Words that describe style and syntax are as follows:

Plain, spare, austere, unadorned Ornate, elaborate, flowery Jumbled, chaotic, obfuscating Erudite, esoteric Journalistic, terse, laconic Harsh, grating Mellifluous, musical, lilting, lyrical Whimsical Elegant Staccato, abrupt Solid, thudding Sprawling, disorganized Dry Deceptively simple

DICTION -

 Levels of Diction (Levels of Articulation) Non-standard language Vulgarity Slang Colloquial Jargon Cliché Dialect Informal/standard
 Formal diction/elevated language
 Types of Diction Concrete vs. abstract (specific vs. general)

Denotation vs. connotation Literal vs. figurative

DICTION – word choice; general character of the language used by the author

Levels of Diction (Levels of Articulation)

Non-standard language – language deficient in some form or manner

Vulgarity - language deficient in taste and refinement; coarse, base (any swear word)

Slang - refers to a group of recently coined words; slang is ephemeral and exclusive

Colloquial – are nonstandard, often regional ways of using language appropriate to informal and conversational speech and writing (Canadian "about" and the Southern "Y'all"

Jargon – consists of words and expression characteristic of a particular trade, profession, or pursuit (gigabyte, logic board, CPU, DVD burner = computer jargon)

Cliché – figurative language used so often it has lost its freshness and clarity ("slept like a dog" "bigger and better" "jump for iov"

Dialect – is a nonstandard subgroup of a language with its own vocabulary and grammatical features. Reflects the way individual groups actually speak.

Informal/standard – language grammatically correct, but conversational. Sometimes referred to as Standard American English (SAE).

Formal diction/elevated language – language appropriate for more formal occasions; often more abstract and more figurative.

Tone - Style - Syntax Handout

Emotional concrete exact

Tone is defined as the writer or speaker's attitude toward the subject.

Another List of Words but in Categories

Developing A	Tone	Vocabulary
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Angry	sad	sentimental
Sharp	cold	fanciful
Upset	complimentary	urgent
Silly	joking	condescending
Boring	poignant	sympathetic
Afraid	detached	contemptuous
Happy	confused	apologetic
Hallow	childish	humorous
Joyful	peaceful	horrific
Allusive	mocking	sarcastic
Sweet	objective	nostalgic
Vexed	vibrant	zealous
Tired	frivolous	irreverent
Bitter	audacious	benevolent
Dreamy	shocking	seductive
Restrained	somber	candid
Proud	giddy	pitiful
Dramatic	provocative	didactic

•		
Another list of	tone words	
Satiric	pedantic	colloquial
Whimsical	indignant	compassionate
Dramatic	bantering	impartial
Learned	flippant	insipid .
Informative	condescending	pretentious
Somber	patronizing	vibrant
Urgent	facetious	irreverent
Confident	clinical	
sentim	ental	

moralistic

diffident

taunting

sardonic

insolent concerned

contentious

angry turgid

contemptuous

sympathetic

•	sentiment	tai
Mock-her	oic	mock-serious
Objective		inflammatory
Complime	entary	benevolent
lronic		burlesque
Petty		detached
Factual		cynical
Restraine	d	incisive
Elegiac		allusive
Disdainfu	ıl .	scornful
Lugubrio ⁻	us	effusive
Candid		(anciful

Words That De	escribe Language	
Jargon	pedantic	poetic
Vulgar	euphemistic	moralistic
Scholarly	pretentious	slang
Insipid	sensuous	idiomatic
Precise	exact	concrete
Esoteric	learned	cultured
Connotative	symbolic	picturesque
Plain	simple	homespun
Literal	figurative	provincial
Colloquial	bombastic	trite
Artificial	abstruse	obscure
Detached	grotesque	precise

Reverence Awe Veneration Solemn
Happiness Glad Pleased Merry Glee Delight Cheerful Gay Sanguine Mirth Enjoy Relish
Sadness Somber Melancholy Sorrow Lament Despondent Regret Dismal Funereal Saturnine Dark
Gloomy Dejection Grave Grief Morose Sullen Woe Bleak Remorse Forlorn Agony Anguish Depression Misery Barren

Dejection
Grave
Grief
Morose
Sullen
Woe
Bleak
Remorse
Forlorn
Agony
Anguish
Depression
Misery
Barren
Empty
Pity
Lugubrious
Distress
Ironic Tones

In the Toron
Ironic Tones
Smirking
Sneering
Derisive
lcy

Love	Joy
affection	exaltation
cherish	zeal
fondness	fervor
Admiration	ardor
tenderness	elation
sentiment	jubilant
romantic	buoyancy
Platonic	
adoration	Calm
narcissism	serene
passion	tranquil
lust	placid
rapture	
ecstasy	<u>Hope</u>
infatuated	expect
enamor	anticipate
compassion	
Anger	Hate
vehement	vengeance
	. 55544.00

Compassion	
Anger	Hate
vehement	vengeance
rage	abhorrence
outrage	animosity
antipathy	enmity
indignant	pique
vexation	rancor
incensed	aversion
petulant	loathing
irascible	despise
riled	scorn
bitter	contempt
acrimony	disdain
irate	jealousy
fury	repugnance
wrath	repulsion
rancor	resentment
consternation	spite
hostility	disgust
miffed	
choleric	<u>Fear</u>
aggravation	timidity
futility	apprehensio
umbrage	anxiety
gall	terror
bristle	horror
exasperation	dismay
-	agitation

Ironic Tones biting

Playful

humorous

sardonic flippant

cynical

witty

real
timidity
apprehension
anxiety
terror
horror
dismay
agitation
sinister
alarm
startle
uneasy
qualms
trepidation
intimidation
appalled

Acerbic mocking dread
Often a change or shift in tone will be signaled by the following:

- Key words (e.g. but, yet nevertheless, however, although)
- Punctuation (dashes, periods, colons)
- Stanza and paragraph divisions
- Changes in line and stanza or sentence length

There are at least four areas that may be considered when analyzing style: diction, sentence structure, treatment of subject matter, and figurative language.

- I. Diction (choice of words) Describe diction by considering the following:
 - A. Words may be monosyllabic (one syllable in length) or polysyllabic (more than one syllable in length).
 The higher the ratio of polysyllabic words, the more difficult the content.
 - B. Words may be mainly colloquial (slang), informal (conversational), formal (literary), or old-fashioned.
 - C. Words may be mainly denotative (containing an exact meaning), e.g. dress, or connotative (containing a suggested meaning), e.g., gown.
 - D. Words may be concrete (specific) or abstract (general).
 - E. Words may be euphonious (pleasant sounding), e.g., butterfly, or cacophonous (harsh sounding), e.g., pus.
- II. Sentence Structure Describe the sentence structure by considering the following:
 - A. Examine the sentence length. Are the sentences telegraphic (shorter than five words in length), medium (approximately eighteen words in length), or long and involved (thirty words or more in length)? Does the sentence length fit the subject matter; what variety of lengths is present? Why is the sentence length effective?
 - B. Examine sentence patterns. Some elements to consider are listed below:
 - 1. A declarative (assertive) sentence makes a statement, e.g., The king is sick. An imperative sentence gives a command, e.g., Stand up. An interrogative

sentence asks a question, e.g., is the king sick? An exclamatory sentence makes an exclamation, e.g., The king is dead!

- 2. A Simple sentence contains one subject and one verb, e.g., The singer bowed to her adoring audience. A compound sentence contains two independent clauses joined by a coordinate conjunction (and, but, or) or by a semicolon, e.g., The singer bowed to the audience, but she sang no encores. A complex sentence contains an independent clause and one or more subordinate clauses, e.g., You said that you would tell the truth. A compoundcomplex sentence contains two or more principal clauses and one or more subordinate clauses, e.g., The singer bowed while the audience applauded, but she sang no encores.
- 3. A loose sentence makes complete sense if brought to a close before the actual ending, e.g., We reached Edmonton / that morning / after a turbulent flight / and some exciting experiences. A periodic sentence makes sense only when the end of the sentence is reached, e.g., That morning, after a turbulent flight and some exciting experiences, we reached Edmonton.
- 4. In a balanced sentence, the phrases or clauses balance each other by virtue of their likeness or structure, meaning, and / or length, e.g., He maketh me to lie down in green pastures; he leadeth me beside the still waters.
- 5. Natural order of a sentence involves constructing a sentence so the subject comes before the predicate, e.g., Oranges grow in California. Inverted order of a sentence (sentence inversion) involves constructing a sentence so the predicate comes before the subject, e.g., In California grow oranges. This is a device in which normal sentence patterns are reversed to create an emphatic or rhythmic effect. This is reversed to create an emphatic or rhythmic effect. Split order of a sentence divides the predicate into two parts with the subject coming in the middle, e.g., In California oranges grow.
- 6. Juxtaposition is a poetic and rhetorical device in which normally unassociated ideas, words, or phrases are placed next to one another, creating an effect of surprise and wit, e.g., "The apparition of these faces in the crowd;/ Petals on a wet, black bough" ("In a Station of the Metro" by Ezra Pound).
- 7. Parallel structure (parallelism) refers to a grammatical or structural similarity between sentences or parts of a sentence. It involves an

arrangement of words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs so that elements of equal importance are equally developed and similarly phrased, e.g., He was walking, running, and jumping for joy.

- 8. Repetition is a device in which words, sounds, and ideas are used more than once for the purpose of enhancing rhythm and creating emphasis, e.g., "... government of the people, shall not perish from the earth."
- 9. A rhetorical question is a question which expects no answer. It is used to draw attention to a point and is generally stronger than a direct statement, e.g., If Mr. Ferchoff is always fair, as you have said, why did he refuse to listen to Mrs. Baldwin's arguments?
 - C. Examine sentence beginning. Is there a good variety or does a pattern emerge?
 - D. Examine the arrangement of ideas in a sentence. Are they set out in a special way for a purpose?
 - Examine the arrangement of ideas in a paragraph to see if there is evidence of any pattern or structure.

III. Treatment of Subject Matter

Describe the author's treatment of the subject matter by considering the following. Has the author been

- Subjective? Are his conclusions based upon opinions; are they rather personal in nature?
- Objective? Are his conclusions based upon facts; are they impersonal or scientific?
- Supportive of his main idea? If so, how did he support his claims? Did he (a) state his opinions,
- (b) report his experience,
- (c) report observations, (d) refer to readings, (e) refer to statements made by experts, (f) use statistical data?

IV. Figurative Language

- A. Simile is a comparison of two different things or ideas through the use of the words <u>like</u> or <u>as</u>. It is definitely a stated comparison, where the poet says one thing is like another, e.g., The warrior fought like a lion.
- B. Metaphor is a comparison without the use of like or as. The poet states that one thing is

- another. It is usually a comparison between something that is real or concrete and something that is abstract, e.g., Life is but a dream.
- C. Personification is a kind of metaphor which gives inanimate objects or abstract ideas human characteristics, e.g.. The wind cried in the dark.
- Hyperbole is a deliberate, extravagant, and often outrageous exaggeration. It may be used either for serious or comic effect, e.g., The shot that was heard 'round the world.
- E. Understatement (Meiosis) is the opposite of hyperbole. It is a kind of irony which deliberately represents something as much less than it really is, e.g., I could probably manage to survive on a salary of two million dollars per year.
- F. Paradox is a statement which contradicts itself. It may seem almost absurd. Although it may seem to be at odds with ordinary experience, it usually turns out to have a coherent meaning and reveals a truth which is normally hidden, e.g., The more you know the more you know you don't know. (Socrates)
- G. Oxymoron is a form of paradox which combines a pair of contrary terms into a single expression. This combination usually serves the purpose of shocking the reader into awareness, e.g., sweet sorrow, wooden nickel.
- H. Pun is a play on words which are identical or similar in sound but which have sharply diverse meanings. Puns may have serious as well as humorous uses, e.g., When Mercutio is bleeding to death in Romeo and Juliet, he says to his friends, "Ask for me tomorrow, and you shall find me a grave man."
- I. Irony is the result of a statement saying one thing while meaning the opposite. Its purpose is usually to criticize, e.g., It is simple to stop smoking. I've done it many times.
- J. Sarcasm is a type of irony in which a person appears to be praising something while he is actually insulting the thing. Its purpose is to injure or hurt, e.g.,