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INTERTEXTUAL DEVICES IN ENGLISH AND AMERICAN LITERATURE: A WEB OF TEXTUAL CONVERSATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This article explores the concept of intertextuality in English and American literature, focusing on key devices like allusion, quotation, parody, pastiche, and adaptation. Through detailed examples from works such as Hamlet, Frankenstein, and The Great Gatsby, the article illustrates how these devices allow authors to engage in literary dialogues with other texts, enriching their narratives and deepening meaning.

KEYWORDS

Intertextuality, allusion, quotation, parody, pastiche, adaptation, English literature, American literature.

INTRODUCTION

Intertextuality, a concept first introduced by Julia Kristeva, is a key element of literary theory that refers to the relationship between texts. It highlights the way that no work exists in isolation; instead, each one draws on a complex web of other literary works, either consciously or subconsciously. This interconnection happens through intertextual devices, such as allusion, quotation, parody, pastiche, adaptation, and

paraphrase. These tools allow authors to create a dialogue between texts, enriching their narratives and adding layers of meaning.

In this article, we will explore the use of intertextual devices in both English and American literature. With detailed examples from canonical works, we will examine how authors create these textual echoes and



contribute to a broader conversation within the literary tradition.

METHODS

This article employs a qualitative, comparative literary analysis to explore the intertextual devices used in English and American literature. The methodology focuses on identifying, classifying, and analyzing examples of intertextuality—specifically allusion, quotation, parody, pastiche, adaptation, and paraphrase—within canonical literary works. The analysis draws on a range of primary texts, including *Hamlet* by William Shakespeare, *Frankenstein* by Mary Shelley, *The Great Gatsby* by F. Scott Fitzgerald, and *Moby-Dick* by Herman Melville, among others, to illustrate the function and impact of intertextuality on narrative and thematic development.

RESULTS

The analysis of intertextual devices in English and American literature, as demonstrated through the works of William Shakespeare, Herman Melville, Mary Shelley, F. Scott Fitzgerald, Ralph Ellison, and others, reveals several key findings. These findings are categorized according to the intertextual devices of allusion, quotation, parody, pastiche, adaptation, and paraphrase, showing how each contributes to a broader literary conversation and enriches the thematic and narrative depth of the texts.

1. Allusion

An allusion is an indirect reference to another text, person, event, or idea. Unlike a quotation, an allusion does not explicitly cite its source, relying instead on the reader's familiarity with the referenced material. Allusions often serve to deepen meaning by invoking associations with other works.

William Shakespeare was a master of allusion, often drawing on classical works to enrich his plays. In *Hamlet* (1600), Shakespeare alludes to classical mythology to develop the themes of revenge and tragedy. For example, Hamlet's reference to Hyperion and Satyr contrasts the noble figure of his dead father with the debased Claudius:

"So excellent a king, that was to this
Hyperion to a satyr." (Hamlet, Act 1, Scene 2)

Here, Hyperion, one of the Titans in Greek mythology, represents nobility and grandeur, while the satyr is a debased and lecherous figure. The allusion enhances the contrast between Hamlet's idealized memory of his father and the corrupt Claudius, deepening the play's exploration of morality and decay.

In Herman Melville's *Moby-Dick* (1851), Melville alludes to the Biblical story of Ahab and Jezebel. Captain Ahab, the novel's obsessive central figure, shares his name with the Biblical king of Israel, who led his people into idolatry and was eventually brought down by divine



wrath. The allusion evokes Ahab's hubris and sets up the novel's exploration of the destructive consequences of obsession. Ishmael reflects on Ahab's power, stating:

“Aye, aye! and I'll chase him round Good Hope, and round the Horn, and round the Norway Maelstrom, and round perdition's flames before I give him up.”

The reference to “perdition's flames” evokes a Biblical tone, suggesting that Ahab's quest to hunt the whale is both futile and blasphemous, drawing upon the moral overtones of the Bible.

2. Quotation

Quotations are direct references to other works of literature, often used to highlight connections between the quoted text and the new context in which it is placed. They function as explicit intertextual markers, pointing the reader toward other works that influence or enrich the meaning of the current text.

In Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein* (1818), Shelley quotes directly from John Milton's *Paradise Lost*, linking the story of Victor Frankenstein and his creature to the Biblical narrative of creation and fall. The creature, having read *Paradise Lost*, identifies himself with Adam and Satan, lamenting his abandonment by his creator. He cries:

“Did I request thee, Maker, from my clay

To mould me Man, did I solicit thee

From darkness to promote me?” (*Paradise Lost*, Book X, lines 743-45)

This quotation draws a direct parallel between the creature and Adam, casting Victor as a God-like figure whose failure to care for his creation mirrors the fall from grace. It also hints at Satan's rebellion, as the creature shifts from identifying with the innocent Adam to the outcast Satan, reflecting the novel's exploration of alienation, responsibility, and rebellion.

Ralph Ellison's *Invisible Man* (1952) is deeply intertextual, filled with quotations and paraphrases from a wide range of sources, including African American intellectual history, politics, and literature. One of the key quotations comes from W.E.B. Du Bois' concept of “double consciousness.” Ellison's unnamed protagonist lives in a society that refuses to acknowledge his humanity, echoing Du Bois' description of African Americans who must view themselves through the eyes of a white-dominated society. At one point, the protagonist reflects:

“I am invisible, understand, simply because people refuse to see me.”

This is an intertextual echo of Du Bois' *The Souls of Black Folk* (1903), where Du Bois describes the condition of African Americans as having a “double consciousness,” seeing oneself through the lens of



both personal identity and the prejudices of society. Ellison's direct engagement with this concept brings the intertextual conversation between the two works to the forefront, adding depth to his exploration of racial invisibility and identity.

3. Parody

A parody imitates the style, tone, or conventions of another text or genre, often exaggerating or distorting them to create a comic or satirical effect. Parody can also serve to critique the values or ideologies of the original text.

Jane Austen's *Northanger Abbey* (1817) is a famous parody of the Gothic novel, a genre popularized by writers such as Ann Radcliffe. Austen's heroine, Catherine Morland, is a devoted reader of Gothic fiction and imagines her own life as a Gothic narrative. When she visits *Northanger Abbey*, she becomes convinced that dark secrets lurk within its walls, only to discover that her dramatic suspicions are unfounded.

One moment of parody comes when Catherine imagines she will discover hidden manuscripts in an old chest, but instead finds only laundry:

"The contents, however, were unfolded; and it contained nothing but a white cotton counterpane." (*Northanger Abbey*, Chapter 21)

Austen uses this scene to poke fun at the conventions of the Gothic novel, in which heroines often uncover

hidden secrets. By subverting these expectations, Austen critiques the excesses of the genre and suggests that real life is far less sensational than the world of Gothic fiction.

Mark Twain's *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* (1884) parodies romantic adventure novels, particularly those of Sir Walter Scott. Twain uses the character of Tom Sawyer to mock the unrealistic, idealized notions of adventure that such novels promote. In one scene, Tom insists on rescuing Jim, the runaway slave, by following a convoluted plan that includes digging him out of his cabin with case-knives and writing mysterious messages in blood. When Huck questions the practicality of these plans, Tom replies:

"It's the way they do in books, and it's right. Ain't no use to do anything else." (*The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, Chapter 35)

Twain's parody of romantic adventure stories highlights the absurdity of Tom's idealism, contrasting it with Huck's more pragmatic and morally grounded approach to freeing Jim. Through this parody, Twain critiques not only the romanticization of adventure but also the moral blindness of those who adhere to such ideals in the face of real injustice.

4. Pastiche

Pastiche involves the imitation or blending of styles, often as an homage or to create a patchwork effect



that reflects the postmodern condition of fragmentation and multiplicity. While parody often critiques its source material, pastiche is more neutral, celebrating the diversity of influences it brings together.

Virginia Woolf's *Orlando* (1928) is a pastiche of historical biography, blending elements of biography with fantasy and satire. Woolf tells the story of Orlando, a young nobleman who lives for centuries and changes gender, parodying the conventions of historical writing. The exaggerated biographical style is evident in the novel's opening:

“He—for there could be no doubt of his sex, though the fashion of the time did something to disguise it—was in the act of slicing at the head of a Moor which swung from the rafters.” (*Orlando*, Chapter 1)

Woolf's pastiche of biography allows her to critique the rigidity of historical and biographical conventions, particularly those related to gender and identity. By blending historical pastiche with fantastical elements, Woolf explores the fluidity of time and identity, challenging the fixed categories often imposed by historical narratives.

Thomas Pynchon's *The Crying of Lot 49* (1966) is a postmodern pastiche that blends elements of detective fiction, conspiracy thriller, and science fiction. The novel follows Oedipa Maas as she uncovers a vast conspiracy involving underground postal

systems and secret societies. Pynchon's use of multiple genres creates a fragmented narrative that reflects the uncertainty and disorientation of modern life. For example, when Oedipa learns of the mysterious Tristero system, she muses:

“For a moment she wondered if the Tristero had ever existed at all, or if it had only been a collective delusion.” (*The Crying of Lot 49*, Chapter 5)

Pynchon's blending of genres mirrors Oedipa's confusion and the novel's broader theme of information overload in the modern world. The use of pastiche allows Pynchon to explore the instability of meaning in a world where narratives are fragmented and contradictory.

5. Adaptation

Adaptation involves the reworking of a text into a new form, often translating it into a different cultural, historical, or thematic context. Adaptations can reimagine a work for a new audience, shedding light on the original text's themes in fresh and often surprising ways.

William Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet* (1597) is a famous adaptation of earlier Italian tales, particularly Matteo Bandello's version of the tragic love story. Shakespeare's adaptation transforms the material into a timeless meditation on love, fate, and the consequences of family conflict. The famous balcony



scene, in which Romeo declares his love for Juliet, is one of the most iconic moments in English literature:

“But, soft! What light through yonder window breaks?

It is the east, and Juliet is the sun.” (Romeo and Juliet, Act 2, Scene 2)

Shakespeare’s adaptation of the source material creates a deeply emotional and lyrical portrayal of young love, turning the familiar tale into a work that resonates with universal themes of passion, fate, and the tension between individual desire and social obligation.

Zora Neale Hurston’s *Their Eyes Were Watching God* (1937) can be seen as an adaptation of the Biblical story of Eve, particularly in its exploration of gender, knowledge, and autonomy. Janie Crawford’s journey of self-discovery mirrors Eve’s quest for knowledge and independence, as she challenges societal expectations and seeks her own path. Hurston’s adaptation of this story allows her to explore the experiences of African American women in the early 20th century, highlighting the intersections of race, gender, and power.

One of the novel’s key lines—

“She was too busy feeling grief to dress like grief” (*Their Eyes Were Watching God*, Chapter 9) captures Janie’s emotional transformation, drawing on Biblical themes of knowledge and self-awareness. Hurston’s

adaptation of these themes allows her to reframe the story of Eve within the context of African American womanhood, creating a powerful exploration of identity and resilience.

6. Intertextual Paraphrase

Intertextual paraphrase involves rewording or summarizing a passage, theme, or idea from another text, without directly quoting it. This technique allows authors to evoke the spirit of a previous work while recontextualizing it for a new narrative.

In George Orwell’s *1984* (1949), Orwell paraphrases the political language of totalitarian regimes to critique the ways in which language can be used to manipulate thought. The Party’s slogan, “War is Peace, Freedom is Slavery, Ignorance is Strength” (1984, Part 1, Chapter 1), paraphrases and distorts the logic of propaganda from regimes such as Nazi Germany and Stalinist Russia. By reworking these ideas into his dystopian vision, Orwell explores the dangers of language control and the erasure of truth.

In Toni Morrison’s *Beloved* (1987), Morrison paraphrases and reworks elements of slave narratives, particularly those of Frederick Douglass and Harriet Jacobs, to explore the psychological trauma of slavery. One of the novel’s central themes is the haunting presence of the past, which Morrison paraphrases in the famous line:



“Anything dead coming back to life hurts.” (Beloved, Chapter 5)

This line reworks the themes of rebirth and trauma found in earlier slave narratives, infusing them with a sense of pain and loss. Morrison’s paraphrasing of these themes allows her to engage in a dialogue with the literary tradition of slave narratives while bringing a contemporary perspective to the legacy of slavery.

CONCLUSION

Intertextual devices are fundamental to the way literature communicates across time, geography, and culture. In both English and American literary traditions, authors use allusions, quotations, parody, pastiche, adaptation, and paraphrase to create layered works that engage with other texts. These devices not only enrich the meaning of individual works but also contribute to a broader literary conversation, allowing texts to speak to one another and to the world around them.

By recognizing the intertextual connections between works, readers can gain a deeper understanding of the cultural, historical, and philosophical ideas that underpin literature. Whether subtle or overt, these intertextual relationships invite readers to explore the rich web of meaning that extends beyond the boundaries of individual texts, creating a literary tradition that is constantly evolving and expanding.

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