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CHARACTERISTICS OF DISCOURSE TYPES IN KARKAR

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 - a. Structure
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1. What is discourse?

There are various ~~muti~~ definitions, some of which are:

A complete utterance.

What happens between when a person opens his mouth and when he shuts it again (provided he is not eating). Or between when a man picks up his pen to write and when he has completed his effort and put it down again.

A complete entity of communication. A stretch of language, complete in itself, into which, in grammatical terms, sentences and paragraphs feed.

Discourse is the key to language. As we consider this statement, we are obviously defining discourse in the more common sense, mentioned in the definition directly above. No smaller stretch of language could give us all the knowledge we need about a language. It is only within the discourse that we can discover the cues for the various lower levels, and those applicable on the discourse level too. We gain perspective. So, discourse analysis is not a luxury, but a necessity.

Each discourse has ~~some kind of~~ structure, a form, a ~~peg board on which to hang the entity~~. Firstly there is ^{an optional} ~~often a~~ formulaic beginning, that ~~may be termed the aperture~~. ^{An example is:} Like "I am about to tell you a folk tale about the Cassowary and the Hornbill". ^{there is preliminary information on} Then ~~we are likely to be~~ ^{some of the facts of} ~~clued in to~~ the story in what can be called stage for narrative discourse and introduction for other types. In the body of the discourse we find episodes as slots in narrative, and points as slots in expository and behavioural discourses. In a procedural discourse ^{there are} ~~we have~~ procedures, and in drama ^{there are} ~~we have~~ acts. As climax of a narrative discourse we have a peak (marking surface structure)

Characteristics of Discourse Types in Karkar

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In narrative there may be a peak to mark the deep structure climax and peak' to mark the deep structure denouement (i.e. a decisive event which loosens up the story and makes resolution possible). In procedural discourse the peak may mark target procedure, in hortatory discourse a climactic exhortation, and in an expository discourse a culminating explanation. As we pass out of the body of the ^{discourse} paper, we come to the Closure, which wraps up the discourse in the manner suitable to that kind of discourse. Many discourses employ finis, a final formulaic ending. It may be something like "And now I have finished telling you the story of the Cassowary and the Hornbill".

A discourse is bound together by a theme. Minor characters may perform on the stage, descriptions, opinions and explanations may be added, but the theme is a thread running through the entire discourse. To help us keep track of the theme, the communicator interweaves various strands through his to the end of his communication. In narrative we are likely to recognise an agent (major participant)-line, or an event-line (a series of actions which conspire to bring the story to a close), whereas in a hortatory text a specific idea is explained or developed. The theme of the discourse is maintained, too, by the way the whole is linked together (cohesion).
~~Chronological~~ Chronological order gives dramatic cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is evidenced in many ways: by the uses of tense; by particles, affixes; by deictics ('this' and 'that') and conjunctions; by expectancy chains (He shot him and he ____.); the way a main actor is referred to so you can keep track of him; repetition, summary and preview; back reference and head-tail linkage. Another way to highlight the theme is to highlight something, to use devices for bringing something into focus (prominence).

2. Comparing types of discourse

In my consideration of Karkar discourse types I have concentrated almost completely on oral discourse, epistolary being the only written type I have investigated. I have several examples of both the ^{oral} recounted and written form of narrative. As these efforts at writing are the first ever written in the language, I feel that to judge written style at this stage is premature. The omissions and short-cuts evident in written text indicate to me that the men are writing slowly and with difficulty, and that in this particular area the style will in time become more like spoken style.

I suggest that discourse types can be divided into two ^{Types} camps: Hortatory, and sub-types such as Prayer and Evaluation, and to some extent Epistolary, engage the thinking process, the mind, the critical faculty, the creative faculties, as compared with other types of discourse (Narrative, Descriptive, Procedural) which involve memory, facts, visible sights and processes. Abstract concepts versus the more concrete. The first kind are linked logically, the second chronologically.

Narrative is a vivid form of discourse. Procedural is 'how-to-do-it' or 'how-it---is-done'. Expository (which includes Descriptive) may include essays and scientific articles. Hortatory covers sermons and pep talks, geared to influence conduct.

Longacre made an interpretation of Keith Forster's forthcoming revision on Longacre's former work (1976.197-206) on the classification of discourse genre. I will attempt to draw up the chart at the end of the paper.

Longacre, in his paper "Narrative ~~Discourse~~ versus Other Discourse Genre" compares the types of discourse under the headings of Person, Orientation, Time and Linkage.

In narrative first or third person are used. ^{With} The use of first person the style tends to be more formal. Generally in Procedural types, person is not particularly relevant. 'You', 'we all', 'I', 'he', inclusive or exclusive may be used. Any person may be used in Expository, more commonly ^{third} 3. We find second person mostly in Hortatory, though first, and even third may occur.

Narrative is actor-oriented, Procedural is goal-oriented, Expository is subject matter oriented and Hortatory is addressee-oriented.

In Narrative, accomplished time encodes as past or present. In Procedural, projected time encodes as either past, present or future. In Expository, time is not focal, and usually is not important in Hortatory.

Both Narrative and Procedural ~~xxx~~ employ chronological linkage, while ~~x~~ the linkage in Expository and Hortatory is logical.

On the whole, deep and surface structures mesh in each specific type of discourse. But in some cases we might find a surface structure encoding something other than its primary encoding. "Thus, Narrative and Drama--clearly distinct from each other in surface structure but with similar primary deep structure encoding--may be used to give Procedure ('This is how a master builder built his house'), to explain a subject or to give moral lessons (fable and parable). In such cases, the deep structures of Procedure, Exposition, and Exhortation are expressed in surface structure Narrative or Drama rather than in the genre where they primarily encode." (Longacre ^{1974:359} in Advances in Tagmemics p,359) A regimented person may recount his adventures in procedural style, rather than in narrative. (e.g. 1. I rose at dawn, and caught the 7 a.m. train. 2. First I went to the office to prepare the mail for posting. 3. Then...)

Longacre likes to arrange discourses in order of vividness. The most vivid discourse is drama; the next narrative. He regards expository is more vivid than hortatory, the sermon (in the narrow sense of pure exhortation) being possibly the dullest of all discourses. So, comparing Narrative and Hortatory, we could say that the dramatic linkage of the former is so great that the simplest of grammatical and dramatic devices are used, whereas, to keep up the interest of the audience, the preacher (or whatever) must employ varying devices in his exhortation.

3. Characteristics of the different discourse types in Karker Narrative

As Longacre says, a special characteristic of narrative is its preoccupation with the problem of participant identification. It is essential to keep track of the main characters of the story. Narrative is distinct from other types by having plot. It is because of the plot and how the communicator works it out that the reader or hearer finds it easier to absorb than any other type. Though it must be mentioned that ⁱⁿ some stories the plot is in very low relief. A narrative discourse is rarely completely narrative. Interest is added in various ways. At the beginning we might be treated to a description of a place, a person's appearance, the weather or the time. The communicator might express his opinions or talk to a character in the story, or make asides to the hearer or reader. An explanation might be inserted to clue the reader in. Questions might be asked. Speech and conversation are commonly found as important ingredients in a good narrative. Previews and summaries may occur.

We may expect every narrative discourse to have a structure-- a framework on which the various parts can hang in order. ^{The theme, or what the story is about, is stated either in the Aperture or the Stage.} ~~In the first sentence or two of a narrative discourse we are usually told what the story will be about, though some stories begin straight in. This is called the Aperture, it may go like this:~~ ^{if there is an (see p.1.)} "I am about to tell you the story of a Cassowary and a Horbill." Next follows the Introduction, ^{specifying} in which we might learn about the place and the time of the story, and ^{specifying} find out who the characters are. This is called the Stage. ^{Top pb inserted here.} The body of the narrative may be a unit, but in many cases it is divided into sections, the boundaries of which are ^{may be made obvious by} obvious in some way. ~~Maybe~~ ^d a certain series of events ~~making~~ which make a whole in some way. Or a new character or set of characters appears. Or the scene or the time changes. These divisions are called Episodes in narrative, but Procedures in procedural and Points in expositional and behavioural (hortatory) and Acts in drama.

farakap-nae-nae - nae
recount-about-to-start to
kar-an
talk-at
kikir
legend
antemi
hornbill
tiaka
cassowary and
pan
cassowary

(Insert at asterisk 5.5.)

In a historical narrative names, places and specific times may be far more important than in folk tales, whereas in folk tales suspense and a dramatic climax are, usually key features. (End of insert.)

Within the body of the discourse, the tension is built up until the climax is reached. This is called the Peak. Peak, marking the deep structure denouement (see top p.2.) usually follows. The climax and denouement wind down to the post-peak material, followed by the Closure putting the final touches to the story. Finis is the end, a formulaic ending like the formulaic beginning, Aperture. Like "That is the end of my story of the Cassowary and the Hornbill."

Let us parallel this surface structure with the deep structure as Longacre sees it. We can call the deep structure the plot. The formulaic beginning of the aperture is at the surface level only. The idea of stage or introduction is to 'lay it out'. The pre-peak beginning the episode is the encoding of 'Get something going, develop the conflict, keep the heat on'. ~~When~~ When the situation is 'knotted up proper' we've reached the climax, the Peak. The denouement 'loosens it'. By the post-peak the final suspense is dissolving away--'Keep untangling!. At the Conclusion we 'wrap it up'. And the Finis has surface features only.

How is the structure of narrative encoded in Karkar grammar?

The Aperture (if there is one) may begin with a simple statement that such-and-such is the storyteller's name. The topic of the story is fitted into a noun phrase or two, sometimes quite a mouthful.

For example:

Ono arop fi néntépriaka aokkorak fáriaka tukupaon-an farákáp nai nai.

I our-ancestors-gathering-and-eating-the-A.bird -at will recount.

'I want to tell you about (what happened when) our ancestors gathered and ate the A. and scattered.'

Distant and recent history are less likely ^{than legends} to have this formulaic beginning, but get into the story quicker.

In the introduction ^{or stage} we are likely to learn: who the main characters ^{are} is, what person is being used, when and/or where the event

happened, and what happened, or was getting ready to happen. e.g.

Ono Fonde fek kumunek ékiaka nap mek mamek Dorotint
I on Thursday morning coming down into this house with Dorothy
kar farákáp.

talked. 'On Thursday morning I came down into this house and talked with Dorothy.'
(In true narrative style, medial and final unaffixed verbs are used.)

One rare example has high adventure in the first sentence--the speaker said something came and spoke to him in his dream. But he does not say what the 'something' is or what it said till later. The second sentence goes:

Sénonko, ono yakré, "Ésiol Onomp pusi."
It having said, I staying, "Thank you! My pussy."

'When it said that, I said, "Thank you! My pussy!'"
Remarkably early, a device for marking climax (i.e. quotation) is used.

After Stage
The aperture and introduction have prepared us, and now we are ready to get involved in the plot. Already we are entering the episode and discovering a conflict, which needs to be resolved. Tension is built up in various ways. Maybe by a question showing indecision:

Yao pwae nek aokwapnae aomp nánik yak.
Into the bush my I-will-go thought remained

'The thought of going to the bush (to hunt) was with me. And too (the thought) that I would work.'

Téte mamek férénæ aomp.
Too here my I-will-work

Maybe by a character anticipating evil intent of the rogue and warning his wife long before the rogue actually tries to accomplish his intention. He warns her (speech is often used to alert the listener, to steer the story in a different direction, to reveal thoughts and intentions, to bring the climax to bursting point), using negative result and completed past and command.

At the beginning of the build-up, or to speed the story up (and maybe also to resolve a problem) short sentences may be used.

For instance, after Faruwa has made up his mind he will go to the bush, he says, Ono yam sámp. Nkan sámp. "I bilum took. Gun took."

The pace is speeded up, too, by the lack of ^{tail-head} head-tail linkage used ^{which} is typical of ~~so carefully in~~ other kinds of discourse, particularly procedural, where it ~~insures the correct~~ ^{specifies the} order of events. Even the change-of-referent marker is missed sometimes, and the abrupt start of the next sentence ~~clues us in to~~ ^{with a noun (the subject) shows} who is doing what, ~~though the subject will usually tell us:~~

Subject Ko amfek yakré nérokopré yak.
 Pig at that staying grunting stay.
 'The pig stayed there grunting.'
 New Subject Ono fér pwar ará nkeanko, "Kare! As....."

I part the bushes finish there see-I-OS
 'When I had finished parting the bushes (I said) "True! The dog..."'
 AS we approach the climax, other ~~phases~~ ^{linguistic devices} are employed as well.

Repetition of an action or series of actions, or a formula, which can ^{specify} occur in less tense situations too, begins to make the hearer suspicious that something different is about to happen and change everything. So that by the time three brothers have interacted with the sorceress in the same way and met their fate, and there is only the youngest brother left, we know something different will happen. In this instance, there is no overt marker in the grammar. But in the story of how the red birds got their colouring, when all these birds have dipped ~~their~~ various parts of their bodies in the dead ~~rogue's~~ blood and showed it to the heroine, who ~~refuses to believe~~ ^{refuses to believe} he is dead it says that that is the sum total of all the red birds. Then,

Pwar mwarapo téte " yér - e."
 Finish only (OS) too-focus ant sp. vocative.
 'When they had all finished, then (she called) "O ant!"'

Yer is a sudden, short-as-possible introduction to a new participant.

A common characteristic in (recent past, more particularly) history narrative is showing continuing movement ~~thus:~~ by prolonging the vowel and repeating the first syllable:

Yékiao aopwek po...pokia

Y. stream branch at go-going

Delays and deflecting our attention are other ways of heightening the tension just before the climax is reached. The main character might get a sudden idea or urge to change his course of action. All the

ruses for speeding up the pace may have been employed. All of a sudden 'the moment' is being put off.

The story could have simply said: 'Abraham-o asemaok samp-re fimp.'

(Abraham) asemaok sampre yerakre fimpre yerakre
 (Abraham) knife holding (walking around) holding (walking around)
 'Abraham holding the knife... and... lifting it high... up high
Yerak 'walk (around)', aokwap 'go', tank 'sit' and yak 'stay, is'
 can also be used to prolong another activity. So here it is used at the height of the drama.

As the climax is reached, we find it as often realised by a short burst of speech, where previously there had only been narrative.

A cannibal (~~who is not too bad really~~) has resurrected the bones of the heroine's husband and made a handsome young man. He hides him behind his daughter's and the heroine's sleeping mats. The heroine takes away her mat, then the daughter receives hers.

"Waakwe! Arop kwapwe kare ma fii mek ma tank!"

"Wow! A good man this corner in this sits."

("Wow! There's a handsome man sitting here in the corner!")

To keep the suspense up till the last possible moment, the storyteller will ^{reveal the climax} say it in the briefest way possible, i.e. in one word.

...aokwapiaka pokiaka nkeanko, ko.

...going then going up then see I CS pig.

'and going up I saw — a pig!'

Sometimes you think you've come to the climax, ^{though it sometimes is the opposite} ~~and it is a let-down~~ instead. This too can be presented as above:

Sampisae nkeanko, mo.

Sampisae I (having expected to) see Cs no.

'I (expected to) see Sampisae — but no (no-one was there).'

The story may wind up very quickly after that, the denouement, post-peak and maybe even the conclusion being fused together. The tension ^{is gone} drains away, and more often than not, the conclusion is satisfactory and ^{as} probably expected. (~~expectancy chain~~). To show the lack of tension we return to the true narrative style, containing some head-tail linkage, medial verb endings, change of subject endings, and un-affixed verbs sentence-final.

The Closure of a narrative contains as few words as possible, tying up the story.
~~The last sentence (the conclusion) winds up neatly.~~ e.g.

e.g.1. Am aropaomp Nampurimp porok tapek pumpuriaka
 That man-s-poss N.-poss body-at there-on stand on^{-ing} then
opukur tará a.....aokwapia wai ankwap némpok.
 step over there go-go-going now another village at
 'She stepped on and over that man Nampuri's body and went on and on till she came to another village.'

e.g.2. Mámakia maok. anténi narek pok. Pán apérok yak.
 Doing that-ing at-that, hornbill up at ~~was~~ ^{go up} Cassowary ground-at stay.
 'So the hornbill went up (into the treetops). And the cassowary stayed on the ground.'
 The second last example could have ended with 'stay' but the storyteller decided to imply it, ending in a locative. (This is fairly common.)

A finis is ^{usual} ~~more likely~~ to be found at the end of a folk tale, but may also end a historical narrative:

Pokianko tákamao koropia asan sámponp kar te
 Go up-ing I Cs snake possd coming dog-at take 3 far past talk focus
wae kwaté mao.
 now that it-subj.
 'The story ^{my going up and} of the snake who came and took the dog, that's now it (i.e. that's the end of it)."

What keeps the Karkar narrative together? (Cohesion)

In the first sentence of a Karkar narrative (and other discourse types) the theme of the ^{discourse} whole is divulged. In narrative the theme is ~~more likely than not to be~~ ^{may centre around} a person, or persons, and in the case of many bird stories, birds and people. ~~And sorceresses.~~ Other animals can be participants too, and in folk stories can speak and act like people. In recent history 'I' might be the subject, and other relatives called by names or kinship relationships. Most other narratives would be in third person. A character might be introduced thus:

Am arop e te Mpérépan tiaka yupu téráp mwar yakep.

That man name focus M... and daughter only stay-dual
 'That man, named Mpérépan, just he and his daughter lived together.'
 So the noun tells us it is a man. The noun ~~phrase~~ equational clause tells us his name, and he is represented by zero in the rest of the sentence.

Most participants are introduced by a noun, a name, a noun phrase or a personal pronoun (I). Usually thereafter except when the subject changes there is zero encoding. On rare occasions, máa, 'he' may occur, and nárop 'his' (distant 3rd person^{possessive}) is used fairly frequently rather than the usual 3s maomp. Also, where English would put He said, "My...", Karkar would more frequently say it like our indirect quote: He said, "His (distant third)(nárop)."
 When that participant becomes subject again, he usually is mentioned as before. One could maybe say that often the agent-line is tied together by additional information on the participant as the story progresses.

Parts of a story are linked together by lexical cohesion. If one were to read about chillies, preparing ground, making mounds and troughs and planting, then about picking up a pig spear and a small bag and going to the bush, one would suspect that the second part was a different story.

The event-line is a strong ^{cohesive} link throughout the narrative. As has been said before, verbs link in various ways. By medial verb endings:

Kwarén sériaka kar térépaopiaka Faonkwe Kwaromp yaek sánkia

To God saying then instructing then F. (dog) God's hand-at giving
pwar ará. 'Talking to God and asking Him (to heal the dog) we left Faonkwe in finish there. God's hands.'

By change of subject:

Komunik ^{Subject 1} takam am te téki tanknonko pwar ará

Morning snake that foc.like that sit 3s Cs finish there

wokae ^{Subject 2} yano némpok pirákampiaka éknomp.

now we excl village-to scattering then come down 1pl.

'In the morning that snake was still lying there, then we scattered and came back down to the village.'

~~Example~~ ^{on a pro-verb}
 Here the change of subject at the beginning of a sentence links it with the previous one.

Aenonko, yupuao aonkomar erekepre sempe sank.

He doing that CS wife axe drawing along holding give

'So (my) wife pulling along the axe, taking it gave it (to me).'

'Having done that' or 'Having done like that', with change of subject or with the medial ending, frequently begins a sentence, linking it to the previous one.

^{Tail-head}
~~Head-tail~~ linkage is more likely to be found in less dramatic narrative, where the pace is unhurried. This marks a paragraph break.

Entuparo eké sampe pok. Eké sampe pokiaka tankré....

Mother subj coming holding go up. Coming holding going up sitting...

The mother came down holding it and went up. Coming down holding it, she went up, then sitting down...

^{Anaphoric}
 Back reference also links

~~Example~~

..ankar am yam pom aropaomp kor kéri yakamp yam

must that bilum her husband's bones put in stay-3-past bilum

téma te mant kakap ko kor fek.

this-that foc with it carry sago at
 again trunk

'..she (felt she) must repeatedly take the bag in which were her husband's bones when she went to wash sago.'

Both am and téma té refer back to the bag we all know about.

Then there is the expectancy chain: When we hear:

Ono nkan sampiaka as warampia

I gun taking then dog taking along

'(I taking the gun and taking the dog along...'
 we expect the words 'to the bush' and 'go' or 'go up'.

Quite often the text is linked somehow by time. Some customs require that certain activities be performed at specific times. A travelogue may say, 'Next morning, after breakfast, we...'. The occasional use of past tense or completive past links in time perspective.

Descriptive text is not common, and is hard to elicit, as most people are more interested in what they have been doing than in explaining the look of a place or a thing to someone who has not shared his experiences. So, in amongst the description^{there will be} explanations of other kinds or references to something both know about. For instance, when ^{a man} Warawa was telling ^{his councillor} Council all about Lae he talked about Chinese stores and Chinese people, like those they had both seen in Rabaul. The speaker, as he talks, is adapting his description to what he thinks are the presuppositions of the hearer. The most natural descriptive text is embedded in a narrative. This type of discourse differs from narrative in that it is area, space, position, appearance-oriented. Time is irrelevant. Unless one is describing a person, participants are out of focus, as are events. There usually is a theme, but little or no continuity within it, unless, perhaps, certain types of things are being told about a number of similar objects in succession. e.g. the characteristics of birds. Things may be in focus. Quotation does not generally intrude.

As I have already said, there is little continuity within the theme in most cases, so that it is hard to talk of the structure of a descriptive text. ^{Description does not} ~~Rarely would it~~ have an aperture, starting with a simple introduction, such as :

Yinomp némp te kwar numéri. 'Our village (stands on) red ground.'

Our village foc. ground red

From reading the first few words it can be posited

~~So we know that the theme is our village.~~

Then follow the remaining facts, usually one new one to a sentence, and usually in some kind of order.

~~The rest may be a random set of facts. If it began with a formulaic beginning, the discourse will probably end similarly.~~

However, the discourse is ^{distinguished} full of interest grammatically.

Sentences are often shorter, rather than longer. There is economy of words, and precise definitions. There is little linkage within ^{tail-head linkage} and ^{anaphoric and cataphoric} between sentences. There are few references and particles.

Positionals are common. For example:

me kor-kamp

head bone from(out from) 'out from the head'

ankwap mwae faek

other road? side 'at one side (parallel to the other)'

Some descriptive texts may become ~~involved enough to have~~ relative clauses:

antemi yank papnomp te

hornbill eggs put-} sing/foc '(the place where) the h. puts its eggs'

And

Apaak-ok

mwaek-nomp

tukup

konomp

mwaseaok

Abau -at road(-at)-from go (pl) custom (lpl) road-along

'The road along which (people) go to Green River.'

In the 'How to Identify Birds' description, ^{the habitual verb suffix} 'customarily' is frequently used, but it ^{does} ~~certainly~~ would not occur in most texts.

...we customarily recognise, it customarily ^{does} (i.e. sings) like that.

The ^{intensive} adjectival adverb -rap ^(very) may be found, appearing to pluralise and intensify the quality of the adjective. e.g.

wi- rap

pwae numéri- rap

sharp plu/quality?

feathers red-plu/quality

Word order appears freer, and ~~many~~ sentences may be fragmented.

For instance, the adjective may appear before or after the noun.

(In most text the order is more consistent, I think, determined by which dialect is used.) Here is an example of a fragment, maybe an addition:

...kur -ri konomp.

Ant kur.

NG Eagle-call customarily. bird NG Eagle.

'... that's what we call the New Guinea Eagle. The New Guinea Eagle bird.'

Event verbs are rare. Statives and equationals abound instead.

If linkage is required and there is no verb, the adjective takes it (and I ~~think~~ nouns can too):

tete owur

yakare-iaka

ao mek

ma mekamp

numéri.

too crest

black-ing then

cheek in

there in from

red

'Also, the crest is black, and from the cheeks (grow) red (feathers).'

The stative verb in a sentence of S-Aj-St or Aj-S-St order is optional where the form of a sentence is repeated:

Many coconut is.

Many betel nut.

Many breadfruit.

Though one can come across pure Procedural text--the bare bones, as it were--more commonly procedural material fits into a narrative framework, and is enlivened by personalities, collateral information, evaluation, conversation, and sometimes specific times and places. The theme of a procedural text in Karkar is almost always an explanation of some cultural performance. e.g. How to Make Lime, Customs about Death, or Marriage.

Procedural discourse is event-oriented. The sequence in which activities are performed is a vital element. Though the participants are identified, the hearer's attention is not focussed on them so much as on what they do, and how and when they do it. Things are often in focus.

The structure of a procedural discourse is less involved than that of narrative. ~~As likely as not,~~ ^{Usually} there will be little or no introduction ~~to~~ ^{of} the topic about to be discussed. A bare bones procedural about lime begins:

Ono okwi yankap naeria aokwapia.....

I ~~time~~ cook about to going...

We learn of the woman's intention, and immediately she begins the procedure, ~~right~~ in the first sentence.

In one on how to grow chillies, ~~we~~ ^{it} starts ^{with} at the Stage. Waruwa gives the time and the place ~~to~~ where he is going, the name of the ^{agricultural officer} ~~didiman~~, then ~~elues us in~~ ^{indicates} to the topic through what he says.

"Onan rambo sapae."

to me chillies give (immediate imper.)

~~That lime text begins at Stage too, I suppose.~~

The procedures or series of procedures move not towards a dramatic climax, but towards the goal--the completion of the set of procedures. So the ~~climax~~ ^{goal} will most likely occur right at the end of the discourse. To reach this, the steps are precisely defined, and carefully ordered. If the style is more narrative, various kinds of additions will occur through this part of the text. For instance, in Customs

Concerning Death, a procedural ^{with numerous} ~~generously clothed~~ in narrative and ^{background and collateral} ~~other~~ features, we see such additions to the bare procedural text as alternatives: "if a man dies--or a woman or a child..." speculations of what kind of ~~man~~ person could have caused the death

collateral information: they berate the woman for not looking after her husband well enough, her neglect causing his death details of who hit her and with what reasons for dying listed reasons for heating all one's tools, possessions, feet and hands at the fire under the body.

The conclusion is ^{usually} ~~likely to be~~ brief. In "How to Make Lime", it takes up the ~~second half~~ of the last sentence.

Wurukupiaka okwi éknonko wokwae kokwapiaka kor mek pap.
 cooking then lime come down CS now picking up then tin in put

The discourse on marriage customs, beginning with a formula, ends in a conclusion and a formula. ~~It is difficult to decide exactly where one ends and the other begins.~~

^{Conclusion}
Aenonko wokwao tákarékaré koropé faop yak. Mamak i konomp.
 doing this again turning back coming good stay. like this we customarily do
 3s CS

^{Finis} ^{Formulaic ending}
Yino yupu warampnomp te mamak i konompan farákápnamp wae
 we excl wife our buying fod. like this we I have told now customarily do

te mao.
 that it
 'So she turns round and comes back and settles down. I have now finished telling you how we take a bride.'
 Perhaps We have dealt with some of the grammatical encoding in the ^{preceding} ~~immediately~~ previous section.

If ~~participants~~ the storyteller is the participant, he will use ono, 'I', followed by zero representation until someone else becomes the subject. Most common is 'we customarily!..', followed by zero. If a group is performing, it is usual that no-one is mentioned as subject after the introduction unless specific individuals, or part

ending, in expanding procedural to include the reasons for doing

Characteristics of Discourse Types in Karkar: a joint comp. 18.

of the group--the women, for instance--act.

Time and space words, phrases and clauses give the setting for the activities and processes. Props are identified both initially and, usually, subsequently, by nouns, though sometimes the subsequent position is zero. Where there are few if any particles.

The types of verbs used can be either durative or punctiliar or both, and, according to the procedure described, may have motion verbs also. In pure procedural text there are likely to be more verbs than any other part of speech. The text frequently employs medial verb endings. And the sentences usually end in the unaffixed verb--the final form. The frequency of medial verbs correlates with find long sentences. In some examples, there is little head-tail linkage, while it is frequent in others. The habitual/customary suffix is used often, particularly in the formulaic beginning or ending, in explaining customs. And in speech we may come across the hortative mood, as someone suggest the start of a joint activity. And in expanding the procedural to include the reasons for doing whatever-it-is that way, there are the reason and negative reason suffixes:

Apár némpare riaka fár yak no anté.
ground cold reason then game stay no neg reason/consequence

Mámak ri to iaka ankank ti pákré mámakré yirunki konomp.
do like reas foc ing then things gather go down like that heat
that customarily

'The ground could become ineffective and thus there would be no game there.
So for this reason we bring all our things down and heat them like this.'

Hortatory discourse, and sub-types such as Prayer, Evaluation and to some extent Epistolary are very similar. They ^{often express} engage the ~~thinking process, the mind, the critical faculty, the creative~~ ^{creativity,} ~~faculties,~~ feelings, opinions. Thus more abstract matters are in focus. Time, space, and events, to some extent, recede, and the performer and statives take prominent position.

The general structure of a hortatory discourse is a little less definite than that of procedural. The possibilities of how to begin are varied. But within the first sentence or two the theme is established. The body of the exhortation has ^{linkage being shown logically} no set development, and a climax, a final argument, may or may not exist. A series or two of thoughts may be repeated in ^{overlays throughout} various ways. A sermon may end in various ways. If it has been following a Bible passage, and the preacher has found some ordered points, he may climax the sermon with a specific exhortation, then recapitulate, and more likely than not, end somewhat formulaicly.

No doubt ^{and could be harder to follow} because the content of hortatory text is more disjointed, ~~harder to listen to~~ than narrative, many ingenious devices can be used to hold the attention of the listener. ^{These} Techniques for enlivening the text are:

- 1) ~~Change of pace,~~ Variation in the ^(see the brief second sentence) length of sentences:

Aenonko te namo te am fek te namwan te
 doing that foc we inc foc that on foc to us incl foc
 CS:

am te toi samp mo. Kwapwe kare.
 that foc sick hold not good truly
 pain

'So we do not get sickness from that. We are well.'

Change of ~~pace~~ ^{orientation} is noticed when, for instance, a point is being discussed or a story is being told, and the speaker suddenly asks a rhetorical question.

- 2) Dramatic pauses.

3) Emphasis expressed in various ways. As by intensifiers:

Kwar ankérankam té mao.

God one of that it/he 'There is one God and that's it!'

Ankár Kwarént saráp yak.

must, wholly God with solely stay

'We must remain wholly with God alone.'

4) By negative statement:

Kwar te ankwap yak mono.

God foc another stay not 'There is no other God.'

The example on p.19 has four in one sentence.

5) Or By contrast. 6) Or By use of focus marker (examples abound).

Then there are the poetic quality and linking devices of

7) repetition, 8) substitution, 9) parallels, 10) listing and 11) expansion:

Repetition: Aenomp ará yumo te, yumo te sékérép mono.

he doing there you pl foc, you pl f fall down not

'Because (God) does that you, I say you will not fall.'

(Here is another example of negative for emphasis.)

11) Listing or substitution:

Aeno nomp nánák mek kwékér nánák yak.

so our inc thinking in lying thinking is

5) Kákáank nánák yak. 6) Apáp nwanomp nánák yak.

covetous thinking is fear we will thinking is

'So in our minds there are lying thoughts. There are covetous thoughts. There are fearful thoughts.'

12) Expansion:

Am te yumo te mér mo rap? Yumo Wotapor Émpikamp kom táworáp

that foc you foc know not q 2pl you Yuri 2 women (and)

arop, némp-némp, Térowari, Kamperap, Pánánkar, Tékerapo.

men village-village, Troali, Kampriap, Panenkin, Tinkirabu.

'Don't you all know this? You people of WE, all the villages, T, K, P, T?'

~~Demonstratives are used effectively in emphasis (maybe you could call them back-reference):~~

Am te kwapwe kare yupu, am te kwapwe kare arop, am te

that foc good very woman that foc good very man that foc

kwapwe kare táráp.

good, very child

'That (kind of person) is a good woman, a good man, a good child.'

A variety of verb moods and aspects is used. Though less verbal linkage is used ^{in hortatory} than in narrative, nevertheless ^{there are} we still find some medial verb forms, change of subject, ^{forms} and ^{numerous} quite a few of the sentence initial, ^{forms meaning} 'doing that then', or 'doing that CS'. Hortatory and command are often employed, with a few negative commands and some conditionals.

Hortatory:

...tokwae kar warákar mwanapon.

big very happy we will/let us

Command:

Tokwae karao yumo téne, ao kipo.

big very possd you foc like that 2pl com

'(Because of) his bigness, you too (must treat Him as important).'

Some conditionals and results are not marked as can be seen from the next two examples.

Kwar tene mao te yérék kor i konompono. Aenomp aré yumo te.

God foc He foc watch well habitually He doing that you foc

yumo te sékérep mono.

You foc fall, down not

~~There are no overt indications (grammatically) for showing conditional or reason-result, though negative result is specially marked.~~

What techniques are used for persuading the listener to change his behaviour? ¹⁾By logical argument:

Maomp kar man sámpea ankár maomp yonkwae mek yarákwapiaka

His talk to it holding wholly our inc kiver in binding then

paokopnomp fek te Kwar Maropwar tie táráp Júsas námont yak.

walk about with foc God Father and child Jesus with us stay

'If we wholeheartedly take his words ~~and bind them~~ and bind them to our hearts, Father God and His Son Jesus remain with us.'

2) By inferences in questions, such as mock surprise, or chiding, or persuasion to emulate or to avoid certain behaviour:

Re: Yumo te Kwaromp kar te wao mo napon?
 Really! You foc God's talk foc hear not 2pl q
 'Really! Haven't you heard God's talk?'

3) Persuasion to emulate: "Are you Sarah's true daughters? If you want to be Sarah's true daughters, obey your husbands. Submit to them."

By straight out evaluation statements:

"This is bad. (^{implied:} Don't do it. For this you will die)!"

And fourthly, commands:

Yumo ono okuman mama sernamp an te farakap kwapono.
 you I now this have said that foc cut don't

'I have already said this, you are not to cut that.'

Here are examples from two hortatory texts of how an argument might run and what devices might be included:

Theme 1. 'Give thanks to God' (What God does, what we should do.?)

God does... you be..

God does... you behave like this...

If behave^{badly}... God is not with you.

If behave^{well}... God does well for you.

These ideas are repeated and varied in overlays.

Theme 2. 'You shouldn't cut the leg.'

. Introduction: Our ancestors' custom.

Rhetorical questions.

. Information. God created man--arteries, circulation.

Rhetorical questions, exhortations.

Compounded information. The Government's opinion.

Questions, exhortations.

Final command. God didn't tell you to do it. Don't do it.

We could regard Evaluation as a minor discourse type. It is similar in some ways to Hortatory. One is not likely to find a whole text full of evaluation. Usually it is a small part of another kind of text. And so often the evaluation is implicit and not explicit at all. The evaluation, if stated, is more-or-less in cold blood, a blunt statement of facts. e.g.

"I, holding anger for Mankani, went into the bush to hunt, and a spirit came to try me. At other times, when I was walking about with a good conscience, nothing bad came to try me."

Here is an example of implicit evaluation:

A sorceress kicks the ^{base}butt of a tulip tree and causes ^athe little adopted daughter to be imprisoned high up in its branches. Then ~~it~~ says she goes away and leaves her. But ^{the people}we know she is horrible, we are angry at her, and ~~we~~ wonder how on earth the child will come down.

The evaluation ^{may} ~~can~~ be of ^{the speaker himself} ~~oneself~~, as in the example given above. ^{It may be of the addressee} Or of ^{the people} ~~second person~~, which could also be called criticism, exhortation or encouragement, depending on its nature. Or it could be of a third person or a group of people.

^{It does not focus on} Evaluation focuses on states, and on qualities of behaviour. ~~Not on events themselves~~, but on the results and the effect they may have. ^{Evaluations may be expressed by} There are ~~some~~ exclamations, and some moods indicated:

Kwatae. Wampweno. Sokororé yeraknompono. Mao mwaé nomp
 bad forget it! nuisance walks about he road out-from
worékapmwanompanépe? pull out we will? quest
Téki yakea sumpwi a no. Mákríteaka pétia tankápmwar.
 like that staying 3s must doing like that leave sit-pl let's
 die

'He's bad. We'll have to forget it. He continually made a nuisance of himself. (Inference--he deserved what happened) In what way (how on earth) shall we get it out! He will remain like that and he ~~will~~ ^{must} die."Let's leave him like that and sit down."

So here we have Indicative Mood -no; simultaneous action -ré; dubitative interrogative?? -anépe; future state (Veda), 3s jussive (Dorothy) -ano and 1pl incl hortatory -mwar.

Time, space and things are irrelevant. Long spans of continuity,
and climax are not characteristic features.

Prayer, ~~as we hear it now~~, is probably closely patterned on how the missionaries and Christians at Green River prayed. There is a type of prayer, however, which is strictly cultural, and could come under the category of hortatory or of explanatory. The verb térepap describes what a man does when he asks his deceased father or brother to come to his aid by 'giving' him a pig when he goes hunting. It is also used of the speech a dying man makes to his family, instructing them on what to do with all his possessions, his food trees, his gardens, his ~~area~~ ^{area} of bush and his rivers. ~~And possibly~~ ^{He may tell them} on how to behave, and how to relate to various people.

However, Prayer ^{to God} is an essential part of Karkar communication in a number of villages.

As with hortatory and epistolary ^{discourse}, prayer is communication by first person to second ^{Third person is used in intercession.} person, possibly with more focus on second. ~~Stative and equational verbs are common, and as this is a type of conversational style,~~ we find a variety of moods and aspects. Time and space are not generally prominent, and action verbs play only a small part. A prayer usually includes a number of topics, so there is little ^{overall} continuity, and no real climax.

Of all the communication forms, the prayer, being formal, has the clearest formulaic beginnings and endings. ~~Though the formulae may vary slightly,~~ nevertheless the speakers regard them as obligatory. ^{This first sentence} Here is ^{the} one formulaic ^{to all prayers} beginning, ^{my co-translator} used ^{he usually follows it by the second sentence} When ~~Waruwa~~ and I are about to start a morning's work:

O Kwar, Amote yimomp Naropwar ankerank. Yino kumunik koropea
 O God, You are our Father one. We are coming this morning, I am coming and working with ^{at} Dorothy. I am coming and working with you to I am asking sitting and asking you.

The prayer ends something like:

Aeriaga Jásasomp e fek anwan má kar má farákápnamp
 doing reas Jesus' name on you to this talk this I have recounted
wae té mao.
 now that ~~fit~~/finished
 'So in Jesus' name the words I have said are finished.'

There is a variety of oratorical devices and grammatical characteristics^{used}. There is poetry in the parallelisms^{and}, the listing:

"You made our hands, our feet, our eyes, our noses, mouths and ears."

"If You said, 'Eyes, get better!' they did.

"If You said, 'Legs, get better!' they did."

"Give us good thoughts. Give us peaceful, gentle livers."

Sometimes the true Karkar vocative is used, as ^{one} he exclaims:

Esio, onomp Naropwar-e!
thank you my Father-voc 'Thank you, O my Father!'

Equationals and Statives occur frequently.

Kwar, amo te yinomp Naropwar kare té mao. Amo ankerankam.
God, you foc our Father true that it You of one

'God, you certainly are our true Father. You are one (there are no others).'

Amo apar-apar nemp-nemp amo penankor yaknap.
You ground-ground village-village You all stay/are
'You are in all places and in every village.'

The person praying^(a) may make a statement,^(b) or request, or^(c) declare God's usual behaviour:

(a) Mao yanan kakakare sap.
He to us strong give 'He gives us strength.'

(b) Yonkwae kor sapam.
liver bone give-us juss 'Give us good behaviour.'

(c) Yinan yonkwae porokwe sap konap.
us to liver soft give us habitually 2s
'You continually give us peace.'

There are medial verbs, both same subject and change of subject^{in the few longer sentences}:

Amo -ku kwaperok yakiaka yanan yeroinap.
you yourself merely existing us to make-dist past-2s

'You yourself just were and you made us way back then.'

Kwar yéro-i peti yakré nkenapo apár mek arop yak mo.
 ground make-far put-far staying see 2s CS ground in man exist not
 past past sim

'Mou left off making the world, and looked--and there was no-one there.'

The whole range of tenses is possible. Far past completive is seen above. Almost the same effect can be obtained by using a time word ^{and only the verb root in} and the bare verb, a statement:

Wokuruk narek yemar yero.

long ago up above sun make 'Long ago (you) made the sun up above.'

An example of past and CS is:

Jisas ana sampkérápapo.

Jesus You send-past 2s (CS) 'You sent Jesus.'

The -nap in nkenapo at the top of the page is 2s near past.

The 'future' tense is commonly used for future ^{time} as ~~we knew it~~, but is also used to show doubt:

Yino te apae fek samp si-ne -nemp?

we foc what with take throw dfut 2
 away

'With what shall we remove it?'

There are abstract qualities ^{indicated by} ~~made from~~ adjectives and verb endings.

kokwae-na-namp ará, owipi-nomp ará.

lazy fut ls that sleepy poss/ that
 tired 3s

'that tendency of mine to get tired, the problem of my eyes wanting to close.'

Besides the dubitative aspect of the future tense, a number of other moods are evident. ^{Here} There is nothing overt in Reason-Result ^{though it is usually marked (See V. Rigden on Rhetorical Predicates in Karkar, 1978)}

Yinomp sin tokwae sampsa. Aemp té man ono okuman ésic.

Our sin big taking doing that that this- I now thank you
 poss to

'You took our heavy sins, and so for this I thank you.'

Here is an example of the Reason/Purposive ~~Head~~:

Warop kar faopea mériaka warop karaok tukupmwanompria..
 your talk well-ing knowing your word-along we will go reason
 then

'We can understand your message well so that we will follow (obey) your words.'

Desiderative Mood is encoded thus:

Maom sumpwiaka yinan éréképnomp nae yonkwaéré...
 he dying then we-to took 3s fut liver-ing

'By dying He intended (wanted) to take (draw) us...

Conditional (I think it has a Desiderative ^{connotation} flavour too) ~~Head~~ appears like this:

Yino Fér fármwanomp nomp kwamp faop sáp konap.
 we food eat we will lp if well give us habitually 2s

'If we want to eat food You always provide for us well.'

And lastly there is ~~the~~ what I previously called Dubitative Negative, which seems to suggest worry, 'lest something bad come about'. I do not think these examples show this obviously at all:

...yinént yakré tére konompanté...

with us staying work we habitually lest
 '...if you are with us, we are able to work.'

..kákákáre sáp, tére yaewor. Ae konompanté yino yino okuman
 strength give, work helps He doing that lest we now
 habitually

kumunik téreneriaka...

morning at work we two are about to

'You give us strength, you help us to work. Because you always do this, we will be able to complete our work this morning.'

The only written discourse type I deal with in this paper is Epistolary. The level of education ^{of the writer influences} ~~has a lot to do with the~~ ^{layout} ~~setting-~~ ~~out,~~ and even the content of a letter. Some ^{of those} with less education are likely to put their name and address within the text of the letter, sometimes more than once, or put their name at the top of the page. However, I do not think this is significant.

Because a letter is an attempt to talk, or converse with the receiver, ~~it is likely to apply the~~ ^{letters contain the patterns of} ~~moods and aspects~~ common in conversation. ~~So~~ One finds conditionals, desideratives, ^{and imperatives} ~~commands~~ and ~~solicitations~~. In comparison with Prayer and Hortatory, there is often not such a close link in relating the behaviour and activities of the writer to the reader, unless it is a greeting, or showing concern or feeling. Thus, we could say it is speaker-oriented. Generally, other people mentioned are in the background.

There ~~will be~~ ^{are usually} narrative parts, giving dates and places and people and events. If it is a letter from someone in the village to someone outside, it is likely to be full of requests for things. In comparison with (written) narrative, there are changes of topic, and the sentences are shorter and more clearly defined. There is little linkage. Changes of topic are not overtly marked by beginning ^{writers}.

The formulaic beginning uses the European vocative:

O Dorothy tiaka Veda, 'O Dorothy and Veda,' or

O onomp nénae Yukumwab, 'O my little brother Yukumwar,'

(see p.26 for Karkar vocative)

and is followed, maybe with slight variations, by:

Ono amwan kar sér nae nae.

I you to talk say will 'I have something to say to you.'

Among more experienced writers, if change of subject is necessary within a topic, this is overtly marked. If material is added ~~about~~ the same subject and participant, in present examples no link is indicated. In ^{one} ~~my~~ best example, the change of topic or an introduction to a new topic is indicated by, 'I want to say a talk.' with no link to the previous sentence.

The first mention of a participant ^{is introduced by} will be 'I', or ^{by} proper names or kniship terms, and thereafter until ^{there is a} change of subject ^{there} will be have zero encoding. ^{frequently} Though there is a tendency in letters to write 'I' and 'you' ^{frequently} more freely than in other types, even inserting the reader's name at ~~xxxxx~~ intervals.

The letter closes something like this:

Onomp kar te wae té mao.
 my talk foc now that he
 'That's the end of my talk.

Onomp e te _____.
 my name foc _____.
 My name is _____.'

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Appendix

Matrix of classification of Discourse Genre, mentioned on p.3:

Parameters

Primary Secondary

Discourse	chron. link	Primary		Secondary		
		agent orient.	proj. time	tension		
Narrative	+	+	stories	-	episodic	-
			prophecy	+	most	+
Procedural	+	-	how to do it	+	routine	-
			customs	-	involve struggle	+
Behavioral	-	+	hortatory	+	argumentation	+
			eulogy	-	non-argumentation	-
Expository	-	-	most	-	argumentation	+
			future stage	+	non-argumentation	