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**Beyond Structuralism:
Exploring a semantic based approach for describing
the Māori language in grammar books and textbooks
for pedagogical purposes**

A thesis
submitted in fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree
of
Doctor of Philosophy
in
Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao
Faculty of Māori and Indigenous Studies
at
The University of Waikato
by
Michael William Taiapa



THE UNIVERSITY OF
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Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

2023

Foreword

Hikurangi te Maunga | Waiapu te Awa | Ngāti Porou te Iwi
Ramaroa te Maunga | Waimā te Awa | Ngāpuhi te Iwi

Tangi ana te mapu ki ngā tīpuna kua haere atu i te ara e papatautia tonutia ai e tātou ngā uri whakatipu. Taea hoki nei te aha, ka taea ō tātou tapuwae te ekenga atu ki taua pou herenga tapu, ka eke Tangaroa noa atu ki ngā tūmanako ki tua o te pae tawhiti, arā, ko te reo Māori tētahi. Mā wai ia rā? Mā tātou, mā ngā manu taki, mā ngā hoa mahi, inarā mā ngā pouwhakaako reo Māori, ā, mā ngā kairangahau reo e whakatutuki atu taua mahi. Tāpaea ana tēnei tuhinga whakapae ki a rātou mā, tērā noa ake ki tōku māmā nāna anō mātou ngā tokowaru i whakatupu ake, ā, ki tāku tuahine aroha, ki a Teri. Ka mate te kāinga tahi, ka ora te kāinga rua, ko rāua nei. Ko tāku e tūmanako ana mā tēnei mahi kia riro pea hei rauemi mā ngā māhita reo Māori hei ārahi i ō rātou whakapono, waiaro, ā, i ā rātou mahi ake. He iti te kōrero, he nui te kaupapa. Ka riro mā tātou te kai a te rangatira hai whakarauora ake kia rongoātia ai mā ngā tamariki me ngā mokopuna kei te heke mai. Turuki, turuki, paneke, paneke, haramai te toki, haumi ē, hui ē, tāiki ē!

How best can I acknowledge my progenitors who have departed this life to which I am continually bound? It is by emulating their aspirations to ensure the preservation of those cultural tokens left in their wake, such as te reo Māori. A collegial effort involving a community of supervisors, colleagues and, especially Māori language teachers and language researchers. This thesis is dedicated to that collective effort, particularly to my mother who raised my seven siblings and I and to my dear sister, Teri. Adversity breeds perseverance. I hope this work may serve as a resource for teachers of te reo Māori that perhaps, in some small way, it may provide useful insights and guidance in their own teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practices. The Māori language is within our stewardship to preserve it for current and future generations. May we be diligent in that cause.

Acknowledgements

I am grateful to my supervisors, Dr. Winifred Crombie, Dr. Diane Johnson, Dr. Hēmi Whaanga, and Dr. Sophie Nock for their expert knowledge, guidance, and supervision during the writing up of this thesis. My first chief supervisor Dr. Crombie introduced me to the concept of general semantic relations as a very appealing approach to describe the Māori language for pedagogical purposes and this has been critical to my thesis. My second chief supervisor Dr. Whaanga has helped me through difficult times and his study on case roles is an important part in the overall aim of this research. My supervisor Dr. Johnson introduced me to the field of discourse analysis which has influenced and shaped my thinking in ways to critically consider and discuss a range of issues associated with second language teaching and learning, particularly language description and to find the best solutions to address them. My supervisor Dr. Nock who joined the supervisory panel within the last two years of my research brings a unique set of knowledge and skills in the field of Māori language teaching and learning to my study. I hold my supervisors in the highest esteem as inspirational academics, colleagues, and friends. This thesis could not have been possible without the help of staff members of the Faculty of Māori and Indigenous Studies and the Department of Applied Linguistics in the Faculty of Arts and Social Science at Waikato University. The writing retreats organized by MAI ki Waikato have been a source of inspiration in sustaining my studies. A three-year doctoral scholarship provided by the Scholarships Department of Waikato University and funding from Tainui, Ngāti Porou, and New Zealand government agencies provided much needed financial assistance. The pathway to completion was made possible by Te Mata Kairangi School of Graduate Research, Waikato University whose understanding and patience afforded me the time to finish my thesis. Finally, I am very grateful to my family, friends, and everyone who supported and encouraged me during my Ph.D. journey.

Abstract

Since the 1950s, the advancements and developments in English language studies has had a profound impact on its description that has made it less syntactically driven and more communicatively oriented. This has the potential to influence language description moving it from a purely structurally focused orientation to a more semantically focused one that could influence pedagogic outcomes in more meaningful and useful ways. Nevertheless, in the case of the Māori language, its description has largely focused on structure linguistics that was prevalent in the 19th and early 20th centuries. There has been very little focus on a semantic description and this, in turn, is reflected in grammar books and textbooks on te reo. This thesis set out to explore a semantic approach to describe te reo and to rethink how this type of description may be realized and included in the design of grammar books and textbooks for the teaching and learning of te reo in the broader field of second language pedagogy and acquisition. The thesis also includes a practical component in which a small sample of Māori language teachers were interviewed to determine how linguistic and/ or semantic approaches to describe te reo may have or have impacted on their own beliefs, attitudes, and teaching practices (See, Chapter 7). Thus, it is argued here that research-based studies, advancements, and developments in language descriptions over the past five decades (See, for example, Council of Europe, 1949; Fillmore, 1967; Longacre, 1968; & Crombie, 1985b) should play central roles in the design of a semantic based description of the Māori language from which a linguistic based description can significantly benefit.

Key Words: Māori; English; Semantics; Linguistics; Language Description; Grammar Books; Textbooks; Second Language Studies; Pedagogy; Acquisition; Reo Teachers; Reo Learners.

Contents

Foreword.....	i
Acknowledgements.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
List of Tables	xii
List of Figures.....	xv
List of Abbreviations	xviii
List of Māori Terms.....	xix
Chapter 1: Introduction to the research.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Focus of the research	1
1.3 Some definitions of key concepts in the thesis	1
1.3.1 Linguistic Description	2
1.3.2 Semantic Description	2
1.3.3 Pedagogy	2
1.4 Personal reasons and motivations for the research	3
1.4.1 My introduction to grammar books and textbooks on Māori.....	3
1.4.2 My pursuit of further studies	3
1.4.3 My new focus	5
1.5 Rationale for the research	6
1.6 Research aims and research questions	7
1.7 Research methodology and research methods	8
1.7.1 Literature review	8
1.7.2 Interview structure.....	8
1.7.3 Interview questions	9
1.7.4 Sample audience.....	10

1.7.5 Mode of data collection, analysis, and organization	10
1.7.6 Ethics approval	11
1.8 Summary of key the findings	11
Chapter 2: Literature on theories and studies in language description	12
2.1 Introduction.....	12
2.2 Theories in grammar description	12
2.2.1 The Structuralist Approach	12
2.2.2 Transformational Grammar or Standard Theory.....	13
2.2.3 Relational Grammar	14
2.2.4 Lexical-Functional Grammar	17
2.2.5 Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar	19
2.2.6 Cognitive Grammar	21
2.2.7 Universal Grammar	22
2.2.8 Functional Grammar	23
2.2.8.1 The North American Tradition and Tagmemic Grammar	24
2.2.8.2 Systemic Functional Grammar	24
2.3 Studies in language description	24
2.3.1 Beyond structuralist and behaviorist ideas.....	25
2.3.2 Towards a more meaning based description of language.....	26
2.3.2.1 Council of Europe	26
2.3.2.2 John Austin: Speech acts theory	27
2.3.2.3 John Searle: Extending on speech acts theory	30
2.3.2.4 Some limitations with speech acts	32
2.3.2.5 Communicative Competence	34
2.3.2.6 Communicative Language Teaching	37

2.3.2.7 Case roles, inter-propositional and intra-propositional relationships	40
2.4 Māori language description in grammar books and textbooks	43
2.4.1 Outline of some grammar books on te reo Māori	43
2.4.2 Outline of some textbooks on te reo Māori.....	49
2.5 Summary of the key findings.....	54
Chapter 3: A selection of fourteen grammar books on the Māori language.....	57
3.1 Introduction.....	57
3.2 Background on the Māori language.....	57
3.2.1 Settlement of the Pacific region	57
3.2.2 Origins of Polynesian languages	59
3.2.2.1 Statement about the origins of Polynesian languages.....	59
3.2.2.2 Current status of the Māori language.....	60
3.2.2.3 Māori language events in history: Timeline 1	62
3.3 A brief outline of fourteen grammar books on the Māori language	68
3.3.1 Statement about descriptive works on te reo.....	69
3.3.2 James Cook (1769).....	69
3.3.3 Joseph Banks (1770)	70
3.3.4 Thomas Kendall (1815).....	74
3.3.5 Samuel Lee & Thomas Kendall (1820).....	77
3.3.6 Robert Maunsell (1842)	80
3.3.7 Henry Kemp (1848)	83
3.3.8 Charles Davis (1857).....	85
3.3.9 William L Williams (1862).....	86
3.3.10 Suzanne Aubert (1885).....	92
3.3.11 Henry Stowell (1913).....	100

3.3.12 Bruce Biggs (1961)	106
3.3.13 Pat Hōhepa (1967).....	110
3.3.14 Sandra Chung (1978)	112
3.3.15 Tāmāti Reedy (1979).....	114
3.3.16 Winifred Bauer (1981)	116
3.3.17 Ray Harlow (2001).....	121
3.4 Māori language grammars in history: Timeline 2.....	127
3.5 Summary of the key findings	130
3.5.1 General statement on linguistic description	130
3.5.2 The early period (1769-1820).....	130
3.5.3 The late period (1842-1885).....	132
3.5.4 The modern period (1913-2000)	133
3.5.5 Closing statement:	136
Chapter 4: A selection of six textbooks on the Māori language	137
4.1 Introduction.....	137
4.2 Overview of European textbooks and te reo in New Zealand’s colonial history	138
4.3 Some general characteristics of a language textbook	141
4.4 A selection of six textbooks on the Māori language.....	144
4.4.1 Criteria for selecting the six textbooks on the Māori language.....	144
4.4.2 Webster H Wills (1960) Lessons in the Māori language	145
4.4.3 Hoani Waititi (1964) Te Rangatahi: Elementary 2	149
4.4.4 William Leonard Williams (1965) First lessons in the Māori language	154
4.4.5 Bruce Biggs (1973) Let’s learn Māori	159
4.4.6 John C Moorfield (2001a) Te Kākano	163
4.4.7 Scotty Morrison (2020) Māori made easy.....	174

4.5 Summary of the key findings	179
Chapter 5: The Council of Europe: Developments in language studies	183
5.1 Introduction.....	183
5.2 Background on the Council of Europe.....	183
5.2.1 Origins of the Council of Europe	183
5.2.2 Founding documents of the CoE: A focus on language description	184
5.3 Key developments in English language studies by the CoE.....	185
5.3.1 First Step (1957).....	185
5.3.2 Le Français Fondamental (1961).....	186
5.3.3 Voix et Images (1961).....	187
5.3.4 Major Project in Modern Languages (1962).....	188
5.3.5 The Unit-Credit Scheme (1971).....	191
5.3.6 Threshold Level Series (1975)	192
5.3.7 Notional Syllabus (1976)	197
5.3.8 Some issues with threshold and notional syllabus	203
5.3.9 The Common European Framework of Reference (1991).....	204
5.3.9.1 Origin of the CEFR.....	204
5.3.9.2 Purpose of the CEFR	205
5.3.9.3 User Levels and Six Scales (A1-C2)	207
5.3.9.4 Global Scale System: Descriptors/ Can-Do Statements	208
5.3.9.5 Self-assessment Grid.....	213
5.3.9.6 Reference Level Descriptors (RLDs).....	216
5.4 Some implications of this research for a description of the Māori language.....	218
5.5 Summary of the key findings	221
Chapter 6: Proposed framework for a semantic description of te reo Māori.....	227

6.1 Introduction.....	227
6.2 General outline of semantic and language description	227
6.2.1 Inter-propositional relationships	227
6.2.2 Intra-propositional relationships/ case roles.....	233
6.2.2.1 Statement about intra-propositional relationships and case roles	234
6.2.2.2 Overview of case roles.....	235
6.2.2.3 Fillmore (1967): System of six case roles.....	237
6.2.2.4 Fillmore (1971): System of nine case roles	239
6.2.2.5 Grimes (1975): System of three case roles and subcategories.....	242
6.2.2.6 Crombie (1985b): System of eight case roles and subcategories	247
6.2.2.7 Whaanga (2006): System of 15 case roles.....	254
6.2.2.8 Commentary on two case role studies	257
6.2.2.9 Some issues with propositional theory	263
6.2.3 Semantic predicates	264
6.3 The English language and semantic descriptions	269
6.3.1 General statement.....	270
6.3.2 Inter-propositional relationships	270
6.3.2.1 Revisiting inter-propositional relationships.....	271
6.3.2.2 Cause and Effect	271
6.3.2.3 Comparison.....	273
6.3.2.4 Contrastive	275
6.3.2.5 Time and Space.....	278
6.3.3 Intra-propositional Relationships or Case Roles.....	279
6.3.3.1 Revisiting intra-propositional relationships or case roles.....	280
6.3.3.2 Crombie's system of eight case roles.....	280

6.4 The Māori language and semantic descriptions.....	286
6.4.1 General statement.....	286
6.4.2 Inter-propositional relationships	287
6.4.2.1 Cause and Effect	288
6.4.2.2 Comparison.....	290
6.4.2.3 Contrastive	292
6.4.2.4 Time and Space.....	294
6.4.3 Intra-propositional Relationships or Case Roles.....	297
6.5 Summary of the key findings.....	312
Chapter 7: Reporting on a sample of Māori language teachers.....	314
7.1 Introduction.....	314
7.2 A background on teacher cognition research in language learning.....	314
7.3 Restating the research methodology and methods.....	317
7.3.1 The interviews	317
7.3.2 The sample audience	317
7.3.3 The interview questions	318
7.3.4 The mode of data collection, analysis, and organization	318
7.4 Reporting on the findings of the interviews.....	319
7.4.1 Part 1: Responses to general questions	319
7.4.1.1 Question 1	319
7.4.2 Part 2: Responses to specific questions.....	322
7.4.2.1 Question 2	322
7.4.2.2 Question 3	328
7.4.2.3 Question 4	336
7.4.2.4 Question 5	343

7.5 Summary of the key findings	354
7.5.1 Brief statement	354
7.5.2 Exposure to structure linguistic analysis of te reo.....	354
7.5.3 Grammar books, textbooks, and courses on the analysis of te reo.....	356
7.5.4 Knowing your subject matter and answering students' questions	358
7.5.5 Approaches A, B and C	359
Chapter 8: Conclusions and recommendations.....	360
8.1 Introduction.....	360
8.2 Rationale for the research	360
8.3 Research aims and research questions	361
8.4 Literature review	362
8.5 Research's limitations	362
8.6 Theoretical contribution of the research	363
8.7 Summary of the key findings	363
List of References	367
List of Appendices	390
Appendix 1.1: Ethics approval letter	391
Appendix 2.1: An interpretation of speech acts by the CoE.....	392
Appendix 3.1: Classifications of te reo Māori	393
Appendix 3.2: Classifications of te reo Māori	394
Appendix 4.1: Schematic view of a suggested curriculum structure.....	395
Appendix 4.2: Some distinctions of he with stative, infinitive, causative verbs	396
Appendix 6.1: Ngata & Kāretu texts.....	397
Appendix 7.1: Examples of coherence and cohesion	403

List of Tables

Table 2.1: Austin’s taxonomy of speech acts	28
Table 2.2: Austin’s taxonomy of illocutionary acts.....	29
Table 2.3: Searle’s taxonomy of illocutionary acts	31
Table 2.4: Speech acts in context (Open the window).....	32
Table 2.5: A list of similar principles of the CLT model.....	38
Table 3.1: Māori language events in history: Timeline 1	63
Table 3.2: Cook’s simple list of Māori vocabulary	70
Table 3.3: Cognates in Fijian, Tongan, and Māori	71
Table 3.4: Banks’ comparative list of North and South Māori, and Tahitian words.....	71
Table 3.5: Different case roles encoded in Māori with English translations	120
Table 3.6: Crombie’s descriptions of Source, Goal, and Temporal Overlap.....	126
Table 3.7: Māori language grammars in history: Timeline 2	127
Table 4.1: Comparing Ā-Ō categories between Hōhepa, Biggs, Moorfield.....	161
Table 5.1: Sample of the top three high frequency occurrences of Māori words.....	186
Table 5.2: A description of each book in the T-level Series.....	193
Table 5.3: Sample of language specifications in Threshold 1975	196
Table 5.4: Proposed categories and subcategories of the Notional Syllabus.....	202
Table 5.5: Global scales: users, scales, T-level series textbooks, and descriptors	209
Table 5.6: The use of ka to denote past, present, and future time events	219
Table 6.1: General categories and relations (Longacre, 1972)	228
Table 6.2: General categories and relations (Beekman and Callow, 1974).....	229
Table 6.3: General categories and relations (Hollenbach, 1975).....	230
Table 6.4: General categories and relations/ binary values (Crombie, 1985b).....	232
Table 6.5: Adapting Crombie’s system of inter-propositional relationships.....	233

Table 6.6: Fillmore's system of six case roles (1967)	237
Table 6.7: Fillmore's system of nine case roles (1971)	239
Table 6.8: Grimes' case role of Orientation (1975)	242
Table 6.9: Grimes' case role of Process (1975)	244
Table 6.10: Grimes' case role of Agentive (1975)	246
Table 6.11: Case role of Causal (1985b)	248
Table 6.12: Case role of Activity-Participation (1985b)	248
Table 6.13: Case role of Process-Participation (1985b)	250
Table 6.14: Case role of State-Participation (1985b)	250
Table 6.15: Case role of Orientation-Transition (1985b)	251
Table 6.16: Case role of Relational (1985b)	252
Table 6.17: Case role of Abaxiant (1985b)	253
Table 6.18: Case role of Covert (1985b)	253
Table 6.19: Case roles and subcategories (2006)	254
Table 6.20: A case of two case role studies	258
Table 6.21: Simple verbal predicates in propositional theory	264
Table 6.22: Copular-based predicates in propositional theory	266
Table 6.23: Dual-propositional predicates in propositional theory	268
Table 6.24: Cause-Effect (Crombie, 1985b)	272
Table 6.25: Comparison (Crombie, 1985b)	274
Table 6.26: Contrastive (Crombie, 1985b)	276
Table 6.27: Time and Space (Crombie, 1985b)	278
Table 6.28: A system of intra-propositions and eight case roles (Crombie, 1985b)	280
Table 6.29: Cause and Effect	288
Table 6.30: Comparison	290

Table 6.31: Contrastive.....	292
Table 6.32: Time and Space.....	294
Table 6.33: A basis for identifying case roles in te reo (Wahaanga, 2010).....	298
Table 6.34: Identifying case roles in a sample of Māori sentences (Wahaanga, 2010)	303

List of Figures

Figure 2.1: Stratal diagram mapping (Perlmutter & Postal, 1977).....	16
Figure 3.1: Polynesian Triangle (ResearchGate, 2016).....	58
Figure 3.2: Tenth subgroupings of Polynesian languages (Greenhill & Gray, 2005).....	60
Figure 3.3: Extract outlining the content of Kendall’s book (Kendall, 1815).....	75
Figure 3.4: Arranging te reo into consonant-vowels and diphthongs (Kendall, 1815).....	76
Figure 3.5: Larger focus and coverage of describing te reo (Lee & Kendall, 1820).....	78
Figure 3.6: Consonantal ambiguity (Lee & Kendall, 1820).....	79
Figure 3.7: Content of te reo Māori descriptions (Maunsell, 1882).....	81
Figure 3.8: Descriptions of the Māori articles te, ngā, he (Maunsell, 1882).....	82
Figure 3.9: Discussions on aspects of te reo Māori (Maunsell, 1882).....	83
Figure 3.10: English-Māori phrases on land purchase (Kemp, 1879).....	85
Figure 3.11: Range of word classes in te reo Māori (Williams, 1862).....	87
Figure 3.12: Williams’ local nouns (Williams, 1862).....	88
Figure 3.13: 19 th century descriptions of te reo Māori (Williams, 1862).....	89
Figure 3.14: 20 th century descriptions of te reo Māori (Williams, 1965).....	90
Figure 3.15: Relative clauses (Williams, 1862).....	91
Figure 3.16: Relative clauses (Wills, 1960).....	92
Figure 3.17: Description of verbs (Aubert, 1885).....	93
Figure 3.18: Verb types (Aubert, 1885).....	94
Figure 3.19: Situation phrases for dining out (Aubert, 1885).....	95
Figure 3.20: Topic phrases for talking about the weather (Aubert, 1885).....	95
Figure 3.21: Content page of Aubert’s grammar/ phrasebook (Aubert, 1885).....	97
Figure 3.22: Situation: At the hotel (Aubert, 1885).....	98
Figure 3.23: Topic: Talking about hunger (Aubert, 1885).....	99

Figure 3.24: Simple descriptions of the articles (Stowell, 1913).....	101
Figure 3.25: Complex descriptions of possessives (Stowell, 1913)	102
Figure 3.26: Range of different language features (Stowell, 1913).....	103
Figure 3.27: Poetic prose (Stowell, 1913)	104
Figure 3.28: Insights from a Māori perspective (Stowell, 1913).....	105
Figure 3.29: Descriptions of te reo (Biggs, 1973)	107
Figure 3.30: Alpha-numeric code to describe te reo (Biggs, 1961).....	107
Figure 3.31: Some minor morphemes in te reo (Biggs, 1961).....	108
Figure 3.32: Sample of generative profile of te reo (Hōhepa, 1967).....	111
Figure 3.33: Grammar of the sentence (Bauer, 1981)	117
Figure 3.34: Phrase structure (Bauer, 1981)	118
Figure 3.35: Grammar of the verb phrase (Bauer, 1981).....	119
Figure 3.36: Nucleus of the phrase (Harlow, 2001).....	122
Figure 3.37: Postposed periphery of the phrase (Harlow, 2006)	123
Figure 3.38: Case roles, source and goal (Harlow, 2001).....	124
Figure 3.39: Temporal Overlap (Harlow, 2001).....	125
Figure 4.1: Three-stage monolingual-bilingual-monolingual process (Spolsky, 2005)	140
Figure 4.2: Descriptions of prepositions and possessives (Wills, 1960)	145
Figure 4.3: Clearly stated list of lesson content (Wills, 1960).....	147
Figure 4.4: A lesson using simple terminology and explanations (Wills, 1960).....	148
Figure 4.5: Elements of the story's structure (Waititi, 1964)	150
Figure 4.6: Model sentences, cloze test, pictures (Waititi, 1964).....	151
Figure 4.7: Select sentence patterns to be translated into English (Waititi, 1964)	152
Figure 4.8: A written task of greater complexity (Waititi, 1964)	153
Figure 4.9: Simple grammatical rules of some parts of speech (Williams, 1965).....	155

Figure 4.10: Index of parts of speech (Williams, 1965)	156
Figure 4.11: Sample of progressive exercises (Williams, 1965)	157
Figure 4.12: Sample of key to exercises (Williams, 1965).....	158
Figure 4.13: Inventory of curriculum textbooks (Williams, 1965).....	159
Figure 4.14: Sample of the internal structure of the Māori phrase (Biggs, 1973)	160
Figure 4.15: Exercise 30 (Moorfield, 2001a).....	164
Figure 4.16: Sample of online resources (Moorfield, 2001a).....	165
Figure 4.17: Te Kākano exercise instructions in English (Moorfield, 2001a).....	167
Figure 4.18: Te Kākano exercise instructions in Māori (Moorfield, 2001a).....	168
Figure 4.19: Usage of the word mahi (Moorfield, 1992).....	169
Figure 4.20: Usage of the word kei (Moorfield, 1992).....	170
Figure 4.21: Pedagogic grammar of English A-Z (Leech et al, 2001)	171
Figure 4.22: Pedagogic grammar of English A-Z (Leech et al, 2001)	172
Figure 4.23: Hybrid arrangement of lesson content (Moorfield, 2001a).....	173
Figure 4.24: Descriptions of simple tense (Morrison, 2020).....	175
Figure 4.25: Blend of technical and semantic descriptions (Morrison, 2020).....	176
Figure 4.26: Combinability of elements to aid L2 learning (Morrison, 2020)	179
Figure 5.1: Suggested start-end points for describing te reo (Based on Wilkins, 1976)	201
Figure 5.2: Hyper-text branch diagram of users, scales, textbooks (CoE, 2001)	208
Figure 5.3: Sample of a self-assessment grid (CoE, 2001).....	214

List of Abbreviations

±	Give or take
AILA	International Association for Applied Linguistics
AOc	Ā and Ō Categories
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CMS	Church Missionary Society of England
CoE	Council of Europe
DA	Discourse Analysis
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
N	Nominal
NP	Noun Phrase
Obj	Object
PGDipSLT	Postgraduate Diploma in Second Language Teaching
R1-R8	Respondent 1-8
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
T-level	Threshold Level Series
Zisa	Zweitspracherwerb Italienischer Und Spanischer Arbeiter

List of Māori Terms

Aotearoa	Land of the Long White Cloud
He whakamārama	Explanation
Hei mahi	Exercises/ tasks
Kaupapa	Initiative
Kōhanga Reo	Māori Language School for preschoolers
Kura Kaupapa	Māori Language Primary School
Kura Matatini	Polytechnic
Māori	Indigenous people of Aotearoa (aka tangata whenua)
MLAC	Māori Language Advisory Council
Ngā Tamatoa	Young Worriers
Pākehā	Of European ancestry
Taonga Māori	Natural resources (e.g., land, water)
Taurawhiri i te Reo Māori	Māori Language Commission
Te Ataarangi	A Māori language course using cuisenaire rods
Te reo Māori/ te reo	The Māori language
Te Tohu Paetahi	A one-year full immersion Māori language course
Te Whanake series	Textbooks for teaching te reo Māori
Te Wiki o te Reo Māori	Māori language week
Tikanga Māori	Customs/ practices as believed and performed by Māori
Waitangi	Place where the treaty of Waitangi was signed in 1840
Wānanga	A gathering for various purposes (e.g., education)
Whakaata Māori	Māori Television Service

Chapter 1: Introduction to the research

1.1 Introduction

This chapter will outline the focus of the research (1.2) followed by some definitions of key concepts in terms of how I understand and use them in this thesis (1.3). The chapter will provide some statements concerning my personal reasons and motivations for pursuing a doctoral thesis in exploring a semantic based description of the Māori language also referred to as te reo Māori/ te reo/ reo for short in this thesis (1.4). It will provide the rationale for the research (1.5), the aims and questions of the research (1.6), the methodology and the methods used in the research (1.7), and then provide a summary of the key findings (1.8).

1.2 Focus of the research

This thesis is wholly concerned with language description and not language teaching of te reo Māori. It attempts to explore how te reo has been described in grammar books and textbooks designed for teaching and learning purposes in a second/ additional language context. The thesis also includes a sample of Māori language teachers that I interviewed to determine how they make or made use of descriptions in these types of books in their own teaching beliefs, attitudes, and practices (See, Chapter 7). The thesis emphasizes a particular focus on research-based studies in English language descriptions and how the types of findings generated from these studies could have a profound impact on describing certain aspects of the Māori language taking it from a syntactically focused description to a more semantically oriented one.

1.3 Some definitions of key concepts in the thesis

The following sections will provide some definitions of key concepts as I understand and use them in this thesis. This includes the notion of linguistic description (1.3.1), semantic description (1.3.2), and pedagogy (1.3.3).

1.3.1 Linguistic Description

The notion of linguistic description, as an umbrella term, is referred to as structure linguistics, linguistic structuralism, structuralism, sentence level and/ or a focus on form in this thesis. It attempts to describe language at the sentence level related to different linguistic units, such as phonology (i.e., the study of sound contrasts), morphology (i.e., the study of permissible word formations), and syntax (i.e., the organization of clauses and sentences).

1.3.2 Semantic Description

The notion of semantic description, as an umbrella term is referred to as general semantic relations and/ or a focus on meaning in this thesis. It attempts to describe language beyond the sentence level by focusing on the meaning of language in the context in which it occurs. It attempts to identify relationships between and within clauses and sentences related to that context. It analyses how those relationships are signaled in syntactic structures by cohesive or semantic devices expressed in various parts of speech (e.g., predication, coordination, preposition etc.). It also considers the social and cultural aspects of language teaching and learning, particularly for communicative purposes.

1.3.3 Pedagogy

The notion of pedagogy refers to the integration and implementation (as feasible as possible) of linguistic *and* semantic descriptions to formulate grammatical rules and the usage of language that are more meaning based and communicatively oriented. With this focus in mind, the first aim is to facilitate Māori language teachers in the development of their own knowledge-base, skills-set, and best teaching practices; the second aim is to inform the design of best educational resources for use in the classroom lesson; the third aim is to assist the development of their own learners' four language skills (i.e., speaking, writing, reading, and

listening) in becoming confident and competent users of te reo for communication within various social and cultural contexts.

1.4 Personal reasons and motivations for the research

In the following sections, I outline my introduction to grammar books and textbooks on Māori in the early stages of my reo journey (1.4.1), my pursuit of further studies to educate myself in that journey (1.4.2), and my new focus in terms of what I have learned and how this education has informed my present and future thinking (1.4.3).

1.4.1 My introduction to grammar books and textbooks on Māori

As a second language (L2) learner and later teacher of te reo, I studied several grammar books and textbooks on Māori that were designed for learning and teaching purposes. These included, for example, Bauer (1997); Biggs (1973); Harlow (2001); and Moorfield (2001a) which are some of the most widely used resources in contemporary times. However, I very often found it difficult to comprehend and use some of them in my own te reo journey. For me, the linguistic terminology (e.g., subject, verb, object, etc.) and often complex descriptions in which those terms were couched were somewhat overwhelming at first making it hard to internalize the information in ways that would help me to develop a reasonable level of communicative competence. I continued to experience this challenge years later and it felt like I was becoming more of a novice linguist (and not a good one at that) rather than a confident and competent user of te reo for communication. However, on hindsight, I realized my goal was an ambitious and unrealistic expectation on my part during the initial years of learning te reo at the beginner's level.

1.4.2 My pursuit of further studies

To learn more about my own te reo experiences, I decided to do a Ph.D. in exploring theories in language description generally but semantic based ones specifically and the implications this

could have for describing certain aspects of te reo Māori in second language education and the development of my knowledge and skills in te reo. In time, I completed and attended several language-based courses and lectures on linguistic analysis, grammar analysis, discourse analysis, general semantic relational theory, and second language teaching and acquisition. To be more specific, I completed a Postgraduate Diploma in Second Language Teaching (PGDipSLT) in which I learned about some fundamental principles and the types of issues that language teachers and learners might encounter in the broader field of second language education.¹ During the PGDipSLT, I was introduced to the notion of discourse analysis, an umbrella term, that refers to different strands, practices, and problems associated with theory and practice in the broader context of second language teaching and learning and its contribution to research in this field of study.² I also learned about the concept of discourse-based grammar which examines the relationship between form, function, and context or in other words, form, meaning, and usage that are critical to all grammatical descriptions (Paltridge, 2006, p. 129). Furthermore, the PGDipSLT also included post-lesson discussions with the lecturer, and this provided an opportunity to reflect on, to critically think about, and to discuss any aspect of the lesson's content in terms of what we learned and understood, and how this might help us in our own aspirations as fledging language teachers/ researchers. While I was attending a different seminar on the analysis of the English language, the lecturer was explaining the concept of general semantic relations (being the first time I had heard of it). She explained how certain cohesive devices can signal relationships between different parts of texts that focused on meaning and context and how these devices can include (but not exclusive to) semantic predicates or verbs.³ The seminar was an introduction to inter-propositional and intra-

¹ The PGDipSLT was taught by Dr. Diane Johnson, a senior lecturer, who worked in the Department of Applied Linguistics in the Faculty of Arts and Social Science at the University of Waikato, 2009. I completed this paper as part of my Master of Arts Degree.

² Johnson, D. (2009a). [A definition of discourse analysis].

³ The lecturer was Associate Professor Dr. Winifred Crombie of Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao: The School of Māori and Pacific Development at the University of Waikato, 2009.

propositional relationships/ case roles, and semantic predicates underlying a semantic based description of the English language.

1.4.3 My new focus

Over time, I began to understand the critical link between a focus on meaning (i.e., semantics) and a focus on form (i.e., linguistics) as two interrelated theories to describe the Māori language. I found all of this to be very appealing and realized it could help me to understand some of the issues I had encountered and continue to encounter in my own pursuit of te reo education. My aim was to explore the feasibility of a description of te reo beginning with a focus on meaning first and a focus on form second, that is, looking at it from a bottom-up model perspective that begins from a general description to a more specific one. This thinking was partially influenced by the idea of Wilkins who says,

“The analysis of the total language system into a set of discrete pieces of language that is a necessary precondition for the adoption of a synthetic approach is largely superfluous in an analytic approach this is not to say that we make no use of the structural facts of language merely that they are not the starting point” (Wilkins, 1976, p. 13).

To clarify, the notion of a *synthetic* approach describes language at the structural level and *analytic* at the *situational, notional, and functional* levels (See Chapter 5, Section 5.3.7). Although this idea is not new for the English language (i.e., ruling out a *synthetic* approach as the starting point to describe language), this is not the case with te reo Māori (which usually starts from a synthetic based description). To support this idea, I also draw on Ellis (1990) who says, there is a need for both a focus on meaning and a focus on form (p. 390). Although Ellis is not prioritizing any ideal starting point, nevertheless he advocates the inclusion of both forms as being pertinent to language description. It is also important to note that Wilkins is not advocating any preferred sequence regarding the English as I have suggested here for the Māori

language (i.e., meaning first, form second) but I think this may be useful in designing lessons. My new focus now is wholly concerned with a semantic based description of te reo Māori driven by a personal philosophical belief, that is, 1) the way forward in the teaching and learning of te reo begins with rethinking the types of theories we use to describe it and the types of approaches we use to teach it and 2) good language description should precede good language teaching.

1.5 Rationale for the research

The behaviorist assumptions that underpinned full-blown linguistic structuralism were fundamental to initial conceptualizations of second language descriptions and this began to be seriously challenged by Chomsky in 1957. Since then, the types of research on both first and second language pedagogy and acquisition that has taken place over the past five decades has had a profound impact on the teaching and learning of second and/ or additional languages. All these things, taken together, can significantly influence the design of educational materials for language teachers and/ or students for whom they are intended with a focus on language description, particularly a semantic based one that recognizes, for example,

- The central role that is played by the verb in clause structure;
- The role that lexis plays in relation to form and noting the importance of the interaction between meaning and form that involves, for example, acknowledging that a range of general semantic relations such as, reason-result, means-result, or condition-consequence play a part in determining structural choices;
- Attending to the interaction between meaning and form or form and meaning;
- Accepting that a semantically focused description of a language will not necessarily be a simplified version of a description designed for other purposes but may differ from it in some fundamental ways.

Given the complex nature of the issues involved and the uncertainty and disagreement associated with many of them will make it difficult in deciding how to approach this descriptive design of languages. The decisions that are made will always be open to dispute but nevertheless must be made and in principled ways. To date, there has been very little discussion or study in print of the ways in which the research presented in this thesis could or should impact on a semantic description of the Māori language. Due to this lack of research-based studies, it will prove to be a challenge to analyze and to ascertain in very detailed and robust ways the extent of its impact on grammar books and textbooks on te reo and Māori language teachers and learners in an educational context. Nonetheless, this research could help Māori language educationalists in general to identify a range of core issues associated with L2 pedagogy and acquisition, to drive recommendations that could inform the development of best teaching practices and the design of best educational materials for both teachers and learners of te reo.

1.6 Research aims and research questions

My aim was to explore the impact of structure based and semantic based theory on describing certain aspects of the Māori language in grammar books and textbooks designed for educational purposes. In addition, I also wanted to interview a small sample of Māori language teachers to determine how these types of descriptions have or may have impacted on their own beliefs, attitudes, and teaching practices. Thus, the research questions asked:

1. What impact has research on linguistic based and semantic based descriptions of language had on the teaching and learning of Māori as a second/ additional language?
2. How has this research impacted on the ways in which Māori has been described in a) grammar books and b) textbooks on te reo?
3. Taking this research into account, what principles should inform a semantic description of te reo Māori to affect a more meaningful and useful pedagogical outcome that could

inform best teaching practices in order to facilitate the learning and use of te reo for communicative purposes in daily social contexts?

1.7 Research methodology and research methods

The following sections provide additional information on the chapters that reports on various aspects of the research to give a more integrated account of the methodology and the methods that I employed throughout this thesis. This will include an outline of the literature review (1.7.1), the interview structure (1.7.2), the interview questions (1.7.3), the sample audience (1.7.4), the mode of data collection, analysis, and organization (1.7.5), and ethics approval (1.7.6).

1.7.1 Literature review

My aim was to outline select literature on some research-based studies in language description and the types of developments that have occurred in this field of study over the past five decades, particularly those studies that have evolved from a structuralist approach towards a more meaning based one. The literature included research in grammar theories, the works of the Council of Europe, and other important studies that have contributed to that evolution. It also highlights some works that have described te reo in grammar books and textbooks and aims to explore how this body of research could provide a basis for a proposed semantic description, in a preliminary way, of the Māori language (See, Chapter 2).

1.7.2 Interview structure

As a practical component of the thesis, I set out to interview a sample of Māori language teachers to determine a) how they respond to linguistic based and semantic based approaches to a description of the Māori language in grammar books and textbooks and b) how these approaches may have or have impacted on their own beliefs, attitudes, and teaching practices within and beyond the classroom setting. The methodology I used was interpretive which

allowed for the development of a hypothesis as the research project developed over time and the method of data collection was semi-structured interviews for a more qualitative analysis and interpretation of the data (See, Chapter 7).

1.7.3 Interview questions

The interview consisted of five open-ended questions that allowed each Respondent to ask follow-up questions and to promote an environment in which they could express their own ways of defining the world in a flexible sequence of discussion and to raise and pursue issues and matters as they would arise (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 182). When designing the questions, a careful consideration was given to the following guidelines (p. 358):

- The vocabulary to be used (keeping it simple);
- The avoidance of prejudicial language;
- Leading questions (deciding whether it is justified to use them);
- Questions that make assumptions;
- Hypothetical or speculative questions;
- Sensitive or personal questions (whether to ask or to avoid them);
- Assuming that the Respondent has the required knowledge/ information;
- Recall (how easy it will be for the Respondent to recall memories).

The interview questions were divided into two parts as shown below:

Part1 - Question 1: General questions

Q1 Can you tell me about your upbringing, such as teaching background, work position, your first language, how you got into teaching te reo, and if you have any beliefs about teaching in general, particularly te reo?

Part 2 - Questions 2-5: Specific questions

Q2 Have you ever considered doing or done a course on the analysis of te reo?

- Q3 Have you ever used any grammar books and/ or textbooks on Māori in your own teaching practice and, how useful, if at all, were they for teachers and learners of te reo?
- Q4 Do you ever have difficulty explaining aspects of te reo to your students and/ or answering their questions about them (e.g., explaining grammar points/ certain structures etc.). If yes, then what strategies have you used in addressing those difficulties?
- Q5 What is your general comment on the language description handout you were given showing three different approaches (A, B, and C) to describing similar aspects of te reo?

1.7.4 Sample audience

The sample of Māori language teachers was selected on the basis that they were working in a formal educational institution and teaching te reo Māori at any level (i.e., from beginners to advanced). Consideration was given to their availability, time, and work schedules to participate in the interviews by contacting them through word of mouth, Facebook, and email as the means to send them all the necessary interview documents about the study (e.g., information sheets etc.). Throughout the report, I refer to each Māori language teacher as *Respondent* in which they are identified by a letter-number code (i.e., R1 = Respondent 1, R2 = Respondent 2 through to R8 = Respondent 8) to protect their anonymity and identity (See, for the full report, Chapter 7, Section 7.4).

1.7.5 Mode of data collection, analysis, and organization

I interviewed Respondents face-to-face for 30-45 minutes at a location, day, and time of their own choice. Their responses were digitized using certain technology. Afterwards, I transcribed

their responses using Microsoft word in preparation to analyze and interpret the data to determine common threads and different trends in order to extrapolate my findings.

1.7.6 Ethics approval

This study was approved by Te Manu Taiko, Human Research Ethics Committee of Waikato University (See, Appendix 1.1).

1.8 Summary of key the findings

Some common themes showed that the types of descriptions underlying the English language had been influenced by some aspects of structure linguistic analysis for the first half of the 20th century from Saussure, 1900 to the CoE, 1950. From the 1950s onwards, the focus seems to have shifted to a more meaning based and communicatively oriented description of language involving semantic theorizing. The types of ideas in this chapter could provide a basis for a proposed theoretical framework to describe te reo taking it from a focus on form to a focus on meaning with an aim to become a focus on both meaning and form. This approach could help teachers and learners of te reo in the L2 context. A key focus of the chapter would be to rethink the design of Māori grammar books and textbooks and how these educational materials could significantly benefit from the inclusion of a focus on both meaning and form and not just form alone.

Chapter 2: Literature on theories and studies in language description

2.1 Introduction

The literature review is an eclectic approach that covers a broad range of theoretical principles for a semantic description of the Māori language. The main theories include (but not exclusive to) inter-propositional relationships, intra-propositional relationships, case role theory, and semantic predicates. This chapter will provide an outline of some theories in grammar description (2.2), an overview of some studies in language description (2.3), select works on Māori language descriptions in grammar books and textbooks (2.4), and a summary of the key findings (2.5).

2.2 Theories in grammar description

The following sections will provide an outline of some theories in grammar regarding the English language including: the Structuralist Approach (2.2.1), Transformational Grammar (2.2.2), Relational Grammar (2.2.3), Lexical Functional Grammar (2.2.4), Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar (2.2.5), Cognitive Grammar (2.2.6), Universal Grammar (2.2.7), and Functional Grammar (2.2.8).

2.2.1 The Structuralist Approach

The first reasonably full account of linguistic structuralism is to be found in the Course in General Linguistics based on the ideas of Saussure (1916). Fundamental to linguistic structuralism is the treatment of language as a self-sufficient system made up of a) necessary and universal structural features and b) contingent features. Thus, structure linguistics involves, without reference to psychological or social theorizing (See, Chapter 7, Section 7.2), collecting a corpus of utterances and attempting to classify them in terms of elements at their different linguistic levels: phonemes, morphemes, lexical categories (e.g., nouns, verbs, prepositions etc.), and syntactic structures. Within the context of structure linguistics, a ‘sign’ is made up of

two components - a 'signifier' and a 'signified' - and signs can be defined only in terms of their contrast with other signs in a way that is syntagmatic (i.e., relating to the sequence of occurrence) or paradigmatic (i.e., relating to the items that can be selected from a given set, such as ran/ run) and operate in relation to phonological, morphological, and syntactic categorization.⁴ A major objection to structure linguistics, as articulated by Chomsky (1957) was the fact that it could not accommodate the full range of natural language, failing even to differentiate between some very common structures (p. 6). Thus, for example, it treated sentences, such as *John is eager to please* and *John is easy to please* as if they were structurally the same although in one case *John* functions as the subject of the verb, *please* and in the other *John* functions as its direct object.

2.2.2 Transformational Grammar or Standard Theory

Transformational Grammar or Standard Theory (Chomsky, 1965) relates deep structures to surface structures via a series of transformations and links deep structures to semantic interpretations. This theory links directly to structure linguistics. The key assumptions were that a theory of grammar should:

- Describe the linguistic competence of the idealized native speaker or hearer;
- Generate all possible grammatical sentences while excluding those that are not possible;
- Include syntax, semantics, and phonology, the syntactic component consisting of phrase structure rules (which determine the deep-structure of sentences) and transformational rules which lead to surface-structure through insertion, deletion, replacement, or movement;

⁴In semiotics, a concept developed by Saussure, a sign communicates a meaning that can be intentional (e.g., a word uttered with a specific meaning, or unintentional (e.g., a symptom being a sign of a particular medical condition). The sign is dyadic in nature (i.e., consisting of a twofold relationship) made up of the sign - the signifier and its meaning - the signified (Saussure, 1916, p. 67).

- Have lexical entries, which in addition to phonological and semantic information, include subcategorization information (showing which constituents can or must occur with the word, such as the requirement of kill for an animate object), and selectional restrictions (which show how words are matched in terms of their semantic features);
- Include grammatical functions (e.g., subject, object, direct object, etc.), which are structurally derived (e.g., subject defined as the noun phrase immediately dominated by the sentence) and which do not play any direct role in transformations (Hubbard, 1994, p. 52).

Thus, phrase structure rules (e.g., $S > NP + VP$) are operated on by transformation rules (e.g., a rule which moves the positioning of elements in an active sentence in the case of passive sentences and adds other elements). Transformational Grammar (Standard Theory) provided the primary basis for *The Grammar Book* by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983). Although many of the observations in that book are extremely interesting, this theory is no longer considered adequate.

2.2.3 Relational Grammar

Developed by Perlmutter and Postal (1977), Relational Grammar accounts for certain types of cross-linguistic generalizations that could not hitherto be accounted for (See, for example, Perlmutter, 1983; & Perlmutter & Rosen, 1984). In common with transformational grammar, relational grammar assumes that syntax is phonology and semantics. It differs from transformational grammar, its basic assumptions being that:

- Grammatical relations (e.g., subject, predicate) are primitives, that is, are a core part of clause structure and are not derived via transformations;
- Linear order is independent of clause structure so that, for example, a rule relating to passive can be stated as a universal without reference to specifics of word order;

- The structure of clauses is multi-levelled but is not derivational so that, for example, *Tom was seen by Mary* contains the information that *Tom* was initially the direct object but is now the subject although the passive is not considered to be derived transformationally from the active;
- Linguistic generalizations (e.g., rules for case marking) may refer to any aspect of the clausal representation. Thus, passive morphology in English relates only to clauses containing direct objects at the initial level;
- There are universal constraints that set restrictions on possible representations of clause structure (Hubbard, 1994, p. 53).

The goal of a relational grammar is to characterize the set of possible structures, blocking those that are not possible by universal principles. There are several relations divided into various classes. Predicate is the central relation of a clause. It is normally carried by verbs although it may sometimes be carried by adjectives. Others, such as subject, direct object, and indirect object form a class known as term relations, which differ from other nominal relations in that they carry a range of semantic roles. Other grammatical relations for nominals include the oblique relations (i.e., Benefactive, Locative, Instrumental, etc.), which in English are marked with prepositions and a few others such as Possessor. These are single multi-level structures rather than transformations from one structure to another. Thus, for example, in a ‘stratal’ diagram for *Tom was hit by Mary*.⁵ *Mary* has arrows (relational arcs) that indicate the grammatical relations the words carry and curved lines that represent levels. An arc representing *Mary* carries the subject relation at the initial level but not at the final level. Because the subject relation does not appear at the final level, *Mary* will be marked at this level

⁵ The notion of stratal (i.e., belonging to strata or stratum) refers to the maximal set of arches with the same second node sharing some coordinate (Perlmutter and Postal, 1977, p. 402). In other words, it can refer to a layer or a series of layers within any structure.

by the preposition *by* in English. The following example illustrates this type of relational mapping as shown in Figure 2.1 below (Reproduced from original image).

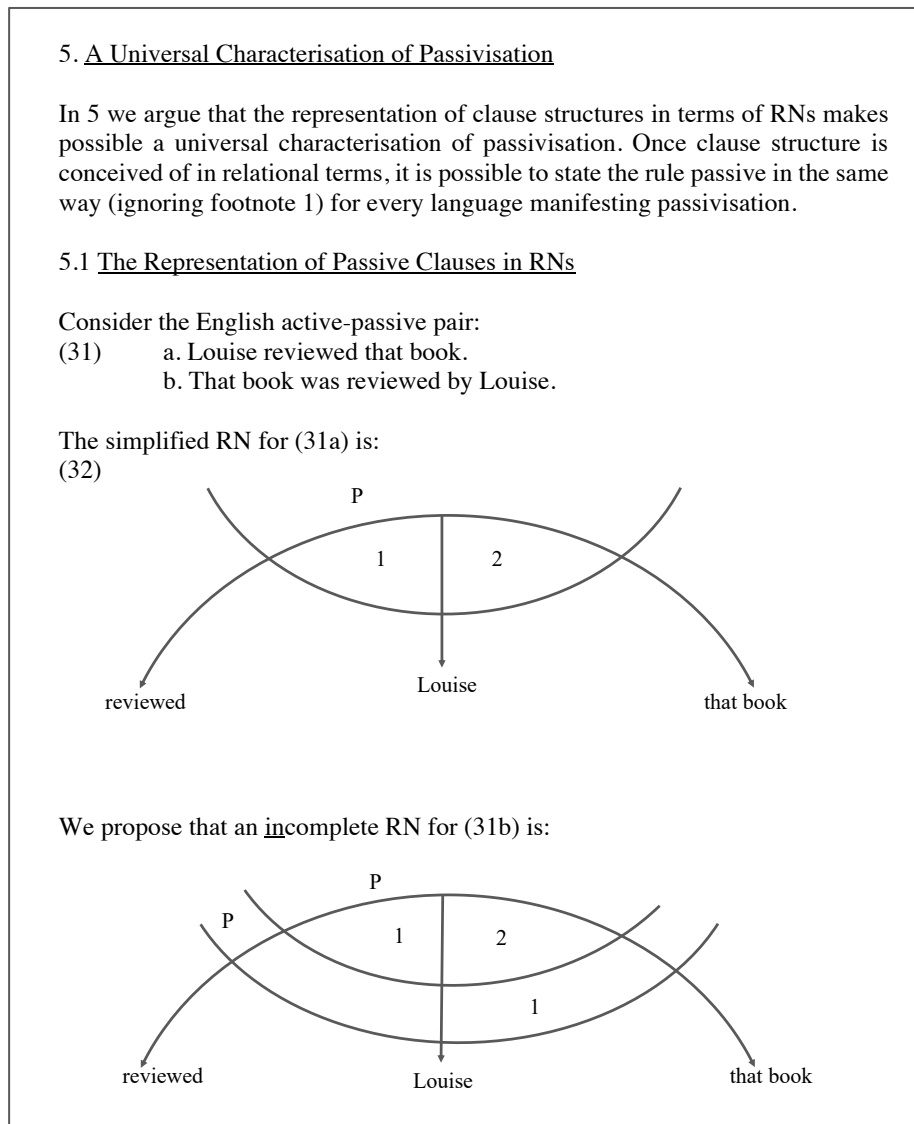


Figure 2.1: Stratal diagram mapping (Perlmutter & Postal, 1977)

An implication of relational grammar for teaching is that special attention should be paid to the predicate and to term relations (e.g., subject, direct object, etc.) because they participate in most grammatical rule statements and semantic roles. Some learners of English produce sentences, such as ‘The problem is existed for many years’ (c.f. Mary is slapped). This is often thought of as resulting from incomplete knowledge of the tense or auxiliary system but all verbs are not equally susceptible to appearing in this incorrect morphology. Hubbard (1983) noted that such errors involve a specific class of verbs which are called ‘unaccusatives’ (i.e., verbs of being,

becoming, happening, that is, not involving conscious, voluntary action) in relational grammar (Perlmutter, 1978). These verbs are different from other intransitive verbs and in many languages, they occur with the same morphology as passives (but not in English). The error, therefore, may result from the assumption that English unaccusatives have passive morphology. Similarly, in languages with possessor ascension (i.e., possessive relation indicated at the surface by an indirect object), the equivalent of John stole the car to me, would be acceptable.

2.2.4 Lexical-Functional Grammar

Lexical-Functional Grammar developed by Kaplan and Bresnan (1982) (See also, Horrocks, 1987; & Sells, 1985) aims for consistency with research on human language processing. The lexicon and language functions play a significant role. The theoretical assumptions are that:

- A grammar should be psychologically real, representing directly the underlying linguistic competence of a speaker so that it can form the basis for a theory of language performance;
- A sentence has both constituent structure and functional structure, the latter containing information about the relation of constituent elements to the clause (e.g., which 'NP' is subject);
- Constituent and functional structure must both be well-formed and be consistent for a sentence to be grammatical;
- The lexicon plays a central role, lexical entries subcategorizing for function as well as constituent structure;
- There are no transformations or multi-levels. Constituents are generated in place and related by functional structure and/ or lexical rules (Hubbard, 1994, p. 58).

The constituent structure is generated by phrase structure rules (e.g., $S \rightarrow NP + VP$). This structure is then annotated with functional information necessary for linking it with the

functional structure. Thus, the NP could be annotated with (Subj) indicating that it is the subject of the sentence (S). The functional structure consists of attributes that can be specified with particular values. In the sentence ‘*The cat sleeps*’, the attribute (Spec) associated carries the value *The* and the attribute (Subj) carries the value *The cat*. The functional structure, therefore, contains the information necessary for assigning a semantic value to the sentence. It does not, however, specify linear order (which is the role of the annotated constituent structure). The lexicon has subcategorization (Sub-Cat) and lexical rules. Subcategorization determines what constituents can occur with a particular lexical item (e.g., sleep is subcategorized as intransitive). Subcategorization is done in terms of function rather than structure (e.g., drink is subcategorized to take an object, not a noun phrase). Subcategorization also specifies the case role or thematic role that a function is linked with (e.g., drink involves either a Subject or Agent and Object theme). Lexical rules take a lexical item as input and return a lexical item with new subcategorization, accounting for the systematic relationships among the different forms of the same basic lexical item (e.g., a lexical rule links the active and passive forms of verbs). The underlying assumptions are that grammatical functions are primitives and so it is reasonable to state pedagogical rules using them and the lexicon is the central part of the grammar; the learning of grammar and vocabulary are bound closely together, suggesting that the learning of vocabulary should include subcategorizational information. Rappaport and Levin (1988, pp. 11-12) define relations of theme as follows:

- **Theme:** something which is in the same location or state, comes into or out of existence or undergoes a change of location or state;
- **Agent:** an entity which produces an effect on another entity, causes another entity to be in some location or state or to come into or out of existence or undergo a change of location or state;

- **Goal:** the endpoint of a change of location or state, the place or state in which the theme comes into existence or an entity which comes to have possession of a theme;
- **Patient:** a kind of goal; when an agent produces an effect on an entity goal, that entity is called a Patient.

These concepts from lexical semantics are very useful because they can provide a more accurate account of the distribution of sentence types, for example, causative verbs in sentences like *'The farmer grew the potatoes'* are related to inchoative verbs (i.e., verbs that have a beginning but not fully developed) in sentences like, *the potatoes grew*. The causative/inchoative rules work when the object is a theme but not when it is a Patient. Thematic roles (i.e., case roles), therefore, can be used to account for apparent exceptions to syntactic processes, although such information is not generally included in grammars dealing with the treatment of causative/ inchoative structures.

2.2.5 Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar

The theory of Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar developed by Gazdar, Klein, Pullum and Sag (1985) provides, in a single level of a single structure, all the information necessary to derive a semantic form (See also, Horrocks, 1987; & Sells, 1985). It is a true single level theory of syntax 'surface structure'. It assumes that:

- Explaining aspects of natural language requires as complete and precise description as possible;
- Universals should appear as consequences of the formal system (not as drivers of it);
- A syntactic structure needs only a single level of analysis;
- Phrase structure rules are constraints on possible constituent structures but do not specify linear order only immediate dominance relations (e.g., A noun phrase could be specified as containing a determiner and noun but their relative order would be specified by a separate statement of linear procedure.);

- The verb phrase has a special status among constituents, being considered the head of the sentence.

There is a system of syntactic features (which play a central role), immediate dominance rules and various restrictions, conventions, principles, and statements that combine to define the set of well-formed phrase structure trees for a language and the trees represent all the structure necessary for semantic and phonological interpretation. The major categories (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and prepositions) are represented by a combination of two binary features (+/-, that is, one category is more prominent than another in a relational structure, weak and strong forms) Nominal (N) and Verbs (V). A noun would be [+N, -V], a preposition would be [-N, -V], that is, they are featured less in these types of structures. The syntactic features appear on the nodes of tree structures whose specification begins with immediate dominance rules, which may be either lexical or non-lexical. Lexical immediate dominance rules specify the character of the hierarchical relationships that exist among items in constituents that include a lexical head (e.g., NP and VP). Non-lexical rules specify other types of syntactic relationships. Thus, the lexical dominance rule VP H (In-v) specifies a verb phrase for a simple intransitive verb (In-v), the Head (H) being always the lexical category that matches the phrasal category on the left - VP<H (In), therefore, the (H) must be a verb. Also, a set of linear precedence rules specified word order: the verb in a transitive verb phrase (e.g., Mary *baked* a cake) will always occur before the noun phrase because the noun phrase carries the feature [Sub-Cat]. From this it follows that verbs will be VP-initial, determiners will be NP-initial, English has prepositions rather than postpositions etc. There needs to be some way of capturing relationships such as active and passive. There are, therefore, meta-rules that operate on other rules to achieve further generalizations. Restrictions and conventions serve to limit which features occur with which other features. The implications for grammar teaching include:

- Since verbs are the key to the sentence, tracing verbs and the structures they directly give will cover a significant part of the grammar of a language;
- In teaching words, subcategorization should be included along with form and meaning;
- It may be more useful to think of introducing substructures through common words than as syntactic formulae with words as convenient place holders, thus producing a lexically driven grammar;
- Transformational exercises do not represent linguistically relevant stages in a derivation and there is no theoretically justifiable reason for doing them (though there may be a pedagogical reason).

An assumption here is that learners need to be sensitized to paying attention to the accompanying elements of new words rather than just their form and meaning. Clearly, lexical subcategorization and grammar teaching would need to be brought more closely together.

2.2.6 Cognitive Grammar

Cognitive Grammar (Langacker, 1987), which assumes that linguistic structures are motivated by general cognitive processes does not claim to be generative but does claim to treat language as a part of overall cognitive organization. Thus, “the grammar of a language is non-generative and non-constructive, for the expressions of a language do not constitute a well-defined, algorithmically computable set . . . syntactic and phonological structure is integrated with lexicon, morphology, and syntax, thus forming a continuum of symbolic structures” (Langacker, 1988, pp. 4-5). The distinction between grammar and the lexicon, thus becomes even further blurred. Within the context of cognitive grammar, the basic units of language seem to be symbols or conventional pairings of a semantic structure with a phonological label. Grammar consists of constraints on how these units can be combined to generate larger phrases, which also involve a pairing of semantics and phonology. The semantic aspects are modelled as image schemas rather than propositions and each can invoke the other.

2.2.7 Universal Grammar

Cook (1994, pp. 25-26) within the context of Universal Grammar, that is, that approach to grammar that focuses on universals, the primary focus is on built-in and highly abstract principles (which are said not to vary) and parameters (which are said to require setting in relation to the nature of the specific language being acquired). Thus, for example, structure-dependency (that is, that knowledge of a language relies on the structural relationships in a sentence rather than the sequence of words) is regarded as a principle, whereas pro-drop (i.e., whether or not sentences without subjects are permitted) is regarded as a parameter which is set as ON in the case of Chinese and OFF in the case of English (p. 27). Cook further argues that “syntactic descriptions in terms of principles and parameters have potential uses in syllabuses for language teaching and in teaching exercises” (p. 29). He discusses the relevance of this in relation to English and French in terms of the parameter of ‘opacity’ outlined by Pollock (1989), that is, whether certain grammatical elements must occur after the verb or not. Thus, for example, whereas in English adverbs and quantifiers precede the main verb, in French, they follow it (e.g., He always drinks - Il boit souvent; They all drink wine - Ils boivent souvent le vin) something that indicates the potential value of “each exercise that unify the teaching of such formally disparate constructions as the positions of adverbs and quantifiers” (p. 29). Cook (1994) further says, that “universal grammar is concerned with knowledge of language in the human mind” and “has nothing to say about how language is used and little to say about how it is processed”. Nor is it concerned with “numerous areas of syntax that teachers have to deal with every day”. Thus, “language teachers must look elsewhere for ideas about communicative competence, pragmatic competence, or listening and speaking skills” (p. 42). However, what universal grammar does do is alert us to the importance of vocabulary on language learning since learners “need to acquire an immense amount of detail about how individual words are used in grammatical structures” (p. 43). Thus, “it is not

just a matter of the L2 learner of English learning the syntax, function and meaning of Cats like milk; it is learning that in English the verb like needs to be followed by a grammatical object and preceded by an animate subject, in other words, what can be called a syntactic view of vocabulary” (p. 44).

2.2.8 Functional Grammar

The underlying assumptions of functional grammar, the communicative imperative, the connection of acquisition with use, and the discourse basis for much grammatical selection are entirely congruent with current insights in both second language acquisition and teaching (Tomlin, 1994, p. 174). Critical to functional grammars is the fact that language is treated as a situated social activity, the implication being that *use* as well as *form* needs to be addressed. Its central tenets include:

- Communication is the primary function of language and shapes form;
- Sociocultural and cognitive factors are important in explaining linguistic phenomena;
- Syntax is not autonomous from semantics and pragmatics;
- Take a constructivist view of language acquisition, according to which enough information is available in the linguistic environment for the child to be able, with the help of more general cognitive factors and learning capacities, to construct a grammar (p. 146).

Functional explanations may relate to historical change, communicative constraints, and cognitive constraints. Among the problems associated with functional approaches to language description are the difficulty of constraining the types of functions permitted, the difficulty of avoiding circularity in terms of description and explanation, and the fact that analysis must precede theory.

2.2.8.1 The North American Tradition and Tagmemic Grammar

Tagmemics is a linguistic theory developed by Kenneth Pike (1967). Although accepting that grammar is a structural system governed by rules and principles, Pike argued that it needs to be explained, wherever possible, in terms of the functioning of language as communication. More recent developments have included, for example, Role and Reference Grammar (Foley and Van Valin, 1984) and Emergent Grammar (Hopper, 1998).

2.2.8.2 Systemic Functional Grammar

Systemic Functional Grammar, developed by Michael Halliday (1994) views language as a network of systems or interrelated sets of options for making meaning which reflects the multidimensional nature of human experience and interpersonal relations. The concepts of system and rank are fundamental. Grammatical systems are said to be closed (have a finite set of options), whereas lexical ones are said to be open since new words come into a language all the time. Language is said to be organized in terms of meta-functions, such as ideational (i.e., involving making sense of experience), interpersonal (i.e., enacting social relations), and textual (i.e., enabling these two kinds of meanings to come together in coherent text). It is analyzed in terms of semantics, phonology, and lexico-grammar, and is discussed in terms of systems (rather than rules). Systems (e.g., mood, agency, theme) relate to meta-functions (e.g., the grammatical system of *mood* is considered to be centrally related to the expression of interpersonal meanings, *process type* to the expression of experiential meanings, and *theme* to the expression of textual meanings) and involve a choice from a describable set of options.

2.3 Studies in language description

The following sections will provide a brief outline of some developments in language description beyond structuralist and behaviorist ideas (2.3.1) and towards a more meaning based description of language (2.3.2).

2.3.1 Beyond structuralist and behaviorist ideas

During the early 1900s, the emergence of Structuralism and Behaviorism (See, for example, Bloomfield, 1933; Saussure, 1916; & Skinner, 1957) would have a significant impact on First Language (L1) and Second Language (L2) research in English language studies. Brown (2000) says, the structuralist and behaviorist schools of thought that had developed by the 1940s and 1950s rejected psychological processes associated with the mind as legitimate forms of research and advocated that only observable phenomena, that is, things both seen or heard could be investigated, measured, or recorded (p. 8). Bloomfield (1933) advocated that a mechanistic approach was the necessary form of scientific investigation, it being more solid and easily surveyed than another or changeable doctrine (that is, one that involves mentalistic properties (pp. vii-viii). This rigid scientific approach is reflected in his book which is a purely linguistic analysis of the English language. Around the late 1950s, however, the theories by Chomsky in his paper *Syntactic Structures* (1957) and *A Review of B. F. Skinner's Verbal Behavior* (1959) began to challenge the structuralist and behaviorist ideas of the time. Chomsky (1959) argued that “the remarkable capacity of the child to generalize, hypothesize, and process information . . . in highly complex ways . . . may be largely innate” (pp. 9-10). Other schools of thought that challenge the status quo included, for example, a paper called *Linguistic Competence* by Chomsky, 1965 that referred to the notion of language acquisition (i.e., what the speaker/ hearer knows about the language), *speech acts theory* by Austin, 1962 (i.e., how language is used to do things rather than to assert or to state some fact about things), *communicative competence* by Hymes, 1970 (i.e., what we know about the language we use every day), and *communicative language teaching* (i.e., the aim of teaching language is to use it for communication). Around the late 1960s, the emergence of research on cognitive psychology also began to challenge structuralism and behaviorism, especially in addressing a range of issues associated with the cognitive process of understanding L1 acquisition. It

revealed that complex relationships co-existed between behavior and mentalistic processes and this would later impact teachers' thoughts and teaching practices, L2 education and learning, and grammar teaching. It signaled a critical shift away from these two schools of thought (See, Chapter 7, Section 7.2). Up until the mid-1970s, the field of second language teaching (SLT) was largely behaviorist-based and language syllabuses consisted of lists of structures. The Audio-lingual Method was widely used to facilitate the learning of those structures through listening, repetition, and drilling exercises.⁶ Thus, for example, the students would listen to a sentence structure, repeat it, and then replace vocabulary in the structure with similar words, for example, He ate the apple. He ate the orange. He ate the banana. He ate the ___ etc.

2.3.2 Towards a more meaning based description of language

In this section, I will highlight some research-based studies in language description that developed over time including the Council of Europe (2.3.2.1), speech acts by Austin (2.3.2.2), and Searle (2.3.2.3), some limitations with speech acts (2.3.2.4), communicative competence (2.3.2.5), communicative language teaching (2.3.2.6), and case role theory, inter-propositional and intra-propositional relationships (2.3.2.7).

2.3.2.1 Council of Europe

By the 1950s, the Council of Europe (CoE) had begun to conduct innovative research that shifted towards a more meaning oriented and communicative approach to describe language. The CoE is currently an amalgamation of 47 state-members in Europe and was formed to address the challenges and issues associated with teaching and learning the many different languages within and between different European countries (CoE, 1949). This led to critical

⁶ The Audio-lingual Method of foreign or second language teaching was prominent in the 1950s and 1960s throughout the United States and focused on the aural and oral approach to language teaching and learning. It focused on the teaching of speaking and listening skills before reading and writing and the use of dialogues and drills but discouraged the use of the mother tongue in the classroom. It maintained that speaking and listening are the most basic language skills in which each language has its own unique structure and rule system, and this is learned through forming habits. These ideas partly emerged out of structure linguistic and behaviorist theories (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 40).

decision making to develop research on language studies including the way language could be described. The most notable studies included: *Le Français Fondamental*, a description of a basic vocabulary and grammar of the French language (1961); *Voix et Images de la France*, an audio-visual course for adults learning French as a foreign language (1961); Major project in modern languages, the formation of committees in charge of education, higher education, culture, and cultural heritage in language education (1962); the Unit-credit scheme, the basis for a description of language learning objectives based on functions and notions (1971); Threshold-level series, a specification of English sentence structures, grammar, and vocabulary (1975); Notional syllabus, a specification of language categories and exponents of functions performed by speech acts, such as threat, warning, request, instruction (1976); and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, a specification of grammatical categories encoded in English sentence structures (1991). All this research provides a historical context that has contributed to or influenced in some ways other related studies as a basis for a semantic approach to describe language (See, for more on the CoE, Chapter 5).

2.3.2.2 John Austin: Speech acts theory

The notion of speech acts theory was advanced by John Austin (1962) in his book called *How to do things with words*.⁷ This was later extended on by John Searle (1969) in his book called *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*. Their works introduced and explored the different functions of words as encoded in English sentences. Austin (1962) pointed out that the long-held views of some philosophers assumed that a ‘statement’ described some ‘state of affairs’ or to ‘state some fact’, which it must do either truly or falsely grammarians, on the other hand, often pointed out that statements also include questions, exclamations, and sentences expressing commands, wishes, or concessions and that it was not always easy to

⁷ John Austin’s book, ‘How to do things with words’, was posthumously published by some of his former students in 1962 following his death in 1960. It was the accumulation of his philosophical ideas on the English language, which he presented as the Williams James Lectures at Harvard University during the mid 1950s.

distinguish among them (p. 1). Deciding on how to categorize these different kinds of statements, Austin postulated that we use language to ‘do’ things and not only to ‘assert’ or to ‘state’ things, as shown in his following example sentences:

1. I *do* take this woman to be my lawful wedded wife.
2. I *name* this ship the Queen Elizabeth.
3. I *give* and *bequeath* my watch to my brother.
4. I *bet* you sixpence it will rain tomorrow.

The notion of to ‘do’ in examples 1-4, I *do*, I *name*, I *give*, I *bequeath*, and I *bet* shows that each one expresses a different *function* from the notion to assert or to state a fact (pp. 5-6). Austin initially called these functions *performatives* but later adopted the more general term *illocutionary* (pp. 6, 98). To accommodate them, he proposed a taxonomy to describe different categories of *functions* which he later called *speech acts* as embedded in spoken or written text.⁸ Each type of speech act was categorized as Locutionary, Illocutionary, or Perlocutionary as shown in Table 2.1 below. Austin (1962) says, “I am not putting any of this forward, in the very least, as definitive” (p. 151).

Table 2.1: Austin’s taxonomy of speech acts

Categories of Speech Acts	Definitions	Examples
Locutionary	An utterance or sentence that has meaning and can be understood by the hearer.	Open the window. The act of understanding something.
Illocutionary	Also known as functions, performatives or speech acts is an utterance or a sentence that performs a function, or	Open the window. The speech act expressed here can imply a <i>command</i> , a <i>request</i> , an <i>order</i> , or a

⁸ The term ‘text’ as used in this thesis refers to spoken or written communication related to specific contexts in the use of everyday discourse (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 10).

	an act, that is, the way that words are used to <i>do</i> things.	<i>warning</i> to ‘open the window’ depending on the context.
Perlocutionary	This refers to the result or effect produced by saying something.	Open the window. The act of opening the window.

Because Austin was mainly concerned with Illocutionary acts, he found it necessary to subdivide it further into five categories as shown in Table 2.2 below.

Table 2.2: Austin’s taxonomy of illocutionary acts

Illocutionary Acts	Definitions	Examples
Verdictives	The giving of a verdict, for example, by a jury, arbitrator, or umpire but is not necessarily final.	to acquit, to convict, to find (as in guilty, or as a matter of fact) etc.
Exercitives	The exercising of powers, rights, or influences.	to appoint, to vote, to order, to urge, to advise, to warn etc.
Commissives	They commit the speaker to a certain course of action.	to promise, to consent, to undertake, to bet etc.
Behabitives	A very miscellaneous group that has to do with attitudes and social behaviour.	to apologize, to congratulate, to commend, to condole, to curse, to challenge etc.
Expositives	A difficult group to define, they make plain how our utterances fit into the course of an argument or conversation and how we are using	I reply, I argue, I concede, I illustrate, I assume etc.

	words or, in general, are expository.	
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Interestingly, the interpretation of speech acts theory in the statements 1 and 2 below were put forward by the CoE but seems to differ from what Austin may have initially intended (See, for the full list of the CoE's interpretation, Appendix 2.1). The CoE says,

1. The inventories select realizations as independent of context as possible in which each act may, in a given communication situation, be affected by an open set of forms (The telephone = request to do) or (I'm in the shower = refusal);
2. All the speech acts are described at all levels (except perhaps certain ones at level A1) to provide learners with verbal resources, however minimal, to express themselves in all circumstances.

The reasons for these interpretations are not clearly understood when considering a) the intended meaning of a speech act is wholly dependent on interpreting it in the context in which it occurs, b) it does not explain what independent context means here and, c) it would be difficult to describe all speech acts at all levels considering there are over 1,000 different types that exist in the English language and that different people may interpret speech acts in different ways.

2.3.2.3 John Searle: Extending on speech acts theory

Some years later John Searle (1969) extended on speech acts theory in his book called *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*. Although Searle (1965) claimed that there were over a thousand varieties of speech acts in the English language, he says, "English makes use of only some of them in spoken or written text . . . nonetheless, their philosophical importance is essential to human communication . . . it is not the word or the sentence but rather the performance of the speech act that constitutes the basic unit of linguistic communication" (pp.

1-2). Searle (1975) says, Austin’s theories on speech acts formed a good basis for discussion rather than a set of established rules but they needed some serious revision (p. 350). Searle argued, for example, that some verbs and the functions they implied, such as “to announce, to order, to promise, or to report is not the same as announcing, ordering, promising, or reporting but rather they are used to express an intention” (pp. 351-352). He further argued that there is a persistent confusion between acts and verbs and that there is too much overlap and heterogeneity within some of the categories and many of the verbs do not satisfy the definitions given for that category or most importantly there is no clear set of criteria of classification (p. 354). To address some of these issues, Searle (1975) proposed his own categories of illocutionary speech acts as shown in Table 2.3 below.

Table 2.3: Searle’s taxonomy of illocutionary acts

Illocutionary Acts	Definitions	Examples
Assertives	To express beliefs.	descriptions, assertions etc.
Commissives	To express intentions.	vows, promises, pledges etc.
Declarations	How we create the institutions in life around us.	declarations, statements etc.
Directives	To express desire.	orders, commands, requests etc.
Expressives	To express oneself.	apologies, thanks, congratulations etc.

The need for context plays an important role in the use of speech acts in order to interpret (with some accuracy) their intended meaning as shown in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4: Speech acts in context (Open the window)

Text	Context	Category	Speech Act	Author
Open the window.	Said when walking into a room that smells of paint fumes.	Directives	A warning	Austin
	Said when walking into a classroom on a very hot day.	Directives	A request	Searle
	Said by an officer to a soldier in a military situation.	Directives	An order	Searle

In addition to context, the exact intended meaning of each example above would be, to some extent, understood and interpreted by the speaker-hearer participants themselves. It is important to note that speech acts theory was influential in the development of some studies in language description carried out by John trim and David Wilkins of the CoE including *the notion of language* and the publication of Notional Syllabus by Wilkins in 1976 (See, for more details about this study, Chapter 5, Section 5.3.7).

2.3.2.4 Some limitations with speech acts

Because L2 students would need to learn a great deal about different types of vocabulary, I believe speech acts theory could play a useful role in a description of language generally but in the Māori language specifically. However, they are not without their limitations as listed below:

- They are entirely context dependent. In other words, you would need to account for all possible scenarios and various nuances in which speech acts might occur beyond, for example, a request, an apology, or a warning;

- Due to the possibility of many different scenarios in which they could occur, it would be a difficult undertaking to provide an adequate specification of them all;
- You cannot describe language in functional terms only or use functions (i.e., speech acts) as the basis for syllabus specification except for formulaic utterances and binary values (e.g., reason-result) which have, in each language, a range of specific exponents (e.g., because, the reason was, due to etc.);
- Different people may interpret utterances differently including the speech acts they contain; (e.g., is the speech act a warning, a request, an order, or something else);
- Several speech acts can co-exist, such as: threat, insult, warning, order, or command in a single utterance and is, therefore, not as straightforward in terms of what is intended;
- There are at least 1,000 words in English that relate to speech acts, yet syllabuses tend to include only a few of them;
- Speech acts tend to focus on the singularity of a particular phrase or word in a very finite way to express the act (e.g., promising, inviting, warning etc.) but says, very little about other types of descriptions (e.g., semantically based ones).

Finally, as there is no specific research conducted on speech acts theory for the Māori language, it would be difficult, therefore, to provide any details on this phenomenon until such studies become available. The points above, at the very least, could provide some useful guidelines for future research in this area and how speech acts could play an important role in te reo studies, for example, to describe the different functions of verb types (e.g., *Huakina* te wini. Open the window), which shows that Māori imperatives very often begin the sentence and are expressed in the passive form. With the context playing a critical role in determining the meaning of what is intended by the utterance might contribute to a better understanding of the language.

2.3.2.5 Communicative Competence

Brown (2000) says, the term Communicative Competence (Com-com), an innovative language study, was coined around the 1970s by Dell Hymes (p. 246). Com-com began with the premise that a major aim in communication was to determine the extent of whether an utterance was not only formally possible but also whether it was feasible or acceptable in a particular social context (Hymes, 1972, p. 281). Com-com would influence a later study on a notional approach to language description that was developed by the CoE. Leung (2005, p.12) says, the emergence of Com-com was:

- Partially influenced by Austin's (1962) studies on speech acts;
- A paradigm shift away from the prevalent grammar-based descriptions of language studies at the time;
- A reaction against Chomsky's (1965, p. 4) abstract notions of linguistic competence (i.e., the speaker's-hearer's knowledge of a particular language) and linguistic performance (i.e., the actual use of a particular language in concrete situations);
- A strong request for language educators to consider the social rules of use, a dimension of language use without which the rules of grammar would be useless.

Leung (2005) also noted that Com-com would later serve as a reference point for forming the concept of competency in communication in second language pedagogy developed by Canale and Swain in the early 1980s (p.123). This concept was advanced in a series of articles written by Canale and Swain (See, for example, Canale, 1983, 1984; & Canale and Swain, 1980a, 1980b). In these articles, (citing Leung, 2005, pp. 123-124), Canale and Swain put forward their ideas that communicative competence was comprised of four areas of knowledge and skills including the following principles:

1. **Grammatical competence:** This competence is concerned with “knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar, semantics, and phonology” (Canale & Swain, 1980a, p. 29). This type of knowledge and skill will allow the learner to understand and produce accurately the literal meaning of utterances;
2. **Sociolinguistic competence:** This competence, broadly speaking, deals with what Hymes (1972, 1974) would call the rules of use. It addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors, such as status of participants, purposes of the interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction appropriateness of utterances refers to the appropriateness of meaning and the appropriateness of meaning concerns the extent to which particular communicative functions (e.g., commanding, complaining, and inviting), attitudes (including politeness and formality) and ideas are judged to be proper in a given situation (Canale, 1983, p. 7);
3. **Discourse competence:** This competence is concerned with what Halliday and Hasan (1976) would refer to as cohesion and Widdowson (1978) as coherence. It deals with the knowledge and skill required to combine grammatical forms and meanings to produce different types of unified spoken or written texts (e.g., oral, and written narratives, business reports etc.). Unity of a text is achieved through cohesion in form and coherence in meaning. Cohesion deals with how utterances are linked structurally and facilitates interpretation of a text, for example, the use of cohesion devices such as pronouns, synonyms coherence refers to the relationship among the different meanings in a text, where these meanings may be literal meanings, communicative functions, and attitudes (Canale, 1983, p. 9).
4. **Strategic competence:** This type of competence refers to mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action for two main reasons:

a) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication, for example, momentary inability to recall an idea or grammatical form or due to insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas above and b) to enhance the effectiveness of communication, for example, deliberately slow and soft speech for rhetorical effect (Canale 1983, p. 11).

Furthermore, Richards and Schmidt (2010) described the same four competencies in a simpler way as listed below:

1. **Grammatical competence:** (also formal competence), that is, knowledge of the grammar, vocabulary, phonology, and semantics of a language;
2. **Sociolinguistic competence:** (also sociocultural competence), that is, knowledge of the relationship between language and its non-linguistic context, knowing how to use and respond appropriately to different types of speech acts, such as requests, apologies, thanks, and invitations, knowing which address forms should be used with different persons one speaks to and in different situations and so forth;
3. **Discourse competence:** (sometimes considered part of sociolinguistic competence), that is, knowing how to begin and end conversations;
4. **Strategic competence:** knowledge of communication strategies that can compensate for weakness in other areas (p. 99).

During the early 1970s, when European language researchers were making distinctions between the *use* and the *grammar* of language, its importance was recognized by many groups in the profession as emphasized in the following quote,

In the early 1970s, a sociolinguistic revolution took place where the emphasis given in linguistics to grammar was replaced by an interest in language in use the sociolinguistic revolution had a great effect on language teaching it was responsible for the development of a type of syllabus, which aimed to cater for the teaching of language in use and of communicative competence (Johnson, 2001, pp. 182-183).

In regard to the social context, Howatt in a discussion with Widdowson (2004) says, “the inclusion of the social makes it necessary to engage with questions of context of communication and aspects of culture when working towards an integrated theory of language in use” (pp. 326-337).

2.3.2.6 Communicative Language Teaching

Leung (2005) says, the notion of Communicative Competence (Com-com) had a profound impact on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) also called the Communicative Approach (Com-app) and that it marked a significant shift in curriculum and pedagogic approaches (p. 122). Richards & Schmidt (2002) says, “CLT should aim to achieve communicative competence and meaningful communication and language use should be the focus of all classroom tasks CLT was a reaction against grammar-based approaches, such as Situational Language Teaching it provided the impetus for change to re-examine language teaching goals and to rethink the design of syllabus and resource materials they have made a significant impact on re-evaluating language teaching goals, syllabuses, teaching and learning materials, and classroom lessons on the national and international language scene” (p. 90). In a more recent study in a thesis conducted by Nock (2014), it aimed to investigate the teaching of te reo Māori in English-medium secondary schools in Aotearoa (New Zealand) and reported on a survey of a sample of teachers of te reo Māori in these schools with a focus on the CLT approach (See, for more details on this survey, Chapter 3, Section 3.6.2, p. 127).

Brown (2007), Council of Europe (1970), and Richards and Schmidt (2010) proposed similar lists of principles for a CLT framework as shown in Table 2.5 below.

Table 2.5: A list of similar principles of the CLT model

Authors	Principles
Brown (2007, p. 243).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language classes should focus on meaning and grammar; • Students learn best by using plenty of analysis and intuition; • It is better for a student to think directly in the L2 and to use translation for the L1; • Language learners need immediate rewards and long-term rewards; • With new language learners, teachers need to be tough and demanding, gentle, and empathetic; • A teacher's feedback to the student should be given frequently and/ or infrequently so that the student or students develop autonomy; • A communicative class should give special attention to accuracy and fluency.
CoE 1970 (See, Trim, 2001, p. 3).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Languages are for all; • Languages are learnt for use; • Language learning is a life-long activity; • Language teaching should specify worthwhile appropriate and realistic objectives based on a proper

	<p>assessment of the needs, characteristics, and resources of learners;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language teaching should be planned as a coherent whole, covering the specification of objectives, the use of teaching methods and materials, the assessment of learner achievement and the effectiveness of the system, providing feedback to all concerned; • Effective language teaching involves the coordinated efforts of educational administrators and planners, textbook and materials producers, testers and examiners, school inspectors, teacher trainers, teachers and learners who need to share the same aims, objectives, and criteria of assessment.
<p>Richards & Schmidt (2010, p. 99)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners use a language through using it to communicate; • Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities; • Fluency and accuracy are both important goals in language learning; • Communication involves the integration of different language skills; • Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.

It should be noted that the CoE proposed these principles as early as the 1970s (an innovative perspective on language ideology at that time) from which consequent frameworks evolved (See, for more on CLT, Savignon, 2005).

2.3.2.7 Case roles, inter-propositional and intra-propositional relationships

Around the late-1960s, the emergence of case role theory developed by Fillmore in 1967 investigated the roles that certain entities play in clauses or sentences, for example, Subject-Object or Agent-Patient. Fillmore (1967) says, the basic structure of a simple sentence is treated as a verb and one or more noun phrases associated with that verb in which each plays a particular case role relationship (p. 41). On the other hand, Crombie (1985b) says, a clause or a sentence is made up of a number of arguments that is related to its predicate, in a semantic sense, can be broadly defined as, for example, an *action* = drink, a *process* = deteriorate, or a *state* = understand (p. 96). This definition of a *predicate* and *argument* relationship (rather than a *verb* and *noun* association) seems to align case role theorizing with a more semantic focus. Take, for example, the following sentence: John (A) kicked the ball (P). In this case, John takes the role of *Agent* and the ball *Patient*. Each case role constitutes an argument (i.e., John is one argument, the ball is the other) and they, in turn, are linked to the predicate (e.g., *to kick* is an *action*) in a semantic sense as opposed to using more grammatical terms, such as *subject*, *object*, *verb*. Although case role theory has been discussed, to some extent, in earlier studies on te reo (See, Bauer, 1981; & Reedy, 1979), the focus, however, seemed to have been on how these roles were marked by different particles (e.g., Kua horoia te motūka e Hone. The car was washed *by* Hone) in which the role of Hone as the Agent is signaled by the agentive marker ‘e’ in a passive construction. With advancements in case role specifications that investigate more broadly defined relationships between propositions, arguments, predicates, and context, it might be useful to examine these phenomena as a semantic basis for describing te reo Māori. Around the same time as Fillmore and case roles (1967), Longacre was investigating an

analysis on Philippine languages regarding different relationships *between* and *within* sentence structures in 1968. Longacre says, “attention is given to the relations of grammatical sentences within discourse two clauses bound or not, form all or part of two grammatical sentences” (p. 4). The types of relationships he identified in sentences included, for example, time, cause, reason, purpose, result, and condition among others (Longacre, Volume II, Sentence Structure, 1968, p. 224). Both these studies on case roles and relations in sentences were re-examined later with a focus on inter-propositional relationships and intra-propositional relationships in a study carried out by Crombie (1985b). The general aim of the latter study was an attempt to describe the meaning of language in the context in which it occurs by identifying relationships between and within propositions and their related arguments, predicates, and case roles encoded within clauses and sentences. Take the English and Māori examples of inter-propositional relationships below:

- I missed the bus because you were late.
- Kua mahue ahau i te pahi nā te mea i tae tūreiti mai koe.

A linguistic based description might describe the English sentence as containing a main clause (i.e., I missed the bus), a subordinate clause (i.e., because you were late), and the subordinating conjunction (i.e., because). A similar description for te reo might be given in a grammar book or textbook on Māori. A semantic based description, on the other hand, might describe the same sentence as containing a reason-result relationship in which the subordinate conjunction (i.e., because) behaves as a cohesive device to signal that relationship between the main and subordinate clauses.⁹ The second clause (beginning with because) gives the *reason* why a particular *result* came about or will come about as indicated in the first clause (Crombie, 1985b, p. 20). In other words, *I missed the bus* (i.e., the result) occurred *because you were late* (i.e.,

⁹ Although the English and Māori examples show a result-reason sequence, it can be used the other way around without changing the meaning of the semantic relation (i.e., reason-result). The former sequence is more commonly used in the English language.

the reason). Other inter-propositional relationships and their signals can be expressed in different constructions, for example, the notion of condition-consequence,

- If it stops raining, I'll go outside.
- Mehemea ka mutu te ua, ka haere au ki waho.

Linguistically, this might be explained as the use of conditional *if* to determine the occurrence of some event. Semantically, it might be described in the following way, when the *if* condition is realized (i.e., stops raining), then the consequence will be realized (i.e., go outside). In other words, the conditional *if* in the first clause draws attention to a consequence that follows in the second one. Taking center stage in these inter-propositional relationships is the function of some type of semantic/ cohesive device to signal that relationship. As previously mentioned, in the reason-result construction, that device is the subordinate conjunction *because* and the conditional *if* in the condition-consequence proposition. In the case of intra-propositional relationships, the signaling device very often takes the form of a predicate, take for example,

- He (Agent) *convinced* the jury (Patient) *with* a syllogism (Instrument).

Here, the roles Agent, Patient, and Instrument are linked to the past tense verb (i.e., convinced) in which the Instrument (i.e., an abstract idea) is often signaled by the preposition (i.e., with). Crombie (1985b) says, “since the way in which arguments function within propositions (i.e., the semantic roles which they perform) is directly related to the type of semantic predicate with which they occur, it is important to classify semantic predicates into types” (p. 98). As we have seen, the use of cohesive devices to signal semantic relationships and case roles are not limited to predicates only but may also include subordinate conjunctions or conditionals etc. Because research-based studies in these phenomena are limited or inconclusive, it would be difficult to adapt them adequately to a semantic description of te reo Māori. Nevertheless, there has been a very small shift towards investigating this research and current studies can provide a good basis for a discussion on these matters (See, for example, Bauer, 1981; Biggs, 1969; Crombie,

1985b; Houia, 2001; Johnson, 2003; Nock, 2009; Reedy, 1979; & Whaanga, 2006). Finally, the above studies would have been carried out based on the best knowledge that was available to Māori language researchers at a time when these ideas were emerging or developing (See, for more details on all the above studies, Chapters 5 and 6).

2.4 Māori language description in grammar books and textbooks

This section will outline some works on Māori language descriptions found in grammar books (2.4.1), and textbooks (2.4.2).

2.4.1 Outline of some grammar books on te reo Māori

Captain Cook (1769) with the assistance of Tupaia, a Tahitian navigator, onboard the Endeavour ship wrote a small list of vocabulary while anchored off the North Island of Aotearoa (Cook, 1769). It included some nouns and proper nouns (e.g., pattoo or patu, a short, hand-held club; and tovy-poenammu or Te Wai Pounamu, South Island of New Zealand etc.). There may have been some misunderstanding in pronunciation of words as seen in their written form, nevertheless this is the first earliest known record of te reo to be documented taking it from an oral language to a written one. Joseph Banks (1770), the chief botanist, also onboard the Endeavor, identified similarities in languages between the people of the South Seas and concluded they originated from the same source (Banks, 1770). Banks compiled a simple comparative list of Northern and Southern Māori, and Tahitian words which he described as “the same at least in fundamentals”. His list consisted of 42 lexical items including nouns, verbs, body parts, negation, and numbers in which many did not reflect an accurate pronunciation in te reo when written down (e.g., earee = he Ariki to mean Lord). Comments in the footnotes of Banks’ list provided some of the first ever but very brief analysis of te reo that predated Kendall’s work in 1815, for example, Banks says, “the phrase *he* seems to act as the indefinite article *a* as in the English (he ika, *a* fish), this article was used more in the South than

e the definite article *the* was seen in words like (yams: tuphwe or *te uhi*) or writing down words facilitated pronunciation” (p. 37). Thomas Kendall (1815) wrote *A korao no New Zealand*. It was the first unqualified attempt to describe te reo Māori in which the extract described it as a primer and covered topics like the English alphabet, numerals, syllables of two and three letters, vocabulary, and short sentences, longer sentences, and specimens of parts of speech in Māori and English. Kendall used the English alphabet to work out a simple orthographic description of te reo to discriminate between short and long vowel sounds (marked by the *accent acute* symbol) and to establish the consonants including lists of vocabulary. Kendall paired consonants with vowels (e.g., ha, ka, ma, na etc.) and diphthongs (e.g., ai, ei, oi etc.) to work out a simple pronunciation chart. It seems Kendall experienced some challenges with describing te reo for the first-time including issues with writing words (e.g., *aquorree* = kaore) or finding appropriate vocabulary/ concepts that otherwise may have been unknown in Māori culture at that time (e.g., God, Lord). Longacre (1968) in a report on recording Philippine languages for the first time says, “an exhaustive description of language must include a) phonology and not just phonemes but the structure of syllables, and of higher-level groupings based on degrees of stress, and varieties of juncture, b) grammar, and c) lexicon” (p. vi). However, Kendall’s attempt was less than exhaustive in its description and scarcely skimmed over the basics of describing te reo. Nevertheless, Binny (1990) says, “Kendall pioneered the transcription of Māori for ensuing decades” (p. 4). Samuel Lee, a qualified linguist from Cambridge University, UK, and Thomas Kendall (1820) wrote *A Grammar and Vocabulary of the Language of New Zealand* which was a revision of Kendall’s 1815 book. The work was assisted by two Rangatira or Māori chiefs named Waikato and Hongi Hika from Ngāpuhi (A tribe in the Far North of Aotearoa, New Zealand). It covered topics like the alphabet, parts of speech, the adjective, verb types, and syntax etc. It provided a more qualified analysis of te reo and made some specific updates, such as assigning no less than 13

letters to the phonological and orthographic system of te reo, it improved the overall use of macrons, and used Sanskrit as a basis for marking short and long sounding vowels. Robert Maunsell (1842), a clergyman with a classical education and background in Hebrew studies, wrote *Grammar of the New Zealand Language*. It covered twenty chapters that described a large number of features found in the Māori language from phonology, morphology to syntax of various types. It was the third grammar on Māori to be written 22 years after Lee & Kendall's 1820 revised work. Bauer (1981) says, "Maunsell's work used parts of speech (that were typical in analyzing Indo-European languages) to describe aspects of te reo this was, however, not always adequately suited to this end Maunsell, therefore, cannot be accused of imposing Western-based ideas of language onto te reo because it did not always work his contributions, nevertheless, contained valuable insights and information on the structure of te reo at that time" (p. 12). Maunsell's 1882 third edition says, "when speaking te reo, the student must divest his mind of European rules of speech and adopt those of the Antipodes" to study the examples in the grammar and to think of them and make them the models upon which to frame his sentences" (*See Preface*). Henry Kemp (1848) wrote *the first step to Māori conversation: A grammar and phrase book of the New Zealand language*. Although it was partially a grammar book, it was also a phrase book and served a slightly different purpose, such as learning phrases in te reo for trade and business (e.g., buying land) rather than learning te reo for actual daily social communication. With reference to Māori phrase books, Munro (2009) says, "the few books that were produced were predictably utilitarian and colonising it provided phrases of everyday importance to settlers and traders" (p. 161). The production and appearance of phrase books were sometimes met with suspicion from local Māori for their intended use. Davis (1857) also wrote a phrase book *A Māori phrase book intended for newcomers*. It used loan words as a means of introducing new vocabulary and concepts for people or things to the Māori language that otherwise did not exist (e.g., hōiho = horse). The

creation of loan words seems to be based on some phonological equivalence in which the sound is reproduced in te reo Māori (e.g., wheat = wīti). Duvall (1995) suggested “replacing the terms loan words and loaning with the terms gain words and gaining as the process for developing and introducing new words and concepts to a language for the first time the terms loan words and loaning can express negative connotations of colonial imperialism and supremacy” (pp. 21-22). William Leonard Williams (1862) wrote *First lessons in the Māori language with a short vocabulary*. Bauer (1981) says, “the grammar section showed a type of freedom from Latin syntax and for its perceptions into te reo Williams first recognized a specific category of local nouns and his grammar was extraordinarily free from rigid tendencies being more specific about the structure of te reo and less concerned with the typical grammatical expectations of those familiar only with Indo-European languages” (pp.12-13). Mary Aubert (1885) wrote *A new and complete manual of Māori conversation and a complete vocabulary*. It was an innovative work that described te reo based on situations (e.g., at the hotel) and topics (e.g., to express friendship) with examples of dialogue in English and Māori. The categorization of te reo into a range of daily situations and topics for conversational purposes were scarcely a main focus in previous grammars at that time. It seems that Aubert’s grammar was the last to be written during the late nineteenth century and with that came a) the close of a long period of mainly European authors who wrote grammars on te reo and b) the beginning of a number of Māori scholars who would write their own descriptions of te reo. The latter began with Henry Stowell (1913), a scholar and educationalist from Ngāpuhi, who wrote a book called *Māori-English Tutor and Vade Mecum*. He was the first Māori to write and publish a work on the grammar and description of te reo. In addition to describing some aspects of Māori grammar, it also covered topics on traditional Māori knowledge, such as ailments and diseases, sport and past times, tohunga, marriage customs, mythology, genealogy, and cosmology. It also included information on colors, insects, creatures, trees, plants, fables,

Māori aphorisms, body parts, planets, samples of poetic prose, and insights from a Māori perspective, particularly a Ngāpuhi one. The inclusion of the latter topics demonstrated an insightful and creative approach to describe the Māori language beyond the more conventional descriptions found in previous European authored grammars. Stowell's book served as a *vade mecum* (which means a quick reference) for the use of teaching and learning te reo while he travelled and taught throughout the area. Bruce Biggs (1961) wrote a thesis called *The Structure of New Zealand Maaori* in which he pioneered the analysis of the internal structure of the Māori phrase that he broke down into three parts (i.e., the nucleus, the preposed periphery, and the postposed periphery). He used a sophisticated system to identify the behaviour of certain morphemes in Māori syntax and later extended on this work in his influential book called *Let's learn Māori* published in 1973. It is noteworthy that Biggs (1961), in his thesis, referred to some notions that are often associated with current ideas on semantic theorizing. Biggs says, "a final essential step before the language can be used in communication is the linking of its forms with referents in the real world; this relating of *form and meaning* is achieved, more or less successfully, by all speakers, native or otherwise, of any language; it is, however, scarcely attempted by the structural linguist who at present commands no techniques for the *structuring of meaning* that would allow it to be related usefully to the *formal structure* of a language" [Emphasis Added] (p. 5). It seems these notions are some of the first references to semantic based theories to feature in a study on te reo Māori (i.e., using terms like communication, linking, relating, form, meaning, structure). However, it is not explicitly stated whether these comments were referring to a description of the Māori or English languages or both. Nonetheless, it seemed that Biggs' ideas predated Reedy (1979) and Bauer (1981) who discussed similar semantic ideas in their own studies on te reo Māori. Patrick Hōhepa (1967) wrote *A profile generative grammar of Māori*. In this study, he used a profile-generative and the transformational-generative approach to analyze minor morphemes within the structure of

Māori syntax. This approach provided the rules and lists for generating the phonology, the rules for isolating phrase types, and the rules and lists for the transformational-generative grammar. Hōhepa says, “a transformational grammar is a finite set of rules and lists needed to generate all (and only) the sentences of a language, although all non-complex sentences are generated, the grammar does not claim to be exhaustive” (p. 97). Sandra Chung (1978) wrote *A Case Marking and Grammatical Relations in Polynesian*. This study analyzed a range of case marking and grammatical relations in the Māori and other Polynesian languages in regard to surface syntax, morphology of case and voice, and case marking and grammatical relations. Her analysis partially focused on the clause and parts of sentence structures and set the stage for a discussion on case markings and the typology of these languages. Chung identified a class of verbs she defined as middle verbs (e.g., see, listen) regarding them as a sub-category of transitive verbs as opposed to canonical transitive verbs; they were not generally recognized by previous authors of Māori grammars and Chung was the first researcher to mention them in print. Tāmami Reedy (1979) wrote his PhD thesis titled *Complex Sentence Formation in Māori*. In this study, Reedy provided an analysis of simple and complex sentence structures including case marking and verb types in the Māori language. He investigated intransitive and transitive as the two main verb classes in his analysis and called Chung’s middle verbs ‘*experience verbs*’ being more characteristic of *intransitive* predicates (Bauer, 1981, p. 75). Reedy also explained some differences between *i* and *ki* markings expressed in Māori noun phrases from a semantic point of view, for example, the particle *i* marks nominalized complements, *ki* marks both nominalized and deverbalized complements, and *kia...ai* clauses can express the reason for the action performed in that clause and can mean ‘so that’ or ‘accordingly’. He also referred to case roles, such as Patient, Agent, and Goal and how they might link to intransitive and transitive verb types that are marked by either *i* or *ki* particles. Winifred Bauer (1981) wrote her PhD thesis called *Aspects of the Grammar of Māori* and her studies provides some of the

most comprehensive descriptions of te reo to date. In the thesis, she discusses a range of Māori language features (e.g., syntax, verb types, and word classes etc.) and incorporated various semantic related notions into parts of the analysis. This included ideas about meaning, form, i and ki particles, particularly case grammar, and relational grammar theory. Bauer (1981) says, “many of the hypotheses were simple and have been refined in the course of the research this study was an attempt to throw light on certain central aspects of the syntax of Māori using insights from case grammar and relational grammar their rules were useful” (pp.1-2). Bauer (1981) attempted to discuss at length the notion of semantics and its possible use in describing the Māori language and a similar discussion can be found in Reedy (1979). Ray Harlow (2001) wrote *A Māori Reference Grammar*. In this study, he discussed at length some aspects of the Māori phrase structure as encoded in simple and complex sentences including some references to semantic based aspects of language description, such as case role labels and temporal overlap relationships. Harlow (2001) explained the latter concept in the following way, “in some cases, the relationship between the event or state of affairs of the clause of time in the event of the main clause is that the former is going, and the latter occurs at some point during it or itself takes up the same length of time, the English word ‘while’ is frequently used to mark this relationship”, for example, While he was mowing the lawn, it began to rain” (p. 242). Crombie (1985b), on the other hand, says, “temporal overlap links to events which overlap wholly or partly in time, for example, While fleeing, Paris looked over his shoulder (p. 18). (See, for more details on the grammar books above, Chapter 3, Section 3.3).

2.4.2 Outline of some textbooks on te reo Māori

A textbook can be defined as providing supplementary aids (e.g., exercises, activities, and/ or tests etc.) in addition to the lesson content and grammar descriptions to facilitate and to consolidate language learning (See, for more general characteristics of a textbook, Chapter 4, Section 4.3). The inclusion of supplementary aids was not a major focus in the grammars above

which were mainly concerned with describing the language only. The following outline highlights six textbooks on the Māori language from past to present (1960-2020). Harold Wills (1960) *Lessons in the Māori language: A new approach to learning Māori* can be considered as the first real textbook on te reo Māori that incorporated supplementary aids to facilitate and consolidate language learning. It provided English and Māori translation exercises, drills incorporated into the actual lesson, and activities at the end of the book. It was specifically designed to teach the Māori language to school students in classroom lessons and used terminology in ways that did not overcomplicate or overwhelm its grammar descriptions as seen in previous grammars on te reo. This simpler approach could be very useful for language learning and one that could be more suited to a pedagogic focus (i.e., to facilitate the learning of te reo for communication). Hoani Waititi (1964) *Te Rangatahi: Elementary 2* was the 2nd Edition in the Te Rangatahi series. It was an innovative work in many ways, for example, a) it was the first series that made use of different themes in narrative form to teach te reo, b) it used mainly stories and dialogue that facilitated learning and, c) it made use of pictures inserted into the story for visual effect. The themed stories were based on everyday rural and urban life that related to the cultural context of Aotearoa (e.g., farm work, going fishing etc.). Today, it has become common place for many modern textbooks on te reo to include some of these aids in their lesson content. The activities, exercises, and/ or translation tasks in Te Rangatahi were given at the end of each lesson and were based on select aspects of te reo that featured in the story (e.g., sentence patterns, model sentences, question-answer forms, and vocabulary etc.) to reinforce language learning. The 2nd Edition (1964) of Te Rangatahi was a continuation of a goal stated in the 1st Edition (1962), that is, to fulfil a need to teach te reo on the same level that textbooks were designed to teach European-based languages like Latin, Greek, French, and German (See, Waititi, 1962, p. 2). The teachers of those languages were very often equipped with carefully prepared materials/ textbooks written by experts in the field that reflected

advancements in newer techniques in language teaching. However, this was not the case for Māori language teachers who had to rely on materials from the previous century. After some deliberation, the Te Rangatahi series was published to redress this issue. The series was designed in the light of advances in methods of teaching, such as the audio-lingual teaching and testing methods, it focused on the development of te reo for education purposes rather than merely L2 acquisition (Waititi, 1964, see *Preface*). To some degree, the series' approach reflected the Grammar Translation Method of the late 1800s (e.g., vocabulary was taught in lists of isolated words or reading of difficult text began early etc.). William Leonard Williams (1965) *First lessons in Māori* accumulated in thirteen editions that included a Māori-English list of vocabulary, enlarged vocabularies including gain words, some changes in grammatical terminology, particularly Māori verbs based on forms used in English textbooks and the addition of macrons to indicate long vowel sounds. It also included a section on 'progressive exercises' and a 'key to exercises', the progressive exercises encouraged students to study the first five chapters of the textbook which included translation tasks from Māori into English and vice versa, upon completion students could check their answers with the key to exercises at the end of the book. It included an index of grammatical subjects for quick reference to parts of speech in the body of text. Biggs (1973) *Let's learn Māori* provided one of the most influential textbooks on te reo during the 1970s. Biggs pioneered the study on the internal structure of the Māori phrase that seems to have evolved out of his paper called the Structure of New Zealand Māori published in 1961. The latter described te reo using an alpha-numeric system, whereas the textbook was more descriptive and provided a useful basis for a discussion on Māori phraseology embedded within syntactic structures. Nevertheless, the descriptions of te reo (e.g., the articles, i/ ki particles, verb types, and ā-ō categories etc.) in the textbook made use of linguistic terminology and explanations that showed how they worked in the language. Although the descriptions in Biggs' textbook focused on grammatical rules related to parts of

speech, there was no provision of supplementary aids, such as exercises, activities, or tests in the actual textbook like its counterparts. The provision of these resources was provided as external aids that accompanied the book in the form of audio recordings which contained all the sentences in the book. The recordings were made available to students to provide an oral-aural tutor matched to a written exposition and used together they should enable the student to reach a reasonable standard in the four productive and receptive language skills (i.e., speaking, writing, and listening, reading). The use of technology in this way was an insightful approach to language learning at that time. Moorfield (2001a) *Te Kākano* (the first textbook in the Te Whanake series) provides the most popular and comprehensive resource for the teaching and learning of te reo to date. Moorfield created it as a resource for himself while he was teaching at the University of Waikato. The series sometimes might be thought of as grammar books probably because it was the only one dealing with te reo that made use of structure linguistics, nevertheless it relied wholly on it rather than adapting it appropriately to the pedagogical context (Johnson, 2009b).¹⁰ *Te Kākano* provides lessons, dialogues, exercises, tests, visual aids, and vocabulary lists including external online resources, such as voice recordings, animations, simple online tests, digital books, podcasts, and the Māori dictionary. These resources aim to give students reasonable practice in te reo and to consolidate language learning as they progress towards higher levels of complexity through each chapter. The grammar rules in *Te Kākano* were illustrated with examples and the more difficult ones were introduced gradually over several chapters to ensure that learners mastered them. To achieve this feat would involve a consideration to careful planning at the early stages of syllabus/ lesson design (e.g., the lesson content should be considered for its degree of simplicity or difficulty to be learned by the students). Although Moorfield indicated that *Te Whanake* discussed a pedagogic grammar of the Māori language, the explanations and descriptions contained therein may differ in some

¹⁰ Johnson, D. (2009b). [A comment on Moorfield's textbook series].

fundamental ways from a pedagogic grammar of the English language such as, for example, arranging points of language usage presented in alphabetical order. It might, therefore, be helpful to briefly outline what a pedagogic grammar might entail. Westney (1994) described it as “the formulation of rules in the broadest sense of statements of language regularities that should be: concrete, simple, non-technical, cumulative, and follow the rule of thumb” “to precisely define form-meaning relations and be within the learners’ current understanding (p. 72). When Moorfield was designing his textbooks for te reo Māori in the 1980s, several researchers were exploring usage-focused and meaning-based descriptions of the English language during the same decade (See, for example, Leech, Cruickshank, & Ivanic, 1989). Finally, Morrison (2020) *Māori Made Easy* completes the selection with a more contemporary textbook which aims to accelerate the acquisition and learning of the Māori language by utilizing 30 minute per day to self-study at home and to attain an intermediate standard of Māori language expertise. The textbook provides a range of learning aids to facilitate the attainment of te reo including exercises, activities, translation tasks, games, tests, and answer keys at the end of the book. To aid autonomous learning, the student can log into a website (www.MaoriMadeEasy.co.nz) to participate in oral and audio activities, explanations and exercises to assist and reinforce their knowledge about the new sentence patterns and vocabulary learned in each lesson. However, no number of textbooks can compensate for language learning more than practice with native speakers. The latter principle was a major strategy practiced by Morrison (i.e., Conversing with friends who were native speakers) in addition to a more formal textbook-based learning style while he was studying at university. These experiences seem to have shaped Morrison’s philosophy in learning te reo, for example, me aronui = focus, me kimi kaupapa rumaki = look for an immersion learning programme, me aro ki te takoto o te kupu = focus more on grammar (Morrison, 2020, see *Introduction*). The textbook focuses on teaching parts of speech couched in grammar rules and aspects of linguistic

descriptions (e.g., nouns, verbs, prepositions etc.). Interestingly, the language items to be learned are arranged in the content page using a hybrid of linguistic based and semantic based descriptions, for example, a) personal pronouns, possessive prepositions, locatives and b) talking about where you are from, talking about your whānau, asking and saying who will do something etc. This hybrid use of listing lesson content first featured in Moorfield's Te Whanake Series in the 1980s and is seen today in many contemporary grammars and textbooks on te reo. Morrison's textbook informs students that learning te reo is achievable no matter your knowledge level; by connecting the dots (i.e., perhaps making connections across lesson content); and autonomous and self-directed learning (See, for more details on these textbooks above, Chapter 4, Section 4.4).

2.5 Summary of the key findings

Although linguistic structuralism has played an important role in language description since the 1900s, the types of theories and models that have waxed and waned over time, in many ways, seemed to have been limited to an analysis and explanation of language at the sentence level. It is suggested here that this description could also significantly benefit from a semantic analysis and explanation of language beyond that level that is more meaning based and communicatively oriented. As seen above, several theories in grammar (See, Section 2.2) have developed alongside different studies in language description (See, Section 2.3) to become theories in semantic theorizing that are now considered to be a focus on form, meaning, and context with consideration to the social and cultural aspects of second/ additional language teaching and learning. The works of the Council of Europe provided the larger part of the historical context in which these developments occurred or were influenced by other studies in some way or another, such as the notion of language and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. The types of theories generated by speech acts focused on how to do things with language or the function of language (e.g., an order, a suggestion, an instruction

etc.) rather than just declaring or stating things about language (e.g., ordering, suggesting, instructing etc.). The *context* also plays an important role in determining the intended meaning of each speech act but this may be somewhat difficult to do as different people may interpret them in different ways and considering there are over 1,000 speech acts in the English language. However, there is no research in te reo Māori in this same area. The most important aspect of speech act theory was an emphasis on Illocutionary force (i.e., an utterance or a sentence that performs a function, or an act, that is, the way that words are used to do things). Both Austin and Searle further categorized this force to discriminate between certain functions (e.g., Behabitives: referring to attitudes and social behaviour, such as to apologize, to congratulate, to commend etc.). Elsewhere, the theory of communicative competence emphasized whether an utterance was formally possible, feasible, or acceptable in a particular social context and proposed a list of four areas that a person might experience during the acquisition and use of the target language including grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. The theory of communicative language teaching signaled a significant shift in curriculum and pedagogic approaches with an aim to achieve the use of language for communication, it was a reaction against grammar-based approaches and to re-examine language teaching goals, syllabus, and resource materials designed for the teaching of language. Other theories in language description included a) an analysis of textual relations encoded in Philippine sentence structures by Longacre in 1968, such as reason, result, conditionals, means, or purpose expressed *between* and *within* clauses and sentence structures and, b) a study by Fillmore in 1967 on case role markings that advocated that there are many semantically relevant syntactic relationships involving nouns and the structures that contain them and that they are in large part clandestine but are nevertheless empirically discoverable. The latter two studies were re-examined in the context of inter-propositional and intra-propositional relationships in a study by Crombie (1985b). The

former concentrating on semantic relationships that hold between propositions (e.g., means-result) and the latter within propositions (e.g., agent, patient, and predicate associations). The types of theories in grammar descriptions (i.e., from linguistics to semantics) outlined in this chapter have contributed to an understanding of why and how the Māori language can work in certain ways at different phonological, morphological, and syntactic levels. On the other hand, the types of theories in language descriptions (i.e., from the CoE to propositional theory) also has informed our understanding of the possibilities of describing te reo that can significantly benefit from a more semantically oriented description beyond the sentence or syntactic level. I think this body of research and the ideas it presents can be useful for Māori language teachers in a number of ways: 1) it may enhance their existing knowledge-base and skills-set in descriptive theory that may inform best approaches in their own teaching practices, 2) it may inform the design and development of best resources for use in the classroom lesson and, 3) the realization and execution of 1 and 2 could be beneficial for students in ways that facilitate the development of their communicative competence as they strive to become confident users of te reo Māori in various social contexts. The latter being the main educational goal during a course of study. Finally, the types of decisions that Māori language teachers are likely to make would be made in principled ways, such as making choices at their own discretion, deciding on what may or may not work for them, and/ or considering their own personal educational goals and aspirations.

Chapter 3: A selection of fourteen grammar books on the Māori language

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will provide a background on the Māori language (3.2), a brief outline of fourteen grammar books on the Māori language (3.3), a list of Māori language grammars in history: Timeline 2 (3.4), and a summary of the key findings (3.5).

3.2 Background on the Māori language

The following sections will provide an outline of the settlement of the Pacific Region (3.2.1) and some information about the origins of Polynesian languages (3.2.2).

3.2.1 Settlement of the Pacific region

Current hypotheses used to determine settlement dates of the Pacific region indicate that expansion into this area occurred around 5000 to 6000 BP¹¹, extending as far as Hawaii at the Northernmost point to (Easter Island) at the Easternmost extremity and to Aotearoa, New Zealand at the Southernmost border (Greenhill & Gray, 2005, p. 32). Today, this area is known as the Polynesian triangle as shown in Figure 3.1 below.¹² It encompasses island groups that were already inhabited by descendants of earlier deep-sea navigators long before the arrival of Europeans (Hiroa, 1945, pp. 5, 10).

¹¹ BP or Before Present years is a scientific model used to determine when events occurred in the past before 1 January 1950, this being the standard time marker because radiocarbon dating was implemented during this year. (See, for example, Flint & Deevey, 1962, Preface and Editorial Statement).

¹² The term Polynesia (from the Greek, Poly = many and Nēsos = Island) was first coined by Charles de Brosses, a 18th century French writer, to describe the many Island groups in the Pacific region in his book *History of Navigation* (See, for example, Russell, 1852, p. 22).

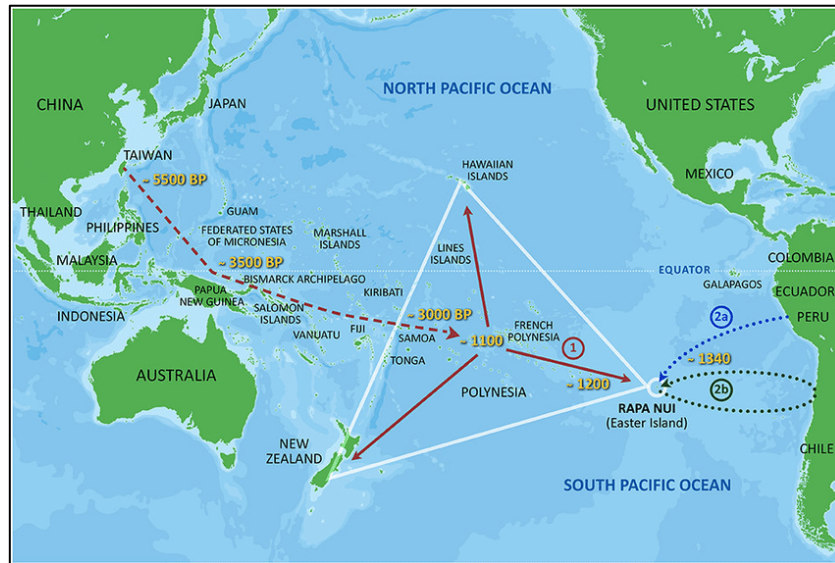


Figure 3.1: Polynesian Triangle (ResearchGate, 2016).¹³

Many of these island groups were partly formed by volcanic activity through forces that pushed basaltic masses high above sea level producing mountains, valleys, rivers, and fertile alluvial landscapes (p. 6). The wiggle-match¹⁴ dating of a celery pine tree (*Tānekaha*)¹⁵ destroyed in the Kaharoa¹⁶ eruption around 1314±12 A.D marks a key event for recording deforestation accompanying human settlement in Aotearoa. The application of this method coinciding with archaeological discoveries indicated initial settlement of Aotearoa between 1250 and 1300 A.D. (Hogg, Higham, Lowe, Palmer, Reimer, & Newnham, 2003, pp. 118, 122). These dates make Aotearoa the world's last major land mass to be inhabited by people, therefore, it is possible to map strong linguistic patterns that show the origins of Polynesian languages throughout the Pacific region (See, for example, Bennett, Hampton, & Hikuroa, 2016; & Matisoo-Smith, 2014).

¹³ Source for Figure 3.1 (See, https://www.researchgate.net/figure/A-very-schematic-illustration-of-the-colonization-of-the-Polynesian-triangle-of-islands_fig1_309164763).

¹⁴ Wiggle-match dating is a scientific method that combines radiocarbon dating with chronological information from tree-rings to determine when events had occurred in the past. (See, <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/15564894.2017.1383323>).

¹⁵ A celery pine tree or *Tānekaha* is an indigenous medium-sized tree found in the North and South Islands of Aotearoa (See, <https://teara.govt.nz/en/conifers/page-7>).

¹⁶ The Kaharoa eruption of the Tarawera volcanic complex occurred from seven vents along an eight-kilometer zone and lasted for 4-5 years making it the largest eruption in the last 1,000 years. It threw volcanic ash known as Kaharoa tephra to the furthest part of the North Island of New Zealand and that ash is still present in many of these areas today (See, <http://www.volcanolive.com/okataina.html>).

3.2.2 Origins of Polynesian languages

The following sections will include a statement about the origins of Polynesian languages (3.2.2.1), an outline of the current status of the Māori language (3.2.2.2), and a list of Māori language events in history: Timeline 1 (3.2.2.3).

3.2.2.1 Statement about the origins of Polynesian languages

It is estimated that about 1,200 Polynesian languages belong to the Austronesian language family making it the largest and most widely distributed in the world extending from Madagascar in the West to Rapanui (Easter Island) in the East (Tyron, 1995, p. 19). The languages are classified into 10 subfamilies, nine of which are spoken only by indigenous Taiwanese (called the Formosans) and the tenth, the Malayo-Polynesian subgroupings are spoken throughout the wider Pacific region (Greenhill & Gray, 2005, p. 37). Lewis, Simons, & Fennig (2016) says, the tenth subgrouping includes: Malayo-Polynesian, Central Eastern Malayo-Polynesian, Eastern Malayo-Polynesian, Oceanic, Central Pacific and Tahitic languages including te reo Māori as shown in Figure 3.2 below.

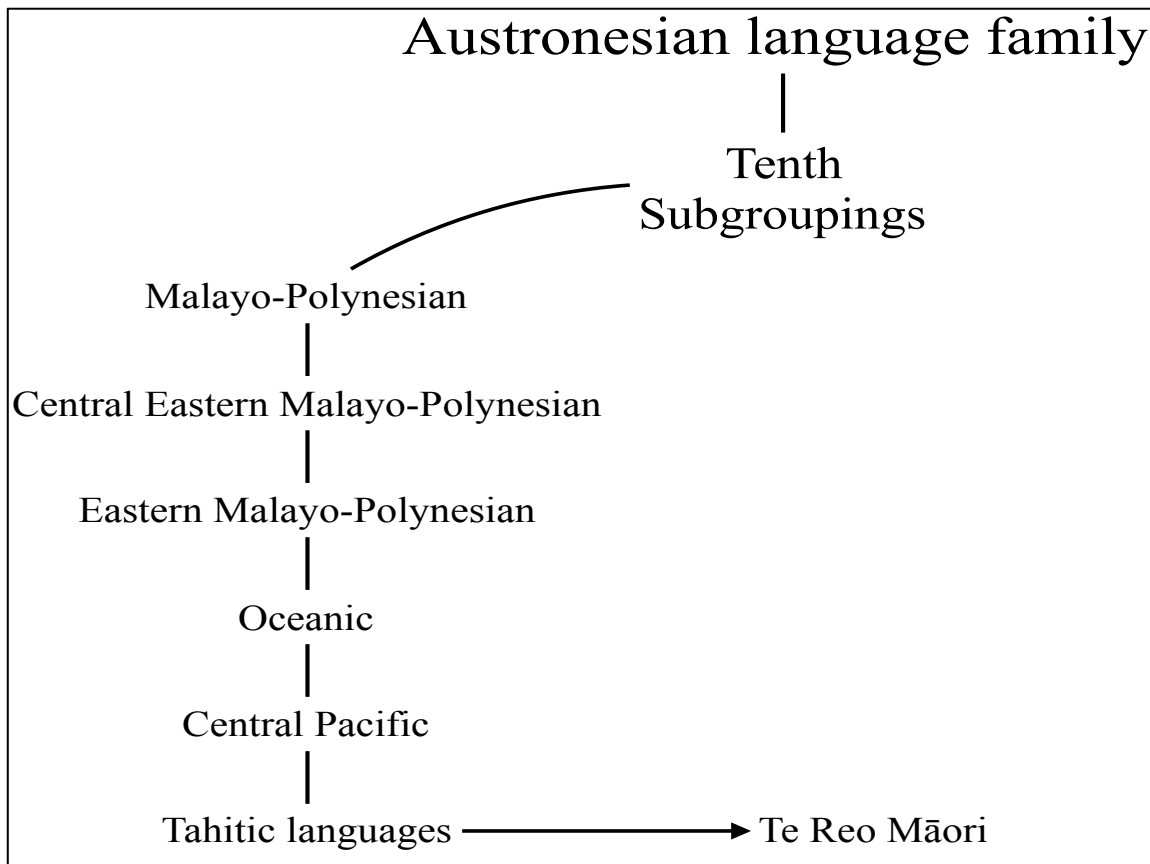


Figure 3.2: Tenth subgroupings of Polynesian languages (Greenhill & Gray, 2005)¹⁷

3.2.2.2 Current status of the Māori language

Around the late 1700s, the Māori population of Aotearoa was suggested to be around 100,000 and was likely the most realistic total but there was a decline from about the mid 1800s due to high mortality rates, disease, and war (Pool & Kukutai, 2011, pp. 1-2). By the turn of the twentieth century, the population had dropped to less than 50,000 (Statistics New Zealand, 2015). The impact on Māori was swift and absolute causing major disruptions in the historical narratives and traditional ways of living, dispossessing Māori from both culture and language for ensuing generations to come. By 2015, a rise in high birth rates among Māori would see a significant increase in the population that was estimated to be about 712,000 (Statistics New

¹⁷ This figure was created by the author of this thesis using data from the author-date reference in the parentheses. The figure does not appear in the actual source referenced.

Zealand, 2015).¹⁸ Around the 1840s, Benton (1991) says, the Māori people were extremely literate in te reo, however, by the late 1960s, te reo had ceased to be the primary language of socialization and its status quickly became a “household language” in hundreds of Māori communities the number of fluent speakers of te reo were greater in the 1970s (despite showing a decline by this time) and the 1980s than in the 1890s (p. 24).¹⁹ Notwithstanding attempts to improve the status and use of te reo, there have been periods of decline and revival during its tumultuous and very often controversial history. Nevertheless, te reo has proven to be remarkably resilient for its perseverance and survival. Based on the 2006 New Zealand Census, it was reported that a total of 131,613 Māori could hold a conversation on a range of subjects in the Māori language. This showed a small increase of 1,128 people reported in the 2001 New Zealand Census (Statistics New Zealand, 2007, p. 5). In contrast, Te Kupenga (2013, p. 10) indicated that 164,500 Māori adults could speak some te reo Māori in the home showing an increase of 32,887 from the 2006 New Zealand Census.²⁰ The following classifications 1 to 3 below (i.e., living language, vulnerable, and threatened) are often used to describe the status of languages as determined by different organizations involved in language studies.

¹⁸ The figure 712,000 is based on the 2013 New Zealand Census that is held every five years. However, the census was scheduled to take place in 2011 from the last one conducted in 2006 but it was cancelled and deferred to 2013 following the Canterbury earthquake of 2011. This created a seven-year gap and may reflect data that is greater than in the usual five-year period between censuses. The Māori population is counted in two ways during census year: ethnicity-based (referring to cultural affiliation) and descent-based (through ancestral lineage).

¹⁹ Benton’s study was based on the interviews of 6,470 Māori families throughout the North Island of New Zealand providing information about their knowledge, use, attitudes, and experiences related to te reo. A pioneering work, it resulted in the New Zealand Council for Educational Research’s ‘Sociolinguistic Survey of Māori Language use.’ (See, <http://www.nzcer.org.nz/news/te-wiki-tuawha-richard-benton-s-maori-language-dying-reviving>).

²⁰ Te Kupenga was developed by Statistics NZ under the support of Te Puni Kōkiri and the Ministry of Māori Development to provide insight into Māori well-being. The data is critical for Māori communities, government, and other interested parties in Māori outcomes and is used to monitor existing policies and programmes for Māori with the intent of developing new initiatives. (See, <https://www.stats.govt.nz/tereoreports/differences-between-te-kupenga-2013-and-2018-surveys>).

1. **Living language**, that is, a language that has at least one speaker for whom it is their first or native language (Lewis, Simons, & Fennig, 2016).
2. **Vulnerable**, that is, most children speak the language but it may be restricted to certain domains, such as in the home (Moseley, 2010).
3. **Threatened**, that is, the language is used for face-to-face communication within all generations but it is losing users (Lewis, Simons, & Fennig, 2016).

Furthermore, te reo has been classified as: Vulnerable by UNESCO (Moseley, 2010); Threatened by Ethnologue (Lewis et al, 2016), or as Bauer (2008, pp. 33-34) says, “it was losing ground rather than gaining it” (See, for more classifications of te reo, Appendix 3.1 and 3.2). However, the differing classifications of te reo Māori sometimes may show conflicting, or inconsistent results.

3.2.2.3 Māori language events in history: Timeline 1

The following timeline provides a list of important Māori language events in history from pre-1840 to 2015. This list was compiled by Te Taura Whiri i te Reo Māori in 2019 as shown in Table 3.1 below.²¹

²¹ Te Taura Whiri i te Reo Māori (The Māori Language Commission) was established in 1987 to promote the use of te reo for communication purposes. It is responsible to the New Zealand Parliament for the use of public funds to support its objectives (See, <http://www.tetaurawhiri.govt.nz/about-us/what-is-the-maori-language-commission/>).

Table 3.1: Māori language events in history: Timeline 1

Dates	Key Events
Pre-1840	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Māori is the predominant language of New Zealand. It is used extensively in social, religious, commercial, and political interactions among Māori, and between Māori and Pākehā. Education provided by missionaries is conveyed in Māori.
1840	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Signing of the Treaty of Waitangi. Māori is the predominant language of Aotearoa (New Zealand).
1850s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pākehā population surpasses the Māori population. Māori becomes a minority language in New Zealand.
1858	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> First official census to collect data about Māori records a population of 56,049 Māori.
1867	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Native Schools Act decrees that English should be the only language used in the education of Māori children. The policy is later rigorously enforced.
1870s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Following the New Zealand wars, society divides into two distinct zones, the Māori zone and the Pākehā zone. Māori is the predominant language of the Māori zone.
1920s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sir Āpirana Ngata begins lecturing Māori communities about the need to promote Māori language use in homes and communities. He also promoted English language education for Māori in schools.
1930s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Māori remains the predominant language in Māori homes and communities. The use of English begins to increase. There is continued support for English only education by some Māori leaders.
1940s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Māori urban migration begins.

1950s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Māori urban migration continues. Māori families are 'pepper-potted' in predominantly non-Māori suburbs preventing the reproduction of Māori community and speech patterns. Māori families choose to speak English, and Māori children are raised as English speakers.
1960s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Playcentre supporters encourage Māori parents to speak English in order to prepare Māori children for primary school.
1961	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Hunn Report describes the Māori language as a relic of ancient Māori life.
Early 1970s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Concerns for the Māori language are expressed by Māori urban groups including Ngā Tamatoa and Te Reo Māori Society.
1972	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Māori Language Petition signed by 30,000 signatories sent to Parliament.²²
1973–78	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NZCER national survey shows that only about 70,000 Māori or 18–20 percent of Māori were fluent speakers and most of them were elderly.
1975	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ngāti Raukawa, Ngāti Toa and Te Āti Awa initiate Whakatipuranga Rua Mano, a tribal development exercise which emphasized Māori language development.
1978	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rūātoki School becomes the first bilingual school in Aotearoa.
1979–80	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Te Ātaarangi movement established in an attempt to restore Māori language knowledge to Māori adults.
1982	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The first Te Kōhanga Reo is established and opened in Wainuiomata, Pōneke in an attempt to instil Māori language knowledge in Māori infants.
1980s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experiments in Māori radio broadcasting led to the establishment of Te Upoko o te Ika and Radio Ngāti Porou.

²² For details on the petition (See, http://www.archives.govt.nz/exhibitions/pastexhibitions/tereo/1970_eng.php).

1985	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First Kura Kaupapa Māori established to cater for the needs of Māori children graduating from Te Kōhanga Reo. • Te Reo Māori claim WAI 11 brought before the Waitangi Tribunal by Ngā Kaiwhakapūmau i te Reo Māori. The number of Māori speakers is estimated to have fallen to about 50,000 or 12 percent of the Māori population.
1986	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Te Reo Māori Report released by the Waitangi Tribunal recommending that legislation to be introduced to enable Māori language to be used in courts of law and that a supervising body be established by statute to supervise and foster the use of the Māori language.²³
1987	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Māori Language Act passed in parliament. Māori declared to be an official language of Aotearoa, Te Taura Whiri i te Reo Māori and the Te Kōhanga Reo National Trust are also established.
1989	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education Amendment Act provides formal recognition for Kura Kaupapa Māori and wānanga (Māori tertiary institutions). Government reserves radio and television broadcasting frequencies for use by Māori.
1991	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flora and Fauna Claim Wai 262 brought before the Waitangi Tribunal. The claim is about the place of Māori culture, identity, and traditional knowledge in New Zealand's laws, and in government policies and practices. It concerns who controls traditional Māori knowledge who controls artistic and cultural works such as haka and waiata, and who controls flora and fauna and the environment that created the Māori culture.
1993	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Māori broadcasting funding agency Te Māngai Pāho established to promote Māori language and culture. More than twenty iwi radio stations broadcast throughout the country.

²³ For details on the Te reo Māori report (See, <http://www.waitangi-tribunal.govt.nz/reports/generic/>).

1995	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He Taonga Te Reo (Māori language year) celebrated. Hui Taumata Reo Māori held in Wellington. A national Māori language survey shows that the number of Māori adults who are very fluent speakers of Māori has fallen to about 10,000.
1997	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A total of 675 Kōhanga Reo and 30 developing Kōhanga Reo cater to 13,505 children. There are 54 Kura Kaupapa Māori and three Whare Wānanga. Over 32,000 students receive Māori-medium education and another 55,399 learn the Māori language.
1998	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government announces funding for a Māori television channel and increased funding for Te Māngai Pāho. Government also announces that it has set aside a \$15M fund for Community Māori Language initiatives.
2001	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government announces its support and a management structure for the Māori Television channel. Government also announces that it will soon begin allocating the \$15M fund. • Health of the Māori Language Survey 2001 shows there are approximately 136,700 speakers of te reo.
2002	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mā te Reo Fund established to support Māori language growth in communities.
2003	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Government Māori Language Strategy is revised and launched. • Māori Television Service Act is passed in Parliament.
2004	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Māori Television Service begins broadcasting 28 March of this year. First Māori Language Week awards held in Wellington.
2008	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Māori Television Service launches Te Reo channel.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He Pātaka Kupu monolingual Māori-language dictionary published by Te Taura Whiri i te Reo Māori.
2011	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flora and Fauna claim Wai 262 report by the Waitangi Tribunal finally published 20 years after the claim was filed. Chapter 5 of Te Reo calls for the Māori Language Commission to be given increased powers and become the lead Māori language sector agency. • Te Reo Mauriora report on the Māori Language Strategy is published, recommending the appointment of a minister for Māori language, and the establishment of Te Mātāwai to provide direction on all matters pertaining to the Māori language. It says, re-establishing te reo in homes is the key requirement for Māori language revitalization. It recommends that the future implementation of the revitalization strategy be led by iwi. • Kōhanga Reo claim Wai 2336 by Kōhanga Reo National Trust claims that the Crown assimilated the Kōhanga Reo movement into its early childhood education regime under the Ministry of Education, and subsequently stifled its role in revitalizing and promoting the Māori language.
2013	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rohe Potae Inquiry. Waitangi Tribunal judge rules legal counsel for Ngāti Pehi Te Kanawa cannot cross-examine English speakers in te reo Māori citing time and resource constraints. • Statistics New Zealand carries out first survey of Māori well-being, called Te Kupenga. Information is collected on a wide range of topics to give an overall picture of the social, cultural, and economic well-being of Māori, including the well-being of te reo Māori.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vote Māori Affairs provides \$8M over four years for a new Māori language research and development fund.
2014	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High Court upholds Waitangi Tribunal direction disallowing legal counsel to cross-examine English speakers in te reo Māori. • Te Taura Whiri i te Reo Māori states, ‘The High Court decision is a big loss for te reo Māori. The decision sets a precedent that may lead to the erosion of the place of te reo Māori in our legal system. • Māori Language (Te Reo Māori) Bill introduced into Parliament to implement recommendations in the 2011 Te Reo Mauriora report. • He Puna Whakarauora Centre for Research and Development of te reo Māori established under Te Taura Whiri i te Reo Māori.
2015	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Māori Language Advisory Group is established to provide independent and expert advice on the Māori Language (Te Reo Māori Bill).

Note, multiple bullet points in a single year refers to events that occurred in that same year.

3.3 A brief outline of fourteen grammar books on the Māori language

The following sections will begin with a statement about descriptive works on te reo (3.3.1). This will be followed by some comments on each of the fourteen Māori grammar books (Note, in the case of Cook’s simple list of words and Banks’ comparative list of the Māori and Tahitian languages, they are observations rather than grammar books proper). The chapter will begin with James Cook (3.3.2), Joseph Banks (3.3.3), Thomas Kendall (3.3.4), Lee and Kendall (3.3.5), Robert Maunsell (3.3.6), Henry Kemp (3.3.7), Charles Davis (3.3.8), William L Williams (3.3.9), Suzanne Aubert (3.3.10), Henry Stowell (3.3.11), Bruce Biggs (3.3.12), Pat Hōhepa (3.3.13), Sandra Chung (3.3.14), Tāmāti Reedy (3.3.15), Winifred Bauer (3.3.16), and Ray Harlow (3.3.17).

3.3.1 Statement about descriptive works on te reo

The first accounts of documenting te reo can be found in Cook's small list of Māori vocabulary he wrote in 1769 and some observations written about te reo as recorded by Banks in 1770. These small acts could be considered as a defining point in taking te reo from an oral language to a written one. This eventually led to subsequent descriptions of te reo during the 1800s. By the early 1900s, Stowell (1913) says, "there were at least several handbooks dedicated to a scientific study of te reo in terms of grammar and vocabulary" (p. iii). Over the next three centuries (i.e., from 1800 to 2000), there would be a steady but very slow growth of grammar books on Māori that would become more sophisticated and complex in both descriptions and explanations. Below, I will provide some comments on fourteen select Māori grammar books (i.e., from Kendall, 1815 to Harlow, 2001). It might be useful to begin with a short definition of the term *grammar* and what this might entail. Richards & Schmidt (2002) says, "the essential notion of grammar may be defined as a description of the structure of a language that investigates, for example, how words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language and considers the meanings and functions that these sentences have in the overall system of communication, it may or may not include phonology, morphology, and/ or semantics" (pp. 230-231). With the emergence of phrase books on Māori that appeared around the mid-1800s (See, for example, Aubert, 1885; Davis, 1857; & Kemp, 1848), the intended purpose seems to have differed, in some fundamental ways, from grammar books on Māori (e.g., to facilitate communication for trade and not necessarily for language learning). I also provide a simple definition of what a phrase book might entail below (See, Section 3.3.7).

3.3.2 James Cook (1769)

When Captain Cook first made contact with Māori (i.e., the indigenous people of Aotearoa), he was surprised that Tupaia, a Tahitian navigator, on board the Endeavour ship could converse

freely and fluently with them (Biggs, 1961, p. 3; & Cook, 1769)²⁴ While anchored off the North Island of Aotearoa, New Zealand, Cook and Tupaia compiled the first earliest known list of Māori vocabulary taking te reo from an oral language to a written one.²⁵ It was a small and simple list of nouns and proper nouns as shown in Table 3.2 below.²⁶

Table 3.2: Cook’s simple list of Māori vocabulary

Word Class	Cook’s Words	Modern Māori	English Equivalent
Nouns	pattoo	patu	A short, hand-held club
	hippas	he pā	A fortified village
	wannuaes	whenua	Land
Proper nouns	tovy-poenammu	Te Wai Pounamu	South Island of New Zealand
	aeheino mouwe	Te Ika a Māui	North Island of New Zealand
	motu-ouru	unknown	Area in the South Island
	olhemaroa	unknown	A distant land to the North
	hamote	unknown	Name of an isle in the South
	koamaroo	unknown	Land by Queen Charlottes Sound

3.3.3 Joseph Banks (1770)

Joseph Banks (1770), Cook’s botanist, also on board the Endeavor recorded that “the almost identical sameness of language between these people and those of the Islands in the South Sea leaves little doubt that they came originaly [sic] from the same source” (p. 37). A similarity

²⁴ According to one Māori tradition, the ocean navigator Kupe gave the name Aotearoa when sighting land in the distance after travelling at sea (McLintock, 1966). Aotearoa (the original name) is translated as the Land of the Long White Cloud and it is often used as a reference for New Zealand but does not mean New Zealand.

²⁵ This first encounter took place at Poverty Bay in the North Island of New Zealand (Hiroa, 1945, p. 24).

²⁶ The words in Cook’s list are spread throughout his journal entries:

(See, <http://southseas.nla.gov.au/journals/cook/17691112.html>).

(See, <http://southseas.nla.gov.au/journals/cook/17700131.html>).

(See, <http://southseas.nla.gov.au/journals/cook/17700206.html>).

that might suggest this ‘same source’ can be seen in a list of Fijian, Tongan, and Māori cognates identified by Greenhill & Gray (2005, p. 40) as shown in Table 3.3 below.²⁷

Table 3.3: Cognates in Fijian, Tongan, and Māori

English	Fijian	Tongan	Māori
blood	dra	toto	toto
bone	sui-na	hui	iwi
eye	mata-na	mata	mata
fire	bukawaqa	ali	ahi
right	i matau	mata?u	matau
to choose	digi-a	fili	whiri
to drink	gunu-va, unu	inu	inu

Banks also compiled a “short specimen”, that is, a simple comparative list of Northern and Southern Māori, and Tahitian words, which he later described as “the same at least in fundamentals” (p. 35). The list was made up of 42 lexical items for nouns, verbs, body parts, negation, and numbers as shown in Table 3.4 below (Adapted from the original list).

Table 3.4: Banks’ comparative list of North and South Māori, and Tahitian words

Word Class	English Equivalents	Northern Māori	Southern Māori	Otahite (Tahitian)	Modern Māori
(14)	a chief	eareete	eareete	earee	he ariki
	a man	taata	taata	taata	tangata
	a woman	wahine	wahine	wahine	wahine
	fish	heica	heica	eyca	he ika
	a lobster	kooura	kooura	tooura	koura
	coccos	taro	taro	taro	taro

²⁷ Cognates are words in one language that are similar in form and meaning to a word in another language because both languages are related (Richards & Schmidt, 2002), for example, Fijian: unu = drink, Māori: inu = drink.

	sweet potatoes	cumala	cumala	cumala	kumara
	yamms	tuphwhe	tuphwhe	tuphwhe	uwahi
	birds	mannu	mannu	mannu	manu
	the wind	mehow	----	mattai	hau
	a thief	amootoo	----	teto	whānako
	bad	keno	keno	eno	kino
	trees	eratou	eratou	eraou	he rākau
	grandfather	toubouna	toubouna	toubouna	tupuna
Verbs (3)	come here	horomai	horomai	harromai	haere mai
	to examine	mataketake	----	mataitai	mātakitaki
	to sing	eheara	----	heiva	hiere
Body Parts (14)	the head	eupo	heaowpoho	eupo	he upoko
	the hair	macauwe	heoooo	roourou	makawe
	the ear	terringa	hetaheyeyi	terrea	taringa
	the forehead	erai	heai	erai	he rae
	the eyes	mata	hemata	mata	he mata
	the cheeks	paparinga	hepapaeh	paparea	he pāpāringa
	the nose	ahewh	heeih	ahew	he ihu
	the mouth	hangoutou	hegowai	outou	he ngutu
	the chin	ecouwai	hekaowwai	----	he kauae
	the arm	haringaringa	----	rema	ringaringa
	the finger	maticara	hemaigawh	maneow	he matikara
	the belly	ateraboo	----	oboo	kōpū
	the navel	apeto	hecapeeto	peto	

	the teeth	hennihu	heneaho	nihio	he
Negation (1)	no	kaoure	kaoure	oure	kāore
Numbers (10)	1	tahai	----	tahai	tahi
	2	rua	----	rua	rua
	3	torou	----	torou	toru
	4	ha	----	hea	whā
	5	rema	----	rema	rima
	6	ono	----	ono	ono
	7	etu	----	hetu	whetu
	8	warou	----	warou	waru
	9	iva	----	heva	iwa
	10	angahourou	----	ahourou	ngahuru

The following assumptions below also appeared in the footnotes of Banks' comparative list:

- Both Northern and Southern Māori made use of the particles 'he' or 'e' before words, which seems to equate to the indefinite article 'a' in the English, for example, (*fish: he ica, he ica, e yca*) and written as (*he ika, or a fish*);
- Banks often wrote the particles 'he' and 'e' as an inherent part of the word, which were otherwise "disguised" in the pronunciation and only understood after writing them down, for example, (*forehead: erai, heai, erai*) in written form revealed (*e rae, he rae*);
- The indefinite article 'he' was more characteristic of the Southern dialect than 'e';
- The definite article 'the' could be identified in words, such as (*yams: tephwe or te uhi*) or (*lobster: tooura or te oura*);

- The words for (*chief*: eareete, eareete, earee or *e ariki*, *e ariki*, *e arii*) and (trees: eratou, eraou or *e rākau*, *e rauu*) provided evidence of consonantal ambiguity;
- Banks seems to have grasped the ‘ng’ sound when he wrote down the words for (cheeks = *paparinga*) and (arms = *ringaringa*);
- The word ‘*oeia*’ signifying ‘yes’, ‘really’, or ‘certainly’ indicated an affirmative response to a question;
- The Northern Māori used more lexical items than the Southern Māori;
- Writing down words facilitated pronunciation (p. 370).²⁸

Banks’ assumptions above seem to be the very first (although simple) analysis of te reo Māori predating Kendall’s work in 1815.

3.3.4 Thomas Kendall (1815)

Thomas Kendall, a lay clergyman of the Church Missionary Society (CMS) of England and school master, attempted the first real description of te reo Māori soon after arriving in the Bay of Islands, New Zealand in 1814 (Binney, 1990, pp. 1-2).²⁹ Kendall’s book *A Korao no New Zealand, otherwise called the New Zealander’s First Book: An attempt to compose some lessons for the instructions of the natives* could be viewed as applying some very simple linguistic ideas to describe te reo for the first time at basic phonological, morphological, and syntactic levels (Kendall, 1815). Interestingly, the inside cover of Kendall’s book provided an extract attached to it giving a more detailed outline of its content as shown in Figure 3.3 below. The extract stated that Kendall wrote the book as a primer and vocabulary covering subjects like the English alphabet (pp. 1-3), numerals to 20 (pp. 4-7), syllables of two and three letters (pp. 7-21), vocabulary and short sentences (pp. 22-39), longer sentences in Māori and English

²⁸ (See, for the original list and assumptions, Banks, 1770, pp. 35-37).

²⁹ Thomas Kendall arrived on the brig *Active* in Rangihoua, Bay of Islands, New Zealand in 1814 (Binney, 1990, p. 1). Other notable members of the CMS who played critical roles in writing the earliest descriptions of te reo, included, Professor Samuel Lee, Robert Maunsell and members of the Williams family who were all linguists.

(pp. 40-51), vocabulary of Māori and English (pp. 52-54), and specimens of parts of speech in Māori and English. Kendall used the English alphabet, in a very general sense, to facilitate the pronunciation and the writing system of the Māori language, although it was a haphazard attempt in some areas (e.g., Da, Va, Fa). It also introduced the use of the acute accent symbol to mark accentuation on long sounding vowels as seen in words like ahéa = where p.8, hóyea = to row p. 16, or táppoo = sacred (Kendall, 1815, p. 13).

Extract from Hocken's Bibliography of
New Zealand Literature. p.36.

Kendall Thomas. A Korao no New Zealand; |
or, the | New Zealander's First Book; being | an
Attempt to compose some Lessons for the | In-
struction of the Natives | — | Sydney: |
Printed by G. Howe | — | 1815.

12mo. Pp. 54. Bound in strong brown paper.
The first book printed in Sydney specially
connected with New Zealand. Thomas
Kendall the missionary wrote it as a primer
and vocabulary. Pp. 1-3, alphabets - Roman,
English, and italics (Na letteree) - and numerals
to 20 (Na figuree); pp. 4-7 syllables of two and
three letters; pp. 7-21 vocabulary and short
sentences; pp. 22-39, longer sentences (Maori and
English); pp. 40-51, vocabulary (Maori and English)
pp. 52-54, specimens of parts of speech (Maori
and English).

The sentences in Nicholas's "Voyage" are the same
(p. 342 et seq.), but his list of words or vocabulary
is much more numerous. The only specimen
I know - probably the only one now extant - is
in the Auckland Museum.
It is referred to in the Missionary Register for 1817
at p 515.

Figure 3.3: Extract outlining the content of Kendall's book (Kendall, 1815)

As Kendall (1815, p. 4) was working out particular consonant and vowel sounds in the Māori language and their English equivalents, he sorted them alphabetically, for example, (D, F, H, K, M, N, P, R, T, V) and (A, E, I, O, U) perhaps influenced by the English language system. He also paired consonants with vowels and diphthongs to work out a pronunciation chart as shown in Figure 3.4 below.

(4)

a e i o u

1.

Da	De	Di	Do	Du
Fa	Fe	Fi	Fo	Fu
Ha	He	Hi	Ho	Hu
Ka	Ke	Ki	Ko	Ku
Ma	Me	Mi	Mo	Mu
Na	Ne	Ni	No	Nu
Pa	Pe	Pi	Po	Pu
Ra	Re	Ri	Ro	Ru
Ta	Te	Ti	To	Tu
Va	Ve	Vi	Vo	Vu

3.

Aa	Ae	Ai	Ao	Au
Ea	Ee	Ei	Eo	Eu
Ia	Ie	Ii	Io	Ui
Oa	Oe	Oi	Oo	Uo

Figure 3.4: Arranging te reo into consonant-vowels and diphthongs (Kendall, 1815)

In some places, Kendall's description showed the challenges and misunderstandings associated with describing a language for the first time (See, Chapter 2, Section 2.4.1) as seen in the following written Māori sentence and English translation - *Tamitee aquorree shoroe na dingha dingha a matta or tamaiti kaore i horoi ona ringaringa i tona mata. The little boy does not wash his hands and face* (p. 24). Other challenges seem to be the use and insertion of English words for religious names and concepts that otherwise might have been foreign to Māori epistemology, for example, Jehovah, God, Lord, or Jesus Christ in which these concepts were

not translated into Māori in the book but maintained their English spelling (pp. 32-33). Hocken (1901) says, “Kendall’s book remains the first major literary production in New Zealand” (p. 5). Binney (1990) says, “it pioneered the transcription of Māori for ensuing decades” (p. 4). As a school master, Kendall has been described as having had no formal qualifications in linguistics, however, his basic description of te reo provided the basis for a more extended work that would be carried out in later years by Professor Samuel Lee, a qualified linguist, at Cambridge University in 1820.

3.3.5 Samuel Lee & Thomas Kendall (1820)

In 1820, Kendall befriended two Far Northern chiefs Hongi Hika and Waikato from Ngāpuhi whom he took to England to work with Professor Samuel Lee on Kendall’s te reo description (Binney, 1990, p. 2).³⁰ This work was later published as *A Grammar and Vocabulary of the Language of New Zealand* (Lee & Kendall, 1820). It was the first widely published Māori language book and being well ahead of its time, it can be considered as the first Māori international research collaboration.³¹ Unfortunately, there seems to be very little historical records of this visit by Kendall, Hongi, and Waikato to England. In contrast to Kendall’s work of 1815, the Lee & Kendall grammar of 1820 presented a larger focus and coverage of describing the Māori language using aspects of linguistic descriptions that were commonly used to describe Indo-European languages as shown in Figure 3.5 below.

³⁰ Ngāpuhi is a Māori iwi situated in Te Tai Tokerau o Aotearoa (New Zealand) and centered in the Hokianga, Pēwhairangi, and Whangārei.

³¹ (See, <https://www.royalsociety.org.nz/150th-anniversary/tetakarangi/a-grammar-and-vocabulary-of-the-language-of-new-zealand-thomas-kendall-and-samuel-lee-1820/>)

CONTENTS.	
	PAGE
<i>Preface.</i>	
<i>The Alphabet</i>	1
<i>Syllabarium</i>	2
<i>The Parts of Speech</i>	8
<i>The Adjective</i>	15
<i>Degrees of Comparison</i>	16
<i>Numerals</i>	17
<i>Other forms of Numerals</i>	19
<i>Ordinals</i>	20
<i>Pronouns</i>	22
<i>Demonstrative Pronouns</i>	27
<i>Interrogative Pronouns</i>	28
<i>Verbs</i>	29
<i>Neuter Verbs</i>	35
<i>Passive Verbs</i>	49
<i>Causative Verbs</i>	50
<i>Adverbs</i>	53
<i>Prepositions</i>	55
<i>Conjunctions</i>	56
<i>Interjections</i>	57
<i>The Syntax</i>	58
<i>A Praxis</i>	61
<i>Phrases, Sentences, &c</i>	67
<i>Dialogues</i>	95
<i>Songs</i>	107
<i>Religious Dialogues</i>	114
<i>Prayers, the Creed, &c</i>	125
<i>Vocabulary</i>	131

Figure 3.5: Larger focus and coverage of describing te reo (Lee & Kendall, 1820)

With reference to Banks' comments, Kendall's revised work also seems to show some consonantal ambiguity (e.g., Bb, Dd) that only writing down words could facilitate correct pronunciation as the consonants B and D are not used in modern Māori as shown in Figure 3.6 below.

THE ALPHABET			
Vowels.	Sound.	Vowels.	Sound.
LONG		SHORT	
Á á	as in <i>father</i> .	A a	as in <i>pad</i> .
É é	as <i>a</i> in <i>bate</i> .	E e	as in <i>bet</i> .
Í í	as <i>ee</i> in <i>feet</i> .	I i	as in <i>fit</i> .
Ó ó	as <i>o</i> in <i>pole</i> .	O o	as <i>o</i> in <i>pole</i> , shortened.
Ú ú	as <i>oo</i> in <i>boot</i> .	U u	as <i>oo</i> in <i>good</i> .
Diphthongs.		Sound.	
ai as <i>i</i> , in <i>mine</i> , <i>thine</i> , &c.			
au as <i>ou</i> , in <i>house</i> , vulgarly in parts of Lincolnshire.			
ei as <i>ay</i> in <i>nay</i> , nearly.			
eu a compound of the sounds of <i>e</i> and <i>u</i> , unknown in English.			
oi as <i>oy</i> in <i>joy</i> .			
ou as <i>ou</i> in the true pronunciation of <i>house</i> .			
Consonants.	Names.	Remarks.	Consonants.
B b	ba		P p
D d	da		pa
			R r
			ra

Figure 3.6: Consonantal ambiguity (Lee & Kendall, 1820)

Lee and Kendall (1820) organized their description of te reo into vowels, diphthongs, and consonants based on Sanskrit grammars³² that were already in use at that time, it provided a phonological and writing system based on the English alphabet that discarded no less than 13 letters to the correct sounds of te reo, it was difficult to demonstrate every accentuation by English examples that only listening to native speakers could facilitate (p. iii). Hocken (1901) says, “for many years, the whole literature of New Zealand was solely represented by Lee’s & Kendall’s 1820 grammar (p. 5). This work would provide the basis for Māori language descriptions in the ensuing decades. I found it interesting that at the same time in 1820, *A New Guide to the English Tongue* written by an English cleric named Thomas Dilworth (1820) was

³² The Sanskrit grammars share many Proto Indo-European phonological characteristics including the vowels i (इ), u (उ), a (अ) which also distinguishes length in both long and short forms (Jamison, 2008, pp. 8-9).

similar in many ways to Lee & Kendall 1820 regarding alphabetical arrangements of consonants and vowels, lists of words, and parts of speech etc.

3.3.6 Robert Maunsell (1842)

Robert Maunsell, a student of Professor Lee, was the author of *A Grammar of the New Zealand Language* first published in 1842 (Maunsell, 1842, 1882). Notably, it seems to be the third Māori grammar to be written some 27 to 22 years after Kendall in 1815 and Lee and Kendall in 1820. A talented linguist, Maunsell always sought opportunity to discuss idioms with learned Māori and to record usages that were new to him (Nathan, 1990, pp. 2-3). Maunsell (1882) says, “when speaking te reo, the student must divest his mind of European rules of speech and adopt those of the Antipodes to study the examples in the grammar and to think of them and make them the models upon which to frame his sentences” (see *Preface*). However, to *divest* (i.e., to deprive, to dissociate) one’s mind of his/ her knowledge and skills in the L1 to learn the L2 might not be as simple as what is implied here. It seems to suggest that thinking in the L2 alone might lead to acquisition of that language but mentions very little of the complexities associated with this type of approach. Some difficulties might, to a certain extent, involve aspects of cross-linguistic interference in which the learner’s knowledge and skills in the L1 interferes with learning the L2 and this may be hard to disengage while developing the target language. Although this modern theory was unknown at Maunsell’s time, it may not be too unreasonable to suggest that some learners may have experienced certain forms of it while divesting their minds of their knowledge and skills in the L1 (e.g., speaking in the L2 while thinking in the L1).³³ In modern times, this phenomenon can present many difficulties for learners of te reo Māori (myself included). It is not clear what Maunsell meant by the term

³³ “Cross-linguistic interference is a widely researched phenomenon that investigates the role of the interfering effects of the L1 or native language speaker on the acquisition of the L2 or target language . . . it is a major source of errors among second language learners that suggestions of overcoming it could result in better language learning” (Harmer, 2001, p. 95).

antipodes with reference to language acquisition. Furthermore, considering that the introduction of Māori grammars would have been a relatively new phenomenon in the early 1800s, this may have made it difficult for some lay people in the populace at that time to “study the examples in the grammar” as suggested by Maunsell. Some difficulties may have included the accessibility of such resources for public use (considering that Maunsell’s grammar was the 3rd of its kinds since Lee’s and Kendall’s 1820 book). The second edition (Maunsell, 1882) described many Māori language features, for example, from articles to adverbs that still presents a challenge for many learners of te reo in contemporary times (and perhaps for people in Maunsell’s time) as shown in Figure 3.7 below.

Contents	
[covers]	
[title page]	
Preface	
Preface — To first edition	
Explanation of Abbreviations	
Table of Contents	p. XIII
+	
Chapter I. — of the — Pronunciation of Maori	
Chapter II. — Of the Article	p. 10
+	
Chapter III. — Of the Nouns	p. 16
Chapter IV. — Of the Adjective	p. 23
Chapter V. — Of the Numerals	p. 24
+	
Chapter VI. — Of the Pronouns	p. 27
Chapter VII. — Of the Verbs.*	p. 34
Chapter VIII. — Of the Prepositions	p. 55
+	
Chapter IX. — Of the Adverbs	p. 73

Figure 3.7: Content of te reo Māori descriptions (Maunsell, 1882)

Bauer (1981) says, Maunsell’s grammar described te reo using “classical arrangements and discussions on syntax and parts of speech that were characteristic of grammars used to describe

Indo-European languages he recognized that these characterizations were not always adequately suited to a description of te reo they provided, nevertheless many valuable insights into its structure and a wealth of data on the language at the time” (p. 12). Some examples of arrangements and discussions on Māori word classes are shown in Figures 3.8 and 3.9 below.

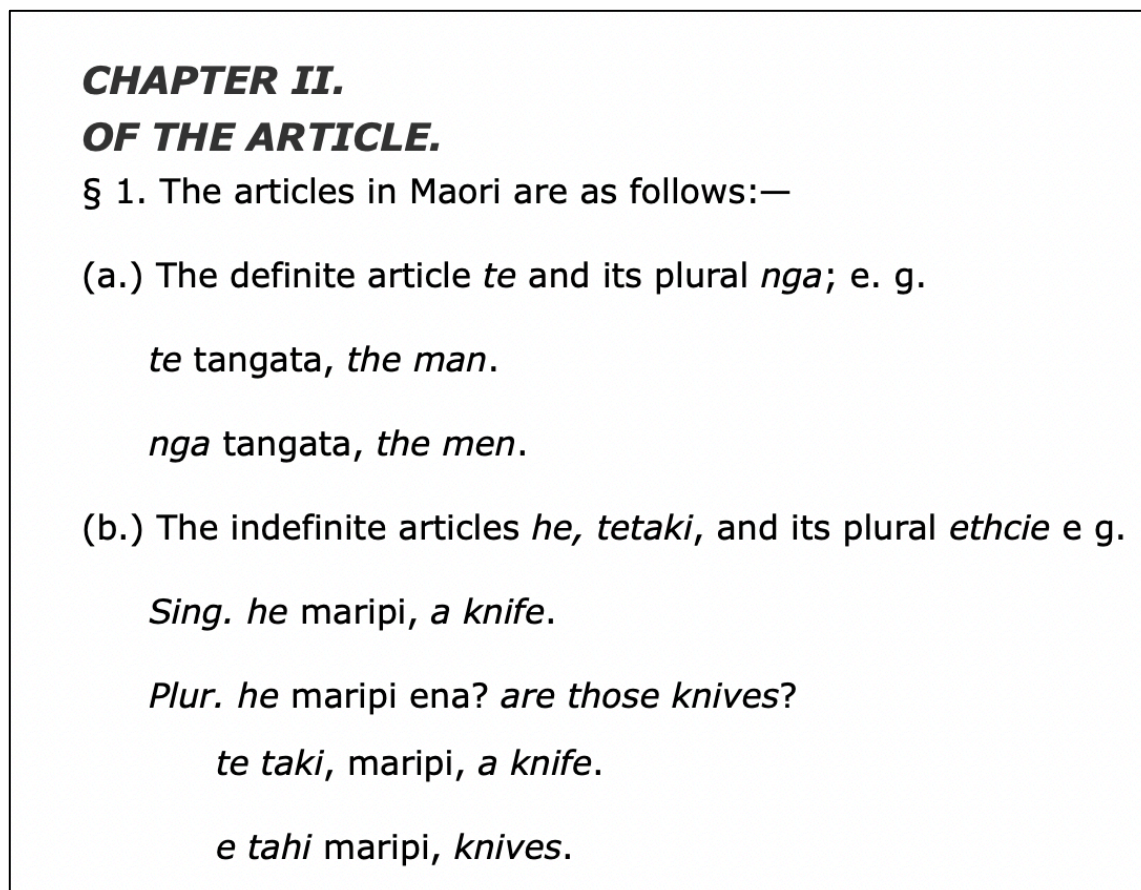


Figure 3.8: Descriptions of the Māori articles te, ngā, he (Maunsell, 1882)

NOTE 2.—Europeans who have not made the language a study, often very incorrectly substitute e for a before a proper name; e.g., they will say, *kei hea e te Warn*, where is *te Waru*, and again *kua*

* Some perhaps may object to our regarding a as an article, and may remind us of the definition that an article is “a word prefixed to substantives to point them out. and show how far their signification extends,” This however is to make rules precede investigation, and our reply is, that if Bishop Lowth, from whom this definition is derived, had been writing on the Greek article, he would, moat probably, have never given such a definition. Every scholar is aware of the disputes that have been agitated among the learned respecting the uses of this article, and that some have even maintained “that its use is guided by no rule at all.” The fact is, every language has its peculiarities, and it would be absurd to maintain that because any given part of speech has certain powers in one language, it must have the same in another.

We denominate this article *arthiltic*, because it is, as the Greeks would say, an *arthron a limb* of the word to which it is prefixed, though it in no way defines the extent of its signification; unless perhaps we consider that, by its denoting the word to be either a pronoun, a proper name, &c., it thus, in a certain measure, restricts its application, and thus accords with the definition which some writers would give of the article; vix., “an Index to the noun.”

Figure 3.9: Discussions on aspects of te reo Māori (Maunsell, 1882)

Maunsell (1882) further says, “the fact is, every language has its peculiarities, and it would be absurd to maintain that because any part of speech has certain powers in one language, it must have the same in another (p. 13).

3.3.7 Henry Kemp (1848)

Kemp (1848) in his book *The first step to Māori conversation: A grammar and phrase book of the New Zealand language* contained English and Māori phrases that seems to have served a slightly different purpose to a conventional Māori grammar book. One purpose appears to be for trading reasons, such as the purchasing of land as opposed to language learning for communicative use in daily social contexts. It might, therefore, be useful to provide a brief overview of the *phrase book* to distinguish it from a grammar book as defined in Section 3.3.1 above. The emergence of language manuals intended to facilitate successful communication appeared in multilingual and multicultural Europe. A number of early phrase books were

designed to help pilgrims to the Holy Land and covered languages, such as Greek and Hebrew (White, 2005, p. 54). An early example of this type of manuscript was written about 1424 by a certain George of Nuremberg in Venice (Glück, 2014, p. 53). By the 15th century, a number of manuscripts emerged containing thematic categories of German-Italian vocabulary lists and bilingual dialogues to facilitate Venetian brokers in the use of German and for purposes in trade (pp. 52-53). By the early 1800s, a total of over 40 phrase books containing German and Russian appeared on the scene (p. 56). These early manuscripts provided phonological advice, vocabulary lists, and bilingual dialogue written side-by-side in the source and target languages on a range of everyday social topics. This also can be extended to include information on the social and cultural customs of the people to whom the target language belonged by providing sections on grammar and an index intended for quick reference. Munro (2009) says, “that earlier phrase books were minimal and Williams’ First lessons in the Māori language dedicated only eight pages to practical phrases the few books that were produced were predictably utilitarian and colonising Kemp’s phrase book listed English and Māori equivalents for a few phrases of everyday importance to settlers and traders it was still a pared-down³⁴ survival kit for load my ship with spars type of trade contacts and, of course, land buying such books were being revised and reprinted again and again” (p. 161). Kemp’s (1879) phrase book contained “a collection of some of the most useful nouns, adjectives, and verbs with a series of useful phrases and elementary sentences in English and Māori intended for the use of European settlers” (p. 33). It provided phrases for the trading and purchasing of Māori land as shown in Figure 3.10 below (Munro, 2009, p. 161).

³⁴ That is, reduced to a very simple form.

Conversation about Land.	
My friends,	<i>e oku hoa.</i>
I am desirous of buying some land,	<i>e hia-hia ana au ki te hoko whenua.</i>
Where?	<i>i whea?</i>
How much do you want?	<i>kia pewhea koia?</i>
A large piece,	<i>kia nui.</i>
A small piece,	<i>kia iti.</i>
Who are the owners of the soil?	<i>kowai nga putake o te whenua?</i>
We are,	<i>ko matou.</i>
Do you consent?	<i>e whaka-ae ana kotou?</i>
We are glad of that,	<i>e koa ana matou ki tena.</i>
I wish to have the fern cleared off,	<i>e mea ana nu kia para te rarauhe.</i>
What will you pay?	<i>he aha te utu?</i>
Two shillings a day,	<i>kia rua hereni mo te rangi kotahi.</i>
The roots must be removed,	<i>me tango nga paiaka.</i>
And the stones must be rolled on one side	<i>ko nga kowhata me hurihuri ki tahaki.</i>
We cannot agree for that,	<i>kaore matou e pai ke tena.</i>
We agree.	<i>ka whaka-ae matou.</i> ⁶⁷

Figure 3.10: English-Māori phrases on land purchase (Kemp, 1879)

3.3.8 Charles Davis (1857)

In his phrase book, Charles Davis (1857) *A Māori phrase book intended for newcomers* provided lists of gain words in Māori with English equivalents (e.g., *rīwai* = potato, *witi* = wheat, *hōiho* = horse, *hikipene* = sixpence, *tarapene* = threepence, *pātene* = farthing). Duval (1995) who coined the term gain word to replace loan-word, borrowing, and transliteration explained it as “a word that has entered one language from another foreign language and has become part of that recipient language's vocabulary” (p. 74). The introduction of a new word, in many cases, seems to resemble as close as possible some form of phonological equivalence inherent in the target language (e.g., *witi* = wheat). Duval says,

The terms loanword and borrowing should be replaced by the new term gainword or gain, and that the process by which new items of vocabulary enter a language should be known as gaining. Gaining is a positive process, and the word gainword is normally devoid of any negative connotations or implications of cultural imperialism. (Duval, 1995, p. 1).

The reason for this view is not entirely clear but it might suggest that loaning or borrowing could be considered as some type of inferior act (i.e., perhaps the act of borrowing from one culture to accommodate for technologies that otherwise do not exist in the other. Thus, cultural imperialism over another). Although new words must be created to account for new items introduced into another language, rethinking better terms and their meanings to express more positive connotations might facilitate a better understanding about how particular terminology to describe vocabulary is used in language education. An innovative phrase book to emerge following Kemp (1848) and Davis (1857) is to be found in the book *A New and Complete Manual of Māori Conversation and a Complete Vocabulary* written by Mary Aubert in 1885.³⁵

3.3.9 William L Williams (1862)

First lessons in the Māori language with a short vocabulary written by William Leonard Williams in 1862 covered a range of word classes in the Māori language as shown in Figure 3.11 below.

³⁵ (See, for more contemporary phrase books, Tauroa, 2006).

TABLE OF CONTENTS	
PART I.	
I. <u>ON READING</u>	3
II. <u>NOUNS AND PERSONAL PRONOUNS</u>	5
III. <u>DEFINITIVES</u>	12
IV. <u>ADJECTIVES</u>	18
V. <u>NUMERALS</u>	20
VI. <u>SENTENCES WITHOUT VERBS</u>	23
VII. <u>VERBS</u>	30
VIII. <u>ADJECTIVES AND PARTICIPLES</u>	40
IX. <u>RELATIVE CLAUSES</u>	44
X. <u>ADVERBS</u>	48
XI. <u>PREPOSITIONS</u>	49
XII. <u>HAVE, HAD, &c.</u>	52
PART II.	
<u>VOCABULARY</u>	54

[Pg 1]
[2]

Figure 3.11: Range of word classes in te reo Māori (Williams, 1862)

Williams (1862) says, “the object of the following pages is not to give anything like a complete treatise on the Māori language. . . . but rather to furnish, in as small a compass as possible, some practical hints on using the different parts of speech for one who is making his first acquaintance with the language I have had to settle a priori what points are, and what are not likely to present difficulty to an English student of the Māori language in doing this, I could not fall back on my own experience in learning the language” (p. 1). Biggs (1961) says, “Williams had a thorough knowledge of the language and possessed linguistic insight remarkable for his time, his grammar showed a break away from traditional categories and some appreciation of the use of formal criteria for classification that was not matched by current works in other Polynesian languages nevertheless, it contained some vulnerabilities, that is, it did not account for all units on various levels from the phonemic upwards” (p. 3). Bauer (1981) says, “the grammar section was remarkably free from Latin syntax and for its insights into te reo the categories of local nouns were first recognized by Williams and his grammar was extraordinarily free from prescriptive tendencies it was more specific about the structure of Māori and less concerned with the grammatical expectations of those familiar only

with Indo-European languages Williams probably knew Maunsell's work well and drew upon it it set the standard for later descriptions, including the addition of new information from 1862 to 1960 (pp.12-13). A list of local nouns is given in Williams (1862, p. 10) as shown in Figure 3.12 below.

<p>§ 10. NOUNS OF LOCALITY, which have the nominal prefix <i>a</i>; § 6.</p> <p><i>Ko</i>, <i>that place</i> (at a distance), <i>yonder</i>.</p> <p><i>Konei</i>, <i>this place</i> (near the speaker).</p> <p><i>Kona</i>, <i>that place</i> (near the person spoken to).</p> <p><i>Reira</i>, <i>that place</i> (before mentioned).</p> <p><i>Runga</i>, <i>the top</i>.</p> <p><i>Raro</i>, <i>the bottom</i>.</p> <p><i>Roto</i>, <i>the inside</i>.</p> <p><i>Waho</i>, <i>the outside</i>.</p> <p><i>Tawahi</i>, <i>the other side</i> (of a river, valley &c.).</p> <p><i>Tua</i>, <i>the other side</i> (of a hill, house &c.).</p> <p><i>Tatahi</i>, <i>the sea shore</i> (as opposed to places inland).</p> <p><i>Tahaki</i>, <i>the shore</i> (as opposed to the water).</p> <p><i>Uta</i>, <i>the dry land</i> (as opposed to the water).</p> <p>---- <i>inland places</i> (opposed to <i>tatahi</i>).</p> <p><i>Mua</i>, <i>the front</i>.</p> <p><i>Muri</i>, <i>the rear</i>.</p> <p><i>Waenganui</i>, <i>the midst</i>.</p>

Figure 3.12: Williams' local nouns (Williams, 1862)

Ranapia (1968) says, "modern linguists including Biggs (1961, 1973); Hōhepa, (1967); and Johansen (1948) would each acknowledge his debt to Williams' grammar as a major reference since its first publication" (pp. 61-62). Wills (1960, p. v) says, he was strongly influenced by Williams' 1862 textbook from which he sourced much of his materials as a basis for his own

work called *Lessons in the Māori language: A new approach to learning Māori* (See, Chapter 4, Section 4.4.2). When Williams' grammar appeared on the scene during the mid-1800s, the New Zealand educational system was operating on the grammar school system in which European-based textbooks would take priority over Māori-focused materials in the school curriculum (See, Chapter 4, Section 4.2). When Williams' revised 13th edition appeared in 1965, it still maintained much of its linguist approach to describing certain parts of speech in the Māori language from 1862 to 1965 as shown in Figures 3.13 and 3.14 below.

Personal pronouns have three numbers, singular, dual, and plural, as shewn by the following table. Dual and plural pronouns include the person or persons spoken to, while maua and matou exclude them. Ahau, I, koe, thou, ia, he, become respectively -ku, -u, -na, when they follow the possessive prepositions a, o, of, na, no, belonging to, ma, mo, for, and the compounds ta, and to (which consist of the article te and the prepositions a and o). Owing to this irregularity the preposition and pronoun in each case are generally written as one word (Williams, 1862, pp. 8-9).

TABLE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

	SINGULAR.	DUAL.	PLURAL.
1st Person	Ahau, or au	Maua	Matou
1st includ. 2nd.		Taua	Tatou
2nd Person	Koe	Korua	Koutou
3rd Person	Ia	Raua	Ratou
Interrog.	Wai?	Wai ma?	Wai ma?
Indef.	Mea	Mea ma	Mea ma

Figure 3.13: 19th century descriptions of te reo Māori (Williams, 1862)

III. *Definitives.*

15

§ 17. POSSESSIVE PREPOSITIONS following Definitives. (a) When a possessive follows *he*, always use either of the prepositions *na*, or *no*, never *a*, or *o*.

EXAMPLES.

He pukapuka naku, *a book of mine, or belonging to me.*

He whare no tenei tangata, *a house belonging to this man, or of this man's.*

(b) When a possessive follows any other definitive, except *he*, always use either of the prepositions *a*, or *o*, never *na*, or *no*.

EXAMPLES.

Te pukapuka a Pita, *Pita's book.*

Tenei taha oku, *this side of me.*

Taua whara o Hemi, *that house of Hemi's.*

§ 18. Of the DEMONSTRATIVES, *tena* denotes that the thing spoken of is near, or in some way connected with the person spoken to; *tera*, that it is at a distance from or unconnected with either the speaker or the person spoken to; *taua*, that it has

2*

Figure 3.14: 20th century descriptions of te reo Māori (Williams, 1965)

When comparing Williams (1862) to Wills (1960), the types of description are very similar in terms of terminology and explanations as shown in Figures 3.15 and 3.16 below.

IX. RELATIVE CLAUSES.

[44]

§ 61. There are NO RELATIVE PRONOUNS in Maori. Their place is supplied either by the position of the words forming the relative clause; or by the personal pronoun of the 3rd person singular; or again, by the use of certain particles.

§ 62. WHO. When the relative in English is the subject of a verb in the relative clause:

(a) That verb may be placed immediately after the antecedent portion of the sentence without any expressed subject.

EXAMPLES.

Te tangata e hanga whare ana, *the man who is house-building.*

Te hoiho i kitea e taua, *the horse which was seen by you and me.*

(b) If the relative clause is past or future, the construction mentioned in § 49 may be used; the pronoun of the third person singular serving for all persons and numbers. [45]

EXAMPLES.

Ko Hemi te tangata nana i patu taku witi, *the man who threshed my wheat was Hemi.*

Ko nga tangata enei nana i tahu te ngahere, *these are the men who set the forest on fire.*

§ 63. WHOM, OR WHICH. When the relative in English is objective, and is governed by a verb or by one of these prepositions: *by, by-means-of, on-account-of, by-reason-of*; the verb in the relative clause is followed by *nei, na, ra, or ai*, without a preposition; and in the present tense *ana* after the verb is omitted. For the force of *nei, na, and ra*, see § 18. Use *ai* only with the past and future. The subject of the verb in the relative clause may either be expressed directly, or it may be implied in a possessive definitive placed before the antecedent. [46]

EXAMPLES.

Te whare e hanga nei koe, *the house which you are building.*

Tau pukapuka e korero na, *that book which you are reading.*

Te mea e raru ai ahau, *the thing by means of which I shall be perplexed.*

Tau tangata i karanga ai, *the man whom you called.*

§ 64. INVERTED CONSTRUCTION. In those cases in which the relative is governed by the verb in the relative clause the construction may be inverted, by making the verb passive (§ 47), with the relative as its subject.

EXAMPLES.

Te whare e hangaa nei e koe, *the house which is being built by you.*

Te pukapuka e korerotia na e koe, *the book which is being read by you.*

Figure 3.15: Relative clauses (Williams, 1862)

Lesson Twenty-four

RELATIVE CLAUSES.

Examples:

1. He saw a man who was house-building.
I kitea e ia tetahi tangata e hanga whare ana.
2. There is the canoe which was seen by us yesterday.
Tera te waka i kitea e taua inanahi.
3. Look at the tree that is standing on top of the hill.
Titiro ki te rakau e tu mai ra i runga i te puke.
4. Where is the child that spoke to us?
Kei whea te tamaiti i korero mai ra ki a taua?
5. Who are the people who are coming towards us here?
Ko wai ma nga tangata e haere mai nei ki konei?

Look at the English sentence in example No. 1 above.
It contains two statements:—

- (a) He saw a man.
- (b) Who (the man) was house-building.

The word “ who ” (i) is the joining word and (ii) it stands, in the second clause for the word “ man.”

The word “ man ” is called the antecedent (word going before it) and “ who ” is called a **Relative Pronoun**. The clause “ who is house-building ” is a **Relative Clause**. These two functions together are the sign of the Relative Pronoun.

Now in Maori we have no true Relative Pronoun—we simply omit it—but we do have a Relative Clause, and it follows immediately, as in English, after the antecedent.

The translations of sentences Nos. 1 and 2 above are now quite clear. There is no Relative Pronoun

(103)

Figure 3.16: Relative clauses (Wills, 1960)

3.3.10 Suzanne Aubert (1885)

A New and Complete Manual of Māori Conversation and a Complete Vocabulary written in 1885 by Mary Aubert³⁶ is both a grammar book and phrase book that organized aspects of te reo Māori into five parts:

³⁶ Suzanne Aubert who later become known as sister Mary J Aubert, a Catholic nun, arrived in New Zealand around 1860. She later published a Māori language prayer book and a catechism ‘Ko te ako me te karakia o te Hāhi Katorika Romana in 1879 (Tennant, 2010, pp.1-2).

- Part 1: General rules of grammars;
- Parts 2, 3, and 4: Phrases organized into situations and topics;
- Part 5: Vocabulary lists.

Aubert (1885, pp. 7-14) provided some general rules on pronunciation, accentuation, articles, nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and verb categories as shown in Figures 3.17 and 3.18 below.

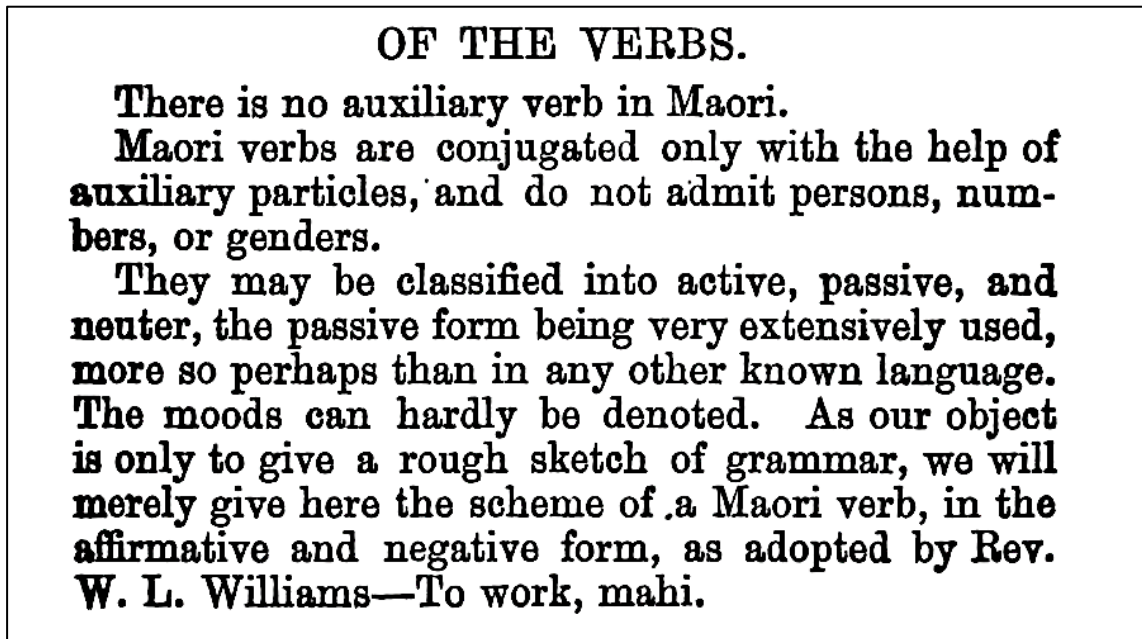


Figure 3.17: Description of verbs (Aubert, 1885)

12

I.—INDICATIVE.

1. Inceptive ; past or future.

Ka mahi ia. He worked or began to work. He will work or will begin to work.

Ka kore ia e mahi. He began or will begin not to work.

2. Imperfect ; past, present, or future.

E mahi ana ia. He was, is, or will be working.

Kāhore ia e mahi ana. He was not, is not, or will not be working.

3. Perfect ; past, present, or future.

Kua mahi ia. He had, has, or will have worked.

Kāhore ano ia kia mahi. He had not, has not, or will not have worked.

Figure 3.18: Verb types (Aubert, 1885)

The book dedicated only a portion of word classes to the Māori grammar, whereas the sections on English and Māori phrases made up the larger portion of the book. It seems that Aubert's work may have been the first study to introduce the notion of situations (e.g., at a dinner party) and topics (e.g., talking about the weather) in print and in a detailed way that otherwise was not a major focus in previous Māori grammars.³⁷ Although the book provided a range of phrases related to particular situations and topics, there is very little explanation about their grammatical rules as shown in figures 3.19 and 3.20 below.

³⁷ The notion of 'situations' in language learning can involve a general location and specific language that one might expect to use in that situation in order to communicate successfully (e.g., at the restaurant, at the shop, at the doctors etc.). The notion of 'topics' is the learning and developing of language based around a particular subject (e.g., talking about a trip overseas, talking about the weather etc.).

XVI.—AT A DINNER PARTY.	
Kei te hakari k̄ai.	
Ladies and gentlemen, be so good as to sit down Please to sit by the lady	E kui ma, E koro ma me noho koutou ki raro E noho koe ki te taha o te wahine
Give the gentleman a seat	Ho atu he t̄uru ki te ta- ngata
Will you have rice soup ?	E pirangi ran̄ēi koe ki etahi hupa raihi ?
Will you take fish ?	E p̄ai ran̄ēi koe ki te ika ?
We have a mullet	He kauae ano ki a mātou
Some fried soles	Etahi p̄atiki, he mea parai
Broiled herrings	He aua whakaunūnua
Nice sardines	He harini p̄ai
Sea fish is my favorite dish	Ko te ika moana te kai reka ki ā au
I prefer fresh-water fish	E p̄ai atu ki ā au te ika wai maori

Figure 3.19: Situation phrases for dining out (Aubert, 1885)

49	
XXI.—ON THE WEATHER.	
He k̄orero i runga i nga ahua o te rangi.	
How is the weather ?	P̄whea te ahua o te rangi ?
I think it will rain in the evening	Ki tāku mahara t̄era e ua i te ahiahi
It is fine	He paki ano
It is beautiful weather	P̄ai rawa atu te rangi n̄ēi
It is mild	He aio te rangi n̄ēi
It is warm	He mahana
How hot it is !	Ano, te nui o te werawera
It is sultry	Ka nui te r̄a
The sun is hot	Kei te werawera te r̄a
It is dry	Kei te maroke
It is very dusty	Ka nui te puehu
It is damp	He hau makū
Take an umbrella	Mauria he marara
It is getting cloudy	Kei te puta m̄ai te paroro
It is going to rain	Meake ua
It is raining	Kei te ua
Does it rain ?	Kei te ua koia ?
It will not rain	E kore e ua

Figure 3.20: Topic phrases for talking about the weather (Aubert, 1885)

A pioneering work in the phrase-type approach, it seemed to reflect Aubert's thoughts and attitudes that appealed to the more humanistic side of language learning of te reo for communication rather than learning it for the purpose of trade only as seen in Kemp's phrasebook above. Munro (2009) says, "she launched into something quite different from anything before . . . the book idealistically assumed a lively populace of Pākehā and Māori who would be wanting to communicate, to gossip . . . to travel in company . . . to weather storms together . . . to discuss health, sea travel, trade, earthquakes, politics . . . whole sections covered how to express shades of feelings, needs, evaluations . . . that was totally new in New Zealand Māori publishing" (p. 162). This type of thinking can be seen in the content page of her book as shown in Figure 3.21 below.

INDEX.

	PAGE
Preface	3
Grammar	7
Of epochs, and of time. (O nga wa) ..	15
To express hunger. (He kupu hei whakaatu te mate kai)	18
To express thirst. (He kupu hei whakaatu te mate wai)	19
For speaking. (Mo te korero)	19
For reading. (Mo te korero pukapuka)	22
To question. (He kupu ui atu)	24
To consult. (He korero hei ui tikanga)	27
To affirm. (He kupu hei whakapono)	29
To entreat. (He kupu hei whakapai inoi atu)	30
To consent and grant. (He korero whakaae)	31
To refuse. (He kupu whakakahore)	32
To offer and thank. (He korero mo te tapae mo te whakawhetai)	34
To express satisfaction. (He korero whakapai, whakakaitoa)	35
To express displeasure and anger. (He kupu hei whakaatu te riri)	36
To express sorrow. (He kupu hei whakaatu i te pouri)	38
To express astonishment and admiration. (He kupu hei whakaatu te miharatanga)	40
To express probability	42
To deny and call in question. (He kupu whakakahore)	43
To express friendship. (He korero hei whakaatu te aroha)	45
To express antipathy. (He kupu whakakino)	47
On the weather. (He korero i runga i nga ahua o te rangi)	47
On the seasons. (He korero i runga i nga wa o te tau) ..	52
Of the hour. (He korero i runga i te haora)	52
Of the age. (O nga tau)	54
Of the health. (He korero i runga i te oranga tinana) ..	55
With a physician. (He korero ki te takuta)	57
To pay customary compliments. (He korero whakatau)	59
Of news. (Ko nga korero o te ao)	61
Going and coming. (Mo te haerenga atu me te haerenga mai)	64
To inquire about a person. (He kupu hei ui atu ki etahi tangata)	68

Figure 3.21: Content page of Aubert's grammar/ phrasebook (Aubert, 1885)

The concept and use of situations and topics employed by Aubert (being an innovative approach to describe te reo), I think can play a very useful role in the facilitation of syllabus design and language learning as shown in Figures 3.22 and 3.23 below.

V.—AT THE HOTEL.	
He kupu kei te Hotera.	
Here is a good hotel	Tênēi tetahi hotera pāi
Let us go in	Me tomo tātou ki roto
Have you any spare room?	Kāhore pea he ruma takoto kau?
Can we sleep here?	E pāi ranēi kia moe mātou ki konēi?
Have you a bed to give me?	Kāhore ranēi he moenga māku?
Yes, gentlemen, you will find here handsome rooms and good beds	He moenga ano, E koro ma, kēi konēi ano nga ruma papāi me nga moenga ngawari
Make a good fire	Tahuna he ahi
We are benumbed with cold	Ka hanaitu mātou i te makariri
Blow the fire	Puhia te ahi
Let me see the room you intend for me	Tukua ahau kia kite i te ruma mōku
I want to have my servant near me	Ka pirangi ahau kia noho tāku pononga ki tāku taha
Sir, here is the best room in the house	E koro, tênēi te ruma pāi rawa o te whare nēi
What is the dinner hour?	Hei tēhea haora te tina?
At five o'clock	Hei te rima
We are going to see the town	E haere ana mātou ki te matakitaki ki te taōne
Let us take a walk about the town	Me haere e tātou ki te taōne
Let us return to our hotel	Tēna tātou, me hoki ki tō tātou hotera
It is dinner time	Ka taka te taima o te tina

Figure 3.22: Situation: At the hotel (Aubert, 1885)

II.—TO EXPRESS HUNGER.	
He kupu hei whakāātu i te mate kāi.	
I am hungry	E hia kāi ana ahau
I am very hungry	Ka nui tāku hiakāi
Give me something to eat	Ho māi etahi kāi māku
What will you eat?	He aha te mea e hiakāitia e koe?
What have you to eat?	He aha te kāi māku?
I have a good appetite	Ka nui tāku kaha ki te kāi
Are you not hungry?	Kāhore koe i te hiakāi?
You must be hungry	Kei te hiakāi ano koe
To be sure you are hun- gry	Ata kōrero māi, ka nui to hiakāi
We have nothing to eat	Kāhore a mātou kāi
We are starved	Ka hemo mātou i te mate kāi
We will not be satisfied with that	E kore mātou e ora i ēna
You do not eat	Kāhore koe i te kāi
I cannot eat	E kore ahau e kaha ki te kāi
You eat very little	He iti rawa tōu kāi
We are very hungry	Kei te hemo kāi mātou
Did they not give you any food?	Kāhore i ho māi e ratou he kāi māu
Who is this food for?	Māwāi nga kāi nōi?
For us?	Mā mātou?
Will you not give me some?	E kore e ho māi etahi māku?
That will do	Kāti rawa

Figure 3.23: Topic: Talking about hunger (Aubert, 1885)

In 1894, the original publishers of Aubert's work Lyon and Blair were brought by Whitcombe and Tombs. In 1906, without her knowledge, the new owners printed a second edition and omitted her name and, therefore, any reference to her authorship and the reason for this act became unknown, the eighth edition (Aubert, 1964) was replaced with the names of editors and revisers including Sir Apirana Ngata (Ngāti Porou) who appeared on the title page, Aubert's grammar section, however, was "greatly enlarged and improved due to the scholarly knowledge and skills of Ngata" (Munro, 2009, p. 163). Of note, it seems that Aubert was the last European author to write a Māori grammar/ description of te reo at the end of the 19th century since Kendall's initial work in 1815.

3.3.11 Henry Stowell (1913)

Up until the early 1900s, the describing of the Māori language was carried out mainly by European authors for the entirety of the 1800s. These earlier works provided the basis for much of the way te reo would be described in the ensuing decades. With the publication of *A Māori-English tutor and vade mecum* written in 1913 by Ngāpuhi scholar and educator Henry Stowell (also known as Hāre Hongi), this would accredit him as the first Māori to write a grammar on te reo (Griffith, Maslen, & Harvey, 1997).³⁸ At the time of its production, Stowell (1913) says, “there were already several resources available on the Māori language including grammars and vocabularies and that it may seem astounding to some that another should now be added to the list . . . some scholars may agree that the efforts of previous writers are not altogether adequate to the scientific study of the subject” (p. iii). The several handbooks are likely to be a reference to those European authors and their grammars that were available at that time, albeit not directly mentioned in his quote. Stowell (1913) indicated that the aim of his book was “to describe sentences in Māori in gradual stages from simple to complex with the express interest of illustrating the simplicity of the language” (p. iv). This could refer to, for example, a simple description of the articles to a more complex description of future prospective possessive as shown in Figures 3.24 and 3.25 below.

³⁸ Henry Stowell (aka Hāre Hongi) was an interpreter and genealogist from Ngāpuhi (an iwi in Te Hiku o Te Ika, Aotearoa). He offered lessons in Māori to interested Europeans and promoted his book as a learning tool, or a vade mecum (Gibbons, 2010). Vade Mecum (Latin = to go with me) refers to a handbook that a person would carry for quick reference and consultation (See, <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/vade%20mecum>).

ON THE ARTICLES.

(Note, in Maori it is the article which is pluralised and not the noun.)

The indefinite article is *he*; as, **he** *whare*, **a** house.

The definite article is *te*; as, **te** *whare*, **the** house.

The plural article is *ngā*; as, **ngā** *whare*, **the** houses.

In Māori the words *tēnei* and *tēnā*, or, this and that, are certainly made up by means of prefixing the definite article. Note how the plural occurs in such words as:—

Tē-nei tangata, this man *E-nei tāngata*, these men.

Tē-nā tangata, that man. *E-nā tāngata*, those men.

Tē-rā tangata, the other man. *E-rā tangata*, the other men.

Taua tangata, the man referred to. *Aua tangata*, the men referred to

Tē-tahi tangata, the one (particular) man: a certain individual.

E-tahi tāngata, some particular men: certain individuals.

Ko wai Mā ēnā, who are those persons?

The following are the principal uses of the indefinite article :—

He *tangata*, **a** man.

He *tāngata* **some** men.

He *tangata ēnā*, those **are** men.

He *wahine nei etahi*, some **were** women.

He *tangata pokanoa koe*, you **are an** interfering man.

Figure 3.24: Simple descriptions of the articles (Stowell, 1913)

FUTURE PROSPECTIVE POSSESSIVE.

(To add to what one already possesses, is the idea.)

Singular.

<i>Māaku, mōoku,</i> for me, for mine	} <i>te waka,</i> the canoe, or <i>ngā waka,</i> the canoes
<i>Māau, mōou,</i> for thee, for thine	
<i>Māana, mōona,</i> for his, for hers	
<i>Māana, mōona,</i> for its	

Dual.

<i>Mā</i> or <i>mō tāua,</i> for you and me	} <i>te waka,</i> the canoe, or <i>ngā waka,</i> the canoes
<i>Mā</i> or <i>mō māua,</i> for him (or her) and me	
<i>Mā</i> or <i>mō kōrua,</i> for you two	
<i>Mā</i> or <i>mō rāua,</i> for the two of them	

Triplial.

<i>Mā</i> or <i>mō tātou,</i> for us three (including you)	} <i>te waka,</i> the canoe, or <i>ngā waka,</i> the canoes
<i>Mā</i> or <i>mō mātou,</i> for us three (excluding you)	
<i>Mā</i> or <i>mō kōutou,</i> for you three	
<i>Mā</i> or <i>mō rātou,</i> for the three of them.	

Mā wai te waka, for whom is the canoe?

We see that possessive pronouns have as prefix, *nā* or *mō*: *tā* or *tō*: *mā* or *mō*. It follows then, as a matter of course, that the balance of the term, *nā-aku*, *tō-oku*, or *mā-ana*, is largely the pronoun itself. This fact is apparently overlooked by the majority of writers, grammarians and dictionary-makers, for they invariably write these terms in the following way, *naku*, *toku*, *mana*, etc. This should not be, for it completely alters the sense, as the following examples clearly show:—

INCORRECT FORMS.	CORRECT FORMS.
<i>Kia mana mai.</i>	<i>Kia māana mai.</i>
<i>He kai mau.</i>	<i>He kai māau.</i>
<i>Ko au i taka iho.</i>	<i>Ko ā Au i taka iho.</i>
<i>Keihea au?</i>	<i>Keihea ā Au?</i>

Figure 3.25: Complex descriptions of possessives (Stowell, 1913)

Stowell also described a range of different language features beyond the familiar parts of speech such as, for example, colors, insects, creatures, trees, plants, fables, Māori aphorisms,

body parts, and planets etc. This also included samples of poetic prose and insights from a Māori perspective, particularly a Ngāpuhi one as shown in Figures 3.26, 3.27, and 3.28 below.

x	CONTENTS	PAGE	xi	CONTENTS	PAGE
	Past tense	53		On <i>Ariki</i>	147
	Perfect tense	55		On mantles and garments	149
	Past perfect tense	55		On weapons, axes, etc.	150
	Future tense	56		On Maori houses	151
	Dual tense	57		CHAPTER XIII.	
	Emphatic forms	58		On the term <i>Kura</i>	153
	Passive and jussive forms	60		Philosophic lament	154
	CHAPTER VII.			Maori flute music	157
	On the regular use of tense-signs in sentence construction	61		Names of Maori songs, chants, etc.	158
	<i>Ka</i> not a tense-sign	64		Maori love ditties	159
	On the Negative	65		Epic poem (<i>Turaukawa</i>)	161
	On Antonyms	67		Epic poem, translation	165
	CHAPTER VIII.			CHAPTER XIV.	
	On the Grammar	75		On marriage customs and land rights	172
	On I was, I had been, I have been, I have become	77		Fixity of land tenure	174
	CHAPTER IX.			Hereditary tenure	181
	On Verbs and their Terminals	78		Land tenure in its relation to marriage customs	182
	On Verbal Prefixes	81		Kinship and marriage connexions	187
	List of Verbs	83		Plural marriages	190
	CHAPTER X.			CHAPTER XV.	
	On colour	105		On time	193
	On insects and reptiles	109		Sun, Moon, Stars, Planets, Constellations	195
	On fish	110		Maori lunar Calendar	195
	On trees and plants	111		Stars ruling Months	196
	On birds	116		Months by numbers	196
	CHAPTER XI.			Seasons	197
	On proper names	118		Winds	197
	On place names	120		The Planets	198
	On Maori aphorisms	126		Milky Way, constellations	200
	On selected phrases	132		Sun, summer, the sky	206
	On fables	135		Moon, night, star-groups	208
	CHAPTER XII.			CHAPTER XVI.	
	On the <i>Tohunga</i>	137		<i>Whanga, Tatari, Taihoa</i>	212
	Parts of the human body	138		Tabloid Translations	213
	On the bone system	140		CHAPTER XVII.	
	Ailments and diseases	141		Verbalised phrases, childhood, manhood, old age	222
	On sport, pastime, drill	143		Rhyming slang	228
	Law of <i>tapu</i>	144		Maori hymn to Creator	229
	On the <i>Koropatu</i>	146		Appendix	232

Figure 3.26: Range of different language features (Stowell, 1913)

KORERO-TARA, or FABLES.

The Locust and the Ant.

Tātarakihi:—

*Hohoro mai, ē te hoa,
 Kaua e whakarōa, ō—ī;
 A-ra-rā! ka turua tā te Popokorua!
 Rawe noa tā ngā taki-whakahau.*

Pōpokorua:—

*U mai tāua ki te kerī,
 I te rua, mō te Ua ō te rangi
 Mō te Makariri wero i te Pō nei, e;
 Me te kohi mai anō i te kākano, e,
 Hei O ake mā tama-roto,
 Kia ora ai, ē—ī—nā.*

Tātarakihi:—

*He pai aha koia tāaku he noho noa,
 Piri ake ki te peka ō te rākau,
 Inā, inā nōa ake ki te Rā ē whiti nei,
 Mē te whakatangi Kau i aku paihau, e—
 Ta ra rā ta, kīta, kīta,
 Ta ra rā ta, kīta, kīta,
 Wiri ō papa, tōene, tōene,
 Wiri ō papa, tōene, tōene.*

Or—

Locust:—

Haste hither quickly O my friend,
 Do not delay, the call attend;
 Wondrous the ant's creative skill,
 Harmonious with instructor's will.

Ant:—

Come hither, and together bore
 A pit, to shield from rains which pour

Figure 3.27: Poetic prose (Stowell, 1913)

CHAPTER XII.

ON THE *TOHUNGA*.

By *tohunga* is meant an initiate, a metaphysician, an adept. Amongst the principal orders of *tohunga* were the:—

Tohunga ō Rongo, (of *Rongo*, god of Peace and Plenty.)

Tohunga ō Tāne (of *Tāne*, lord of light whose symbol is the sun.)

Tohunga ō Tū (of *Tū*, god of war.)

Tohunga karakia: ritualist, intercessor.

Tohunga kōkōrangī: astrologer, astronomer.

Tohunga-kī, or *Matakite*: seer, diviner, prophet.

Tohunga tuhī mata: fortune teller.

Tohunga whakakite wairua: spiritualist (one who produces spirits).

Tohunga nānā: anatomist, physician.

Tohunga whakapā: specialist (one whose knowledge enabled him, when so required, to prevent a fruitful woman from further conceiving).

Tohunga tito waiata: poet and historian.

Tohunga mākutū: magician, wizard.

Tohunga kōrero: orator.

Those were collectively the advisers, teachers, guides, counsellors, historians, and law-givers of the people.

Figure 3.28: Insights from a Māori perspective (Stowell, 1913)

These types of descriptions were largely absent in previous European written grammars and demonstrated an insightful and creative approach to describe a range of cultural aspects of te reo Māori.

3.3.12 Bruce Biggs (1961)

Biggs' (1961) book *The Structure of New Zealand Maaori* investigated the occurrences of phonemes and morphemes within the internal structure of the Māori phrase (p. 5).³⁹ With reference to this study, Biggs says,

In keeping with the current linguistic position, the following analysis attempts to isolate all the significant units that enter into the composition of the code we call Maaori, and to state all possible sequences of these units that may occur in the language within the limits of a short stretch whose boundaries are defined (Biggs, 1961, p. 5).

Biggs' study was a significant step forward in identifying the *phrase* as the basic unit at the core of describing the sentence structure of te reo Māori (Bauer, 1981, p. 15). The study described the structure of te reo using an alpha-numeric code as shown in Figures 3.29, 3.30 and 3.31 below.

³⁹ Biggs (Ngāti Maniapoto), a trained linguist and scholar, was considered the father of Māori grammars. While teaching at rural primary schools in New Zealand in the 1950s, he learned te reo as a second language. During this time, he became the first person to lecturer in te reo studies at Auckland University. He also co-founded the Linguistic Society of New Zealand and served as president of the Polynesian Society (See, <http://www.TeAra.govt.nz/en/photograph/41801/bruce-biggs>).

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION 15

1 THE PHRASE 17

- 1.1 The phrase as a pause unit of speech 17
- 1.2 The grammar of the phrase 18

2 THE ARTICLES 20

- 2.1 The indefinite article *he* 20
- 2.2 The definite articles *te* and *ngaa* 20
 - 2.21 *Te* is singular, *ngaa* is plural 20
 - 2.22 *Te* as a class marker 20
 - 2.23 *Ngaa* translating mass nouns 21
- 2.3 The proper article *a* 21

3 THE POSITIONAL PARTICLES *NEI*, *NA*, *RA*, AND THE DEFINITIVES *TEENEI*, *TEENAA*, *TEERAA* 22

- 3.11 *Nei*, *na* and *ra* postponed to bases 22
- 3.12 Pronunciation of *na* and *ra* 22
- 3.2 *Nei*, *na* and *ra* combined with the definite article 22

Figure 3.29: Descriptions of *te reo* (Biggs, 1973)

When the referent is plural either the reduplicated or the non-reduplicated form may occur as in *ḡaa táma riki pa-pái* which is synonymous with *ḡaa táma riki pái* the good children [$82+(N+A)^N+Ay \sim R-Ay$]. However only the non-reduplicated form may occur with a singular referent as in *te tamá-iti pái* the good child [$81+(N+A)^N+Ay$]. The following list contains most if not all members of *Ay*: núi big, róa long, kíno evil, pái good, riki little.

Figure 3.30: Alpha-numeric code to describe *te reo* (Biggs, 1961)

méa general action, object or person has an extremely wide distribution filling any frame of classes N, V, A, G, P. With 20 it is translated by say, do, or think; with 80 it is translated by thing; with 51 it is translated So-and-so. #kua máte a mǎa# So-and-so has died (25+A)(51+mea); e méa +ana rǎa-ua// they are saying (22+mea+241)(43+35); kei ŋáro t-aua méa# lest that aforementioned thing be lost (26+V)(81+38+mea); #kaa méa tia e méa# was said by So-and-so (21+mea+211)(107+mea).
 táa sir, kóo girl, táí young person, mára person occur only juxtaposed to 105. e táa oh, sir (105+táa); e kóo maa hey, girls (105+kóo+229).

2.9. Some minor morphemes occur only in the nuclear slot and are called nuclear minor morphemes. Nuclear minor morphemes are in decade classes 10 and 210 since they are always juxtaposed to bases, or base surrogates. All other minor morphemes may occur in the peripheral slots (preposed or postposed to nucleus) and are called peripheral minor morphemes. Those minor morphemes which can occur before, but not after, the nucleus in a contour word are called preposed minor morphemes and those that occur after, but not before, the nucleus are called postposed minor morphemes. All minor morphemes are allotted to decade classes in accordance with their position with regard to the base, in maximal sequences within contour words (2.7).

Figure 3.31: Some minor morphemes in te reo (Biggs, 1961)

Most notably, Biggs (1961) made some interesting comments about notions of language that seemed to align with current semantic ideas in which he says,

1. A final essential step before the language can be used in communication is the linking of its forms with referents in the real world;
2. This relating of *form* and *meaning* is achieved, more or less successfully, by all speakers, native or otherwise, of any language [Emphasis added];
3. It is, however, scarcely attempted by the structural linguist who at present commands no techniques for the structuring of meaning that would allow it to be related usefully to the formal structure of a language;
4. Meaningful units, that is units above the level of the phonemes, are classified exhaustively according to the positions they may occupy with reference to other units on the same level (p. 5).

The key concepts associated with semantic theorizing and language description includes communication, linking, form, meaning, structure, related, and meaningful units align with my own research in this study. With reference to point 3 above, that is, *the structural linguist at present has no system for the structuring of meaning that would allow it to be related usefully to the formal structure of a language* seems to indicate that linguists were acting on the best knowledge, data, and models that were available to them at that time. Here, I provide a possible definition of the structural linguist, that is, current thinking suggests that the linguist takes a scientific approach to the study of language in all its facets (e.g., describing language at various linguistic levels: phonemes, morphemes, syntax) and how these can relate to a range of other disciplines, such as Philosophy, Education, Sociology, Social Anthropology, Psychology and/or Artificial Intelligence. In contrast, the applied linguist is more concerned with the application of the insights gained from general/ structural linguistics to address practical problems associated with foreign or second language pedagogy and acquisition. This is not to suggest there was any shortage of applied linguists during Biggs' time but I make a distinction here to indicate what each one may have to offer and contribute to language education in the L2 context. Biggs provided no further discussion on these semantic based notions in the actual study, nevertheless the ideas he presented predated later studies on descriptions of te reo containing similar notions (See, for example, Bauer, 1981; Houia, 2001; & Reedy, 1979). In his textbook *Let's learn Māori: A guide to the study of the Māori language* published in 1973, Biggs elaborated on the internal structure of the Māori phrase in which he says, "a Māori phrase consists of two parts, a nucleus and a periphery . . . the nucleus may be thought of as the central part of the phrase, containing its lexical meaning . . . the periphery is the part of the phrase which precedes and follows the nucleus (p. 18). The periphery parts are described as preposed and postposed with a nucleus operating at the core, for example,

- Ka pai: Ka (preposed) + pai (nucleus)
- Te whare nei: Te (preposed) + whare (nucleus) + nei (postposed)
- Haere mai: Haere (nucleus) + mai (postposed)

(See, for more on this textbook by Biggs, Chapter 4, Section 4.4.5).

3.3.13 Pat Hōhepa (1967)

A profile generative grammar of Māori written by Hōhepa (1967)⁴⁰ was divided into five sections 1) phonology, 2) morphology, 3) profile grammar, 4) transformational-generative grammar, and 5) comparative Polynesian profiles. Hōhepa (1967) says, “the investigation set out to analyze the structure of Māori using what the author called the profile-generative approach it partially integrated two models of linguistic descriptions called Item and Arrangement (IA) and Item and Process (IP) by aligning sentence analysis techniques of anthropological linguistics with the rules of transformational generative analysis the essential framework for the morphological and syntactic sections is a variation of C. F. Voegelin’s method of listing minor morphemes (restricted here to salient minor morphemes) coupled with his method of sentence profile analysis the transformational-generative approach is used to provide the rules and lists for generating the phonology, the rules for isolating phrase types, and the rules and lists for the transformational-generative grammar section in this monograph” (p. 1). Hōhepa (1967) says, “ideally a transformational grammar is a finite set of rules and lists necessary and sufficient to generate all (and only) the sentences of a language, although all non-complex sentences are generated, the following grammar makes no claim of exhaustiveness (p. 97). Transformational Grammar also called Transformational-generative Grammar formulated by Chomsky (1965) attempted to analyze the relationship

⁴⁰ Patu Hōhepa (Ngāpuhi), an Emeritus Professor and former Professor of Māori language at the University of Auckland and Māori Language Commissioner (Toihau o Te Taurawhiri i te Reo Māori), has been instrumental in a range of Māori language-related issues and offers much experience and insights into its current and future development (Hōhepa, 2010, p. 5).

among the different elements of a sentence and among the possible sentences of a language by using processes or rules (some of which are called transformations) to express these relations. In the transformational generative grammar section, Hōhepa (1967, p. 97) adopted a sophisticated system of symbols and formal rules to describe various morphemes encoded in the Māori language as shown in Figure 3.32 below.

100 A PROFILE GENERATIVE GRAMMAR OF MAORI

The \pm symbol is used as a permutation marker. Thus A (+B) (\pm C) has seven possible orders: A, A + C, A + B, C + A, A + B + C, A + C + B, C + A + B. In rule 2 therefore, Loc may optionally precede L_p or either of VP or P. The instruction given at the foot of rule 2 indicates that if the first line of rule is selected, at least one node must be chosen.

3. P \rightarrow ko + $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{NP} \\ \text{R} \end{array} \right\}$ *specifier, non-time, future location*

4. L_p \rightarrow prep + NP

5. VP \rightarrow Prev $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} V_i (\bar{i} + \text{NP}) \\ (\text{faka} \wedge) M (\wedge \text{tia} (\underline{e} + \text{NP})) \end{array} \right\}$ (Adv)

6. Prev \rightarrow $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Prev}_a \\ \text{Prev}_b \end{array} \right\}$: when VP \neq Prev + V_i (\bar{i} + NP)

\bar{i} in rule 5 is a morphologically conditioned allomorph of \underline{e} in the lower string. Both are Agentive Phrase initiators, already typed as initiator 3(c) *agentive*, with \bar{i} occurring after a class of Ms (V_i) which do not take *passivizers*, and \underline{e} occurring elsewhere. faka is the *causativizer* and tia the *passivizer*.

7. Adv \rightarrow (Adv_a) (D) (Post) (kee)
: choose one

kee is glossed *otherness*, or, *other than expected*.

8. Adv_a \rightarrow (M) (Adv_b)
: choose one

9. Subj \rightarrow NP

Figure 3.32: Sample of generative profile of te reo (Hōhepa, 1967)

Nordquis (2020) provided some tenets of transformational grammar:

- Transformational grammar offered a simple and elegant way to understand language, providing new insights in the underlying psychological mechanisms that phrase-structure grammar failed to do;

- As the grammar developed, it lost its simplicity and much of its elegance as a result of Chomsky's uncertainty regarding meaning. In his attempt to change and make the theory more abstract, it became more complex to a point that those with specialized training in linguistics were also perplexed;
- Chomsky's changes failed to solve certain issues as he refused to abandon deep structure, which is central to theory and underlies many of its problems, this influenced a shift to cognitive grammar;
- Over the years transformational grammar has gone through many changes. In 1995, Chomsky replaced its rules in previous versions of the grammar with more broader rules (e.g., a rule that allows constituents to be moved to different locations);
- Newer versions have emerged that differ in several respects from the original theory but still maintain the core idea that syntactic structure is central to our linguistic knowledge (See, for more on Transformational Grammar and Cognitive Grammar, Chapter 2, Sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.6).

While studying in America, Pat Hōhepa and Kenneth Hale were teaching a course on the structure of Māori at Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1969. Sandra Chung, a former student, would later draw on the information she learned in that course to write a paper on Māori language structures in case marking and grammatical relations (Chung, 1978, see *Preface*).

3.3.14 Sandra Chung (1978)

A case marking and grammatical relations in Polynesian written by Sandra Chung in 1978 analyzed a range of language features including, for example, surface syntax, morphology of case and voice, and case marking and grammatical relations in the Māori and other Polynesian languages. The syntactic analysis partially focused on the clause and parts of sentence structures, which was intended to set the stage for a discussion on case markings and the

typology of various Polynesian languages. Bauer (1981) says, “Chung identified a class of verbs she called middle verbs regarding them as a sub-class of transitive verbs as opposed to canonical transitives this class of verb was not generally recognized by previous authors of Māori grammars and Chung was the first person to mention them in print Reedy (1979) also recognized these verbs, which he called experience verbs (that he believed to be intransitive) is often used to describe them (p. 75). Bauer (1981) further says, “Chung in discussing these verbs in relation to several Polynesian languages defined them as perception verbs (e.g., see, listen to), verbs of emotion and other psychological states (e.g., love, want, understand), some communication verbs (meet with, help, call), and verbs such as follow, wait for, and visit but she notes that in particular languages, some of these may be canonical transitive āwhina = help in Māori appears to be one such case most experience verbs are often marked by the particle *ki* in the second argument but not all (e.g., Tūmanako ki, Mauāhara ki, Hiahia ki etc.) and with the exception of ‘kite = see’ some of the more common experience verbs are listed below:

- Tūmanako = hope
- Mauāhara = hate
- Hiahia = desire
- Hīhiri = long for
- Mahara = recollect
- Māharahara = worry
- Mīharo = marvel at” (pp. 75-77).

Crombie (1985b, pp. 100, 103) listed the following verb types, for example, *feel* or *like* as simple nominal, adjectival predicates (e.g., *He feels hungry. He likes music.*) which are often carried out by the case role known as Experiencer (i.e., the sentient entity directly involved in an experiential state) and where the third person pronoun *He* is the Experiencer. Fillmore (1968) says, the verb is central to the sentence (p. 41). With this in mind, I think the verb carries

more lexical meaning than the particles *i* and *ki* as far as describing te reo is concerned and should be a main focus of te reo study. The verb would play a major role in determining which case role/ roles (e.g., Agent, Patient) or particles should be used or not in particular structures, for example,

1. Ka pīrori te poro i te hiwi. The ball rolled down the hill.
2. Ka pīrori atu ngā tau. The years rolled on.

In 1, the verb of motion *roll* can tell us a lot about the participants (i.e., case roles) that should be involved in particular structures, that is, the ball (Object) and the hill (Range). The verb further tells us that the path of motion can occur in any direction involving appropriate participants. (e.g., down a hill, to the boy etc.). In 2, however, the verb takes on a metaphorical role (without *i* or *ki* particles) rather than one of motion when used in a clause of time. Other classifications of verbs in Māori sentence patterns could include, for example,

- Kei te hiahia tōku hoa ki te ako i te reo. (with experience verb and *i*)
- Ka rongo au i a ia. I heard him. (with perception verbs and *i*)
- Kei te pai taua waiata ki a ahau. I like that song. (with emotion verbs and *ki*)
- Kua whara tōku waewae i a au. I injured my leg. (with stative verbs and *i*)

Crombie's (1985b) study can provide a useful framework to categorize various verb forms expressed in the Māori language, determine the types of participants associated with these verbs, and the kinds of particles they may take on (*i*, *ki*, *ai* etc.) in a unified way (See, for more reo studies on these features, Bauer, 1981; Reedy, 1979; & Whaanga, 2006).

3.3.15 Tāmāti Reedy (1979)

Under the auspices of Professor Biggs, a PhD thesis titled *Complex Sentence Formation in Māori* written by Tāmāti Reedy in 1979 offered six chapters dedicated to an analysis of simple and complex sentence structures including case marking and verb types in the Māori language. Reedy (1979) says, “the analysis of simple sentences provided the foundation for the

description of more complex ones in Māori he defined the simple sentence as a grammatical unit that contains a verb and one or more arguments or noun phrase there are two types of simple sentence constructions in Māori including the simple verbal sentence and the simple non-verbal sentence the simple verbal sentence consists of a verb phrase plus one or more noun phrases the simple non-verbal sentence includes the following types, attributive, identifying, locational, and possessive” (p. 14, 18, 31-35). Reedy (1979) further says, the complex sentence contains two or more clauses in regard to coordination and domination and subordination clause relationships (pp. 70-71). Richards & Schmidt (2002, p. 96) defines a simple sentence as containing one predicate (e.g., I like milk) and defines a complex sentence as containing one or more dependent clauses, in addition to its independent, or main clause (e.g., When it rained, we went inside.). Reedy’s description seems to be compatible with this latter definition. The use of ‘coordination’ can include, *and* = addition; *but* = contrast; *or* = alternative choice that adds meaning to written or spoken text (Leech, Cruickshank, & Ivanic, 2001, pp. 44, 71, 348). Reedy (1979) investigated intransitive and transitive as the two main verb classes in his analysis (he also called Chung’s middle verbs, *experience verbs*), he later explained some semantic differences *between i* and *ki* markings in noun phrases (p. 18). He says, “*i* marks nominalized complements, *ki* marks both nominalized and deverbalized complements, and *kia...ai* clauses can express the reason for the action performed in that clause and can mean so that or accordingly” (p. 215). He also referred to case markings in regard to intransitive and transitive verb types that are marked by either *i* or *ki* and used semantic based labels, such as Patient, Agent, and Goal (pp. 21-22). The notion of case markings or case roles are very often associated with semantic based descriptions of language and usually refer to subject and object entities that occur in syntactic structures. An attempt to reclassify these entities beyond the conventional labels of subject and object began around the late 1960s. This seems to involve the designation of more accessible labels to describe differing

participants or entities and the roles they play in correlation with the verb within the clause or sentence in which they occur (See, for more on case roles, Chapter 2, Section 2.3.2.7 and Chapter 6, Section 6.2.2.2). With advancements in semantics, several signals (besides verbs) can inform us about different relationships that occur in particular structures, for example,

1. I didn't go to work *because* of covid. Kare au i haere ki te mahi *nā te* mate urutā.
2. This is *not* a pen, it's a pencil. *Ehara* tēnei i te pene, he pene rākau.

In 1, the semantic relationship reason-result is signaled by the subordinate conjunction *nā te* = *because*. In 2, the denial-correction relationship is marked by the negative word *ehara* = *not* which is part of a set structure with the particles *i te*. Generally speaking, the determination of a semantic relationship in syntactic structures very often involves a relationship between one or more of its arguments and (but not limited to) its related predicate as shown in 1 and 2 above. In both cases, the subordinate-conjunction *because* and negative *not* can act as cohesive devices or semantic signalers in inter-propositional relationships. Reedy's analysis shows a noteworthy attempt to adapt some aspects of semantic based principles in addition to a linguistic based description of te reo and further indicates his familiarity with these types of ideas at that time. Reedy (1979) also noted some of his main influences including (Biggs, 1961; Chung, 1970, 1978; Hōhepa, 1967; & Williams, 1862), and how their works extended on his own understanding of Māori syntax (p. 7).

3.3.16 Winifred Bauer (1981)

The works of Bauer written during the 1980s and 1990s (See, for example, Bauer, 1981, 1993, 1997) provides some of the most comprehensive descriptions of te reo Māori to date. Bauer's 1981 PhD thesis contains five chapters dedicated to a linguistic analysis and discussion on: a selection of earlier grammars (Chapter 1), an outline of the grammar (Chapter 2), case grammars (Chapter 3), relational grammar (Chapter 4), and conclusion (Chapter 5). For the most part, it provides some analysis and explanations of the grammar of the sentence, the

phrase structure, and grammar of the verb phrase as shown in Figures 3.33, 3.34, and 3.35 below.

2.4 The Grammar of the Sentence

2.4.1 Order of Constituents

As stated in 2.1.1, the basic order of constituents is VS(O). Other types of adverbial phrase follow these constituents, apparently according to some principle of semantic closeness to the obligatory constituents. The basic nominal phrases can also appear in the reverse order if the Subject is weighty. Thus Heavy NP Shift apparently functions in Maori in a fashion similar to many other languages. Time adverbials, and a few others which appear to be of desentential origin, can precede the verb, and there are two constructions discussed later in 2.4 whose function is to prepose a nominal phrase before the verb, but these latter are marked constructions. Nominal sentences require a separate section (see 2.4.5). The following examples illustrate these principles of constituent ordering, which hold for main and subordinate clauses:

(2151) Kei te waiata rāua
 at(pres) the sing they(2)
 'They are singing'

(2152) Kua kite ia i te auahi
 perf see he prep the smoke
 'He has seen the smoke'

Figure 3.33: Grammar of the sentence (Bauer, 1981)

2.1.2 Phrase Structure

The phrase is the most appropriate unit for the discussion of Maori syntax. This was first proposed by Biggs (1961), using the term "contour word". The term "phrase" has since become widely accepted. The phrase in Maori is a phonologically defined unit, bounded by potential pauses, which are usually realized in formal speech. Phrases are also structurally definable in Maori, having the general form

Phrase-type Marker + Head (+ Modifier(s)).

The Phrase-type Markers are a group of particles which mark the function of the phrase, and can be divided into two basic types: those marking verbal phrases, and those marking nominal phrases. In verbal phrases, the markers are chiefly tense/aspect, though subordinators also occur in this position. In nominal phrases, the markers are chiefly articles. These points are illustrated by the following:

(2002) Verbal Phrase:	Phrase-type Marker	Head	(Modifier(s))
	Tense/Aspect Particle		
	l	haere	atu
	past	move	away
	'went'		
	Subordinator		
	kia	hoki	mai
		return	hither
	'return'		

Figure 3.34: Phrase structure (Bauer, 1981)

2.3	The Grammar of the Verb Phrase	46
2.3.1	Order of Constituents	46
2.3.2	Directional Adverbs	48
2.3.3	Deictic Adverbs	51
2.3.4	Tense/Aspect Particles	52
2.3.4.1	Proposals for Tense	52
2.3.4.2	Previous Analyses of Maori Tense/Aspect	53
2.3.4.3	Markers of Absolute Tense	57
	<u>I</u>	57
	<u>Kei te</u>	57
	<u>I te</u>	58
	<u>E</u>	58
2.3.4.4	Markers of Relative Tense	61
	<u>Ka</u>	61
	<u>E ... ana</u>	63
2.3.4.5	Aspectual Particles	64
	<u>Kua</u>	64
	<u>Ai</u>	67
2.3.4.6	Summary	68
2.3.5	Mood Particles	69
2.3.6	Stative Verbs	70

Figure 3.35: Grammar of the verb phrase (Bauer, 1981)

In addition to a discussion on the notion of verb types, meaning, form, case marking, *i* and *ki* particles in regard to semantic ideas in previous studies by Biggs (1961); Chung (1978); and Reedy (1979), Bauer also discussed these features (most notably case grammar and relational grammar in Chapters 3 and 4 of her work). Nevertheless, Bauer (1981) says, “that many of the hypotheses were simple and have been refined in the course of the research . . . this study was an attempt to throw light on certain central aspects of the syntax of Māori using insights from case grammar and relational grammar . . . as a learner of *te reo*, the insights from these two

types of grammar helped me to formulate useful hypotheses about the structure of Māori their rules were useful this is not to deny the possibilities that other approaches to linguistic descriptions also have insights to provide” (pp. 1-2). Fillmore (1968) referred to case roles as a component of the grammar of every language there are many semantically relevant syntactic relationships involving nouns and the structures that contain them (pp. i, 9). A relational grammar assumes that syntax is phonology and semantics and the predicate is the central relation of a clause, it presupposes that term relations (e.g., subject, direct object, and indirect object) differ from other nominal relations in that they carry a range of semantic roles called oblique relations (e.g., benefactive, locative, instrumental) special attention should be paid to the predicate and to these relations because they participate in most grammatical rule statements and semantic roles (See, for more on relational grammar, Chapter 2, Section 2.2.3). Bauer (1981, pp. 139-140, 216, 241) applied the use of case role theory by Fillmore, 1968; Anderson, 1971; and Dik, 1978 and how they could be expressed in te reo Māori sentences with English translations as shown in Table 3.5 below.

Table 3.5: Different case roles encoded in Māori with English translations

Authors	Māori and English Translations	Case Roles
Fillmore	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kua hoki mai rāua <i>i</i> te whare mīraka. • They have returned from the milking shed. 	Source (movement of someone or something from a starting point)
Anderson	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kei te tū te pounamu <i>i</i> runga <i>i</i> te tēpu. • The bottle is standing on the table. 	Locative (the spatial location of an object).
Dik	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kua riri au <i>i</i> a Tamahae. • I am angry because of Tamahae. 	Experiencer (entity +/- that is said to be in a particular state).

Bauer’s 1981 study seemed to have used semantic based principles (as recognized today) in describing the Māori language which was similar in scope to Reedy’s study but this may not

have been the intention at that time. Nevertheless, I think their research has provided a foundation on which to build a more robust and detailed descriptive framework of te reo or, at the very least, to provide the basis for useful discussion on semantic concepts in this area of te reo study.

3.3.17 Ray Harlow (2001)

A Māori Reference Grammar written by Ray Harlow in 2001⁴¹ covers a range of grammatical points on the Māori language including a lengthy discussion on Māori phrase structure as encoded in simple and complex sentences. Harlow (2001) says, “this book was written to fill a perceived gap in the area of grammatical descriptions of the Māori language and that skilled learners of te reo frequently want accessible accounts and explanations of aspects of Māori structure which go beyond those readily available to them thus, this book is not a textbook for beginners” (p. 1). Furthermore, he says, “the book aims, principally, to do three things:

1. To set out a coherent and progressive model for the description of Māori sentence structures;
2. To serve as an introduction to think about and to discuss languages generally;
3. To provide some answers to the questions that readers will have about certain constructions (pp. 1-2).

Harlow (2001) says, his own thinking was influenced by (but not exclusive to) the works of (Bauer, 1981; Biggs, 1961; Hōhepa, 1967; & Reedy 1979) and that their work provided a basis for a serious study of te reo Māori (p. 2). Some of Harlow’s descriptions of the Māori phrase reflects the ideas of Biggs by using the terms nucleus, preposed and postposed periphery, for example, Te whare nei in which te = preposed – whare = nucleus – nei = postposed (Biggs,

⁴¹ Ray Harlow, a classicist from Zurich University and Professor of Linguistics at Waikato University, has produced many works over the last 30 years based on linguistic analysis of the structure, maintenance, and development of the Māori language. (See, <http://www.huia.co.nz/huia-bookshop/authors/author/172>).

1969, p. 18). Since the introduction of these terms in the 1960s, it seems they have retained some popularity with Harlow in his own studies (i.e., 2001 and 2006) as shown in Figures 3.36 and 3.37 below.

3.2.2 The structure of the nucleus

3.2.2.1 The nucleus

The nucleus of virtually all Māori phrases consists of one or more **bases**. Sections 3.2.2.2 and 3.2.2.3 describe the cases where there are more than one base in the nucleus of a phrase. Cases where there is nothing at all in the nucleus are discussed in 3.2.5.

In older texts there are instances of some verb phrases (for the types of phrase, see 3.2.4) in which the nucleus itself consists of a phrase. That is, a phrase acts as if it were a base, and can even be made passive. These are always phrases starting with *mā*, *nā*, *rā* meaning 'by way of', and the whole phrase containing such a nucleus means 'to go by way of...' or 'to carry by way of...'. For example:

Mā te matapihitia mai
'Pass (it) in through the window'

[[\emptyset ¹³]_{PRP} [*Mā te matapihitia*]_{NUCLEUS} [*mai*]_{POP}]_{PHRASE}

where the part in bold is itself a phrase.

¹³ This \emptyset is one of the ways of expressing a command, cf. below, sections 3.2.3.1.1a, 7.1.1 and 7.1.2.

Figure 3.36: Nucleus of the phrase (Harlow, 2001)

Postposed particles

A number of particles may occur following the lexical material in phrases.¹⁶ With very few exceptions, the same particles may occur in phrases of any type.¹⁷ Many of these particles fall into paradigms, of which generally only one member may occur at a time. Again, generally speaking, when more than one of these particles are present, the same ordering is found.¹⁸ In addition to the core meanings of these particles, a number of combinations have idiomatic senses (see especially Harlow 2001:103–6).

The particles which occur nearest the lexical material (follow the nucleus, in Biggs' terms) are a group usually called 'manner' particles. Unique among particles, these undergo 'passive agreement' and optionally also 'nominalisation agreement' (see chapter 5). Examples are *tonu* 'still', *kē* 'other', *rawa* 'intensive', though caution is necessary with these glosses, as the meaning of these particles varies greatly from environment to environment. For instance:

Kei.te māuiui tonu . . .

TA sick Manner

' . . . is still ill'

Tae tonu atu rātou, . . .

arrive Manner Dir. 3Pl.

'As soon as they arrived, . . .'

ko koe tonu

P 2Sg. Manner

'you yourself'

Figure 3.37: Postposed periphery of the phrase (Harlow, 2006)

For some Māori language teachers, the challenge may involve finding meaningful ways to teach these terms in their own lessons. Taking the example *Te (preposed) whare (nucleus) nei (postposed)*, a range of descriptions of te reo today very often use terms with which reo teachers are more familiar, for example, *Te (definite article) whare (noun) nei (particle)* but this may not necessarily make it any easier to teach or learn these terms in the L2 context. The teachers might choose to teach them or not according to their own decisions and/ or educational goals. Interestingly, Harlow (2001) also briefly refers to some notions of semantics and language

description in his study, such as case role labels and temporal overlap relationships (pp. 165-166, 242) as shown in Figures 3.38 and 3.39 below.

Source and goal with movement verbs

Verbs expressing some kind of movement are frequently accompanied by phrases naming the place from which the movement started (the source) and the place to which it is ending (the goal). These comments are introduced respectively by *i* from and *ki* to:

- Kua tae mai te pahi i Rotorua.
The bus has arrived from Rotorua.
- Ā tērā atu wiki ka taraiwa atu mātou ki Tapuaetahi ki reira haere ai.
The week after next, we are driving to Tapuaetahi to have a holiday.

Similar expressions are used as comments to words denoting distance or measurement. The *from* comment is then often also introduced by *mai i* = *from* in place of just *i*. and the *to* comment can be replaced by *tae (noa) atu as far as, right up to*.

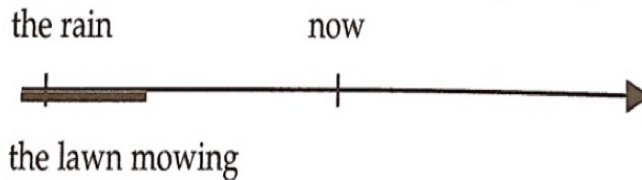
Figure 3.38: Case roles, source and goal (Harlow, 2001)

b) while

In some cases, the relationship between the event or state of affairs of the clause of time and the event of the main clause is that the former is ongoing, and the latter occurs at some point during it or itself takes up the same length of time. The English word 'while' is frequently used to mark this relationship. Consider this example:

'While he was mowing the lawn, it began to rain'

Here the main clause is the expression 'it began to rain'; the clause 'while he was mowing the lawn' states when the rain began, so it is a clause of time. Note, however, that the action of mowing the lawn is treated as an ongoing event, during which the rain began. Graphically:



The most common way of expressing this idea in Māori is illustrated in the example:

I a rātou i reira, ka mate te koroua
'While they were there, the old man died'

Their being there is the ongoing state of affairs during which the event of the koroua's death occurred. Thus, the expression *I a rātou i reira* is the clause of time. Compare its form with the corresponding statement, *I reira rātou* 'They were there'. The clause of time here is initiated by the **preposition** *i*, followed by the **subject** of the clause *rātou*. Since this is a pronoun, it takes the **personal**

Figure 3.39: Temporal Overlap (Harlow, 2001)

Although Crombie (1985b, p.103) extends on and provides more clarity on these semantic terms as shown in Table 3.6 below, nonetheless Harlow's description shows some compatibility with Crombie in regard to what each one entails.

Table 3.6: Crombie's descriptions of Source, Goal, and Temporal Overlap

Semantic Relationships	Descriptions	Examples
Source (S)	This is the location of an entity at the beginning of a movement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The book fell from the table (S).
Goal (G)	This is the location of an entity at the end of a movement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The book fell from the table (S) to the chair (G).
Temporal Overlap (TO)	This links to events, which overlap wholly or partly in time.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> He whistled as (TO) he washed the dishes. He glanced over his shoulder as (TO) he fled.

The following sentence example shows the case roles, source, and goal in correlation with *i* and *ki* particles, *Ka taka te pukapuka mai i te tēpu* (Source) *ki te tūru* (Goal). The book fell *from* the table *to* the chair. The notion of temporal overlap can be signaled in different ways using English words like *as* or *while*, and using Māori equivalents like *i...ka*, *nō*, *i e...ana*, or *kei...ana*, (See, for example, Harlow, 2001, pp. 242-243).

- *I a rātou i reira, ka mate te koroua. While they were there, the old man died.*
- *Nō rātou i reira.... While they were there....*
- *I a au e tamariki ana, i noho mātou i Taupo. While I was growing up, we lived in Taupō.*
- *Rapua a Ihowā kei kitea ana ia. Seek the Lord while He may be found.*

The notions of semantics and te reo descriptions discussed above could have the potential a) to aid teachers in designing syllabus and lesson content and teaching resources in unambiguous and more meaningful ways, b) to provide quick reference and accessibility to information on

many aspects of te reo, and c) to provide some consistency in terms of coherent and cohesive arrangement of some aspects of te reo under semantic categories (e.g., source, goal, temporal etc.). Structure linguistic description might play a secondary and supportive role in designing a specification of te reo Māori with semantics playing the primary role. Harlow's references to semantics, like Biggs, Reedy, and Bauer before him demonstrates a collective awareness and inclusion of this type of description in Māori language studies, although it may not have been completely understood at that or the present time, hence the need for more research. Finally, other linguistic studies in Māori include (Clark, 1973; Johansen, 1948; Karena-Holmes, 2006; Krupa, 1964; Mark, 1970; Mutu-Grigg, 1982; Pearce, 1964; & Smyth, 1939).

3.4 Māori language grammars in history: Timeline 2

A summary of key points regarding the fourteen grammar books on te reo Māori is given in chronological order as shown in Table 3.7 below.

Table 3.7: Māori language grammars in history: Timeline 2

Dates	Studies
1769	Captain Cook produced the first known written account of the Māori language with a small list of words. It marked a transitional stage for te reo taking it from an oral language to a written one.
1770	Joseph Banks compiled a larger list of comparative words based on the Northern and Southern Māori and Tahitian dialects. He provided a list of assumptions on te reo that may be the first basic analytical description of the language predating Kendall's study in 1815.
1815	Thomas Kendall conducted the first serious attempt at compiling a very basic analysis of the Māori language. It makes use of some aspects of structure linguistics to describe different features of te reo including phonemes, morphemes, and syntax.

1820	Professor Samuel Lee, a qualified linguist, revised the initial work started by Kendall in 1815. His revision designated no less than thirteen letters adapted from the English alphabet to form a phonological and orthography for te reo. This work was assisted by two Far Northern chiefs, Hongi Hika and Waikato, this could be considered as the first international collaboration of Māori language studies involving first-hand Māori interaction.
1842	Robert Maunsell's grammar supplanted the works of Lee & Kendall (1820) and provided many valuable insights into the structure of te reo.
1848	Henry Kemp produced one of the first phrase books on te reo. It served as a manual for European colonizers to engage in simple conversations with local Māori on a range of topics (e.g., land purchases).
1857	Charles Davis included loanwords in Māori with English equivalents in his work that introduced new words to the Māori language to accommodate them.
1862	William Leonard Williams' grammar section was remarkably free from Latin syntax and for its insights into te reo, he first recognized the categories of local nouns and his grammar was "extraordinarily free from prescriptive tendencies being more specific about the structure of te reo and less concerned with the grammatical expectations of those familiar only with Indo-European languages.
1885	Sister Mary Aubert organized her description of te reo, an innovative work at that time, into categories of situations (e.g., at the hotel) and topics (e.g., talking about the weather) with example sentences related to everyday social living.
1913	Henry Stowell (aka Hāre Hongi), a scholar from Ngāpuhi, was the first Māori to write a description of te reo after nearly a century of European authors writing in this space.

1961	Bruce Biggs' PhD thesis pioneered the analysis of the internal structure of the Māori 'phrase' as the basic unit of te reo sentences. His highly influential textbook 'Let's learn Māori' extended on this work. He made some very interesting statements about the notion of semantic based ideas that, in a small way, predated the works of Bauer, 1981; & Reedy, 1979.
1967	Pat Hōhepa investigated the notion of generative grammar to describe the Māori language, particularly on the different occurrences of morphemes as they occurred in te reo.
1978	Sandra Chung identified 'middle verb' classes inherent in te reo that were not generally recognized by previous authors of Māori language grammars.
1979	Tāmami Reedy analyzed a range of Māori word classes such as, for example, verbs and nouns and how they were organized in simple and complex sentence structures. Like Biggs, he also referenced semantic ideas in his analysis including verb types, i and ki particles etc.
1981	Winifred Bauer's PhD thesis and studies produced some of the most comprehensive linguistic analysis and descriptions of the Māori language to date. The thesis covered a large focus on semantic ideas to a description of the Māori language (e.g., case grammar, relational grammar etc.). It seemed similar in scope to Reedy's work.
2001	Ray Harlow (in his book a Māori reference grammar) says, it was written to fill a perceived gap in the grammatical description of the language. His works have served as popular resources for teaching and learning te reo in New Zealand and refers to some semantic ideas, such as case roles and temporal overlap.

3.5 Summary of the key findings

The following sections will begin with a general statement on linguistic description (3.5.1), and then a short summary of each Māori grammar above will be given in regard to three periods of development, that is, the early period (3.5.2), the late period (3.5.3), and the modern period (3.5.4). A closing statement will be provided, particularly in regard to notions of semantic based ideas and descriptions that were referred to in the grammars (3.5.5).

3.5.1 General statement on linguistic description

The types of theories in linguistic description that have developed over time have significantly contributed to a greater understanding of why and how the Māori language can work in certain ways at different phonological, morphological, and syntactic levels and this has had a lasting impact on the teaching and learning of te reo Māori in the L2 context. This has informed Māori language teachers to certain degrees in their own teaching practices as they strive to design best models to help their students become knowledgeable and skillful users of te reo Māori for communication in various social contexts. Also, this information can be useful in the development of beneficial resources for educational purposes. Although structure linguistics plays an important role in Māori language description, it could significantly benefit from a semantic based one that is more communicatively oriented. The following three historical periods will summarize the Māori grammars above in which they evolved:

- The early period (1769-1820);
- The late period (1842-1885);
- The modern period (1913-2000).

3.5.2 The early period (1769-1820)

Captain Cook (1769) with the assistance of Tupaia, a Tahitian navigator, onboard the Endeavour ship wrote down a small list of vocabulary while anchored off the North Island of

Aotearoa (Cook, 1769). It included nouns and proper nouns (e.g., pattoo or patu, a short, hand-held club; and tovy-poenammu or Te Wai Pounamu, South Island of New Zealand). This is the first earliest known record of te reo to be documented taking it from an oral language to a written one. Joseph Banks (1770), the chief botanist, on board the Endeavor identified similarities in languages between the people of the South Seas and concluded they originated from the same source (Banks, 1770). Banks compiled a simple comparative list of Northern and Southern Māori, and Tahitian words, which he described as the same at least in fundamentals. His list included 42 lexical items consisting of nouns, verbs, body parts, negation, and numbers. It also included some interesting commentary in the footnotes, for example, the phrase *he* seems to act as the indefinite article ‘*a*’ in the English (*he ika*, *a fish*), the indefinite ‘*he*’ was used more in the South than ‘*e*’; the definite article ‘*the*’ was seen in words like (yams: tuphwe or *te uhi*), some words provided evidence of consonantal ambiguity, Banks seems to have grasped the ‘*ng*’ sound, the word ‘*oeia*’ signifying ‘*yes*’ indicated an affirmative response to a question, there were more lexical items in the North than the South, and writing down words facilitated pronunciation (pp. 35-37). Banks’ notes could be considered as the first basic analytic description of te reo at that time predating Kendall’s analysis in 1815. Thomas Kendall (1815) carried out a more reasonable attempt to describe te reo in which his book served as a primer and vocabulary covering subjects like the English alphabet, numerals, syllables of two and three letters, vocabulary, and short sentences, longer sentences in Māori and English, vocabulary of Māori and English, and specimens of parts of speech in Māori and English (Kendall, 1815, see *Extract*). Kendall used the English alphabet to work out a simple orthographic description of te reo and to discriminate between the sounds of short and long vowels (marked by the accent acute symbol) and consonants including vocabulary. In his book, Kendall seems to have adapted some aspects of Western ideas of language to certain features of te reo Māori to describe the very basics of its systems. He used,

for example, particular arrangements of the English alphabet, such as pairing consonants with vowels, and diphthongs to work out a pronunciation chart of te reo Māori. It seemed that Kendall experienced some initial challenges with describing the Māori language for the first-time including issues with phonology, writing sentences, vocabulary items, and new words and concepts that were otherwise foreign in Māori cultural beliefs. Lee and Kendall (1820) extended on Kendall's initial study under the auspices of Professor Samuel Lee, a skilled linguist in Oriental languages at Cambridge University, and with the assistance of two Rangatira or Māori chiefs, Waikato and Hongi Hika from Ngāpuhi. It showed some important breakthroughs and improvements on Kendall's first attempt in 1815. Firstly, Professor Lee brought a more qualified and professional view to the analysis of te reo Māori. Secondly, Lee made use of the Latin script assigning no less than 13 letters to the phonological and orthographic system of te reo. Thirdly, Lee improved on the macrons using Sanskrit as a basis for marking short and long sounding vowels.

3.5.3 The late period (1842-1885)

Maunsell (1842), a clergyman with a classical education and background in Hebrew studies, wrote his grammar on Māori 22 years after Lee & Kendall. It described parts of speech that were typical in the analysis of Indo-European languages, this was, however, not always adequately suited to this end, it did not always work, nevertheless his contributions contained valuable insights and information on te reo structure. Kemp (1848) produced a grammar and phrase book on Māori that served a slightly different purpose from a grammar despite containing a section on pronunciation, a small description of the grammar, bilingual lists of sentences in English and Māori relating to specific topics and lists of vocabulary, he revised this work in 1879. Kemp's phrase book served the colonists with a resource to converse with local Māori on a range of topics, for example, the purchasing of land and resources in particular. The production and appearance of English-Māori phrase books sometimes were met with

suspicion from local Māori for their intended use where natural resources were concerned. Davis (1857), in his phrase book, used gainwords as a means of introducing new vocabulary and concepts to the Māori language that otherwise did not exist. This approach seems to be based on some phonological equivalence for the creation of new words (e.g., wheat = witi). Duvall suggested replacing the terms loan words and loaning with the terms gainwords and gaining as the process for developing and introducing new words and concepts to a language for the first time. He says, the terms loan words and loaning can express negative connotations of colonial imperialism and supremacy. William L Williams' (1862) grammar section showed a type of freedom from Latin syntax and for its perceptions into te reo, he first recognized a specific category of local nouns and his grammar was “extraordinarily free from rigid tendencies being more specific about te reo structures and less concerned with the typical grammatical expectations of those familiar only with Indo-European languages. Aubert (1885) wrote an innovated grammar including the use of situations (e.g., at the hotel) and topics (e.g., to express friendship) with examples of phrases in English and Māori. The categorization of te reo into a range of everyday social situations and topics for conversational purposes was a pioneering work at that time. It seems that Aubert's grammar may have been one of the last to be written during the late nineteenth century and with that came a) the close of a long period of European authors writing grammars on te reo and b) the beginning of the modern period that saw a number of notable Māori scholars beginning to write their own descriptions of te reo.

3.5.4 The modern period (1913-2000)

Stowell (1913), a scholar and educationalist from Ngāpuhi, has been accredited with being the first Māori to write and publish a work on the grammar of the Māori language. There were a number of handbooks in circulation on the Māori language including grammars and vocabularies at that time. In addition to the familiar grammar descriptions of te reo, Stowell also included information on colors, insects, and planets including samples of poetic prose and

insights from a Ngāpuhi perspective. The latter subjects seemed to be largely absent in previous European-based grammars and demonstrated an innovative approach to describing other aspects of the Māori language. Biggs (1961) pioneered the analysis of the internal structure of the Māori phrase that he broke down into three parts (i.e., the nucleus, the preposed periphery, and the postposed periphery). He used a sophisticated system to identify the behaviour of certain morphemes in Māori syntax and later extended on this work in his influential textbook called *Let's learn Māori* published in 1973. It is noteworthy that Biggs (1961) made some very interesting comments on language notions that are often associated with semantic ideas in which he says, for example, the relating of form and meaning is achieved, more or less successfully, by all speakers, native or otherwise, of any language; it is, however, narrowly attempted by the structural linguist who at present possesses no techniques for the structuring of meaning that would allow it to be related usefully to the formal structure of a language. These observations could be considered as some of the first references to semantic based notions of language in a study on te reo Māori. Pat Hōhepa (1967) used a profile-generative approach and the transformational-generative grammar to analyze minor morphemes within the structure of Māori syntax. This approach provided the rules and lists for generating the phonology, the rules for isolating phrase types, and the rules and lists for the transformational-generative grammar section in his study. Hōhepa indicated that a transformational grammar is a finite set of rules and lists needed to generate all (and only) the sentences of a language, although all non-complex sentences are generated, the grammar does not claim to be exhaustive. Chung (1978) analyzed a range of case marking and grammatical relations in the Māori and other Polynesian languages in regard to surface syntax, morphology of case and voice, and case marking and grammatical relations. Her analysis partially focused on the clause and parts of sentence structures and set the stage for a discussion on case markings and the typology of these languages. Chung identified a class of verbs she defined as *middle verbs*

regarding them as a sub-class of transitive verbs as opposed to recognized transitives, this class of middle verbs was not generally known by previous Māori grammar authors and Chung was the first person to identify them in print. Reedy (1979) provided an analysis of simple and complex sentence structures including case marking and verb types in the Māori language. He investigated intransitives and transitives as the two main verb classes in his analysis, and called Chung's middle verbs, experience verbs, he also explained some semantic differences between *i* and *ki* markings in NPs. He indicated that *i* marks nominalized complements, *ki* marks both nominalized and deverbalized complements, and *kia...ai* clauses can express the reason for the action performed in that clause and can mean 'so that' or 'accordingly'. He also referred to case roles, such as Patient, Agent, and Goal, which are often used in semantic based descriptions and how they can link to intransitive and transitive verb types that are marked by either *i* or *ki* particles. Bauer (1981) provided some of the most comprehensive descriptions of te reo Māori (during the 1980s and 1990s). In her study, she discussed various features in the Māori language (e.g., syntax, verb types, and word classes etc.) incorporating semantic based concepts into parts of the analysis. This included the notion of meaning, form, *i* and *ki* particles, particularly case grammar or case roles, and relational grammar theory. Her study was an attempt to explore certain central aspects of the syntax of Māori using insights from case grammar and relational grammar and that their rules were useful. Bauer's 1981 research, I think was the first real attempt to investigate and adapt semantic theories to a description of the Māori language whether intentional or not. Harlow (2001) discusses at length aspects of the Māori phrase structure as encoded in simple and complex sentences including some reference to semantic based aspects of language description, such as case role labels and temporal overlap relationships. His explanations are also compatible with Crombie's definitions who extends on these concepts and provides more clarity in terms of what they entail.

3.5.5 Closing statement:

From the mid-modern period onwards (around the 1960s), a number of comments on semantic based ideas appeared in studies on the Māori language and began to pick up some momentum around the late-1970 and early-1980s onwards that saw a more concerted effort to include them in a description of te reo. Although semantic principles may not have been fully understood at that time (perhaps due to being a new or scarcely known area of language description), the current advancements in this phenomenon can provide a clearer picture of what they could entail and offer so far as Māori language pedagogy and acquisition in L2 studies is concerned. This has seen a positive shift towards investigating semantic theorizing in addition to a linguistic approach to describe te reo based on studies, such as Bauer, 1981; Biggs, 1961; and Reedy, 1979. However, a number of studies that are more congruent with current research in this area include Crombie, 1985b; Houia, 2001; Johnson, 2010a; Nock, 2014; and Whaanga, 2006.

Chapter 4: A selection of six textbooks on the Māori language

4.1 Introduction

Textbooks designed for teaching language could be considered as containing both prescriptive and descriptive rules that tell teachers and learners something about how language works. The prescriptive rules tend to focus on what we should and should not do when we use language (Learning Media, 1996, p. 27). These rules usually focus on what is “considered the best or most correct usage . . . they are not based on descriptions of actual usage but rather on the grammarian’s view of what is best” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 453). The descriptive rules, on the other hand, are “statements about what is normal in language use, language is rule governed and not haphazard or chaotic” (Learning Media, 1996, p. 28). These rules tend to describe how a language is “actually spoken or written and does not state or prescribe how it ought to be spoken or written” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 164). The use of these rules and how they are presented in textbooks in meaningful grammatical descriptions is central to the development of the knowledge and skills of second language learners. In addition, language textbooks often include internal aids (e.g., tasks or exercises) or external aids (e.g., audio recordings) to consolidate or reinforce language learning. Textbooks, therefore, should play an important role in the facilitation of that development in the learners for whom they are intended. This chapter aims to explore how textbooks on te reo makes use of these rules and aids for the teaching and learning of the Māori language. To begin, it will provide a brief overview of European textbooks and te reo in New Zealand’s colonial history (4.2), it will outline some general characteristics of what a language-based textbook entails (4.3), provide some commentary on six select textbooks on the Māori language (4.4), and then provide a summary of the key findings (4.5).

4.2 Overview of European textbooks and te reo in New Zealand's colonial history

When William Leonard Williams' 1862 grammar book appeared on the scene, the New Zealand school curriculum was already setup to teach European-based subjects (e.g., geography, math, and history). Stenson (1990) says, "By the early 1870s the New Zealand school curriculum was organized into levels known as standard (e.g., history was taught in standards five and six) . . . local texts were not available until the 1890s and early twentieth century, and school work was very much determined by what textbooks were at hand British texts were inadequate and inaccurate, one account of the Māori stated that their huge hideous idols are called maraes, some text confused New Zealand with Australia by the 1890s, there was an obvious need for more familiar material in secondary schools, it was the principal who determined the curriculum, prescribed and chose the texts . . . the curriculum was based on the English grammar school⁴² which was designed to prepare children for university . . . subjects studied were English, French, Latin, Greek, the classics dominated the curriculum of the New Zealand secondary schools" (pp. 168-170). With this emphasis on the subject of history, there seemed to be no mention of any textbooks or materials on the Māori language for teachers in that same curriculum. Up until the early 1970s, the New Zealand land wars, a series of armed conflicts between the settler government and Māori (1845-1872) were raging throughout the land (O'Malley, 2019). This dire situation would have created uneasy tensions between Māori and Pākehā with breakdowns in relationships and communications. The possibility of a serious focus on the Māori language in a formal educational setting may have been a futile effort considering the minimal attention that a focus on history had received at that period.

⁴² The Grammar School system, a controversial educational model from the United Kingdom, selected pupils on academic merit and capability. It focused on academic studies with the aim that their students would go on to higher education (i.e., university level). It taught, for example, history, geography, math, and the classical languages. Being a state-funded entity, the power of control was clearly in the hands of the Ministry of Education (See, for example, Danechi, 2020).

During this colonial history, several events would negatively impact on Māori life including 1) the reduction of the Māori population, 2) the disruption to the Māori culture, and 3) the decline of the Māori language. By the turn of the twentieth century, the Māori population had dropped from at least 100,000 due to high mortality rates, disease, and war (Pool & Kukutai, 2011, pp. 1-2) to less than 50,000 (Statistics New Zealand, 2015). Benton (1991) says, a decline in population would naturally lead to a decline in te reo and that Māori was the dominant language of New Zealand from around 1840 to 1970 (p. 24). Griffith, Maslen, & Harvey (1997) says, “from 1840 to 1970, the widespread use of the Māori language would inevitably succumb to the increasing use of the English language . . . spurred on by the rising numbers of European migrants and the prevalent use of English-based print media, for example, newspapers or educational materials” (p. 6). Considering the rise in the European population and media control, this would have created a strong basis for the distribution and assimilation of European-based languages into every corner of society throughout Aotearoa, particularly Māori-occupied communities. The New Zealand Government policy of the 1867 Native School Act was a means to an end, it legislated English only as the main medium of instruction in schools (New Zealand Government, 1867, p. 470).⁴³ By the early 1900s, the use of the Māori language was eventually phased out in native schools under the ‘direct method’ that was introduced by the school inspector William Bird. Under this method, te reo was spoken less frequently and many teachers discouraged its use, even in the playground (Christoffel, 2011, p. 31). Te reo Māori played a very secondary role in facilitating English instruction and Māori children were punished for speaking it at school (Calman, 2012, p. 1). Spolsky (2005) described how native speakers of te reo went through a type of three-stage filtration process taking them

⁴³ The Native School Act formed a national system of “village primary schools” under the auspices of the Native Department, which was later transferred to the Department of Education in 1879. The 1880 Native Schools’ code became the standard statute for the establishment of a school, the curriculum, hours of instruction, and governance including the compulsory attendance of Māori in 1894 (New Zealand Government, 1880).

from monolingual speakers of Māori to bilingual speakers of both Māori and English, to monolingual speakers of English only (p. 69) as shown in Figure 4.1 below.

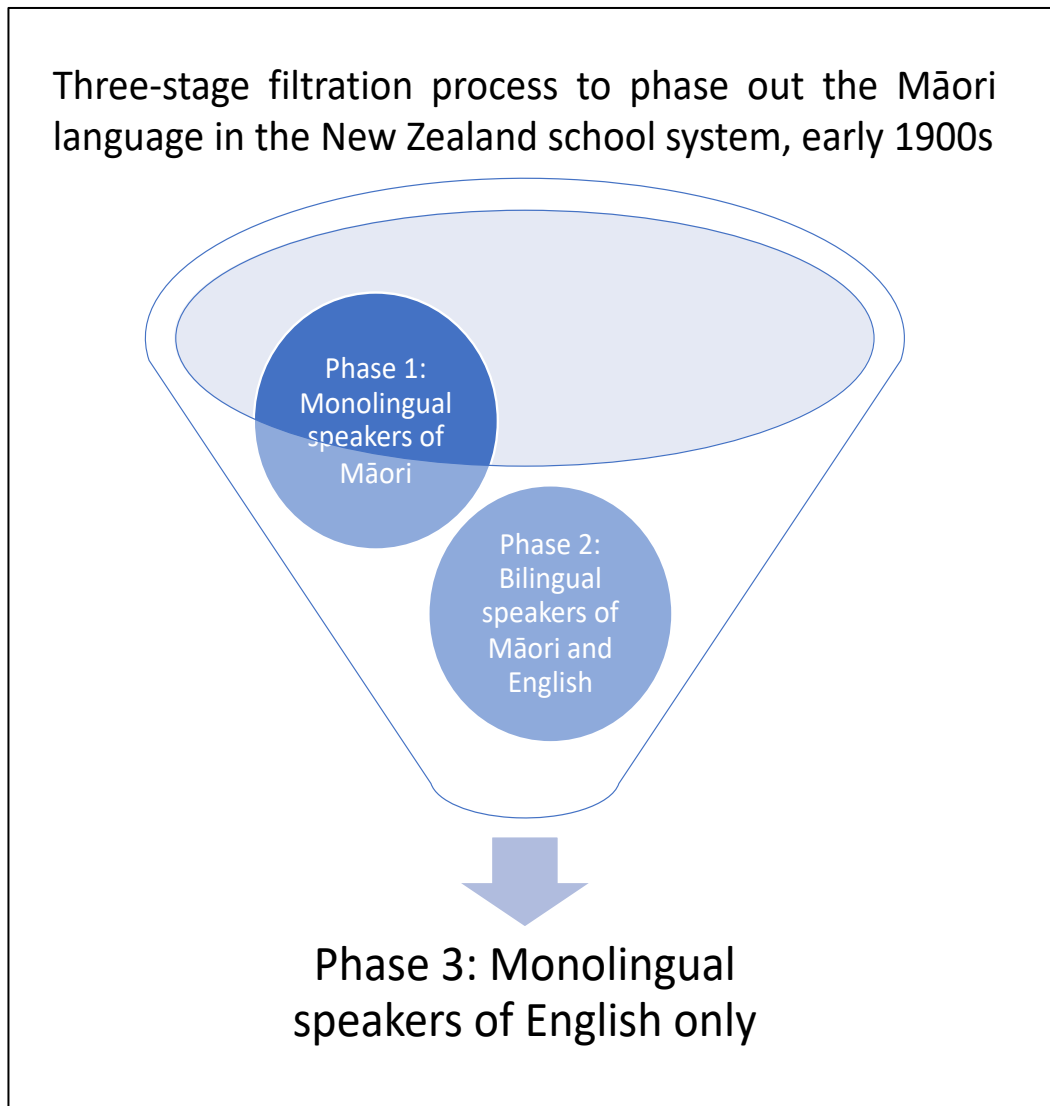


Figure 4.1: Three-stage monolingual-bilingual-monolingual process (Spolsky, 2005)⁴⁴

Meredith (2000) says, “the commencement of World War II was also detrimental to Māori in which young men who were considered not eligible for military service were mobilized into industries to support the war effort this mobilisation initiated the beginning of the movement of Māori from rural to urban centers this movement intensified post WWII creating a policy of pepper potting or dispersing Māori throughout the European population as

⁴⁴ This figure was created by the author of this thesis using data from the author-date reference in the parentheses. The figure does not appear in the actual source referenced.

a means of integration the urbanization of Māori intensified the threat of cultural losses that had begun with European contact and colonisation” (pp. 2-4). Under all these conditions, the disruption in traditional ways of living would have been swift and absolute, dispossessing Māori from both culture and language. Around the 1970s, however, a number of significant initiatives were set in motion to counteract these effects on the Māori culture and language such as, for example, the Māori language petition of 1972 to teach te reo in schools⁴⁵, the opening of Kōhanga Reo (Māori language school for pre-school children) in 1982⁴⁶, the Māori Language Act that recognized te reo as the official language of Aotearoa and the establishment of the Māori Language Commission in 1987⁴⁷, and the launch of the Māori Television service in 2003.⁴⁸ In addition, the publication of textbooks on te reo would also play and continues to play an important role in addressing some of the impacts of colonisation, particularly in the educational sector as described below in Section 4.4.

4.3 Some general characteristics of a language textbook

Nock (2017) says, “textbooks cannot completely fulfil the requirements of language teaching and that they should be used with some caution in lesson planning although they can provide teachers with the necessary support during their teaching practices, it is somewhat

⁴⁵ In 1972, Ngā Tamatoa, translated as Young Warriors, The Māori Language Society, and pro-Māori groups, collected a petition of over 30,000 signatures and called on the New Zealand Government to offer the Māori language in schools. It was delivered to Parliament on 14 September 1972 and set a precedent in redressing the decline of te reo Māori at that time. Some of the leaders included Syd Jackson, Hana Te Hemara, Tame Iti, and Cathy Dewes among others. The event was commemorated with the establishment of Māori Language Day which became Māori Language Week or Te Wiki o te Reo Māori in 1975 (Winitana, 2011, pp. 17, 29-31).

⁴⁶ The Kōhanga Reo movement, an educational system for pre-school children, was set up to protect, maintain and strengthen the Māori language and to immerse mokopuna (grandchildren) into the Māori culture, language, and its customs. As a family-oriented kaupapa (initiative) with native speakers teaching te reo to children, the first Kōhanga was opened in Wainuiomata, Aotearoa, in 1982 (See, <https://www.kohanga.ac.nz>).

⁴⁷ In 1985, the Waitangi Tribunal asserted that te reo Māori was a taonga (treasure) under the Treaty of Waitangi. After recommendations and legislative policies were put in place, the Māori Language Act was formed to recognize and establish te reo as the official language of Aotearoa on 1 August 1987. The act also prompted the establishment of Te Taurawhiri i te reo (the Māori Language Commission) to promote te reo as a living language for communication (New Zealand Government, 1987, pp. 3-5).

⁴⁸ This service was established under the Māori Television Service (Te Aratuku Whakāta Irirangi Māori) Act on May 7, 2003. Under Section 8 of the Act, “the principal function of the service is to contribute to the protection and promotion of te reo Māori and its customs through the provision in te reo Māori and English of a high-quality, cost-effective television service that informs, educates, and entertains viewers and enriches New Zealand’s society, culture, and heritage” (New Zealand Government, 2003, pp. 10-11).

concerning, however, that despite research-based developments in language studies, textbooks have not been revised for over 40 years (p. 13). Although this chapter, and indeed the entire thesis is specifically focused on language description regarding linguistic and semantic theorizing rather than language teaching, nevertheless both language description and language teaching are inseparably connected and textbooks would provide one way to facilitate this practice. It might be useful, therefore, to provide some general characteristics of what a language textbook might entail. Based on my own personal experiences with textbooks as a L2 learner, teacher, and researcher of te reo, they very often include (but not limited to) one or more of the following features listed below.

- A pronunciation guide;
- Stories or topics to contextualize language learning and usage;
- Bilingual dialogues for practicing both the source and target languages;
- A section on grammar that describes and explains how the target language works;
- Example sentences in both the first and second languages (e.g., Māori and English);
- Lessons, exercises, and task-based activities to consolidate language learning;
- Visual aids to enhance or to reinforce learning;
- Tests and answer keys for testing what students have learnt and for checking their progress;
- Lists of vocabulary in both the source and target languages;
- Supplementary materials, online activities, or audio recordings etc.

This list is, in no way, put forward as definitive but might help Māori language teachers to discriminate between textbooks and grammar books (See, for a definition of grammar books, Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1). Nunan (1988) also characterized textbooks in the following ways:

- The materials should promote the objectives of the curriculum prescribed by the authority (i.e., the language teacher);

- The authenticity of the materials should be ensured;
- The materials should stimulate interaction;
- The materials should prompt the learners to pay attention to the formal aspects of language;
- The materials should encourage learners to develop learning skills;
- The materials should encourage learners to apply their developing skills to the world beyond the classroom (pp. 1-14).

Harmer (2001) also listed similar characteristics of textbooks/ coursebooks which he says, “should comprise carefully prepared content of a coherent syllabus, satisfactory language control, motivating texts, tapes, videotapes, CD-ROMs, extra resource material, and also useful web links . . . they might provide detailed guidance for teachers in terms of procedures for lessons and offer suggestions, alternatives, and extra activities . . . students might also use textbooks for revision in which their visual and topic-based content could have very positive and engaging effects” (p. 304). However, Harmer further says, “when used inappropriately, textbooks can impose learning styles and content on classes and teachers over which they have little control . . . textbook topics can sometimes be bland and culturally inappropriate . . . nevertheless, teachers can opt out of using them and to employ a do it yourself approach but this would require a vast knowledge, for example, in syllabus design” (pp. 304-305). For a schematic view of a suggested curriculum structure and where the syllabus and lesson components are placed within that structure (See, Appendix 4.1). Furthermore, Richards & Schmidt (2002) says, “an over-dependence on textbooks could deskill teachers, since textbooks do much of the thinking and planning, which teachers themselves should be allowed to do and, therefore, they should not be considered as the sole resources for teaching and/ or learning” (pp. 152, 162). Interestingly, some of the titles that appeared on Māori grammar books during the 1800s often included formal terms, such as grammar, reference, vocabulary, conversation,

instructions, phrase, complete, manual, tutor, vade mecum, structure, or descriptive etc. On the other hand, some of the titles on Māori textbooks that appeared after the mid-1800s seems to have adopted less-formal terms such as lessons, learning, teaching, elementary, guide, study, facilitate, beginners, new approach, course, or program etc. Such titles may have reflected the book's intended purpose.

4.4 A selection of six textbooks on the Māori language

The following sections provides the criteria for selecting the six textbooks (4.4.1) and this will be followed by some comments on the textbooks (in chronological order) including: Wills, 1960 - Lessons in the Māori language (4.4.2), Waititi, 1964 - Te Rangatahi Elementary (4.4.3), Williams, 1965 - First lessons in Māori (4.4.4), Biggs, 1973 - Let's learn Māori (4.4.5), Moorfield, 2001a - Te Kākano 2nd Edition (4.4.6), and Morrison, 2020 - Māori made easy (4.4.7).

4.4.1 Criteria for selecting the six textbooks on the Māori language

The six textbooks were selected on the following criteria:

1. They covered a broad range of grammars on Māori from the earliest to the most contemporary works;
2. They may have borrowed from their predecessors and added to or changed them in some fundamental ways according to new developments in language research and analysis;
3. They exhibited a diverse range of the knowledge-base and skills-set of each author in the types of theories they used to describe te reo;
4. They shared comparative and contrastive aims in describing te reo for educational purposes;

5. They have been influenced by some aspect of structure linguistic analysis to describe te reo Māori;
6. They have influenced, in one way or another, the teaching and learning of te reo Māori in the L2 space over time.

4.4.2 Webster H Wills (1960) *Lessons in the Māori language*

Wills' (1960) textbook *Lessons in the Māori language: A new approach to learning Māori* exhibits those traits of descriptions that were common in grammars of the time as shown in Figure 4.2 below.

Lesson Six

In this lesson we shall not proceed with the plural of pronouns but will consolidate our knowledge. At the same time we shall consider some new and very important prepositions, and by their help our conversational powers will be much improved.

These prepositions have two forms—the **a** and the **o**.

a, o—"of," **ma, mo**—"for," **na, no**—"belonging to."

Also the possessive particles:
ta, to—(singular), **a, o** (plural).

These **a, o**, forms cannot be used indiscriminately; the **o** form is the more common, and the **a** is used in a few cases only. We will learn when to use the **a** form and then we can use the **o** form everywhere else.

Learn these phrases off, till the **a** form comes naturally with the words used.

1. **Te wahine a Rua.**
The wife of Rua (Rua's wife).
2. **Te Tane (taane) a Meri.**
Mary's husband.
3. **Nga tamariki a Rua raua ko Meri.**
The children of Rua and Mary.
4. **Nga mokopuna a Hori.**
George's grandchildren.
5. **Te pukapuka a Paea.**
Paea's book.
6. **Nga naihi a nga tamariki.**
The children's knives.

(38)

Figure 4.2: Descriptions of prepositions and possessives (Wills, 1960)

In addition to describing the grammar, Wills' book included English and Māori translation exercises and drills incorporated into the actual lesson, and supplementary exercises at the end of the book. It focused specifically on teaching the Māori language to school students in a

classroom setting that was not stated as a main focus in previous descriptions of te reo. Wills (1960) says, “his book was a reaction to a range of difficulties experienced by his own students who were at different levels of te reo competency, that is,

- A third of his students had no prior knowledge of te reo at all⁴⁹;
- Another third of his students had some understanding of te reo but they could neither speak it nor write it;
- The remaining third were fluent in speaking te reo, nevertheless they had literacy problems in reading and writing it;
- In confidentiality, some of his students expressed they were ashamed of their inability to speak Māori (p. v).

For tūpuna (i.e., ancestors), te reo Māori had been an oral language for centuries before the arrival of Cook and the introduction of writing. The sudden impact of Western-based ideologies of reading and writing would have created a dilemma in literacy adjustment for ensuing generations of young male and female Māori students of te reo. Thus, Wills says, “the aim of the book was to help all my students develop their language skills regardless of reading and writing in rapid and easy stages” (p. v). Similar aims to help learners of te reo progress from simple to more complex levels have been made by Moorfield, 2001; Morrison, 2020; and Stowell, 1913 in their own grammar books and/ or textbooks. Wills’ work seems to be the first textbook on teaching aspects of te reo Māori based on English grammar rules for use in a school setting and incorporating a range of features that were characteristics of textbooks mentioned above. His textbook was arranged into 27 lessons that lists parts of speech with supplementary exercises designed to consolidate lesson content as shown in Figure 4.3 below.

⁴⁹ This group could be identified as absolute/ true beginners. Absolute or true beginners assumes that learners have no knowledge of or previous experience with a particular language. In contrast, false beginners assumes that learners had studied a particular language to some degree in previous years (e.g., at school) but it is still insufficient to the point where they must start again (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 216).

CONTENTS

	Page
Preface	v
Pronunciation of Maori	1
Lesson One—Some Nouns and Definitives	3
Lesson Two—Questions and Answers—Prepositions	8
Lesson Three—Simple Forms of Sentences and Phrases	15
Lesson Four—Nominal Prefix <i>a</i>	23
Lesson Five—Personal Pronouns	32
Lesson Six—More Prepositions and Pronouns	38
Lesson Seven—Prepositions and Pronouns—Contd.	43
Lesson Eight—Adjectives and their Use	47
Lesson Nine—Numbers and Counting	51
Lesson Ten—Subject and Predicate	56
Lesson Eleven—Negative Forms	59
Lesson Twelve—The Maori Verb	63
Lesson Thirteen—The Auxiliary Particle—Ka	67
Lesson Fourteen—The Perfect Tense—Kua	71
Lesson Fifteen—Future Tense and Imperative Mood	73
Lesson Sixteen—Conditional Clauses	77
Lesson Seventeen—Construction with certain Verbs	80
Lesson Eighteen—Relationships	83
Lesson Nineteen—Adjectives and Abstract Nouns	85
Lesson Twenty—The Passive Voice	87
Lesson Twenty-one—Interrogative Adverbs	92
Lesson Twenty-two—Verbal Nouns and Interrogative Verbs	95
Lesson Twenty-three—Neuter Verbs and their Use	99
Lesson Twenty-four—Relative Clauses	103
Lesson Twenty-five—Relative Clauses—Contd.	107
Lesson Twenty-six—Adverbs and their Use	112
Lesson Twenty-seven—More Adverbs	116
Supplementary Exercises	121
Synopsis of Grammar	125
Vocabulary—Maori to English	138
Vocabulary—English to Maori	157

Figure 4.3: Clearly stated list of lesson content (Wills, 1960)

Each lesson addressed a particular part of speech and used terminology and explanations in ways that tended not to overcomplicate or overwhelm that description, and this can be a useful approach that is more suited to the pedagogic context (e.g., simplifying language learning to facilitate clearer understanding) as shown in Figure 4.4 below.

Lesson One

So you would like to learn to speak Maori? Well, it is not as difficult as you may think. Probably you already know one or two Maori words, especially names of things, which we call nouns.

whare—“house”; **kuri**—“dog”; **tangata**—“man”;
wahine—“woman.”

These are commonly known, and we'll add a few more.

pakitara—“wall”; **matapihi**—“window”; **manu**—
“bird”; **hoa** — “friend”; **kāpata** — “cupboard”;
tēpu—“table”; **rūma**—“room.”

Note that the last three of these are really English words, altered in spelling and pronunciation to fit into our table of Maori syllables. They were at first written **kaapata**, **teepu**, and **ruuma** and still are pronounced that way with the first vowel “a”, “e”, and “u” lengthened.

Now look carefully at the following and see whether you can think out the first rule.

te whare — “the house”; **nga whare** — “the houses”; **te kuri**—“the dog”; **nga kuri**—“the dogs”; **te manu**—“the bird”; **nga manu**—“the birds.”

You have probably found the answer. In English the word “house” is made plural by adding an “s”, but the word “the” does not change. In Maori the word **te** means “the” when the noun is singular, but becomes **nga** when the word following is plural.

(Very few Maori nouns are changed in the plural.)

(3)

Figure 4.4: A lesson using simple terminology and explanations (Wills, 1960)

Lessons incorporated exercises that asked students to translate example sentences into English or Māori according to what they learned in the book, a list of related vocabulary and drill exercises for repeating structures to improve memory retention was given, for example, Ko te aha tēnei? = What is this? Ko te aha ēnei? = What are these? Ko te aha ērā? = What are those? (p. 28). The latter incorporating principles of the audio-lingual method (See, Chapter 2, Section 2.3.1).

4.4.3 Hoani Waititi (1964) *Te Rangatahi: Elementary 2*


As previously mentioned, the classical languages (i.e., Latin, Greek, French, and German) had been taught since the 1860s, and by the 1960s they were still included in the New Zealand education curriculum (Benton, 1996, pp. 72, 74). Waititi (1962) says, “European teachers who taught those languages always had the assistance of carefully prepared materials written by experts in the field, the textbooks were often updated and reflected advancements in newer techniques in language teaching no such resources were available for Māori language teachers they had to rely on materials from the previous century the Māori Language Advisory Committee (MLAC) was set up in 1959 to redress this issue and recommended the need for a modern Māori language course for use in post-primary schools and Forms 3-6” (Waititi, 1962, see *Preface*).⁵⁰ Hoani Waititi was appointed to prepare the texts and to teach the proposed course which consisted of three textbooks called the *Te Rangatahi* series (Waititi, 1962, 1964, 1978). Ballara & Mariu (2010) says, “the series was written during the 1960s and 1970s, it was long overdue in providing modern Māori textbooks for the teaching of te reo in schools it set the standard texts for learning Māori for decades to follow” (p. 2). In this commentary, I am only concerned with (Waititi, 1964) *Te Rangatahi: Elementary 2* which follows the same format as textbooks 1 and 3 in the series. Waititi (1964) says, “after some years, the series was revised and reorganized in the light of advances in methods of teaching, the audio-lingual teaching and testing method, and the development of reo study for educative experience rather than merely L2 acquisition” (see *Preface*). The lesson content across all textbooks in the series was structured around stories, dialogues, visual aids, writing, speaking, and translation exercises. Waititi (1964) made use of *stories* and *dialogues*, which was an innovative approach to teaching te reo at the time, it covered a range of situations and topics

⁵⁰ The Education Department of New Zealand set up the committee MLAC in 1958 to oversee the production of textbooks for use in the teaching of te reo in secondary schools (Benton, 1996, p. 66). The committee initiated the Māori language course project and assigned the task to Beth Ranapia to ensure that the spirit of the work and the author’s intentions were carried out (Waititi, 1962, see *Preface*).

(See, Chapter 2, Section 2.4.1) based on everyday rural and urban life in Aotearoa as experienced by a Māori family consisting of a father, a mother, and their children, for example, *Te āwhina i a Pani rāua ko Hata = Helping Pani and Hata* (p. 5) or *Te māra riwai = Planting potatoes* (p. 90). The story title introduced a situation in which family members would talk about various topics presented in the form of a dialogue, the story also incorporated related structures, vocabulary, and pictures (i.e., elements of the story) into the exercises, tasks to reinforce teaching and learning as shown in Figure 4.5 below.

Te Wāhanga Tuatahi
Te Āwhina i a Pani rāua ko Hata 1


Ko te Hātarei tēnei rā. Ki ētahi, ko te Rāhoroi kē te ingoa o tēnei rā. He rā horoi hoki tēnei mō Pani rātou ko Hata mā. He ata tino ātaahua tēnei. Kua haere kē a Hata rātou ko ngā tamariki tāne ki te miraka i ā rātou kau. Kāore anō rātou kia parakuihi. Kia hoki mai rātou i te whare miraka, ka parakuihi rātou.



Kua tata ngā kai te maoa.

Kei roto a Mere rāua ko Pani i te kīhini e mahi kai ana. Ko Mārama anake kei te ngaro. KO PANI. Kua tata ā tātou kai te maoa, ēngari kāore anō a Mārama kia puta mai. Kāore e kore, kei te moe tonu ia. Kātahi te kōtiro moeroa! Me haere koe ki te whakaoho i a ia, e Mere.

Kua haere a Mere ki te whakaoho i tōna hoa.



Maranga, Mārama!

KO MERE. E oho, Mārama! Maranga!
 KO MĀRAMA. He aha te tāima?
 KO MERE. Kua tata te waru karaka. Kia kama, kei kohete a Pani! Kua tata a Hata mā te hoki mai ki te parakuihi.

5

Figure 4.5: Elements of the story's structure (Waititi, 1964)

To further consolidate learning, the exercises provided model sentences, cloze tests, and pictures at the end of each lesson as shown in Figure 4.6 below.

He Whakamārama 6

Kei hea ia e tū ana?	= Where is <i>she</i> standing?
Kei te wini ia e tū ana.	= <i>She</i> is standing at the window.
Kei hea rātou e mahi ana?	= Where are <i>they</i> working?
Kei waho rātou e mahi ana.	= <i>They</i>'re working outside.
Kei hea te kurī e moe ana?	= Where is <i>the</i> dog sleeping?
Kei raro te kurī i te rākau e moe ana.	= <i>The</i> dog is sleeping under the tree.

Hei Mahi

A.

 <p>Kei hea a Rewi e takoto ana? Kei raro a Rewi i te rākau e takoto ana.</p>	 <p>Kei hea a Tamahae e noho ana? 1. Kei runga — — — — — — e noho ana.</p>	 <p>Kei hea ngā kōtiro e mahi ana? 2. Kei roto — — — — — — — —.</p>
 <p>Kei hea te motokā e tū ana? 3. Kei waho — — — — — — — —.</p>	 <p>Kei hea te kurī e moe ana? 4. Kei raro — — — — — — — —.</p>	 <p>Kei hea ngā manu e tangi ana? 5. Kei runga — — — — — —.</p>

21

Figure 4.6: Model sentences, cloze test, pictures (Waititi, 1964)

Some of the exercises also included select sentence patterns extracted from the internal text of the story that students were asked to translate into English as shown in Figure 4.7 below.

He Whakamārama 1

- (a) Me tapahi e koe te parāoa nā! == You'd better *cut that bread!*
 Me horoi e kōrua ngā pereti! == You two had better *wash the plates!*
 Me hari e Rewi he wahia! == Rewi must *take some firewood!*
- (b) Kātahi te tamaiti paru! == What a *dirty child!*
 Kātahi ngā kōtiro mōhio! == What *clever girls!*
 Kātahi te tamaiti māngere == What a *lazy child you are!*
 ko koe!
 Kātahi te kurī koretake ki te tiki == What a *useless dog at fetching cows!*
 kau!

Hei Mahi

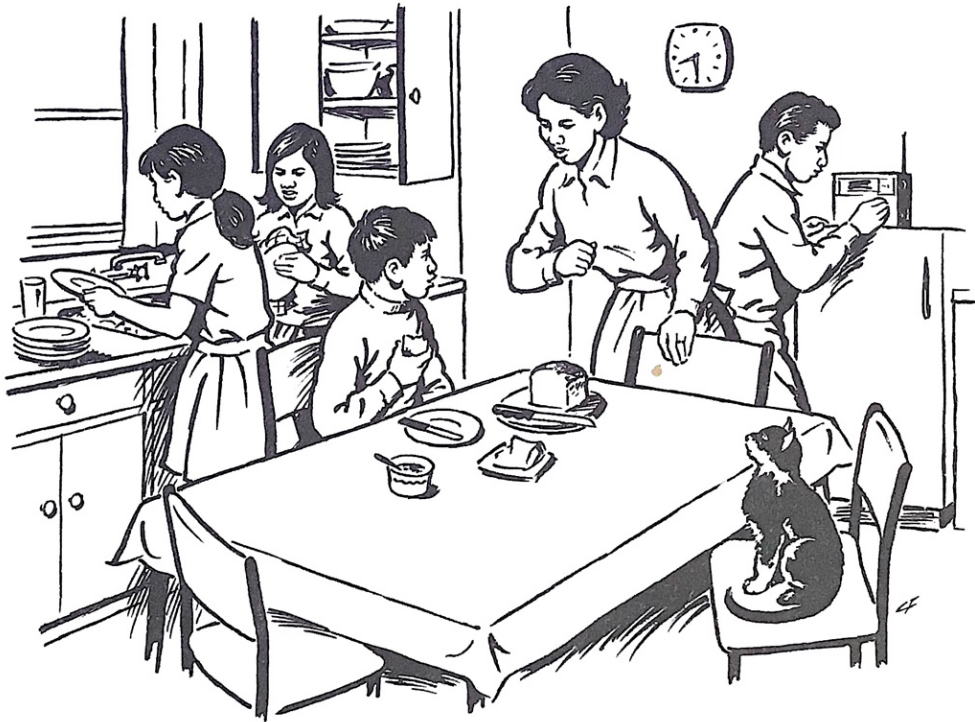
Whakapākehātia:

1. Kātahi te waka paru! Me horoi e tātou!
2. Kātahi te kōtiro māngere! Me horoi e koe ngā pereti nei!
3. Kātahi te tamaiti paru ko koe, Tamahae! Me horoi e koe ōu waewae!
4. E Rewi, me tiki e koe he wahia!
5. Kātahi ngā tamariki kaha ki te mahi!
6. Kātahi te kotiro koretake ki te horoi pereti!
7. Kōtiro mā, me tahitahi e kōrua ngā rūma moe!
8. E Hata mā, me tapahi e koutou he wahia!
9. Kātahi te poaka tino kaha ki te kai ko tēnei!
10. Kātahi ngā tamariki tino kaha ki te horoi motokā!

Figure 4.7: Select sentence patterns to be translated into English (Waititi, 1964)

Other written tasks were introduced later in lessons that presented a level of greater complexity in which students, for example, were asked to write a sentence for each picture using certain sentence patterns learned in the previous lesson as shown in Figure 4.8 below.

B. Titiro ki te pikitia nei! Tuhia he kōrero mō tēnei pikitia!



E Mere, mauria mai he tī!

Kāore anō koe kia whiu?

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

**C. Kōrerotia anō te kōrero nei, “Te Āwhina i a Pani rāua ko Hata”
Kei te tika, kei te hē rānei ngā kōrero e whai ake nei?**

Hei tauira ēnei:

Ko te Rātapu tēnei rā.

Ko te Hātarei tēnei rā.

Kei te hē.

Kei te tika.

Figure 4.8: A written task of greater complexity (Waititi, 1964)

Although the inclusion of tasks and activities were organized in ways that attempted to provide the best learning experience possible for students at that time, they provided very little to no explanations of how the language was to be used in terms of grammatical rules. To some

degree, this approach seemed to be characteristic of the grammar translation method of the late 1800s, for example,⁵¹

- Vocabulary is taught in lists of isolated words;
- Reading of difficult text is begun early;
- Little attention is paid to the content of text, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis;⁵²
- Often the only drills are exercises in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue;
- Little or no attention is given to pronunciation;
- It promoted a reading approach that emphasized reading skills of foreign languages;
- The method does very little to enhance a student's communicative ability in the language (Brown, 2000, pp. 15-16, 45).

4.4.4 William Leonard Williams (1965) First lessons in the Māori language

First published in 1862, the foreword of Williams' revised 13th Edition of *First Lessons in the Māori language* stated some changes across different editions, for example, the addition of a Māori-English list of vocabulary in the 6th Ed; considerably enlarged vocabularies including words of recent adoption into the language (i.e., gainwords)⁵³ in the 8th Ed; changes in grammatical terminology, particularly Māori verbs based on forms used in English textbooks in the 11th Ed; and the addition of a section on progressive exercises and a key to exercises in the 13th Ed. It explained simple grammatical rules in regard to parts of speech using few conventional linguistic terms and included an index for quick reference to those parts of speech

⁵¹ The characteristics listed here are mainly used in *Te Rangatahi 2* textbook.

⁵² This is very characteristic of how a grammar point is presented in the textbook but there is virtually no explanation of the grammar or parts of speech except for a simple reference to it given in the vocabulary list at the end.

⁵³ (See, for more on gainwords, Chapter 3, Section 3.3.8).

in the body of text as shown in Figures 4.9 and 4.10 below. These additional features were absent in the textbooks of Wills and Waititi.

NUMERALS	27
<p>§ 29. In Counting use <i>kā</i> before the numerals, thus: <i>Kā hia? how many?</i> <i>Kā tahi, one; kā rua, two; kā toru, three, etc.;</i> <i>kā tekau, ten; kā tekau mā tahi, eleven; kā rua tekau, twenty; kā kotahi rau kā rua tekau mā rima, one hundred and twenty-five.</i></p> <p>In asking for any number of things use <i>kia</i> in the same way before the numeral, thus: <i>Mauria mai ētahi toki, kia rua, bring two axes.</i> <i>Kia hia? how many? Kia rua, two.</i></p>	
<p>§ 30. With Nouns. i. When used in immediate connexion with a noun, let <i>kotahi</i> stand for one, not <i>tahi</i>, and put <i>e</i> before the other numerals from two to nine.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Examples</p> <p><i>He tangata kotahi, one man.</i> <i>Ngā whare e toru, the three houses.</i> <i>Ngā tao e wha tekau, the forty spears.</i> <i>He waka kotahi tekau mā rua, twelve canoes.</i> <i>Mo ētahi waka kotahi tekau mā rua, for twelve canoes.</i></p> <p>ii. In speaking of <i>persons</i> the numerals from <i>rua</i> to <i>iwa</i> inclusive, the interrogative <i>hia</i>, and the adjective <i>maha</i>, have <i>toko-</i> prefixed instead of <i>e</i>.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Examples</p> <p><i>Tokohia? how many? (i.e., persons).</i> <i>Ngā tāngata tokoiwa, the nine men.</i> <i>He tokomaha rātou, they are many.</i> <i>He tokoiti rātou, they are few.</i></p>	
<p>§ 31. In using the numerals distributively prefix <i>taki-</i> to the simple numeral, thus: <i>Takirua, by twos, two and two.</i> <i>Takitahi, singly, or by ones.</i></p>	
<p>§ 32. Ordinals used absolutely, <i>i.e.</i> not in immediate connexion with nouns, are expressed by the simple numerals with <i>te</i>, thus: <i>Te tahi, the first.</i> <i>Te rua, the second.</i> <i>Te hia? which in order?</i></p>	

Figure 4.9: Simple grammatical rules of some parts of speech (Williams, 1965)

Index of Grammatical Subjects

(The numbers refer to the sections.)

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>Abstract qualities, 27.
 Accent, 3, 9.
 Active voice, 46, 54.
 Adjectival phrases, 61.
 Adjectives, 14, 23-7, 66, 69.
 Adverbs, 79, 80, 81, 83.
 Affirmative sentences, 36.
 Agent, 53; emphatic, 55.
 Alphabet, 1, 2.
 Apposition, 13.
 Article, 18, 19.</p> <p>Causative prefix, 57.
 Comparison of adjectives,
 25.
 Compound verb, 59.
 Counting, 29.</p> <p>Definitives, 17, 18.
 Demonstratives, 18, 21.
 Derivative nouns, 58, 68.
 Descriptive details, 61.
 Difference between <i>a</i> and
 <i>o</i>, 22.
 Distributive numerals, 31.</p> <p>Explanatory verb, 70.</p> <p>Imperative, 47, 52, 56.
 Infinitive, 38, 40, 48, 50.
 Inflexions, 4, 43.</p> | <p>Interrogative sentences, 41.
 Interrogative verbs, 60.
 Inverted construction, 75.</p> <p>Local nouns, 8.</p> <p>Miscellaneous
 constructions:
 ‘and’, 87.
 ‘as soon as’, 83.
 ‘because’, 85.
 purpose of an action, 86.
 ‘when’, 82.
 ‘why’, 84.</p> <p>Negative sentences, 40.
 Neuter verbs, 66, 67.
 Nominal particle, 9.
 Numerals, 28-33.</p> <p>Ordinals, 32, 33.</p> <p>Participles, 66, 69.
 Passive voice, 51, 51.1, 54.
 Personal pronouns, 5, 6.
 Plural nouns, 4.
 Plural pronouns, 10, 12.
 Possessive pronouns, 6, 17,
 22.
 Predicate, 34-39.</p> |
|---|--|

Figure 4.10: Index of parts of speech (Williams, 1965)

Williams (1965) says, “the inclusion of progressive exercises was provided to encourage students to study the first five chapters before attempting any of the exercises and each of the remaining chapters” (p. 60). This is shown in Figure 4.11 below. The exercises are mainly

translation tasks from Māori into English and vice versa and students could check their answers with the key to exercises as shown in Figure 4.12 below.

PART II

Progressive Exercises

The following exercises are arranged progressively to illustrate the sections in Part I. When any new matter is introduced into an exercise, the section bearing upon the same will, as a rule, be indicated in the heading. The student is recommended to study the first five chapters, at least, before attempting any of the exercises, and each of the remaining chapters before doing any of the exercises upon it.

EXERCISES

I.

§§ 4, 5, 6, 17, 18

1. He ika. 2. Tāna kuri. 3. Ehea whare? 4. Tā rāua pukapuka. 5. Ngā tamariki a wai? 6. A wai kupenga? 7. Ētahi kuri. 8. Tōna waewae. 9. Tō wai kanohi? 10. Ngā taringa o Turi. 11. Ōna ringaringa. 12. Taua whare. 13. Tō tāua pāpā. 14. Ā rāua tamariki. 15. Ōna mātua. 16. Taua wahine. 17. Ōna tuāhine. 18. Ngā tēina o Kuiwai.

1. A bird. 2. This bird. 3. My dog. 4. That fish. 5. Which house? 6. Their house. 7. Whose house? 8. Kurei's house. 9. The houses. 10. Those fishes. 11. Some men. 12. Their feet. 13. His ears. 14. Your eyes. 15. The dogs. 16. Their sisters. 17. Our children. 18. Her elder sister.

Figure 4.11: Sample of progressive exercises (Williams, 1965)

Key to the Exercises

I

1. A fish. 2. His dog. 3. Which houses? 4. Their book. 5. Whose children? 6. Whose nets? 7. Some dogs. 8. His foot. 9. Whose face? 10. Turi's ears. 11. Her hands. 12. That house. 13. Yours and my father. 14. Their children. 15. His parents. 16. That woman. 17. His sisters. 18. Kuiwai's younger sisters.

1. He manū. 2. Tēnei manū. 3. Tāku kuri. 4. Taua ika. 5. Tēhea whare? 6. Tō rātou whare. 7. Tō wai whare? 8. Te whare o Kurei. 9. Ngā whare. 10. Ēra ika. 11. Ētahi tāngata. 12. Ō rātou waewae. 13. Ōna taringa. 14. Ōū kanohi. 15. Ngā kuri. 16. Ō rātou tuāhine. 17. A tāua tamariki. 18. Tōna tuakana.

Figure 4.12: Sample of key to exercises (Williams, 1965)

Around the 1860s, there were very few Māori-related resources included in the New Zealand education curriculum. In the list below, there were only two Māori-based books available at that time being dominated by European-based ones. This included Williams' Lessons in Māori published in 1862⁵⁴ and the New Zealand dictionary as shown in Figure 4.13 below.

⁵⁴ (See, for Williams' 1862 grammar <http://www.gutenberg.org/files/47371/47371-h/47371-h.htm>).

XIII.—TEXT BOOKS AND MATERIAL.

(1.) Books, appliances, and material other than those enumerated in the following list are not to be used without the express permission of the Department :—

Royal Reader Wall Cards.	Thimbles.
Royal Reader Primers.	Scissors.
Royal Readers, I to III.	Wool.
All the Sequels to these books.	Knitting Needles for Stockings.
Vere Foster's Copy-books.	Ball Frame.
Plain-ruled Exercise books.	Pens.
Irish small Arithmetic.	Pen Holders.
Bett's Portable Globe.	Ink Powder.
Large Map of the World in Hemispheres.	Ink Wells, (metallic covers).
Map of New Zealand.	Log Book.
Map of the Pacific Ocean.	Blotting Paper.
Black-boards.	Foolscap do.
Easels.	Prepared Chalk.
Willie's First English Book, Parts I and II.	Lead Pencils.
Petrie's Table books.	Drawing do.
Hutton's Drawing Books, Parts I and II.	Colored do.
Modulator.	Slate do.
Calico.	O.P.S.O. Envelopes.
Prints.	Natural History Cards and other Pictures.
Flannel.	Clock.
Dungaree.	Hand-bell.
Cotton.	Rubber Stamp.
Thread.	Wash-basins.
Hooks and Eyes.	Soap.
Buttons.	Towels.
Needles.	

(2.) The following books will be supplied for the use of teachers :—

Williams's First Lessons in Maori.
 New Zealand Dictionary.
 Clyde's Larger Geography.
 Petrie's New Zealand Geography.
 Lake's Object Lessons.
 Gladman's School Method.

Figure 4.13: Inventory of curriculum textbooks (Williams, 1965)

4.4.5 Bruce Biggs (1973) *Let's learn Māori*

Biggs' (1973) textbook *Let's learn Māori: A guide to the study of the Māori language* was a highly influential textbook on te reo for its time in which he says, "it presented a few alterations that reflected changes in my thinking about the nature of human language and the attempts to describe it" (p. 14). Bauer (1981) says, Williams' 1862 textbook provided a template for all descriptions of te reo between 1862 and 1961 up to Biggs' book *Let's learn Māori* nearly a century later (p. 12). The textbook was a significant contribution to a description of te reo which pioneered and extended on a study in the internal structure of the Māori phrase in Biggs' 1961

paper, The structure of New Zealand Maaori (See Chapter 3, Section 3.3.12). As previously mentioned, the study investigated the occurrences of different phonemes and morphemes within the internal structure of the Māori phrase using a complex alpha-numeric system but presented the concept in the textbook in a simpler and more accessible way as shown in Figure 4.14 below. The textbook could provide a useful basis for a discussion on discrete units of Māori phraseology embedded within sentence patterns.

Preposed	Nucleus	Postposed
ka	pai	
te	whare	nei
	haere	mai
ki te	whare	
kei	hea	
too	kaainga	
kei	Akarana	
tooku	kaainga	

Figure 4.14: Sample of the internal structure of the Māori phrase (Biggs, 1973)

A good starting point for a discussion might begin with some fundamental issues that students are likely to encounter at a beginners' level course including, for example, the identification of distinct units that link together and make up phrase structures, such as the indefinite article *he* or *i/ki* particles etc. In discussing aspects of *te reo*, Biggs (1973, pp. 20, 30, 31, 43) says, for

example, “the indefinite article he is preposed to bases which are being used indefinitely or nominally number is not indicated so he whare may mean a house or some houses but it will always mean some when used with mass nouns he wai = some water or he kaanga = some corn a phrase beginning with i/ ki is called a comment, a ki-based comment can always be regarded as the goal in relation to its predicate, an i-based one creates a connective force to show the object of the sentence (e.g., Ka inu te tangata i te rongoa. The man drinks the medicine) i/ ki particles are very often associated with different verb types (See, Appendix 4.2). Bauer (1981) says, “the indefinite article he, being one of the smallest lexical items in the Māori language is also one of the more complex of all the determiners and requires in-depth discussion, especially in relation to its semantic property” (p. 35). In other descriptions, Biggs’ described A and O categories that were similar to Hōhepa and Moorfield as shown in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1: Comparing Ā-Ō categories between Hōhepa, Biggs, Moorfield

Author	Ā Category	Ō Category
Hōhepa (1967, p. 24)	Ā is used for those possessions to which the possessor is dominant (e.g., small personal portable property, food) or which the possessor acquired in his lifetime (e.g., wife, children, husband, uninherited objects).	Ō is used for those possessions to which the possessor is subordinate (e.g., nonportable property, such as canoes, boats, cars which carry the possessor), and inherited objects (e.g., ancestors, parents).
Biggs (1973, p. 43)	Ā involves the possession of anything towards which the possessor is dominant, active, or	Ō involves the possession of things in respect to which the possessor is subordinate, passive, or inferior (e.g., Te waiata ō te tangata rā. The song

	superior (e.g., Te waiata ā te tangata rā. That man's song).	about that man). Biggs also described \bar{A} and \bar{O} as preposed particles that always precede a phrase and can be translated as <i>of</i> to show dominance and subordinate possession.
Moorfield (2001a, p. 140)	\bar{A} category is used when the possessor has, or had, control of the relationship or is dominant, active, or superior to what is owned.	\bar{O} category is used when the possessor has, or had, no control over the relationship or is subordinate, passive, or inferior to what is owned.

Moorfield (2001a) says, “the \bar{A} and \bar{O} categories present a range of difficulties for L2 students to master, it is, therefore, essential to introduce the categories at the very early stages of learning to acquire fluency” (p. 54). Although the discussion in Biggs’ textbook explains much of the grammatical rules across a range of word classes, there is no provision of exercises, activities, or tests (in the actual book) to practice or to consolidate language learning. Such aids, however, were provided as external resources that accompanied the textbook and to give students practice in the target language. In other words, a boxed album of two LP records containing all the sentences in Biggs’ textbook was made available to the students. Biggs (1973) says, “the provision of recordings was made available to students to provide an oral-aural tutor matched to a written exposition . . . and used together they should enable the student to reach a reasonable standard in the four language skills: reading, writing, speaking, and hearing with understanding (p. 15). Given the accessibility and simple explanations in the textbook, a student might find some of the descriptions therein readily understandable to internalize and practice with little effort.

4.4.6 John C Moorfield (2001a) Te Kākano

John C Moorfield's textbooks in the *Te Whanake Series* was written during the 1980s and 1990s with some revised editions in 2001. It consists of four textbooks: *Te Kākano 1 and 2* (1981, 2001a), *Te Kōhure* (1996), *Te Māhuri* (1992), and *Te Pihinga* (1989, 2001b). The series is the most popular and comprehensive description of te reo for teaching and learning purposes to date. It targets adult learners from beginners, intermediate, to advanced levels who are studying te reo in a tertiary setting. Moorfield (2008) indicated that the series was a reaction to create a resource for himself while he was teaching at the University of Waikato (p. 101). Moorfield's textbooks sometimes might be thought of as grammar books probably because they were the only series dealing with te reo that made use of structure linguistics, nevertheless it relied wholly on it rather than adapting it appropriately to the pedagogical context. *Te Kākano* makes reasonable use of various aids to help students practice and consolidate language learning as they progress towards higher levels of complexity through each chapter. The methods of teaching and learning in the actual textbook includes lessons, dialogues, exercises, tests, visual aids, and/ or vocabulary lists among others as shown in Figure 4.15 below. This also includes supplementary online resources, such as voice recordings, animations, simple online tests, digital books, podcasts, and the Māori dictionary as shown in Figure 4.16 below.

Mahi nama toru tekau

Saying where someone or something was using the following illustrations.



1



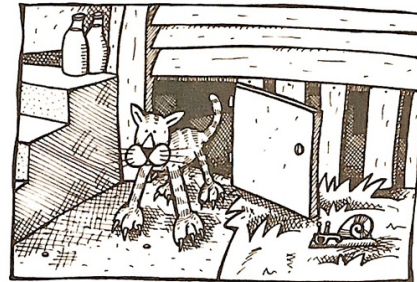
2



3



4



5



6

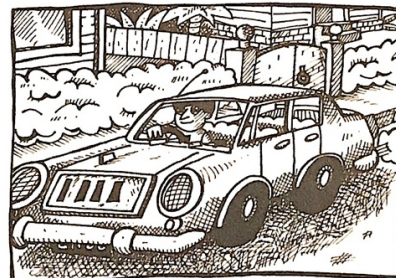


Figure 4.15: Exercise 30 (Moorfield, 2001a)



Figure 4.16: Sample of online resources (Moorfield, 2001a)⁵⁵

With reference to the series, Moorfield (2008) says, “that each grammatical feature was illustrated with examples and the more difficult ones were introduced gradually over several chapters to ensure that learners mastered them” (p. 133). This might provoke particular questions, such as how would certain points be determined for their complexity over other points throughout the textbook, what criteria would be needed to determine the inclusion of selected points, or how would exercises or activities (and not just pictures or rote learning) be linked to those points in ways that could produce meaningful language learning? These questions being part and parcel of syllabus and lesson design would raise many challenges for te reo teachers. To address some of these issues, Harmer (2007) outlined several design guidelines rather than a set of detailed instructions as this will differ from one language teacher to another. He says, “a teacher needs a map to navigate the landscape so that students will know what their teacher has planned for them and to create a confident teacher-student relationship .

⁵⁵ (See, for Te Whanake online resources, <https://tewhanake.maori.nz>).

. . . a lesson should be a proposal for action rather than a blueprint to be followed in a submissive way lesson content should be considered for its degree of simplicity or difficulty to be learned by the students the pre-planning stage is where the language teacher selects the necessary resources for lesson design and content this stage is critical to consider, for example, the target audience (e.g., absolute, or false beginners), the anticipated level and students' needs teachers should plan for interesting task-based activities to be used in the lesson teachers should plan each lesson stage so that they link together in a coherent manner in order to consolidate language learning in gradual stages" (pp. 365-370). The presentation of lesson content in Māori textbooks could significantly benefit from the type of guidelines above in accordance with te reo teachers' own educational choices and planning goals. However, this is not always the case, for example, in the initial chapters of Te Kākano, it begins with English instructions in the exercise sections but changes to te reo only instructions as the chapters progress throughout the textbook as shown in Figures 4.17 and 4.18 below. Considering the textbook is designed for beginners with little to no knowledge or use of te reo, this change in instruction could impede the learners' ability to complete the tasks at hand. The reason for this sudden change in language is not completely known.

Answering questions about where things are using **roto**, **runga**, **raro**, **waho**, **mua** and **muri**.
Stating where things are.

Mahi nama tekau mā iwa

Practising numbers up to twenty.

Mahi nama rua tekau

Asking where people are. This exercise uses the place names in the order they are listed at the bottom of this page. It also gives practice with the personal pronouns **ia**, **rāua** and **rātou**.

Mahi nama rua tekau mā tahi

Giving the ages of people. This exercise will ask how old people are. Here are the ages to give in reply.

Hei tauira ēnei: 8, 17

1	50	2	21	3	60
4	20	5	35	6	33
7	7	8	14		

Mahi nama rua tekau mā rua

Saying where someone is from. Here are the place names to give:

Kāwhia, Te Teko

1	Te Kauwhata	2	Rotorua
3	Tauranga	4	Whangārei
5	Ruātoki	6	Waikaremoana
7	Tāmaki-makau-rau	8	Māngere

Mahi nama rua tekau mā toru

Answering personal questions.

Figure 4.17: Te Kākano exercise instructions in English (Moorfield, 2001a)

Mahi nama 83

Whakautua ngā pātai mō ngā kōrero me ngā whakaahua o te haere a Tangiwai mā ki te hoko kai.

Mahi nama 84

Whakawhitihia ngā kōrero o te rīpene kia rite ai ki ngā tauira.

Mahi nama 85

Anei ētahi tāngata. Whakarongo ki ngā kōrero o te rīpene kia mōhio ai koe ko wai mā ngā ingoa o ngā tāngata nei. Tuhia ō rātou ingoa i te taha o te nama mō ia tangata.



Figure 4.18: Te Kākano exercise instructions in Māori (Moorfield, 2001a)

Of note, when Moorfield was designing his textbooks for te reo Māori in the 1980s, a number of European researchers were writing and publishing usage-focused and meaning-based pedagogic grammars of the English language during the same decade (See, for example, Leech, Cruickshank, & Ivanic, 1989). Moorfield (2008) says, “his textbooks discussed a “pedagogic grammar of te reo Māori” (p. 101). It seemed to provide some points in case that were consistent with what researchers were attempting to do with the English language. This

included the following points on language usage in te reo Māori, for example, the use of the word *mahi* to indicate an abundance of something (as opposed to the infinitive *to work*) or the use of *kei* as an honorific marker to express a respectful term of address (as opposed to its common usage as a locative marker) as shown in Figures 4.19 and 4.20 below.

HE WHAKAMĀRAMA

Kua kite atu au i te mahi a te merengi e putu mai ana
Using *mahi* to express abundance

I ētahi wā he aronga kē o te kupu 'mahi'. Ka āta pānui ana koe i ngā rerenga kōrero e whai ake nei, ka kite koe ko te aronga o taua kupu e rite tonu ana ki te kupu 'maha'. Hei tauira ēnei:

<p>I tua atu i ngā oneone parakiwai i haria mai e tēnei waipuke, i mauria mai <u>te mahi a te wahie</u>.</p>	<p>As well as the silt brought by this flood, lots of firewood was carried here.</p>
<p>I te wāhi e whakaranu mai rā te wai tai ki te wai māori, ka kitea atu <u>te mahi a te aua e ngote ana i te wai tai</u>.</p>	<p>At the place where the sea water mixed with the fresh water, an abundance of yellow-eyed mullet were seen sucking up the salt water.</p>
<p>Engari kua kapi katoa taua wāhi i <u>te mahi a te whare</u>.</p>	<p>But that place was totally covered with an abundance of houses.</p>
<p>I ētahi wā i haere kē mātou; hoki rawa mai kua pau ngā hua te kai i <u>te mahi a te tamariki</u>.</p>	<p>Sometimes when we went somewhere else, when we returned the fruit had all been eaten by the throngs of children.</p>

Figure 4.19: Usage of the word *mahi* (Moorfield, 1992)

HE WHAKAMĀRAMA

Kei Te Wharehuia, tēnei te mihi atu mō te tautoko mai
Respectful ways of addressing people

Ki te hiahia koe ki te whakarangatira i tētahi tangata, ētahi tāngata rānei, he āhuatanga anō e pā ana ki tēnā. Kua mōhio kē koe ki te kupu 'e' i mua o te ingoa mehemea e karanga ana koe ki a ia. Hei tauria ēnei:

E Pita, haramai rā!

E koro, anei tō mokopuna.

Mehemea ka whakarongo koe ki ngā tohunga o te whaikōrero, ka rongu koe i ētahi o rātou e whakahua ana i te kupu 'kei' mō te kupu 'e' hei whakarangatira i te tangata, i ngā tāngata rānei. Anei ētahi tauria:

Kei Te Rangihau, nau mai, haere mai!

Mr Rangihau, welcome!

**Kei te rangatira, kei te tino whakaae
ahau ki āu kōrero.**

Sir, I agree entirely with what you say.

Kei ngā hoa, mihi mai rā!

Friends, thank you for your welcome.

174

Figure 4.20: Usage of the word kei (Moorfield, 1992)

The descriptions of pedagogic grammar rules as set out in Māori textbooks, however, differ significantly from its English counterparts in some fundamental ways (i.e., in the English, the grammar is very often arranged in dictionary format in alphabetical order) as shown in Figures 4.21 and 4.22 below.

a or **an** a /eɪ/ (weak form: /ə/ is usual)* **an** /æən/ (weak form: /ən/ is usual) (*determiner*)

► **A / an** is called the 'indefinite article'. [See ARTICLES.]

*The letter 'a' is always pronounced /eɪ/ (as in *a, b, c, ...; A, B, C, ...*)

1 When to use *a*; when to use *an*

Use **a** before a consonant sound. It is usually pronounced with the neutral vowel /ə/.

E.g. *He's a /ə/ doctor. What a /ə/ nice picture!*

Use **an** before a vowel sound. It is usually pronounced with the neutral vowel: /ən/.

E.g. *He's an /ən/ actor. What an /ən/ ugly picture!*

Also: **an hour**, **an honest person**, etc. [See AN Note (ii).]

[For more examples, see AN.]

2 A or *an* comes before a singular countable noun:

a } + singular countable noun
an }

E.g. *a man*, *a union* /'juːnɪən/, *an idea*

a } + modifier(s) + singular countable noun [see MODIFIER AND HEADWORD]
an }

E.g. *a happy woman*, *a very famous author*, *an interesting new book*

2a **A / an** has no plural form. In the plural, instead of **a**, we use either no word at all [see ZERO ARTICLE] or **some**.



E.g. *This is a cat.*



This is a rabbit.



And this is a camel.

All these are animals.



a dog + a dog + a dog ... = some /səm/ dogs

[To find out how to choose between the zero article and **some**, see ZERO ARTICLE 2.]

Figure 4.21: Pedagogic grammar of English A-Z (Leech et al, 2001)

zero article [See ARTICLES, A / AN, THE]

- ▶ Most nouns have an article (*a / an* or *the*), or another DETERMINER in front of them.
- ▶ When there is no determiner in front of a noun or noun phrase, we say that it has a *zero article*.

1 Main uses of the zero article

English has no article like *a / an* to place before plural or uncountable nouns for indefinite meaning.* We use the zero article instead.

*However, see 2 below on the use of *some* as 'article'.

1a Zero article before plural nouns:

	<i>a / an</i> + singular noun	zero + plural noun
E.g.	<i>We're expecting a visitor.</i>	<i>We're expecting visitors.</i>

1b Zero article before uncountable nouns:

	<i>a / an</i> + countable noun	zero + uncountable noun
E.g.	<i>He picked up a stone.</i>	<i>The wall's made of stone.</i>

1c Zero article before names:

	<i>a / an</i> + common noun	zero + name
E.g.	<i>He gave her a rose.</i>	<i>My sister's name is Rose.</i>

[See NAMES 2, GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES 2–4 for exceptions to this.]

Figure 4.22: Pedagogic grammar of English A-Z (Leech et al, 2001)

In other areas, Moorfield used a hybrid of technical and semantic based (i.e., more meaningful) descriptions in the lesson content of his textbook. The former, for example, used descriptions like (*showing possession, indicating future possession*) and the latter used descriptions like (*saying something will not be done, saying something can be done*) as shown in Figure 4.23 below.

He kupu atu anō	48
He waka	48
He kararehe	49
Hei mahi whakarongo, kōrero hoki	49
Hei whakahuahua	50
Hei mahi whakarongo, tuhituhi hoki	51
Hei mahi tuhituhi	51
Hei mahi kōrero	51
<hr/>	
Te wāhanga tuarima	52
<hr/>	
He kōrerorero: Kua reri te parakuihi	52
He whakamārama	52
Showing possession	52
Ā and Ō categories	54
Saying something has not yet happened	56
Indicating continuous action	57
Using stative verbs	57
More on commands using statives	58
Exclaiming about the character or quality of something or someone	58
Calling someone's attention to something	59
Warning someone	59
He kupu atu anō	59
Hei mahi whakarongo, kōrero hoki	60
Hei whakahuahua	62
Hei mahi whakarongo, tuhituhi hoki	62
Hei mahi kōrero	62
<hr/>	
Te wāhanga tuaono	63
<hr/>	
He kōrerorero: Te parakuihi	63
He whakamārama	63
Asking for something to be given to you or someone else	63
Asking and saying how many things are needed	63
Indicating future possession	64
Listing items	64
Asking and saying who will do something	65
Giving orders	65
Asking and saying something more is needed	67
Telling someone not to do something	67
He kupu atu anō	68
Te parakuihi a Tangiwai mā	68
He whakamārama	74
Indicating that something has just happened	74
Turning statements into questions	75
Saying something will not be done	75
Saying something can be done	75
Saying something is not possible	76
Asking and saying what something is to be used for	76
One way to say 'when' in the future	77

Figure 4.23: Hybrid arrangement of lesson content (Moorfield, 2001a)

Using this approach, it could be difficult to determine the criteria to select, grade, and then organize the lesson content appropriately in a coherent and logical sequence. The task of 'gradation' (grading or sequencing) plays a critical role in the design of language textbooks. Richards & Schmidt (2010) says, "it involves the arrangement of the content of a language course or a textbook so that it is presented in a helpful way" (p. 251). This essentially would

include the order in which content is organized and introduced with a consideration to factors like their levels of complexity, their frequency in the language, and their importance for the learners etc. Furthermore, the listing of lesson content using a hybrid type approach might give a mixed impression about the purpose of the textbook, for example, is it designed for linguistic analysis or language learning?

4.4.7 Scotty Morrison (2020) *Māori made easy*

To bring the select Māori language textbooks in line with a more contemporary context, the textbook *Māori Made Easy* written by Morrison in 2020 was added to the list. Morrison (2020) designed the book “to accelerate the acquisition and learning of the Māori language in order to get oneself to an intermediate standard of Māori language expertise to aid autonomous learning, the students can log into a website (www.MāoriMadeEasy.co.nz) and participate in oral and audio activities take advantage of explanations and exercises to assist and reinforce knowledge about the new sentence patterns and vocabulary to be learned in each weekly lesson through the use of test, translation tasks, games, and answer keys to the exercises at the end of the textbook I learned te reo while studying at university during my first year and attained a more fluent level during my second year with expert native speakers while continuing on with a more formal textbook-based learning style there (see *Introduction*). This pathway seemed to have shaped Morrison’s current philosophy in learning te reo, for example, me aronui = focus (year one), me kimi kaupapa rumaki = look for an immersion learning programme (year two), me aro ki te takoto o te kupu = focus more on grammar (year three).⁵⁶ The lessons explain aspects of te reo that are commonly covered in similar textbooks as shown in Figure 4.24 below.

⁵⁶ (See, for the full list of principles, <https://www.penguin.co.nz/books/maori-made-easy-9781743486078>).

He Tauira Kōrero:
Mere: E Māka, kei te aha koe i tēnei rā?
Māka: Kei te haere au ki te moana.
Mere: Kei te aha a Hēni?
Māka: Kei te haere mai ia.
Mere: Kei te whakaheke ngaru kōrua?
Māka: Kei te whakaheke ngaru au, engari kāore a Hēni e whakaheke ngaru ana.
Mere: Ka pānui pukapuka ia?
Māka: Āe. Koirā tana tino mahi.
Mere: Koia kei a ia! Kāore au e pānui pukapuka, hōhā tērā!
Māka: Ha! Ha! Kei te kata au i tō kōrero!
Mere: Kei te haere au ki te kāinga o Mere ināianei, ka kite i a koe āpōpō, nē?
Māka: Āe, mā te wā.

During the course of last week's sessions, you were introduced to your first tense marker **kei te**. Remember that **kei te** is a present tense sentence starter. Starting a sentence with **kei te** means that you are asking about or talking about something that is happening at this very moment in time, or in the present tense.

Tense markers are important because they indicate a tense shift in the conversation. You don't want to be telling someone that you are doing something tomorrow when you actually did it yesterday, do you? Your basic action phrase tense markers are represented by the following verbal particles:

Kei te ... / E ... ana	<i>Present tense</i>
I ...	<i>Past tense</i>
Kua ...	<i>An action has occurred</i>
Ka ...	<i>Future tense</i>

Figure 4.24: Descriptions of simple tense (Morrison, 2020)

Similar to Moorfield, Morrison's textbook also displays a hybrid of technical and semantic based descriptions in its lesson content but with more detailed and complex specifications. This includes phrases, such as (*using personal pronouns, possessive prepositions, past tense possessive prepositions*), on the one hand and (*saying where you are from, talking about your whānau, asking and saying who will do something*) on the other as shown in Figure 4.25 below.

Contents
Introduction
The Learning Journey
Dialects
WEEK ONE: Pronunciation
WEEK TWO: Numbers
WEEK THREE: Greeting and farewelling people / Asking where someone is going
WEEK FOUR: Action phrases
WEEK FIVE: Action phrases continued
WEEK SIX: Action phrases / Using personal pronouns
WEEK SEVEN: Possessive prepositions
WEEK EIGHT: More on using possessives
WEEK NINE: Ā and Ō categories / More on possessive prepositions
WEEK TEN: Past-tense possessive prepositions
WEEK ELEVEN: Saying where you are from / Talking about your whānau
WEEK TWELVE: Asking and saying who will do something
WEEK THIRTEEN: Asking and saying who did something

Figure 4.25: Blend of technical and semantic descriptions (Morrison, 2020)

This mixed approach to list content appears to have been a common practice in the design of te reo Māori textbooks (and one that has been used since Moorfield's Te Whanake series in the 1980s), a phenomenon for which there seems to be no clear justification for its use. I think the aim to be consistent with lesson content description could produce more positive outcomes (e.g., students know exactly what to expect in their learning when content is clearly stated, to avoid ambiguity or confusion generated by mixing technical and semantic descriptions, and to build trusting teacher-student relationships etc.). A suggested semantic approach might be exemplified in the following way.

Lesson content:

- Talking about where you are from.
- Talking about your whānau.
- Asking and saying who will do something.
- Talking about likes and dislikes.
- Talking about going from one place to another.
- Talking about time.

In the examples above, the aim seeks to provide some consistency and to avoid technical terminology and description in the content page. The job of teaching actual technical terms and their associated concepts essentially would be taught in the actual classroom lesson but with caution and care and in ways that the learners would understand them. Nevertheless, the use of more technical terms in a content page might be useful in a linguistic book for linguistic students that want to learn the language for analytical purposes rather than learning te reo for communication for use in society. Although, the use of technical terms and descriptions can play an important role in the overall scheme of L2 teaching, the skill of the language teacher would be to determine if/ when to use them or not in the lesson. However, they can convey important concepts in very few words (e.g., preposition, tense, verbs) and may be useful in this way, particularly if students are familiar with them as this could reduce long drawn-out explanations by the teacher in a lesson. These suggestions are indicative only and are not meant to be definitive in any way. In the introduction of Morrison's textbook, it offers some simple principles to inform students during their language learning journey. Students can learn te reo no matter their knowledge level; by connecting the dots; and engaging in autonomous and self-directed learning. The first point seems to encourage students that language learning can be achieved regardless of one's knowledge level and implies that no prior knowledge or level of te reo (i.e., beginners, intermediate, or advanced) is necessary to do the lessons. The second point allows them to take control of their own learning in an empowering way by connecting the dots (i.e., I assume by following the instructions, exercises, and relevant tests in a unified way) which can be fun, effective, and easy. The third point and perhaps the most salient of the three encourages students to take partial responsibility for their own autonomous learning in regard to study, time management, motivation strategies, and overall organization etc. During the early stages of course design, the Māori language teacher would need to consider the inclusion and implementation of these points into the lessons. A complex undertaking, some

design guidelines might include matters of coherence⁵⁷ and cohesion⁵⁸ in regard to the gradation of language items and the inclusion of additional aids that link to lesson content in meaningful and useful ways to reinforce learning. Overall, Morrison's textbook appears to make good use of combining select elements into the overall course structure to address these points so as to aid the development of students' reo skills, for example, stating a rule of use, providing practice exercises, and the inclusion of tests as shown in Figure 4.26 below.

⁵⁷ The notion of coherence in written or spoken texts make sense of the organization of its content that has meaning (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 85).

⁵⁸ The notion of cohesion refers to the grammatical or lexical relationships between the different elements of a text, such as sentences or between different parts of a sentence (ibid, p. 86).

Rāpare – Thursday**🕒 30-minute challenge****1. Whakahuatia ā-waha ēnei takirua o te reo Māori.**

1. Practise saying these word pairs.

The following words are spelt the same, but are pronounced differently and therefore have different meanings. The presence of the macron changes the pronunciation and the meaning.

💡 Practise, practise, practise is the only way your pronunciation will improve! Speaking Māori will feel uncomfortable, so you need to practise until the words feel natural.

mana	māna
aka	āka
wahine	wāhine
aku	āku
toto	tōtō
take	tāke
tana	tāna
patu	pātū
ata	āta
pahi	pahī

2. Mai i te rārangi kupu takirua kātahi anō ka whakahuatia e koe, tuhia ngā kupu kāore e mārāma ana ki a koe me ā rātou whakamārama.

2. From the pairs list you have just been practising, write the words you don't understand and their meanings.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Figure 4.26: Combinability of elements to aid L2 learning (Morrison, 2020)

4.5 Summary of the key findings

Textbooks could be both prescriptive (i.e., rules that focus on what we should and should not do when we use language) or descriptive (i.e., statements about what is normal in language use, language is rule governed and not haphazard or chaotic). Either way both types of rules tell us something about how language works and this is presented in language textbooks in grammatical descriptions to aid L2 learners in becoming proficient in the target language.

Textbooks, therefore, should play an important role in the facilitation of that development in the learners for whom they are intended. By the mid-1800s, the New Zealand school curriculum was setup to teach European-based subjects (e.g., history, geography, and math), the New Zealand curriculum was modelled after the English grammar school system that taught the Latin, Greek, French, and English languages. There were very few textbooks or materials on the Māori language for teachers in that system. The European-based textbooks that were in circulation at that time promoted and reinforced colonial views but failed to address the issue of Māori to study their own epistemology. This would have a negative impact on Māori life including: 1) the reduction of the Māori population, 2) the disruption to the Māori culture, and 3) the decline of the Māori language. Although Māori was the dominant language of Aotearoa around 1840 to 1970, it waxed and waned over time and nearly succumbed to disappearing. This was due largely to the rise of European colonists, the increase in the use of English throughout society and in based print media (e.g., newspapers or educational materials), and the implementation of colonial policies established by the New Zealand Government. The ‘direct method’ implemented under the Native School Act punished children for speaking Māori at school and later subjected them to a three-stage filtration process that transformed children from monolingual speakers of Māori to bilingual speakers of both Māori and English, to eventually becoming monolingual speakers of English only. The advent of World War II was no less colonising in which Māori were mobilized into industries to support the war effort and this resulted in the urbanization of many Māori further dispossessing them from both culture and language. Despite these dismal conditions, the 1970s sparked a number of significant events that would counteract these negative effects. This included the Māori language petition of 1972 (i.e., to teach te reo in mainstream schools), the opening of Kōhanga Reo in 1982 (i.e., Māori language school for pre-school children), the Māori Language Act of 1987 (i.e., the realization of te reo as the official language of Aotearoa), the establishment of

the Māori Language Commission in 1987 (i.e., the official body for governing the affairs of te reo), and the launch of Māori Television in 2003 (i.e., to promote te reo throughout Aotearoa). It should be noted that the publication of textbooks on te reo since the 1960s would also contribute to the revitalization efforts of the language, particularly in the educational sector. Being slightly different in functionality to grammars on te reo of the previous century, textbooks included additional features or aids to consolidate language learning related to lesson content. Thus, textbooks offered, for example, stories or topics to contextualize language learning and usage; bilingual dialogues for practicing both the source and target languages; exercises and task-based activities to consolidate language learning; visual aids to enhance or to reinforce learning; tests and answer keys for testing what students learned and for checking their progress; supplementary materials, online activities, audio recordings and/ or animated lessons might be made available to the student. The textbooks to appear during the 1960s and beyond that would show case these aids for the first time included: Wills (1960) which appears to be the first textbook on te reo Māori to include additional teaching aids integrated into its lesson content; Waititi (1964) which was a reaction to fulfil a need to teach te reo on the same level when textbooks designed to teach European-based languages, such as Latin, Greek, French, and German were in use in the New Zealand education system at that time; Williams (1965) which accumulated in thirteen editions and included a Māori-English list of vocabulary, enlarged vocabularies including gainwords, some changes in grammatical terminology, particularly Māori verbs based on forms used in English textbooks and the addition of macrons to indicate long vowel sounds; Biggs (1973) wrote an influential textbook on te reo with its innovative use of technology to provide access to physical and external aids/ resources in the form of audio recordings that contained all the sentences in the textbook, they were an oral-aural tutor matched to a written exposition to aid students' development in their reo skills; Moorfield (2001a) who published the most popular and comprehensive series for the teaching

and learning of te reo to date with the publication of the Te Whanake Series. It provides some of the most comprehensive selection of activities, exercises, tasks, and tests to support the learner's language journey. It includes external online resources, such as audio, visual recordings, animations, simple online tests, digital books, podcasts, and the online Māori dictionary; Morrison (2020) whose textbook encouraged learners of te reo to study at home, to aid autonomous learning, and to participate in oral and audio activities presented in the textbook and online. The aim was to assist and reinforce knowledge about the new sentence patterns and vocabulary that students would learn each week to get them to an expert-level of te reo. Morrison learned te reo while studying at university during his first year and became more fluent during his second year while conversing with expert native speakers and ongoing study based on a more formal textbook approach learning style while he was at university. The opportunity to converse with native speakers (where possible) reminds us that no number of textbooks and learning aids can compensate for language learning more than practice with native speakers in addition to dedicated hard study, work, and effort.

Chapter 5: The Council of Europe: Developments in language studies

5.1 Introduction

Since the 1950s, the Council of Europe (CoE) has set pioneering standards in research-based studies in English language description that has taken it from a syntactically driven analysis to a more semantically based one. This has impacted, in certain ways, on second language teaching and learning education within Europe and abroad. This chapter will provide a brief background on the CoE (5.2), an outline of some key developments in English language studies developed by the CoE (5.3), the implications this body of research could have for a proposed semantic description of the Māori language (5.4), and then conclude with a summary of the key findings (5.5).

5.2 Background on the Council of Europe

The following sections will outline the origins of the Council of Europe (5.2.1), and then introduce some initial founding documents and their intended purposes with a focus on language education within Europe, particularly language description (5.2.2).

5.2.1 *Origins of the Council of Europe*

Trim (2005) says, “following the aftermath of World War II, Europe was in chaos, countless lives were lost and there were widespread disruptions in international travel, foreign interactions, and financial restrictions for language teachers, there was a decline in the teaching of languages and cultures and this, in turn, caused a shift in a focus on pluristic⁵⁹ formal correctness and the heritage of the classical national literature (p. 13).⁶⁰ In response to this dire

⁵⁹ Council of Europe (2001) says, “a plurilingual as an individual person’s experience of language in its cultural contexts expands from the language of the home to that of society at large and then to the languages of other peoples (whether learnt at school or college or by direct experience), he or she does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes in which languages interrelate and interact” (p. 4).

⁶⁰ While studying the French and German languages, Trim expressed that he knew more about the language and literature of the medieval and early modern periods up to the mid nineteenth century than anything spoken or written in the twentieth century.

situation, Sir Winston Churchill (1946) suggested “the idea of re-creating Europe under a proposed structure called the United States of Europe the first step towards this would be to form a Council of Europe (CoE), in the hope of reconciliation, unification, and to avoid recurrence of war” (p. 5). In 1949, the Council of Europe was officially formed with the signing of the Treaty of London by an Intergovernmental body of ten founding member-states (Council of Europe, 1949, pp. 104-106).⁶¹ There are currently 47 member-states in the Council of Europe today.⁶²

5.2.2 Founding documents of the CoE: A focus on language description

Following the formation of the CoE, a framework of conventions⁶³ was drafted to address a range of issues facing Europe at that time (Council of Europe, 2012, p. 26). The framework contained the necessary laws to establish governing committees with certain responsibilities to oversee and resolve any issues related to the culture and language of each member-state. The founding document of the CoE, The Statute of The Council of Europe, signed in 1949, recognized “the pursuit of peace, the preservation of society and civilization, and the rule of law” (Council of Europe, 1949, p. 104). The establishment of the European Cultural Convention (ECC) provided the cornerstone of all subsequent activities of the CoE including culture and education (Trim, 2007a, p. 5). With a focus on language, the ECC aimed:

- “To foster among the nationals of all member-states the study of the languages which is common to them all;
- To support the study by its own nationals the languages of the other contracting parties and to promote such studies in its territory;

⁶¹ The ten member-states included: Belgium, Denmark, France, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and the United Kingdom. A ‘member-state’ refers to any European county where membership in the Council of Europe requires endorsing the Statute of the CoE.

⁶² (See, for more details on Member-states, www.coe.int/en/web/portal/47-members-states).

⁶³ A convention is defined as a set of laws established by debate and agreement where a member-state is obliged to comply once it has signed and ratified it. When approved, the rules and regulations of that convention becomes part of their national laws.

- To promote the study of its language or languages in the territory of the other contracting parties” (Council of Europe, 1954, p. 2).

Morrow (2004) says, “although the CoE advocates a strong political work ethos, in the broadest sense, an important part of what it does is essentially cultural in nature rather than narrowly political or economic” (p. 3). The CoE, therefore, should not be confused with the European Union (EU)⁶⁴ or the United Nations (UN)⁶⁵ as they are distinct organizations, serving very different and specific roles within Europe.

5.3 Key developments in English language studies by the CoE

The following sections will outline some of the key developments in language studies carried out by the CoE beginning with the First Step (5.3.1), *Le Français Fondamental* (5.3.2), *Voix et Images* (5.3.3), Major Project in Modern Languages (5.3.4), the Unit Credit Scheme (5.3.5), Threshold Level Series (5.3.6), Notional Syllabus (5.3.7), some issues with threshold and notional syllabus (5.3.8), and the Common European Framework of Reference (5.3.9).

5.3.1 First Step (1957)

In 1957, the first suggestion for a study on language was proposed by the CoE when the French Government recommended that a committee of experts should be set up to plan the development of Modern Language Teaching in Europe (Trim, 2001, p. 2). Following this initial proposal, the CoE launched a range of different approaches to language description around 1961.

⁶⁴ The European Union is comprised of 27 member-states with a dominantly political and economic focus for all its members within Europe. All members must ratify and adhere to a standardized system of laws as a collective entity to ensure the freedom of all people, the distribution and accessibility of goods and services, enact legislation, and trade (See, europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/eu-in-brief_en).

⁶⁵ The United Nations is an intergovernmental organization that was established after World War II in 1945. It was organized with the express aim of protecting human rights, delivering humanitarian aid, promoting sustainable development, and upholding international law and peace. It focuses on preventing future wars, to maintain security, and to enhance relationships among the different nations within Europe and abroad (See, www.un.org/en/).

5.3.2 *Le Français Fondamental (1961)*

Le Français Fondamental, a description of a basic vocabulary and grammar of the French language, was launched at the first Intergovernmental Symposium held in Paris in 1961 (Trim, 1997, p. 48). Valax (2011) reported that “Le Français Fondamental was based on two surveys, the first generated a list of 1,000 words that were extracted from a corpus of oral texts of over 300,000 lexical items based on the criteria of frequency and availability⁶⁶ the second list identified 270 grammatical words, that is, 380 substantives, 200 verbs, 100 adjectives, and 50 other words including categories, such as food, drink, parts of the body, and furniture this list generated an additional 1,500 words, which was added to the first list, and this was divided further into 1,500 and 1,700 words, and then compiled into a final list by a group of teaching specialists and grammarians” (p. 20). Boyce (2006) compiled a similar list that identified 1,000 high frequency words in the Māori language. The list was based on two corpora of spoken and written texts in te reo.⁶⁷ Due to the large size of Boyce’s original list, I have provided only a sample of the top three high frequency occurrences of lexical items in Māori as shown in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1: Sample of the top three high frequency occurrences of Māori words

Frequency of Māori words in the list occurred...	Words/ Lexical items
5000 times or more	<i>te, i, ki</i> , ka, e, ngā, o, a, he, ko ...
2000 times or more	nā, kua, rā, nei, haere, hoki ...
1000 times or more	noa, noho, rawa, kātahi, nui ...

Interestingly, the definite article *te* and the particles *i* and *ki* appear as the top three high frequency items on the list. For many teachers and learners of te reo, these aspects of the

⁶⁶ The criteria of frequency and availability have been used in establishing the usefulness of words, for example, “the notion of frequency is self-explanatory”, whereas “availability accounts for lexical items, which may not be particularly frequent but are readily available to the speaker” when needed (Wilkins, 1976, p. 4).

⁶⁷ The two Māori corpora included the Corpus of Māori Texts for Children (MTC), compiled by Huia Publishers and the Māori Broadcast Corpus (MBC), a one-million-word representative corpus of broadcast material, recorded off-air in the mid 1990s and was compiled by Mary Boyce. (See, for Boyce’s full original list, <http://tereomaori.tki.org.nz/Teacher-tools/Te-Whakaipurangi-Rauemi/High-frequency-word-lists>).

language can and do present a number of challenges in regard to their different uses (e.g., differentiating between *te* or *tē* and *i roto* or *ki roto*). The identification of high frequency words could be useful for te reo teachers by raising an awareness to the importance of prioritizing them in a classroom lesson over other words to familiarize students with them as soon as possible. Wilkins (1976) says, “that the types of lists showing word frequency and availability can provide some guidance for pedagogical considerations in selecting vocabulary for their teachability and usefulness in language lessons” (pp. 4-5). A major focus of universal grammar alerts us to the fact that the language learner needs to acquire an immense amount of detail about how individual words are used in grammatical structures (See, Chapter 2, Section 2.2.7).

5.3.3 *Voix et Images (1961)*

Trim (2001 & 1997) recalls that *Voix et images de la France*, a pioneering audio-visual course for adults learning French as a foreign language, was also launched at the same Intergovernmental Symposium held in Paris, 1961 (pp. 2, 48).⁶⁸ Trim (2007b) says, “it was a direct method for teaching the French language based on methodically chosen progressive vocabulary that used equipment, such as lantern slides and a tape recorder . . . the use of the audio-visual method prompted the following list of recommendations:

- More importance should be attached to audio-visual methods in all countries (i.e., European countries);
- Linguistic research should be carried out everywhere with a view to compiling, for each language, a basic vocabulary, and a selection of elementary grammatical constructions;
- Textbook authors should be informed;
- The adaptation of the method to secondary school teaching should be studied;

⁶⁸ An innovative work in language studies, *Le Français Fondamental* and *Voix et Images de la France* were developed by the Centre de Recherche et Diffusion du Français (Trim, 2001, p. 2).

- Carefully prepared courses should be organized, and exchange of teachers and research workers arranged” (p. 6).

The establishment of *Le Français Fondamental* and *Voix et Images de la France* became the source of all succeeding works of the CoE over the next 35 years (Trim, 1997, p. 48). However, one of the first attempts to simplify the teaching of a language with lists of vocabulary, rules and grammar for more practical usage was developed much earlier by Charles Ogden in 1930. In his book called *Basic English*, Ogden provided an 850-word list of vocabulary showing words commonly used in everyday life, and this formed a basis for teaching English as a Second Language (TESL). The words were categorized into, Operations (e.g., come, get, give); Things (e.g., chalk, tin, map), and Qualities (e.g., angry, good, natural).⁶⁹

5.3.4 Major Project in Modern Languages (1962)

In 1962, the CoE deemed it necessary to set up certain committees and organizations to address a number of increasing issues associated with the teaching and learning of European languages. The Committee of Ministers (CoM) included the Ministers of Foreign Affairs from each of the 47 member-states. Being invested with certain powers, they acted as the decision-making arm of the CoE. The CoM would later set up the Council for Cultural Co-operation (CCC) which comprised of four different committees in charge of 1) education, 2) higher education, 3) culture, and 4) cultural heritage.⁷⁰ Trim (2001) says, “all four committees were involved in the Major Project in Modern Languages (MML) that went about holding various symposia to promote:

- The co-operation among the successive sectors of the education system;
- The interaction between university language research and the language teaching profession;

⁶⁹ (See, for more details on Ogden’s list, <http://www.basic-english.org>).

⁷⁰ Also known in French as ‘Conseil de la Coopération Culturelle’ (CDCC).

- The establishment of applied linguistics as a recognized academic discipline and the creation of the International Association for Applied Linguistics (AILA)⁷¹;
- The development and use of audio-visual (Voix et images) technology and methodology in language teaching” (p. 3).

Trim (2007a) later says, “a budget was set up to allow for a small working party #1⁷² to coordinate all linguistic activities in the MML and to send a representative to attend all meetings twice a year with the project Director a major aim was to prepare a publication called *Modern Languages in the World of Today* that would review past activities and present a plan for future action the main aim of the MML was to remove the barriers that divided the language teaching profession in Europe and to promote a sense of unification as the impetus for European integration, while simultaneously preserving linguistic and cultural diversity” (p. 10). As the MML developed, the Committee of Ministers proposed the following recommendations below for a) language teaching and b) language research as outlined in one of the founding documents of the CoE (Council of Europe, 1969):

a) Recommendations for language teaching:

- A knowledge of modern language should no longer be regarded as a luxury reserved for an elite few but an instrument of information and culture, which should be available to all;
- Preparation of modern teaching materials for use in language courses;
- Provision of facilities (for instance, language centres) to cater for the general and professional needs of students who are not language specialists and wish to learn or to improve their command of modern languages;

⁷¹ The Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée (AILA) French designated acronym was established in France in 1965. (See, www.aila.info). The CCC supported the first Congresses of the Association held in Nancy, 1964 and Cambridge, 1969 (Trim, 2001, p. 3).

⁷² The CoE would go on to establish three small different working parties over time (they are identified in this section as working party #1, #2, and #3) in order to develop and oversee a range of research-based studies, projects, and initiatives to progress second and foreign language teaching and learning within Europe.

- The creation of proper facilities for permanent education in modern languages enabling all European adults to learn a language or languages of their choice in the most efficient way;
- Provision of special training courses for modern language teachers entrusted with classes of adult learners.

b) Recommendations for language research:

- Research into the factors affecting language acquisition, learning, and teaching at all ages and with all categories of learners;
- Research into the development of the most suitable syllabuses, materials, and methods of teaching for all categories of pupils and students;
- Definition of criteria of language proficiency leading to the production of tests for evaluating the results of language learning;
- Preparation of basic lists of words and structures of the European languages (i.e., spoken and written) to facilitate the construction of study materials appropriate to modern aims and methods of language teaching and examination of the possibility of furthering the study of less widely known European languages;
- Analysis of the specialised language of science, technology, and economics (pp. 8-10).

The recommendations above set out the fundamental tenets on which all subsequent work of the CoE was based. Trim (2007a) says, “they set a precedent in the history of language teaching in the twentieth century on many different levels it enabled Europeans to communicate and cooperate freely with each other in regard to their own language and culture it rejected elitism and encouraged language learning for all from young children to specialist and non-specialist students in lifelong permanent education it recognized the importance of information technology and teacher training and the reform of new methods of examinations and testing it emphasized the significant role that research plays in the language teaching

profession” (p. 13). Simpson (1972) says, “the CCC in association with the MML aimed to provide educational opportunities for young Europeans despite their backgrounds or level of academic achievements and to help them to adjust to changing political and social conditions” (p. 5).

5.3.5 The Unit-Credit Scheme (1971)

In the early 1970s, the CoE developed the unit-credit scheme that enabled adult learners of European languages to gain credit for studying units of work with a practical application. It formed the basis for a description of language learning objectives based on functions and notions (Trim, 2005, p. 33). Following an Intergovernmental Symposium on Adult Language Learning held in Rüschtikon Switzerland in 1971, a small working party #2 was set up under the direction of Dr. Herbert Jocher to investigate the feasibility of a European unit-credit scheme for adult language learning.⁷³ After some deliberations, the working party proposed the following list of general principles about languages:

- Languages are for all;
- Languages are learnt for use;
- Language learning is a life-long activity;
- Language teaching should specify worthwhile, appropriate, and realistic objectives based on a proper assessment of the needs, characteristics, and resources of learners;

⁷³ The working party consisted of:

- John Trim (Chairman), Director of the Department of Linguistics, University of Cambridge, UK who had organized the Second International congress of Applied Linguistics. His background was in German studies, phonetics, and its applications. He was the methodological adviser to the BBC in language programmes for adults and author of the German TV series: ‘Komm Mit’, and a member of the (British) National Council for Educational Technology (NCET).
- René Richerich ran the Service de Recherche et d’Application at the Eurocentre, Neuchâtel, specialising in the analysis of the language needs of adult learners of French as a foreign language.
- Jan van Ek was Director of the Institute for Applied Linguistics at the University of Utrecht, the Netherlands. His special field was the Grammar of English, and he was an adviser to the Deutscher Volkshochschulverband (DVV).
- David Wilkins worked in the Department of Linguistics, University of Reading, UK with a background in French Studies and a specialist in the application of linguistics to the teaching of foreign languages, particularly English (Trim, 2007a, p. 15).

- Language teaching should be planned as a coherent whole, covering the specification of objectives, the use of teaching methods and materials, the assessment of learner achievement and the effectiveness of the system, providing feedback to all concerned;
- Effective language teaching involves the coordinated efforts of educational administrators and planners, textbook and materials producers, testers and examiners, school inspectors, teacher trainers, teachers and learners who need to share the same aims, objectives, and criteria of assessment (Trim, 2001, p. 3).

Following the recommendations of an Intergovernmental Symposium held in 1977, the Council of Europe decided to abandon the European unit-credit scheme to focus on the development and application of a Threshold level series concept. Trim (2007b) says, “it attempted to define a) the minimum that a language learner should know and be able to do in order to move as an independent agent in the foreign language environment in terms of the functions language performs, b) the concepts or notions both general and theme-specific to be expressed and consequentially, the grammatical categories and structures and the vocabulary needed for the purpose and, c) to focus on the communicative approach across the whole educational system, especially at the school level” (pp. 1-3).

5.3.6 Threshold Level Series (1975)

Threshold was first published in 1975 and was a major work of the CoE in language description. It had a profound impact on second and foreign language teaching and learning within Europe for the English and French languages. It formed part of the Threshold Level series (also called the T-level series), which included four books in total, namely:

1. Breakthrough (van-Ek & Trim, 1990a);
2. Waystage (van-Ek & Trim, 1990b);
3. Threshold (van-Ek & Trim, 1990c);
4. Vantage (van-Ek & Trim, 2001).

Trim (1997) says, “the T-level series provided some of the first documents in the history of language studies to specify language learning objectives in terms of what the learner was expected to do with or in a foreign language it contained detailed grammar and linguistic descriptions of language functions, such as notions, topics, and situations the series has now been applied to other European languages including Galician, Catalan, Welsh, Russian, Maltese, Lithuanian, Latvian, Estonian, Irish, Greek, and Friulian” (p. 55). Trim (2005) says, “the T-level series was developed to determine the minimum requirements that a learner should be familiar with in order to, as it is said, cross the threshold to another language community” (p. 33). Trim (2007b) further says, “the books in the series were developed, among other reasons, to aid the teachers’ responsibility to help build up their learners’ knowledge of grammatical structures from the simple to the complex and vocabulary from the most to the less common items, and to foster an environment of learning autonomy” (pp. 1-2). A number of textbooks on *te reo* also emphasized the importance of language learning from simple to complex, the acquisition of vocabulary, and self-directed learning (See, Chapter 4, Section 4.4). I have provided a short description of each book in the T-level series as shown in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2: A description of each book in the T-level Series

Books	Descriptions
1. Breakthrough (1990a)	Breakthrough (1990a), the most recent addition, is now considered the lowest stage in the T-level Series as revised in light of the CEFR. Wilkins placed Breakthrough at the stage of formulaic proficiency and Trim equated it to the introductory level (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 23). Breakthrough is a level just below Waystage and specified the different roles of language learners in plurilingual development in different contexts, that is, the diversity of the target audience; the different groups and their characteristics (e.g., age; stage of cognitive

	and emotional development; previous educational experience, especially of language learning; expected language use; interests and motivations; future perspectives etc.).
2. Waystage (1990b)	Waystage (1990b) is the latest, thoroughly revised, extended, corrected, and reset version. It is an intermediary or lower-intermediate level objective below Threshold in a European unit-credit scheme of modern language learning by adults. Waystage 1990b is a statement of language learning objectives which sets out <i>how a learner should be able to use English in everyday communication</i> . It specified the most essential situations, topics, functions and notions, and their simplest lexical and grammatical exponents. Further specifications include sociocultural competence, learning to learn, pronunciation and intonation. It was designed for those who are interested in acquiring a general and basic ability in English but who are unable or unwilling to commit themselves from the outset to an expenditure of time and energy that would take them to the level of competence as described in a separate publication called Threshold.
3. Threshold (1990c)	Threshold (1990c) is the latest, thoroughly revised, extended, corrected, and reset version of Threshold 1975. The latter was part of a project to investigate the feasibility of a unit-credit scheme for adult language learning in Europe. The project set out to develop conceptual and planning instruments to assist teachers and course planners to analyze the needs of the learners towards whom they had responsibility and to set consciously and explicitly appropriate learning objectives.

4. Vantage (2001)	Vantage 2001 is intended to offer guidance and support to the many ‘partners for learning’ whose co-operation is necessary to the creation of a coherent and transparent structure of provision for effective learning relevant to the needs of the learners as well as of society, which normally provides the resources. It sets out to define in some detail what such an objective means in practice, what users of a language are most likely to wish or need to be able to do in the communication situations in which they take part and consequently what they have to know and the skills they have to develop in order to be able to communicate effectively in those situations.
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The T-level series began with Threshold in 1975 and was revised in 1990, nevertheless there appears to be some need to revise it. In Chapter 5 of Threshold, for example, a specification was organized and subdivided into headings and subheadings, such as *Language Functions: Expressing and Finding out Attitudes* (van-Ek & Trim, 1990, p. 29-31). The following sentences (e.g., Tomorrow isn’t Wednesday. Don’t you think it’s nice? I know Mrs. Thatcher) were categorized under these headings but are unusually mismatched. Because each sentence can denote probability, possibility, and certainty (generally associated with modal meanings), it is difficult, therefore, to determine how they can be conceived of as relating to *attitudes* at all or to find any adequate rationale for their specification under these headings in the first place. It raises the issue as to why auxiliary modal predicates (i.e., could, might, must etc.) are treated as being functional (which are often associated with speech acts, such as a command, a request, an apology etc.) and this is clearly not the case here (See, for more on speech acts, Chapter 2, Sections 2.3.2.2 and 2.3.2.3). I argue would it not be equally possible to include sentences containing other verbs such as, for example, ‘understand’ or is it not the core meaning of the lexical verb that is driving inclusion as to what category they would appropriately belong

and, if so, why are these considered to be functional categories. I provide a small sample of some language specifications in Threshold 1975 as shown in Table 5.3 below.⁷⁴

Table 5.3: Sample of language specifications in Threshold 1975

Categories	Subcategories	Exponents	Examples
Language Functions	Imparting and seeking factual information	Identifying	with suitable gesture: This (one), That (one) These, Those (p. 28).
General Notions	Existential	Existence, non-existence	There is + NP. There's no + NP. There isn't any + NP (p. 48).
Specific Notions	Personal identification	Occupation	What do you do (for a living)? Names of occupations: baker, businessman, businesswoman (p. 61).

Saville (2005) says, “although the T-level series has attracted the attention and interest of teacher trainers, textbook designers, and professional educators in language studies, in many cases, they would use the series independently of each book but still feed into the same system or, at least, refer to it as opposed to what they do with it, which is another matter altogether” (p. 281). It seems that particular specifications in the T-level series need to be reorganized, if or when using them as a basis for language syllabus design. Raising an awareness to the issues involved could inform language educators’ decisions in regard to using the books in the T-level series in their own teaching practices.

⁷⁴ Threshold 1975 contains a very large specification of which only a small sample is given in Table 5.3 above. (See, for full details on these categories, Threshold, 1975, pp. 27-81).

5.3.7 *Notional Syllabus (1976)*

Trim (2001, p. 4) says, “a ‘functional-notional model’ set out the categories and language exponents of:

1. Functions performed by speech acts in communication (e.g., explaining, questioning, apologising etc.);
2. General concepts (e.g., place, time, causality etc.);
3. Concrete, situation-specific concepts (e.g., house, train, score etc.).

The core principle running through the unit-credit scheme, the Threshold Level series, and the Notional Syllabus was to define the abilities of learners’ needs to reach a level of communication in a language other than their own and to determine what these groups of learners should be able to do as a user of a second or foreign language in a foreign country within Europe. At first, John Trim began to list speech acts and this was taken up later by David Wilkins who extended on notional categories and communicative functions. Wilkins (1976) first introduced his ideas of Notions in a series of educational papers of the CoE and in certain conferences.⁷⁵ Wilkins published his ideas later in his influential book *A Notional Syllabus* in 1976. The ideas about notions of language, in respect to English, contained the seeds for later development to the debate, at that time, on the need for a new communicative approach to language teaching and planning (See, Wilkins, 1976). It offered a taxonomy of semantic-oriented aspects of language and aimed to inform teachers’ understanding of the nature of language pedagogy in the light of these developments. However, a number of problems with a functional approach to language description involves the difficulty of constraining the types of functions permitted, the difficulty of avoiding complexity in terms of description and

⁷⁵ The papers included:

- The linguistic and situational content of the common core in a unit-credit system (1973).
- Grammatical, situational, and notional syllabuses (1974a).
- Notional syllabuses and the concept of a minimum adequate grammar (1974b).

explanation, and the fact that analysis must precede theory (See, Chapter 2, Section 2.2.8).

Wilkins' book *A Notional Syllabus* comprises three chapters:

- Chapter 1: A taxonomy of a notional syllabus;
- Chapter 2: The application of a notional syllabus;
- Chapter 3: The model specified categories and language exponents of the syllabus.

It is important to clarify that Wilkins' book is not a syllabus per se, despite the word syllabus appearing in the title. It is a statement of objectives or more accurately a specification of describing language that deals with functions, general notions, and specific notions in everyday situations (e.g., getting things done, food and drink, weather etc.). White (1988) says, "Wilkins' introduction of a new syllabus did little to address the broader problems associated with the theoretical basis or the content of syllabus design, and that the issues were more to do with ideas about education in general the notional-functional syllabus operated on two important elements: 1) a notional aspect that referred to, for example, concepts of time, space, movement, and cause and effect, and 2) a functional aspect that described and classified the intentional or purposive use of language" (pp. 1, 75). Dubin and Olshtain (1986) described "a syllabus as a specification of the objectives and outcomes of the course, it focuses on what language points to teach and how to teach those points including the identification of materials, techniques, and tests to be applied in the syllabus" (p. 34). This is clearly not the case with Wilkins' book. However, it did offer two different approaches that could guide the design of a course syllabus, that is, 1) *Synthetic* and 2) *Analytic* as outlined below.

1. Synthetic

Wilkins (1976) says, "a synthetic approach to language analysis and description teaches parts of language separately in discrete units and that acquisition is considered as a process of an accumulation of those parts until the whole structure of the language is achieved by the learner it focuses on the linguistic components and isolating its units, and then teaches those units

back to the learner until they arrive at the starting point (citing Reibel, 1969) the synthetic approach appears to be similar to a structuralist one with its focus on form or forms, such as rule or rules of sentence structures” (pp. 2, 5). Wilkins (1976) further says, “a synthetic approach is largely superfluous in an analytic one, however, this is not to say we make no use of it in making decisions about aspects of language structure but merely it is not the starting point” (p. 13). The latter idea, albeit not new to the English language might be considered as a new approach to describe the role in grammar books and textbooks, which very often start from an analytic description (See, for, example, Chapters 3 and 4).

2. Analytic

Wilkins (1976) “says, the notion of analytic was more behavioural based (though not behaviourist)⁷⁶ being organized in terms of the purposes for which people were learning languages and the kind of language performances that were necessary to meet those purposes the problem was to express what it was that people would do with language although a synthetic approach aimed to draw the learners’ attention to heterogeneous points of language structures given in isolated form, the need to make linguistic generalizations cannot be ignored the acquisition of language, therefore, is based on the learners’ analytic capabilities, and not the capacity to synthesize” (pp. 13-14). The ideas underlying an analytic approach seem to share some similar characteristics of a functional grammar (See, Chapter 2, Section 2.2.8). Tomlin (1994) says, “that communication shapes form, and sociocultural and cognitive factors can explain linguistic phenomena, syntax is not independent from semantics and pragmatics,

⁷⁶ Behavioural can refer to the goals of learning in terms of a) observable behaviour, b) describes the conditions under which the behaviour will be expected to occur, and c) states an acceptable standard of performance (e.g., a behavioural objective for a conversation might be to give an oral request, that is, the learner will say his/ her name, address and telephone number to a native speaker of English and spell his/ her name, street, city so that an interviewer can write down the data with 100 per cent accuracy). Behaviourist, on the other hand, is concerned with explaining behaviour based on conditioning but discards any reference to mind or to a consideration of cognitive properties, such as thoughts or feelings (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, pp. 48-49).

and language acquisition can involve a constructivist view and cognitive factors” (p. 146).⁷⁷ Tomlin (1994) further says, “functional grammar contained the communicative imperative element, the connection of acquisition with language usage, and the discourse basis for much grammatical selection that was wholly compatible with current insights in both second language acquisition and teaching (p. 174). The sociocultural context, therefore, is critical to language development in which usage as well as form needs to be addressed. Howatt in a discussion with Widdowson says, “the social factor makes it necessary to engage questions of context of communication and aspects of culture when developing an integrated theory of language in use” (Howatt, 2004). Taking into consideration some synthetic and analytic principles, this has helped me to rethink my approach to describe certain aspects of te reo with a focus on social, context, culture, and language usage. As previously mentioned, for example, Wilkins’ notion of *not beginning with structure analysis as the starting point for describing language*, I now like to think of a description of te reo as starting from *meaning* first and *form* second or, in other words, starting from *analytic* first and *synthetic* second (See, for more on this idea, Chapter 1, Section 1.4.3). This may be visualized in the following way as shown in Figure 5.1 below.

⁷⁷ Brown (2000) explained that constructivism (often associated with Piaget and Vygotsky) is not new to language studies . . . it argues “that all human beings construct their own version of reality, and multiple contrasting ways of knowing and describing are equally legitimate” (p. 11).

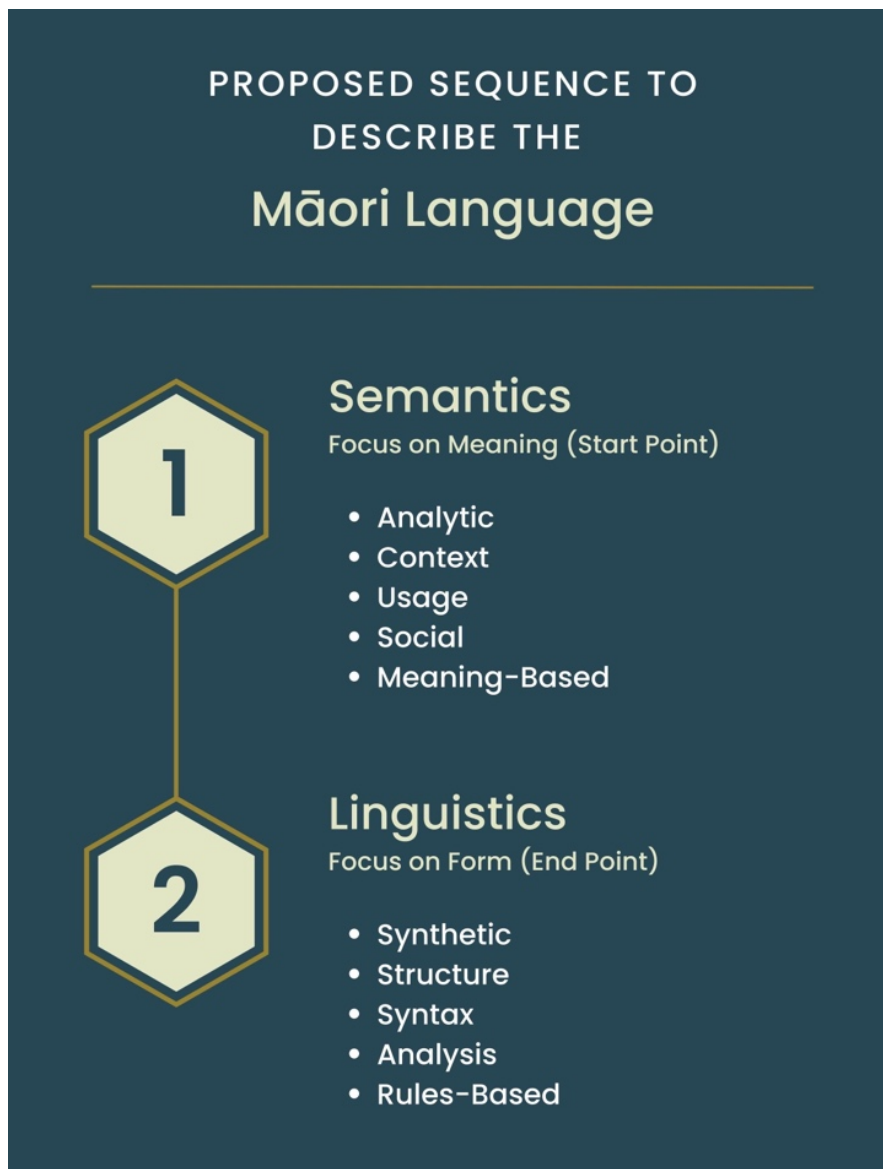


Figure 5.1: Suggested start-end points for describing te reo (Based on Wilkins, 1976)⁷⁸

Ellis (1990) says, “there is a need for both a focus on meaning and a focus on form” (p. 390). However, Ellis is not suggesting any start point here but rather just stating the inclusion of both forms as being pertinent to language description. Neither Wilkins nor Ellis is explicitly stating or suggesting a *meaning first, form second sequence* for the English language as I have suggested here for te reo. Nevertheless, this may not work with all instances of Māori language structures but I think it may offer some benefits regarding its description (e.g., offering a top-down model, that is, explaining general to specific rules to describe te reo). Furthermore,

⁷⁸ This figure was created by the author of this thesis using data from the author-date reference in the parentheses. The figure does not appear in the actual source referenced.

Wilkins (1976) proposed three main categories in his book *A Notional Syllabus* as shown in Table 5.4 below.⁷⁹

Table 5.4: Proposed categories and subcategories of the Notional Syllabus

Categories	Subcategories
Semantico-grammatical	time, quantity, space, relational meaning, deixis (pp. 25-38)
Modal meaning	modality (pp. 38-41)
Communicative function	judgement, evaluation, suasion, argument, relational enquiry and exposition, personal emotions, emotional relations (pp. 41-54)

With reference to a semantico-grammatical notion, for example, take the concept of time, which can be grammatically expressed using an auxiliary verb *will + main verb* or *be going to + main verb*. However, this may be semantically expressed by a heading that states *future time* with grammatical elements included in that expression, for example, *will or be going to + main verb* for planning future events. This essentially is grammatical description but presented in a different way. Thus, a semantico-grammatical description might be a list of things to do (i.e., denoting future time) for the following week as one might write in a dairy, for example,

Weekly Tasks:

1. I'm going to visit my friend tomorrow.
2. I'll need to collect my new shoes on Wednesday.
3. I'll be cooking dinner on Friday night.

Wilkins (1976) says, "the pedagogic approach to express time concepts is vital to the communicative focus and learners should be provided with the appropriate grammatical system to express those concepts whether or not that system is patterned along logical lines the English grammar does not identify a future verb form because futurity can be expressed in

⁷⁹ (See, for more detailed information on each category, Wilkins, 1976, pp. 25-54).

ways that have other primary uses (e.g., present tense, present progressive, *will + V*, *going to + V*) nonetheless, learners need to require some means of expressing futurity” (p. 29).

5.3.8 Some issues with threshold and notional syllabus

There are some significant differences between the categories outlined in Threshold (1975) and Notional Syllabus (1976), that is, the way in which the term *function* was used in the latter book was close to the way in which it was used by Austin (1962) and Searle (1969). It was used as an overall term for the interaction between text and context in creating communicative speech acts/ unitary values (e.g., *warning*, *threat*, *invitation*). However, the term function would appear to be used in a very different way in Threshold. The absence of these unitary values in Threshold seems to suggest that the authors might have been attempting to avoid a fundamental problem associated with Wilkins’ notional attempt to use functions as syllabus categories. With the exception of a few formulaic functions, such as *greetings* it is not possible to associate functions with specific linguistic realizations precisely because functions depend upon the interaction between language and its context. This problem is, however, still in evidence in spite of the attempt to limit the number of functional categories, which have little to do with what Austin meant by *functions* (i.e., speech acts). It seems that semantic based descriptions are underlying a great deal of these studies in the area of semantico-grammatical, modal meaning, and communicative functions. The authors of Threshold were looking at language descriptions that were fundamentally different from semantic ones but categorized some of their specifications under functions. It seems they were rephrasing linguistic concepts as part of that arrangement, for example, *Communication Repair* (van-Ek & Trim, 1990c, p. 45) was similar to *Strategic Competence*, a subcategory of *Communicative Competence*.

5.3.9 *The Common European Framework of Reference (1991)*

The following sections will outline the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) in regard to its origin (5.3.9.1), purpose (5.3.9.2), user levels and six scales (5.3.9.3), global scale system (5.3.9.4), self-assessment grid (5.3.9.5), and reference level descriptors (5.3.9.6).

5.3.9.1 Origin of the CEFR

Following the recommendation of an Intergovernmental Symposium held in Rüslikon Zurich in 1991, a working party #3⁸⁰ was set up to develop the *Common European Framework of Reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* between 1993 and 1996.⁸¹ The symposium aimed to investigate *the feasibility of relating language courses and assessments to each other based on a common framework in Europe*. This was a reaction to school and examination certificates awarded for language learning that contained statements such as, for example,

- Followed a course of English at Intermediate level;
- Successfully completed a course in Foundation French;
- Received a Grade C or 4.5.

Each statement, however, was very ambiguous and made it difficult to relate the examination result to the course's achievement objectives (i.e., What does it mean by *successfully completed* etc.). To make sense of the result, the learner would need to be familiar with the actual course or the exam content. Because it would be difficult for educational institutions to know every aspect related to a particular course or exam, there would be some incoherency in the organization of language learning and in the reporting of results achieved upon completion of

⁸⁰ The working party included John Trim, Daniel Coste, Brian North, and Joe Sheils.

⁸¹ The Symposium was based on "Transparency and Coherence in Language Learning in Europe" hosted by Switzerland and coordinated by Eurocentres at Rüslikon, near Zurich in November 1991. Eurocentres organised, with permission of the Swiss Government, both the 1971 Rüslikon Symposium that launched the Council of Europe's original Modern Languages Project and the 1991 Rüslikon Symposium that launched the development of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Eurocentres has 21 schools worldwide teaching English, French, Spanish, German, Italian, and Japanese (North, 2006, p. 1).

a course or exam. After piloting two editions, the CEFR was published with Cambridge University Press for English and with Didier for French. It is now available in over 20 languages. The CEFR was developed with three main aims in mind:

1. To establish a metalanguage common across educational sectors, national and linguistic boundaries that could be used to talk about objectives and language levels. It was hoped that this would make it easier for practitioners to tell each other and their clientele, what they wish in order to help learners to achieve and how they attempt to do so;
2. To encourage practitioners in the language field to reflect on their current practice, particularly in relation to learners' practical language learning needs, the setting of suitable objectives and the tracking of learners' progress;
3. To agree on common reference points based on the work on objectives that had taken place in the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Projects since the 1970s.

In other words, the CEFR attempted to relate language courses and their assessments in ways that provided greater transparency and coherency between the two systems. North (2006) says, "it was not, however, considered as a harmonisation project but rather to provide a theoretical framework that encouraged value and diversity and to provide a tool that would enable people to say where they were, not a specification telling them where they ought to be in their language learning journey (pp. 1-2). This idea is partially reflected in the following statement,

We have not set out to tell practitioners what to do or how to do it. We are raising questions not answering them. It is not the function of the CEFR to lay down the objectives that users should pursue or the methods they should employ (Council of Europe, 2001, p. xi).

5.3.9.2 Purpose of the CEFR

The Council of Europe (2001) says, "the CEFR provides a theoretical framework for the ongoing development of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, and

textbooks within Europe it describes in a broad way what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop in order to be able to act effectively it includes reference to cultural contexts in which language is set it defines levels of proficiency to measure learners' progress at different stages of learning, which is considered as a lifelong pursuit it attempts to explore ways to overcome communication barriers among professionals working in the field of language learning and teaching within Europe it offers a framework for educational administrators, course designers, teachers, teacher trainers, examining bodies, and other professional groups to reflect on their current practices with a view to positioning and coordinating their efforts and to ensure that they meet the real needs of the learners for whom they are responsible it provides a foundation for a description of objectives, content and methods, the transparency of courses, syllabuses and qualifications, and the provision of objective criteria for describing language proficiency to facilitate the mutual (i.e., working for each other) recognition of qualifications gained in different contexts of learning" (p. 1). Furthermore, the CEFR serves the overall aims of the CoE, that is, "to achieve greater unity among its member-states and to pursue this aim by the adoption of common action in the cultural field and adheres to three basic principles:

1. That the rich heritage of diverse languages and cultures in Europe is a valuable common resource to be protected and developed, and that a major educational effort is needed to convert that diversity from a barrier to communication into a source of mutual enrichment and understanding;
2. That it is only through a better knowledge of European modern languages that it will be possible to facilitate communication and interaction among Europeans of different mother tongues in order to promote European mobility, mutual understanding, cooperation, and to overcome prejudice and discrimination;

3. That member-states, when adopting or developing national policies in the field of modern language learning and teaching may achieve greater convergence at the European level by means of appropriate arrangements for ongoing cooperation and coordination of policies (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 2).⁸²

Essentially, the CEFR is a descriptive scheme based on a set of common reference levels of language skills at six different stages of progression. The scheme is introduced in Chapter 2, and then extended on in Chapters 4 and 5 of the CEFR. The common reference levels are introduced in Chapter 3 and are used to present descriptor scales for aspects of the descriptive scheme in Chapters 4 and 5 (North, 2006, p. 2). At the core of the CEFR framework is a set of common reference level signposts made up of 1) six scales; 2) descriptors or global scales and; 3) reference level descriptors. At first, there appears to be some confusing and ambiguous overlap in terminology, nevertheless they are closely related and serve a common inter-dependent function as described below.

5.3.9.3 User Levels and Six Scales (A1-C2)

The CoE has developed a system of six scales from A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, to C2 for the teaching of foreign languages in Europe. The six scales are grouped into three broad types of language ‘Users’ identified as Basic User, Independent User, and Proficient User. Each group is designated a relevant textbook from the T-level series that is appropriate for that level, except for C1 and C2 levels, which is more about the spontaneous development of language accuracy and fluency. The users, scales, and related textbooks attempt to work together in a systematic way to facilitate language learning and development as shown in Figure 5.2 below.

⁸² The basic principles were established in the Recommendations No. R (82) 18 and No. R (98) 6 of the Committee of Ministers written by the Council of Europe (1982; 1998).

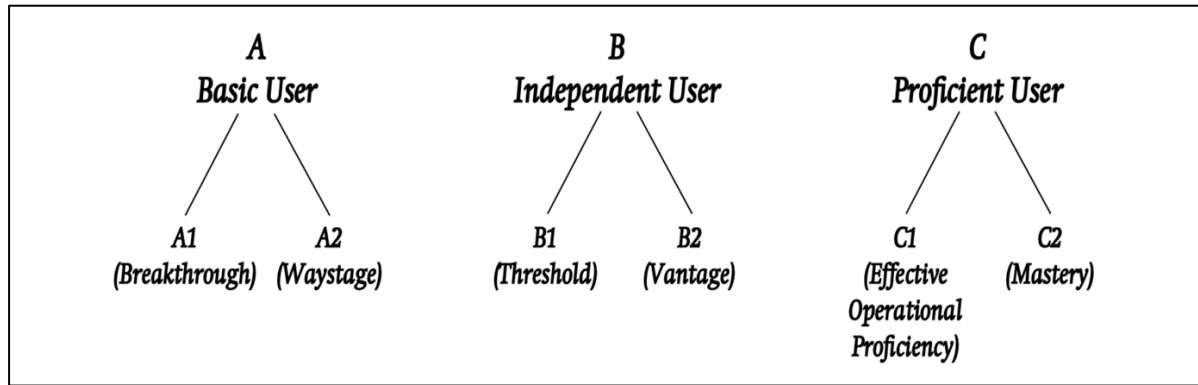


Figure 5.2: Hyper-text branch diagram of users, scales, textbooks (CoE, 2001)

It is important to note that the CEFR levels did not suddenly appear from nowhere but were developed over a period of time that evolved out of Threshold for English in 1975 and Un Niveau Seuil for French in 1976.⁸³ The CoE (2001, p. 23) developed the user-levels (i.e., Basic, Independent, Proficient) as re-interpretations of the more common levels (Beginners, Intermediate, Advanced). These latter levels might be perceived as being too broad and subjective because different people might interpret them in different ways, for example, a learner's *Intermediate* level might be perceived as being quite *Advanced* by another learner and depending on his/ her experience with particular learners.⁸⁴ On the other hand, the term *Independent*, for example, might cover a broader range of differing interpretations.

5.3.9.4 Global Scale System: Descriptors/ Can-Do Statements

The six scales are accompanied by a set of *descriptors* often called *can-do* statements and together they make up the global scales of the CEFR. The original descriptors were developed in a Swiss National research project while drawing on the threshold specifications. This signaled the start of the CEFR book, which was published in 2001.⁸⁵ The scales have been elaborated on in 2018 as part of a large-scale international project resulting in the publication of the CEFR Companion Volume, which is intended to be a complement to the CEFR 2001

⁸³ (See, www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/level-descriptions).

⁸⁴ (See, as a reference to this quote, <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KquYBc11FP0>).

⁸⁵ (See, for an earlier draft of the CEFR, CoE, 1992).

book (CoE, 2018, p. 23).⁸⁶ Council of Europe (2001) says, “the simple representation of the global scales attempt to make it easier to communicate the system to non-specialist users and also to provide teachers and curriculum planners with orientation points the integrated global scales are made up of the users, scales, T-level series textbooks, and descriptors” (p. 24).⁸⁷ This integrated system is shown in Table 5.5 below.

Table 5.5: Global scales: users, scales, T-level series textbooks, and descriptors

Users	Scales and Textbooks	Descriptors/ Can-Do Statements
Proficient User	C2 Mastery	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarize information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments, and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express himself/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1 Effective Operational Proficiency	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning. Can express himself/ herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic, and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing

⁸⁶ It is important to note that the companion volume was published during the write-up of this thesis and, therefore, it is not included in this study. (See, for more details on the companion volume, www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/the-cefr-descriptors).

⁸⁷ (See, for the full overview of all the CEFR scales, <https://rm.coe.int/CoERMPublicCommonSearchServices/DisplayDCTMContent?documentId=090000168045b15e>).

		controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors, and cohesive devices.
Independent User	B2 Vantage Limited Operational Proficiency	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/ her field of specialization. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1 Threshold	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics, which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes, and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
Basic User	A2 Waystage	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g., very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment).

		Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/ her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1 Breakthrough Formulaic Proficiency Introductory	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce himself/ herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/ she lives, people he/ she knows and things he/ she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

In addition, the scales have been described in the following ways and their relevance to each textbook in the T-level series. Council of Europe (2001) says,

- “The C2 scale equates to Mastery but is not intended to imply native-speaker or near native-speaker competence rather it characterizes the degree of precision, appropriateness and ease with the language which typifies the speech of those who have been highly successful learners descriptors calibrated here states that the user as being able to convey finer shades of meaning precisely by using, with reasonable accuracy, a wide range of modification devices; has a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms with awareness of connotative level of meaning; backtrack and restructure around a difficulty so smoothly the interlocutor is hardly aware of it (p. 36);

- The C1 scale equates to Effective Operational Proficiency. It characterizes good access to a broad range of language, which allows fluent, spontaneous communication in which the user can express himself/ herself fluently and almost effortlessly. The C2 and C1 scales extend beyond the highest levels of language attainment and, therefore, do not have a corresponding textbook in the T-level series (p. 36);
- The B2 scale equates to Limited Operational Proficiency or adequate response to situations normally encountered. The user is able to sustain his/ her opinions in discussion by providing relevant explanations, arguments, and comments etc. It is intended to reflect the Vantage level specification (pp. 23, 35);
- The B1 scale reflects the Threshold level specification in which the user has the ability to maintain interaction and get across what he/ she wants to in a range of contexts it has the ability to cope flexibly with problems in everyday life (p. 34);
- The A2 scale appears to reflect the Waystage level specification in which the majority of descriptors stating social functions are to be found (e.g., using simple everyday polite forms of greeting and address; greeting people, asking how they are etc.) the focus on assessment is found at this level (p. 33);
- The A1 scale equates to Formulaic Proficiency as suggested by Wilkins and Introductory by Trim. It is considered the lowest level of generative language use, the point at which the user can interact in a simple way, ask, and answer simple questions about themselves, where they live on a very finite rehearsed, lexically organized repertoire of situation-specific phrases (pp. 23, 33).

It is important to note that the works of the CoE have been developed with adult learners in mind who are learning a second or foreign language within Europe but not really focusing on children. Nevertheless, this group of adults may also include young European learners despite their academic achievements or backgrounds (Simpson, 1972, p. 5).

5.3.9.5 Self-assessment Grid

In order to measure users progress, the global scale system necessitates the need for a separate but different set of descriptors that are linked in useful ways to assess language development in terms of speaking, writing, reading, and listening skills. As a result, the CoE (2001) developed the self-assessment grid, which aims to help learners to:

- Profile their main language skills;
- Self-assess their level of proficiency;
- Focus on a particular spectrum of levels and a particular set of categories;
- Assess performance based on communicative language competence (p. 25).

The sample self-assessment grid shows what a Basic User is able to do with particular language skills that he/ she has learnt and developed at, for example, the A1, A2, and B1 levels and this is closely linked to the descriptors/ can-do statements of the CEFR as shown in Figure 5.3 below.

		A1	A2	B1
U N D E R S T A N D I N G	Listening	I can recognise familiar words and very basic phrases concerning myself, my family and immediate concrete surroundings when people speak slowly and clearly.	I can understand phrases and the highest frequency vocabulary related to areas of most immediate personal relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local area, employment). I can catch the main point in short, clear, simple messages and announcements.	I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.
	Reading	I can understand familiar names, words and very simple sentences, for example on notices and posters or in catalogues.	I can read very short, simple texts. I can find specific, predictable information in simple everyday material such as advertisements, prospectuses, menus and timetables and I can understand short simple personal letters.	I can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job-related language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.
S P E A K I N G	Spoken Interaction	I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.	I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can handle very short social exchanges, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.	I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).
	Spoken Production	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.	I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job.	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.
W R I T I N G	Writing	I can write a short, simple postcard, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.	I can write short, simple notes and messages relating to matters in areas of immediate need. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.	I can write simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.

Figure 5.3: Sample of a self-assessment grid (CoE, 2001)

However, Cervini, Masperi, Jouannaud, & Scanu (2013) says, “the self-evaluation system, as a multidimensional tool will evolve along predetermined lines, the next step being the development of modules in three key areas:

1. Self-evaluation precedes the test proper and has a functional and also a formative purpose. The former allows us to start the test with items closer to the level of the learner and to reduce the time necessary and the stress or boredom associated with excessively hard or easy questions for test-takers. Formatively, it would be interesting to link the self-evaluation results to the final diagnosis. We are exploring different modalities for self-evaluation, including metacognitive can-do statements, benchmarked samples to which the learners can compare their performance, or using ideas developed in portfolio assessment projects, which might mitigate the drawbacks of questionnaires and can-do statements;
2. Formative feedback is a central issue for a formative test, both for the student and the instructor. This implies deciding what information the student needs to see after finishing the test, what needs to be stored for the long term, or perhaps permanently, for example, in a personal profile page;
3. Scoring is the protocols we choose for our exercises, the competence levels aimed at, and the use of dichotomous vs. polytomous items will all impact scoring procedures” (pp. 59-60).⁸⁸

Nevertheless, a number of language exponents have found the global scale specifications to be insufficiently precise and excessively broad. This has prompted the intervention of the CoE to explore the need for more specific descriptors to address the issue. The development of the reference level descriptors (RLDs), a critical addition to the CEFR book, has been the response to that concern.

⁸⁸ Dichotomous: Multiple-choice items that only presents one alternative model, or distractor, among the possible answers, besides the correct answer (See, <https://www.igi-global.com/dictionary/dichotomous-item/58710>). Polytomous: Divided into more than two secondary parts or branches (See, <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/polytomous>).

5.3.9.6 Reference Level Descriptors (RLDs)

Council of Europe (2005) says, “national teams using various approaches and, where appropriate with the assistance of an expert are responsible for producing the reference level descriptors with an aim to:

- Provide reference descriptions based on the CEFR for individual European languages;
- Provide words of a language rather than general descriptors;
- Identify the forms of a given language (words, grammar and so on), mastery of which corresponds to the competences defined by the CEFR;
- Transpose the CEFR descriptors into specific languages, level by level, from A1 to C2.⁸⁹

An aim of the RLDs is to transpose the can-do statements that characterize the competences of the user and scale levels (e.g., Basic User at A1 scale) in terms of linguistic material specific to that language and considered necessary for the implementation of those competences the RLDs will always be an interpretation of the can-do statements and in combination with the corresponding linguistic material and making it possible to influence acts of discourse, general notions, and specific notions the RLDs are structured to contain inventories of a language’s words and rules that are considered necessary to produce oral and written texts that align with the global scales in addition to the RLDs, the CoE has published an educational resource called a Guide for their Production, that is, the production of RLDs which outlines common general principles, identifies the features that these descriptions should share and specifies the methodology that should be used to create the inventories in order to give these RLDs for individual languages a degree of scientific status and a social audience compatible with their aims (pp. 4, 6). In other words, the guide aims to assist in transposing RLD specifications to European-based languages including Croatian, Czech, English, French,

⁸⁹ (See, for more details on RLDs, www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/reference-level-descriptions).

German, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish with help from the Council of Europe.⁹⁰ The CoE offers the following broad statement concerning the principles and theories it has put forward in the CEFR document.

The principles and theories underlying all these models should in no way limit how different cultures choose to organise or describe their own system of levels and descriptors according to their own requirements that can be presented in different ways for different purposes, and this can develop over time the global representation will facilitate easier communication of the system to non-specialist users and will also provide teachers and curriculum planners with reference points (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 23-24).

Essentially, the aim of learning another language is trying to convey the same meaning in the most authentic, accurate, and fluent way possible. However, almost every aspect of the CEFR is vulnerable to serious criticism and yet bearing in mind the extent of its reach and those language professionals who have criticized it in writing are relatively few in number. McNamara (citing Valax, 2011) says, “the prevalent influence of the CEFR has met with a resounding silence perhaps because it may have minimal genuine academic interest to language professionals that it may have little merit as many individuals and countries have invested in the CEFR, it has become heavily entrenched without regard to the major problems associated with it the CEFR continues to be treated as the standard point of reference” (pp 82-83). Johnson (2010b) says, “any attempt to use the CEFR as a basis for designing language curricula whose objectives are more specific than those associated with general language proficiency is doomed to failure the CEFR cannot realistically be said to provide a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, or textbooks across Europe” (p.1). Finally, the CEFR (2001) could be considered

⁹⁰ (See, for more on the assistance with RLDs, <https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/reference-level-descriptions-rlds-developed-so-far>).

as the embodiment of Le Français Fondamental, Voix et Images, the unit-credit scheme, the T-level series, notions and functions of language, global scales, and the RLDs with a focus on language description that tends to lean more towards a meaning-based approach among other purposes.

5.4 Some implications of this research for a description of the Māori language

The works of the CoE can provide an important historical context from which to draw some useful guiding principles for a semantic based description of te reo Māori. They highlight a number of pros (e.g., compiling frequency and availability lists of vocabulary) and cons (e.g., the limitations of a synthetic approach to describe language). They could inform language teachers to the use of best principles in their own teaching practices and resource development. Some of the descriptive theories can be useful in presenting te reo in different ways, such as the notion of time to express past, present, and future time. Moorfield (2001a), for example, says, the marker *ka* is often used to express a change of action in narratives, for example, Ka karangatia te manuhiri, ka whakaeke mai, ka tū ki mua o te wharenuī, ka tangi = The visitors were called, they came on (to the marae) and stopped in front of the meeting house and wept (p. 130). The use of *ka with various verbs* can signal the occurrence of one event after another to show a semantic relationship called chronological sequence as shown in Table 5.6 below.

Table 5.6: The use of *ka* to denote past, present, and future time events

Signal	Time	Context	Examples
Ka	Past	A recount about a trip to Australia.	I tērā marama, ka haere au ki Āhitereiria noho hararei ai, ka noho ki tētahi hōtera pai, ka hoko taonga, ka tūtaki ki aku whanaunga, ā, ka hoki mai anō ki Aotearoa i tērā wiki. Last month I went to Australia for a short holiday, stayed at a nice hotel, brought some great stuff, met up with some relatives, and then returned to Aotearoa last week.
	Present	Reporting information about current occurrences.	Ka kuhu mai a Tame ki roto i te rūma, ka tū ki te aroaro o te iwi, ka mihi, ka mutu, ka wehe ai. Tom comes into the room, stands in front of the crowd, greets them, finishes, and then leaves.
	Future	A proposed funeral schedule for the day of the burial.	Hei te Rātapu ā te tekau karaka i te ata, ka karakia tātou, ka haere ki te urupā, ka karakia anō, ka hoki mai ki te Marae, ka hākari ai. On Sunday at 10am, we'll have church service, proceed to the grave site, continue with church, come back to the Marae, and then eat.

The timeframe signaled by the use of *ka* in each of the examples is largely determined by the context in which it occurs. Firstly, the holiday to Australia recounts past events that occurred during that trip. Secondly, a series of present events is communicated to an audience perhaps during a live-feed report. Thirdly, a series of future events is announced to the people at a

funeral. Some studies of the CoE are already in use in the New Zealand educational sector. This is seen in the adaptation of the CEFR users, scales, and descriptors in the New Zealand curriculum. The achievement objectives listed in the curriculum are divided into 8 levels of proficiency for a Level A user in regard to that user's knowledge and skills (i.e., See, sample only below, published on the New Zealand curriculum site in 2014).⁹¹

Level 1: Proficiency Descriptors (Basic User)

- Students can understand and use familiar expressions and everyday vocabulary.
- Students can interact in a simple way in supported situations.

Although the descriptors for te reo are only concerned with language achievement objectives, it is largely left to the teachers themselves to determine what language items they will teach and how they will teach them in order to achieve those objectives. This is a matter of syllabus and lesson design. Although Wilkins (1976) notional syllabus may offer some guidance in this area it does little to address the broader problems associated with the theoretical basis or the content of syllabus design, it has more to do with ideas about education (e.g., describing language) in general and this may not be useful in helping teachers to design an actual syllabus. They would need to look elsewhere for help. Nevertheless, a number of CoE theories, such as the user distinctions (e.g., Basic, Independent, Proficient), the can-do statements, and the self-assessment grid could prove to be useful design principles for a description of te reo Māori. In the first instance, the need to rethink certain levels to give learners a stronger sense of where they sit in their reo learning journey and to be less ambiguous about those levels should be an important part in the overall scheme of reo teaching and learning. For some learners, it may be a challenge (and perhaps a need to know) at which level they might be in te reo. The user levels and corresponding descriptors could potentially eliminate a lot of the guess work. The can-do

⁹¹ For more details on these achievement objectives for languages in the New Zealand curriculum (See, <https://nzcurriculum.tki.org.nz/The-New-Zealand-Curriculum/Learning-languages/Achievement-objectives#collapsible1>).

statements would provide the necessary information about what the learners should be able to do with te reo at certain levels, and this would be a way to gauge their development as they advance through a course of study (e.g., Basic user: can use simple language to recite a pepehā). The self-assessment grid could provide a list of personal evaluative statements that the learners themselves might tick off at the end of a course of study. (e.g., I understand and know how to use simple particles and vocabulary, such as ko, tōku, maunga, awa, iwi or I understand the significance of a pepehā from a cultural viewpoint etc.). All these descriptive theories of the CoE working in unison could bring some coherency and cohesion to a description of te reo with an aim to produce meaningful and practical outcomes in a real-world context. Nevertheless, as a recently new theoretical approach towards language studies in New Zealand, a large number of research conducted by the CoE may not be fully known or understood at this current time by language educators. This would present a major barrier, particularly where time is concerned to get this information out to the masses so as to accelerate this research as quickly and as far as possible. The implications suggested here are indicative only and some aspects of the research may not always work in a description of te reo Māori. Finally, the need for more research to produce robust data analysis and sound theory to gauge whether te reo teachers might find this information to be of any use in their own practices or not might generate some merit with them.

5.5 Summary of the key findings

Since the 1950s, the Council of Europe (CoE) has set innovative standards in research-based studies in the education of languages within Europe, particularly the English language and this has taken language description from a syntactically driven analysis to a more semantically based one. This has influenced studies in the education of other languages beyond Europe including te reo Māori of Aotearoa in the New Zealand curriculum framework. The CoE initiated a number of developments to address modern language teaching in Europe including

different approaches to describe language. This included *Le Français Fondamental*, a description of a basic vocabulary and grammar of the French language analysed a corpus of oral texts of over 300,000 lexical items based on the criteria of ‘frequency’ and ‘availability’. A similar study was conducted on the Māori language that also analyzed high frequency words of *te reo* based on a corpus of Māori Texts for Children and the Māori Broadcast Corpus in which *te*, *i*, and *ki* were listed as the top three lexical items in the study. The criteria of frequency and availability can influence pedagogical considerations in selecting vocabulary for their teachability and usefulness in language lessons. *Voix et Images*, an innovative audio-visual course for adults learning French as a foreign language emphasized the importance of the audio-visual methods in Europe and carrying out research that focused on basic vocabulary and grammatical constructions. *Le Français Fondamental* and *Voix et Images* became the source of all succeeding works of the CoE over the next 35 years. The Committee of Ministers (CoM) set up the Council for Cultural Co-operation to oversee 1) education, 2) higher education, 3) culture and 4) cultural heritage. They were involved in running various symposia, 1) to promote the co-operation among the successive sectors of the education system, 2) to promote the interaction between university language research and the language teaching profession, 3) to establish applied linguistics as a recognized academic discipline and, 4) to promote the development and use of audio-visual technology and methodology in language teaching. The ideas put forward by the CoM provided the fundamental tenets on which all subsequent work of the CoE was based. They set a precedent in the history of language teaching in the twentieth century on many different levels. The unit credit scheme enabled adult learners of European languages to gain credit for studying units of work with a practical application. It formed the basis for a description of language learning objectives based on functions and notions and offered a set of general principles about languages in general, for example, 1) languages are for all, 2) languages are learnt for use, and 3) language learning is a life-long activity to name

a few. The Threshold level series eventually replaced the unit-credit scheme with a focus on the notions of language, grammatical categories, structures, vocabulary, and the communicative approach. Threshold had a profound impact on second and foreign language teaching and learning within Europe for the English and French languages. It comprised four books, 1) Breakthrough, 2) Waystage, 3) Threshold and 4) Vantage and they were the first documents in the history of language studies to specify language learning objectives in terms of *what the learner was expected to do with or in a foreign language* and contained detailed grammar and linguistic descriptions of language functions, such as notions, topics, and situations. Threshold was developed to aid the teachers' responsibility to help build up their learners' knowledge of grammatical structures from the simple to the complex and vocabulary from the most to the less common items, and to foster an environment of learning autonomy. The notional syllabus specified objectives in operational terms that described language in relation to, 1) functions performed by speech acts, such as explaining, questioning, 2) general notions of language, such as place, time and, 3) specific notions of language, such as house, train, etc. The ideas about notions of language contained the seeds for later development to the debate on the need for a new communicative approach to language teaching and planning. It offered a taxonomy of semantic-oriented aspects of language and aimed to inform teachers' understanding of the nature of language pedagogy in the light of these developments. The ideas were discussed in a book called Notional Syllabus published in 1976, which put forward two different approaches that could guide the design of a course syllabus specification, that is, 1) Synthetic and 2) Analytic. Synthetic focused on the linguistic components and isolated its units, and then taught those units back to the learner until they arrive at the starting point. Although the synthetic approach was needed to make generalisations about the structure of language, it was not, however, considered as the starting point to describe language. Analytic shared similar characteristics with a functional grammar, for example, communication shapes form, and

sociocultural and cognitive factors can explain linguistic phenomena, syntax is not independent from semantics and pragmatics, and language acquisition can involve a constructivist view and cognitive factors. The CEFR could be considered as the ultimate accumulative work of the CoE. It was a reaction to school and examination certificates awarded for language learning that contained ambiguous statements such as, for example, completed the course or awarded A grade etc. It was developed with three main aims in mind, 1) to talk about objectives and language levels and to help learners to achieve these aims and how to carry this out, 2) to encourage practitioners to reflect on their own practices and consider their learners' needs and to track their progress and, 3) to agree on common reference points based on the work on objectives of the modern languages project. The CEFR provides a theoretical framework for the ongoing development of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, and textbooks within Europe. It describes a system of six scales from A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, to C2 for the teaching of foreign languages in Europe. The six scales identify a basic user, independent user, and proficient user. Each user and scale are designated a relevant textbook from the T-level series that is appropriate for that level, except for C1 and C2 levels, which appear to be more about the spontaneous development of language accuracy and fluency. The six scales are accompanied by a set of descriptors often called can-do statements that state what the learner should be able to do with the target language at certain levels of language development. All these things taken together make up the global scales of the CEFR. A self-assessment grid can help users to evaluate their own progress in the target language. The reference level descriptors, a prominent feature of the CEFR, are used to transpose the can-do statements to other languages and cultures to assist them in their own language-focused educational goals, The RLDs will always be an interpretation of the can-do statements. A major thread that runs through all of this research aims to define the abilities of learners' needs to reach a level of communication in a language other than their own and to determine what these

groups of learners should be able to do as a user of a second or foreign language in a foreign country within Europe. These aims can be transferrable to the development, teaching, and learning of other languages outside of Europe, such as te reo Māori. In the case of non-European languages, the CoE offers the following statement as a guide, the principles and theories underlying all these models should in no way limit how different cultures choose to organise or describe their own system of levels and descriptors according to their own requirements that can be presented in different ways for different purposes, and this can develop over time. The task of adapting some aspects of the CoE's studies to a description of te reo (despite being a complex undertaking) might begin with selecting those principles that would best suit the educational needs of the reo teacher. In general, the studies could alert language teachers to the use of best principles in their own teaching practices and resource development. The selecting of vocabulary based on the criteria of frequency and availability could be useful in determining words for inclusion in lesson content. Some of the descriptive theories can be useful in presenting te reo in different ways, such as the notion of time to express past and present tense and future aspectual. The use of *ka* with various *verbs*, for example, can signal the occurrence of one event after another to show a semantic relationship called chronological sequence. The CEFR document of the COE is already in use to describe some aspects of the Māori language in the New Zealand curriculum. However, its description and inclusion seem to be very limited in its use. Although the CoE's descriptors are only concerned with language achievement objectives, the teachers themselves need to decide what reo items they will teach and how they will teach them to meet those objectives. The CoE's different levels of 'users' (e.g., Basic, Independent, Proficient), the can-do statements, and the self-assessment grid as a unified system could prove to be an informative theoretical framework for a description of te reo Māori. The user levels and associated descriptors could help to place learners appropriately in a course of study (e.g., as a beginner or an advanced student) and this

could give them a stronger sense of where they sit in their reo journey or be less ambiguous about their own levels by reducing some of the guess work for them. In addition, the can-do statements would provide the necessary information about what a learner should be able to do with te reo at a certain level and this could have a motivating and confidence building effect (e.g., the learner can use simple language to recite a pepehā). The self-assessment grid could further add to that effect by providing an interactive component to the reo course and encourage autonomy in which the learners would tick off a list of evaluative statements at the end of their course of study. (e.g., I understand and know how to use simple language, such as ko, tōku, maunga, awa, iwi or I understand the significance of a pepehā from a cultural viewpoint etc.). The implementation of some theories of the CoE could bring a sense of coherency and cohesion to a description of te reo in grammar books and textbooks with an aim to produce more meaningful and practical outcomes in the overall scheme of Māori language education. Nevertheless, the research carried out by the CoE may not be fully known or understood at this current time by language educators in New Zealand and this, therefore, presents a challenge of getting this information out to the masses so as to accelerate this research as quickly and as far as possible, and to update any interested parties in this body of studies. The implications suggested here are few and indicative only and necessitate the need for more critical research to explore the possibilities and to determine whether te reo teachers might find this information to be of any use in their own practices or not. It should be noted that some of the research in this chapter may not work adequately or at all in describing some aspects of te reo Māori. Finally, the primary focus is on the reo students with the express aim to find the best solutions to facilitate the development of their communicative competence from A1 Basic to C2 Proficient users of te reo Māori for communication in sociocultural contexts.

Chapter 6: Proposed framework for a semantic description of te reo Māori

6.1 Introduction

Although the research-based studies outlined in this thesis relate to descriptive theory of the English language, they may have something to offer as far as a semantic description and pedagogic focus of language generally is concerned. The theories in chapters 2 and 5 and, in addition to, the one's in chapter 6 below can provide a collective and useful set of design principles for a proposed framework, in a preliminary way, for a semantic description of te reo Māori. The framework is mainly concerned with (but not limited to) inter-propositional and intra-propositional relationships, case role theory, and semantic predicates. This chapter will provide a general outline of semantic and language description (6.2), the English language and semantic description (6.3) the Māori language and semantic description (6.4), and a summary of the key findings (6.5).

6.2 General outline of semantic and language description

In this section, I will give an overview of some semantic principles in language description namely: inter-propositional relationships (6.2.1), intra-propositional relationships/ case role theory (6.2.2), and semantic predicates (6.2.3).

6.2.1 Inter-propositional relationships

Longacre (1968), in his report on twenty-five Philippine languages and dialects says, “attention is given to the relations of grammatical sentences within discourse and that two clauses bound or not, form all or part of two grammatical sentences these included, for example, time, cause, reason, purpose, result, and condition among others” (Longacre, Volume II, Sentence Structure, 1968, pp. 4, 224). Crombie (1985b) says, “that underlying all coherent discourse is a number of simple operations (or relations) which all human beings regardless of language or culture have in common these operations are ultimately reducible to three qualities:

resemblance, contiguity in time and place, and cause and effect . . . which is the reason why . . . languages so nearly correspond to each other” (p. vii). Longacre (1972) in a later study created a system of general categories under which he identified certain relations in sentences as shown in Table 6.1 below. Subsequent systems created by other researchers would show changes, additions, and/ or reconceptualizations of Longacre’s initial model including Beekman and Callow (1974), and Hollenbach (1975) as shown in Tables 6.2 and 6.3 below.

Table 6.1: General categories and relations (Longacre, 1972)

General Categories	Relations
Conjoining	Coupling; Contrast; Comparison
Alternation	Alternation with only two possible alternatives; Alternation with more than two alternatives
Temporal	Overlap; Succession
Implication	Conditionality: Hypotheticality; With Universal Quantifier of a Term (in the Antecedent); Contingency; Proportions (correlative statements)
Implication: Causation	Efficient Cause; Final Cause; Circumstance
Implication: Contra-factuality	Contra-factuality
Implication	Warning: Warning.
Paraphrase	Equivalence Paraphrase; Negated Antonym Paraphrase and similar structures; Generic-Specific Paraphrase; Amplification Paraphrase; Specific-Generic Paraphrase;

	Contraction Paraphrase; Summary Paraphrase
Illustration: Simile	Simile; Exemplification
Deixis	Introduction; Identification
Attribution	Speech Attribution; Awareness Attribution
Frustration	Frustrated Coupling; Frustrated Succession; Frustrated Overlap; Frustrated Hypothesis; Frustrated Contingency; Frustrated Efficient Cause; Frustrated Final Cause; Frustrated Attribution; Frustrated Modality

Table 6.2: General categories and relations (Beekman and Callow, 1974)

General Categories	Relations
Addition Relations	Chronological Sequence; Simultaneity; Alternation; Conversational Exchange; Matched Support
Associative/ Supporting Relations	Manner; Comparison; Contrast; Equivalence; Generic-Specific; Amplification-Contraction/ Summary; Reason-Result; Means-Result; Means- Purpose; Condition-Consequence; Concession-Contra-expectation; Grounds- Conclusion; Time; Location; Circumstance; Identification; Comment; Content

Table 6.3: General categories and relations (Hollenbach, 1975)

General Categories	Relations
Temporal	Cooccurrence, Simultaneous, Circumstance-Included Event, Antecedent-Subsequent, Beginning-Post-Span, Pre-Span-End
Causal Relations	Means-Purpose; Means-Result; Reason-Result; Cause-Effect; Stimulus-Response
Logical Relations	Grounds-Implication; Condition-Consequence; Contrary-to-fact Condition-Contrary-to-fact Consequence; Concession-Contra-expectation
Equivalence Relations	Greater-Lesser; Comparison; Generic-Specific; Restatement; Positive-Negative; Contrast
N-ARY Relations (i.e., number of entities + binary)	Coordination; Inclusive Alternation; Exclusive Alternation

The types of general categories and relations listed above have since been re-examined in the context of propositional theory, particularly inter-propositional relationships in a study by Crombie in the 1980s, however, this theory is not explicitly stated in Longacre's 1968 original report. Crombie (1985b) in her book *Process and relation in discourse and language learning* says, "because Longacre and his colleagues do not confuse relation or relational encoding, I have relied most heavily on their work (p. xvi). In her book, Crombie proposes an approach to a semantic description of propositions as encoded in the English language in which she says,

My first aim has been to investigate, in a preliminary way, the direction in which an operational approach to language study might lead. My second aim has been to attempt to provide language teachers with an account of semantic relations which might form the basis of a new approach to syllabus design semantic relations is the observation that when we communicate by using language, it is not by means of individual words or clauses or even individual sentences but by means of coherent stretches of interrelated clauses and sentences, the meaning of which can be understood only in relation to the linguistic and situational context in which it occurs (Crombie, 1985b, pp. viii, 1).

Ridge (1987) says, Crombie argued that “pedagogic proposals must arise out of and relate to sound and clearly explained theory” (p. 1). Crombie (1985b) says, “inter-propositional coherence⁹² are the relationships that hold between one proposition (or one group of propositions) and another inter-propositions can be divided into two types, that is, general semantic relations, for example, cause and effect and interactive semantic relations, for example, elicitation and response” (pp. vii, 1). This study has been largely concerned with general semantic relations. Crombie (1985b) further says, “the study of semantic relations involves discursal values in which the utterance may be defined as its significance or communicative function within a discourse that differs from its sentence meaning or conceptual content, that is, sentence meaning including the interaction between words and structures and discourse value being the interaction between sentence meaning and context discursal values can be divided into two different types: unitary values, for example, warning, threat, insult with which Austin (1962) and Searle (1971)⁹³ are concerned or binary values, for example, reason-result or condition-consequence consider the following sentence He

⁹² Inter-propositions emphasize a semantic relationship that exist between propositions in which other parts of speech (e.g., coordinating conjunctions, present participle, or conditionals etc.) and its arguments can signal that relationship (a simplified definition).

⁹³ (See, for more on speech acts, Chapter 2, Sections 2.3.2.2 and 2.3.2.3).

broke his ankle in 1 and 2 below in which they have the same sentence meaning but in 1, it has the discourse value reason and in 2, result.

1. Why did Tim faint? He broke his ankle. = Reason
2. What was the result of Tim's accident? He broke his ankle. = Result (p. 2).

Like Longacre, Beekman and Callow, and Hollenbach, it is seen that Crombie (1985b) also proposed her own system of general categories and general semantic relations or binary values which she says, "it is not intended to be definitive" (pp. 17-28). Crombie's system seems to form the basis for a taxonomy of inter-propositional relationships as shown in Table 6.4 below (Adapted).

Table 6.4: General categories and relations/ binary values (Crombie, 1985b)

General Categories	General Relations/ Binary Values
Temporal	Chronological Sequence
Matching	Simple Contrast
Cause and Effect	Reason-Result
Truth and Validity	Denial-Correction
Alternation	Contrastive Alternation
Bonding	Coupling
Paraphrase	Paraphrase
Amplification	Amplification
Setting/ Conduct	Event/ State Location

Crombie's taxonomy was adapted later by Dr Johnson in 2009 who seems to have re-organized the information into relations, discursal values, definitions, and examples for clarity purposes as shown in the sample in Table 6.5 below. (See, for the full categories of inter-propositional relationships, Section 6.3.2 below).⁹⁴

⁹⁴ The revised and adapted system was made available to students doing the Postgraduate Diploma in Second Language Teaching taught by Dr Diane Johnson at the University of Waikato in 2009.

Table 6.5: Adapting Crombie's system of inter-propositional relationships

Relations	Discoursal Values	Definitions	Examples
Time and Space	Chronological Sequence	Here, a sequential link between event propositions one of which follows the other in time. The event may be long or short and need not be in the past.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She came into the room and sat down. • He will walk straight in and help himself to the food.
Contrastive	Simple Contrastive	Here, the relation involves two things, events, states, processes, abstractions in terms of some particular respect in which they are different.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He was French; she was Dutch. • He wrote quickly; she wrote slowly.
Cause and Effect	Reason and Result	Here, the reason member (which very often follows the result member in English) gives the reason why a particular result came about or will come about.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [Because the party was boring], she left early. • She left early [because the party was boring].

6.2.2 *Intra-propositional relationships/ case roles*

In this section, I begin with a statement about intra-propositional relationships/ case roles (6.2.2.1), followed by an overview of case roles (6.2.2.2) including an outline of four different systems of case roles proposed by Fillmore (6.2.2.3; & 6.2.2.4), Grimes (6.2.2.5); Crombie (6.2.2.6); and Whaanga (6.2.2.7). I will provide a brief commentary on two case roles studies

carried out by (Bauer, 1981; & Crombie, 1985b) that show some similarities and differences in descriptions (6.2.2.8), and then list some issues with propositional theory (6.2.2.9).

6.2.2.1 Statement about intra-propositional relationships and case roles

In this section, I treat intra-propositional relationships⁹⁵ and case roles together for the following reasons 1) Crombie (1985b) says, “that intra-propositional coherence is often referred to as roles or cases (p. vii) intra-propositional coherence shows the semantic relationships that exist within propositions that hold between the semantic predicate of a proposition and its argument or arguments” (p. 95) and 2) Whaanga (2006) says, “Fillmore’s 1967 paper Case for Case (See, Section 6.2.2.3) was later re-examined with a focus on propositional theory which was central to case roles including intra-propositional and inter-propositional relationships” (p. 7). Fillmore (1968) says, “a proposition essentially consisted of one or more noun phrases and their related verbs” (p. 41). Crombie (1985b) further says, “the various semantic functions performed by the argument/s of a proposition in relation to its predicate are referred to as semantic roles, for example, He dropped the typewriter in which the arguments are He and the typewriter and the semantic predicate is dropped I am using the term predicate, in a semantic sense, that grammarians often refer to anything that is not the grammatical subject of a clause as its predicate, so ‘dropped the typewriter’ is the predicate in a semantic sense, I am using the term predicate in a way that can be broadly defined as an action = drink, a process = deteriorate, or a state = understand” (p. 96).⁹⁶ Crombie later used the term *within* to describe the types of relationships generated by intra-propositions as opposed to the term *between* as generated by inter-propositions (p. 95). For me, I like to think of case roles as sentient or non-sentient participants in propositions and that their particular roles are determined by the predicate and arguments to which they are related, for example, The dog (A)

⁹⁵ Intra-propositions emphasize a relationship that exist within propositions in which the predicate and its arguments can signal that relationship (a simplified definition).

⁹⁶ In other words, the term predicate is not just a label but how each predicate performs in different ways.

ate the rat (P) in which the dog is one argument and also the Agent and the rat is the other argument and the Patient, and both are linked to the predicate *ate*. The Agent (i.e., the Participant that eats something is very often a sentient entity) as determined by the verb *ate* (in other words, it cannot really be non-sentient, such as *The rock ate the rat.*), however, the Patient (i.e., the Participant that is eaten may not necessarily be a sentient entity, such as *The termites ate the wood.*) in which the *wood* is an inanimate participant. Crombie (1985b) says, “that most verbs in English can operate either as the verb of a single argument (John ate) or more than one argument (e.g., John ate the meal) in which the meal is grammatically referred to as the object of the clause, the subject and the object are generally referred to as different entities or abstractions that play different semantic roles in relation to the predicate of the clause” (p. 99).

6.2.2.2 Overview of case roles

The notion of case role theory was introduced by Charles Fillmore in 1967 in a paper called *Case for Case* in which he says,

There are many semantically relevant syntactic relationships involving nouns and the structures that contain them and that these relationships are in large part covert but are nevertheless empirically discoverable, that they form a specific finite set, and that observations made about them will turn out to have considerable cross-linguistic validity. I shall refer to these as case relationships (Fillmore, 1967, p. 9).

The paper was prepared for a Symposium on Linguistic Universals held in Texas 1967 in which Fillmore referred to “case roles as a component of the grammar of every language” (p. i). Case roles is also known as case relationships/ case grammar/ thematic roles, or its derivative theta-roles. Cook (1989) says, “Fillmore presented his model of case grammar as a substantial modification to the theory of Transformational Grammar (See Chapter 2, Section 2.2.2) and Chomsky’s (1965) paper called *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* in relation to the analysis of

sentences at the levels of surface-structure and deep-structure case role theory was a reintroduction of the conceptual framework interpretation of case systems encoded in these two latter structures” (pp. 3-4). Cook further says, “the notion of case is a semantic valency⁹⁷ theory that described the logical form of a sentence in terms of a verb and a series of case-labelled arguments, such as Agent, Object, Location, Source, and Goal the theory provided a language universal approach to sentence semantics as well as a semantic description of the verbs of the language” (p. ix). Fillmore (1967) says, “the Subject and Object are aspects of the surface-structure level (p. 36). In other instances, these terms seem to change when using case role labels as shown in the following sentences (pp. 47-48):

1. John (Agent) opened the door.
2. John opened the door with the key (Instrument).

In 1, John is assigned the Agent role, that is, the instigator of the action and in 2, the key is assigned the Instrument role, that is, the inanimate force involved in an action or state identified by the verb (See, for more on Fillmore’s case role labels, Sections 6.2.2.3 and 6.2.2.4 below). It seems that case roles offer alternative semantic labels, such as Agent or Instrument as opposed to more conventional ones, such as Subject or Indirect Object, for example,

3. John (Agent/ Subject) opened the door.
4. John opened the door with the key (Instrument/ Indirect Object).

Nevertheless, regardless of which labels are used to describe these aspects of language, this does not mean it makes it any easier for language learners to internalize or to learn them in a classroom lesson. However, the notion of case roles might prove to have some use in the L2

⁹⁷ In the analysis of grammar, the most salient and central unit is the verb, which is classified according to the number of noun phrases it requires to complete a sentence. Richards & Schmidt (2002, p. 149) described this number as the valency of the verb. The English verb blush, for instance, would have a valency of one as in, for example, blushes, or She blushes in which the sentence contains only one noun phrase She (N1). The verb - give, for example, The salesgirl gave Jane the parcel would have a valency of three, that is, it contains three noun phrases: the salesgirl (N1), Jane (N2), and the parcel (N3). Basically, at the core of the sentence structure is the verb and one or more noun phrases that relates to it (Fillmore, 1968, p. 41).

context, for example, they may provide more accessible terms that could mitigate feelings of anxiety, stress, or fear that are often associated with cognitive development when learning language as an alternative to the more technical terms like, subject, object, indirect object etc. Thus, the need for more research-based studies in this area, particularly in te reo education. Fillmore's (1967) study provided a basis for his system of case roles which he updated in 1971 and this, in turn, was elaborated on by other researchers who proposed changes, additions, and/or reconceptualizations of these notions in their own systems. This is shown below in Fillmore 1967 (6.2.2.3, Table 6.6), Fillmore 1971 (6.2.2.4, Table 6.7), Grimes 1975 (6.2.2.5, Tables 6.8-6.10), Crombie 1985b (6.2.2.6, Tables 6.11-6.18), and Whaanga (6.2.2.7, Table 6.19).

6.2.2.3 Fillmore (1967): System of six case roles

Table 6.6: Fillmore's system of six case roles (1967)

Case Roles	Definitions	Examples
Agentive (A) (pp. 46-47, 59)	The case of the perceived instigator or agent of the action identified by the verb, typically animate. The agent position is said to be sometimes occupied by inanimate nouns like robot or human institution like nation. The preposition by often introduces the agent sometimes called the agentive marker.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John (A) opened the door. • The door was opened by John (A).
Instrumental (I) (pp. 46, 48, 59)	The case of the inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The key (I) opened the door.

	verb. The preposition with is often used to signal the instrument.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John opened the door with the key (I). • John used the key (I) to open the door.
Dative (D) (pp. 46, 48, 59)	The case of the animate being affected by the state or action identified by the verb. The preposition to is used with dative or is typically zero.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John (D) believed that he would win. • We persuaded John (D) that he would win. • It was apparent to John (D) that he would win.
Factitive (F) (pp. 46-47, 59, 128)	The case of the object or being, resulting from the action or state identified by the verb or understood as a part of the meaning of the verb. The preposition with factitive is typically zero.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John dreamed a dream about Mary (F). • John had a dream about Mary (F).
Locative (L) (pp. 47-48, 59)	The case which identifies the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb. The prepositions used with locative are optional depending on the associated noun	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chicago (L) is windy. • It is windy in Chicago (L).

	phrase, for example, on the street, at the corner, on Monday.	
Objective (O) (pp. 47, 51, 59)	The semantically most neutral case, the case of anything representable by a noun whose role in the action or state identified by the verb is identified by the semantic interpretation of the verb itself; conceivably the concept should be limited to things which are affected by the action or state identified by the verb. The preposition with objective is typically zero.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The door (O) opened. • John opened the door (O). • The wind opened the door (O). • John opened the door (O) with a chisel.

6.2.2.4 Fillmore (1971): System of nine case roles

Table 6.7: Fillmore's system of nine case roles (1971)

Case Roles	Definitions	Examples
Agent (pp. 251-255)	Instigator of the action identified by the verb (the principal cause of the event). The preposition by is no longer associated with agent because it is introduced as a result of the operation of the passive transformation. Does not include natural forces (e.g., wind).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The man broke the window. • I wrote a poem. • John broke the window. • John hit the fence with his cane.

Instrument (pp. 249, 251, 253)	The immediate cause or stimulus of an event as opposed to the agent as the principal cause. Natural forces such as wind are called instruments.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This jacket is warm. • The man broke the window with a baseball.
Location (pp. 249-258)	Place where an object or event is located. Optional complement of essentially any predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The beer was in the garage yesterday. • I lived in Milwaukee in the forties. • This room is warm.
Object (pp. 251, 252, 255, 261)	Semantically, the most neutral relation. The entity, which moves or undergoes change. Includes non-psychological change of state verbs (i.e., grow, die). Sentences embedded to object can serve to identify the content of a psychological event.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The man broke the window. • The wind opened the door. • John hit the fence with his cane. • I imagined the accident.
Experiencer (pp. 247, 249, 251, 261, 262)	The experiencer of a psychological event or mental state. Excludes non-psychological change of state verbs (i.e., grow). Does not include transfer of property verbs (i.e., give).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John loves Mary. • I am cold. • I imagined the accident. • The noise frightens me.
Benefactive (p. 261)	The one who benefits from an event or activity. Occurs only in sentences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John did it for me.

	with agents, whose role is thought of as being deliberate or voluntary.	
Source (pp. 250-251)	The origin or starting point of a motion, state, or time. Refers to the place from which the motion begins. Earlier location with motion verbs. Earlier states with change of state verbs. Earlier time with time points.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He walked from the top of the hill to the cemetery gate. • He grew from a 96-pound weakling into a famous football hero. • The pageant lasted from sundown until midnight.
Goal (pp. 250, 252)	End point of a motion, state, or time. Transfer or movement of something to a person. Place towards which a motion ends. Final location with motion verbs. Final state with change of state verbs. Final time with time points.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He went from the top of the hill to the cemetery gate. • He grew from a 96-pound weakling into a famous football hero. • The pageant lasted from sundown until midnight. • I wrote a poem.
Time (pp. 249, 258)	The time in which an object or event is located. Optional complement of essentially any predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The beer was in the garage yesterday. • I lived in Milwaukee in the forties.

Fillmore (1971) says, “his system was made up of a set of universal, presumably innate, concepts to describe certain types of judgments that human beings make while interacting in everyday social contexts, such as who did it, who it happened to, or what got changed” (pp. 46-47).

6.2.2.5 Grimes (1975): System of three case roles and subcategories

Similarly, Grimes proposed three general case roles which he broke down into subcategories, definitions, and examples as shown in Tables 6.8, 6.9 and 6.10 below.

Table 6.8: Grimes’ case role of Orientation (1975)

Case Role	Subcategories	Definitions	Examples
Orientation	Object (O)	The thing that is moving in the dynamic case or the thing that is in a particular position in the static case. The thing whose <i>orientation</i> to its physical environment is given by the predicate.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Water (O) flows downhill. • A statue (O) sits on the pedestal.
	Source (S)	Identifies the <i>location</i> of the object at the beginning of the motion, the <i>initial</i> boundary of the event. Applies to motions but not positions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The letter fell from her hand (S).

	Goal (G)	Identifies the location of the object at the end of the motion, the <i>terminal</i> boundary of the event. At the end of the motion, the object is in a position identified by the <i>goal</i> relation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The letter fell to the floor (G).
	Range (R)	<p>Location of a static entity or the path or area traversed by a moving entity. It can apply to meteorological (ambient) predicates.</p> <p>With expressions of motion, the <i>range</i> indicates the path or area traversed. With position, it indicates static location. It is associated with ambient predicates (i.e., meteorological).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The ball rolled down the hill (R). • His house is situated on top of a hill (R). • Ithaca (R) is cold. • It is cold in Ithaca (R).

	Vehicle (V)	Something that conveys the object and moves along with it.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The letter came by plane (V). • The tide (V) floated the oil slick into the harbour.
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Table 6.9: Grimes' case role of Process (1975)

Case Role	Subcategories	Definitions	Examples
Process	Material (M)	The entity that undergoes a <i>process</i> of becoming. Occurs with result relations. Either the material or result relation must combine with patient.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She makes dresses from flour sacks (M).
	Result (Rs)	The entity that <i>results</i> from a process of becoming. Occurs with material relations. Either the result or material relation must combine with patient.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She makes flour sacks into dresses (Rs).
	Patient (P)	The relation between a thing that gets changed and the process that changes it or in the	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The snow (P) melted. • The foundation (P) cracked.

		<p>static sense, between a thing that is in some state. Can be a gradual or abrupt process.</p> <p>Processes end, leaving the things that undergo them in some terminal state. Psychological processes such as perception and feelings employ the <i>patient</i> relation to identify who perceives or feels.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The chef melted the butter (P). • The butter (P) melted. • The snowflake is white (P). • The foundation is cracked (P). • I (P) hear. • I (P) am dizzy.
	Referent (Rf)	<p>The limitation of a process to a certain field or an object from the actual application of a process to a patient.</p> <p>Limits the process to a field.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We talked about politics (Rf). • This book costs three dollars (Rf).

Table 6.10: Grimes' case role of Agentive (1975)

Case Role	Subcategories	Definitions	Examples
Agentive	Agent (A)	Identifies who/ what is responsible for an action. Occurs with process and orientation roles.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • My wife (A) made the cake. • The quarterback (A) threw the ball. • Fred (A) fixed the engine with his screwdriver.
	Instrument (I)	Entity by means of which an action is carried out. It can be metaphoric. If a person or part of that person is used in the <i>instrument</i> role, their body part is the object referred to, not the person acting independently.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The locomotive cleared the track with a snow plough (I). • He parted the rope with an axe (I). • He convinced the jury with a syllogism (I).
	Force (Fc)	Non-instigative cause. Asserts a causal relation devoid of responsibility. Incompatible with both agent and instrument.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Malaria (Fc) killed the girl. • The girl died of (from) malaria (Fc).

		May take the prepositions <i>of, from, on, in</i> (in English).	
	Benefactive (B)	Someone or something on whom or which an action has a secondary effect, good or ill. A supernumerary role that can be attached to almost anything. It has an agent, which must be coreferential with the agent of the base predicate, a referent that indicates who the action affects, and a patient, which is the proposition that contains the base predicate.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We chased the cats out of the attic for her (B). • The milk turned sour on me (B).

6.2.2.6 Crombie (1985b): System of eight case roles and subcategories

Crombie (1985b) drew largely on Fillmore and Grimes (p. 101) and put forth her own eight case roles and subcategories as shown in Tables 6.11, 6.12, 6.13, 6.14, 6.15, 6.16, 6.17, and 6.18 below (Adapted from pp. 101-104, 108).

Table 6.11: Case role of Causal (1985b)

Case Role	Subcategories	Definitions	Examples
Causal (p. 101)	Agent (A)	This is the sentient entity carrying out an action.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alan (A) signed the contract. • The dog (A) ate the rat.
	Instrument (I)	This is the entity (insensate or rarely sentient but non-volitional) by means of which an action is carried out.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alan broke the window with a hammer (I).
	Force (Fc)	This is the non-sentient causative which precludes the explicit or implicit involvement of an agent.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Typhus (Fc) killed the man. • Curiosity (Fc) killed the cat.

Table 6.12: Case role of Activity-Participation (1985b)

Case Role	Subcategories	Definitions	Examples
Activity-Participation (pp. 102-103)	Patient (P)	This is the entity or abstraction involved non-causally in an activity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He kicked the dog. (P) • He chose a shirt. (P) • He awarded a medal. (P)

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He rejected the idea. (P)
	Assignee (As)	This is the sentient entity (or collection of sentient entities) to whom/ which the patient of an activity predicate is assigned.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He (A) awarded a goal (P) to the team (As).
	Factive	This occurs with factive predicates.	See Factive example above in Table 6.1.
	Material (M)	This is the entity that undergoes a process of becoming.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She creates puppets from gloves (M).
	Result (Rs)	This is the entity that results from a process of becoming.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She creates puppets (Rs) from gloves (M). • She makes clay (M) into bowls (Rs).

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She knitted a sweater (Rs).
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Table 6.13: Case role of Process-Participation (985b)

Case Role	Subcategory	Definition	Examples
Process-Participation (pp. 102-103)	Mutant (Mu)	This is the entity (+/- sentient) that is changed by a process.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The sun melted the butter (Mu). • The butter (Mu) melted. • The plant (Mu) grew. • The boy (Mu) grew tired. • The milk (Mu) became sour.

Table 6.14: Case role of State-Participation (1985b)

Case Role	Subcategories	Definitions	Examples
State-Participation (pp. 102-103)	Durant (Du)	This is the entity (+/- sentient) that is in an identified state.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The man (Du) is black. • The door (Du) is green. • The toy (Du) is broken.

	Experiencer (E)	This is the sentient entity directly involved in an experiential state.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He (E) heard the music. • He (E) feels hungry. • He (E) likes music.
	Appertainant (Ap)	This is the entity (+/- sentient) or abstraction experienced in a particular way by a sentient entity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He (E) heard the music (Ap). • He (E) likes John (Ap).

Table 6.15: Case role of Orientation-Transition (1985b)

Case Role	Subcategories	Definitions	Examples
Orientation-Transition The case roles here are concerned with movement or static location. (p. 103)	Object (O)	This is the entity (+/- sentient) or metaphorically the abstraction described as being in a particular location or as being involved in a transitional event.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The book (O) is in the drawer. • The coin (O) rolled down the hill. • The idea (O) is in his head.
	Source (S)	This is the location of an entity at the	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The book fell from the table (S).

		beginning of a movement.	
	Goal (G)	This is the location of an entity at the end of a movement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The book fell from the table (S) to the chair (G). • The book was passed from Mary (S) to John (G).
	Range (R)	This is the location of a static entity or the path or area traversed by a moving entity. It is associated with meteorological (ambient) predicates.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The cat is on the bed (R). • The egg rolled down the hill (R). • Scotland (R) is cold. • It is cold in Scotland (R).

Table 6.16: Case role of Relational (1985b)

Case Role	Subcategories	Definitions	Examples
Relational The case roles here occur with relational predicates.	Referee (Ref)	This is the entity to which a relational predicate is linked.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It concerns him (Ref). • It fits her (Ref). • He (Ref) deserves a prize.
	Referent (Rf)	This is the entity (+/- sentient) to which a	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It (Rf) concerns him. • It (Rf) fits her.

(pp. 103-104)		referee is linked through a relational predicate.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He deserves a prize (Rf).
	Quantant (Q)	This is the expression of extent to which an entity is linked by a relational predicate.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The book (Rf) costs eighty pence (Q). • He (Ref) weighs one hundred and eighty pounds (Q).

Table 6.17: Case role of Abaxiant (1985b)

Case Role	Subcategory	Definition	Examples
Abaxiant (p. 104)	Abaxiant (Ab)	This is the sentient entity affected by an action or process but not directly involved in the action or process or in its outcome.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She washed the car for me (Ab). • He welcomed the guests on my behalf (Ab). • The milk turned sour on me (Ab).

Table 6.18: Case role of Covert (1985b)

Case Role	Examples
Covert (pp. 108-109)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. John (P) was murdered by the king (A). 2. John (P) was murdered. 3. John (A) washed the dog (P). 4. John (A) washed himself (P). 5. John (A/ P) washed.

In the above examples 1-5 for the Covert role, Crombie (1985b) says, “some particular verbs (e.g., murder, hit, push) require two arguments, one functioning in the Agent role, the other in the Patient role as shown in example 1 above. However, in passive constructions, the Agent role need not be encoded as seen in example 2. In this case, it is assumed that there is an Agent of some sort, that is, the Agent is covert. Other verbs (e.g., wash, shave, dress) which require an Agent and Patient but which do not require that these roles refer to distinct entities as seen in examples 3, 4, and 5 above. In example 4, the reflexive mechanism (i.e., himself) can indicate that the same entity functions both as the Agent and Patient. Where the Patient is not lexically specified as seen in example 5, it is assumed that the entity in the Agent role would also represent the Patient role” (pp. 108-109).

6.2.2.7 Whaanga (2006): System of 15 case roles

Table 6.19: Case roles and subcategories (2006)

Categories	Subcategories	Definitions	Examples
With non-transitional activity predicator.	Source (Non-Transitional)	Entity (entities) from which a non-transitional activity is identified as emanating.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The dog ate the rat.
	Directional Focus	The target of a non-transitional activity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The dog ate the rat. • He lied about Mary to John. • He bequeathed his house to John. • He awarded a goal to John.

	Predicate Range	The entity (entities)/abstraction over which a non-transitional predicate ranges.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He lied about Mary to John. • He taught Mary about Physics. • He taught French to Mary.
	Event Location	Location of a non-transitional activity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He killed Henry behind the garage.
With transitional event predicator.	Source (Transitional)	Entity (entities) involved in the initiation of a movement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He shifted it off the table.
	Transitor	Entity (entities) in (locational) transition.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The egg rolled down the hill.
With relational predicator.	Possessor	Entity (entities) identified as being the possessor in the case of a relational predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She has a Mercedes.
	Possessed	Entity (entities) identified as being the possessed in the case of a relational predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She has a Mercedes.
	Quantified	Entity (entities) identified as being the	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It weighs a tonne.

		quantified in the case of a relational predicator.	
	Affector	Entity (entities) identified as being the affector in the case of a relational predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jean has typhus.
	Affected	Entity (entities) identified as being the affected in the case of a relational predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jean has typhus.
	Relational Specifier	Topic of a relational predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The decision is relevant to John.
	Relational Target	Target of a relational specifier.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The decision is relevant to John.
With activity, experiential and material process, material state, transitional event, and locational state.	Temporal Location	The temporal point identified as being relevant to the activity, process or state identified by the predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He ate at ten o'clock.

With activity, material process and material state, experiential process, and transitional event.	Temporal Transition	The duration of the activity, state or process identified by the predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He travelled all day.
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It is important to note that there is no real conclusive model for case roles in te reo on which to base a robust analysis except for some initial attempts made by Bauer, 1981 and Reedy, 1979. Thus, the need for additional research to adequately adapt them to a description of te reo that aligns with current studies on the subject.

6.2.2.8 Commentary on two case role studies

In the following studies on case roles by Bauer (1981) and Crombie (1985b), I have highlighted and commented on some similarities and differences in descriptions between them. This is marked Ba = Bauer and Cr = Crombie with translations and references as shown in Table 6.20 below.

Table 6.20: A case of two case role studies

Case Roles	Descriptions		English-Māori Translations	References
Agent (A)	Ba	The instigator of an action.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tamahae (A) cleaned the can. Ka horoi a Tamahae (A) i te kēne. 	(pp. 139, 152)
	Cr	The sentient entity carrying out an action.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The dog (A) ate the rat. Ka kai te kurī (A) i te kiore. 	(p. 101) This is my own translation.
<p>Commentary:</p> <p>Bauer (1981) says, “the Agent in a Māori transitive sentence is usually marked by the preposition <i>i</i>, for example, Kua pupuhi a Rewi i te manu. Rewi has shot the bird with the intransitive sentence, however, it is more difficult to assess agentivity, for example, Ka hinga ia ki raro. He fell down” (pp. 139, 152). Crombie’s (1985b) sentence shows that the dog is the Agent of the verb <i>ate</i> which links to the transitive argument the rat.</p>				
Object (O)	Ba	The entity that moves or changes or whose position or existence is in consideration.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> They are growing potatoes besides this fence. E whaktupu ana rātou i te rīwai ki 	(pp. 139, 185)

			te taha i te taiapa nei.	
	Cr	The entity (+/- sentient) or, metaphorically, the abstraction described as being in a particular location or as being involved in a transitional event.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The book (O) is in the drawer. • Kei roto te pukapuka (O) i te kāpata. 	(p. 103) This is my own translation.
<p>Commentary:</p> <p>Bauer provided a comprehensive treatment and explanation of the case role Object in its various forms at the sentence level (e.g., subject-object, direct object, and indirect object). Bauer (1981) says, “Objects do not have their origin in a stated location but movement to that location must have been involved, for example, He died at the river. I mate ia ki te awa (p. 185). In Fillmore’s 1971 revised list of the role Object, he explained it as being the entity, which moves or undergoes change (pp. 165-166, 185). Crombie (1985b) says, “the Object can be in a particular location or as being involved in a transitional event (e.g., The coin (O) rolled down the hill) . . . it can also be used in a metaphorical sense (e.g., The idea (O) is in his head) and not necessarily limited to physical things (p. 103).</p>				
Instrument (I)	Ba	The stimulus or immediate physical cause of an event.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cut that meat with the axe (I). • Tapahia te mīti nā ki te toki (I). 	(pp. 139, 144)

	Cr	The entity (insensate or, rarely, sentient but non-volitional) by means of which an action is carried out.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fill your glasses with wine (I). • Whakakia ā koutou karaehe ki te wāina (I). 	Example taken from Moorfield (p. 11)
<p>Commentary:</p> <p>Bauer (1981) says, “the usual Instrument marker is <u>ki</u> (e.g., Tapahia te mīti nā ki te toki. Cut that meat with the axe) on quoting Biggs (1969, p. 90) he says, “after a passive verbal phrase, a comment introduced by <u>ki</u> denotes the instrument by means of which the action was performed an active verbal phrase may also take an instrument comment in <u>ki</u> but in this case a comment in <u>i</u> must also be present, for example, E tua ana ia i te rākau ki te toki. He is chopping the tree down with the axe” (pp. 144-145). Crombie (1985b) says, “that an Instrument is categorised as a causal role, that is, an entity by means of which an action is carried out (e.g., Alan broke the window with a hammer.) in which the hammer is the Instrument (p. 101).</p>				
Source (S)	Ba	The place from which something moves. The typical preposition being <i>from</i> .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They returned from the milking shed (S). • Kua hoki mai rāua i te whare mīraka (S). 	(pp. 139-140)
	Cr	The location of an entity at the beginning of a movement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The book fell from the table (S). 	(p. 103) This is my

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ka taka te pukapuka i te tēpu (S). 	own translation.
<p>Commentary:</p> <p>Bauer (1981) says, “the usual marker for this case is <u>i</u>, for example, The canoe was brought from there (S). Ka mauria mai te waka i reira (S), or Tamahae’s relatives haven’t yet arrived from Rotorua (S). Kāore anō ngā whanaunga o Tamahae i tae mai i Rotorua (S) she also included the following sentence under the same heading Source, for example, I te whakatakariri o Tamahae, ka tangi ia. Tamahae cried because he was angry. (pp. 139-141). However, in the latter case, the particle <u>i</u> marks the subordinate clause beginning with because to signal reason rather than the case role Source and this would warrant more research in defining these particles more adequately. Crombie (1985b) says, the Source can be used either with or without the preposition to, for example,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John lent the book to Peter. • John lent Peter the book (p. 108). <p>In these examples, John is the Source, or in other words, he is the perceived location from where the book originated, he is the beginning point of a movement, that is, the source from which a physical movement involving an exchange of something has taken place. The prepositional clause (i.e., to Peter) is not the focus here and has little to do with the case role source but rather is the case Goal.</p>				
Goal (G)	Ba	The place to which something moves.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The children are going to school. 	(p. 139, 157)

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kei te haere ngā tamariki ki te kura. 	
	Cr	The location of an entity at the end of a movement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The book fell from the table to the chair (G). • Ka taka te pukapuka i te tēpu ki te tūru. 	(p. 103) This is my own translation.
<p>Commentary:</p> <p>Bauer (1981) says, “the Goal is often marked by ki = to when referring to the location to which something moves or identifies the end point of a movement the ki usually introduces a prepositional phrase to show that location (pp. 157-158). Crombie (1985b) says, “the Source and Goal can be given in the same sentence. The Source is typically associated with the preposition from and the Goal with to, towards, onto (e.g., The book fell from the table onto the floor (pp. 107-108). In te reo, the preposition from is marked by i and to by ki (e.g., Ka taka te pukapuka i te tēpu ki te papa).</p>				
Experiencer (E)	Ba	The entity which receives, accepts, experiences, or undergoes the effect of an action.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kei te mate wai au (E). • I (E) am thirsty. 	(p. 139, 162)
	Cr	The sentient entity directly involved in an experiential state.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He (E) heard the birds singing. 	(p. 103) This is my

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kua rongoa ia (E) i ngā manu e korihi ana. 	own translation.
<p>Commentary:</p> <p>Bauer (1981) says, “not all subjects in Māori are Experiencers, the most that could be claimed is that the animate subjects of such sentences are . . . the subject NP does seem to experience the phenomenon” (p. 162). The latter statement refers to the example above and seems to imply that the pronoun <i>au</i> is identified as the case role Experiencer in an experiential state. However, it was somewhat difficult to get a sense of who was being identified as the Experiencer in the study. Crombie (1985b) says, “it is very often that a sentient entity is involved in an experiential state . . . a verb related to an experiential state (e.g., He feels happy, He remained convinced) or experiential processes (e.g., He became excited, He fell sick) are often associated with the Experiencer role (pp. 100, 103, 165).</p>				

6.2.2.9 Some issues with propositional theory

Whaanga (2006) says, “intra-propositional and inter-propositional relationships sometimes may have been confused in early literature with case grammar . . . the former involved relationships within (i.e., intra) and the latter between (i.e., inter) propositions . . . we have seen that an entire proposition can be encoded as a noun group and a predicate as a verb” (p. 17). Campe (1994) says, “there are some problems with the high level of confusion in the use of terminology within the linguistic literature on case roles” (p. 5). Chang and Lakoff (1997) says, “different authors use the term case to refer to other meanings, such as morphological case markers, semantic roles and relations, syntactic roles, and relations . . . the division between syntactic and semantic considerations is as equally complex for considerations of the terms relation and role” (p. 1). All this confusion might have partially arisen from conflicting

and overlapping terms, such as proposition, argument, intra, inter, predicate, and case roles among others as they have evolved over time. There appears to be no real conclusive definition of inter-propositions or intra-propositions in the literature that clearly discriminates between their operations without confusing the two or bringing them together in some meaningful or unified way. Differentiating the fine line between what they are and what they are not has been debated for some time. Crombie (1985b) simply says, “it was difficult to maintain a rigid distinction between the two” (pp. 95-96).

6.2.3 *Semantic predicates*

A discussion on propositional theory essentially will involve a discussion on the role that predicates/ verbs play in this area of language description. Crombie (1985b) says, “since the way in which arguments function within propositions (i.e., the semantic roles which they perform) is directly related to the type of semantic predicate with which they occur, it is important to classify semantic predicates into types including simple verbal predicates (i.e., those that involve a verb or verbal group only) may be grouped into three main types, that is, dynamic, process, and stative predicates” (p. 98) as shown in Table 6.21 below.⁹⁸

Table 6.21: Simple verbal predicates in propositional theory

Groups	Types	Examples
<i>Dynamic</i> (Involves mental or physical activity).	General Activity	Write, Eat
	Momentary Activity	Nod, Glance, Wink
	Transitional Event	Arrive, Leave
	Mental Activity	Choose, Decide
	Factitive	Brings an entity or entities into being e.g., Build, create
<i>Process</i>		Deteriorate, Boil, Melt

⁹⁸ I have adapted this table from Crombie’s 1985b study.

(Involves processes in which there is no active, conscious activity).		
<i>Stative</i> (Involves inert perception, cognition and relational).	Inert perception and cognition	Understand, Prefer, Like
	Relational	Own/Consist, Of/Contain)

Crombie (1985b) says, “a single verb may function in different ways, for example, smell may function as a stative (e.g., I smell petrol) or a dynamic (e.g., I am smelling petrol) some predicates need not be expressed in English clauses as verbs or verbal groups (e.g., Jean is unhappy) in which Jean is the argument and the semantic predicate is unhappy, Jean is described as being in a state of unhappiness predication may sometimes be encoded in different grammatical forms (e.g., One meal suffices) in which suffice is the verb and (e.g., One meal is sufficient) in which the predicate includes the verb *is* and the adjective *sufficient* and this is referred to as a predicative adjective nouns or nominal groups may also be predicative (e.g., Lucy flirts) in which the semantic predicate is ‘flirts’ or (e.g., Lucy is flirtatious) in which the predicate is ‘is flirtatious, or (e.g., Lucy is a flirt) in which the semantic predicate is is a flirt most verbs in English can operate either as the verb of a single argument (John ate) or more than one argument (e.g., John ate the meal) in which the meal is grammatically referred to as the object of the clause, the subject and the object are generally referred to as different entities or abstractions that play different semantic roles in relation to the predicate of the clause, for example,

Agent	Patient	(Semantic roles)
The mechanic <u>repaired</u> the car.		
Subject	Object	(Grammatical roles)

Predicates sometimes may be referred to as complements rather than the object of a clause (e.g., John is a fool. John is foolish.) a complement describes some attribute of the subject

of the clause being introduced by the verb to be ‘is’ which is referred to grammatically as a copular, therefore, John is the argument and a fool/ foolish act as the compliments other verbs can express copulas called compounds made up of the semantic predicate and the complement together (e.g., He feels sad. He became ill. He grew old.), copulas are either current (e.g., appear, feel) or resulting (e.g., become, grow, turn) copulas plus an adjectival or nominal can be divided into four types, that is, Material states, Experiential states, and Material processes, Experiential processes” (pp. 99-100). These four types are shown in Table 6.22 below.⁹⁹

Table 6.22: Copular-based predicates in propositional theory

Groups	Examples
Material States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is (broken/ white). • It remained (green/ greasy).
Experiential States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He feels (happy/ an idiot). • He remained (convinced). • It (feels, looks, smells/ sounds) good. • She (appears/ seems) upset. • Note that the grammatical subject of the clause need not be the experiencer (e.g., She seems upset <u>to me</u>).
Material Processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It became sour. • It went rancid. • He (got/ grew) thin. • It turned sour.
Experiential Processes	<p>He (became/ got) excited.</p> <p>He fell sick.</p>

⁹⁹ I have adapted this table from Crombie’s 1985b study.

With reference to verb-encoded roles, Crombie (1985b) says, “the experiential meanings of semantic roles associated with nouns and noun groups may be verb-encoded, that is, they may be expressed as part of the meaning of a verb or verbal groups, for example He (A) put water (P) on the roses (R) in which the Patient is represented in the nominal argument water but in the example He (A) watered the roses (R) the lexical verb watered which acts partly as the propositional predicate, has encoded within it the experiential meaning of the role Patient. The Instrument role is often verb-encoded, for example, He hit the nail with a hammer. He hammered the nail. He opened the box with a lever. He levered the box open the Instrument role often assumes a more general meaning when it is verb-encoded, for example, John clubbed the foreman, John hammered on the window, John booted out the ruffian, in which the verbs clubbed, hammered, and booted out imply that a club, hammer, or boot were involved these same types of predicates can assume a metaphorical role, for example, He steam-rolled the road surface, He steam-rolled the bill through parliament a semantic role may be both verb-encoded or expressed in a separate nominal group, for example, He dreamed a dream about the sea (pp. 109-110). With reference to nominalized predicates, Crombie (1985b) says, “embedding arguments within the verb or verbal group, predicates can be encoded in two parts, one of which is a noun or nominal group, for example, He (A) shaved John (P), He (A) gave John (P) a shave, He (A) shoved Mary (P), He (A) gave Mary (P) a shove since semantic roles are defined in terms of the relationship between a predicate and its arguments, they normally function in the clause as a unit, sentence which contain more than one clause have more than one set of semantic roles, for example, Jean, who had been cleaning the wound, fainted. In which Jean fainted is one clause and who had been cleaning the wound being the other clause” (pp. 110-111). With reference to dual predication, Crombie (1985b) says, “a causative role called Initiator should be recognized to account for a sentient entity that initiates a process or brings about an action or state, for example, John made Allan weed the garden.

This involves explicit causation in the form of complement verbs like cause, have, and make . . . however, not all clauses of this type involve a causative verb, for example, Bill walked the dog. The colonel marched the soldiers . . . other causative verbs may involve force and compel, for example, He forced her to eat the meat. He compelled her to leave the hall . . . thus, causative verb may include cause, have, make, force, and compel (pp. 111-112). With reference to verbs involving dual-propositions, Crombie (1985b) says, “there are some constructions that can be related to other groups of verbs which are not causative but are dual-propositional that occur in single clauses which express more than one proposition involving permission or authorization, for example, He allowed her to weed the garden. He permitted her to weed the garden. He authorized her to weed the garden . . . some dual-propositions have an infinitival construction, for example, He allowed her to go . . . dual-propositional verbs can be roughly grouped semantically into types as shown in Table 6.23 below

Table 6.23: Dual-propositional predicates in propositional theory

Types	Verbs	Examples
Causation/ Compulsion/ Instruction	command, compel, direct, drive, force, have, instruct, oblige, go	He commanded her to go.
Prohibition	forbid	He forbids her to go.
Permission/ Authorization	allow, authorize, permit	He allowed her to go.
Request/ Invitation	ask, invite, request	He asked me to go.
Advice/ Persuasion/ Incitement/ Encouragement	advise, bribe, cajole, coax, challenge, encourage, entice, exhort, incite, induce, inspire, motivate, nag, persuade, press,	He advised her to go.

	prompt, provoke, recommend, solicit, tempt, urge, warn	
Help	aid, assist, help	He helped her (to) walk.

. . . in addition to dual-propositional verbs, there are others which, although cannot be followed by a construction containing an infinitive, can (with certain co-occurrence restrictions) be followed by a deverbal noun or a gerund, some of these being phrasal verbs, such as insist on, object to, for example, He objected to my leaving/ my departure, others include advocate, agree to, approve of, consent to, insist on, object to, prohibit, propose, suggest, support, tolerate other dual verbs may be followed by clausal objects in which the second predicate is in subjunctive form, for example, He insisted (that) I go, the verbs which belong to this category are: advise, advocate, agree, ask, command, consent, insist, plead, propose, recommend, request, suggest, urge” (pp. 112-114). Furthermore, “it is a necessary condition of linguistic communication that arguments should bear a relation to their predicates” (p. 101). Finally, I think the Māori verb system could significantly benefit from the types of observations made here as a way to discriminate between their different functions under different semantic categories. However, no attempt has been made to do this in this study or elsewhere as I know.

6.3 The English language and semantic descriptions

In this section, I begin with a general statement (6.3.1), and then provide an outline of inter-propositional relationships (6.3.2) and intra-propositional relationships or case role theory as encoded in the English language (6.3.3).

6.3.1 General statement

For a suggested semantic description of the Māori language, I have drawn extensively on the studies of Crombie (1985b) regarding inter-propositional and intra-propositional relationships or case role theory for the following reasons:

- 1) The principles discussed in the study can provide a useful way of describing language taking it from a syntactically oriented description to a semantically focused one;
- 2) The principles attempt to describe language beyond the sentence level by focusing on the meaning of language in the context in which it occurs;
- 3) It attempts to identify relationships *between* and *within* clauses and sentences related to that context;
- 4) It analyses how those relationships are identified in syntactic structures by semantic signals or cohesive devices expressed in various parts of speech (e.g., predication, coordination, preposition etc.);
- 5) It also considers the social and cultural aspects of language teaching and learning for communicative purposes;
- 6) This type of semantic approach can impact on grammatical forms of languages but in different ways;
- 7) This approach can allow for a more accessible classification and analysis of how language works and could provide a very useful way to teach and learn language in the L2 classroom.

6.3.2 Inter-propositional relationships

In this section, I revisit inter-propositional relationships (6.3.2.1), and then provide an outline of their categories including Cause and Effect (6.3.2.2, Table 6.24), Comparison (6.3.2.3, Table 6.25), Contrastive (6.3.2.4, Table 6.26), and Time and Space (6.3.2.5, Table 6.27). The

taxonomy below was not meant to be regarded as definitive (Crombie 1985b, p. 17). The information in the following tables were adapted by Dr. Johnson.

6.3.2.1 Revisiting inter-propositional relationships

In revisiting this theory, Longacre (1968), in his report on twenty-five Philippine languages and dialects, says, “attention is given to the relations of grammatical sentences within discourse and that two clauses bound or not, form all or part of two grammatical sentences at least several relations in sentences included, for example, time, cause, reason, purpose, result, and condition among others” (Volume II, Sentence Structure, pp. 4, 224). Crombie (1985b) says, “underlying all coherent discourse is a number of simple operations (or relations) which all human beings regardless of language or culture have in common these operations are ultimately reducible to three qualities, that is, resemblance, contiguity in time and place, and cause and effect which is the reason why languages so nearly correspond to each other” (p. vii). Longacre (1972) in a later study created a system of general categories under which he organized certain relations in sentences (See, for more details, Section 6.2.1) which were re-examined by Crombie (1985b) in the context of inter-propositional theory. This is outlined in the following relationships below.

6.3.2.2 Cause and Effect

Crombie (1985b) says, “the inter-propositional category of Cause and Effect is concerned with relations that are General Causative it has three types according to whether the causative member is presented as a reason for a particular result (reason-result), as a member for achieving a particular result (means-result), or as the basis for a particular conclusion (ground-conclusion), the causative member of the relation (means-purpose) has an intended effect which need not be the actual one, and the relation (condition-consequence) member is hypothetical” (p. 19). The inter-propositional category of Cause and Effect is further divided

into its semantic relations including reason-result, means-result, means-purpose, condition-consequence, and grounds-conclusion as exemplified in Table 6.24 below.

Table 6.24: Cause-Effect (Crombie, 1985b)

Categories	Semantic Relations	Definitions	Examples
Cause and Effect	Reason and Result	Here, the reason member (which very often follows the result member in English) gives the reason why a particular result came about or will come about.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [Because the party was boring], she left early. • She left early [because the party was boring]. (The latter example is the more common sequence).
	Means and Result	Here, the means member states how a particular result was/ will be or can be achieved.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He opened the box [by twisting the catch clockwise]. (i.e., the means by which the box was opened).
	Means and Purpose	Here, the purpose member outlines the action that is/ will be undertaken with the intention of achieving a particular result.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [He decided to leave her] in order to move in with his girlfriend. • [He undid the bolt] to allow the horse to escape.

		The focus is on the intention rather than the achievement.	
	Condition and Consequence	Here, the consequence member is dependent on a realizable or unrealizable condition or a hypothetical contingency.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If you eat your dinner, [you can watch television]. (Realized condition). • If it had rained, [you would have been soaked]. (Unrealized condition, that is, it didn't rain).
	Grounds and Conclusion	Here, a deduction is drawn on the basis of some observation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • [That child looks so ill] so/ therefore/ [I conclude that she must be the one that Mary said had the flu]. <p>(The second part is deduced on the evidence of the first part).</p>

6.3.2.3 Comparison

Crombie (1985b) says, “matching relations, such as truth and validity involve the comparison of two things, events, or abstractions in which they are similar (i.e., simple comparison) or different (i.e., simple contrasts) . . . it is concerned, in a direct or indirect way, with truth or

validity” (p. 18) The inter-propositional category of Comparison is further divided into its semantic relations including simple comparison, statement-exemplification, statement-affirmation, paraphrase, amplification, and supplementary alternation as exemplified in Table 6.25 below.

Table 6.25: Comparison (Crombie, 1985b)

Categories	Semantic Relations	Definitions	Examples
Comparison	Simple Comparison	Here, this involves the comparison of two terms in relation to some aspect of similarity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That one’s cheap; so’s this one.
	Statement and Exemplification	Here, one member provides a generalization, and the other member provides an exemplification of that generalization.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Everyone spent up large. Caroline, for example, brought three jackets.
	Statement and Affirmation	Here, the truth or validity of an encoded, fleshed out proposition is affirmed.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (A) He should visit his mother tomorrow. • (B) I agree. • He said that Mary should have stuck to soft drinks and I agreed.

	Paraphrase	Here, the same expanded proposition content is expressed in different encodings.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He began to climb. He commenced the ascent. • He's not bad. He's good.
	Amplification	Here, in this relation, one of the encoded, fleshed out propositions repeats the content of the other but with a non-contrastive additive specification.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He knew that John was lying. He said that I shouldn't have gone. • (A) Someone left early. • (B) It was Helen.
	Supplementary Alternation	Here, this relation involves two or more non-antithetical choices.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • You can go into the room on the left or the other one. • Nobody ran out of the house or shouted from the windows.

6.3.2.4 Contrastive

Crombie (1985b) says, “one common realization of Simple Contrast involves the word *except/exception* (e.g., Everyone, except Achilles, fought) in which this example can be referred to as a type of realization as Exception” (p 19). The inter-propositional category of Contrastive is further divided into semantic relations including simple contrastive, statement-exception,

statement-denial, denial-correction, concession-contra-expectation, and contrastive-alternation as exemplified in Table 6.26 below.

Table 6.26: Contrastive (Crombie, 1985b)

Categories	Semantic Relations	Definitions	Examples
Contrastive	Simple Contrastive	Here, the relation involves two things, events, states, processes, abstractions in terms of some particular respect in which they are different.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He was French; she was Dutch. • He wrote quickly; she wrote slowly. • That one's expensive; this one's cheap.
	Statement and Exception	Here, this is similar to simple contrast; however, it is not simply a case of contrasting an area of difference but of assuming similarity in areas other than the contrasted one/s.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Everyone except Sally left early.
	Statement and Denial	Here, in this relation, the truth or validity of a proposition is denied.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (A) He should go tomorrow. • (B) No. He shouldn't. • (A) Tom fainted. • (B) He didn't.

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (A) It's wonderful isn't it? • (B) No, it isn't.
Denial and Correction	Here, in this relation, one member is a denial involving a negated word or expression; the other is a contrary assertion containing a corrective, non-antonymic substitute for the negated word or expression.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He isn't a teacher; he's a politician. • It's not a rabbit; it's a hare.
Concession and Contra-expectation	Here, the truth of a possible inference is directly or indirectly denied.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Although he says, he likes me, he doesn't. • Although it rained the whole holiday, we had a great time.
Contrastive Alternation	Here, this relation involves a choice between two terms, which are treated as being antithetical (i.e., negating, opposing).		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He either left or he didn't. (either p is true or p is not true). • It's either good or bad. (either x is true

			of p, or x is not true of p).
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6.3.2.5 Time and Space

Crombie (1985b) says, “temporal relations are concerned with the temporal connection between events the relation of chronological sequence need not be realized by propositions expressed in separate clauses, two nouns or nominal groups representing embedded event propositions may be linked by a verb such as precede or follow (e.g., A thunderstorm followed the explosion) an alternation relation can involve a choice between two or more things, events, or abstractions which are not treated as opposites, such as Bonding in which the relation is additive” (pp. 18, 22-23). The inter-propositional category of Time and Space is further divided into semantic relations including chronological sequence, temporal overlap, and bonding/ spatial contiguity as exemplified in Table 6.27 below.

Table 6.27: Time and Space (Crombie, 1985b)

Categories	Semantic Relations	Definitions	Examples
Time and Space	Chronological Sequence	Here, a sequential link between event propositions one of which follows the other in time. The event may be long or short and need not be in the past.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She came into the room and sat down. • He will walk straight in and help himself to the food. • He ate quickly and then left. • She walked into the room. She sat down. She took out her lecture notes.

	Temporal Overlap	Here, this links to events, which overlap wholly or partly in time.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He whistled as he washed the dishes. • He glanced over his shoulder as he fled. • She sighed as she read it. • You can hear them talking while you're giving a speech.
	Bonding/ Spatial Contiguity	Here, it is the basic form of relations. It's a non-elective (i.e., not involving either/ or choice), non-sequential relation between two conjoined, fleshed out propositions, which generally involves spatial contiguity/ relationship/ juxtaposition.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He wore a coat and carried an umbrella. • He was wearing a suit and carrying an umbrella.

6.3.3 Intra-propositional Relationships or Case Roles

In this section, I briefly revisit intra-propositional relationships or case role theory (6.3.3.1), and then provide an outline of Crombie's 1985b system of eight case roles (6.3.3.2, Table 6.28).

6.3.3.1 Revisiting intra-propositional relationships or case roles

To reiterate, case role theory was introduced by Charles Fillmore in 1967 in a paper called *Case for Case*. It seems that case roles could provide alternative semantic based labels, such as, for example, Agent or Instrument as opposed to more conventional ones, such as Subject or Indirect Object, for example, Mary (A) baked a cake. Peter hit the nail with a hammer (I) in which Mary can be referred to as the Agent/ Subject and Hammer as the Instrument/ Indirect Object of the argument within the proposition. Crombie (1985b) says, “that intra-propositional coherence is often referred to as roles it shows the semantic relationships that exist within propositions that hold between the semantic predicate of a proposition and its argument or arguments such arguments can be grammatically referred to as the object or subject and object of the clause or as different entities or abstractions that play different semantic roles in relation to the verb of the clause” (pp. vii, 95, 99). Similarly, Whaanga (2006) says, “Fillmore’s *Case for Case* published in 1967 was later re-conceptualized in the context of intra-propositional and inter-propositional relationships” (p. 7). Fillmore (1967) says, “there are many semantically relevant syntactic relationships regarding nouns as encoded within syntactic structures and that these relationships are in large part hidden but are nevertheless empirically discoverable and could have significant cross-linguistic validity the notion of case roles is a component of the grammar of every language (pp. i, 9).

6.3.3.2 Crombie’s system of eight case roles

Table 6.28: A system of intra-propositions and eight case roles (Crombie, 1985b)

Case Role	Subcategories	Definitions	Examples
Causal	Agent (A)	This is the sentient entity carrying out an action.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alan (A) signed the contract. • The dog (A) ate the rat.

	Instrument (I)	This is the entity (insensate or rarely sentient but non-volitional) by means of which an action is carried out.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alan broke the window with a hammer (I).
	Force (Fc)	This is the non-sentient causative which precludes the explicit or implicit involvement of an agent.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Typhus (Fc) killed the man. Curiosity (Fc) killed the cat.
Activity- Participation	Patient (P)	This is the entity or abstraction involved non-causally in an activity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> He kicked the dog. (P) He chose a shirt. (P) He awarded a medal. (P) He rejected the idea. (P)
	Assignee (As)	This is the sentient entity (or collection of sentient entities) to whom/ which the patient of an activity predicate is assigned.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> He (A) awarded a goal (P) to the team (As).
	Factitive	This occurs with factitive predicates.	See, for an example, Section 6.2.2.3).

	Material (M)	This is the entity that undergoes a process of becoming.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She creates puppets from gloves (M).
	Result (Rs)	This is the entity that results from a process of becoming.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She creates puppets (Rs) from gloves (M). • She makes clay (M) into bowls (Rs). • She knitted a sweater (Rs).
Process- Participation	Mutant (Mu)	This is the entity (+/- sentient) that is changed by a process.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The sun melted the butter (Mu). • The butter (Mu) melted. • The plant (Mu) grew. • The boy (Mu) grew tired. • The milk (Mu) became sour.
State- Participation	Durant (Du)	This is the entity (+/- sentient) that is in an identified state.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The man (Du) is black.

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The door (Du) is green. • The toy (Du) is broken.
	Experiencer (E)	This is the sentient entity directly involved in an experiential state.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He (E) heard the music. • He (E) feels hungry. • He (E) likes music.
	Appertainant (Ap)	This is the entity (+/- sentient) or abstraction experienced in a particular way by a sentient entity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He (E) heard the music (Ap). • He (E) likes John (Ap).
Orientation-Transition The case roles here are concerned with movement or static location.	Object (O)	This is the entity (+/- sentient) or metaphorically the abstraction described as being in a particular location or as being involved in a transitional event.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The book (O) is in the drawer. • The coin (O) rolled down the hill. • The idea (O) is in his head.
	Source (S)	This is the location of an entity at the beginning of a movement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The book fell from the table (S).

	Goal (G)	This is the location of an entity at the end of a movement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The book fell from the table (S) to the chair (G). • The book was passed from Mary (S) to John (G).
	Range (R)	This is the location of a static entity or the path or area traversed by a moving entity. It is associated with meteorological (ambient) predicates.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The cat is on the bed (R). • The egg rolled down the hill (R). • Scotland (R) is cold. • It is cold in Scotland (R).
Relational The case roles here occur with relational predicates.	Referee (Ref)	This is the entity to which a relational predicate is linked.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It concerns him (Ref). • It fits her (Ref). • He (Ref) deserves a prize.
	Referent (Rf)	This is the entity (+/- sentient) to which a referee is linked through a relational predicate.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It (Rf) concerns him. • It (Rf) fits her.

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He deserves a prize (Rf).
	Quantant (Q)	This is the expression of extent to which an entity is linked by a relational predicate.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The book (Rf) costs eighty pence (Q). • He (Ref) weighs one hundred and eighty pounds (Q).
Abaxiant	Abaxiant (Ab)	This is the sentient entity affected by an action or process but not directly involved in the action or process or in its outcome.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She washed the car for me (Ab). • He welcomed the guests on my behalf (Ab). • The milk turned sour on me (Ab).
Covert	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John (P) was murdered by the king (A). • John (P) was murdered. • John (A) washed the dog (P). • John (A) washed himself (P). • John (A/ P) washed. 		

See, for more details on Crombie's case roles, Section 6.2.2.6.

6.4 The Māori language and semantic descriptions

In this section, I begin with a general statement (6.4.1), and then provide an outline of inter-propositional relationships (6.4.2), and intra-propositional relationships or case role theory (6.4.3) and how these relationships could be expressed in a range of different sentence examples in the Māori language.

6.4.1 General statement

The encoding of semantic based principles outlined above for the English language could provide a useful framework for describing certain aspects of the Māori language that is more meaning based and semantically focused (See, for a definition of semantics, Chapter 1, Section 1.3.2). I draw on that framework for the following reasons:

- The English framework will provide the prototype for the Māori one;
- The semantic theories (i.e., inter-propositions, intra-propositions or case roles) will provide the underlying principles for a description of te reo Māori of similar constructions that impact on their grammatical forms in different ways;
- The principles can provide a useful way to describe language beyond the sentence level;
- The semantic approach considers meaning, context, social, and the cultural imperative of language description;
- As an integrated system in which all these things relate to, behave in, and act upon each other in unified ways make them useful organizing principles that could inform best course design, lesson planning, and resource development;
- All these tenets, taken together, could aid Māori language teachers in their own teaching practices, to build their knowledge-base and skills-set in their subject matter (e.g., language descriptive theory), and to help their learners in becoming competent and confident users of te reo for communication as far as pedagogy is concerned (See, for a definition of pedagogy, Chapter 1, Section 1.3.3);

- The studies of Crombie, Johnson, and associates have been working closely with Māori language teachers and researchers to advance and incorporate these semantic based theories into a description of the Māori language over the past twenty years.

Although Houia (2001) carried out a small study in inter-propositional relationships expressed in the Māori language, its analysis was based on the best knowledge of theories available at that time and, therefore, an in-depth discussion on intra-propositions/ case roles, and semantic predicates was not included in the study. It could, however, provide a good basis for future discussion in this area of semantics. Houia (2001) says, “there are certain types of meaning relationships between parts of a text, for example, reason tends to be expressed by notemea, condition by mehemea, and purpose by hei the central focus of this work was an examination of the ways in which coherence is established in Māori texts there are considerable benefits when Māori researchers examine work being done in international language research and apply them to the local context” (pp. 1, 131-132). The framework suggested here for te reo, as a very preliminary study, is indicative only and requires further research to adapt the theories in a more robust way.

6.4.2 Inter-propositional relationships

In this section, I provide an outline of inter-propositional categories and their semantic relations including Cause and Effect (6.4.2.1, Table 6.29), Comparison (6.4.2.2, Table 6.30), Contrastive (6.4.2.3, Table 6.31), and Time and Space (6.4.2.4, Table 6.32). The English and Māori example sentences #1-42 in Tables 6.29-6.32 below were taken from the study of Houia (2001, pp. 50-63).

6.4.2.1 Cause and Effect

Table 6.29: Cause and Effect

Categories	Semantic Relations	English	Māori
Cause and Effect	Reason and Result (pp. 50-51)	I like it <u>because</u> it's hot.	1. He pai ki ahau te mea rā <u>notemea</u> he wera.
		<u>As</u> the water is warm, I won't have a drink.	2. <u>Nā te mea</u> he mahana te wai, kāore au e inu.
		<u>Because</u> it's late, I won't wash the car.	3. <u>I te mea</u> he tomuri, kāore au e horoi i te motoka.
		<u>Now that</u> he's passed the test, he can drive.	4. <u>Inā</u> kua pāhi ia i te whakamātautau, ka āhei ia ki te taraiwa.
Cause and Effect	Means and Result (p. 51)	He opened the door <u>by</u> twisting the catch.	5. I whakapuare ia i te tatau <u>mā</u> te whakatakawhiri i te kakau.
	Means and Purpose (p. 52)	I left early <u>so that</u> I wouldn't miss the bus.	6. I wehe moata au <u>kia</u> kore <u>ai</u> au e mahue i te pahi.
		He decided to leave her <u>in order to</u> move in with his girlfriend.	7. I whakaritea e ia ki te wehe i a ia <u>kia</u> noho <u>ai</u> ia i tana tau.

Condition and Consequence (p. 53)	I'd have done it <u>if</u> there had been time. <i>(Unrealizable condition)</i>	8. Kua mahia e au <u>me</u> <u>mea</u> i whai tāima.
	<u>So long as</u> he's good to her, we must behave likewise. <i>(Realizable condition)</i>	9. <u>Mena</u> kei te pai ki a ia, me pai anō tatou.
Grounds and Conclusion (pp. 51-52)	That cow looks ill <u>so/</u> <u>therefore</u> I conclude that she must be the one that Mary said had the flu.	10. Ko te tino mate o te āhua o tērā kau, <u>nā</u> <u>reira</u> ka kī au koirā pea te mea i kī rā a Mere i te mate pupuhi te puku.

6.4.2.2 Comparison

Table 6.30: Comparison

Categories	Semantic Relations	English	Māori
Comparison	Simple Comparison (pp. 57-58)	I was afraid <u>and</u> so was Tom.	11. I te matakū ahau, ā, i te pērā anō a Tame.
		He said <u>that he was drunk</u> . I said so, too.	12. I korero mai ia i te <u>haurangi ia</u> . I kōrero pērā atu anō au.
		He found an insect and I <u>did too</u> .	13. I kitea e ia he ngārara, ā, i pērā anō au.
	Statement and Exemplification (pp. 58-59)	Everyone spent up large. Kararaina, <u>for example</u> , bought fifteen dresses.	14. I whakapau moni te katoa. <u>Inā koa</u> a Kararaina i hoko mai i te tekau mā rima kaka.
	Statement and Affirmation (p. 59)	A. He should visit his mother tomorrow. B. I agree.	15. Me toro atu ia ki tōna māmā āpōpō. Kei te <u>whakaae atu</u> au.
	Paraphrase (p. 60)	He began to climb.	16. I timata ia ki te piki.
He commenced the ascent.		17. I tīmata ia i te pikingā.	
He's not bad, he's good.		18. Ehara ia i te kino, he pai ia.	

	Amplification (pp. 60-61)	He knew that John was lying. He said that I shouldn't have gone.	19. I mōhio ia i te rūpahu a Hone. I kī ia rā kē au i te kore haere.
		(A) Someone left early. (B) It was Hine.	20. I wehe moata tētahi. 21. Ko Hine.
	Supplementary Alternation (p. 61)	You can read a book <u>or</u> wash the car.	22. Ka taea e koe te kōrero pukapuka, te horoi i te kā <u>rānei</u> .

6.4.2.3 Contrastive

Table 6.31: Contrastive

Categories	Semantic Relations	English	Māori
Contrastive	Simple Contrastive (p. 54)	He was Ngāpuhi, she was Ngai Tahu.	23. He Ngāpuhi ia, He Ngai Tahu ia.
		He wrote quickly, she wrote slowly.	24. I tuhi tere ia, he tuhi pōturi ia.
	Statement and Exception (p. 55)	Everyone <u>except</u> Hine left.	25. Ko te katoa <u>i tua mai</u> i a Hine i wehe moata.
	Statement and Denial (p. 55)	A. He should go tomorrow.	26. Rā kē ia te haere āpōpō.
		B. No. He shouldn't.	27. Kao. Kia kore ia e haere. (I had to add this example where none was given in Houia).
		A. Tom fainted. B. No, he didn't.	28. I āmai a Tame. 29. Kāo. kāore ia i āmai.
Denial and Correction (p. 56)	He isn't a teacher, he's a politician.	30. Ehara ia i te māhita, he minita pāremata ia.	
Concession and Contra-expectation (pp. 56-57)	I like apples <u>although</u> they are expensive.	31. He pai ki a au te āporo, <u>ahakoa</u> te nui o te utu.	

		I like the meat <u>but</u> the wine's awful.	32. He pai ki a au te mīti <u>engari</u> ko te waina he weriweri.
		<u>For all it matters</u> to me, he can stay home.	33. <u>Ahakoā</u> ōku ake whakaaro, me noho ia ki te kainga.
		<u>Although</u> it's raining, I haven't brought an umbrella.	34. <u>Ahakoā</u> te ua, kaare tonu au i mau hamarara mai.
Contrastive Alternation (p. 57)		<u>Either</u> stay <u>or</u> leave.	35. E noho <u>rānei</u> , e wehe atu <u>rānei</u> .
		It's <u>either</u> good <u>or</u> bad.	36. He pai <u>rānei</u> , he kino <u>rānei</u> .

6.4.2.4 Time and Space

Table 6.32: Time and Space

Categories	Semantic Relations	English	Māori
Time and Space	Chronological Sequence (pp. 61-62)	I'll watch the baby <u>till</u> you finish your work.	37. Māku e mātaki te pepi <u>tae noa atu</u> ki te mutunga o o mahi.
		I'll mind Hēmi <u>until</u> you've finished your work.	38. Ka tiaki au i a Hēmi <u>kia</u> mutu <u>rawa</u> i a koe ō mahi.
		<u>After</u> he had eaten the fish, he drank the water.	39. <u>Nō muri</u> i tana kaitanga i te ika, ka inu ia i te wai.
		<u>Once</u> he leaves, I'll read the newspaper.	40. Wehe <u>ana</u> ia, ka pānui-tia e au te niupepa.
	Temporal Overlap (p. 63)	I'll cut the wood <u>while</u> the dinner is cooking.	41. Mā-ku e tapahi nga peka <u>kei</u> maoa <u>ana</u> ngā kai.
	Bonding/ Spatial Contiguity (p. 63)	He wore a coat <u>and</u> carried an umbrella	42. I mau pōtae [sic] ia <u>me</u> te hari hāmarara.

I have added some comments below on how each inter-propositional relationship can be marked in the Māori language in the example sentences #1-42 above:

- 1-4: In reason-result, the reason member gives the reason why a particular result came about or will come about. The reason member is signaled by various subordinating conjunctions or adverbs of time (notemea, nā te mea, i te mea = because or inā = now).
- 5: In means-result, the means member states how a particular result was/ will be or can be achieved. The means member is signaled by the prepositions (mā = by).
- 6-7: In means-purpose, the purpose member outlines the action that is/ will be undertaken with the intention of achieving a particular result. The focus is on the ‘intention’ rather than the achievement. The purpose member is signaled by phrases (kia...ai = so that, in order to).
- 8-9: In condition-consequence, the consequence member is dependent on an unrealizable or a realizable condition or a hypothetical contingency. The condition member is signaled by the conditional (me, mena = if).
- 10: In grounds-conclusion, a deduction is drawn based on some observation. The conclusion member is signaled by adverbials (nā reira = so, therefore).
- 11-13: In simple comparison, this involves the comparison of two terms in relation to some aspect of similarity. This can be signaled by the coordinating conjunction (ā = and). Notice how this is often punctuated in written text (... , ā, ...) or adverbials (pērā anō = so, too, likewise, this needs to be classified further).
- 14: In statement-exemplification, one member provides a generalization, and the other member provides an exemplification of that generalization. This can be signaled by the phrase (inā koa = for example, notice this begins the sentence in this example).
- 15: In statement-affirmation, the truth or validity of an encoded, fleshed out proposition is affirmed. This can be signaled by predication (whakaae = agree).
- 16-18: In paraphrase, the same expanded proposition content is expressed in different encodings. This can be signaled by using the same verb other verbs in the infinitival

form or showing inflectional changes (piki = to climb, pikingā = ascent, ehara...he = this needs to be classified further).

- 19-21: In amplification, one of the encoded, fleshed out propositions repeats the content of the other but with a non-contrastive additive specification. This can be signaled by the second proposition in relation to the first one beginning with (i or ko).
- 22: In supplementary alternation, this relation involves two or more non-antithetical choices. It can be marked by the coordinating conjunction (rānei = or).
- 23-24: In simple contrastive, this relation involves two things, events, states, processes, abstractions in terms of some particular respect in which they are different. This can be signaled by the indefinite article, compounded clauses using opposite verbs (he...he = this form needs to be classified further, tuhi tere = wrote quickly, tuhi pōturi = wrote slowly).
- 25: In statement-exception, this is similar to simple contrast; however, it is not simply a case of contrasting an area of difference but of assuming similarity in areas other than the contrasted one/s. this can be signaled by the conjunction except (i tua mai = except).
- 26-29: In statement-denial, the truth or validity of a proposition is denied. This can be signaled by a negative word (kao = no, kia kore ... e = modality or Kaore ... i = past simple).
- 30: In denial-correction, one member is a denial involving a negated word or expression; the other is a contrary assertion containing a corrective, non-antonymic substitute for the negated word or expression. This can be signaled by a set construction (ehara...i te...he = this is not a ... but a ..., although this is not marked in the example provided by Houia).

- 31-34: In concession-*contra*-expectation, the truth of a possible inference is directly or indirectly denied. This can be signaled by conjunctions, (ahakoa = although, engari = but, ahakoa ōku ake = this needs to be classified further).
- 35-36: In contrastive alternation, this relation involves a choice between two terms, which are treated as being antithetical (i.e., negating, opposing). This can be signaled by a conjunction (rānei = or).
- 37-40: In chronological sequence, a sequential link between event propositions one of which follows the other in time. The event may be long or short and need not be in the past. This can be signaled by particles and verbs in time clauses (tae noa atu = till, kia...rawa = until, nō muri = after, wehe = the verb phrase needs to be classified further).
- 41: In temporal overlap, this links to events, which overlap wholly or partly in time. This can be signaled by a set construction that denotes a conjunction form (kei...ana = while).
- 42: In bonding/ spatial contiguity, this is the basic form of relations. It's a non-elective (i.e., not involving either/ or choice), non-sequential relation between two conjoined, fleshed out propositions, which generally involves spatial contiguity/ relationship/ juxtaposition. This can be signaled by a coordinating conjunction (me = and).

6.4.3 Intra-propositional Relationships or Case Roles

In this section, I focus on a model proposed by Whaanga in 2010 that showed how predication can be expressed in a range of intra-propositional relationships in English and how this, in turn, can be expressed in a sample of Māori language sentences. The samples were based on an analysis of authentic Māori texts carried out by Houia-Roberts (2004) and involved three texts translated into English written by Sir Apirana Ngata in the early twentieth century and three by Tīmoti Kāretu at the end of the same century (See, for details of the sample texts, Appendix

6.1). Whaanga referenced the sources of the texts using an author-text number code which I showed differently here from the original (e.g., Ng.1 = Ngata, text 1 or Ka.5 = Kāretu, text 5) and, in some cases, where the author was an unknown Informant, this was referenced as (e.g., Inf). The intra-propositional relationships were identified by Whaanga (2010) in the English language (pp. 78-79) and he provided some samples in the Māori language (pp. 80-88) as shown in Tables 6.33 and 6.34 below (Adapted).

Table 6.33: A basis for identifying case roles in te reo (Whaanga, 2010)

Predicator Types	Intra- propositional relationships	Definitions	Examples
With non-transitional activity predicator	Source (Non-Transitional)	Entity (entities) from which a non-transitional activity is identified as emanating.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The dog ate the rat.
	Instrument	Entity by means of which a non-transitional activity is carried out by an <i>Agent</i> .	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He broke the window with a hammer.
	Directional Focus	The target of a non-transitional activity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The dog ate the rat. • He lied about Mary to John. • He bequeathed his house to John. • He awarded a goal to John
	Predicate Range	The entity (entities)/abstraction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He lied about Mary to John.

		over which a non-transitional predicate ranges.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He taught Mary about Physics. • He taught French to Mary.
	Material	Entity (entities) transformed into another specified entity through a non-transitional activity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She makes clay into bowls.
	Result	Entity (entities) resulting from a non-transitional activity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She makes clay into bowls.
	Event Location	Location of a non-transitional activity.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He killed Henry behind the garage.
With material process predicator	Mutant	Entity (entities) affected by a process.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The butter melted.
With material state predicator	Identified State	Entity (entities) identified as being in the state referred to in the predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The door is green.
With spatial state predicator	Entity Location (Spatial)	Entity (entities) identified as being in a static location.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The book is in the drawer.

With experiential state or process predicator	Experiencer	Entity (entities) identified as experiencing an experiential state or process.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He heard the music. • He likes music.
	Appertainant	Entity (entities) identified as the source of an experiential state or process.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He heard the music. • He likes music.
With transitional event predicator	Source (Transitional)	Entity (entities) involved in the initiation of a movement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • He shifted it off the table.
	Starting Point	Location of an entity (or entities) at the beginning of a transitional event.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It fell from the table to the • floor.
	End Point	Location of an entity (or entities) at the end of a transitional event.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It fell from the table to the floor.
	Transitional Range	Area covered during a transitional event.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The egg rolled down the hill.
	Transitor	Entity (entities) in (locational) transition.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The egg rolled down the hill.

With relational predicator	Possessor	Entity (entities) identified as being the possessor in the case of a relational predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She has a Mercedes.
	Possessed	Entity (entities) identified as being the possessed in the case of a relational predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She has a Mercedes.
	Quantified	Entity (entities) identified as being the quantified in the case of a relational predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It weighs a tonne.
	Quantifier	Quantifier of entity (entities).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It weighs a tonne.
	Affector	Entity (entities) identified as being the affecter in the case of a relational predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jean has typhus.
	Affected	Entity (entities) identified as being the affected in the case of a relational predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Jean has typhus.
	Relational Specifier	Topic of a relational predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The decision is relevant to John.

	Relational Target	Target of a relational specifier.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The decision is relevant to John.
With activity, experiential and material process, material state, transitional event, and locational state	Temporal Location	The temporal point identified as being relevant to the activity, process or state identified by the predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> He ate at ten o'clock.
With activity, material process and material state, experiential process, and transitional event	Temporal Transition	The duration of the activity, state or process identified by the predicator.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> He travelled all day.

Table 6.34: Identifying case roles in a sample of Māori sentences (Whaanga, 2010)

Intra- propositional relationships	Māori	English	Sources
Source (Non- Transitional)	1. Tērā atu ngā kaupapa kōrero a ētahi atu iwi.	There are many other explanations held by other peoples.	Ng.1
Experiencer	2. Koirā te kite-nga tautahi-tanga o te Pākehā i tēnei manu.	That was the first sighting by Pakeha of this bird.	Ka.5
Appertainant	3. Koirā te kite-nga tautahi-tanga o te Pākehā i tēnei manu.	That was the first sighting by Pakeha of this bird.	Ka.5
Source (Non- Transitional)	4. Nā ā rātou kurī kē i whaka-mataku te kākāpō.	It was their dog that startled the kakapo.	Ka.5
Source (Non- Transitional)	5. Nō ngā kaitā te tino hē ki te perehi tonu i ērā kōrero tino kino atu.	The fault lies with the printers who continue to print this distasteful language.	Ng.1
Source (Non- Transitional)	6. Mā te tino tohunga anake e whaka-hua i tēnei ingoa .	Only a tohunga (priest) could refer to him.	Ng.3

Source (Non- Transitional)	7. Ko te mahi tuatahi tonu mō tō koutou rōpū.	The very first thing that needs to be done by your group.	Ng.2
Predicate Range	8. Ko te whakataukī pea hāngai ana ki te toa i tēnei wā, . . .	The expression best applied to the dominant males at this time is . . .	Ka.5
Result	9. Ko te tāne i hanga-ia i te tuatahi, nō muri ko te wahine.	The male species was created first and then the female.	Ng.3
Source (Non- Transitional)	10. He maha tonu ngā kākāpō ka mate i ā rātou kurī.	Many of the kākāpō were killed by their dogs.	Ka.5
Source (Non- Transitional)	11. He māmā noa iho ki te kurī te whaiwhai haere i tōna kakara.	It becomes easy prey for dogs.	Ka.5
Directional Focus	12. Kimi tonu āna tāngata i tōna putanga mai ki te whaiao.	Man is still seeking knowledge of his creation.	Ng.3

Instrument	13. . . . whaka-mahi i ō rātou ngutu hei unu mai i ngā kākano.	The beak is used to suck out the seeds.	Ka.4
Identified State	14. E hiahia ana rātou kia pēnei te roa-nga o tōna ingoa Reweti T. Mōkena Kohere.	They want his full name to be Reweti T. Mōkena Kohere.	Ng.1
Possessor	15. ka waiho ko ngā hua o ēnā mahi hei ora- nga mō te tangata Māori.	Māori people were left to exist on the monetary gains.	Ng.3
Predicate Range	16. E kōrero kē ana rātou mō te hunga pēperekōu.	They are looking at older people in general.	Ka.4
Predicate Range	17. Me whaka-whāiti ngā mārama-tanga katoa e takoto nei o ngā mahi ahuwhenua o tō koutou rohe.	Collate all this information about the work being carried out in your areas.	Ng.2

Identified State	18. Ko te tae o ngā hune, e rite ana ki te pūkohu.	The down is the colour of the mist.	Ka.5
Identified State	19. Nā konei i pai ai te noho huna o te kākāpō i te ao, i te pō.	Because of this, the kākāpō can stay concealed at day and at night.	Ka.5
Temporal Location	20. Ko te mahi tuatahi tonu mō tō koutou rōpū, me ērā atu rōpū e whaka-tū-ria ana i roto i te rohe pōti o te Tairāwhiti ā muri ake nei.	The very first thing that needs to be done by your group, (in fact by all similar groups likely to be established in the future.	Ng.2
Temporal Location	21. . . . te kaute o ngā hipi, me ērā atu kararehe a te Māori i tēnei wā. the numbers of sheep and other animals [being reared] by Māori people at this time.	Ng.2
Temporal Location	22. I te āhua tonu o ēnei rā nei.	With things the way they are these days.	Ka.4
Mutant	23. I rewa te pata.	The butter melted.	Inf

Mutant	24. Ka whānui haere te tiriti.	The street widened.	Inf
Mutant	25. Ka ngēngē a Hoani.	John tires.	Inf
Source (Transitional)	26. Ka nuku ia i te kai ki tua o te tēpu.	He shifted the food off the table.	Inf
Possessed	27. He whare tōna.	She has a house.	Inf
Affector	28. E karawaka-ngia ana a Tīni.	Jean has measles.	Inf
Affected	29. E karawaka-ngia ana a Tīni.	Jean has measles.	Inf
Quantified	30. He tone tōna toimaha.	It weighs a tonne.	Inf
End Point	31. Arā anō ētahi i tukuna atu ki ngā whare taonga o konei me tāwāhi.	Some were sent to the museums here and overseas.	Ka.5
Quantifier	32. Tērā ka eke ki te 2.5 kirokaramu tōna taumaha.	[The Kākā] can reach a weight of 2.5 kgs.	Ka.5
Relational Target	33. . . . i te wā i pai ki a ia.	. . . (it/ staying nearby) is at his convenience.	Ka.5

Relational Specifier	34. Kei te pā te whakatau-nga ki a Hone.	The decision is relevant to John.	Inf
Predicate Range	35. Koirā tāku nā whakamāori-tanga i tērā whakaaro.	That at least is my interpretation of the notice.	Ka.4
Material	36. I hanga-ia mai te tangata i te puehu.	Man was created from dust.	Ng.3
Result	37. Hanga kōwhanga ai ngā uha i ngā tumu rākau.	The females construct their nests around tree stumps and hollows.	Ka.5
Experiencer	38. . . . i tō mātou kite- nga i ētahi kupu kāore e tika kia perehi-tia i roto i tētahi o ā tātou pepa Māori.	. . . we saw a type of language, that should not be printed, appeared in one of our Māori papers.	Ng.1
Starting Point	39. Me te aha, puta ohore mai ana i tōna rua.	As a result, [their dog] caused [it] to emerge from its nest . . .	Ka.5
Transitor	40. . . . i a ia e oma ana e piki ana rānei.	. . . when it is running or when it is climbing trees.	Ka.5

Relational Target	41. . . . te karo tēnei kupu te ‘māngere’ ki raro i te iwi Māori.	the use of this word ‘lazy’ in reference to the Māori people.	Ng.2
Temporal Location	42. . . . te kaute o ngā hipi, me ērā atu kararehe a te Māori i tēnei wā.	The numbers of sheep and other animals [being reared] by Māori people at this time.	Ng.2
Event-Location	43. I totohu te kaupuke i te moana.	The ship sank at sea.	Inf
Transitional Range	44. Ka pīrori haere te hēki i te hiwi.	The egg rolled down the hill.	Inf
Source (Non- Transitional)	45. Ko ētahi huarahi e tae-a ai te karo ki taku whakaaro koia ēnei.	In my opinion . . . some courses of action.	Ng.2
Source (Non- Transitional)	46. E ai ki ō tātou koroua, kuia	According to our elders	Ka.4
Entity Location (Spatial)	47. Ko āna kōrero kino, i roto i tētahi reta tuku mai, engari kāore pea i kite-a e te ētita.	This offensive language appeared in a letter sent into the paper but this letter was obviously not noticed by the editor.	Ng.1

Entity Location (Spatial)	48. Kei roto i ngā whakapua-tanga kōrero o ia iwi o tēnei ao, tērā e kite- a ā rātou tini mano pūtaka o te tangata.	Throughout the world, different peoples have different interpretations on the origin of man.	Ng.3
Entity Location (Spatial)	49. Te wāriu o ngā whakapai-nga kei runga i aua whenua	The values of improvements on those lands.	Ng.2
Event Location	50. I patu-a a Henare e ia i muri i te karati.	He killed Henry behind the garage.	Inf
Temporal Transition	51. Ko tōna haerenga puta noa te rā.	He travelled all day.	Inf

The following comments were provided by Whaanga (Adapted here) regarding how intra-propositional relationships and predication can be signal in the sample sentences #1-51 above.

- 1-3. Predicator nominalization is followed by the preposition a/ o/ i.
- 4-7. Actor emphatic constructions are accompanied by the prepositions nā, nō, mā, mō.
- 8-9. Emphatic fronting is accompanied by the preposition ko.
- 10: The verb ‘mate’ selects the preposition i.
- 11-13: Durative aspect involving timeless, universal truths is accompanied by the preposition ki except where it is followed by a possessive, in which case it is accompanied by the preposition i.
- 14: Preceding a nominal substitute, the particle kia occurs.
- 15-16: In the context of a modified group to which reference is being made, mō occurs.

- 17-19: In the context of a relationship between an entity or entities and a property of that entity/ entities, the preposition o occurs.
- 20: In the context of location in future time, the preposition ā occurs.
- 21-22: In the context of a specific temporal reference, the preposition i occurs in 21; in the context of a general temporal reference, the preposition o occurs in 22.
- 23-30. Unsignaled relations: The intra-propositional relations of Mutant, Source (Transitional), Possessed, Affector, Affected and Quantified were not signaled in any examples in the corpus.
- 31-34. Relations signaled by ki: The intra-propositional relations of End Point, Quantifier, Relational Target and Relational Specifier were signaled by ki.
- 35-44. Relations signaled by i. The intra-propositional relations of Predicate Range, Material, Result, Experiencer, Starting Point, Transitor, Relational Target, Temporal Location, Event-Location and Transitional Range were signaled by i.
- 45-51. Other relational signals: Prepositions were not the only items used to signal intra-propositional relations in the corpus. Other types of signal included phrasal idioms 45 and 46, combinations such as preposition + locative + preposition i roto i 47, preposition + locative kei roto/ runga and i muri 48-50, and the verb puta + post-posed periphery noa 51).

Whaanga (2010) says, “it is important to note that not all intra-propositional relations are signaled/ signposted in all languages and also that there are a range of different ways in which they may be signaled in different languages or in the same language, some of the signals being more specific than others” (p. 79). In general, the types of ideas exemplified here could provide useful ways to explain how certain aspects of te reo Māori are working in particular structure which often come up in teachers’ and students’ inquiries concerning them (e.g., in what way is this participant different from that one, what type of verb is this and how does it work in this

construction as opposed to others etc.). These and many other questions will always be on the minds of real teachers and students. It is, therefore, necessary to have some type of framework or point of reference to which they could refer in order to find adequate answers. Finally, Whaanga (2006) says, “the results of the texts are intended to be indicative only; a more extensive study would be required to validate them or otherwise” (p. 213).

6.5 Summary of the key findings

Here, I will reiterate only those key points regarding inter-propositional and intra-propositional relationships/ case roles including a mention about semantic predicates. Some of the first ideas that provided a basis for the emergence of later studies in inter- and intra-propositions appeared in a report on twenty-five Philippine languages and dialects carried out by Longacre in 1968. In that report Longacre discussed relations of grammatical sentences within discourse and found that two clauses bound or not, form all or part of two grammatical sentences (Longacre, 1968, Volume II, Sentence Structure, p. 224). The types of relations identified included, for example, time, cause, reason, purpose, result, and condition which have since become associated with what is now called inter-propositional relationships. The notion of inter-propositional coherence is the relationships that hold *between* one proposition (or one group of propositions) and another which could be divided into general semantic relations, for example, *cause* and *effect*. Subsequent relations were designed by Beekman and Callow (1974); Hollenbach (1975); Crombie (1985b); and Whaanga (2006) showing their own relations, additions, and/ or reconceptualizations of Longacre’s initial list (e.g., means-result, denial-correction etc.). Around the same time, Fillmore (1967) wrote a paper called Case for Case in which he introduced the notion of case role theory. In it, he says, there are many semantically relevant syntactic relationships involving nouns and the structures that contain them and that these relationships are in large part hidden which he called case relationships (p. 9). Whaanga (2006) says, “Fillmore’s paper was later re-examined with a focus on propositional theory

which was central to case roles including intra-propositional and inter-propositional relationships” (p. 7). Fillmore (1968) says, “a proposition essentially consisted of one or more noun phrases and their related verbs” (p. 41). The notion of case roles has since become associated with the emergence of a theory called intra-propositional relationships as outlined in a study by Crombie in 1985b. In this study, Crombie says, “intra-propositional coherence shows the semantic relationships that exist within propositions that hold between the semantic predicate of a proposition and its argument or arguments a case role can be grammatically referred to as the subject and the object or generally referred to as different entities or abstractions that play different semantic roles in relation to the predicate of the clause” (pp. 95-99). In other words, a case role can be referred to as the participant in the argument of a proposition using semantic terms (e.g., Agent, Patient etc.). A discussion on propositional theory essentially will involve a discussion on semantic predication in this area of language description. Crombie (1985b) says, “since the way in which arguments function within propositions (i.e., the semantic roles which they perform as participants) is directly related to the type of semantic predicate with which they occur, it is important to classify them into types” (p. 98). It seems that studies on relations in sentence structures by Longacre (1968) and case roles by Fillmore (1967) have been re-examined by Crombie (1985b) who also focused on semantic predicates in a unified way. This latter focus on inter- and intra-propositional/ case role theorizing will provide the basic framework for a semantic description of te reo Māori. However, due to the lack of research-based studies in semantic predicates, they are not presently included in that framework but will be considered in later studies beyond the scope of this thesis. Because inter-propositional, intra-propositional/ case roles, and semantic predicates are emerging theories, they are not completely understood in English language studies and even less understood in Māori language studies.

Chapter 7: Reporting on a sample of Māori language teachers

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I report on the interviews and findings of a sample of Māori language teachers who had a background in teaching te reo to English speaking learners in a formal educational institution. The aim was to determine how they may have made or make use of linguistic, semantic, or grammar descriptions in their own teaching practices. The chapter will begin with a background on teacher cognition research in language learning (7.2), restating the research methodologies and methods (7.3), reporting on the findings of the interviews that make up the larger portion of the chapter (7.4), and then give a summary of the key findings (7.5).

7.2 A background on teacher cognition research in language learning

During the 1900s, the emergence of structuralism and behaviourism (Bloomfield, 1933; Saussure, 1916; & Skinner, 1957) would have a profound impact on research and developments in First Language (L1) and Second Language (L2) acquisition. Brown (2000) says, “the structuralist and behaviourist beliefs that had developed by the 1940s and 1950s advocated that only observable phenomenon that could be either seen or heard, could be investigated, measured, or recorded” (p. 8). This belief disregarded any reference to cognitive processes that occurred in the mind, that is, the process of thinking, of information, or of thought production on account of its unobservable phenomena. In other words, if it could not be seen nor heard, then it could not be investigated, measured, or recorded. Bloomfield (1933) advocated that “a mechanistic approach was the necessary form of scientific investigation, it being more solid and easily surveyed than mentalistic properties” (pp. vi-vii). Around the 1970s, however, the emergence of research on cognitive psychology would signal a crucial shift away from the structuralist and behaviorist mindset. On the contrary, Borg (2009) says, “it revealed that complex relationships co-existed between behaviour and mentalistic processes, and this would

later play an important role in language teachers' thought patterns and their instructional choices" (p. 1). Following a discussion of prominent academics at a national education conference in the USA, they concluded in their report,

It is obvious that what teachers do is directed in no small measure by what they think to the extent that observed or intended teaching behaviour is thoughtless, it makes no use of the human teacher's most unique attributes. In so doing, it becomes mechanical and might well be done by a machine. If, however, teaching is done and, in all likelihood, will continue to be done by human teachers, the question of relationships between thought and action becomes crucial (National Institute of Education, 1975, p. 1).

Similarly, Borg (2009) says, "teachers were not merely following curriculum instructions mindlessly but made decisions of their own free will and this has driven research in teacher cognition, that is, what teachers think, know, and believe in relation to the unobservable dimension of teaching" (p. 1). A useful distinction involving the conceptualization of 'to know' suggests that, in some cases, it may be more appropriately termed as 'to believe' when it cannot be supported with reference to evidence (Munby, Russell & Martin, 2001, p. 878). Woods (1996), on the other hand, provided a more integrated conceptual acronym called 'BAK' (i.e., Beliefs, Assumptions, and Knowledge), which says, "*Beliefs* as the acceptance of a proposition for which there is no conventional knowledge, cannot be proved and for which there is accepted disagreement (e.g., I believe that early immersion is good for a child's cognitive development but my colleague doesn't.); *Assumptions* were defined as temporary acceptance of facts, which we don't know for certain and has not been demonstrated but are taken as true for the time being (e.g., I don't know for a fact that he took my book home but I assume it must have been him.); and *Knowledge* was defined as things we know based on conventionally accepted facts that can be demonstrated or is demonstrable these distinctions occupy a spectrum ranging

from belief to knowledge, that is, I don't just believe it. I don't just assume it. I know it (p. 195). Clark & Peterson (1985) says, "the acceptance and the relationship between thought and action may help in understanding teaching" (p. 258), whereas Doyle (1997) says, "the link between mental representations, such as attitudes and behaviour can be a complex and often counter-intuitive one" (p. 254). Borg (2009) says, "all these developments would later have an impact on second language education, which would become a prominent field of inquiry in the mid-1990s this would extend to include second language grammar teaching and the thinking behind teachers' practices and the challenges they faced, for example, when explaining points of grammar, error correction and the kinds of knowledge they gained from it (See, for example, Section 7.4.2.3). Phipps & Borg (2009) provided a list of principles that outline teachers' beliefs in education generally and in language teaching specifically they say teachers' beliefs:

- May be powerfully influenced (positively or negatively) by teachers' own experiences as learners and are well established by the time teachers go to university;
- Act as a filter through which teachers interpret new information and experience;
- May outweigh the effects of teacher education in influencing what teachers do in the classroom;
- Can exert a persistent long-term influence on teachers' instructional practices;
- Are, at the same time, not always reflected in what teachers do in the classroom;
- Interact bi-directionally with experience (i.e., beliefs influence practices and practices can also lead to changes in beliefs);
- Have a powerful effect on teachers' pedagogical decisions;
- Strongly influence what and how teachers learn during language teacher education;
- Can be deep-rooted and resistant to change (p. 381).

The above list of principles might provide a useful basis to determine the extent of their impact on the sample of Māori language teachers reported on in this chapter (See, Section 7.4).

7.3 Restating the research methodology and methods

This section will briefly restate the methodology and methods that I used for the report viz. the interviews (7.3.1), the sample audience (7.3.2), the interview questions (7.3.3), and the mode of data collection (7.3.4).

7.3.1 The interviews

As a practical component of the thesis, I set out to interview a sample of Māori language teachers using an interpretive approach and semi-structured interviews for a more qualitative analysis and interpretation of the data collected. The aim of the interviews was to determine a) how the teachers responded to linguistic based and semantic based approaches to a description of the Māori language in grammar books and textbooks on te reo and b) how these approaches have or may have impacted on their own beliefs, attitudes, and practices in grammar description and grammar teaching in their own classroom lessons generally.

7.3.2 The sample audience

The sample of Māori language teachers was selected on the basis that they were working in a formal educational institution and teaching te reo Māori at any level (i.e., from beginners to advanced). Consideration was given to their availability, time, and work schedules to participate in the interviews by contacting them through word of mouth, Facebook, and email as the means to send them all the necessary interview documents about the study (e.g., information sheets etc.). Throughout the report, I refer to each Māori language teacher as *Respondent* in which they are identified by a letter-number code (i.e., R1 = Respondent 1, R2 = Respondent 2 through to R8 = Respondent 8) to protect their anonymity and identity.

7.3.3 *The interview questions*

The interview questions consisted of five-open ended questions and were organized into two parts, that is, general question (Q1) and specific questions (Q2-Q5).

Part1 - Question 1: General questions	
Q1	Can you tell me about your upbringing, such as teaching background, work position, your first language, how you got into teaching te reo, and if you have any beliefs about teaching in general, particularly te reo?
Part 2 - Questions 2-5: Specific questions	
Q2	Have you ever considered doing or done a course on the analysis of te reo?
Q3	Have you ever used any grammar books and/ or textbooks on Māori in your own teaching practice and, how useful, if at all, were they for teachers and learners of te reo?
Q4	Do you ever have difficulty explaining aspects of te reo to your students and/ or answering their questions about them (e.g., explaining grammar points/ certain structures etc.). If yes, then what strategies have you used in addressing those difficulties?
Q5	What is your general comment on the language description handout you were given showing three different approaches (A, B, and C) to describing similar aspects of te reo?

7.3.4 *The mode of data collection, analysis, and organization*

I interviewed the Respondents face-to-face for 30-45 minutes at a location, day, and time of their own choice. Their responses were digitized using certain technology. Afterwards, I transcribed their responses using Microsoft word and data collection software in preparation to analyze and interpret the data to determine common threads and different trends in order to extrapolate my findings.

7.4 Reporting on the findings of the interviews

In this section, I will report on the findings of the interviews in two parts. In Part 1-Question 1, I will report on each Respondent in the following general areas: personal upbringing, teaching background, work position, their first language, and aspirations for and beliefs in teaching te reo (7.4.1). In Part 2-Questions 2-5, I will report on each Respondent in the following specific areas: doing a course on the analysis of te reo, the use of Māori grammars and textbooks in their own teaching practices, the difficulties they encountered with explaining te reo to their own students and answering their questions, and their comments about the handout on Approaches A, B, and C (7.4.2).

7.4.1 Part 1: Responses to general questions

7.4.1.1 Question 1

Can you tell me about your upbringing, such as teaching background, work position, your first language, how you got into teaching te reo, and if you have any beliefs about teaching in general, particularly te reo?

- ***Respondent 1***

R1 was raised in a community that strongly adhered to tikanga Māori (customs/ practices) in which kapahaka (performing arts), wānanga (a meeting), learning waiata (song), and karakia (prayer) were the norm of communal living. R1 says, “you were part of a movement, a belief”. Central to that belief was te reo Māori, being the dominant language of R1 for use in everyday communication. R1 first started out teaching te reo in community-based education, secondary schools within the local area, and then later in Kōhanga Reo, Kura Kaupapa, Te Ataarangi, Kura Matatini, and in a bi-lingual unit. In time, R1 went to Teachers Training College and shortly afterwards started teaching several te reo courses of various levels at a formal educational institution in New Zealand. R1 taught a range of students including adult learners and fluent speakers of te reo. With reference to grammar books, R1 says, “they are for certain

types of people who want to learn linguistics; some students thrive on them, while others discard them; you don't have to learn the language of linguistics to learn Māori; most Māori have a desire to speak Māori and they are not concerned with linguistic terms". R1 has taught te reo to a range of students from young to mature adult students.

- ***Respondent 2***

R2 grew up immersed in the arts, kapahaka, and te reo but often spoke English in the home as the language of everyday communication. In time, R2 went to live with a relative where speaking te reo became a strict part of everyday life. R2 completed a few Māori language courses after leaving college and this provided the inspiration to become a teacher of te reo. After completing certain courses of study, R2 began teaching te reo for many years in a range of Māori language papers to students including school leavers, returning students, and adult students.

- ***Respondent 3***

R3 grew up in a Māori-speaking community as a first language speaker of te reo and developed a more natural and expressive feeling in speaking it. While studying at an educational institution in New Zealand, R3 noticed that te reo was sometimes taught based on descriptions in grammar books on te reo. This approach to learning seemed quite different from R3's own natural upbringing as a L1 speaker of te reo. While enrolled in some of the language courses on offer, R3 says, "I retained the natural and inherited knowledge of te reo with which I was brought up". Although teaching te reo was not a major focus of R3's subject matter, nevertheless R3 taught some papers in te reo or some aspects of it to adult and second language students of te reo who were studying the subject.

- ***Respondent 4***

R4 grew up speaking te reo Māori most of the time as a first language but often spoke English at home and school for general communication. R4 has been actively involved in education

and te reo in many different settings over the years and attended Teachers Training College with the express interest in teaching te reo, and this led to becoming involved in the Kōhanga Reo movement. R4 has many responsibilities in different sectors within the workplace including the teaching of Māori language papers to students with different levels of competencies (e.g., beginners and fluent reo speakers).

- ***Respondent 5***

R5 grew up speaking English but hardly spoke Māori in the home except for some words, phrases, and songs. R5 also went to Teachers Training College and did a course to learn te reo and later went on to teach the English and Māori languages in certain educational institutions. R5 says, you can't learn a language without learning its culture and vice-versa. R5 has taught te reo papers at different levels and tikanga-based papers to students who were mainly second language learners of te reo including first-year students.

- ***Respondent 6***

R6 grew up with strong political connections to the whenua (land) and whakapapa (genealogy) and the desire to learn te reo came later in life, albeit a knowledge and understanding of it, at first, was limited. Although R6 learned some te reo at school, most of that learning came later from more formal-based studies (i.e., grammar books and grammar teaching). Despite being brought up by a family member whose L1 was te reo, the English language was used mainly in the home for everyday communication. R6 says, "I have a strong preference towards the Communicative Approach or Communicative Language Teaching framework which I try to apply in my own teaching practice". R6 taught a range of students, such as school leavers and mature adult learners.

- ***Respondent 7***

R7 is a New Zealander of European descent whose first language is English but started learning te reo at school at 15 years of age. R7 went to Teachers Training College and trained in three

subjects: Math, English and Te Reo before going on to teach the Māori language in mainstream education. In time, R7 became involved in Kōhanga Reo and had a good knowledge and understanding of the structures and this provided R7 with an opportunity to put that knowledge into practice in a more communicative way. R7 says, “teaching te reo requires, in no small way, a comprehensive knowledge of the grammar but this is not necessarily the case with many te reo teachers”. Some years later, R7 continued te reo studies and has been a lecturer in the Māori language programme in the workplace over the last twenty years. R7 often teaches first year and adult students from a range of different backgrounds.

- ***Respondent 8***

R8 is a long-time advocate, teacher, and lifelong learner of te reo Māori. For some family members of R8, te reo was the first language, however, English was the main language of communication for R8 while growing up. R8 taught te reo at Kōhanga Reo, Polytechnic, and Te Ataarangi, and then later went on to higher level education and completed a paper on Second Language Teaching with a focus on the Communicative Language Teaching approach. R8 has investigated this approach as a teaching methodology for teaching te reo in mainstream education and for professional teaching practice. R8 has taught te reo for over twenty years covering a range of levels to students who come from mainstream or Wharekura (secondary total immersion school) including some international students.

7.4.2 Part 2: Responses to specific questions

7.4.2.1 Question 2

Have you ever considered doing or done a course on the analysis of te reo?

- ***Respondent 1***

R1 participated in a weekend-long wānanga (social meeting) but says, “we didn’t use grammar books or textbooks, there was very little use for them”. Considering the short time and purpose of the wānanga, that is, it targeted fluent speakers of te reo and focused more on general topics

for language usage¹⁰⁰ rather than language analysis,¹⁰¹ the use of grammar books would have been of very little value in this case. Nevertheless, R1 did do a paper on language analysis and says, “we analysed different sentence structures of te reo, and then discussed them with the lecturer” but did not elaborate on what that discussion involved. This highlights a fundamental difference between a course for fluent speakers that promotes language usage and a course designed for language analysis that examines its structure regarding how and why it works. Differentiating between these two functions is crucial to the knowledge of language pedagogy and acquisition in the L2 space generally.

- *Respondent 2*

R2 completed several papers in the early years of study that were mainly an introduction to linguistic analysis and grammatical descriptions of the English language and how this could be used to describe te reo. R2 says, “I was just coming to terms with the whole concept of grammar, where the lecturer would break it down into English, and then explained how it could be applied to te reo it was a highlight for me at that time”. R2 later completed the Certificate in English Language Teaching (CELTA), a course designed to teach students who were learning English as a second language. During lessons, R2 says, “I observed that students would dissect (i.e., analyse) the English language but lacked the necessary skills to speak it fluently I had to break down the grammar, and then teach it in ways they could understand the course was quite demanding you had to prepare the subject matter yourself and then create a plan on how to teach that subject to your learners however, the course gave me a sound understanding of grammar and confidence in grammar books”. Adapting these

¹⁰⁰ Language learning or language acquisition often involves the development of a person’s native first language, second and/ or foreign language. Some theorists argue that ‘learning’ refers to a conscious process involving the study of explicit rules of language and monitoring one’s performance such as, for example, learning a foreign language in a classroom setting, and ‘acquisition’ can refer to a non-conscious process of rule internalization resulting from exposure to comprehensible input when the learner’s attention is on meaning rather than on form (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 284).

¹⁰¹ Language or linguistic analysis, on the other hand, is an investigation into the structure and functions of a certain language or of language in general as a system of human communication (ibid. p. 310).

skills to teaching te reo, R2 further says, “I would alter, change, and modify the knowledge I learned from the CELTA course to the level of te reo I would teach at any given time”.

- ***Respondent 3***

R3 had not considered doing any type of course on the analysis or description of te reo Māori but says, “that teachers of te reo should have a background in the analysis of grammar description of the Māori language”. Regarding grammar and textbooks on Māori, R3 believes that some learners tend to become too technical in their approach to learning te reo because these types of books place more emphasis on accuracy than on fluency and lack a certain feel or emotion to help reo students express themselves properly when speaking it. R3 says, “some of my te reo students had completed similar courses and had a better command of the language than I did for example, one student has a very technical knowledge of te reo and this was reflected in that student’s speech and ability to explain things and to express himself I consider my own language as more native, that is, it had a more natural feel, tone, or expression”. It seems this scenario highlights a point of difference between L1 and L2 acquisition, the former involving a more naturalistic upbringing to learning te reo and the latter through the medium of a more controlled environment (e.g., learning through a course or a lesson). Both approaches, therefore, would involve entirely different sets of rules to produce language outcomes regarding expressions and feelings in communication. With reference to the debate on L1 and L2 speakers and the changing nature of te reo, R3 says, “that some purists are of the impression that te reo should only be spoken one-way and this kind of thinking can only contribute to its demise as opposed to its survival but I am more open minded about the subject”. I believe debates of this kind can strongly influence public opinion about Māori language courses (e.g., linguistic- or grammar-based ones) that can generate both skeptical and optimistic views.

- ***Respondent 4***

R4 acquired a knowledge of an analysis of te reo Māori from doing a major in linguistic¹⁰² studies but largely from personal experience as an academic educator. While listening, for example, to people speaking on the marae or to students in class, R4 identified five areas in the Māori language that some often would have trouble with regarding correct usage. This included A/O categories, i/ ki particles, passive verbs, adverbs, and colloquialisms. R4 says, “the particles i/ ki and adverbs perform various functions¹⁰³ and could be used to express a certain mana (influence) by placing an emphasis on certain words or to stress the importance of what the speaker was trying to say”. R4 says, “I did some initial investigation into Discourse Analysis (DA) and discovered that words and the contexts in which they occur could play a key role in expressing a communicative message, unfortunately I had little time to pursue this area further”. For Māori language teachers today, there has been some interest in this area, to certain degrees, since the early 1960s but more so in 2000 with more research-based studies in DA related to Māori language education (See, for example, Crombie, Johnson, & Te Kanawa, 2001; Greensill, 2007; Houia, 2001; Houia-Roberts, 2004; Nock, 2014; & Whaanga, 2006, 2007, 2010). Nevertheless, the shift towards this area of language study in te reo has been a steady but slow one.

- ***Respondent 5***

R5 recalled selecting the Māori language as a subject at secondary school, however, it was never available and later went to another educational institution to do a te reo course in Levels 1 and 2. Nevertheless, R5 considered that it was not really a comprehensive base for learning te reo but was a minor focus of study. R5 also did additional studies in certain European-based

¹⁰² Linguistic description is an investigation into the units of its structure and function and grammar description referring to the ways in which words and phrases are combined to produce sentences and their meanings in the overall system of a language (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, pp. 230-231, 310).

¹⁰³ Richards & Schmidt (2002) says, a function shows the purpose for which an utterance or unit of language is used...functions are often described as categories of behaviour (e.g., requests, apologies, complaints, offers, compliments) . . . sentences in the imperative may perform a variety of different functions (pp. 214-215).

languages, and then later returned to school to teach them. After accepting a position to teach te reo Māori at the school, R5 says, “I had to instruct myself on how to teach te reo but I was able to use the instructions and training I had in teaching the European languages that I studied”. Sometimes, R5 would attend ‘teachers only days’, ‘week-long’ courses, and Te Ataarangi to absorb and learn as much te reo as possible. On other occasions, university lecturers would come to speak to the class on te reo and demonstrate language teaching methods. R5 further says, “the traditional methods of learning languages I was brought up in had a strict linguistic focus with little reference to any cultural input”. This latter observation, I believe, is an important one being an integral part of a semantic description of language and one that needs more inclusion in educational materials with clear explanations that link them to language descriptions. Observing that some students were more fluent than some teachers or tutors at school, R5 decided to do a certificate in te reo Māori as a personal challenge to achieve a higher level of proficiency in the language.

- ***Respondent 6***

R6 did a grammar-based paper on te reo and recalls doing very well in it and says, “I had an aptitude for understanding a language if I could understand its grammar . . . it’s just how my brain works”. Afterwards, R6 ended up teaching that same grammar paper and by this time gained invaluable insight, experience, and understanding of what needed to be taught. In contrast to other courses, R6 says, “the grammar paper had a different focus and feel to it and demanded a different sort of teaching style to other students I would normally teach”. In time, R6 completed certain courses of studies, and then later became a teacher on the Māori language in areas, such as general and applied linguistics, Māori grammar, and a class that focused on genre and text types. When teaching, for example, a course on language usage, R6 would use elements of the communicative approach, such as giving the students a sample text to look at, and then have them figure out how the language worked as a way of discovering things for

themselves. R6 says, “with the grammar course you’re not actually teaching them the language but giving them a better understanding of how the grammar works”. In other words, learning a language to develop fluent and accurate skills in communication differs, in some ways, as analyzing a language regarding how it works from a linguistic viewpoint”. R6 further says, “my students are the main source of motivation and they inspire me to help them become good users of te reo”.

- ***Respondent 7***

R7 studied European-based languages and enjoyed the linguistic component of the lessons, this provided the motivation to do as many linguistic papers as possible. R7 says, “although the French and te reo lessons had a grammar focus, they were scarcely spoken in class I have a natural interest in languages and found linguistics to be quite straight forward”. For R7, it seems those lessons placed a strong focus on linguistic analysis and grammar description. While studying languages, R7 would have been familiar with a few textbooks on te reo that were already in circulation and use that would have contributed to a focus on grammar teaching of the language in a classroom setting and these would have included, for example, Biggs, 1969, 1973; Waititi, 1962, 1964, 1978; & Wills, 1960). R7 says, “it is important to create a learning environment that fosters interaction, communication, and practice for your students while they are learning te reo I was taught te reo at school by native speakers and reo teachers part of the way we were taught the language was what we would now-a-days describe as some sort of grammatical analysis that part of that teaching was a very book-based approach that focused on grammar, sentence patterns and vocabulary and this helped me to understand the language but there was very little attention on speaking it in classroom lessons”. At this time, R7 was a student and not a teacher, although teaching te reo came later as a profession.

- ***Respondent 8***

R8 also did a linguistic paper on the structure of Māori and found the surrounding to be unfamiliar while coming to grips with understanding various linguistic terminology and their different meanings. Nevertheless, this learning environment provided a basis for developing a critical awareness and inquisitive mind about te reo that helped to answer some self-reflecting questions that R7 had been pondering, like why was te reo structured in certain ways that differed from other structures in the language and how could teachers explain them in a simpler manner to their students. In time, R8 became familiar with many terms (e.g., locatives and pronouns etc.) and created methods to teach those terms in organized ways. R8 says, “I would explain to the students that if a word is placed in the locative column, then that group of words will be governed by their own set of rules and definitions, and so on for the other categories. I have provided examples here, Kirikiriroa = location and name of a town, he makariri a waho = it’s cold outside in which Kirikiriroa and a waho are behaving as locatives (See, Harlow, 2001, p. 21). R8 further says, “if teachers don’t know or can’t explain these language features, then they’re going to have some problems”.

7.4.2.2 Question 3

Have you used Māori grammars and/ or textbooks in your own teaching practice?

- ***Respondent 1***

R1 says, “the use of grammar books and textbooks on Māori was a requirement of the institution’s curriculum and the Moorfield series was the main texts used at that time I had no choice in the matter and had to use them because they contained the content for classroom lessons they have their benefits but they also present a totally different language for teachers and learners of te reo with terms such as subject, verb, object including their explanations and descriptions. As a side note, although R1 did not provide any details on this situation, it would have been interesting to know, if at all, on what basis or criteria did the

institution use to evaluate which grammar books would be used in the curriculum or course and who would make the final decision (i.e., the lecturer, management, or someone else). This prompts further inquiry in regard to what assistance or training, if any, do Māori language teachers receive about the set grammars they are required to use for designing and delivering lessons in their practices. R1 recalled having had a few problems with understanding some of the content in the grammar books and how to reconcile the role of teaching linguistics and the role of teaching te reo and this led to a strong preference to discard the use of grammar books in classroom lessons and teaching in general after some time of being exposed to them.

- ***Respondent 2***

R2 says, “I would spend about 20% of my time searching grammar books on Māori for lesson content for my beginners’ class, I used the Te Kākano textbook but found this level to be quite difficult to teach because students tended to ask more questions (e.g., on grammar rules etc.) than they did in my other reo courses the i and ki particles were the toughest grammar points to teach, so I would read Harlow and Moorfield to get a better understanding of how they worked I would try my best to explain these points to my students in classroom lessons and would often sense when they became confused about them it would be difficult to base my whole teaching approach on these books, so I would sometimes refer to the teaching methods I learnt in Te Ataarangi”. R5 further says, “the Moorfield textbooks provided some good progression from beginners to advanced levels, despite all their flaws and faults, they are useful for teachers as a basis for selecting subject matter and we sort of relied on them as a resource to teach te reo the teachers themselves needed to decide on what language points they would use in their lessons, and how they would teach those points”. To comment on the beginner’s level as mentioned by R2, I think the students would expect their teachers to have a range of grammar knowledge and to explain the subtleties of i and ki which are quite versatile and very often present many challenges for students learning them for the first time. As a

precaution, I think the teacher should teach the lesson items according to the lesson plan without teaching beyond the limits of that plan or their knowledge of them. On the other hand, if the teacher has an extensive range of knowledge in these particles, then that teacher would likely be in a strong position to address any unexpected questions that students might raise about them during a classroom lesson.

- ***Respondent 3***

R3 says, “the descriptions in grammar books and textbooks on Māori are too technical and not simple enough . . . upon opening them teachers and learners are immediately confronted with complex terms, confusing explanations, and inadequate examples that do not show you how or why certain aspects of te reo work . . . traditionally, te reo was a passive language but this seems to be changing and grammar books do not adequately describe this aspect of the language, for example, Kei te karangahia te kuia = The woman is being called and Kei te karanga te kuia = The woman is calling . . . by changing the form, it changes the meaning . . . grammars also lacked explanations of culturally based usage of te reo . . . for example, when I was brought up, Māori did not ask directly ‘Ko wai tōu ingoa? What is your name = Who are you? This could be considered as being rude . . . this may have been influenced by English greetings, so I prefer to say Ko hea tōu maunga . . . which can be more appropriate and express the same meaning”. In response, I think it would be important to pay attention to comments like this, particularly from speakers for whom te reo is their first language. This can alert the reo teacher to the subtlety of cultural insensitivity when planning lesson content. However, the issues of subtleties may differ among other individuals or groups across Aotearoa. Furthermore, I think grammars would significantly benefit from clearly stated explanations of how language usage of te reo links to cultural beliefs and how this could facilitate a greater appreciation and understanding of the language and culture. R3 further says, “grammar books/ textbooks on Māori seems to be forcing te reo into English ideologies and

styles of language learning, which might not be the best teaching approach Māori should be taking the lead in explaining how te reo works”. Although Western-based ideas about language can provide a reference point to help reo teachers and learners understand how certain aspects of te reo can work, nonetheless, this is often a common concern for many Māori language teachers and learners. Furthermore, I think that having expert knowledge and skills, and the ability to teach te reo would be more preferential over who teaches it.

- ***Respondent 4***

R4 says, “I used a variety of books that described the structure of te reo including the Moorfield books the belief that you don’t need a textbook I think is naïve there has to be some sort of a grounding agent for the teaching of the language”. R4 would select the necessary information needed from books and adapt it to lesson content to be taught in class. R4 says, “I praise the value and efforts of the writers of grammars and textbooks but they have their limitations and needed to be expanded on, for example, some assumptions about Māori and English nouns in grammar descriptions don’t fit because the noun can also act as a verb or language analysis and language descriptions are different systems that needs considerable research and not just introducing new terminology to describe languages but the nature of the language itself”. This is an important distinction that I commented on previously, that is, language usage vs. language analysis.

- ***Respondent 5***

R5 says, “I used the Wills’, Kāretu, and Waititi textbooks at school but later when I started teaching, I mostly used the Te Rangatahi series until I was introduced to Te Kākano (Moorfield, 1981). R5 recalls having had challenges with some of the terms and explanations in the latter book, such as ‘stative verbs’ but later became more familiar with them over time. On hindsight, R5 says, “it’s quite simple really but why don’t you just say that a ‘stative’ describes the condition of something the Te Whanake series was extended to a study guide to include

exercises and elaborations on sentence structures but needed to be rehashed and refocused”. I believe that the use of terms and explanations can be very useful, however some textbooks can make this unnecessarily difficult and if teachers should find them hard to understand, it might not be any fault on their part as experience by R5 in this instance. R5 says, “some descriptions and explanations, nevertheless were useful but could been done in better ways teachers should understand linguistic terminology and the principles behind them, and then teach those concepts in ways that students would comprehend them using technical terms with students (e.g., verb, noun etc.) in lessons should be used with some precaution I also used Te Māhuri to design lesson content and for personal use to teach intermediate level classes on te reo I followed the kaupapa (principles) and grammatical structures in the textbook on the assumption that they were correct to introduce and to teach students at that level”. I think it is important to note here that grammars on language very seldom provide instructions that inform teachers what language items they should teach, how they should teach them, and at what level they should be taught. This area of language teaching involves syllabus planning, which should be an integral part of the language teachers’ knowledge-base and skills-set. When planning reo lessons, some teachers might initiate a number of strategies to carry out this process such as, for example, consulting other teachers, completing a certified language course (e.g., CELTA), or doing it in their own way. R5 simply says, “I’m a positivist and I think everything is worthwhile no matter how complicated they may be”.

- ***Respondent 6***

R6 says, “I relied heavily on Moorfield’s books in the Te Whanake series and would thoroughly read them to ensure I was covering all the explanations for lesson preparation and for my own personal use I have, however, recently moved away from using them to create my own teaching resources but draw from them sometimes as they contain the core stuff that have use and meaning for my lessons when I taught an introductory class this semester, I didn’t use

a grammar book”. During one interesting occurrence, R5 says, “while I was doing a grammar paper on Māori, the paper convenor was also the author of the prescribed book that we used in the course some of the example sentences and explanations were useful at an advanced level but others were too difficult due to complex linguistic based descriptions it was a challenge to find grammars that contained adequate examples of advanced structures that clearly explained how they worked I don’t think there are any good textbooks or pedagogic grammars for teachers of te reo and current ones have not been designed with that purpose in mind”. This is the first time that a Respondent has mentioned the term ‘pedagogic grammar’ and recognized its need in Māori language teaching and learning but unfortunately such a grammar is not currently available on the same level as English pedagogic grammars such as, for example, Swan, 1980 (See, for a definition of pedagogic grammar, Section 2.4.2). As previously mentioned, some reo teachers tend to treat the Moorfield’s series as if they were grammar books probably because it’s the only series that deals with te reo that makes use of structure linguistics, nevertheless, it relies wholly on it rather than adapting it appropriately to the pedagogic context. Notably, while Moorfield’s series was discovering and using structure linguistics in the 1980s, English language books were exploring more semantic and usage-based approaches to language description.

- ***Respondent 7***

R7 also used textbooks by Moorfield, Harlow, and Bauer in the past but tried to refrain from making direct references to them during classroom lessons so as to avoid confusing students with complicated terms and descriptions. R7 says, “I would spend a large percentage of class time explaining grammar points to my students and getting them to do examples but this was sometimes boring and not very communicative I decided, therefore, to create my own online presentations that would explain certain grammar points on Māori my students would then review them and complete some quizzes based on those points”. By using this

approach, it allowed R7 to minimize the time spent on explaining grammar points and to maximize a focus on communicative language teaching in the classroom lesson, to encourage students to become more autonomous learners by taking responsibility for their own learning. At times, R7 would direct students to Moorfield's online resources so they could get more practice in te reo. On the whole, R7 says, "I produce my own materials we have our own workbooks and support materials where students can practice grammatical constructions mainly through translation type exercises I think there is a need for books that are more aimed at teachers in explaining grammar that would be useful to them a grammar that is more descriptive in a style that is easily accessible for teachers having a basic knowledge of terms and the concepts behind them can speed up teaching time in lessons when students are familiar with them but some of my students have difficulties with terms like verb, noun, or subject Bauer's descriptive book on Māori was quite challenging even with my language teaching experience and linguistic background". R7 says, "Moorfield's books provided the right amount of explanation in the right kind of way and it has a good level of detail but it tends to contain slightly too much information and could be tidied up". Of noteworthy, R7 further says, "I think a usage-based approach is quite helpful for grammar". This idea of usage-based is a core characteristic of a pedagogic grammar and should occupy the thinking of Māori language teachers who are working in this space. With an increase in demands for teachers of te reo in the educational sector of New Zealand, I think a pedagogic grammar on te reo would significantly contribute to that cause. As previously mentioned, the English language has been making use of pedagogic grammars since the 1980s (See, for example, *An A-Z of English grammar and usage* by Leech, Cruickshank, & Ivanic, 1989).

- ***Respondent 8***

R8 used Māori grammar books and textbooks mainly as references for finding explanations and examples for personal educational purposes or for inclusion in lesson content or answering

students' questions about aspects of te reo in the classroom lesson. R8 used Bauer, Biggs, Foster, and Moorfield in the past and recalled Bauer's book as being mainly grammar-based descriptions. It is important to note here that Bauer's book is more linguistic focused that describes te reo at the extreme structural levels of phonemes, morphemes, and syntax and it might be more suitable for linguists (i.e., people who are interested in the analytical aspects of te reo) rather than teachers who are teaching their students to use the language for confident and competent communication in daily social contexts. Nevertheless, it contains useful information on the structures of te reo which can be included in lesson design and implementation. To a large degree, Moorfield's use of linguistics is grammar presented in different ways (i.e., the use of dialogues, model sentences, activities, exercises, and/or pictures etc.). R8 says, "Moorfield's books provide many terms and descriptions that are often overly presented in decontextualize texts, and this can make it difficult to facilitate teaching in ways that relate to the sum of its parts as a whole". I think this raises a critical need for contextualization, coherence, and cohesion as organizing principles for the design of Māori grammars and textbooks. The notion of coherence, for example, refers to text that is linked to and makes sense in meaningful ways to the whole, whereas cohesion attempts to identify grammatical/ lexical links within that text (See, for examples of these notions, Appendix 7.1). R8 says, "many English grammars are on a level (i.e., having a pedagogic focus that provides usage-based descriptions of language) that differ from Māori ones and are yet to be produced . . . Māori grammar books and textbooks do not actually show teachers how to teach language points and this is largely their own responsibility to decide what and how to teach those points . . . however, teachers who are unfamiliar with grammar terms are going to experience a lot of difficulties with them in their own classroom lessons". I think this latter point can serve as a reminder that students would expect their teachers to have a good range of knowledge in

these matters. Overall, R8 further says, “I design most of my own teaching resources to support my practice, albeit grammar books and textbooks on Māori have their uses in many ways”.

7.4.2.3 Question 4

Do you have difficulty explaining te reo to students or answering their questions?

- *Respondent 1*

R1 teaches advanced papers that focuses on language learning rather than language analysis, however, there might be times when students would ask questions about some grammatical aspects of te reo during a classroom lesson. R1 says, “a student might ask me a question that one might ask at the beginner’s level on why and how a certain aspect of te reo works I would think to myself, why did that student ask me that question I had not taught this level for some years I did not have an immediate answer on the spot but informed the student I would find one and then get back at the next lesson”. Sometimes, te reo teachers might find themselves in unexpected situations even after years of experience. This may prompt a need to reflect on such occurrences and to update their knowledge and skills based on that occurrence regardless of the type of course they might be teaching. R1 further says, “my strategy to find answers included reading through grammar books or textbooks on Māori to find some explanations about my students’ questions, I would then create stories to show how certain things might work in te reo as a teaching resource I would also meet with my colleagues to discuss te reo structures and together we might formulate some rules and sample sentences to teach in class you have to formulate it yourself an answer could be in Bauer’s books”. As a L1 speaker and teacher of te reo, R1 is well positioned to formulate a rule (depending on the complexity of the rule) and this might be based on personal instinct, intuition, fist-hand experience, and deeply rooted knowledge in tikanga and reo; such skills would bring an authentic element to a description of the language. On the other hand, the

formulation of rules by L2 speakers/ teachers of te reo might be a different experience and produce very different results.

- ***Respondent 2***

R2 spoke often about teaching the beginner's level course and the challenges of answering students' questions about certain grammar points (e.g., explaining *i* and *ki* particles). R2 says, "one of the easiest methods I found to teach certain aspects of te reo was moving right away from the grammar side of things and delivering it in a way that students could understand it". The latter points highlight an important aspect of language teaching that most teachers would aim to achieve in the classroom lesson, that is, teaching grammar in very accessible ways. Despite the different strategies or methods employed by te reo teachers, the teaching of grammar is central to teaching a beginner's level course as other Respondents have expressed, it is one of the more difficult levels to teach as students' inquiries are usually about grammar points. This, therefore, would be hard to avoid in this case. For many reo teachers, the complex challenge of designing sound methods to facilitate good lessons will always be part and parcel of language teaching. If by method we mean "a way of teaching a language based on systematic principles and procedures, such as the Audio-lingual Method" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 330), then reo teachers essentially should strive to develop a range of knowledge and experience in these matters. R2 says, "when answering student's questions about te reo, I would read a grammar book or consult with colleagues to get their advice on them some colleagues thought that other grammars might be too complex or complicated to use and recommended using more accessible materials.

- ***Respondent 3***

R3 says, "I'm not good with technical questions or complex sentence structures about te reo but it's an area in which I would like to improve I would avoid giving an answer based on speculation as this would have negative consequences on myself and my students

nevertheless, I think that teachers need to be grounded in language analysis. R3 says, “when explaining Māori passive verbs to students, I would tell them, for example, you don’t pacify the verb and when they asked why, I would explain if you were to say, me timatahia it would translate to let’s starting instead of let’s start I would say to the class does that make sense in English and they would say, no”. As a L1 speaker of te reo, R3 seems to exhibit an understanding of the verbal system based on instinct and upbringing in and exposure to the language. R3’s explanation may give students an authentic insight into the use of te reo when explained from a L1 speaker’s perspective (this example, however, may be debatable among some reo teachers). This approach of appealing to logic and common sense might find favor with many students of te reo and this example can illustrate one instance when a verb might not take a passive ending (e.g., timatahia vs. timata). Another example being the actor emphatic structure which very often rules against the passivation of the verb (e.g., māku te kā e horoi. I’ll clean the car rather than māku te kā e horoia. I will the car be cleaned) in which the verb receives the passive ending horoi(a) but does not conform to Māori or English rules regarding translations. When answering students’ questions about points of language, R3 consults with colleagues, conducts simple research on the matter, and then would provide an explanation for students at the next lesson.

- ***Respondent 4***

R4 says, “I encounter difficulties with students’ question about te reo all the time, I think pretending to know everything is always dangerous and risky when answering their questions during a classroom lesson I like to explore answers with my students during the lesson in terms of what they want to say, I try to identify key issues during our discussion about the point in question however, you have to give students time to reflect on what they have discussed and let it settle in their minds until the next lesson, sometimes I might give a short or long explanations, for example, when explaining Māori active and passive structures you’re

basically saying the same thing in different ways with some subtleties in their meanings, for example, The cow kicked the dog or The dog was kicked by the cow. Giving students time to reflect on a question until the next lesson can foster self-directed or autonomous learning outside the classroom but considering the little amount of time afforded them in between lessons, other life responsibilities, and depending on the complexity of the inquiry this may be a challenge for some of them to execute. There is a real possibility that some students looking at the same question may come back to class with a different answer and this could further complicate the matter”. R4 says, “if I did not have an immediate answer for my students’ questions, then I would consult a grammar book, which are more about form and that function is a secondary focus”. Richards & Schmidt (2010) define *form* as a linguistic unit of a language in a single structure under analysis, whereas *function* usually called speech acts informs readers as to what type of an act a particular word is performing for example, a command, a request, a threat (p. 223). It is important to discriminate between form and function as these terms are very often mentioned in grammar books and textbooks on te reo.

- ***Respondent 5***

R5 says, “I sometimes have difficulties understanding kiwaha (i.e., colloquial sayings) and their different nuances, for example, Te mahi a te whare = The many houses, I was uncertain why the word mahi which is commonly used to mean work (e.g., Te mahi a Hone = John’s work or Kei te mahi au = I am working) was being used here to mean many”. Here, the word *mahi* can mean many, lots of, or abundance and can be considered as a homonym (i.e., a word spelled and pronounced the same but having very different meanings). The type of sentence in which the word occurs might provide some clues as to how and why it is being used in a certain way, for example, Kua kapi katoa taua wāhi i te mahi a te whare = That place was totally covered with an abundance of houses (Moorfield, 1999, p. 109). This would be in stark contrast with Kua haere a Hone ki te mahi = John has gone to work. This highlights some key aspects

of language teaching and learning, in the first instance teachers and learners need to know a lot of details about vocabulary and their different nuances (but not necessarily having to know technical terms like homonym), in the second instance language usage is also about word usage in sentences and context will play an important role in determining that usage. Fortunately, with advances in technology, reo teachers can draw on vast amounts of resources to become very effective reo researchers so as to increase their knowledge-base about vocabulary and to mitigate any uncertainties they may have about their own practices. Māori grammars and textbook seldom use terms like homonym in their descriptions (i.e., at least the one's I have read) and this may be or may not be useful in the larger scheme of describing te reo. Thus, the need to do more research and to rethink whether this would be feasible or plausible or not. R5 says, "I found the Moorfield textbooks were challenging for students at the beginners' level when trying to find meaningful explanations for the particle ai to express habitual action and what that actually means for the language teacher, it's not really that difficult but you're using terminology that students are unfamiliar with. R5 further says, "if I am unsure about some aspect of te reo or answering my students' questions about them, I would often look at a grammar book or consult with a colleague, and then get back to my students at the next lesson".

- ***Respondent 6***

R6 says, "the difficulties of teaching te reo in class was quite tricky but has become less challenging over time in my initial years of teaching, I would try to explain everything that was written in grammar books or textbooks on Māori during classroom lessons when students asked me questions about certain aspects of te reo, I would often find myself unprepared without an answer and this would put me on the spot". R6 says, "I realized the longer you teach, and the simpler you keep it, the easier it gets, it's best not to go into big, long complicated explanations about how the language works as this can trip you up". R6 recalls teaching beginners' level and linguistic based papers on Māori in which students would ask

many questions about grammar and structure. This opportunity informed R6's knowledge-base and skills-set and provided a rich experience in grammar description and grammar teaching in the classroom setting. R6 says, "if I was unsure or did not have an immediate answer on hand, then I might discuss any issues with colleagues as they were more expert in the language than myself". It was not stated, however, if R6 was referring to those colleagues as having L1 speaker skills or being trained in grammar as the notion of expert can mean different things to different people and seems to be a very broad umbrella term. I often hear the term 'expert' in many circles regarding Māori language education and there are many different strands and forms this can take, such as being an expert in linguistics, grammar, L2 teaching, language description etc. Although each field of expertise can play an overlapping role in the overall scheme of Māori language education, they are very distinct areas of studies in their own ways, requiring specialised training in the subject matter. In relating a personal experience, I recall my lecturer's advice when he said it is not enough to say you want to study languages but you must specify the exact area of language study in which you want to become an expert, for example, L2 teaching, discourse analysis, pragmatics, syntax, applied descriptive theory". I chose the latter and this has helped me to narrow my focus to make better informed choices related to my specific subject area, which is semantic and linguistic descriptions of language, particularly Māori and English. R6 would also consult grammar books or with colleagues when answering student's questions about te reo.

- ***Respondent 7***

R7 says, "I have had difficulty in explaining aspects of te reo and this comes with the territory, you build up a lot of that through experience and you need a good grasp of the basics of sentence structures, particularly at the beginners' level which is a key class for students as this is where they really need to grasp those basic structures and reo teachers may get a lot of questions, for example, about the Māori particles i, ki, he, ko and this can really challenge and test them, so

teachers would need a lot of knowledge to provide effective answers about them”. R7 says, “such experiences can find teachers spending considerable time immersing themselves in learning the structures of te reo to build up their knowledge-base and then try to explain them in the L2 classroom”. Similar to other Respondents, this is agreeable as teaching particles is no small feat as they can present many challenges in regard to how or why they work in very different ways (e.g., why is it sometimes i roto or ki roto). R7 says, “te reo teachers should try to avoid the temptation of answering all their student’s questions in a single lesson but allow themselves the time to search for a definitive answer and to be well prepared teachers sometimes think they must answer all their students’ questions but not necessarily on the spot or all the time”. R7 further says, “if I did not have an answer for my students’ questions, then I would provide them with one at the next lesson, I preferred this strategy than giving an explanation that otherwise might be confusing or slightly inaccurate, it’s not that I necessarily don’t know my subject matter but there are parts of it that I would like to check before giving a definitive answer there are currently no L1 speakers of te reo in my place of work with whom I could consult, so I would often turn to grammar books to find answers as a suitable alternative”. R7 advised that part of the teacher’s skill would be to weigh up these issues before proceeding to teach the lesson.

- ***Respondent 8***

R8 says, “the aspect of answering student’s questions is an ongoing challenge, I also teach papers in the medium of te reo, so I find myself having to explain points of grammar and answering students’ questions in English and Māori nevertheless, I’m responsible to find ways to explain aspects of te reo in simple terms, to provide meaningful opportunities so as to develop my students’ comprehension of te reo after a lesson, I would reflect on what aspects of my teaching worked or did not work and what I could do better the next time when answering students’ questions however, if my students continue to experience difficulties

with certain aspects of te reo, then there might be no point in pursuing the matter further as this might be counter-productive". To exemplify this situation, I return to R1 who recalled a personal experience with a student who struggled with learning te reo and after exhausting all resources to help that student (e.g., providing an opportunity to do extra lessons in the morning before the main lesson), it was to no avail and, therefore, R1 had to find the student another paper to do. Unfortunately, this comes with the language teaching profession over which some teachers may have no control in such a situation as they can do only so much to help their students with their own learning and progress. If teachers have exhausted all resources to help their students with minimal success, then they are face with a dilemma of what they should do next and this might involve, for example, consultation with the students as in the case of R1 or having some contingency plan in place. R8 raises some crucial points, that is, teaching te reo in both English and Māori requires specific skills and post-lesson reflection and personal evaluation can be very useful in developing good teaching habits. From a personal experience, I reflect on the PGDipSLT course I did in which a time slot was allocated for teacher-student post-lesson discussion to internalize what we had learned, to ask questions, and to gain valuable insights from the lecturer which help me to develop and sharpen my understanding of the lesson content of the day. R8 further says, "if it was difficult to provide an immediate answer in class for my students' questions, I would leave it, carry out some research, consult with grammar books and colleagues, and then continue with it later at the next lesson. This was the most common strategy that each Respondent used to address their students' inquiries about te reo Māori.

7.4.2.4 Question 5

What are your general comments about Approaches A, B, and C in the sample handout?

To supplement the interviews, I created a simple handout showing three different approaches (i.e., Approach A, B, and C) to describe similar aspects of te reo Māori in three different ways

using simple structure based (i.e., Approaches A and B) and semantic based (i.e., Approach C) terminology and explanations in those descriptions. The Approaches showed the use of ki following verbs; saying ‘while’; saying ‘when’; using directional particles; and the case roles ‘source’ and ‘goal’ with verbs involving movement. I sent the handout to each of the Respondents in order to comment on each approach regarding the use of terminology, descriptions, and explanations and if they might be useful in their own beliefs, attitudes, and teaching practices as Māori language teachers.

Approach A

Examples taken from Moorfield, 2001a.

Giving orders (pp. 26-27).

When giving a command for which there is no goal or object, the word is used with an imperative intonation.

- Haere atu! Go away! Haere mai! Come here!
- Hoki atu! Go back, return! Hoki mai! Come back!

Using ki following verbs (pp. 41-42)

Ki is frequently used in Māori but when it follows verbs of movement it usually means ‘to’, ‘towards’ or ‘in the direction of’. In these examples, the verbs indicate motion and the ki shows the goal of the action.

- E haere ana au ki te pāpara kauta. I am going to the tavern.
- Hoki mai ki konei. Come back here!
- I kuhu ia ki roto i te rūma. She went into the room.

Saying while (pp. 101-102)

Notice that the ‘i’ begins the first part of the sentence and may be followed by a personal pronoun or a person’s name, in which case ‘a’ will precede them. A noun will be preceded by

te, ngā or a possessive. The second part of the sentence will begin with a verb with ‘ka’ as the verbal marker.

- I a ia e ngongoro tonu ana, ka maranga tōna hoa. While he was snoring, his friend got up.
- I a Paretākaka mā e parakitihī ana, ka rū te whenua. While Paretākaka and the others were practicing, the earth shook.
- I te tumuaki e korero ana, ka kōhimuhimu a Taki rāua ko Roimata. While the principal was talking, Taki and Roimata whispered.

Saying when using ka (p. 129)

Ka can be used to indicate a change of action. ‘When’ will often start the English translation of a sentence in which ka is used twice.

- Ka kite ngā tamariki i te kēhua, ka matakū rātou.
- When the children saw the ghost, they were frightened.

Approach B

All example sentences taken from Harlow, 2001.

Directional particles (pp. 94-95)

The directional particles *mai* (towards the speaker), *atu* (away from the speaker), *ake* (upwards), and *iho* (downwards) go with appropriate verbs of motion to indicate or reinforce the direction of movement.

- Piki ake! Climb up! Haere mai! Come here!
- Haere atu! Go away! Heke iho! Come down!

Source and goal with movement verbs (pp. 165-166)

Verbs expressing types of movement are frequently accompanied by phrases naming the place from which the movement started (the source) and the place to which it is tending (the goal). These comments are introduced respectively by *i* ‘from’ and *ki* ‘to’.

- Kua tae mai te pahi i Rotorua. The bus has arrived from Rotorua.

- Ka taraiwa atu mātou ki Tapuaetahi. We are driving to Tapuaetahi.

Saying while (p. 242)

The relationship between the event or state of affairs of the clause of time and the event of the main clause is that the former is ongoing, and the latter occurs at some point during it or itself takes up the same length of time. The English word ‘*while*’ can mark this relation.

- I a rātou i reira, ka mate te koroua. While they were there, the old man died.

Saying when (p. 239)

In English, clauses of time introduced by ‘when’ indicate that the event of a main clause occurs at the same time as the event of the clause of time. This is usually marked with ‘*kia*’.

- Kia oti te mahi, ka hoki tātou. When the work is completed, we’ll go back.

Approach C

Here, I provide the following examples.

Giving orders

When giving orders, we can use ‘*mai*’ (here) and ‘*atu*’ (there) to indicate the direction of motion towards or away from some location, for example,



Movement from one place to another

When things move, we often describe the ‘movement of someone or something from one place to another’. We can use ‘*i*’ (from) or ‘*ki*’ (to) to show a relationship for this motion, for example,

I hīkoi te wahine i te pourewa.

The lady walked from the building.



I hīkoi te wahine ki te takahī.

The lady walked to the taxi.



I hīkoi te wahine i te pourewa ki te takahī.

The lady walked from the building to the taxi.



I taka te āporo i te rākau.

The apple fell from the tree.



I taka te āporo ki te papa.

The apple fell to the ground.



I taka te āporo i te rākau ki te papa.

The apple fell from the tree to the ground.

***Some vocabulary***

pourewa wahine takahī rākau āporo papa

Doing one thing after another

When describing one event after another, we can often use '*kia + ka*', for example,

Kia maranga te tāne, ka parakuihi a ia.

When the man wakes up, he'll have breakfast.



Kia oti te hapa i te tāne, ka mātakitaki ia i te tīwī.

When the man finishes dinner, he'll watch television.

***Some vocabulary***

tāne parakuihi hapa tiwi

Doing things at the same time

When describing events that occur at the same time, we can often use certain constructions in te reo to convey this concept, such as '*i + e...ana + ka...*', for example,

I te tāne e mātakitaki ana i te tīwī, ka inu tī.

The man drank tea while watching TV.



E haere ana te tama, ka korowhiti a ia.

The boy whistled while he walked.

Some vocabulary

tīwi tama korowhiti

Respondents' comments to Approaches A, B, and C.

The Respondents' comments were organized into areas of interest, that is, the use of terminology; applying the approach(es) to the teaching context; criticism of some of the approaches; and Respondents' preferences. However, some areas received no comments as the form was completed online and the time availability of some Respondents was limited.

Area of Interest	Respondent's ID and Comments	
The use of terminology	R1	In a lesson that's 1hour 40mins, teaching the meanings of certain terminology to students can be very time consuming. If this is your main approach to teaching, then you are going to have some problems. On the other hand, if some students are familiar with certain terms, then it will be easy to teach them. Nevertheless, the teacher must know his/ her stuff but I would have trouble with some of these descriptions.
	R5	For me, I think that some of the terms in Approach A and B (e.g., narrative, juxtaposed, explicit, imperative, or intonation) are not too difficult to understand but they may not appeal to everyone. However, I think that students can learn a language no matter what approach is used.
	R8	For me, I can understand the explanations in Approach A but I might explore simpler ways of describing it. However, I would not use those complex grammar terms with my students.
Applying the approach(es) to the teaching context	R1	We could put all three approaches online, and there will be a small group of people that does it for them and another group that would flock to this but I would assume that you'd have more of a number that relates to Approach C than the other two approaches.

	R2	<p>Most of our students are hands-on learners and with the help of visual aids (in Approach C), this helps to contextualize what you're teaching in terms of grammar points, and it can enhance their learning. Technology can greatly compliment your grammar teaching as they enable teachers to include visual aids in their teaching materials and resources for in-class and online teaching and learning. At times, you have to use a blended approach of all three (i.e., A, B, and C). I might, for example, use Approach C to teach a grammar point to my international students but they might also appreciate a blended version of Approach A and B. Overall, my students would most likely relate to Approach C.</p>
	R5	<p>Approach C is more imaginative, and the visuals are sort of connecting to a real-life situation, which is the best approach. Approach A and B will suit some people depending on their language upbringing and how they respond to words. With the use of visuals, there's nothing better than doing it in person, for example, you can get the students to 'e tū (stand up) or 'haere mai (come here)' by using gestures, role play or acting it out, which Approach C seems to suggest and that's obviously the best way to introduce a language.</p>
	R6	<p>I have taught aspects of Approach A and B in my grammar classes but I think that Approach C would be the most effective in language teaching and becomes evident when reading its descriptions. In terms of the cognitive process, Approach A and B would be more challenging to try and understand what's being explained.</p>

	R7	<p>I think that Approach C can work well at the beginners' level because it is really the building blocks of the language, (e.g., Te Kākano) and you have to know those constructions. If you don't teach them well and with confidence, then you can't really extend on language points at a higher level. I might say, for example, to my students, do you remember learning 'te = the' (singular definitive at Te Kākano), there are more rules concerning it, such as it can be used to mean 'a' in terms of a generic class of things. I wouldn't, therefore, give my students a full gamut at that level but gradually build up their knowledge of language. In another example, you can teach location sentences with a few objects and just orally really without a lot of explanation but it can get harder at intermediate levels (e.g., Te Pihinga) with constructions, such as verb + rawa atu, for example, Tae rawa atu ia, kua wehe kē rātou = When he eventually arrived, they had already left. I can't easily think of ways to come up with using that in class or in a game, you kind of have to say this is how it works as a verb and so on.</p>
	R8	<p>The value of picture aids in Approach C can express the meaning of the language being taught even if there are no/ few words provided, for example, go away, come back, stand up or sit down. The use of pictures to support the learning of te reo have been in use since the 1960s (See, for example, the Te Rangatahi Series by Hoani Waititi).</p>
Criticism of some of the approaches	R5	<p>In terms of Approach C, I don't understand why there's English included in the description. Regarding the description of '<i>motion from one point to another</i>' and the definition and use of '<i>ki</i>' as '<i>to</i>',</p>

		<p>what about extending that definition of ‘to’ to mean ‘towards’ which I think is a better explanation of ‘<i>movement from one point to another</i>’ than ‘to’ explains. What about when ‘ki’ means ‘at’ where one might become confused when saying, for example, ‘<i>I looked to the window</i>’ (as opposed to <i>I looked ‘at’ the window</i>). Therefore, I don’t think it’s extensive enough. For some people, they might resist reading such descriptions or writing a particular thing by self-imposing a barrier to learning, because it’s a reading and writing approach but would rather say or speak. For others, however, they are happy with these types of approaches, because they can digest and mull over the words in their own time. Sometimes, a combination of these approaches is not a bad thing.</p>
	R7	<p>I thought Approach A was overly explanatory but I do agree that the principle of being able to show the sentence constructions with pictures without necessarily having any translation or too much explanation where possible (as seen in Approach C) might work best at the very basic levels, such as ‘Te Kākano’.</p>
	R8	<p>Although these approaches provide descriptions of the language, they don’t give any instructions on how to teach the language points they attempt to describe or explain.</p>
Preferred approach(es)	R1	<p>Approaches B and C are very effective but all three have their benefits.</p>
	R2	<p>Approaches A and B were very similar but I preferred A over B but they weren’t as effective as Approach C, which provides visual aids</p>

	for students to be able to grasp te reo. However, you need to be flexible, you can't say learn it this way or that way.
R3	Approach C was the easiest to follow and understand and I would be happy to introduce one or all of these approaches to describing/ explaining the language to students.
R4	I know a few students in my class who would benefit from Approach A, and others from Approach B and C. I wouldn't say that I'd favour any approach, as the key focus is that they fulfil what the student wants to do in terms of their own aspirations with te reo.
R5	I would use all three approaches A, B and C. There is a particular order (i.e., level of complexity) and I don't think any of them are perfect. There is value in all of them.
R6	The approach that I advocate is the 'Communicative Approach' and, therefore, Approach C would be more in line with it and would be the most effective in the language classroom. It was clear what was being described and was much easier than Approach A and B.
R7	I think that the handout was quite useful, and there was a good range of slightly different approaches. Approach C was useful, it had fewer explanations, and was more picture-based. I think that having a range of pictures with clear examples and sentences are always a good idea when describing particular constructions. The visual approach is always very appealing.
R8	I think that Approach A is a more technical analysis of te reo but I would prefer Approach C with its visual aids for the teaching of grammar points of the language.

7.5 Summary of the key findings

This section will begin with a brief statement (7.5.1), and then provide an overview of the key findings in the interviews in four areas, that is, exposure to structure linguistic analysis of te reo (7.5.2), grammar books, textbooks, and courses on the analysis of te reo (7.5.3), knowing your subject matter and answering students' questions about te reo (7.5.4), and Approaches A, B and C (7.5.5).

7.5.1 Brief statement

Although the Respondents came from a variety of backgrounds, educational institutions, and teaching positions, their beliefs and attitudes regarding grammar books and textbooks on Māori including their own experiences with grammar description and grammar teaching in their own practices were similar in many ways and different in others. This provided a basis for some key findings in the following four areas.

7.5.2 Exposure to structure linguistic analysis of te reo

It was found that the use of linguistics to describe aspects of te reo Māori has been around since the early 1800s, beginning with simple descriptions and developing into more complex ones over time. This descriptive approach has remained very constant and underlies most of the way that te reo has been described in grammar books and textbook in the 21st century. Some of the Respondents in their initial years of teaching had expressed how their first encounter with linguistics and grammar was a new and exciting experience and realized how it could be used to describe and to teach certain aspects of the Māori language. For other Respondents who were more experienced with this type of descriptive approach (i.e., teaching te reo for many years in the L2 space), it proved to have its advantages and disadvantages in their own design of course and lesson content and delivery in a classroom setting. At first, some Respondents reported that the notion of linguistic and grammar was new territory and difficult to grasp but

over time had become more familiar with some of its concepts and meanings, which were found in grammar books and textbooks designed for the teaching and learning of te reo Māori. These resources pre-exposed each Respondent, in different ways, to some aspect of linguistic description contained within them regardless of being a new or more experienced teacher of te reo. This exposure to linguistics and grammar (i.e., based on Western ideas of describing language) seems to have generated both positive and negative experiences and reactions from the Respondents that informed their decisions whether or not to use them in their own teaching and classroom lessons. Some Respondents expressed that the linguistic descriptions were at times overly complicated regarding terminology and explanations of te reo, which could have been explained in simpler terms. For others, the rules of English and Māori grammar sometimes did not agree with each other in terms of form and function. It was agreed by some Respondents to refrain from using technical terms and explanations with their students during a classroom lesson but to put it in a way that they would find easy to understand. The linguistic terms and explanations emphasized a focus on form in describing language at very minute structural units of phonemes, morphemes and syntax but very seldom accounted for semantic descriptions that emphasized a focus on meaning. Consequently, there are very few research-based studies in describing the Māori language in the L2 space. Respondents recognized the need for resources that provided a more meaning-focused and usage-based approach (such as a pedagogic grammar) to describe te reo Māori but this is not available on the same level as the English language. Being exposed to linguistic and grammar descriptions for many years found that some Respondents had become preconditioned to one way of describing te reo and had only recently discovered other options (i.e., semantics, on the account of being a recent area of research in te reo studies). I think this can be indicative of how little is known about this area of language study (among the reo teaching population in New Zealand) and this could inform teachers about some of the issues associated with linguistic structuralism in describing te reo

Māori. It seems the fine line between form (i.e., linguistics) and meaning (i.e., semantics) and the roles they play in language description have become so blurred as to make it almost incomprehensible to discern clearly between the two concepts.

7.5.3 Grammar books, textbooks, and courses on the analysis of te reo

Some Respondents expressed that using grammar books and textbooks on te reo for the first time was like entering a new world of language and that coming to grips with their linguistic and grammatical content was an interesting and challenging experience. They recognized that many terms and explanations contained in them sometimes were arranged in ways that made it difficult to link them in coherent or cohesive ways. This also made it hard to facilitate the design of lesson content or resources for language teaching and learning in a reo lesson. It was found that some Respondents understood that Māori grammars and textbooks very often explained grammar points rather than informing teachers on what points to teach or how to teach them. The latter being concerned mainly with syllabus design but is not the focus of this study. Nevertheless, this area of language education is left to the discretion of the language teacher themselves as to what and how to teach certain points in their own lessons, it is an area that requires a broad range of technical knowledge and skills. Some Respondents questioned whether grammar or textbooks had any real intrinsic value in the teaching and learning of te reo or if they presented a threat to te reo on account of imposing Western-based linguistic and grammar ideas upon it (i.e., as one Respondent says, forcing te reo to fit into those ideas). Further comments suggested whether these same books had a demotivating effect on the Respondents who used them (i.e., having no interest in them, they were of no use etc.), some books could be rehashed or rewritten, and that Māori should be leading the way in describing te reo considering that Europeans had authored and published much of the descriptive works of te reo over time (i.e., from 1800 to 2000). However, it was found that many Māori educationalists and researchers have since joined that authorship to publish their own grammars

and textbooks since the early 1900s. It was found that most Respondents do not necessarily use grammars or textbooks now but only refer to them as a guide to design their own teaching and learning resources and lessons. It was found this approach seems to give Respondents more control over personalizing their lesson content to achieve their own teaching and learning objectives. Respondents' comments were similar in many ways about courses that analyzed te reo for teaching purposes. Only a few Respondents had completed one or two of these courses as a useful way to increase or upgrade their knowledge-base or skills-set in terms of linguistic and grammatical aspects of English and Māori and for some, this was a necessity (to do such a course) in the initial years of teaching te reo. Nevertheless, there was some minor resistance from some Respondents in terms of how these types of courses could be justified as a basis for the teaching of te reo, for example, they could do more harm than good for both teachers and students of te reo considering their technical approach or perhaps including outdated information that might not align with current trends and research on language studies. It was found from Respondents' comments that the use of grammar books, textbooks, and/ or analytical courses could create a potential to produce technical, mechanistic, or novice linguists of te reo rather than proficient and competent teachers or learners of the language. I believe that the development of a technical proficiency in te reo necessarily does not equate to the development of a competent proficiency in it. Nevertheless, they can all serve a common and collective purpose in Māori language education and may be necessary for that cause. They can inform teachers and students where issues exist and where changes could be made to facilitate the design of newer and improved resources in the L2 space. Overall, a Respondent said "I appreciate the work of the authors of these books in te reo Māori studies. The courses indeed have been valuable resources for all Respondents and their contribution to Māori language studies in general.

7.5.4 Knowing your subject matter and answering students' questions

I found that Respondents' own personal beliefs and attitudes toward Māori grammars and textbooks were mainly influenced by their own experiences with them in their teaching practices. Their personal experiences revealed a diverse range of knowledge-base and skills-set about their content (i.e., technical terminology, descriptions etc.), and how they understood and used that content, for example, in course, lesson, or resource design for teaching and learning purposes in a classroom setting. At times, Respondents found some content to be difficult to internalize and to utilize in their own practices and this challenged them in their knowledge of the subject matter. Respondents, therefore, would select only that content that would be meaningful to them, however, this was not always reflected in the way they might teach it in the classroom lesson. Some Respondents were involved in papers that taught language teaching and others in language analysis each one requiring a variety of skills including grammar knowledge, particularly at the beginner's level. Respondents expressed this level to be a key course for students of te reo in which teachers would be asked a lot of grammar question about the language. Respondents recognized that sometimes they could find themselves in a vulnerable position and they would need a vast knowledge to answer their students' questions at unexpected times. This often requires teachers to anticipate these situations and to be vigilant and ready to teach and adhere to the lesson content without going beyond that content and to teach within the range of their knowledge and skills in the subject matter. In the case of their students' inquiries about te reo, if Respondents did not have an answer on the spot, they would simply consult a grammar book or discuss any issues they had with colleagues, and then get back to their students with an answer at the next lesson. This was the most common strategy employed by the Respondents.

7.5.5 Approaches A, B and C

Respondents' comments about the handout were generally positive and negative, for example, Approach C would be useful for introducing te reo at the beginners' level with its simple language and visual aids, whereas Approaches A and B might be more suited for intermediate or advanced lessons with their focus on linguistic terms and explanations. It was found that Approach C was the most favored of the three approaches, although they all have something to offer in Māori language education. Finally, I think that based on all the Respondents' responses, it might be useful to provide some form of specialized training through teacher education or professional development initiatives for te reo teachers in the field of second language pedagogy and acquisition so as to address a range of common issues they are faced with in their daily teaching professions.

Chapter 8: Conclusions and recommendations

8.1 Introduction

The types of semantic based theories discussed in this thesis have emerged out of research and studies in the English language with an aim to explore how they could be used to describe certain aspects of the Māori language beyond the sentence level. In addition, the thesis set out to examine how they may have or have impacted on descriptions of te reo Māori found in grammar books and textbooks and on the beliefs, attitudes, and teaching practices of a sample of Māori language teachers who are working in a formal educational institution. This chapter will restate the rationale for the research (8.2), the research aims and research questions (8.3), an outline of the literature review (8.4), the research's limitations (8.5), the theoretical contribution of the research (8.6), and a summary of the key findings (8.7).

8.2 Rationale for the research

The behaviorist assumptions that underpinned full-blown linguistic structuralism were fundamental to initial conceptualizations of second language descriptions and this began to be seriously challenged by Chomsky in 1957. Since then, the types of research on both first and second language pedagogy and acquisition that has taken place has had a profound impact on the teaching and learning of second and/ or additional languages. This can significantly influence the design of educational materials for language teachers and/ or students for whom they are intended and particularly with a focus on semantic based descriptions of language that recognizes, for example,

- The central role that is played by the verb in clause structure;
- The role that lexis plays in relation to form and noting the importance of the interaction between meaning and form that involves, for example, acknowledging that a range of

general semantic relations such as, reason-result, means-result, or condition-consequence play a part in determining structural choices;

- Attending to the interaction between form and meaning;
- Accepting that a semantically focused description of a language will not necessarily be a simplified version of a description designed for other purposes but may differ from it in some fundamental ways.

Given the complex nature of the issues involved and the uncertainty and disagreement associated with many of them will make it difficult in deciding how to approach this descriptive design of languages. The decisions that are made will always be open to dispute but nevertheless must be made and in principled ways. To date, there has been very little discussion or study in print of the ways in which the research presented in this thesis could or should impact on a semantic description of the Māori language. Due to this fact, it will prove to be a challenge to analyze and ascertain in very detailed and robust ways the extent of its impact on Māori language teachers and learners in an educational context. This research could help Māori educationalists in general to identify a range of core issues associated with L2 pedagogy and acquisition and this, in turn, could drive recommendations to inform the development of best teaching practices and the design of best educational materials for both teachers and learners of te reo.

8.3 Research aims and research questions

The aim of the thesis was to explore the impact of structure based and semantic based approaches to describe certain aspects of the Māori language in grammar books and textbooks designed for teaching and learning purposes. In addition, it also set out to explore the beliefs and attitudes of a sample of Māori language teachers to determine how these approaches may

have or have impacted on their own teaching practices in the Māori language classroom. Thus, the research questions asked:

1. What impact has research on linguistic based and semantic based descriptions of language had on the teaching and learning of Māori as a second/ additional language?
2. How has this research impacted on the ways in which Māori has been described in a) grammar books and b) textbooks on te reo?
3. Taking this research into account, what principles should inform a semantic description of te reo Māori to affect a more meaningful and useful pedagogical outcome that could inform best teaching practices in order to facilitate the learning and use of te reo for communicative purposes in daily social contexts?

8.4 Literature review

The aim was to outline select literature on some research-based studies in language description and the types of developments that have occurred in this field of study over the past five decades that has evolved from a structuralist approach towards a more meaning based one. The literature included research in grammar theories, the works of the Council of Europe, and other important studies that have contributed to that evolution. It also highlights some select works on te reo in grammar books and textbooks and aims to explore how this body of research could provide a basis for a proposed semantic description of the Māori language (See, Literature Review, Chapter 2).

8.5 Research's limitations

There are very limited empirical studies or substantial models on semantic based descriptions of te reo Māori in the literature regarding inter-propositions, intra-propositions/ case roles, and semantic predicates in a unified way, and this has been the main limitation of the current preliminary study. As a result, the semantic principles discussed in this thesis for a proposed

theoretical framework to describe certain aspects of te reo Māori have been modelled after research-based studies in the English language. Nevertheless, they can be adapted to te reo in meaningful and useful ways. However, this will be a complex undertaking involving future research to adapt those same principles adequately and appropriately to te reo and needs to consider many different variables (e.g., cultural sensitivity etc.). The current study has set out to explore the feasibility and plausibility of such a framework or, at the very least, to put forward these semantic concepts as a basis for further discussion among the populace of Māori language educationalist in Aotearoa (New Zealand).

8.6 Theoretical contribution of the research

The overall theoretical contribution of the current study seeks to illustrate the link between language description regarding linguistics (form) and semantics (meaning) and the implication this may have for the exploration and design of a semantically oriented description of the Māori language as far as a pedagogic purpose is concerned.

8.7 Summary of the key findings

At least several theories in first and second language descriptions have developed over time to become a focus on meaning (i.e., semantics) with consideration to the context, social, and cultural aspects of second/ additional language teaching and learning and this has led to developments in a semantic approach to describe language. The latter could be considered as an emerging theory from a structuralist approach with its focus on form (i.e., linguistics) that has evolved out of different theories in grammar developments that, in time, have succumbed to scrutiny, been added to, re-conceptualized, or have become obsolete. This thesis interprets a semantic approach as a description of language beyond the sentence level and a linguistic one at the sentence level in which both approaches have something to offer in the field of second language pedagogy and acquisition. Several research-based studies and theories in language

have contributed to that semantic context including 1) the works of the Council of Europe and other related studies including the Common European Framework of Reference with its pioneering approach to language description for European and international languages, 2) speech acts theory with its focus on how to do things with language, that is, the function of language, for example, an order, a suggestion, an instruction rather than just asserting things about language, for example, ordering, suggesting, instructing, 3) communicative competence which emphasized whether an utterance was formally possible, feasible, or acceptable in a social context and proposed four areas of language competency including grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence and, 4) communicative language teaching which signaled a significant shift in curriculum and pedagogic approaches with an aim to achieve the use of language for communication. With reference to the linguistic approach, this has been the main basis on which the Māori language has been described in grammar books since the early 1800s and textbooks since the 1960s. Although linguistic descriptions are still prevalent in grammar books and textbooks on Māori in 2000, they could significantly benefit from the above body of research in order to take te reo Māori from a syntactically driven description to a more semantically oriented one that could adapt it more appropriately to the pedagogic context. This thesis has set out to apply certain aspects of this research to that semantic description and most notably (but not limited to) inter-propositional and intra-propositional relationships/ case roles, and/ or semantic predicates. This thesis has been concerned specifically with language description rather than language teaching, particularly the Māori language. It has raised more questions than it has answered and offered, I hope, a range of useful ideas. I have attempted to cover at least several different and interrelated research-based studies with a focus on linguistic and semantic approaches to describe language as the common thread running throughout the width and breadth of the thesis. Based on this thread, I have, in a very preliminary way, attempted to identify

commonalities in the Māori and English languages. Crombie (1985b) says, there is a number of simple operations (or relations) that are essential to all coherent discourse which are common in all human beings regardless of language or culture that is, resemblance, contiguity in time and place, and cause and effect as a result, languages almost correspond to each other (p. vii). In addition, the thesis attempted to determine the beliefs and attitudes of a sample of Māori language teachers regarding these two approaches to describe te reo in their own teaching practices. These two faculties were partially influenced by the type of descriptions found in past and current grammar books and textbooks on Māori that they used in their own professions. On the other hand, the discussion on and use of semantic based theory (being a recently new concept to describe te reo) has been met with some silence since the early 1980s. However, a discussion on both semantics and linguistics (i.e., a focus on meaning and form) could be very useful to alert Māori language practitioners to this aspect of language teaching and learning and to inform their knowledge-base and skills-set in theory and practice in language description. This discussion could facilitate the following outcomes:

- To raise an awareness of the many issues associated with semantic and linguistic theory;
- To bring reo teachers up to date with language research and studies that are more congruent with describing language that focus on the social and cultural imperatives as critical components of that description;
- To inform the design of best educational resources and classroom lessons;
- To advance their students towards becoming confident and competent users of language for communication.

The teaching and learning of the Māori language being central to all this discussion in theory could provide a basis for transformative results in practice. The following recommendations invite Māori language teachers a) to explore, consider, and then implement relevant principles in this thesis that they might deem useful in their own teaching practices or educational goals,

b) to discuss the notion of semantic principles (with which they feel most comfortable or easily understand) with their colleagues, Māori language educators, or friends among others as a way to disseminate the information in this study and, c) to implement the principle of a focus on meaning in the design of their own teaching resources for use in the classroom lesson. It is hoped that Māori language educators in general might include or consider a semantic approach when designing grammar books and textbooks on te reo in the future. I understand this will necessarily involve a collegial effort of many interested parties in the field of Māori language education. There will be some uncertainty, disagreement, debate, and challenges that will need to be guided by decisions and in principled ways and it is hoped this thesis might aid that cause. My philosophical stance (that has developed out of this study) advocates that the way forward in the teaching and learning of te reo begins with rethinking the types of theories we use to describe it and the types of approaches we use to teach it, in the hope that good language description might precede good language teaching. I believe the time to rethink and to act on semantic theorizing is now as time is of the essence. With this in mind, the ultimate aim is to help learners of te reo to become competent and confident users of it for communication in their daily lives.

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List of Appendices

Appendix 1.1: Ethics approval letter

Te Manu Taiko
Human Research Ethics Committee
Te Pua Wānanga ki te Ao
The University of Waikato
Private Bag 3105
Hamilton, New Zealand



Te Kotahi
Research Institute

THE UNIVERSITY OF WAIKATO



Te Manu Taiko: Human Research Ethics Committee
School of Maori & Pacific Development
& Te Kotahi Research Institute

13/09/11

Ethics Approval

This is to confirm that Michael Taiapa received ethical approval for the study **Beyond Structuralism: Reconceptualising pedagogically-oriented descriptions of languages with a focus on te reo Maori**.

The ethics application was reviewed by members of Te Manu Taiko and signed off by the Chair of the committee on 13/09/11.

The reviewers were Enoka Murphy, Lecturer Te Aka Reo and Maui Hudson, Te Kotahi Research Institute.

Please make the following changes:

- Change the name on the consent form from William Taiapa to Michael Taiapa.
- Please add the following statement to the bottom of your research information sheet and consent form.

This study gained ethical approval from Te Manu Taiko: Human Research Ethics Committee, University of Waikato, on 13/09/11.

Kia ora

Maui Hudson
Chair, Te Manu Taiko

Appendix 2.1: An interpretation of speech acts by the CoE

APPENDICES

I. Speech acts

Principles

- Where possible the teams responsible for developing reference level descriptions for specific languages should consult each other about the possibility of adopting a common minimum classification of the forms selected.
- The typology and internal classification of the speech acts (or functions) remain unchanged from one level to another for the same language, the denomination of the same act remains unchanged.
- A brief note explains the ethno-linguistic characteristics of certain acts considered unfamiliar to the learners or difficult to master.
- The same principles for classifying the forms within each speech act are identified. Their use depends on the needs of each language: classification in formal categories (noun, verb, etc), by level of language, by intensity, etc.
- The inventories of the forms used for the acts concerned include “ordinary” spontaneous oral usages.
- The inventories select realisations as independent of context as possible, as each act may, in a given communication situation, be effected by an open set of forms (- *The telephone!* (= request to do) - *I'm in the shower* (= refusal), but: *I'm in the shower* is not an expression of refusal in all circumstances).
- They do not exclude interjections or sentence words (which may also be classified in the inventories of general or specific notions or even in grammatical lists).
- These inventories, which will be the only phrastic ones in the reference level descriptions, comprise indications of intonation and/or are available in recorded form.
- All the speech acts are described at all levels (except perhaps certain ones at level A1), to provide learners with verbal resources, however minimal, to express themselves in all circumstances.
- The speech acts are illustrated by examples where necessary.

For more details on the specification of RLDs (see CoE, 2005, p. 8)

Appendix 3.1: Classifications of te reo Māori

UNESCO Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger.	
Degree of endangerment ¹⁰⁴	International Language Transmission
	Safe
	Language is spoken by all generations; intergenerational transmission is uninterrupted not included in the Atlas.
○	Vulnerable
	Most children speak the language but it may be restricted to certain domains (e.g., at home).
●	Definitely endangered
	Children no longer learn the language as their mother tongue in the home.
●	Severely endangered
	Language is spoken by grandparents and older generations; while the parent generation may understand it, they do not speak it to their children or among themselves.
●	Critically endangered
	The youngest speakers are grandparents and older, and they speak the language partially and infrequently.
●	Extinct
	There are no speakers left included in the Atlas if presumably extinct since the 1950s.
Name of the language:	Māori (en), Māori (fr), Māori (es)
Vitality:	Vulnerable
Number of speakers:	70000, In 2000
Location(s):	Countrywide
Country or area:	New Zealand
Coordinates:	lat: -38.4105; long: 177.3632
Corresponding ISO 639-3 code(s):	mri

¹⁰⁴ Moseley, Christopher (ed.). 2010. Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger, 3rd ed. Paris, UNESCO Publishing. Online version (See, http://www.unesco.org/culture/en/endangered_languages/atlas).

Appendix 3.2: Classifications of te reo Māori

Ethnologue

Languages of the World

Maori

LANGUAGE

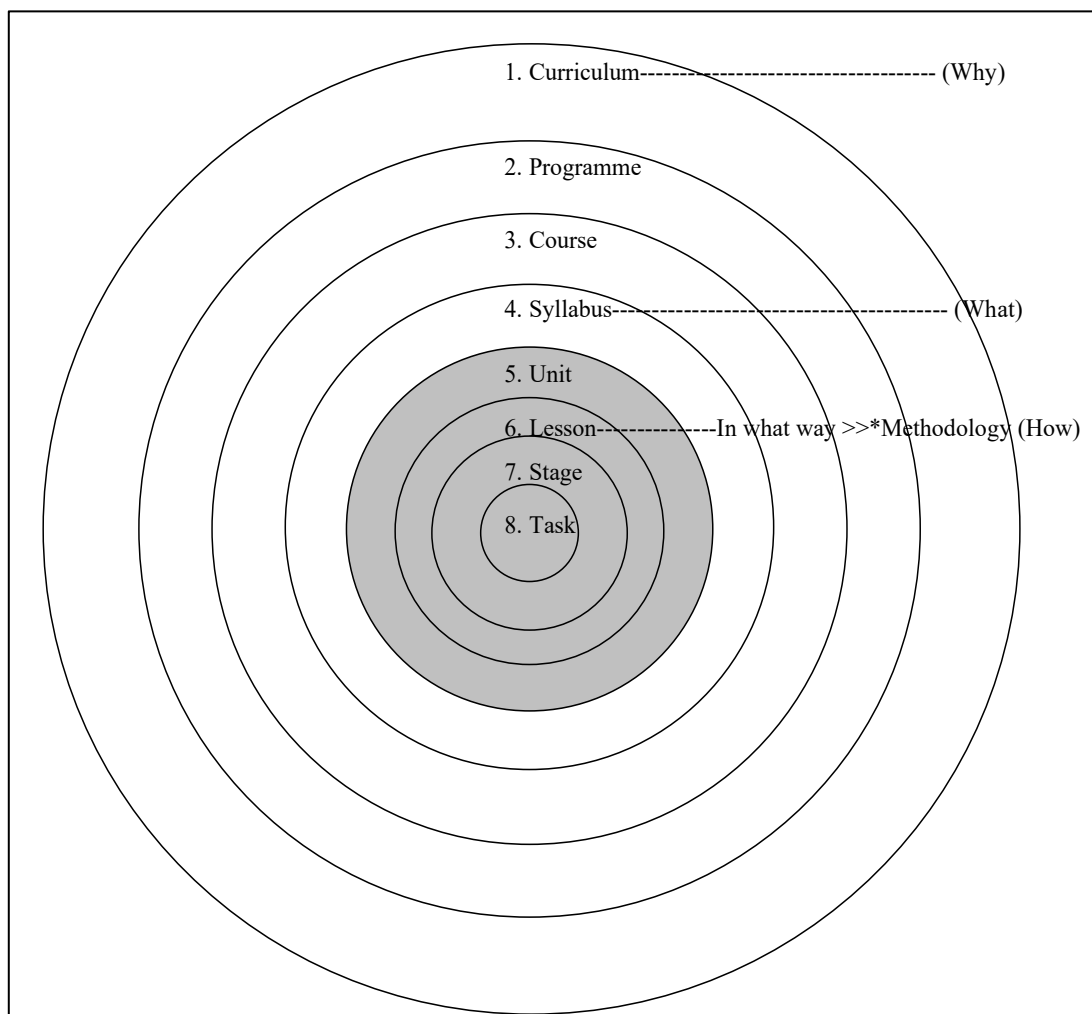
A language of New Zealand

ISO 639-3	<u>mri</u>
Alternate Names	New Zealand Maori, te reo Maori
Population	148,000 in New Zealand (2013 census). 100,000 understand but do not speak it (1995 Maori Language Commission); 30,000–50,000 adult speakers over 15 years old (1995). Ethnic population: 599,000 (2013 census). Total users in all countries: 158,640.
Location	Far north, North Island, east coast.
Language Maps	<u>New Zealand</u>
Language Status	6b (Threatened). Statutory language of national identity (1987, Maori Language Act, No. 176, Article 3), legal domains mostly.
Classification	<u>Austronesian, Malayo-Polynesian, Central-Eastern Malayo-Polynesian, Eastern Malayo-Polynesian, Oceanic, Central-Eastern Oceanic, Remote Oceanic, Central Pacific, East Fijian-Polynesian, Polynesian, Nuclear, East, Central, Tahitic</u>
Dialects	North Auckland, South Island, Taranaki, Wanganui, Bay of Plenty, Rotorua-Taupo, Moriori. Formerly fragmented into regional dialects, some of which diverged quite radically from what became the standard dialect. Lexical similarity: 71% with Hawaiian [<u>haw</u>], 57% with Samoan [<u>smo</u>].
Typology	VSO; prepositions; noun head final; dual number; definite and indefinite articles; passives; 10 consonants, 10 vowels, 7 diphthongs; non-tonal; stress on first long vowel or diphthong.
Language Use	Until 20th century, Maori was spoken throughout New Zealand. There is a recent reluctance of the young generation to use Maori (Wurm 2007). Mainly adult speakers. All also use English [<u>eng</u>] (Wurm 2007).
Language Development	322 government-funded Maori language schools, including preschool. New media. Grammar. Bible: 1858–1952.
Language Resources	<u>OLAC resources in and about Maori</u>
Writing	Latin script [<u>latn</u>].
Other Comments	Moriori dialect in Chatham Islands has no remaining speakers. Christian.

This web edition of the Ethnologue may be cited as: Lewis, M. Paul, Gary F. Simons, and Charles D. Fennig (eds.). 2016. Ethnologue: Languages of the World, Nineteenth edition. Dallas, Texas: SIL International. Online version: <http://www.ethnologue.com>. Copyright © 2016 SIL International publications_intl@sil.org T: 972-708-7404

Appendix 4.1: Schematic view of a suggested curriculum structure

The schematic view below shows one possible structure of a language curriculum and its related components with reference to the syllabus and lesson sections showing their individual purposes. The syllabus section focuses on content in terms of *what* will be taught such as, for example, language points, sentence structures, and vocabulary, whereas the lesson section focuses on *how* to teach that content based on the types of materials, techniques, tasks, and methodologies to be used (Brown, 1995, p. 7; & Dubin & Olshtain, 1986).



This diagram was adapted from lecture notes taken in my applied linguistic class, 2009

Appendix 4.2: Some distinctions of *he* with stative, infinitive, causative verbs

- *He* pirau ēnei kūmara. These kūmara are rotten.
- *He* hanga i te whare te mahi a Horo. Horo's job is to build the house.
- Ko tāku mahi, *he* whakaako i ngā tāngata. My job is teaching the people.

Verb	Verb Type	Description
pirau/ rotten	stative	The verb <i>pirau/ rotten</i> is commonly referred to as a stative rather than an adjective as it shows no real action but the state of a particular thing. In fact, the verb more accurately implies a <u>process</u> , that is, the process of deterioration that led to the state of the kūmara becoming rotten in the first place.
hanga/ build	infinitive	The verb <i>hanga/ build</i> clearly indicates the performance of some type of <u>action</u> on someone or something and, in this case, to <i>build</i> the house in which the base form of the verb is 'build'.
whakaako/ to teach	causative	The verb <i>whakaako</i> is used to show the present tense continuous/ progressive/ <u>dynamic</u> aspect of the verb <i>teaching</i> .

Appendix 6.1: Ngata & Kāretu texts

Text 1: Te nūpepa o Te Aute: nā Apirana Ngata – The Te Aute Newspaper: Apirana Ngata (Houia-Roberts, 2004, p. 211)

Kua tonoa taku hoa ētita, a Reweti Kohere e ōna hoa Pākehā kia whakapiri i tētahi o ngā ingoa o tōna tipuna ki tōna ingoa, arā i a 'Mokena'. E hiahia ana rātou kia pēnei te roanga o tōna ingoa Reweti T. Mōkena Kohere. E mea ana rātou hei tohu whakamaharatanga tēnei māna ki tōna tipuna. Kāti kei pōhēhē ōna hoa he tangata kē a Reweti Kohere, me Reweti Mōkena Kohere.

He nui tō mātou pouri i tō mātou kitenga i ētahi kupu kāore e tika kia perehitia i roto i tētahi o ā tātou pepa Māori. Ko āna kōrero kino, i roto i tētahi reta tuku mai, engari kāore pea i kitea e te ētita.

E hoa mā, e kōrerotia ana ō tātou pepa e te wāhine, e te tamariki, kāti kāore e tika ngā kōrero weriweri kia perehitia. He mea tēnei e taea te hāmene e te Kāwanatanga, ā, e mau ai te tangata ki te whareherehere.

Kia tūpato. Nō ngā kaitā te tino hē ki te perehi tonu i ērā kōrero tino kino atu.

My associate editor, Reweti Kohere, has been asked by his Pakeha friends to add the name of one of his grandfathers, that is, 'Mokena', to his name. They want his full name to be Reweti T. Mokena Kohere. They are suggesting that this be a symbol of remembrance to his grandparent. So then, his friends should not mistakenly believe that Reweti Kohere is a different person than Reweti Mokena Kohere.

We were very disappointed when we saw a type of language, that should not be printed, appeared in one of our Māori papers. This offensive language appeared in a letter sent to the paper, but was evidently not seen by the editor.

Friends, our papers are being read by women and by children, so it is not right that offensive language, such as this, should be printed. This is something that could incur a Government summons and could result in the imprisonment of those concerned.

Be cautious. The fault lies with the printers who continue to print this distasteful language.

Text 2: Me karo tēnei taunu 'He māngere te Māori': nā Apirana Ngata – Counter the insult 'Māori are lazy': Apirana Ngata (Houia-Roberts, 2004, pp. 213-214)

I te mea kua eke nui ki runga i te iwi Māori tēnei kupu taunu, 'he māngere te Māori' ko te mahi tuatahi tonu mō tō koutou rōpū, me ērā atu rōpū e whakatūria ana i roto i te rohe pōti o te Tairāwhiti ā muri ake nei i runga i te kaupapa pēnei i tā koutou, he karo i tēnei kupu taunu.

Ko ētahi huarahi e taea ai te karo ki taku whakaaro koia ēnei:

- (a) *me whakamārama e koutou te āhua o te Māori i mua atu i ngā wā hoko whenua, he iwi ahuwheua, me ngā mahi i taea e te Māori i ērā rā, ngā mahi wūi, whakatupu poaka, hoko kaupuke me ērā atu mahi; me whakamārama ngā huarahi taka ai te Māori ki te hē i runga i ngā mahi hoko whenua, i ngā rīhi whenua, ka waiho ko ngā hua o ēnā mahi hei oranga mō te tangata Māori, ka whakamanawa ki tēnā oranga, he oranga ngāwari hoki, ka ngoikore ki ngā mahi tinana;*
- (b) *me whakamārama ngā āraitanga, ngā whakararururātanga a ngā ture maha a te Pāremata, i hēmanawa ai te iwi Māori, i kore ai e taea e ngā mea e hiahia ana te whakapai ō rātou whenua;*
- (c) *me whakawhāiti ngā māramatanga katoa e takoto nei o ngā mahi ahuwheua o tō koutou rohe;*
- (i) *te tīmatanga me te whakahaerenga, ā, tae mai ki tēnei wā o ngā mahi o Ngāti Porou, te kaute o ngā hipi, me ērā atu kararehe a te Māori i tēnei wā, te wāriu o ngā whakapainga kei runga i aua whenua, ngā eka kua pai;*
- (ii) *ngā mahi a te uaua o te Māori ki ngā whenua e nōhia mai nei e ngā Pākehā.*
- (d) *hei muri i tēnā ka whakatakoto mārō ai i te kupu e hiahia ana koutou kia tahuri nui ki ngā mahi whenua, ki ngā mahi ā ringa; e tono ana koutou kia āwhinatia tēnei whakaaro ō koutou e te Kāwanatanga, e te iwi Pākehā, e te iwi Māori;*
- (e) *ko ngā kaupapa e takoto i a koutou he mea tika kia tukua ki ngā nūpepa Pākehā o te Koroni kia whakarongo tauhou mai te iwi Pākehā ki tēnei taha hoki o ngā kōrero whenua Māori, kia manaakitia e ngā nūpepa, ā, kia riro ko rātou tonu hei āwhina i ō koutou whakaaro whakatipu hou;*
- (f) *ko te whakaupoko tonu tēnei mō tētahi pītihana nui ki te Pāremata ā tēnei tau ko ngā whakamārama e taea ai te karo tēnei kupu te 'māngere' ki raro i te iwi Māori.*

Because this insulting phrase 'Māori are lazy' is very frequently used in reference to Māori, the very first thing that needs to be done by your group, in fact by all similar groups likely to be established in the future within the electoral boundaries of Te Tairāwhiti, is to refute it.

In my opinion, some courses of action which could be used to counter these claims could be to:

- (a) explain the way the Māori people were prior to the time of land sales: they were an industrious people, and the work they were able to do during those times was wheat growing, rearing pigs, buying ships among other things;
- (b) explain the ways in which the Māori people have fallen on troubled times because of land sales, land leases, and people were left to exist on the financial gains, and soon they became accustomed to this way of life, and because it was an easy life, the people lost the motivation to work;
- (c) explain the obstacles, the difficulties caused by the many parliamentary laws which resulted in the frustration of the Māori people, and resulted in those who wished to improve their land being unable to do so;
- (d) collate all this information about the work being carried out in your areas:
 - (i) the beginnings, the administration and also include the work of sheep rearing in Ngati Porou, the numbers of sheep and other animals being reared by Māori people at this time, the values of improvements on those lands, the total acreage which has been improved.
 - (ii) the vigorous work that Māori people are carrying out on the land owned by Pakeha.

- (e) following that, be resolute with the messages you convey with the main focus being on the working of the land, the labouring for your aim is that the Government support your ideas;
- (f) the ideas you put forward should in fact be circulated to Pakeha newspapers throughout the colony so that Pakeha will hear a fresh perspective about Māori land, so that the ideas will be supported by the newspapers and so that they will in actual fact be the ones to support your new suggestions.
- (g) this collection of new explanations could constitute an important part of a petition this year, and could be useful in the removal of the use of this word 'lazy' in reference to the Māori people.

Text 3: Te marae o te Māori - Māoritanga: nā Apirana Ngata – The marae of the Māori people: Māoritanga: Apirana Ngata (Howia-Roberts, 2004, pp. 232-235)

Kei roto i ngā whakapuatanga kōrero o ia iwi o tēnei ao, tērā e kitea ā rātou tini mano pūtake o te tangata. Kimi tonu āna tāngata i tōna putanga mai ki te whai ao. I tutuki tā te nuinga o ngā iwi ki tēnei whakapono he mea hanga te tangata tētahi mana nui, tētahi mana kaha, whakaharahara, ka kīia e rātou he Atua. Kua whakaakona tātou ko te whakapono Karaitiana te whakatakotoranga tuatahi.

Kei roto i te pukapuka tuatahi a Mohi o Kēnehi e mau ana, i hangaia mai te tangata i te puehu, ā, nā te Atua i whakahā i ngā ponga o tōna ihu ka whiwhi i te wairua, ka kīia tēnei ko te Orokohanga. Ko te tāne i hangaia i te tuatahi, nō muri ko te wahine, i runga i ngā kupu a te Atua, kāore e tika kia noho mokemoke te tāne engari kia whakawhiwhia he hoa hei atawhai i a ia.

Tērā atu ngā kaupapa kōrero a ētahi atu iwi, engari ko te whakapono tēnei i mauria mai e te Pākehā ki waenganui i ngā Māori o Aotearoa nei, āpiti atu ki ngā moutere a te Moana Nui a Kiwa.

Ahakoā rā he maha ngā hāhi nā rātou i mau mai tēnei whakapono, he reo kotahi tonu tā rātou, he ririki nei ngā rerekētanga, ko te mea i tāia ko te Paipera, ka whakamāoritā ki ngā reo katoa o ngā iwi Māori.

I pērā anō hoki te Māori onamata, i tōna hangainga ki ōna putake, i tōna tipunga mai rānei i a neherā. Ko ngā kōrero mō ngā whakatakotoranga me ngā tikanga a te Māori, e rua ōna āhua: Ko ngā kōrero i ahu mai waho o te whare wānanga, ko ngā kōrero hoki i takea mai i roto tonu i aua whare.

Ahakoā ko ngā kōrero rā anō i haere mai anō i ngā whare nei i tukua ēnei kia kohia e te mutu tangata. Ka marea he mea noa, ehara i te tapu. Ko ngā whakaona tapu i taiepatia atu ki roto i ngā Whare Wānanga. I hunaia i reira mai i te tini o te tangata ko ngā kōrero mō Io.

Otirā nā te Pākehā i hopu haere ngā kōrero a ngā kaumātua, ka pā te kaupapa o Io, ka whakatūria ko ia te Atua tino tapu o te iwi Māori i onamata. Mā te tino tohunga anake e whakahua i tēnei ingoa i ngā wāhanga noa, i ngā wā e rite ana. Ahakoā rā he kaupapa ngaro, tērā tonu te takoto whānui i roto ngā whare wānanga, i te Taitōkerau, i te Tairāwhiti, ā, i ētahi wāhi o te Taihauāuru.

Nā ngā tohunga, nā ngā morehu o ngā pakanga i hoatu ki a rātou e mōhio ana ki ngā tauira whakatipuranga hou kua mōhio ki te tā kōrero pukapuka, nā reira ka heke mai ngā kōrero o Io ki a tātou.

*Ko Io Nui, te Atua o ngā Atua katoa
Ko Io Roa, te tuturu,
Ko Io Matua, te Matua o te Rangī o te Ao,
O ngā tāngata me ā rātou mea katoa,
Ko Io Matua te Kore, kāore he matua,
Ko Io Matua te Taketake, te taunga motuhake,
Ko Io te Wānanga, te tīmatanga o ngā mea katoa,
Ko Io te Toi o ngā Rangī, te Taumata o ngā Rangī,
Ko Io te Matanui, o ngā mea e kitea ana,
Ko Io te Matangaro, o ngā mea kāore e kitea,
Ko Io te Matakakao. Te rā, te mahana, te muri ahi,
Ko Io te Whiwhia, te hanga tangata,
Ko te Matatapu, te mutunga ake o te tapu.*

E kīia ana nāna i hanga i te ao, mai i te kore, kāore i whānau, he matua kore, kāore i mau ki te wahine, he uri kore, engari nāna ka hanga i ngā mea katoa tae noa ki te tangata.

Throughout the world, different peoples have different interpretations on the origin of man. Man is still seeking knowledge of his creation. Many believe that man was created by a great power, by some powerful authority, with an extraordinary power that they claim to be a God. We have been taught that Christianity is the superior teaching.

It has been written in the first book of Moses and of Genesis that Man was created from dust and it was God who breathed life through his nostrils and instilled within him a spirit and this was the Orokohanga, the creation. The male species was created first and then the female for according to the word of God man should not be alone, but he should have a companion to nurture him.

There are many other explanations held by other peoples but this is the faith brought by the Pakeha to the Māori people of New Zealand and to the Islands of the Pacific.

Although there were many denominations, their messages were similar with a few slight variations, the Bible was the printed word and this was translated into the languages of all the indigenous peoples.

Ancient Māori had a similar belief about their creation, their origins, their development in ancient times. These beliefs and the customs of the Māori came from two sources. There was the knowledge that came from outside the Whare Wānanga (Māori Schools of Learning) and the knowledge that originated from inside the Whare Wānanga.

Although the teachings from the various Whare Wananga were similar this was made available to anyone. It became common knowledge and was not regarded as sacred. The sacred teachings were kept secret within the school of learning. The teachings of Io were concealed there from the majority of people.

Indeed, it was the Pakeha who acquired the stories of the Māori elders that related to the teachings of Io, the most sacred of gods to the Māori of old. Only a tohunga (priest) could refer to him and only in the right places and at the right times. Although the teachings were suppressed, it is possible that these were more widely taught in the Whare Wananga in Te Taitokerau (Northern tribes) and Te Taihauauru (Western Tribes).

The tohunga, the survivors of the battles handed on what they knew to the students of the new generation, who by this time had learned to record the written word and that is why the story of Io has been passed on down to us.

Io Nui represents the most important god
 Io Roa represents uprightness and permanence
 Io Matua represents the father of the heavens, of all people and their existence
 Io Matua Kore of no parentage
 Io Matua te Taketake, the permanent resting place
 Io te Wananga, the beginning of all things
 Io te Toi o nga Rangi, the highest level of the heavens
 Io te Matanui, those things visible to the naked eye
 Io te Matangaro, those things not visible to the naked eye
 Io te Matakakao te ra, the warmth, the flames of the fire
 Io te Whiwhia, the stature of mankind
 Io te Matatapu, the most sacred of all

The belief is that Io created the world from nothing, was not born, had no parentage, had no union with women, was childless, but nevertheless all things, including man, were created by Io.

Text 4: Te tau o ngā kaumātua: nā Tīmoti Kāretu – The year of the elderly: Tīmoti Kāretu (Houia-Roberts, 2004, pp. 219-221)

Kua puta te karanga a Te Whakakotahitanga o Ngā Iwi o Te Ao kia kīia te tau e tū mai nei ko Te Tau o te Kaumātua Puta Noa i te Ao. Otirā koirā tāku nā whakamāoritanga i tērā whakaaro. Ko tāku e whakapae ana e kōrero kē ana rātou mō te hunga pēperekōu kua i tā te Māori tītiro ki tēnei mea, ki te kaumātua. Kua puta kē i a au te kōrero ki tētahi atu pepa i a au e tamariki ana ki ngā marae o Tūhoe ki Waikaremoana me Ruatāhuna ko ngā kaumātua te hunga whakatauiru mai i te tika, i te pono; ko ngā kaumātua te hunga pupuri i te tikanga; ko ngā kaumātua te hunga tauōhito; ko ngā kaumātua te hunga kī tahi; ko ngā kaumātua te hunga pupuri i ngā kōrero e pā ana ki te iwi; āe, ko rātou ngā puna o te kī.

I te āhua tonu o ēnei rā nei kua rere te pātai he aha kē ia oti tēnei mea te kaumātua, ā, ko te take i rere ai tērā pātai nā te mea kua kitea i roto i ētahi iwi kua kore kē tēnei momo tangata e kōrerotia ake nei e au. Kua eke tātou ki te reanga pakeke kāore nei e mōhio ki te reo, ki ngā tikanga tae atu hoki ki ngā kōrero? E kaumātua noa ana nā te mea kua eke ki te karangatanga ahungarua nā te aha kē ia rānei? Kua kaha te whiua o te pātai he aha tēnei mea te kaumātua me aha rawa rānei te tangata e kaumātua ai ki te tītiro a te tangata? Mēnā kua ahungarua te tangata engari e tino kūare ana ki ngā tikanga me ngā kōrero a te iwi, ka kaumātua tonu? Ko tēnei pātai me waiho anō mā ngā iwi tonu e whakautu, e whakataua engari he pātai e kaha ana te pātaitia e te rangatahi. Ko au kei te kī ko te momo kaumātua o te wā i a au e taiohi ana kua tino kore haere, me uaua kē rānei ka kitea engari ko te hunga kaumātua, kua noho makorea, pūtoetoe rānei, e tika ana kia kauuanutia.

Ko tētahi take nui e aroha nei au ki te hunga pakeke nei kua kore te ao Māori o ēnei rā nei i mōhio me pēhea te kōrero ki te pakeke, me pēhea rānei te manaaki ki te pakeke. I tua atu i tērā kua kore te ao Māori e mōhio ki te whakarongo ki te pakeke engari ka pātai tonu, ka pākiki tonu tē whakaoko noa ai. He āhuatanga tērā kua uru kaha mai ki te ao Māori, ā, nā konei anō nei te ao Māori i āhua kotiti ai he kore i whakapono he mātauranga anō tō ngā kaumātua.

Kāti, ko tāku noa iho ki a tātou he kī atu kia tino manaakitia te hunga pakeke ahakoa pēhea te mōhio, te kore rānei i mōhio, ki ngā āhuatanga o te ao Māori nā te mea he wā tōna ka noho atu ko koutou, ko tātou ki taua nohonga e whakaparanga nei tātou i roto i te rā nei.

E ai ki ō tātou koroua, kuia 'he huri tēnei mea te mate', nō reira āta whakaarotia ake te kōrero nei.

Me pēnei noa ake pea te whakataua ake 'E te mātātahi kia aro nui mai ki te mātāpuputu; e te mātāpuputu whāngaia mai te mā tātahi e hiakai nei ki ngā taonga kei a koutou'

Tēnā tātou katoa kia tahuri ki te whakanui, ki te whakarangatira i ō tātou kaumātua i roto i tēnei tau kua whakaarotia ake hei tau aro nui atu ki a rātou.

The United Nations has recommended that in this coming year, The Year of the Elderly will be observed worldwide, that at least is my interpretation of the notice. What concerns me is that they are looking at older people in general and not at the Māori interpretation of an elder. I have already written in another paper that in my youth, on the marae of Tūhoe, Waikaremoana and Ruatāhuna, the elders were a group who modeled what was right and effective, they retained the customs, they were a skilful group, they spoke with one voice, they retained tribal knowledge, it is true that they were the fountains of knowledge.

With things the way they are these days, the question as to what defines a kaumātua (Māori elder) is being asked, and the reason for the question is that it has been seen that within some tribes there are no kaumātua left. We have reached the stage when some elders have no knowledge of the language, the customs, or even the stories. Is one a kaumātua because one has reached another generation, or is there some other criteria?

The questions that are asked regularly by people concern the criteria for a kaumātua or what must a person do to be recognized as a

kaumatua? If one has reached old age but has no knowledge about the customs, tribal stories, is one still regarded as a kaumatua?

The question should be left for the Māori people to answer, to examine, but it is a question frequently asked by the younger generation. The type of kaumatua who were around when I was a teenager, in my opinion, are no longer around, or are difficult to find, but the kaumatua we have now, are the survivors, it is only right that they are respected and are looked on with fondness by the younger generations.

The main reason I feel sympathy for the kaumatua is that, the Māori world of today no longer know how to speak to them or how to show them respect. Furthermore, the Māori world does not know how to listen to the elderly but instead insist on continually asking questions and not listening at all. That is a common feature which has entered the Māori world, and this is why the Māori world is not united, there is not the belief that kaumatua do indeed possess a special knowledge.

That aside, my message is that the elderly should be really supported whether or not they know the ways of the Māori world because the time will come when you, when all of us will be part of the group we are discussing today.

According to our elders, 'Death moves around', so therefore, this really needs to be considered.

Perhaps this could be a concluding suggestion, 'Youth, respect your elders; Elders, feed the youth who hunger for the knowledge you possess.'

Thank you all, you who will take part in honouring and respecting our kaumatua during the year which has been designated as the year which will have a special focus for them.

Text 5: Te Kākāpō (Strigops habroptilus): nā Tīmoti Kāretu – The Kakapo: Tīmoti Kāretu (Houia-Roberts, 2004, pp. 246-249)

Ahakoā huri koe ki hea i te ao nei, kāore e kitea he kākā nui ake i te kākāpō o Aotearoa. He kaha tonu ōna ngutu, ā, he pewa te āhua, pērā tonu i te katoa o ngā momo kākā. Engari ko te kanohi, he āhua rite ki tō te ruru - ko te 'kākā-ruru' tonu iētahi o ōna ingoa ki te reo Pākehā. Waihoki, ko te tikanga o tōna ingoa pūtaiao, arā, o te Strigops habroptilus, ko te 'kanohi-ruru whai hune'. Ko te tae o ngā hune, e rite ana ki te pūkoho, ā, he kōrangorango te āhua. Nā konei i pai ai te noho huna o te kākāpō i te ao, i te pō.

Kāore i mōhio ngā tohunga huaota o te ao Pākehā ki tēnei manu kia eke rawa ki te tau 1852. I taua tau ka tūpono atu ētahi tāngata o te kaupuke Acheron ki tētahi, engari nā ā rātou kurī kē i whakamataku te kākāpō, me te aha, puta ohore mai ana i tōna rua, ā, koirā te kitianga tuatahitanga o te Pākehā i tēnei manu. He manu haere takitahi te kākāpō, kāore e haere takitini pērā i te nuinga o ngā momo kākā. Ko tētahi atu āhuatanga ōna, ko tana rere-kore. Otirā, he āwhina tonu kei ōna parirau poto i a ia e oma ana, e piki ana rānei i tētahi mea. Tērā ka eke ki te 2.5 kirokaramu tōna taumaha, ā, he pōturi tana haere, ka mutu, he waewae mātotoru. He manu nguengue, engari he kaha tonu tōna kakara, ā, i te mea ko te mata tonu o Papatūānuku tana kāinga, he māmā noa iho ki te kurī te whaiwhai haere i tōna kakara, waihoki, kāore he tahuringa ake mō te kākāpō. Arā anō ētahi o ōna tino hoariri, ko te ngeru, me te toriura.

He kaiota te manu nei. Ko ētahi o āna tino kai, ko ngā kākano, ngā rau, ngā tātā me ngā pakiaka o ētahi tipu. Ka kaikainga ngā mea kākā, me te ngongo i te pia o roto. Hei tango mai i ngā kākano i ngā pātītī, ka puritia ngā rau ki ngā waewae, me te whakamahi i ō rātou ngutu hei unu mai i ngā kākano.

Mō te wāhi ki te whakaputa uri, kāore te kākāpō e mahi poka noa. He mōhio ia he pai ake te tau humi hei whakapakeke uri, nō reira ka tatari kia matomato rā anō te tupu o te kai, ā, hei reira tahuri ai ki te whakaipoipo. He mahi rerekē tonu tā ngā toa i tēnei wā. Ka taki whakamenomeno rātou me te whakataetae tahi hei whakawai i ngā uha. Mai i te marama o Hakihea ki te marama o Poutū-te-rangi, rangona ai ō rātou reo karanga i ngā uha, engari he rerekē te āhua o te tangi, me kī he momo nguru, ko te hāona kaupuke tōna rite. Ka roa tonu rātou e pēnei ana, me te mātaki a ngā uha i tā rātou mahi. Nā wai, nā wai, ka whirihiri tēnā me tēnā o ngā uha i tāna i pai ai, ā, he nui tonu ngā toa ka ngere. Hanga kōwhanga ai ngā uha i ngā tumu rākau kua wharemoa, i raro rānei i te pātītī taranui, ā, e toru ngā hua ka whānau mai ki te nuinga. Kotahi marama te uha e awahi ana i ōna hua, kātahi ka pao mai ngā pipī. Ka āhua whitu marama ngā pipī e piri tahi ana ki tō rātou whāereere, ā, he mahi nui tonu te karo i te mate; he maha rātou ka riro hei kai mā te hoariri. Ko te whakataukī peā hāngai ana ki te toa i tēnei wā, ko tēnei, 'Hoa piri ngahuru, taha kē raumati'. Arā, i noho tata mai i te wā i pai ki a ia, engari kia uaua nei, kei hea rā e ngaro ana?

Heoi anō, me huri pea tēnei kōrero kia hāngai ake ki ngā kaupeka whakaputa uri o te kākā, arā 'Hoa piri raumati, taha kē takurua'. Ka āhua 6-8 tau te kākāpō e tipu haere ana, ā, ki te waiho kia mate hirinaki, tērā pea ka eke ki te 30 tau, te 40 tau rānei te pakeke.

Ko Aotearoa anake te kāinga tūturu o te kākāpō. I ngā rā o mua, nohoia ai ngā wāhi ngāherehere katoa o te motu e te kākāpō. Kei te mōhioia tēnei i te mea kua kitea ngā whaipara o tēnei manu i ngā ruapara Māori o mua, huri i te motu. Mahia anō ai e ngā Māori o neherā ngā huruhuru o te kākāpō hei hanga kahu.

Nō te taenga mai o Tauwiwi ki Aotearoa, he maha tonu ngā kākāpō ka mate i ā rātou kurī, ā, ka kainga anō hoki e te Pākehā. Arā anō ētahi i tukuna atu ki ngā whare taonga o konei me tāwāhi. I te wā i a Kuini Wikitōria, tukuna atu ai ētahi kākāpō e 80 nei ki tētahi whare taonga kotahi nei i Vienna. I ngā tau o ngā 1890, i muri tonu i te taenga mai o ngā toriura ki Aotearoa, ka matemate haere ngā kākāpō. Nā wai, nā wai, ka āhua pai ake. Engari i ngā tau o ngā 1930 me ngā 1940, ka paheke anō. E whakapaetia ana nā te tere ngaro o ngā ngāhere i tūmata anō ai te paheke o te kākāpō i tēnei wā. Ka ngaro atu tēnei waewae mātotoru i Te Ika a Māui, ā, i paku muri mai ka pērā anō i Te Waipounamu. Ko ngā mōrehu i kitea i Te Waipounamu, arā, i Piopiotahi, ka haria ake ki te Punanga Manu i Mount Bruce, engari ka mate mai ērā i te tahumaero. Kua kore i kitea he kākāpō i Te Ika me Te Waka a Māui i ngā tau o ngā 1990.

Mokori anō i rokohanga atu ētahi āhua kotahi rau nei i Rakiura i te tau 1977. Engari kāore i tino pai tā rātou noho i reira, i te mea e noho tahi ana ki tērā o ngā hoariri, ki te ngeru. I roto i te wā poto kua heke tō rātou nui ki te 61 noa iho. I konei ka whakatauria me hari ēnei tino mōrehu ki tētahi moutere karekau he ngeru, he toriura i reira.

Ko Hauturu, ko Codfish me Maud ngā moutere i whirihiritia. Hei āwhina i ngā kākāpō, ka tahuri Te Papa Atawhai ki te hora kai papai mā rātou, pēnei i te hua rākau, i te natinati me ngā 'pōhā patahua', i runga i te tūmanako ka whakaae ngā manu nei kua eke anō te tau humi, ā, ka tahuri ki te whakaputa uri!

I ēnei rā, ko tōna 50 noa iho ngā kākāpō e ora tonu ana i ēnei moutere.

Ko wai kāore e tautoko i te whakaaro me āta tiaki tēnei puipuiaki kei ngaro i tēnei, tōna whenua ake, pērā tonu i te moa, i te hōkioi, me te tōtōrori?

Nowhere else in the world is there a parrot larger than the New Zealand Kakapo.

It has a strong hooked beak like other parrots. But the eyes are more like those of an owl. Another Pakeha name for this parrot is kaka-ruru (parrot-owl). However, its scientific name is *Strigops habroptilus*, 'the downy eyes of the owl'. The down is the colour of the mist, and is mottled in appearance. Because of this, the kaka can stay concealed at night.

Pakeha scientists did not know about this bird until 1852. It was in that year that a group of sailors from the sailing vessel Acheron happened on one but it was their dog that startled the kakapo and caused it to emerge from its nest and that was the first sighting by Pakeha of this bird. The kakapo is a lone bird, it does not move in groups like most other types of kaka. Another feature is that it is flightless, but its short wings are useful when it is running or when it is climbing trees. The Kaka can reach a weight of 2.5 kgs, it walks slowly and has thick legs. The kaka is placid, it exudes a strong smell and because this bird lives on Papatuanuku (Mother Earth), it becomes easy prey for dogs. Indeed, there is nowhere else that the kakapo can turn. Its other enemies include cats and stoats.

This bird eats fresh fruit. Other favourite foods include vegetables, seeds, leaves, stalks and roots of some plants. It eats fibrous plants and it sucks at the sap. In order to pull out the seeds and the grasses, the leaves are held by the feet and the beak is used to suck out the seeds.

With respect to mating, the kakapo is quite systematic. It considers the seasons when there is an abundance of food, so important for the rearing of the chicks. The kakapo, therefore, waits until the food sources are plentiful and that is the time that its attention turns to mating. The male behaves quite differently at this time. They have tendency to show off and to compete for the attention of the females. From December through to March, their calls to the females are heard, a different sort of call, like a groan, similar to a ship's horn. This continues for some time while the females watch the performances. After some time, each female decides which male she prefers and many of the males are passed over. The females construct their nests around tree stumps and hollows or perhaps under the tussock grass. Most produce three eggs. The female sits on her eggs for a month and then the chicks hatch. The chicks remain with their mothers for about seven months during which time they will face many dangers; many are lost to predators. The expression best applied to the dominant males at this time is 'A constant companion in the autumn, absent in the summer' which suggests that the male stays close by at his convenience but is not available in times of trouble.

However, this discussion should return to reproduction of the kaka and the expression 'A constant companion in the summer, absent in the winter'. The kakapo continues to grow for about 6-8 years and if it does survive to old age, it could live for 30-40 years.

New Zealand is the native home of the kakapo. They once existed in all the forests of the land. This has been proven through the discovery of the remains of this bird on the sites of early Māori all over the land. Early Māori used the feathers of the kakapo for the making of cloaks.

With the arrival of the Pakeha in New Zealand, many of the kakapo were killed by their dogs and eaten by Pakeha. Some were sent to the museums here and overseas. During the reign of Queen Victoria, 80 birds were sent to the museum of Vienna. During the 1890's, shortly after the introduction of the stoat to New Zealand, the kakapo rapidly died out. A slight improvement followed. But between 1930-40, there was another rapid decline. It was argued that this was because of the loss of the forests. This thick-legged creature was soon lost to the Wellington region and shortly after to the South Island. The survivors, found in the South Island, at Piopiotahi (Milford Sound) were moved to a bird reserve in Mount Bruce. No kakapo were found in the lower North Island regions in the 1990's.

Fortunately, approximately 100 were found in Rakiura (Stewart Island) in 1977 but they were not considered safe there as one of its enemies, the cat, also inhabited the island. In a very short time their numbers were reduced to only 61. It was decided then that these survivors must be taken to a place without cats and stoats.

Hauturu, Codfish and Maud Islands were selected. In order to help the kakapo, the Department of Conservation began to distribute their favourite foods such as fruits, nuts and muesli bars in the hope that the kakapo would be deceived into thinking that this was a season of abundance of food and would hopefully begin to breed.

Only about 50 kakapo have survived. Who then would not support the idea that this rare and precious bird must be protected lest it is lost forever to this, its native home, like the moa, the hōkioi and the tōtōrori.

Text 6: He hē anō te hē: nā Tīmoti Kāretu – Wrong is wrong: Tīmoti Kāretu (Houia-Roberts, 2004, pp. 223-225)

Tēnei māua ko taringa te rongo ake nei kua kaha te whiua o te kōrero, 'E, e takahi ana koe i tōku mana', inā whakatikahia te hē o te rere mai o te kōrero a te tangata. Ko ōna kore mōhio nei ki te whakatakoto i te reo i runga i takahia nei.

Ko tā te hunga e ako ana he whakarongo ki tā te hunga matatau whakatakoto i te kupu, mā te whai hoki i tā te matatau ka mōhio ko te kūare, ko te pōhēhē, ko te kore mōhio.

Ko wai o tātou kāore i whakatikaina mai e tētahi e matatau kē noa atu ana i a tātou ahakoa he aha te kaupapa? Ko wai nei?

Mā te mamea hoki te whakatika mai a te tangata matatau kē noa ake i a koe ka aha? Ka matatau ake te mea i whakatikaina rā?

Engari mō tēnā, ka noho tonu ko kūare tōna hoa haere he kore i areare mai nō taringa ka tahi, he waiho mā wheke kurī noa iho e

kawe ka rua, ka noho ko whakamau, ko mauāhara tonu atu rānei hei hoa ka toru, engari kia tino kī noa ake au ki te pērā mai te tangata e kore ia e matatau ki te reo ahakoa pēhea.

Ko tāku nā whakautu hoki ki tēnā whiu mai i te kupu, arā, mō te takahi mana, he kī noa atu, 'E, kei te tūkinu, kei te kōhuru koe i tōku reo.' Ki te pīrangī koe koinei hei reo mōu, tēnā kia tika mai i a koe, ka whakarongo ki te hunga matatau me tā rātou kī mai, 'me pēnei kē, me pērā kē' rānei engari kaua e amowheke, e hūneinei noa!

Kia hoki ake nei ki te kōrero 'He hē anō te he'. Kāore i tua atu, kāore i tua mai i tērā!

Koutou e ako nei, e whai nei i tō tātou reo kia mau tonu ai, kia ora tonu ai, ka nui te mihi engari kia mārama anō tātou ki tō tātou matatau mehemea kāore te eke, ā, ka whāia kia eke, arā, whakarongo ngā taringa, kopi te waha atu i te whiu pātai kia mārama ai he aha kē i pēnei ai, he aha kē i pērā ai. He wā anō hoki e kōrero ai te waha, he wā anō hoki e noho puku ai taihoa e kōrero.

Kia mōhio tātou katoa āhea, tēhea whāia ai. Ki te taea tērā kua tīmata tā tātou takahi i te ara o te tika, i te ara o te mārama.

Ki te tohe te tangata mō te tohe noa te take he aha te hua ka puta? He tino kore nei! Engari ki te tohe te tangata kia puta ai ia ki te whai ao, kia whiwhi rānei i tāna i pai ai, kātahi te hua ka puta.

Kāti, kia hoki noa ake ki te kōrero a ngā kaumātua, arā, 'He hē anō te hē, he tika anō te tika.

Waiho i konei, kia kitea ai ka pēheatia te reo e te hunga ako, engari ki te rongu au e hē mai ana ko tāku he kī noa atu, 'E me pēnei kē', ā, ki te kī mai tērā, 'E, kei te takahi koe i tōku mana', ko tāku atu 'E, kei te kōhuru, kei te tūkinu koe i tōku reo.'

Me mutu i konei. Whakatika rānei, kōrero Pākehā kē rānei engari me mutu te kōhuru, te tūkinu!

My ears and I have heard the claim "You are trampling on my self-esteem" being heard more often when the grammatical errors in the language of communication are corrected.

It is those who have little knowledge of the correct and appropriate structures of the language who are making the claim that their esteem is being 'trampled on'.

Those who are learning need to listen to the way in which fluent speakers structure their language because it is by following fluent speakers that those who are less fluent, those who are unsure, those who do not know, will learn.

Who among us was not corrected by someone more fluent, no matter what the topic? Who?

What purpose is served by being offended at being corrected by someone more fluent than you? Will the person who was corrected become more competent?

That is not likely, ignorance will continue to be his companion, because the ears did not pay attention in the first instance, because 'wheke kuri' will still be the guide in the second instance, grievance or ill-feeling will be a companion in the third instance but I must make it clear that if a person behaves in this way, he /she will never become fluent no matter what.

My own response to the claim regarding the undermining of self-esteem, is to say, "You are treating my language badly, you are killing my language. If you wish to have this as your language, make sure it is correct, listen to those who are fluent and their reminders 'it is said like this, or it is said like that' but don't become fretful, don't become angry".

To return to the statement, 'A mistake is still a mistake'. There is no question about this.

Those of you who are learning, you who are aiming at pursuing our language so that it will not die, so that it may remain a living language, you must be congratulated but we must be aware of levels of proficiency, if these are not being attained, then make this attainment an objective, that is, listen carefully, say nothing except to seek clarification as to why it is like this, or like that. There is a time for talking, a time for silence, for holding back from talking.

We all need to know when or what to aim at. Once that is achieved, we are on the right path, on an enlightened path.

What is the benefit if one argues for the sake of argument? There is none. But if one argues for the purpose of gaining more knowledge, or to acquire what one desires, then there is a benefit.

So that aside, to return to what our elders say 'Wrong is wrong. Right is right'.

Leave that matter here for the present so that the progress of language learners can be observed but should I hear the use of incorrect language, my reaction will be to say, 'This is the correct way to say that', and if the reaction is 'You are trampling my esteem', my response will be, 'You are mistreating, you are violating my language'.

Let us finish here. Correct your language or speak English but stop the abuse, stop the violation.

Appendix 7.1: Examples of coherence and cohesion

The notion of coherence refers to text that is linked in meaningful ways that make sense, whereas cohesion attempts to identify grammatical/ lexical links within that text as shown in the following examples. My own thoughts are added in square brackets.

Concepts	Examples in English and Māori	Definitions
Coherence	<p>A: <i>Could you give me a lift home?</i></p> <p>B: <i>No, I'm visiting my sister.</i></p> <p>Māu hoki au e hari atu ki te kāinga?</p> <p>Kao, kei te toro kē atu au ki taku tuahine.</p>	<p>There is no grammatical or lexical link in the dialogue between A and B but the exchange has coherence because both A and B know that B's sister lives in the opposite direction to A's home.</p> <p><i>Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 85.</i></p> <p>[The meaning is immediately elicited and understood from the conversation in the context in which it is given. There is an element of shared comprehensible and background knowledge between A and B.]</p>
Cohesion	<p>A: Is <i>Jenny</i> <u>coming</u> to the party?</p> <p>B: Yes, <i>she</i> <u>is</u>.</p>	<p>There is a grammatical or a lexical link between <i>Jenny</i></p>

	<p>Kei te <u>haere mai</u> a <i>Tini</i> ki te pāti? Āe, koia <i>ia</i>.</p>	<p>and <i>she</i> and <i>coming</i> and <i>is</i> showing anaphoric and predicate links. [It is difficult to determine the verb <i>is</i> in the answer, so no attempt is made, needs further investigation.]</p>
	<p>If you are going to <u>London</u>, I can give you the address of a good hotel <u>there</u>. Ki te haere koe ki <u>Rānana</u>, kei te mōhio hoki au ki tētahi hōtēra pai ki <u>reira</u>.</p>	<p>In this sentence, there is an anaphoric link between <i>London</i> and <i>there</i>. <i>Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 86.</i></p>