## Using Narration as an Expository Technique

Attempts to classify the functions of narration seem certain to develop difficulties and end in arbitrary and sometimes fuzzy distinctions. These need not distress us, however, if we remember that narration remains narration — a factual or fictional report of a sequence of events — and that our only reason for trying to divide it into categories is to find some means of studying its uses.

In a sense, as we have already seen in Section 5, exposition by process analysis makes one important, if rather narrow, use of narration, since it explains in sequence how specific steps lead to completion of some process. At the other extreme is narration that has very little to do with exposition: the story itself is the important thing, and instead of a series of steps leading obviously to a completed act, events *develop* out of each other and build suspense, however mild, through some kind of conflict. Here narration assumes importance in its own right as one of the four basic forms of prose, and it includes the novel and short story, as well as some news and sports reporting. Because we are studying exposition, however, we must avoid getting too involved with these uses of narration; they require special techniques, the study of which would require a whole course or, in fact, several courses.

Between the extremes of a very usable analysis of process and very intriguing narration for the story's sake — and often seeming to blur into one or the other — is narration for *explanation's* sake, to explain a concept that is more than process and that might have been explained by one of the other patterns of exposition. Here only the form is narrative; the function is expository.

Fortunately, the average student seldom needs to use narration for major explanatory purposes, as it has been used in each of the following selections. But to learn the handling of even minor or localized narration, the best procedure (short of taking several college courses, or at least one that concentrates on the narrative form) is simply to observe how successful writers use it to perform various functions. Localized narration can sometimes be helpful in developing any of the other major patterns of exposition — e.g., as in the Buckley essay (Section 1), or Catton's (Section 3).

The most common problems can be summarized as follows:

1. Selection of details. As in writing description, the user of narration always has far more details available than can or should be used. Good unity demands the selection of only those details that are most relevant to the purpose and the desired effect.

2. *Time order*. The writer can use straight chronology, relating events as they happen (the usual method in minor uses of narration), or the flashback method, leaving the sequence temporarily in order to go back and relate some now-significant happening of a time prior to the main action. If flashback is used, it should be deliberate and for a valid reason — not merely because the episode was neglected at the beginning.

3. *Transitions*. The lazy writer of narration is apt to resort to the transitional style of a three-year-old: "... and then we... and then she ... and then we...." Avoiding this style may tax the ingenuity, but invariably the result is worth the extra investment of time and thought.

4. *Point of view*. This is a large and complex subject if dealt with fully, as a course in narration would do. Briefly, however, the writer should decide at the beginning whether the reader is to experience the action through a character's eyes (and ears and brain) or from an overall, objective view. This decision makes a difference in how much can be told, whose thoughts or secret actions can be included. The writer must be consistent throughout the narrative and include only information that could logically be known through the adopted point of view.

5. *Dialogue*. Presumably the writer already knows the mechanics of using quotations. Beyond these, the problems are to make conversation as natural-sounding as possible and yet to keep it from rambling through many useless details — to keep the narrative moving forward by *means* of dialogue.

As in most patterns of writing, the use of expository narration is most likely to be successful if the writer constantly keeps the purpose and audience in mind, remembering that the only reason for using the method in the first place — for doing *any* writing — is to communicate ideas. Soundness, clarity, and interest are the best means of attaining this goal.

## Sample Paragraph (Narration)

The author has used a straight sequential time order and selected only those details that will carry the narrative forward.

The overall point of view is objective, not seen through the eyes of any of the characters. There is no dialogue.

The Valley was dense with fir when Joseph Casey brought his wife and eleven children upriver on a crude log raft. They landed in a storm on a gravel spit, but the raft broke up and headed, in pieces, back toward the sea with most of their belongings. But Joe Casey saved his tools, and the older boys built a cabin — not much of one, but the first house in Ilona Valley. After several trips back to the settlement for supplies, Casey managed to set up a sawmill, and from then on the family prospered. (Bayport was growing, providing a good market for lumber.) But Mrs. Casey was a city person and never got used to flies and babies. Soon after the youngest, little Ben, wandered off into the woods one day, never to be seen again, Lula Casey, now forty-six and sure she was pregnant again, became hysterical. Casey tried to be comforting: he patted her stomach and said the new kid would be a fine replacement for little lost Ben. This ended the shrieking;

("Kid: a colloquialism.)

but sometime that night Lula got up, took the new oar-boat, and apparently rowed frantically for hours upstream, against the current. The boat came merrily back downstream, empty, passing the Casey place at sunrise. And days later the boys found the body in the backwater brush at the mouth of what later was known as Suicide Creek.

## MARTIN GANSBERG

MARTIN GANSBERG, born in Brooklyn, New York, in 1920, received a Bachelor of Social Sciences degree from St. John's University. He has been an editor and reporter for *The New York Times* since 1942, including a three-year period as editor of its international edition in Paris. He also served on the faculty of Fairleigh Dickinson University for fifteen years. Gansberg has written for many magazines, including *Diplomat*, *Catholic Digest*, *Facts*, and *U.S. Lady*.

## 38 Who Saw Murder Didn't Call the Police

"38 Who Saw Murder . . ." was written for *The New York Times* in 1964, and for obvious reasons it has been anthologized frequently since then. Cast in a deceptively simple news style, it still provides material for serious thought, as well as a means of studying the use and technique of narration.

For more than half an hour 38 respectable, law-abiding citizens in 1 Queens watched a killer stalk and stab a woman in three separate attacks in Kew Gardens.

Twice their chatter and the sudden glow of their bedroom lights 2 interrupted him and frightened him off. Each time he returned, sought her out, and stabbed her again. Not one person telephoned the police during the assault; one witness called after the woman was dead.

That was two weeks ago today.

Still shocked is Assistant Chief Inspector Frederick M. Lussen, 4 in charge of the borough's detectives and a veteran of 25 years of homicide investigations. He can give a matter-of-fact recitation on many murders. But the Kew Gardens slaying baffles him — not

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