

Chapter 4

Salience scheme

The first part of this chapter presents a literature review on etic saliience schemes. The second part discusses the proposed saliience scheme found in the Makuri texts.

4.1 Literature review

In his study of narrative discourse, Joseph E. Grimes proposes that there are two different kinds of information. The first is 'event information' where "a particular person did something (that is, an event took place)" (1975:35). The second is 'nonevent information', which is further divided into setting, background, evaluation, and collateral. The setting provides information about the place, time and circumstances in which the action takes place. Background gives the information that explains and comments on the narrative. Evaluation supplies the narrator's opinion on the events, participants, etc. Collateral information presents events which did not happen (1975:51-70).

This distinction of two different kinds of information forms the foundation for the distinction between mainline and supportive materials. Robert E. Longacre prefers to call the main events 'storyline' for narrative (an analogous 'mainline' for all types of texts) and the non-event material 'non-storyline'. This thesis utilizes his theory and methodology for discussing saliience scheme. He suggests

nine etic bands for narrative text (1996:28). This etic salience scheme is shown in Table 15. These bands are presented in hierarchical order, from band 1 which has the highest salience descending to the least prominent bands. Most languages do not use all nine bands.

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- 1'. Pivotal storyline (augmentation of 1)
 1. Primary storyline (S/Agent > S/Experiencer > S/Patient)
 2. Secondary storyline
 3. Routine (script-predictable action sequences)
 4. Backgrounded actions/events
 5. Backgrounded activity (durative)
 6. Setting (exposition)
 7. Irrealis (negatives and modals)
 8. Evaluations (author intrusions)
 9. Cohesive and thematic
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Note: Flashback can group with (2) or (4) or can be added after (5)

Table 15: An etic narrative salience scheme (adapted from Longacre 1996:28)

This salience scheme can be identified by 'peeling off' non-positive values of the storyline from the positive one (Longacre 1996:25-27). For instance, band 9 has the non-positive value of substantive, which is removed from the higher bands that are substantive. Band 8 is the comment or the evaluation made by the author, which is non-narrative material, when the higher bands are narrative. Thus lower bands are obtained by removing non-positive values one by one from the further positive values of various parameters for the storyline, such as realis vs. irrealis, dynamic vs. static, sequential vs. non-sequential, and punctiliar vs. non-punctiliar.

In some languages there is a distinction between primary storyline and secondary storyline, for example in Jirel, a Tibeto-Burman language of Nepal (Jirel 1999). Secondary storyline describes happenings of lesser importance. Pivotal storyline is of two types. One is the happenings which are marked as

pivotal and “constitute a rough abstract of the story”, and the other is the happenings which although they are marked as pivotal for some reason, “when taken together do not constitute such an abstract” (Longacre 1996:28-29). The first category ranks above the primary storyline but is incomplete, and the second is included in the primary storyline, although it is marked for prominence. Tertiary storyline or routine band presents events that are habitual and script-predictable.

4.2 Saliency scheme for Makuri narrative

The proposed Makuri narrative saliency scheme consists of six bands. They are: storyline, background, setting, irrealis, evaluation and cohesive bands as shown in Table 16. In his saliency scheme, Longacre differentiates pivotal storyline from primary storyline and secondary storyline. Then he also separates background events from background activities. However, due to the limitations of the data at hand, this thesis proposes only one storyline band and one background band. Each of the six saliency bands found in Makuri texts is discussed with examples in the following sections.

Band 1. Storyline
Band 2. Background
Band 3. Setting (exposition)
Band 4. Irrealis (negatives and modals)
Band 5. Evaluations (author intrusions)
Band 6. Cohesive and thematic

Table 16: Tentative saliency scheme for Makuri narrative

4.2.1 Band 1: Storyline

Storyline clauses are headed by event verbs that are the backbone of the story, making it progress. The verbs are punctiliar, volitional, and sequential

happenings (Longacre 1996:25-26). They represent motions, actions, speech acts, cognitive events, and events proper. ‘Event proper’ is a happening where the subject does not perform the event voluntarily (Longacre 1989:417), for instance the verb *yangtüh* ‘fall’ in Wild Pig 0271. The punctuality of the verb is often marked by ‘a specific tense-aspect-mood’ (Longacre 1996:3) such as the use of simple past tense in English for the event verbs.

In the Makuri language, tense-aspect-mood is shown by the particles that follow the verb. One of them is *net* ‘past tense’, which marks the event that happened at one point in time. When used with event verbs, this marker helps to determine the storyline clauses from non-storyline clauses. The occurrence of it with event verbs is presented in the following examples. All examples are storyline clauses. In example (72) there is a motion verb *vu* ‘go’ with *net*.

(72) Thief on Bus.003

mjë rapa vu net
 ... 1DU.excl together go **PAST.RL**

... we (dual) went together.

Directional verbs can also occur with motion verbs following or preceding them.

The directional verbs are shown in Table 17.

<i>vu</i>	direction away from the speaker
<i>arë/ rë/ a-</i>	direction toward the speaker
<i>zu</i>	go in
<i>chu</i>	go out

Table 17: Directional verbs

In example (73) a directional verb *vu* follows the main verb *tu* ‘move up’. In this example the speaker is himself moving away from the person he was speaking to.

(73) Wild Pig.009

amitpi rong shüh kha a tu-vu net
... 3S to ... say keep and **up-go** PAST.RL

(I) said to him,... (I) went up.

In example (74) there are a series of motion verbs occurring together. The motion verb *jeot* 'jump' is preceded by a directional verb *rë*. It is used because the participant *alë* 'they' had to pass the speaker to get down from the bus. Other verbs which follow the main verb are *tüh* 'move down' and *vu* 'go'; they together function as directional verbs which show that they are getting down away from the speaker. In this kind of construction the narrator has in mind both the source and goal of the direction of the actor.

(74) Thief on Bus.036

alë o khatti në rë jeot tüh-vu net
... 3P ABS once PRT **come jump down-go** PAST.RL

... they jumped down (from the bus) at once.

Example (75) shows an action verb *kat* 'shoot' occurring with *net* indicating that this action happened at a certain time. A clause can consist of one action verb as in example (75) or more action verbs occurring together. Example (76) shows the common occurrence of two action verbs. Here the result of the verb *këtsiu* 'push' is the verb *chang* 'break' knocking down the banana tree as the boar runs to escape from the hunter.

(75) Wild Pig.003

mëlüt khat kat net
... boar one shoot **PAST.RL**

... (I) shot at a boar.

(76) Wild Pig.012

mëlüt u o lüh tiu u ket kêtsiu-chang zë tsei net
... boar that ABS banana tree that even **push-break** and ... run.away PAST.RL

... the boar pushed down even the banana tree and (it) ran away...

Action verbs are also seen with directional verbs such as *tüh/ tüv* 'down', *kat/ li* 'up', *yeot* 'in to', etc, taking the place of the result verb from the preceding example (76). In example (77) the purpose of the action verb *khang* 'bend' used with 'gun' is to put the bullet into the gun, which is shown by the following directional verb *yeot* 'put into'. This type of directional verb is used when the participant moves something to another place as the purpose of an action.

(77) Barking Deer.022

uche pë khëra zë M kësüh o a - tsü apühpüh kang - yeot
then TOP fast MAN 1S gun ABS 3S - seed other **bend - put.into**

tü lüv
again NO.BEN ...

So quickly (I) reloaded my gun with another bullet, ...

Another action verb is the speech act. In this language, speech verbs are commonly seen after the quote even though the speaker and recipient of the speech act usually precede the quote. Sometimes the syntactic positions of speaker, recipient and the quote can be interchanged. A *zë* 'a quote margin or a complement' is the element that occurs after the quote. Example (78) shows *zë* right after the quote followed by a speech act *tsang* 'ask' and particle *net* 'past tense'.

(78) Wild Pig.043

kětat a süh pu kat pu mat zě a - rong tsang net
... how do IRR shoot IRR INT QUOT 3S - to ask **PAST.RL**

... (I) asked him, "How shall (we) do (this), will (you) shoot (it)?"

Speech verbs may also be used with directional verbs preceding them as in example (79). This type of construction takes directional verbs, such as *zu* 'go-down', *tu-vu* 'go up', *li-vu* 'go-near', etc. It is used when the participant who said it is at a distal place from the one spoken to. In the following example the participant who said *chang* 'answer' is at a lower place than from the narrator; thus he uses *zu* 'go-down', which does not necessarily mean that the participant who answered went down to a lower place.

(79) Barking Deer.028

tě ně amitpi ně ket zu chang net
then 3S ERG also **go.down** answer PAST.RL

Then he also replied from down (there).

Regarding cognitive experiences, it is important to note that cognitive states are different from cognitive events. The former is non-storyline material, whereas the latter is included in the storyline. The cognitive events include *ngu* 'see' as in example (80).

(80) Barking Deer.007

u zě vu tü la chak mulü-sei tiu khat ngu net
that MAN go when way on gooseberry-fruit tree one **see** PAST.RL

As (we) were going like that, (we) saw a gooseberry tree on the way.

The verb *kěcei* 'shock' is also included among the storyline verb because it has an immediate effect on the participant. In example (81) the participant *m* 'I' had a

narrow escape from the boar that made him *kēcei* ‘shocked’. In addition, this verb uses the intensifier *sat* ‘very’ and the particle *net*.

(81) Wild Pig.029

M ra tei kēcei - sat net
 ... IS gall.bladder big shock - INTS PAST.RL

... I was so shocked [lit. my big gall bladder was so shocked].

Events proper are another group of storyline events which do not have a voluntary agent. Such a verb is seen in example (82). It shows the verbs *cak* ‘break’, and *yangtüh* ‘fall-down’ followed by the directional verb *rě*. The event happened when the participant jumped up to hold onto a dry bamboo plant to escape from the danger of the boar. Both verbs *cak* and *yangtüh* denote the intransitivity of the events, something that happened by itself. In these clauses the participant was not the agent.

(82) Wild Pig.027

khėvok si cak rě yang-tüh rě net
 ... bamboo die break then fall.down come PAST.RL

... the dry bamboo broke and⁴ (I) fell down.

Besides event verbs, directional verbs and past tense particles, there are other particles that can follow event verbs and directional verbs, supporting them as storyline materials. They are *tat* ‘promptly’, and *ceot/ khe/ che* ‘completive’ marking the completive aspect of the action. Example (83) displays that the action verb *kat-tiiv* ‘shoot down’ as having happened quickly from the presence of the particle *tat*.

⁴ In this example and in other contexts the conjunction *rě* is homonym with the directive verb *rě*.

(83) Wild Pig.042

u thënga kong a kat-tiiv tat net
... that straight falling shoot-down **PROMP** PAST.RL

... right there (I) shot (it) down.

Example (84) depicts a completive particle *ceot* following the motion verb *anong* 'return'. It should be noted that sometimes the completive aspect marker *ceot* can be either preceded or followed by another completive marker *khe/ che*, when the verb has to do with number or quantity.

(84) Thief on Bus.047

uyinë mjë o anong ceot net
after.that IDU.excl ABS return **COMPL** PAST.RL

After that, we came back.

There are other particles as well that can follow event verbs: *pit* 'benefactive' and *liiv* 'non-benefactive'. The former indicates doing something for the benefit of another, and the latter indicates the actor acting for himself. They do not add tense or aspectual meaning to the event. Example (85) demonstrates that the action verb *she* 'divide' is done for the agent *mjë* 'we' themselves by *liiv* 'non-benefactive' particle.

(85) Barking Deer.041

mjë rüt a she liiv net
... IDU.excl even ADVR divide **NO.BEN** PAST.RL

... we divided (it) equally.

The causative marker *sit* with a past tense marker *net* is found in example (86). In this construction, the subject of the main verb *jüv* 'track' is not an actor, but a patient *amitpi* '3S'. The causative clause is included in the storyline clause because here the focus is the action of causing someone to do something.

(86) Wild Pig.036

khatti amitpi yeng jüv rë sit net
... once 3S RECI track come **CAUS PAST.RL**

... (I told) him to track (it) again.

In clause chaining the past tense particle *net* that marks a storyline clause does not occur following event verbs. In such places storyline clauses are determined by the use of sequential conjunctions. The sequentiality of the storyline clauses are marked by the following markers shown in Table 18.

<i>në,</i> <i>a/ a në,</i> <i>sa/ sa në,</i> <i>rë/ rë në</i>	and, then, and then
<i>a sa/ a sa në,</i> <i>zë sa/ zë sa në,</i> <i>zë/ zë~khëlä</i>	and , and then, after that and

Table 18: Sequential conjunctions

There is no structural difference between storyline and non-storyline clauses, as with back referential and adverbial clauses. The markers occur at the end of the clause in both cases. Example (87) demonstrates two storyline clauses joined by a sequential conjunction *a* ‘and’. The preceding adverbial clause marked by *te* ‘when’ links the previous main events with these clauses. Here the verb *jeot-yeot* ‘jump into’ shares the tense marker *net* with the following verb *tsei* ‘run away’. Both clauses also share the same subject (the boar) which is zero anaphora here.

(87) Wild Pig.039

kat punet zë süh te khatti në jeot-yeot lüv a tsei
shoot IRR that do when once PRT jump-into NO.BEN **and** run.away

net
PAST.RL

When (I) was going to shoot, at once (it) jumped into (the underbrush) and

ran away.

Furthermore, sequentiality can be marked by sentence initial temporal phrases or words. They are *u shüv*, *uche*, ‘after that’, *u të tü* ‘at that time’, *te*, *te në* ‘then’, *te pushit* ‘just then’, etc. In example (88) the initial temporal phrase *u shüv* ‘after that’ links the preceding events to the next series of events. Another way to indicate the sequentiality of the events is the use of overlap clauses as in example (88). Since the first clause is an overlap clause, it is demoted to the background band. In addition, the second clause of this sentence is demoted to the background band because of the repetition of the verb *pa* ‘sit’, which refers to a continuous action. In such cases a clause is demoted to other bands, despite the presence of a clause final sequential conjunction. In this sentence only the last two clauses are on the storyline, joined with a sequential conjunction *rë* ‘then’.

(88) Thief on Bus.012

u shüv a - khut - pu o a - khit lüv-lei ceot a mëkhi a
that after NR - steal - REL ABS 3S - hand take-back COMPL **and** gently

pa pa a në këtë yüv ket më shüh ti khatti në M tsüt rong a-li
sit sit **and** what word even NEG say NEG once PRT 1S face to **come-near**

rë azeipu o phokphokmi shu net
then teacher ABS beating **hit** PAST.RL

After that, the thief took back his hand and (he) was sitting quietly; then without saying anything at once (he) came (past) me [lit. by my face] and hit the teacher- Bam! Bam! Bam!

In the above sentence, the sequentiality of the event utilizes zero reference for topic continuity. The participant *akhutpu* ‘the thief’ is mentioned in the first

clause, and then the narrative continues with zero reference in the rest of the four clauses.

4.2.2 Band 2: Background

Longacre (1996:24, 27) states that the characteristics of the background band are progressive and durative verbs that encode happenings of lesser importance than the primary storyline. A background event tells what happens between the storyline events. Block (1994:84) also describes the background band as verbs that are repetitive, on-going, prolonged, and gradual.

In example (89) the occurrence of the present tense particle *le* is seen following the event verb *a-cheot* ‘come out’, denoting a cyclical process. That is, this event always happens at the time when the rice field is ripe.

(89) Wild Pig.002

u tēchit sūkhēlē pē khēlūv - lē ta mēnyūv mēlūt tsūtsa acheot
that time TOP TOP field - PL in wild.pig boar very **come.out**

le
PRES.RL

During that time many wild pigs come out to the fields.

Another marker for a background event is the occurrence of the stative verb *lei/leilei* ‘exist’ following event verbs. Its presence with an event verb makes that event a perfect state of having been done, thus marking the event as a background event. In a sentence final clause, *lei* is often followed by the past tense marker *net*. In clause chaining, though, it is directly followed by conjunctions. In example (90) there is an event verb *tsei* ‘run away’ with the stative verb *lei* marking the event as perfective aspect. It denotes that the event

happened sometime in the past and the resultant state is true either until the recent past or at the present time.

(90) Wild Pig.020

pong tēzhit - pu ta pē acang nē lephüphüta tsei lei net
 ... place eight - DEF in TOP truly PRT warmly run.away STAT PAST.RL

... (it) left the eighth place really warm.

An imperfective marker *shē* is illustrated in example (91). This marker is usually followed by the stative verb *lei/ leilei* and *net* when it expresses a past imperfective event. Thus the literal translation of this verb phrase *atüv shē leilei net* will be ‘was coming up’.

(91) Barking Deer.029

hühtsühkhat pa te M yepu ket a-tüv shē leilei net
 little sit when 1S friend also come-up IMPF STAT PAST.RL

After (I) sat a little while, my friend also came up.

Besides the above mentioned markers, there is reduplication of the verbs as one of the features for background events. When an action verb is reduplicated, it denotes the manner in which the main verb in a clause was done as in example (92). Here the main verb is *tsei* ‘run away’, and the manner in which the boar ran away, is expressed by the reduplicated verb *shu-chang chang* ‘hit-break’ hitting down the bamboo. In this type of compound verb or verbs that have more than one syllable, the last syllable of the word or the second verb is reduplicated.

(92) Wild Pig.012

mëlüt u o khëvok si ake zë shu-chang chang tsei net
...boar that ABS ... bamboo die alive and hit-break break run.away PAST.RL

... the boar... ran away breaking down the dry and living bamboo.

The clauses that have durative aspect are included in the background band. In this language it is marked by a repetitive particle *tei*.⁵ In example (93) this particle is used to indicate that the durative aspect of the event *khëmë* 'hit'. The event was happening again and again, i.e. the barking deer was hitting its head on the ground after it was shot down.

(93) Barking Deer.021

phëlong-vu yet a sa në a- küv në lei khëmë - tei zë yet
...fall-down sleep then 3S- head ERG ground hit - REP MAN sleep

leilei net
STAT PAST.RL

... (it) lay fallen and its head was hitting the ground.

Reduplicated verbs and repetitive verbs are optionally followed by the manner marker *zë*.

Another durative aspect marker in this language is *kha* 'keep'. When it occurs following event verbs, it marks the durative aspect of the verb as in example (94). In this example the verb *teng* 'aim' becomes an on-going action when it is followed by *kha*. This particle *kha* also involves some looking forward to another future action.

⁵ *tei* also means a reciprocal action of the event verbs. This marking is especially obvious with the speech verbs.

(94) Barking Deer.022

asüv khělë kat tü punet zë khatti teng kha pa net
... get.up if shoot again IRR that once aim keep sit PAST.RL

... (I) kept aiming; (I) was going to shoot (it) again if (it) got up

Adverbial event clauses are in the background band also. These dependent clauses are marked by *shüiv* ‘after’, *tëshüiv* ‘because’, and *tü* ‘when’. Example (95) is an adverbial clause marked by *shüiv* ‘after’.

(95) Thief on Bus.028

u shüiv shu khe shüiv M në zeipu të süh a zë tsang
that after hit finish **after** IS ERG teacher what happen INT QUOT ask

net
PAST.RL

Then after the hitting was over, I asked, "Teacher, what happened?"

There is a section in which a flashback⁶ occurs in the ‘Wild Pig Hunting’ story. It is found in sentences 052-055. Even though it is composed of event verbs, it is included in the background event because it is out of order from the main events. After telling how the boar was killed, the narrator in this section tells about the events that happened while tracking it.

4.2.3 Band 3: Setting

The setting band is marked by non-event verbs, including stative or adjectival predicates, as well as equative, existential, and relational verbs (Longacre 1996:24). It also includes materials that give explanations of the events. They can occur throughout the narrative. However, narratives typically set the participants in a particular time, location and certain circumstances with

⁶ Future research may identify enough instances to warrant positing a separate flashback band, but for the present analysis this one flashback is included with the background.

descriptive clauses concentrated at the staging of the story (Grimes 1975:51). In a narrative, the stage is where participants are introduced in time and place.

In these three Makuri texts the participants, time and location, are introduced at the beginning of the story, except in the ‘Wild Pig Hunting’ story where one of the main participants was introduced later than the stage in sentence 009. In this language, clauses in the setting band are signaled by the use of equative, existential, stative, and adjectival verbs.

Examples (96) and (97) are equative sentences. Example (96) describes the *mēlüt* ‘boar’ as having these qualities with the equative final particle *net*.

Equative sentences are formed as [NP NP *net*]. In this case tense is defined by context. The adjectival verbs *mērü* and *küvrak* are nominalized with the prefix *a* to be nouns.

(96) Wild Pig.057

mēlüt u pē tsühtsa zē a - mērü a - küvrak net
 boar that TOP very MAN NR - wild NR - stubborn EOC

That boar was a very wild and stubborn one.

In example (97) the whole adverbial clause is equated with the dummy subject (which is zero reference) to the time when they killed the barking deer. This is shown by the use of the equative final particle *net* directly following the temporal marker *tü*.

(97) Barking Deer.049

M pok khëyila chu tü net
 ...IS father ...trip go.out time EOC

... it was the time my father went on a journey.

Example (98) also shows another type of equative sentence. This type of structure employs *süh* ‘be’ with the stative verb *lei/ leilei*. The latter converts the former to a past tense, and its tense is reinforced by the use of the past tense marker *net*. The particle *net* is actually two different words that are homonyms with contrasting functions.

(98) Barking Deer.014

te yiu ti vokkhërak süh leilei net
 then NEG NEG pheasant be STAT PAST.RL

But (it) was not, (it) was a pheasant.

Existential sentences are seen in examples (99) and (100). Example (99) uses the existential verb *leilei* ‘exist/ have’ to imply that the size of the boar was four feet. In example (100) there is a stative verb *zhat* ‘stand’ used to mean the existence of two bamboo clumps.

(99) Wild Pig.049

zësa këtít te në zhengpiu tēzhit leilei net
 then measure when half.feet eight exist PAST.RL

After that, when (I) measured (it), (it) had four feet.

(100) Wild Pig.021

khëvok cheng khënet zhat a
 ... bamboo clump two ...stand and ...

... there were [stood] two bamboo clumps ...,

Adjectival predicates may be seen in examples (101) and (102). Example (101) uses *kësa* ‘happy’ with the final past tense marker *net*, whereas in example (102) the predicate *mëtang* ‘fat’ is followed by the sequential conjunction *rë në*. In this example there is also the occurrence of the stative verb *pat* ‘bear’ with existential connotation expressing that the fat had the size of a hand’s breadth.

(101) Barking Deer.025

u shiuv pë M o thëri a kësä net
that after TOP 1S ABS very happy PAST.RL

After that I was very happy.

(102) Wild Pig.050

tsühtsa mëtang rë në a- mëtang ket mëyüh në pat lei net
very fat then 3S- fat even palm PRT bear STAT PAST.RL

(It) was very fat and its fat [even] had a hand's breadth.

4.2.4 Band 4: Irrealis

Events that did not happen, or might or might not happen are included in the irrealis band (Longacre 1996:24). Grimes (1975:65) states that a range of non-event elements heightens the significance of the real events. The negative markers in this language are *ma/ më, yiu*, 'not', and *nü* 'not yet'. They can occur preceding the verb that is negated, as *ma* does in example (103) and *nü* in example (104).

(103) Wild Pig.023

khënyeot anëket mëlüt o ma cheot
... shake but boar ABS NEG come.out

... (we) shook (the bamboo) but the boar did not come out.

(104) Wild Pig.033

amitpi li rë ci nū ket M kësüh nū lüv
3S move.near then arrive when even 1S gun NEG take

Even when he came and arrived (I) hadn't picked up my gun.

Each of the above negative markers can be followed by *ti* as in examples (105), (106) and (107). Sometimes *ti* is used to mark the past tense of the negated verb as in example (105). It is also used when the negated clause is followed by another clause as in examples (106) and (107).

(105) Wild Pig.010

atei o jüv a më ngu ti süh net
... big ABS choose INF NEG get NEG happen PAST.RL

... (I) did not get the big ones.

In example (106) *yiü ti* in sentence 014 is negating the whole preceding presupposition in a preceding sentence *shokmëchei kho* '(it) might be a barking deer'. This negative marker is used when there is comparison. In this sentence *vokkhërak* 'pheasant' is compared with *shokmëchei* 'barking deer' in the preceding sentence.

(106) Barking Deer.014

te yiü ti vokkhërak süh lelei net
then NEG NEG pheasant be STAT PAST.RL

But (it) was not, (it) was a pheasant.

When the negative marker *nü* is followed by *ti* as in example (107), the negative clause is as independent as the following clause. However when it is followed by the overt conjunction *mëngok* 'before' as in example (108), this type of clause becomes dependent on the following clause.

(107) Wild Pig.038

M në patei kheng nü ci ti amitpi në shi-phëlet rë
... 1S ERG close.off place NEG arrive NEG 3S ERG turn-around then ...

... before I arrived at the place (where I was) to close the way, it turned around and...

(108) Thief on Bus.007

Tiritmingkëla yalë yüv kheng nü ci mëngok khënopilë mit khat o
... Tirimingla thing sell place NEG arrive before woman person one ABS

pasë mëkühla rong kë a-kat rë zhat net
bus door near at come-up then stand PAST.RL

... before (we) reached Tirimingkla market, a woman got on and stood near the bus door.

A clause that contains irrealis marker is also included in this band. In this language it is marked with *punet*. In example (109) the verb *kėje* ‘snatch’ is followed by this marker, thus marking the event irrealis.

(109) Thief on Bus.010

akhutlë mit khat o leke u kėje punet zë a - khit li-vu
 ... thief person one ABS money that snatch IRR that 3S - hand near-go
shë
 IMPF ...

... a thief was (trying) to snatch the money and his hand was getting close to it.

The structure in example (110) also presents events which should have happened but did not happen. In this example the main verb *shüh* ‘say’ is nominalized, and is used with another modal verb *te* ‘ought’.

(110) Thief on Bus.025

M në khe kho zë ashüh te le
 1S ERG finish IMP QUOT speech ought PRES.RL

I should have said, "Enough."

Example (111) shows the use of a conditional clause expressing irrealis. This clause is marked with *khëlë* ‘if’. Since this clause has not happened, the following clause is marked with the irrealis marker *punet*.

(111) Barking Deer.022

asüv khëlë kat tũ punet zë khattí teng kha pa net
 ... get.up if shoot again IRR that once aim keep sit PAST.RL

... kept aiming, (I) was going to shoot (it) again if (it) got up

However in example (112) the clause following the conditional clause is not marked by *punet*. Even though this clause is marked with *le* ‘present tense’ marker, it does not mean that this happened at the time of the story. Here the red-animals are compared with the boar that they shot; these red-animals were not shot. Thus it would seem that *khələ* by itself is sufficient to mark a clause as irrealis and that *punet* is optional.

(112) Wild Pig.056

u zë chok khələ shok-song kězheot shokmëchei - lë pë jeot khënet
 that MAN hit if animal-red deer barking.deer - PL TOP leap two

shë jeot a phëlong-vu si le
 just leap and fall-down die PRES.RL

If (they) were hurt like that, red-animals like deer (or) barking deer would jump just two steps, then (they) would fall down and die.

4.2.5 Band 5: Evaluation

The evaluation band is an intrusion by the author or the narrator. It includes performatives, evaluations and morals (Longacre 1996:24). In these Makuri texts there are authors’ intrusions and evaluations. At the end of the ‘Wild Pig Hunting’ (sentences 056-59) the narrator gives the teaching based on his experiences. Then finally he evaluates his hunting experience as in example (113).

(113) Wild Pig.060

M në sutsei rë ta shok loksat u shë tsühtsa më mënyüv
 IS ERG meet come in animal kill that only very NEG forget

zhüv ti net
 able.capacity NEG EOC

In my experience this is the only hunting that I cannot forget.

The narrator of the Thief on Bus also makes an evaluation at the end of the story as in example (114).

(114) Thief on Bus.050

u ni sutsei pë a - mē - mēnyüv zhüv khat net
that day meet TOP NR - NEG - forget able.capacity one PAST.RL

The experience on that day is an unforgettable one.

4.2.6 Band 6: Cohesion

Cohesive band markers are adverbials that connect the text together by repetition, or anaphoric reference to former events (Longacre 1996:24). It also includes paraphrases, relative clauses, summaries and previews. The use of temporal phrases, adverbial clauses and other sequential conjunctions can indicate cohesion for the texts too. Also this band includes head-tail linkage clauses. In relation to the back reference, this band overlaps with the background band. Since it often repeats information which is already known, it is the lowest band in the salience scheme.

In this language, cohesion is expressed by the use of temporal phrases, overlap clauses, sequential conjunctions, and summary statements; they show the relationship between the chunks in a text. Temporal phrases that express cohesion include *atiti vu ra* ‘the first night of going’, *asëri* ‘the next morning’, *u tētü kë* ‘at that time’, and *u ni kë* ‘on that day’. In example (115) there is an overlap clause. Some parts of the final clause from the preceding sentence are repeated in the first part of the following sentence. The repeated parts of the sentences are bolded.

(115) Wild Pig.037

zë-süh-khëlä M në patei punet no zë shüh tat kha a M ket
that-do-if 1S ERG close.off IRR okay QUOT say PROMP keep and 1S also

patei pu vu net
close.off IRR go PAST.RL

(I) said, "If so, I will close off (the way), Okay" and I also went to close off the way.

Wild Pig.038

unë patei pu jong vu te
thus close.off IRR run go when ...

So when (I) ran to close off (the way), ...

In this language adverbials such as *u shüv*, *u che*, *zë sa* 'after that', *u në*, *u tengla në* 'thus', *shüv* 'after', *tëshüv* 'because', and *tü* 'when' mark a clause as belonging to the cohesive band. In sentence 038 there is an adverbial *u në* 'thus/ so', which connects this clause to what was said in previous sentences.

Summary statements also express cohesion in these narratives. The determination in example (116) is connecting the preceding events with the events that follow after it. This determination was made as a result of the narrator not getting any game in previous events.

(116) Wild Pig.007

unë këtë-süh-a-ketket shok loksat a shë khëye nong vu punet zë
thus what-be-then-any animal kill then only house return go IRR that

asëri khatti pa net
next.night once stay PAST.RL

Thus (I) stayed again the next night (thinking) that somehow (I) would kill an animal, only then (I) would go back home.

Example (117) is another summary statement introducing the purpose for the following events. In this sentence there are references to the previous events by

the use of *u shüv* ‘after that’ and *mulüsei tiu u* ‘that gooseberry tree’. The whole idea of building a blind and sitting on it is leading up to the events that follow after it, thus creating cohesion in the narrative.

(117) Barking Deer.011

u shüv pë M o mulü-sei tiu u chak pasang te rë nē pa
 that after TOP IS ABS gooseberry-fruit tree that on blind build then sit
net
 PAST.RL

After that I built a blind on that gooseberry [fruit] tree and sat (on it).

4.2.7 Promotion and demotion

In the salience scheme, demotion and promotion take place when the use of grammatical subordination or relativization occurs in a clause. The use of back-reference to the preceding clause also demotes that clause to a lower level of the salience scheme (Longacre 1996:3-5). In these three narratives, though there is no instance of promotion, the demotion of storyline events to the background band are found. The use of the adverbial conjunction *te/ te nē* ‘when’ demotes a storyline clause to the background band by making it a dependent clause as in example (118). In this example the storyline verb *kat* ‘shoot’ occurs with another storyline marker *tat*, but when it is followed by *te* ‘when’, this clause is backgrounded. However, it is noteworthy that this adverbial has less dependency in this language compared to the other similar adverbial *tü* ‘when’.

(118) Wild Pig.012

uche sangmi chak cong nē shē meikēsüh khanglü rë nē kat tat te
 then stump on from PRT just gun pull-up then shoot PROMP when ...

Then just from the stump (I) pulled up the gun and when (I) shot (it), ...

Reduplication of an event verb, which creates meaning of the verb that extends through time is another demoting element. In example (119) the event verb *peng* ‘swell’ is repeated, thus demoting the storyline clause to the background band (see also 4.2.1).

(119) Thief on Bus.041

u tü a - tsüt o tsühtsa peng peng rē net
 that time 3S - face ABS very swell swell come PAST.RL

(Then) at that time his face became very swollen.

4.3 Summary

In this chapter the Makuri texts are analyzed following Longacre’s framework, and a salience scheme for Makuri narrative is proposed. Makuri narrative discourse has six bands. The storyline band is the first one in the hierarchy of this salience scheme. This band is found in the independent clauses of the text. As it is expressed by Longacre, these clauses are the backbone of the story which moves the story forward. They are punctiliar, volitional, and sequential happenings. In this language the storyline verbs such as motions, actions, speech acts, cognitive events, and events proper are marked by final particles and sequential conjunctions.

The background band is the second band in the scheme. The verbs of the background band are characterized by present tense, perfect aspect and continuous aspect markers. Durative aspect markers in this band are marked by reduplication of the event verbs and by using repetitive particles. This band also includes the events that are flashbacks. Clauses that belong to the setting band contain equative particles, descriptive verbs, existential verbs, and stative verbs.

The irrealis band is marked by the use of negative markers and the conditional conjunction. The evaluative band is the expression of the narrators' feelings and opinions about the situation. The last band is the cohesive band. It is established by using overlap clauses and adverbial clauses. A summary chart for the proposed salience scheme in Makuri narrative is given in Table 19.

Band	Storyline ranking	Markers
1	Storyline	event verb + <i>net</i> 'past tense' event verb + <i>ceot</i> 'CMPL'+ <i>net</i> 'past tense' event verb + <i>ta</i> 'PROMP' + <i>net</i> 'past tense' event verb + <i>līv</i> BEN / <i>pit</i> NO.BEN + <i>net</i> 'past tense' event verb + <i>sit</i> causative marker + <i>net</i> 'past tense' event verb + sequential conjunctions:- [following the clause- <i>a/ anē/ rē/ rēnē, asa/ asanē, nē</i> 'and'/ 'then'/ 'and then'] [preceding the clause- <i>te/ tenē</i> 'then' <i>te pushit</i> 'then', <i>u shīv/ uche/ zēsa</i> 'after that']
2	Background	event verb + <i>le</i> 'present tense' event verb + <i>lei / leilei</i> 'perfect' event verb + <i>shē</i> 'continous tense' event verb + <i>-tei</i> -repetition event verb + event verb -duplication <i>kha</i> 'keep-durative' flashbacks
3	Setting	N + N + <i>net</i> 'EOC' (equative final particle) <i>sūh</i> 'be' + <i>lei / leilei</i> 'exist' + <i>net</i> 'past tense' Adj + <i>net</i> 'past tense' <i>zhat</i> 'stand' -stative verbs
4	Irrealis	<i>ma/ mē, mē...ti, yiu, nū</i> 'not' <i>pu (net)</i> 'will' (future tense) <i>khēlē</i> 'if' (conditional conjunction)
5	Evaluation	author intrusion
6	Cohesion	overlap clauses and adverbials [<i>tū</i> 'when/ during', <i>te/ tenē</i> 'when', <i>shīv</i> 'after', <i>u shīv/ uche/ zēsa</i> 'after that', <i>u zē</i> 'like that' <i>tanē/ tanēket</i> 'but', <i>u nē</i> 'thus' <i>ta/ anēket</i> 'though']

Table 19: Proposed Salience bands of Makuri narrative

Storyline band is demoted to non-storyline band, especially to background band, by use of the adverbial *te* 'when' and reduplication of event verbs. There is no instance of elements that promote non-storyline bands to storyline in these

stories. More research is needed to determine whether this language does or does not have such elements.

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