet Vachel Lindsay, who was instrumental in advancing Hughes's reputation as a poet. In 1926, Hughes published his first volume of poems, *The Weary Blues*, and enrolled at Lincoln University in Pennsylvania, his education funded by a generous patron. His second volume of verse, *Fine Clothes to Jews*, appeared in 1927, and by the time he graduated from Lincoln University in 1929, he was reading his poems publicly on a book tour of the South. Hughes ended the decade as more than a promising poet; as Countee Cullen pronounced in a mixed review of *The Weary Blues* (mixed because Cullen believed that black poets should embrace universal rather than racial themes), Hughes had "arrived."

Hughes wrote more prose than poetry in the 1930s, publishing his first novel, *Not without Laughter* (1930), and a collection of stories, *The Ways of White Folks* (1934). In addition to writing a variety of magazine articles, he also worked on a number of plays and screenplays. Many of his poems from this period reflect proletarian issues. During this decade, Hughes's travels took him to all points of the compass—Cuba, Haiti, the Soviet Union, China, Japan, Mexico, France, and Spain—but his general intellectual movement was decidedly left. Hughes was attracted to the American Communist Party, owing to its insistence on equality for all working-class people regardless of race. Like many other Americans in the thirties, he turned his attention away from the exotic twenties and focused on the economic and political issues attending the Great Depression that challenged the freedom and dignity of common humanity.

Over the course of his four-decade career writing fiction, nonfiction, and plays—many of them humorous—he continued to publish poems, among them the collections *Shakespeare in Harlem* (1942); *Lament for Dark Peoples, and Other Poems* (1944); *Montage of a Dream Deferred* (1951); and *Selected Poems by Langston Hughes* (1959). His work, regardless of genre, remained clearly centered on the black experience in America, a focus that made him a powerful influence for subsequent writers who were encouraged by Hughes's writing to explore for themselves racial themes in literary art.

Despite the tremendous amount that Hughes published—including two autobiographies, *The Big Sea* (1940) and *I Wonder as I Wonder* (1956)—he remains somewhat elusive. He never married or had friends who could lay claim to truly knowing him beyond what he wanted them to know (even though several biographies have been published). And yet, Hughes is well known—not for his personal life but for his treatment of the possibilities of black American experiences and identities.

The Negro Speaks of Rivers 1921

I've known rivers:

I've known rivers ancient as the world and older than the
flow of human blood in human veins.

My soul has grown deep like the rivers.

I bathed in the Euphrates when dawns were young. 5
 I built my hut near the Congo and it lulled me to sleep.
 I looked upon the Nile and raised the pyramids above it.
 I heard the singing of the Mississippi when Abe Lincoln
 went down to New Orleans, and I've seen its muddy
 bosom turn all golden in the sunset. 10

I've known rivers:
 Ancient, dusky rivers.

My soul has grown deep like the rivers.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** What do you associate with images of rivers? What connotations run through them for you?
2. How does the speaker identify with the rivers?
3. Why do you think the poet chose to evoke the Euphrates, Congo, Nile, and Mississippi rivers in the poem?

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. Compare the meaning of time for this speaker with that for the speaker in Claude McKay's "On a Primitive Canoe" (p. 474).

Jazzonia 1923

Oh, silver tree!
 Oh, shining rivers of the soul!
 In a Harlem cabaret
 Six long-headed jazzers play.
 A dancing girl whose eyes are bold 5
 Lifts high a dress of silken gold.

Oh, singing tree!
 Oh, shining rivers of the soul!

Were Eve's eyes
 In the first garden 10
 Just a bit too bold?
 Was Cleopatra gorgeous
 In a gown of gold?

Oh, shining tree!
 Oh, silver rivers of the soul! 15

In a whirling cabaret
 Six long-headed jazzers play.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Does "Jazzonia" capture what you imagine a Harlem cabaret to have been like? Discuss the importance of the setting.

A THEMATIC CASE STUDY
 Crossing Boundaries



Courtesy of the author and the Sandra Dijkstra Literary Agency.

As immigrants we have this enormous raw material. . . . We draw from a dual culture, with two sets of worldviews and paradigms juxtaposing each other.

— CHITRA BANERJEE DIVAKARUNI

This chapter brings together six poems and a variety of images that center on the theme of crossing borders. The borders referred to in these poems mark not only geographic or political divisions but also the uncertain and indeterminate borders associated with culture, class, race, ethnicity, and gender. Even if we have never left our home state or country, we have all moved back and forth across such defining lines as we negotiate the margins and edges of our personal identities within the particular worlds we inhabit. Any first-year college student, for example, knows that college life and demanding course work represent a significant border crossing: increased academic challenges, responsibility, and autonomy likely reflect an entirely new culture for the student. By Thanksgiving vacation, students know (as do their parents and friends) that they've crossed an invisible border that causes a slight shift in their identity because they've done some growing and maturing.

The poems and visuals in this chapter explore a wide range of border crossings. Phillis Wheatley was kidnapped and forced across borders in 1761 when she was brought to America as a slave. Her poem "On Being Brought from Africa to America" offers a fascinating argument against racism. Wheatley's perspective is deepened by a diagram of a ship and an advertisement for an auction that vividly illustrate how slaves were transported and marketed. Racial tensions are internalized in Pat Mora's "Legal Alien" and Jacalyn López García's "I Just Wanted to Be Me," which describe the dilemma of being raised as a Mexican American. Sandra M. Gilbert examines the pain caused by ethnic stereotyping in "Mafioso," which is complemented by a revealing photograph of Italian immigrant children as they are processed at Ellis Island. The anxieties felt by new immigrants and their yearnings for the life they left behind are the subject of Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni's "Indian Movie, New Jersey," which is paired with an optimistic cover of a Bollywood film soundtrack. The prejudice that causes some of the anxiety in that poem is also evident in Janice Mirikitani's "Recipe," a satire commenting on the impact of Western beauty ideals on Japanese girls and women. The relevance of that problem is brought home in the accompanying photograph by Chiaki Tsukumo of a child holding one of Japan's most popular dolls. Finally, Thomas Lynch's "Liberty" provides an amusing but pointed look at an Irish American who finds suburban life to be a lamentable state compared to the life of his ancestors in Ireland. The photograph of a crowded, working-class suburb that follows the poem tidily captures Lynch's themes.

A list of additional thematically related poems is located at the end of this chapter.

TRANSCENDENCE AND BORDERS

Born in West Africa, Phillis Wheatley was kidnapped and brought to America in 1761 and sold to John and Susannah Wheatley of Boston. She was taught to read and write and was then freed at about the age of thirteen. Her remarkable intelligence and talents led Susannah to help her publish *Poems on Various Subjects, Religious and Moral* in 1773. The influence of religion on her poetry is clearly evident in "On Being Brought from Africa to America." Wheatley's response to having been a slave in America is complicated by her acceptance of the religion, language, and even the literary style of the white culture that she found there. The harsh nature of slavery is apparent, however, in the diagram of a slave ship and a slave auction advertisement. Do these documents qualify Wheatley's description of her origins and the new world into which she was brought as a slave?

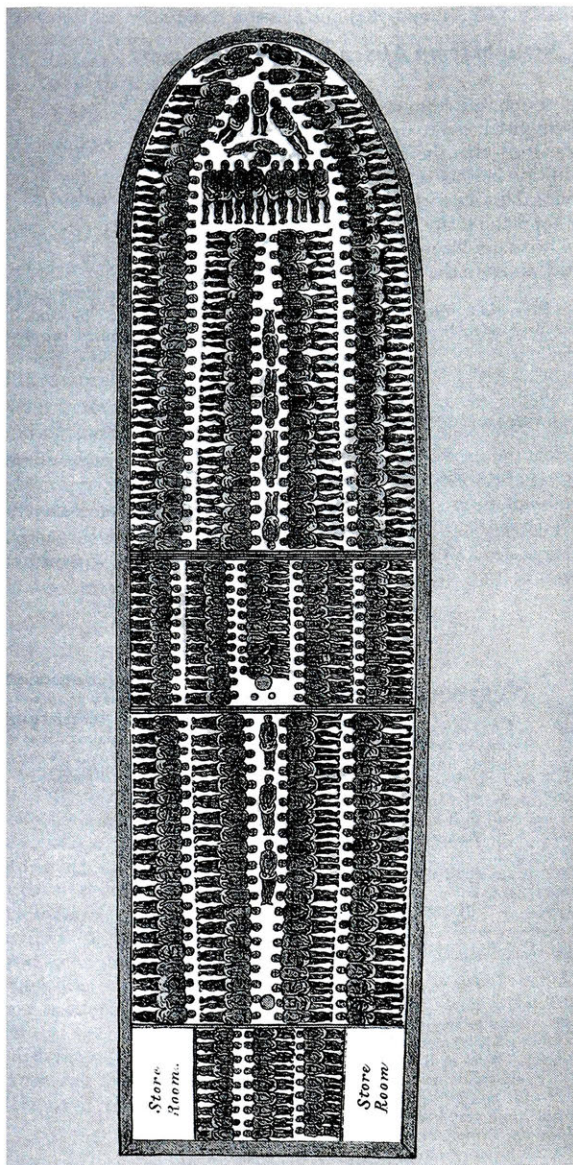


Diagram of an Eighteenth-Century Slave Ship. Often tightly packed and confined in spaces smaller than graves, slaves were subjected to inadequate ventilation and extremely unsanitary conditions. Many died of suffocation or disease during the 3,700-mile voyage from Africa to America.

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PHILLIS WHEATLEY (1753?–1784)

On Being Brought from Africa to America 1773

'Twas mercy brought me from my pagan land,
 Taught my benighted soul to understand
 That there's a God — that there's a Saviour too;
 Once I redemption neither sought nor knew.
 Some view our sable race with scornful eye —
 "Their color is a diabolic dye."

Remember, Christians, Negroes black as Cain⁷
 May be refined, and join the angelic train.

7 *Cain*: In the Bible, Cain murdered Abel and was therefore "marked" by God. That mark has been interpreted by some readers as the origin of dark-skinned people (see Genesis 4:1–15).

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. How does the speaker argue against the pervasive racist views concerning Africans in the eighteenth century?
2. Do you find the argument convincing? Explain whether your own refutation of racism would be argued on similar or other grounds.
3. What arguments are put forth on the slave-auction poster? What attitudes are revealed by its author's choice of words?



Negroes for Sale.

A Cargo of very fine stout Men and Women, in good order and fit for immediate service, just imported from the Windward Coast of Africa, in the Ship Two Brothers.—

Conditions are one half Cash or Produce, the other half payable the first of January next, giving Bond and Security if required.

The Sale to be opened at 10 o'Clock each Day, in Mr. Bourdeaux's Yard, at No. 48, on the Bay.

May 19, 1784. JOHN MITCHELL.

1784 Slave-Auction Advertisement.

In preparation for sale at auction, slaves were fed and washed by the ship's crew. Tar or palm oil was used to disguise sores or wounds caused by poor conditions on board.

© Corbis.

Thirty Seasoned Negroes

To be Sold for Credit, at Private Sale.

AMONGST which is a Carpenter, none of whom are known to be dishonest.

Also; to be sold for Cash, a regular tred young Negroe Man-Cook, born in this Country, who served several Years under an exceeding good French Cook abroad, and his Wife a middle aged Wather-Woman, (both very honest) and their two Children. — Likewise, a young Man a Carpenter.

For Terms apply to the Printer.

4. Consider Wheatley's poem alongside the slave-ship diagram and the advertisement for a slave auction. How do you account for the speaker's attitude toward slavery and redemption in relation to the historical realities of slavery?

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. Compare the tone and theme of Wheatley's poem with those of Langston Hughes's "Harlem" (p. 482).

IDENTITY AND BORDERS

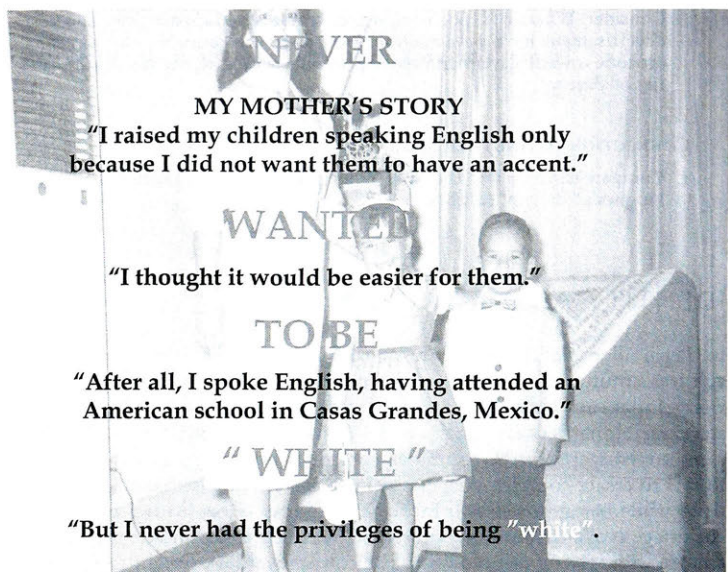
In "Legal Alien" Pat Mora explores the difficulties of living in two different cultures simultaneously. The poem's speaker, both Mexican and American, worries that each cultural identity displaces the other, leaving the speaker standing alone between both worlds. Similarly, Jacalyn López García, a multimedia artist who combines computer art, video, and music CD-ROMs to create complex images, explores the dilemmas that she encountered while being raised as a Mexican American. How do the poem and the image evoke the tensions produced by trying to assimilate into a new culture while trying to hold on to the cultural values brought from one's native country?

PAT MORA (B. 1942)

Legal Alien 1985

Bi-lingual, Bi-cultural,
 able to slip from "How's life?"
 to "*Me'stan volviendo loca*,"³
 able to sit in a paneled office
 drafting memos in smooth English, 5
 able to order in fluent Spanish
 at a Mexican restaurant,
 American but hyphenated,
 viewed by Anglos as perhaps exotic,
 perhaps inferior, definitely different, 10
 viewed by Mexicans as alien,
 (their eyes say, "You may speak
 Spanish but you're not like me")
 an American to Mexicans
 a Mexican to Americans 15

3 *Me'stan . . . loca*: They are driving me crazy.



I Just Wanted to Be Me (1997), by Jacalyn López García. In her multimedia exhibit *Glass Houses*, García explores family history and issues of identity. "As we crossed the Mexican border, the border patrol would ask me my citizenship. I would reply, 'American' because my parents taught me to say that. But in California, people would ask me 'What are you?' . . . I would proudly reply 'Mexican.' It wasn't until I became a teenager that I claimed I was 'Mexican-American.'" Once, a white neighbor reported to authorities that García's mother was undocumented. "I was only seven years old when my mother was deported, my brother was six. The Christmas tree stayed up until Mom returned home in April of the following year." Reprinted by permission of Jacalyn López García.

a handy token
 sliding back and forth
 between the fringes of both worlds
 by smiling
 by masking the discomfort
 of being pre-judged
 Bi-laterally.

20

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** What is the nature of the discomfort the speaker experiences as an "American but hyphenated" (line 8)? Explain whether you think the advantages outweigh the disadvantages.
2. What qualities do you think make someone an American? How does your description compare with your classmates' views? How do you account for the differences or similarities?

3. Discuss the appropriateness of the poem's title. How does it encapsulate the speaker's emotional as well as official status?
4. How do poet Pat Mora and artist Jacalyn López García incorporate multiple voices into their work? Why do you think they do so?

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. Compare and contrast the speakers' responses to "sliding back and forth / between the fringes of both worlds" (lines 17–18) in Mora's "Legal Alien" and in Julia Alvarez's "Queens, 1963" (p. 422).

IMMIGRATION AND BORDERS

Ethnic stereotypes are the legacy Sandra M. Gilbert examines in "Mafioso." Her poem raises important questions about the way popular culture shapes our assumptions about and perceptions of ethnic groups. How much of what we regard as quintessentially Italian American is generated by films like *The Godfather* or television programs like *The Sopranos*? How did most immigrants actually work to become Americans once they arrived on the country's shores? A glimpse of the nature of that struggle is suggested by the 1911 photograph of three boys undergoing an examination at Ellis Island. Do you think the photograph supports or qualifies Gilbert's assessment of the difficulties immigrants faced upon their arrival in America?

SANDRA M. GILBERT (b. 1936)

Mafioso 1979

Frank Costello eating spaghetti in a cell at San Quentin,
Lucky Luciano mixing up a mess of bullets and
calling for parmesan cheese,
Al Capone baking a sawed-off shotgun into a
huge lasagna —

are you my uncles, my
only uncles?

O Mafiosi,
bad uncles of the barren
cliffs of Sicily — was it only you
that they transported in barrels
like pure olive oil
across the Atlantic?

Was it only you
who got out at Ellis Island with
black scarves on your heads and cheap cigars
and no English and a dozen children?

5

10

15

No carts were waiting, gallant with paint,
 no little donkeys plumed like the dreams of peacocks.

Only the evil eyes of a thousand buildings
 stared across at the echoing debarkation center,
 making it seem so much smaller than a piazza,

20

only a half dozen Puritan millionaires stood on the wharf,
 in the wind colder than the impossible snows of the Abruzzi,
 ready with country clubs and dynamos

25

to grind the organs out of you.



Baggage Examined Here (1911). Between 1880 and 1920, nearly four million Italian immigrants came to the United States, most arriving in New York City and settling in cities along the East Coast. While first- and second-class steamship passengers were quickly inspected onboard and allowed to disembark in Manhattan, third-class passengers, such as the boys in this photo, were taken to Ellis Island, where they were subjected to a series of medical examinations and interviews. Inspectors marked the immigrants' clothing with chalk, indicating the need for further examination: *Sc* for scalp disease, *G* for goiter, *H* for hernia, *L* for lameness, or *S* for senility.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** In what sense are the gangsters Frank Costello, Lucky Luciano, and Al Capone in the first stanza to be understood as “bad uncles” (line 9)? How does the speaker feel about the “uncles”?
2. Explain how nearly all of the images in the poem are associated with Italian life. Does the poem reinforce stereotypes about Italians or invoke images about them for some other purpose? If so, what other purpose?
3. What sort of people are the “Puritan millionaires” (line 23)? What is their relationship to the “bad uncles”?
4. Consider the photograph. Why was it taken? What does this image convey about attitudes toward working-class immigrants processed at Ellis Island? How do the words “Baggage Examined Here” function in the image? How do these words connect with the last line of Gilbert’s poem (“to grind the organs out of you”)? What comments are the photograph and poem making about the experience?

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. How do the attitudes conveyed in “Mafioso” and the photograph *Baggage Examined Here* compare with the sentiments expressed in Emma Lazarus’s “The New Colossus” (p. 617), the poem inscribed at the base of the Statue of Liberty?

EXPECTATIONS AND BORDERS

The immigrants’ dream of America is deeply present in Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni’s “Indian Movie, New Jersey.” The hopeful expectation that immigrants bring with them takes on a nostalgic and melancholy tone as the speaker contrasts America as imagined to the country that is experienced. The Indian movie offers yet another dream that suggests a powerful yearning for a different kind of life than the one found in New Jersey. Is the movie version of India any more or less real than the speaker’s picture of America? Is this poem more about disillusionment or delusion?

CHITRA BANERJEE DIVAKARUNI (b. 1956)

Indian Movie, New Jersey 1990

Not like the white filmstars, all rib
and gaunt cheekbone, the Indian sex-goddess
smiles plumply from behind a flowery
branch. Below her brief red skirt, her thighs
are satisfying-solid, redeeming
as tree trunks. She swings her hips
and the men-viewers whistle. The lover-hero
dances in to a song, his lip-sync

a little off, but no matter, we
 know the words already and sing along. 10
 It is safe here, the day
 golden and cool so no one sweats,
 roses on every bush and the Dal Lake
 clean again.

The sex-goddess switches 15
 to thickened English to emphasize
 a joke. We laugh and clap. Here
 we need not be embarrassed by words
 dropping like lead pellets into foreign ears.
 The flickering movie-light 20
 wipes from our faces years of America, sons
 who want mohawks and refuse to run
 the family store, daughters who date
 on the sly.

When at the end the hero 25
 dies for his friend who also
 loves the sex-goddess and now can marry her,
 we weep, understanding. Even the men
 clear their throats to say, "What *qurbani!*°
 What *dosti!*"° After, we mill around *sacrifice*
 unwilling to leave, exchange greetings *friendship* 30
 and good news: a new gold chain, a trip
 to India. We do not speak
 of motel raids, canceled permits, stones
 thrown through glass windows, daughters and sons
 raped by Dotbusters.° 35

In this dim foyer
 we can pull around us the faint, comforting smell
 of incense and *pakorās*,° can arrange *fried appetizers*
 our children's marriages with hometown boys and girls, 40
 open a franchise, win a million
 in the mail. We can retire
 in India, a yellow two-storied house
 with wrought-iron gates, our own
 Ambassador car. Or at least 45
 move to a rich white suburb, Summerfield
 or Fort Lee, with neighbors that will
 talk to us. Here while the film-songs still echo
 in the corridors and restrooms, we can trust
 in movie truths: sacrifice, success, love and luck, 50
 the America that was supposed to be.

36 *Dotbusters*: New Jersey gangs that attack Indians.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Why does the speaker feel comfortable at the movies? How is the world inside the theater different from life outside in New Jersey?



Rawal Films, *Ladki Pasand Hai (I Like This Girl)* (1971). India's massive Hindi-language film industry, known as Bollywood (a play on the word *Hollywood*, with the *B* representing Bombay), produces twice as many films as Hollywood each year, with a huge international audience. Bollywood films are churned out so quickly that sometimes scripts are handwritten and actors on set shoot scenes for multiple films. Traditionally, these colorful extravaganzas, chock full of singing, dancing, and multiple costume changes, stick to a "boy meets girl" formula — a hero and heroine fall in love and then struggle for family approval. This image is from the soundtrack to a 1971 film with a typical Bollywood plot.

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2. Explain the differences portrayed by the speaker between life in India and life in New Jersey. What connotative values are associated with each location in the poem? Discuss the irony in the final two lines.
3. How do the ideas and values of the Bollywood poster contrast with the realities conveyed in the last part of the poem?

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. Explain how the speaker's idea of "the America that was supposed to be" (line 51) compares with the nation described in Florence Cassen Mayers's "All-American Sestina" (p. 250).

BEAUTY AND BORDERS

Janice Mirikitani, a third-generation Japanese American, reflects on dominant cultural standards of beauty in “Recipe.” Women who do not meet such standards—especially women of color—can be faced with complicated decisions about how they want to appear, decisions that go far more than skin deep. Chiaki Tsukumo’s 2003 photograph of a young Tokyo girl holding a popular Western-style doll demonstrates how powerful Western concepts of beauty are, even among non-Western people. Why are “Round Eyes” so desirable? What kind of price is paid for such a desire?

JANICE MIRIKITANI (b. 1942)

Recipe 1987

Round Eyes

Ingredients: scissors, Scotch magic transparent tape,
eyeliner—water based, black.
Optional: false eyelashes.

Cleanse face thoroughly.

5

For best results, powder entire face, including eyelids.
(lighter shades suited to total effect desired)

With scissors, cut magic tape $\frac{1}{16}$ " wide, $\frac{3}{4}$ "– $\frac{1}{2}$ " long—
depending on length of eyelid.

Stick firmly onto mid-upper eyelid area
(looking down into handmirror facilitates finding
adequate surface)

10

If using false eyelashes, affix first on lid, folding any
excess lid over the base of eyelash with glue.

Paint black eyeliner on tape and entire lid.

15

Do not cry.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Discuss your response to the poem’s final line.
2. Why does Mirikitani write the poem in recipe form? What is the effect of the very specific details of this recipe?
3. Why is “false eyelashes” (line 4) a particularly resonant phrase in the context of this poem?
4. Consider and note the Licca doll’s hair, eyes, and costume in the photograph by Chiaki Tsukumo. How do you account for the success of the Licca doll? What do you make of the toymaker’s claim that the doll makes “girls’ dreams and wishes come true”? What dreams and wishes do you think the toymaker is selling? How do the ideals that the toymaker (Takara) associates with the Licca doll compare with those associated with Barbie?
5. How does the paragraph connect with Mirikitani’s satirical poem?



Girl with Licca Doll, by Chiaki Tsukumo (2003). According to the Japanese toymaker Takara, “Licca-chan was developed to make girls’ dreams and wishes come true” and “to nurture kindness, gentleness, and love in children.” A fan’s personal Web site notes that Licca-chan “hates arithmetic, but she’s good at language, music, and art.” Her favorite books are *Anne of Green Gables* and *A Little Princess*, and she loves eating ice cream and window-shopping. First introduced in 1967, the doll has since sold nearly fifty million units and become, according to the toymaker, a national character that has inspired a Licca-chan generation of women consumers.

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CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. How might the voice in Michelle Boisseau’s “Self-Pity’s Closet” (p. 569) be read as a version of the speaker in “Recipe”?

FREEDOM AND BORDERS

Thomas Lynch’s “Liberty” is an amusing protest against conformity, the kind of middling placidity often associated with suburban life in America. The blustery Irish speaker in this poem laments the lost world his ancestors inhabited in Ireland and longs for the “form[s] of freedom” that they once enjoyed. Though the speaker may cause us to smile, his complaint is serious nonetheless. The potential validity of his assessment of suburban life is presented visually in the accompanying photograph of Somerville, Massachusetts, a suburb of Boston. How might Lynch’s speaker be considered a resident of one of those houses? Does the arrangement of the streets

and houses help to explain the attitudes expressed in the poem? What are your own views about the suburbs?

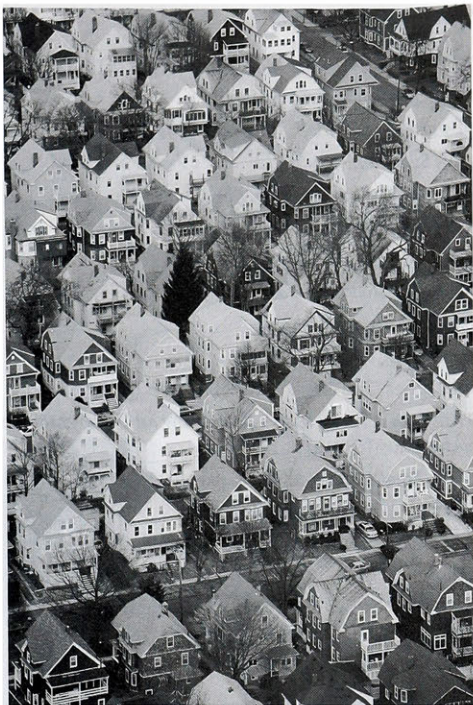
THOMAS LYNCH (B. 1948)

Liberty 1998

Some nights I go out and piss on the front lawn
 as a form of freedom – liberty from
 porcelain and plumbing and the Great Beyond
 beyond the toilet and the sewage works.
 Here is the statement I am trying to make: 5
 to say I am from a fierce bloodline of men
 who made their water in the old way, under stars
 that overarched the North Atlantic where
 the River Shannon empties into sea.
 The ex-wife used to say, “Why can’t you pee 10
 in concert with the most of humankind
 who do their business tidily indoors?”
 It was gentility or envy, I suppose,
 because I could do it anywhere, and do
 whenever I begin to feel encumbered. 15
 Still, there is nothing, here in the suburbs,
 as dense as the darkness in West Clare
 nor any equivalent to the nightlong wind
 that rattles in the hedgerow of whitethorn there
 on the east side of the cottage yard in Moveen. 20
 It was market day in Kilrush, years ago:
 my great-great-grandfather bargained with tinkers
 who claimed it was whitethorn that Christ’s crown was made from.
 So he gave them two and six and brought them home –
 mere saplings then – as a gift for the missus, 25
 who planted them between the house and garden.
 For years now, men have slipped out the back door
 during wakes or wedding feasts or nights of song
 to pay their homage to the holy trees
 and, looking up into that vast firmament, 30
 consider liberty in that last townland where
 they have no crowns, no crappers and no ex-wives.

CONSIDERATIONS FOR CRITICAL THINKING AND WRITING

1. **FIRST RESPONSE.** Does “gentility or envy” (line 13) get in the way of your enjoyment and appreciation of this poem? Explain why or why not.
2. Characterize the speaker and explain why you find him engaging or not. What sort of “liberty” does he insist on?
3. Consider the aerial photograph of Somerville, Massachusetts (p. 539). What strikes you about this landscape? What is the thinking behind this example of city planning? How does such a plan affect personal freedoms, and how might it inspire rebellion such as that of the speaker in Lynch’s poem?



Somerville, Massachusetts, by Steve Dunwell. Between 1870 and 1915, new streetcar lines in the Boston suburb of Somerville spurred major population growth in the area. Many of the newcomers were immigrants, including Irish workers attracted by plentiful jobs at the brickyards and in the slaughtering and meatpacking industry. The two-family houses in this photograph were built around 1910 to house the new population. By World War II, these neighborhoods swelled to a population density said to be greater than that of Calcutta.

© Getty Images.

CONNECTION TO ANOTHER SELECTION

1. Discuss Lynch's treatment of suburban life and compare it with that of John Ciardi in "Suburban" (p. 511). What similarities are there in the themes and metaphoric strategies of these two poems?

SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR LONGER PAPERS

1. Write an essay that develops a common theme or thread that you find in all six poems presented in this chapter. You may explore similarities or differences concerning any aspect of the border crossings they examine.
2. Choose one of the poems listed on page 540 and research at least three images that complement, extend, or qualify the poem. Select rich images that allow you to write an essay explaining how they are thematically connected to the idea of crossing boundaries in the poem.

for informing the reader, it serves as a means of learning for the writer. An essay is a process of discovery as well as a record of what has been discovered. One of the chief benefits of writing is that we frequently realize what we want to say only after trying out ideas on a page and seeing our thoughts take shape in language.

More specifically, writing about a literary work encourages us to be better readers because it requires a close examination of the elements of a short story, poem, or play. To determine how plot, character, setting, point of view, style, tone, irony, or any number of other literary elements function in a work, we must study them in relation to one another as well as separately. Speed-reading won't do. To read a text accurately and validly—neither ignoring nor distorting significant details—we must return to the work repeatedly to test our responses and interpretations. By paying attention to details and being sensitive to the author's use of language, we develop a clearer understanding of how the work conveys its effects and meanings.

Nevertheless, students sometimes ask why it is necessary or desirable to write about a literary work. Why not allow stories, poems, and plays to speak for themselves? Isn't it presumptuous to interpret Hemingway, Dickinson, or Shakespeare? These writers do, of course, speak for themselves, but they do so indirectly. Literary criticism seeks not to replace the text by explaining it but to enhance our readings of works by calling attention to elements that we might have overlooked or only vaguely sensed.

Another misunderstanding about the purpose of literary criticism is that it crankily restricts itself to finding faults in a work. Critical essays are sometimes mistakenly equated with newspaper and magazine reviews of recently published works. Reviews typically include summaries and evaluations to inform readers about a work's nature and quality, but critical essays assume that readers are already familiar with a work. Although a critical essay may point out limitations and flaws, most criticism—and certainly the kind of essay usually written in an introductory literature course—is designed to explain, analyze, and reveal the complexities of a work. Such sensitive consideration increases our appreciation of the writer's achievement and significantly adds to our enjoyment of a short story, poem, or play. In short, the purpose and value of writing about literature are that doing so leads to greater understanding and pleasure.

READING THE WORK CLOSELY

Know the piece of literature you are writing about before you begin your essay. Think about how the work makes you feel and how it is put together. The more familiar you are with how the various elements of the text convey effects and meanings, the more confident you will be explaining whatever perspective on it you ultimately choose. Do not insist that everything make sense on a first reading. Relax and enjoy yourself; you can be attentive

and still allow the author's words to work their magic on you. With subsequent readings, however, go more slowly and analytically as you try to establish relations between characters, actions, images, or whatever else seems important. Ask yourself why you respond as you do. Think as you read, and notice how the parts of a work contribute to its overall nature. Whether the work is a short story, poem, or play, you will read relevant portions of it over and over, and you will very likely find more to discuss in each review if the work is rich.

It's best to avoid reading other critical discussions of a work before you are thoroughly familiar with it. There are several good reasons for following this advice. By reading interpretations before you know a work, you deny yourself the pleasure of discovery. That is a bit like starting with the last chapter in a mystery novel. But perhaps even more important than protecting the surprise and delight that a work might offer is that a premature reading of a critical discussion will probably short-circuit your own responses. You will see the work through the critic's eyes and have to struggle with someone else's perceptions and ideas before you can develop your own.

Reading criticism can be useful, but not until you have thought through your own impressions of the text. A guide should not be permitted to become a tyrant. This does not mean, however, that you should avoid background information about a work—for example, that the title of Ann Lauinger's "Marvell Noir" (p. 80) alludes to Andrew Marvell's earlier *carpe diem* poem, "To His Coy Mistress" (p. 78). Knowing something about the author as well as historic and literary contexts can help create expectations that enhance your reading.

ANNOTATING THE TEXT AND JOURNAL NOTE-TAKING

As you read, get in the habit of annotating your texts. Whether you write marginal notes, highlight, underline, or draw boxes and circles around important words and phrases, you'll eventually develop a system that allows you to retrieve significant ideas and elements from the text. Another way to record your impressions of a work—as with any other experience—is to keep a journal. By writing down your reactions to characters, images, language, actions, and other matters in a reading journal, you can often determine why you like or dislike a work or feel sympathetic or antagonistic to an author or discover paths into a work that might have eluded you if you hadn't preserved your impressions. Your journal notes and annotations may take whatever form you find useful; full sentences and grammatical correctness are not essential (unless they are to be handed in and your instructor requires that), though they might allow you to make better sense of your own reflections days later. The point is simply to put in writing thoughts that you can retrieve when you need them for class discussion

or a writing assignment. Consider the following student annotation of the first twenty-four lines of Andrew Marvell's "To His Coy Mistress" and the journal entry that follows it:

Annotated Text

If we had time... (Had we but world enough, and time,
This coyness, lady, were no crime — Waste life and you steal from yourself.
We would sit down, and think which way
To walk, and pass our long love's day.
Thou by the Indian Ganges side
Shouldst rubies find; I by the tide
Of Humber would complain.° I would
Love you ten years before the Flood,
And you should, if you please, refuse
Till the conversion of the Jews.
My vegetable love should grow,°
Vaster than empires, and more slow;
An hundred years should go to praise
Thine eyes and on thy forehead gaze,
Two hundred to adore each breast,
But thirty thousand to the rest:
An age at least to every part,
And the last age should show your heart.
For, lady, you deserve this state,
Nor would I love at lower rate.
But at my back I always hear
Time's wingèd chariot hurrying near;
And yonder all before us lie
Deserts of vast eternity. — This eternity rushes in.

Contrast river and desert images.

Measurements of time.
write love songs
slow, unconscious growth

Lines move faster here — tone changes.

Journal Note

He'd be patient and wait for his "mistress" if they had the time — sing songs, praise her, adore her, etc. But they don't have that much time according to him. He seems to be patient but he actually begins by calling patience — her coyness — a "crime." Looks to me like he's got his mind made up from the beginning of the poem. Where's her response? I'm not sure about him.

This journal note responds to some of the effects noted in the annotations of the poem; it's an excellent beginning for making sense of the speaker's argument in the poem.

Taking notes will preserve your initial reactions to the work. Many times first impressions are the best. Your response to a peculiar character, a striking phrase, or a subtle pun might lead to larger perceptions. The student

paper on “The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock” (p. 690), for example, began with the student making notes in the margins of the text about the disembodied images of eyes and arms that appear in the poem. This, along with the fragmentary thoughts and style of the speaker, eventually led her to examine the significance of the images and how they served to characterize Prufrock.

You should take detailed notes only after you’ve read through the work. If you write too many notes during the first reading, you’re likely to disrupt your response. Moreover, until you have a sense of the entire work, it will be difficult to determine how connections can be made among its various elements. In addition to recording your first impressions and noting significant passages, images, diction, and so on, you should consult the Questions for Responsive Reading and Writing on page 58. These questions can assist you in getting inside a work as well as organizing your notes.

Inevitably, you will take more notes than you finally use in the paper. Note-taking is a form of thinking aloud, but because your ideas are on paper you don’t have to worry about forgetting them. As you develop a better sense of a potential topic, your notes will become more focused and detailed.

CHOOSING A TOPIC

If your instructor assigns a topic or offers a choice from among an approved list of topics, some of your work is already completed. Instead of being asked to come up with a topic about Emily Dickinson’s poems in this anthology, you may be assigned a three-page essay that specifically discusses “Dickinson’s Treatment of Grief in ‘The Bustle in a House.’” You also have the assurance that a specified topic will be manageable within the suggested number of pages. Unless you ask your instructor for permission to write on a different or related topic, be certain to address yourself to the assignment. An essay that does not discuss grief but instead describes Dickinson’s relationship with her father would be missing the point. Notice, too, that there is room even in an assigned topic to develop your own approach. One question that immediately comes to mind is whether grief defeats or helps the speaker in the poem. Assigned topics do not relieve you of thinking about an aspect of a work, but they do focus your thinking.

At some point during the course, you may have to begin an essay from scratch. You might, for example, be asked to write about a poem that somehow impressed you or that seemed particularly well written or filled with insights. Before you start considering a topic, you should have a sense of how long the paper will be because the assigned length can help determine the extent to which you should develop your topic.

Ideally, the paper's length should be based on how much space you deem necessary to present your discussion clearly and convincingly, but if you have any doubts and no specific guidelines have been indicated, ask. The question is important; a topic that might be appropriate for a three-page paper could be too narrow for ten pages. Three pages would probably be adequate for a discussion of the speaker's view of death in John Keats's "To Autumn" (p. 123). Conversely, it would be futile to try to summarize Keats's use of sensuality in his poetry in even ten pages; the topic would have to be narrowed to something like "Images of Sensuality in 'La Belle Dame sans Merci.'" Be sure that the topic you choose can be adequately covered in the assigned number of pages.

Once you have a firm sense of how much you are expected to write, you can begin to decide on your topic. If you are to choose a work to write about, select one that genuinely interests you. Too often students pick a poem because it is mercifully short or seems simple. Such works can certainly be the subjects of fine essays, but simplicity should not be the major reason for selecting them. Choose a work that has moved you so that you have something to say about it. The student who wrote about "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock" was initially attracted to the poem's imagery because she had heard a friend (no doubt an English major) jokingly quote Prufrock's famous lament that "I should have been a pair of ragged claws / Scuttling across the floors of silent seas." Her paper then grew out of her curiosity about the meaning of the images. When a writer is engaged in a topic, the paper has a better chance of being interesting to a reader.

After you have settled on a particular work, your notes and annotations of the text should prove useful for generating a topic. The student paper on Prufrock developed naturally from the notes (p. 689) that the student jotted down about the images. If you think with a pen in your hand, you are likely to find when you review your notes that your thoughts have clustered into one or more topics. Perhaps there are patterns of imagery that seem to make a point about life. There may be symbols that are ironically paired or levels of diction that reveal certain qualities about the speaker. Your notes and annotations on such aspects can lead you to a particular effect or impression. Having chuckled your way through Peter Meinke's "The ABC of Aerobics" (p. 283), you may discover that your notations about the poem's humor point to a serious satire of society's values.

DEVELOPING A THESIS

When you are satisfied that you have something interesting to say about a work and that your notes have led you to a focused topic, you can formulate a *thesis*, the central idea of the paper. Whereas the topic indicates what the paper focuses on (the disembodied images in "Prufrock," for example), the

thesis explains what you have to say about the topic (the frightening images of eyes, arms, and claws reflect Prufrock's disjointed, fragmentary response to life). The thesis should be a complete sentence (though sometimes it may require more than one sentence) that establishes your topic in clear, unambiguous language. The thesis may be revised as you get further into the topic and discover what you want to say about it, but once the thesis is firmly established it will serve as a guide for you and your reader because all the information and observations in your essay should be related to the thesis.

One student on an initial reading of Andrew Marvell's "To His Coy Mistress" (p. 78) saw that the male speaker of the poem urges a woman to love now before time runs out for them. This reading gave him the impression that the poem is a simple celebration of the pleasures of the flesh, but on subsequent readings he underlined or noted these images: "Time's wingèd chariot hurrying near"; "Deserts of vast eternity"; "marble vault"; "worms"; "dust"; "ashes"; and these two lines: "The grave's a fine and private place, / But none, I think, do there embrace."

By listing these images associated with time and death, he established an inventory that could be separated from the rest of his notes on point of view, character, sounds, and other subjects. Inventorying notes allows patterns to emerge that you might have only vaguely perceived otherwise. Once these images are grouped, they call attention to something darker and more complex in Marvell's poem than a first impression might suggest.

These images may create a different feeling about the poem, but they still don't explain very much. One simple way to generate a thesis about a literary work is to ask the question "why?" Why do these images appear in the poem? Why does the speaker in William Stafford's "Traveling through the Dark" (p. 169) push the dead deer into the river? Why does disorder appeal so much to the speaker in Robert Herrick's "Delight in Disorder" (p. 225)? Your responses to these kinds of questions can lead to a thesis.

Writers sometimes use freewriting to help themselves explore possible answers to such questions. It can be an effective way of generating ideas. Freewriting is exactly that: the technique calls for nonstop writing without concern for mechanics or editing of any kind. Freewriting for ten minutes or so on a question will result in fragments and repetitions, but it can also produce some ideas. Here's an example of a student's response to the question about the images in "To His Coy Mistress":

He wants her to make love. Love poem. There's little time. Her crime. He exaggerates. Sincere? Sly? What's he want? She says nothing — he says it all. What about deserts, ashes, graves, and worms? Some love poem. Sounds like an old Vincent Price movie. Full of sweetness but death creeps in. Death — hurry hurry! Tear pleasures. What passion! Where's death in this? How can a love poem be so ghoulish?

She does nothing. Maybe frightened? Convinced? Why death? Love and death — time — death.

This freewriting contains several ideas; it begins by alluding to the poem's plot and speaker, but the central idea seems to be death. This emphasis led the student to five potential thesis statements for his essay about the poem:

1. "To His Coy Mistress" is a difficult poem.
2. Death in "To His Coy Mistress."
3. There are many images of death in "To His Coy Mistress."
4. "To His Coy Mistress" celebrates the pleasures of the flesh but it also recognizes the power of death to end that pleasure.
5. On the surface, "To His Coy Mistress" is a celebration of the pleasures of the flesh, but this witty seduction is tempered by a chilling recognition of the reality of death.

The first statement is too vague to be useful. In what sense is the poem difficult? A more precise phrasing, indicating the nature of the difficulty, is needed. The second statement is a topic rather than a thesis. Because it is not a sentence, it does not express a complete idea about how the poem treats death. Although this could be an appropriate title, it is inadequate as a thesis statement. The third statement, like the first one, identifies the topic, but even though it is a sentence, it is not a complete idea that tells us anything significant beyond the fact it states. After these preliminary attempts to develop a thesis, the student remembered his first impression of the poem and incorporated it into his thesis statement. The fourth thesis is a useful approach to the poem because it limits the topic and indicates how it will be treated in the paper: the writer will begin with an initial impression of the poem and then go on to qualify it. However, the fifth thesis is better than the fourth because it indicates a shift in tone produced by the ironic relationship between death and flesh. An effective thesis, like this one, makes a clear statement about a manageable topic and provides a firm sense of direction for the paper.

Most writing assignments in a literature course require you to persuade readers that your thesis is reasonable and supported with evidence. Papers that report information without comment or evaluation are simply summaries. Similarly, a paper that merely pointed out the death images in "To His Coy Mistress" would not contain a thesis, but a paper that attempted to make a case for the death imagery as a grim reminder of how vulnerable flesh is would involve persuasion. In developing a thesis, remember that you are expected not merely to present information but to argue a point.

ORGANIZING A PAPER

After you have chosen a manageable topic and developed a thesis—a central idea about it—you can begin to organize your paper. Your thesis, even if it is still somewhat tentative, should help you decide what information will need to be included and provide you with a sense of direction.

Consider again the sample thesis in the section on developing a thesis:

On the surface, “To His Coy Mistress” is a celebration of the pleasures of the flesh, but this witty seduction is tempered by a chilling recognition of the reality of death.

This thesis indicates that the paper can be divided into two parts: the pleasures of the flesh and the reality of death. It also indicates an order: because the central point is to show that the poem is more than a simple celebration, the pleasures of the flesh should be discussed first so that another, more complex reading of the poem can follow. If the paper began with the reality of death, its point would be anticlimactic.

Having established such a broad and informal outline, you can draw on your underlinings, margin notations, and notecards for the subheadings and evidence required to explain the major sections of your paper. This next level of detail would look like the following:

1. Pleasures of the flesh
 - Part of the traditional tone of love poetry
2. Recognition of death
 - Ironic treatment of love
 - Diction
 - Images
 - Figures of speech
 - Symbols
 - Tone

This list was initially a jumble of terms, but the student arranged the items so that each of the two major sections leads to a discussion of tone. (The student also found it necessary to drop some biographical information from his notes because it was irrelevant to the thesis.) The list indicates that the first part of the paper will establish the traditional tone of love poetry that celebrates the pleasures of the flesh, while the second part will present a more detailed discussion about the ironic recognition of death. The emphasis is on the latter because that is the point to be argued in the paper. Hence the thesis has helped organize the parts of the paper, establish an order, and indicate the paper’s proper proportions.

The next step is to fill in the subheadings with information from your notes. Many experienced writers find that making lists of information to be included under each subheading is an efficient way to develop paragraphs. For a longer paper (perhaps a research paper), you should be able to develop a paragraph or more on each subheading. On the other hand, a shorter paper may require that you combine several subheadings in a paragraph. You may also discover that while an informal list is adequate for a brief paper, a ten-page assignment could require a more detailed outline. Use the method that is most productive for you. Whatever the length of the essay, your presentation must be in a coherent and logical order that allows your reader to follow the argument and evaluate the evidence. The quality of your reading can be demonstrated only by the quality of your writing.

WRITING A DRAFT

The time for sharpening pencils, arranging your desk, surfing the Web, and doing almost anything else instead of writing has ended. The first draft will appear on the page only if you stop avoiding the inevitable and sit, stand up, or lie down to write. It makes no difference how you write, just that you do. Now that you have developed a topic into a tentative thesis, you can assemble your notes and begin to flesh out whatever outline you have made.

Be flexible. Your outline should smoothly conduct you from one point to the next, but do not permit it to railroad you. If a relevant and important idea occurs to you now, work it into the draft. By using the first draft as a means of thinking about what you want to say, you will very likely discover more than your notes originally suggested. Plenty of good writers don't use outlines at all but discover ordering principles as they write. Do not attempt to compose a perfectly correct draft the first time around. Grammar, punctuation, and spelling can wait until you revise. Concentrate on what you are saying. Good writing most often occurs when you are in hot pursuit of an idea rather than in a nervous search for errors.

By working on a word processor, you can take advantage of its capacity to make additions and deletions as well as move entire paragraphs by making just a few simple keyboard commands. Most software programs can also check spelling and certain grammatical elements in your writing. It's worth remembering, however, that though a clean copy fresh off a printer may look terrific, it will read only as well as the thinking and writing that have gone into it. Many writers prudently save their data and print their pages each time they finish a draft to avoid losing any material because of power failures or other problems. These printouts are also easier to read than the screen when you work on revisions.

Once you have a first draft on paper, you can delete material that is unrelated to your thesis and add material necessary to illustrate your points and make your paper convincing. The student who wrote "Disembodied

Images in T.S. Eliot's "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock" (p. 690) wisely dropped a paragraph that questioned whether Prufrock displays chauvinistic attitudes toward women. Although this could be an interesting issue, it has nothing to do with the thesis, which explains how the images reflect Prufrock's inability to make a meaningful connection to his world.

Remember that your initial draft is only that. You should go through the paper many times — and then again — working to substantiate and clarify your ideas. You may even end up with several entire versions of the paper. Rewrite. The sentences within each paragraph should be related to a single topic. Transitions should connect one paragraph to the next so that there are no abrupt or confusing shifts. Awkward or wordy phrasing or unclear sentences and paragraphs should be mercilessly poked and prodded into shape.

Writing the Introduction and Conclusion

After you have clearly and adequately developed the body of your paper, pay particular attention to the introductory and concluding paragraphs. It's probably best to write the introduction — at least the final version of it — last, after you know precisely what you are introducing. Because this paragraph is crucial for generating interest in the topic, it should engage the reader and provide a sense of what the paper is about. There is no formula for writing effective introductory paragraphs because each writing situation is different — depending on the audience, topic, and approach — but if you pay attention to the introductions of the essays you read, you will notice a variety of possibilities. The introductory paragraph to the Prufrock paper, for example, is a straightforward explanation of why the disembodied images are important for understanding Prufrock's character. The rest of the paper then offers evidence to support this point.

Concluding paragraphs demand equal attention because they leave the reader with a final impression. The conclusion should provide a sense of closure instead of starting a new topic or ending abruptly. In the final paragraph about the disembodied images in "Prufrock," the student explains their significance in characterizing Prufrock's inability to think of himself or others as complete and whole human beings. We now see that the images of eyes, arms, and claws are reflections of the fragmentary nature of Prufrock and his world. Of course, the body of your paper is the most important part of your presentation, but do remember that first and last impressions have a powerful impact on readers.

Using Quotations

Quotations can be a valuable means of marshaling evidence to illustrate and support your ideas. A judicious use of quoted material will make your points clearer and more convincing. Here are some guidelines that should help you use quotations effectively.

1. Brief quotations (four lines or fewer of prose or three lines or fewer of poetry) should be carefully introduced and integrated into the text of your paper with quotation marks around them.

According to the narrator, Bertha “had a reputation for strictness.” He tells us that she always “wore dark clothes, dressed her hair simply, and expected contrition and obedience from her pupils” (quoted in Jackson).

For brief poetry quotations, use a slash to indicate a division between lines.

The concluding lines of Blake’s “The Tyger” pose a disturbing question: “What immortal hand or eye / Dare frame thy fearful symmetry?” (Meyer 228).

Lengthy quotations should be separated from the text of your paper. More than three lines of poetry should be double-spaced and centered on the page. More than four lines of prose should be double-spaced and indented ten spaces from the left margin, with the right margin the same as for the text. Do *not* use quotation marks for the passage; the indentation indicates that the passage is a quotation. Lengthy quotations should not be used in place of your own writing. Use them only if they are absolutely necessary.

2. If any words are added to a quotation, use brackets to distinguish your addition from the original source.

“He [Young Goodman Brown] is portrayed as self-righteous and disillusioned.”

Any words inside quotation marks and not in brackets must be precisely those of the author. Brackets can also be used to change the grammatical structure of a quotation so that it fits into your sentence.

Smith argues that Chekhov “present[s] the narrator in an ambivalent light.”

If you drop any words from the source, use an ellipsis (three spaced periods) to indicate that the omission is yours.

“Early to bed . . . makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.”

Use a period followed by an ellipsis to indicate an omission at the end of a sentence.

Franklin wrote: “Early to bed and early to rise makes a man healthy. . . .”

Use a single line of spaced periods to indicate the omission of a line or more of poetry or more than one paragraph of prose.

Nothing would sleep in that cellar, dank as a ditch,
 Bulbs broke out of boxes hunting for chinks in the dark,

Nothing would give up life:
 Even the dirt kept breathing a small breath.

3. You will be able to punctuate quoted material accurately and confidently if you observe these conventions.

Place commas and periods inside quotation marks.

“Even the dirt,” Roethke insists, “kept breathing a small breath.”

Even though a comma does not appear after “dirt” in the original quotation, it is placed inside the quotation mark. The exception to this rule occurs when a parenthetical reference to a source follows the quotation.

“Even the dirt,” Roethke insists, “kept breathing a small breath” (11).

Punctuation marks other than commas or periods go outside the quotation marks unless they are part of the material quoted.

What does Roethke mean when he writes that “the dirt kept breathing a small breath”?

Yeats asked, “How can we know the dancer from the dance?”

REVISING AND EDITING

Put some distance—a day or so if you can—between yourself and each draft of your paper. The phrase that seemed just right on Wednesday may be revealed as all wrong on Friday. You’ll have a better chance of detecting lumbering sentences and thin paragraphs if you plan ahead and give yourself the time to read your paper from a fresh perspective. Through the process of revision, you can transform a competent paper into an excellent one.

Begin by asking yourself if your approach to the topic requires any rethinking. Is the argument carefully thought out and logically presented? Are there any gaps in the presentation? How well is the paper organized? Do the paragraphs lead into one another? Does the body of the paper deliver what the thesis promises? Is the interpretation sound? Are any relevant and important elements of the work ignored or distorted to advance the thesis? Are the points supported with evidence? These large questions should be addressed before you focus on more detailed matters.

If you uncover serious problems as a result of considering these questions, you'll probably have quite a lot of rewriting to do, but at least you will have the opportunity to correct the problems—even if doing so takes several drafts.

A useful technique for spotting awkward or unclear moments in the paper is to read it aloud. You might also try having a friend read it aloud to you. Your friend's reading—perhaps accompanied by hesitations and puzzled expressions—could alert you to passages that need reworking. Having identified problems, you can readily correct them using word processing software or handwritten changes, provided you've skipped lines and used wide margins. The final draft you hand in should be neat and carefully proofread for any inadvertent errors.

The following checklist offers questions to ask about your paper as you revise and edit it. Most of these questions will be familiar to you; however, if you need help with any of them, ask your instructor or review the appropriate section in a composition handbook.

Questions for Revising and Editing

1. Is the topic manageable? Is it too narrow or too broad?
2. Is the thesis clear? Is it based on a careful reading of the work?
3. Is the paper logically organized? Does it have a firm sense of direction?
4. Is your argument persuasive? Do you use evidence from the text to support your main points?
5. Should any material be deleted? Do any important points require further illustration or evidence?
6. Does the opening paragraph introduce the topic in an interesting manner?
7. Are the paragraphs developed, unified, and coherent? Are any too short or long?
8. Are there transitions linking the paragraphs?
9. Does the concluding paragraph provide a sense of closure?
10. Is the tone appropriate? Is it unduly flippant or pretentious?
11. Is the title engaging and suggestive?
12. Are the sentences clear, concise, and complete?
13. Are simple, complex, and compound sentences used for variety?
14. Have technical terms been used correctly? Are you certain of the meanings of all of the words in the paper? Are they spelled correctly?
15. Have you documented any information borrowed from books, articles, or other sources? Have you quoted too much instead of summarizing or paraphrasing secondary material?

16. Have you used a standard format for citing sources (see p. 706)?
17. Have you followed your instructor's guidelines for the manuscript format of the final draft?
18. Have you carefully proofread the final draft?

When you proofread your final draft, you may find a few typographical errors that must be corrected but do not warrant printing an entire page again. Provided there are not more than a handful of such errors throughout the page, they can be corrected as shown in the following passage. This example condenses a short paper's worth of errors; no single passage should be this shabby in your essay.

To add a letter or word, use a caret on the line where the addition ^{is} needed. To delete a word draw a single line through ~~through~~ it. Run-on words are separated by a vertical|line, and inadvertent spaces are closed like t his . Transposed letters are indicated this ~~wye~~. New paragraphs are noted with the sign ¶ in front of where the next paragraph is to begin. ¶ Unless you . . .

These sorts of errors can be minimized by proofreading on the screen and simply entering corrections as you go along.

MANUSCRIPT FORM

The novelist and poet Peter De Vries once observed in his characteristically humorous way that he very much enjoyed writing but that he couldn't bear the "paper work." Behind this playful pun is a half-serious impatience with the mechanics of it all. You may feel some of that too, but this is not the time to allow a thoughtful, carefully revised paper to trip over minor details that can be easily accommodated. The final draft you hand in to your instructor should not only read well but also look neat. If your instructor does not provide specific instructions concerning the paper's format, follow these guidelines.

1. Papers (particularly long ones) should be typed, double-spaced, on $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$ -inch paper. Be certain that the printout is legible. If your instructor accepts handwritten papers, write legibly in ink on only one side of a wide-lined page.

2. Use a one-inch margin at the top, bottom, and sides of each page. Unless you are instructed to include a separate title page, type your name, instructor's name, course number and section, and date on separate lines one inch below the upper-left corner of the first page. Double-space between these lines and

then center the title below the date. Do not italicize or put quotation marks around your paper's title, but do use quotation marks around the titles of poems, short stories, or other brief works, and italicize the titles of books and plays (a sample paper title: "Mending Wall" and Other Boundaries in Frost's *North of Boston*). Begin the text of your paper two spaces below the title. If you have used secondary sources, center the heading "Notes" or "Works Cited" one inch from the top of a separate page and then double-space between it and the entries.

3. Number each page consecutively, beginning with page 1, a half inch from the top of the page in the upper-right corner.

4. Gather the pages with a paper clip rather than staples, folders, or some other device. That will make it easier for your instructor to handle the paper.

TYPES OF WRITING ASSIGNMENTS

The types of papers most frequently assigned in literature classes are explication, analysis, and comparison and contrast. Most writing about literature involves some combination of these skills. This section includes a sample explication, an analysis, and a comparison and contrast paper. For a sample research paper that demonstrates a variety of strategies for documenting outside sources, see page 716. For other examples of student papers, see pages 686, 690, and 696.

Explication

The purpose of this approach to a literary work is to make the implicit explicit. **Explication** is a detailed explanation of a passage of poetry or prose. Because explication is an intensive examination of a text line by line, it is mostly used to interpret a short poem in its entirety or a brief passage from a long poem, short story, or play. Explication can be used in any kind of paper when you want to be specific about how a writer achieves a certain effect. An explication pays careful attention to language: the connotations of words, allusions, figurative language, irony, symbol, rhythm, sound, and so on. These elements are examined in relation to one another and to the work's overall effect and meaning.

The simplest way to organize an explication is to move through the passage line by line, explaining whatever seems significant. It is wise to avoid, however, an assembly-line approach that begins each sentence with "In line. . ." Instead, organize your paper in whatever way best serves your thesis. You might find that the right place to start is with the final lines, working your way back to the beginning of the poem or passage. The following sample explication on Emily Dickinson's "There's a certain Slant of light" does just that. The student's opening paragraph refers to

the final line of the poem in order to present her thesis. She explains that though the poem begins with an image of light, it is not a bright or cheery poem but one concerned with “the look of Death.” Because the last line prompted her thesis, that is where she begins the explication.

You might also find it useful to structure a paper by discussing various elements of literature so that you have a paragraph on connotative words followed by one on figurative language and so on. However your paper is organized, keep in mind that the aim of an explication is not simply to summarize the passage but to comment on the effects and meanings produced by the author’s use of language in it. An effective explication (the Latin word *explicare* means “to unfold”) displays a text to reveal how it works and what it signifies. Although writing an explication requires some patience and sensitivity, it is an excellent method for coming to understand and appreciate the elements and qualities that constitute literary art.

A SAMPLE EXPLICATION

A Reading of Emily Dickinson’s “There’s a certain Slant of light”

The sample paper by Bonnie Katz is the result of an assignment calling for an explication of about 750 words on any poem by Emily Dickinson. Katz selected “There’s a certain Slant of light.”

EMILY DICKINSON (1830–1886)

There’s a certain Slant of light ca. 1861

There’s a certain Slant of light,
Winter Afternoons—
That oppresses, like the Heft
Of Cathedral Tunes—

Heavenly Hurt, it gives us— 5
We can find no scar,
But internal difference,
Where the Meanings, are—

None may teach it— Any—
'Tis the Seal Despair— 10
An imperial affliction
Sent us of the Air—

When it comes, the Landscape listens—
Shadows—hold their breath—
When it goes, 'tis like the Distance 15
On the look of Death—

This essay comments on every line of the poem and provides a coherent reading that relates each line to the speaker's intense awareness of death. Although the essay discusses each stanza in the order that it appears, the introductory paragraph provides a brief overview explaining how the poem's images contribute to its total meaning. In addition, the student does not hesitate to discuss a line out of sequence when it can be usefully connected to another phrase. This is especially apparent in the third paragraph, in her discussion of stanzas 2 and 3. The final paragraph describes some of the poem's formal elements. It might be argued that this discussion could have been integrated into the previous paragraphs rather than placed at the end, but the student does make a connection in her concluding sentence between the pattern of language and its meaning.

Several other matters are worth noticing. The student works quotations into her own sentences to support her points. She quotes exactly as the words appear in the poem, even Dickinson's irregular use of capital letters. When something is added to a quotation to clarify it, it is enclosed in brackets so that the essayist's words will not be mistaken for the poet's: "Seal [of] Despair." A slash is used to separate line divisions as in "imperial affliction / Sent us of the Air."

Katz 1

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 26 October, 2011

A Reading of Emily Dickinson's
 "There's a certain Slant of light"

Because Emily Dickinson did not provide titles for her poetry, editors follow the customary practice of using the first line of a poem as its title. However, a more appropriate title for "There's a certain Slant of light," one that suggests what the speaker in the poem is most concerned about, can be drawn from the poem's last line, which ends with "the look of Death." Although the first line begins with an image of light, nothing bright, carefree, or cheerful appears in the poem. Instead, the predominant mood and images are darkened by a sense of despair resulting from the speaker's awareness of death.

Katz 2

In the first stanza, the “certain Slant of light” is associated with “Winter Afternoons” (lines 1-2), a phrase that connotes the end of a day, a season, and even life itself. Such light is hardly warm or comforting. Not a ray or beam, this slanting light suggests something unusual or distorted and creates in the speaker a certain slant on life that is consistent with the cold, dark mood that winter afternoons can produce. Like the speaker, most of us have seen and felt this sort of light: it “oppresses” (3) and pervades our sense of things when we encounter it. Dickinson uses the senses of hearing and touch as well as sight to describe the overwhelming oppressiveness that the speaker experiences. The light is transformed into sound by a simile that tells us it is “like the Heft / Of Cathedral Tunes” (3-4). Moreover, the “Heft” of that sound—the slow, solemn measures of tolling church bells and organ music—weighs heavily on our spirits. Through the use of shifting imagery, Dickinson evokes a kind of spiritual numbness that we keenly feel and perceive through our senses.

By associating the winter light with “Cathedral Tunes,” Dickinson lets us know that the speaker is concerned about more than the weather. Whatever it is that “oppresses” is related by connotation to faith, mortality, and God. The second and third stanzas offer several suggestions about this connection. The pain caused by the light is a “Heavenly Hurt” (5). This “imperial affliction / Sent us of the Air—” (11-12) apparently comes from God above, yet it seems to be part of the very nature of life. The oppressiveness we feel is in the air, and it can neither be specifically identified at this point in the poem nor be eliminated, for “None may teach it—Any” (9). All we know is that existence itself seems depressing under the weight of this “Seal [of] Despair” (10). The impression left by this “Seal” is stamped within the mind or soul rather than externally. “We can find no scar” (6), but once experienced this oppressiveness challenges our faith in life and its “Meanings” (8).

The final stanza does not explain what those “Meanings” are, but it does make clear that the speaker is acutely aware of death. As the winter daylight fades, Dickinson projects the speaker’s anxiety onto the surrounding landscape and shadows, which will soon be engulfed by the darkness that

Line-by-line explication of first stanza, focusing on connotations of words and imagery, in relation to mood and meaning of poem as a whole; supported with references to the text

Explication of second, third, and fourth stanzas, focusing on connotations of words and imagery in relation to mood and meaning of poem as a whole; supported with references to the text

follows this light: “the Landscape listens— / Shadows—hold their breath” (13-14). This image firmly aligns the winter light in the first stanza with darkness. Paradoxically, the light in this poem illuminates the nature of darkness. Tension is released when the light is completely gone, but what remains is the despair that the “imperial affliction” has imprinted on the speaker’s sensibilities, for it is “like the Distance / On the look of Death” (15-16). There can be no relief from what that “certain Slant of light” has revealed because what has been experienced is permanent—like the fixed stare in the eyes of someone who is dead.

The speaker’s awareness of death is conveyed in a thoughtful, hushed tone. The lines are filled with fluid *l* and *s* sounds that are appropriate for the quiet, meditative voice in the poem. The voice sounds tentative and uncertain—perhaps a little frightened. This seems to be reflected in the slightly irregular meter of the lines. The stanzas are trochaic with the second and fourth lines of each stanza having five syllables, but no stanza is identical because each works a slight variation on the first stanza’s seven syllables in the first and third lines. The rhymes also combine exact patterns with variations. The first and third lines of each stanza are not exact rhymes, but the second and fourth lines are exact so that the paired words are more closely related: *Afternoons, Tunes; scar, are; Despair, Air; and breath, Death*. There is a pattern to the poem, but it is unobtrusively woven into the speaker’s voice in much the same way that “the look of Death” is subtly present in the images and language of the poem.

Explanation
of the
elements of
rhythm
and sound
throughout
poem

Conclusion
tying
explanation
of rhythm
and sound
with
explanation
of words
and imagery
in previous
paragraphs

Work Cited

- Dickinson, Emily. “There’s a certain Slant of light.” *Poetry: An Introduction*. Ed. Michael Meyer. 7th ed. Boston: Bedford/St. Martin’s, 2013. 685. Print.

Comparison and Contrast

Another essay assignment in literature courses often combined with analytic topics is the type that requires you to write about similarities and differences between or within works. You might be asked to discuss “How Sounds Express Meanings in May Swenson’s ‘A Nosty Fright’ and Lewis Carroll’s ‘Jabberwocky’” or “Love and Hate in Robert Frost’s ‘Fire and Ice.’” A *comparison* of either topic would emphasize their similarities, while a *contrast* would stress their differences. It is possible, of course, to include both perspectives in a paper if you find significant likenesses and differences. A comparison of Andrew Marvell’s “To His Coy Mistress” (p. 78) and Ann Lauinger’s “Marvell Noir” (p. 80) would, for example, yield similarities because each poem describes a man urging his lover to make the most of their precious time together; however, important differences also exist in the tone and theme of each poem that would constitute a contrast. (You should, incidentally, be aware that the term *comparison* is sometimes used inclusively to refer to both similarities and differences as it is in the discussion and writing suggestions in this book. If you are assigned a comparison of two works, be sure that you understand what your instructor’s expectations are; you may be required to include both approaches in the essay.)

When you choose your own topic, the paper will be more successful—more manageable—if you write on works that can be meaningfully related to each other. Although Robert Herrick’s “To the Virgins, to Make Much of Time” (p. 76) and T. S. Eliot’s “The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock” (p. 446) both have something to do with hesitation, the likelihood of anyone making a connection between the two that reveals something interesting and important is remote—though perhaps not impossible if the topic were conceived imaginatively and tactfully. Choose a topic that encourages you to ask significant questions about each work; the purpose of a comparison or contrast is to understand the works more clearly for having examined them together.

Choose works to compare or contrast that intersect with each other in some significant way. They may, for example, be written by the same author or about the same subject. Perhaps you can compare their use of some technique, such as irony or point of view. Regardless of the specific topic, be sure to have a thesis that allows you to organize your paper around a central idea that argues a point about the two works. If you merely draw up a list of similarities or differences without a thesis in mind, your paper will be little more than a series of observations with no apparent purpose. Keep in the foreground of your thinking what the comparison or contrast reveals about the works.

There is no single way to organize comparative papers as each topic is likely to have its own particular issues to resolve, but it is useful to be aware of two basic patterns that can be helpful with a comparison, a contrast, or a combination of both. One method that can be effective for relatively short papers consists of dividing the paper in half, first discussing one work and then the other. Here, for example, is a partial informal outline

for a discussion of Tony Hoagland's "America" (p. 555) and Tato Laviera's "AmeRícan" (p. 281); the topic is a comparison and contrast:

"Two Views of America by Hoagland and Laviera"

1. "America"
 - a. Diction
 - b. Images
 - c. Allusions
 - d. Themes
2. "AmeRícan"
 - a. Diction
 - b. Images
 - c. Allusions
 - d. Themes

This organizational strategy can be effective provided that the second part of the paper combines the discussion of "AmeRícan" with references to "America" so that the thesis is made clear and the paper is unified without being repetitive. If the two poems were treated entirely separately, then the discussion would be merely parallel rather than integrated. In a lengthy paper, this organization probably would not work well because a reader would have difficulty remembering the points made in the first half as he or she reads on.

Thus for a longer paper it is usually better to create a more integrated structure that discusses both works as you take up each item in your outline. Shown here in partial outline is the second basic pattern using the elements just cited.

1. Diction
 - a. "America"
 - b. "AmeRícan"
2. Images
 - a. "America"
 - b. "AmeRícan"
3. Allusions
 - a. "America"
 - b. "AmeRícan"
4. Themes
 - a. "America"
 - b. "AmeRícan"

This pattern allows you to discuss any number of topics without requiring that your reader recall what you first said about the diction of “America” before you discuss the diction of “AmeRícan” many pages later. However you structure your comparison or contrast paper, make certain that a reader can follow its elements and keep track of its thesis.

A SAMPLE COMPARISON

Andrew Marvell and Sharon Olds Seize the Day

The following paper responds to an assignment that required a comparison and contrast—about 1,000 words—of two assigned poems. The student chose to write an analysis of two very different *carpe diem* poems.

In the following comparison essay, Christina Smith focuses on the male and female *carpe diem* voices of Andrew Marvell’s “To His Coy Mistress” (p. 78) and Sharon Olds’s “Last Night” (p. 81). After introducing the topic in the first paragraph, she takes up the two poems in a pattern similar to the first outline suggested for “Two Views of America by Hoagland and Laviera.” Notice how Smith works in subsequent references to Marvell’s poem as she discusses Olds’s so that her treatment is integrated and we are reminded why she is comparing the two works. Her final paragraph sums up her points without being repetitive and reiterates the thesis with which she began.

Smith 1

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Andrew Marvell and Sharon Olds Seize the Day

In her 1996 poem “Last Night,” Sharon Olds never mentions Andrew Marvell’s 1681 poem “To His Coy Mistress.” Through a contemporary lens, however, she firmly qualifies Marvell’s seventeenth-century masculine perspective. Marvell’s speaker attempts to woo a young woman and convince her to have sexual relations with him. His seize-the-day rhetoric