Postscript: Plurifunctional narratives

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1. Introduction

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In this brief postscript I reflect on these stimulating papers, starting with
 hopefully well-accepted general precepts, and then commenting on shared
 themes, from the nature of narrative entextualizations as objects to the
 interactive social engagements from which they emerge.

Linguistic anthropology and the comparative study of talk-in-18 interaction take as axiomatic the plurifunctionality of utterances, which 19 always operate on formally laminated but analytically distinct levels to 20 perform multiple sorts of communicative and sociocultural actions. Fur-21 thermore, metapragmatics—a metatheory of what we can do with talk— 22 involves everything from highly regimented, explicit, and available 23 phenomena to problematic, difficult, and largely invisible sorts of action 24 (Silverstein 1981), frustrating the search for definitional precision when 25 comparing folk metapragmatic concepts. Two corollaries follow: that a 26 complex layering of biographical and ethnographic background is re-27 quired even to identify an interactive fragment as a member of some 28 29 metapragmatic category (such as 'narrative') in the first place; and that all communicative 'moves' are interactively negotiated and emergent. 30

First a complaint: utterances are not only multifunctional, but also 31 multimodal. In these for the most part audio-only narrative studies, with 32 data usually in English or presented in free English gloss, one often feels 33 that formal interactive elements may be rendered invisible by design. Ochs 34 35 (1979) pointed out decades ago that when our data are reduced to the transcripts we use, we must be especially careful how we choose to tran-36 scribe. Is there only one possible standard of transcriptional detail? Does 37 the original language matter? Can we somehow read the Italian through 38 an English gloss? Or interpret significant visible action through a desul-39 tory textual paraphrase? In introductory linguistics, one hammers home 40 41 the dictum: 'form first!'¹ Formal marks of a genre or an activity are only available for scrutiny if communicative form is taken seriously. Fasulo 42

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and Zucchermaglio analyze genres via, for example, precise characteriza-1 tion of Italian verbs. Johnson identifies epistemic moves from the varieties 2 of English modals that appear in her police interviews. Johnson also 3 shows, with careful analysis of phraseology, how police interviewers 4 relexicalize 'start-point narratives' into 'formal evidentiary narratives' to 5 incorporate desired perspectives and evaluation. With respect to multimo-6 dality, only Bamberg and Georgakopoulou's transcript explicitly includes 7 visible action as part of the narrative record-and necessarily so since 8 gestures, movements, and facial expressions are central metadiscursive 9 mechanisms for managing interaction and voicing interlocutors in their 10 material. 11

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2. Definitional and typological issues

All of the studies here seek in one way or another to expand the definition 16 of narrative, but one wonders in the end what sort of category 'narrative' 17 is meant to be, especially across contexts and communicative traditions. 18 Is it a native category (as suggested by Bamberg and Georgakopoulou's 19 [this issue] criterion: '[when] the participants themselves orient to what is 20 going on as a story'-however, pretheoretically or ethnographically, we 21 are to understand 'story')? Does it rely on vestiges of Labov's structural 22 elements-temporal ordering of clauses, complicating actions, or evalua-23 tive components, perhaps?² Must narratives be 'tellable'—a distinctly 24 context-dependent and presumably culturally variable notion? For Fasulo 25 and Zucchermaglio temporal displacement is central, the exploitation of 26 'the there and then', so that narratives can provide for the telling of 27 unknown, imagined, or at least 'not fully known' events. Bamberg and 28 29 Georgakopoulou's (this issue) further elaboration of 'fleeting moments of a "narrative orientation" in interactions' (e.g., hinting that there is a story 30 to tell but withholding it) is helpful in showing how a native's perspective 31 might help identify narratives, but this formulation returns us to interac-32 tive and ethnographic matters that are systematically excised from many 33 of the transcripts. 34 35 For most of these papers, definitions seem less important than typologies of a taken-for-granted 'narrative' category. But the typologies, too, 36

gets of a taken-for-granted narrative category. But the typologies, too,
are diverse. Thus, Bamberg and Georgakopoulou's 'atypical' or 'small'
stories are identified by suspending as criterial certain discursive characteristics they may lack: full development or coherence, for example. De
Fina contrasts 'self-' and 'other-narratives' (which have different interactive and indexical properties) and expands her scope to what she calls
'narrative activity' (one among many 'symbolic practices' with 'their own

roles and modes of speaking' [citing Gaik]). Still, in the end, she proposes
a fairly simple topic-based typology, contrasting with the sequential (Bercelli, Rossano, and Viaro, for example) or functional (e.g., Kjaerbeck;
Fasulo and Zucchermaglio) typologies proposed in other papers. As distasteful as fixed definitions or coordinated typologies may be, without
some guidelines it seems hard to be sure that we are studying the same
things let alone a unified domain.

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10 3. Contexts of emerging narration

A strength of this collection is the variety of activities from which the 12 data are drawn: psychotherapy sessions, parent-teacher conferences, po-13 lice interviews, workplace planning and post-mortem sessions, and dinner 14 conversation at a social club. The studies thus not only problematize ca-15 nonical elicited narratives but also implicitly challenge the analytic notion 16 of unmarked 'ordinary conversation'. Narratives here emerge from inter-17 locutors' own concerns, but concerns that grow out of situated activities 18 each with characteristic interactive and social configurations. Stories are 19 'embedded within' (Fasulo and Zucchermaglio) other sorts of discourse, 20 and this wider discourse context thus becomes a central analytic object 21 to understand the genesis in interaction of storytelling, retelling, rework-22 ing, and suppression. Moreover, as Kjaerbeck makes explicit, narratives 23 project their discursive contexts in the familiar dual way of all indexical 24 signs: they can both presuppose a certain sort of situation, and they can 25 creatively refashion the context in their wake. So instead of the highly na-26 turalized (or perhaps invisible) motives behind a Labovian narration, we 27 see that stories emerge neither 'naturally' nor 'neutrally'. De Fina has 28 29 perhaps the most seemingly neutral case: narrative as construction of self (getting to know each other, self-presentation, identity creation), but al-30 ready highly constrained to certain sorts of selves relevant to an Italian 31 American social club. As most of the authors point out, there need be no 32 particular complicating action in these stories, no risk of a dismissive 'so 33 what?' reaction. Indeed, Johnson argues that suspect narratives before a 34 35 police interviewer are designed to emphasize the normalcy of narrated events, to minimize the exceptional (and hopefully the culpable as well). 36 Nor need the narrative motives be the same for teller and hearer; in fact, 37 again as in the police interview case, their interests in narratives may 38 be diametrically opposed, a point to which I return at the end of this 39 40 postscript.

41 Several papers usefully link context and activity together via the con-42 cept of 'community of practice', which implies mutually monitored com-

municative routines and practices, with an associated social history, and 1 evolving interactive negotiation of community-specific forms and rules of 2 use over time. Such a notion is explicit in Marra and Holmes' analysis of 3 Māori organizational talk and in De Fina's social club, presupposable in 4 the workplace interactions of Fasulo and Zucchermaglio, and presumably 5 applicable as well to Bercelli, Rossano, and Viaro's therapy sessions, or 6 Kjaerbeck's parent-teacher conferences, presumably mini-communities-7 of-practice in the making. It is also the wider community of practice 8 (here, one imagines, the British justice system) that gives meaning to the 9 otherwise inexplicit notions of 'precision', 'evidentiality', and 'formality' 10 as applied to narratives in J's police interviews. De Fina also locates 11 some story genres in specific kinds of 'interactional work' (for example, 12 on Italian 'origins'): subpractices, from a wider repertoire, that set up spe-13 cific argumentative possibilities to which mini-narratives can connect. 14

Finally, the emphasis on therapy, counseling, and workplace collaboration reminds us of the overall practical context of this work, and the relations between the research questions we ask and the circumstances and activities of the interested participants on whom we rely for data. Narrative studies are thus made consequential to the real world.

4. Narrative plurifunctionality

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In a much quoted passage, Bauman (1986: 5) writes 'events are not the 24 external raw materials out of which narratives are constructed, but rather 25 the reverse: Events are abstractions from narrative. It is the structures of 26 signification in narrative that give coherence to events in our understand-27 ing'. He goes on to caution that narrative 'may also be an instrument for 28 29 obscuring, hedging, confusing, exploring, or questioning what went on, that is, for keeping the coherence or comprehensibility of narrated events 30 open to question'. As several papers here point out, canonical narratives 31 from this perspective share a kind of event-crystallizing (or questioning), 32 hypothetical, 'subjunctivizing' (Fasulo and Zucchermaglio, citing Bruner) 33 or 'preconstructional' (if not instructional) function with myths and 'just-34 35 so stories', but also with conjectural problem solving, Ochs et al.'s (1992) 'family detective stories', or Fasulo and Zucchermaglio's 'fictions'. That 36 is, they bring events and situations into existence in some 'possible world'. 37 They involve both a lamination and a (de)calibration of different such 38 worlds, including narrated worlds and narrating worlds. Such creative 39 binding and mutual projection of distinct worlds is the narrative function 40 common to these papers, though often through the reverse formulation: 41 that narratives present alternative perspectives on the same 'events'. 42

1 (Note for example Fasulo and Zucchermaglio's concept of the 'reorgani-2 zation of knowledge' via narrative as part of the reworking of 'events', back interpublicationally because and be averable after the fact.)

³ both intersubjectively known and knowable after the fact.)

Although with varying sophistication about the notion of 'identity', 4 several papers also highlight 'identity work' (Bamberg and Georgakopou-5 lou) or 'identity construction' (Marra and Holmes) in narrative interactions.³ Partly this is a corollary of the inherent indexicality of all 7 utterances-most prominently co-constructed utterances-which always 8 project aspects of interlocutors' manifold 'identities'. Partly it is a matter 9 of referentially explicit 'identification'-self-consciously performing 10 Māori or Italian or professional selves, for example. Partly it is a matter 11 of footing, inhabiting shifting and fragmentable participation frames, as 12 with Bamberg and Georgakopoulou's ten-year-olds. 13

For me, more problematic are aspects of interpersonal stance manage-14 ment that one might want to link to projected selves. For example, I find 15 'agreement' and 'disagreement' difficult a priori categories. One cannot 16 reify performance into attitudes or beliefs: stances are more complex 17 than that. So can you read off 'cultural values' directly from conver-18 sational moves, pace Marra and Holmes? (And what are the criteria, for 19 example, for recognizing irony and thus shifting the valence of such ex-20 pressed 'values'?) By contrast, Fasulo and Zucchermaglio's attention to 21 pronoun shifts and footing changes in 'Templates' highlights the intersub-22 jective work always being done in conversation, more complex than just 23 agreement and disagreement. Kjaerbeck (this issue) convincingly writes 24 that '[n]arrative accounts are descriptions that are produced because of a 25 local need in the interaction, and they perform different types of actions, 26 e.g., an explanation, a justification, an excuse'. But, as Austin's (1961) 27 classic paper on excuses is at pains to point out, we need 'clean tools' 28 29 (lexically and conceptually) to be able to identify such 'types of actions' with confidence in ethnographically varied discourse. 30

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5. Participant frameworks, voicing, asymmetry

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A similar difficulty for me surrounds notions of 'implicitness' and 'indirection' (part of Marra and Holmes's characterization of Māori interactive style), since such notions are highly dependent on participant structures, which will be my final theme.

Bamberg and Georgakopoulou explicitly take up Goffman's (1979) deconstruction of Speaker, but interestingly the other contributions are less

41 explicit; nor do they engage Goffman's more schematic but important re-

⁴² marks about Hearer. All of the authors here seem to agree that narratives

are interactive co-productions, 'interactive achievements' by tellers and 1 recipients (categories which deserve further scrutiny). Fasulo and Zuc-2 chermaglio appropriately link this co-production to 'distributed cogni-3 tion' through the 'back and forth movements' of tellership and recipience. 4 However, just as Irvine (1996) productively recast Goffman's decomposi-5 tion of Speaker into different component roles as reflecting a diachrony of 6 (possibly virtual) 'shadow conversations', part of the complexity about 7 authorship of a story is a function of the social history of particular nar-8 ratives and the concomitant Bakhtinian revoicing that accompanies cycles 9 of narrative tellings and reworkings. This is especially true in the institu-10 tional contexts treated in these papers, which require tellings and retellings 11 fitted to the interactive requisites of successive moments (crime scene, later 12 interview, lawyer's discourses, court; or therapeutic revelation, reworking 13 by therapist, evaluation and hopefully acceptance by therapee, etc.). 14

Indeed, one way of understanding the relationship between what De 15 Fina invokes as the 'macro' and the 'micro' is as a diachronic engagement 16 between different participant structures. The overall social background to 17 any interaction is itself a kind of macro-participation frame. Here occur 18 the discursive lives of both corroborative or hegemonic 'master narra-19 tives'-part of what Marra and Holmes may mean by 'culture' and which 20 may be difficult if not impossible to resist-along with insurrectionist 21 'templates'. These may be 'shadow' narratives in Irvine's sense, since 22 they are often only available by allusion, as in Bamberg and Georgako-23 poulou's Shaggy-dog story whose whole point is (a way of) telling (or 24 not telling) about maleness, sexuality, and denial. 25

Resonances between 'macro' participation frames and those of the interaction at hand endow particular interlocutors with differential authority, power, and what Johnson calls 'interactional resources'. Johnson's Bakhtinian 'superaddressee' in the police interviews, for example—the judges, the courts, and the justice system in general—sits as a brooding presence behind the interviewer and interviewee exchanges. (Compare what Grice 1975 has to say about the 'cooperative principle'.)

Reference to macro structures also gives authority, expertise, and pro-33 fessionalism to the voices of therapists, teachers, supervisors, lawyers, and 34 35 policemen. In most of the cases considered here, there is a built-in asymmetry of interpretive authority in the reconstruction of events through 36 narrative: therapists, teachers, etc., have first claim at interpretation, 37 though there may be insurrection. (Note that the asymmetry may be sub-38 tly altered by different individual skills: some police interviewers are 'bet-39 40 ter' than others, Johnson tells us, as presumably are therapists, teachers, supervisors, etc., whose authoritative positions may inject themselves in 41

⁴² different ways on narrative construals and reshapings.)

The asymmetries are not only about authoritative voice, but about 1 access and interactive power. Bamberg and Georgakopoulou mention 2 the special sense in which self-stories are often taken as direct mirrors of 3 teller's subjectivities, because of their nonshared nature and the unique 4 access that teller's are meant to have to their own experiences. Bercelli, 5 Rossano, and Viaro's therapists, however, seem not to concede such uniqueness. Bamberg and Georgakopoulou also highlight a different kind 7 of asymmetry, where a (potential) teller makes a (potential) story all the 8 more interactionally 'tellable' by withholding it. This kind of manage-9 ment of 'interactional engagement' is another little considered aspect of 10 narration as activity. 11 However, the most striking asymmetries here have to do with raw 12 power, nowhere more apparent than in Johnson's study of police inter-13 rogations and the professional transformation of narratives to meet insti-14 tutional requisites. She contrasts two potentially conflicting desiderata-15 protecting the interests of suspects, versus serving 'justice'—and we could 16 generalize this opposition to most of the institutional contexts examined 17 in these essays: who has the right to tell one's own story? (And when is a 18 story really one's own, anyway?) 19 The sad fact, however, is that the balance of interactional power is 20 clearly stacked against some narrators from the start. Therapists are 21 meant to do therapy, so clients either acquiesce or buy the services of an-22 other. Parents are systematically at the mercy of the 'professional' inter-23 pretations of their children's keepers. Institutional settings filter narrative 24 interpretations-stories in the Māori business are 'heard' as about Māori 25 values, or in the Italian American club as about claims to Italianness. And 26 police interviewers are clearly expert at overcoming even the legal protec-27 tions supposedly allowed to suspects in interrogation, as the suspect's talk 28 29 in the face of the legal 'right to remain silent' in Johnson's paper shows. This is an institutionalized asymmetry of power. Worse still, Johnson 30 shows clearly that selective silence is, at the least, a poor 'narrative strat-31 egy' for suspects, part of the systematic disadvantaging of witnesses in 32 Anglo-Saxon courts, where only 'expert witnesses' are given any leeway 33 in their own testimony, and 'hostile witnesses' can be silenced into accept-34 35 ing other-narration. With respect to culpability and evidence, the interactive shaping of narrative often appears to be a kind of blatant coercion, 36 especially obvious in police interviews—for example, with systematically 37 devoiced undocumented indigenous Mexicans in some of my own recent 38

work (Haviland 2003, 2005), as well, for example, in the asylum interviews studied by Blommaert (2001) or Jacquemet (2005).

In sum, these essays locate narrative texts firmly in the interactive activities in which interlocutors co-create them. They go on to explore

a great variety of reasons why those same interactants-as well as 1 analysts-may extract narratives, rework them, exhibit them, classify 2 them, contest them, or perhaps even suppress them as part of ongoing in-3 teractional work. The move from narration to narrating-from object to 4 process, and from structure to activity-reinforces a shared sense that 5 one must learn how, why, and with whom one can and sometimes must 6 tell stories. 7 8 9 10 Notes 11 12 1. Which of course does not mean 'form last'. 13 2. And recall that for Labov narratives were in some sense beside the point, since the 'fear 14 of death story' technique was originally devised to divert speakers' attention to what they were saying and away from how they were saying it. 15 3. Any illusion that identities can be discrete and monolithic is belied by the ever-shifting 16 stances in the rich materials presented here, characterized as 'performances' of identity. 17 As Bamberg and Georgakopoulou (this issue) write, 'constructions of self and identity 18 [are] necessarily dialogical and relational, fashioned and refashioned in local interactive 19 practices'. 20 21 22 References 23 24 Austin, J. L. (1961). A plea for excuses. In Philosophical Papers, 175-204. London: Oxford 25 University Press. 26 Bauman, R. (1986). Story, Performance and Event: Contextual Studies of Oral Narrative. New York: Cambridge University Press. 27 Blommaert, J. (2001). Investigating narrative inequality: African asylum seekers' stories in 28 Belgium. Discourse and Society 12 (4): 413-449. 29 Goffman, E. (1979). Footing. Semiotica 25 (1/2): 1-29. 30 Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In Syntax and Semantics 3: Speech Acts, P. 31 Cole and J. Morgan (eds.), 41-58. New York: Academic Press. Haviland, J. B. (2003). Ideologies of language: Some reflections on language and U.S. law. 32 American Anthropologist 105 (4): 764-774. 33 Haviland, J. B. (2005). Dreams of blood: Zinacantecs in Oregon. In Dislocations/ 34 Relocations: Narratives of Displacement, M. Baynham and A. De Fina (eds.), 91-127. 35 Manchester: St. Jerome. 36 Irvine, J. T. (1996). Shadow conversations: The indeterminacy of participant roles. In Natural Histories of Discourse, M. Silverstein and G. Urban (eds.), 131-159. Chicago: Univer-37 sity of Chicago Press. 38 Jacquemet, M. (2005). The registration interview: Restricting refugees' narrative perfor-39 mances. In Dislocations/Relocations: Narratives of Displacement, M. Baynham and A. 40 De Fina (eds.), 194–216. Manchester: St. Jerome. 41 Ochs, E. (1979). Transcription as theory. In Developmental Pragmatics, E. Ochs and B. Schieffelin (eds.), 43-72. New York: Academic Press. 42

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