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Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

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The School of Māori and Pacific Development

He Puna Kōrero - Journal of Maori & Pacific Development

Call for Papers

He Puna Kōrero: Journal of Maori and Pacific Development (JMPD) seeks manuscripts in all areas of Māori and Pacific Development, including manuscripts which report on research on the political, social, cultural, linguistic and educational development of Māori and Pacific peoples. In addition, we are interested in receiving short creative literary works, including songs and poems, as well as notification of conferences and meetings and book reviews. For more information, see *Information for Contributors* at the end of this issue. All submissions are subject to blind peer review by two referees.

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TE PUĀWAITANGA O TE PUAWĀNANGA

EDITORIAL

Dr Winifred Crombie started *He Puna Kōrero: Journal of Maori and Pacific Development* in 2000 and acted as production editor until the end of 2009. When we heard that, after producing 19 issues, she believed that it was time for her to move on to other things, we decided, along with a group of colleagues, that the next two issues should be dedicated to her in recognition of the enormous amount of time and effort she has, over many years, dedicated to supporting the academic efforts of others, particularly PhD students and post-doctoral fellows. Each of the contributors to these two issues has personal experience of the excellence of her research supervision. Each of us has benefitted from the outstanding model she has provided and many of us have gone on to become involved ourselves in research supervision.

Winifred describes herself as 'an old fashioned socialist'. This is something that drives not only her approach to academic work but also her approach to every other aspect of her life. She has no time for the neoliberal philosophy that has led to a situation in which universities have, she believes, lost their way, celebrating personal ambition rather than genuine collegiality, and preferring outputs, however trivial, to effective outcomes that make a genuine difference to the lives of those who are least privileged. Her interest in ideas is wide-ranging and her reading spans many different disciplines, including philosophy, politics, psychology, history, economics, sociology, art and literary theory as well as linguistics and applied linguistics. That she has never felt it necessary to confine herself to one particular academic area is evidenced in the range of her publications, which focus on various aspects of language analysis (including *intra*- and *inter*-propositional relations, phonology, syntax and genre), literary stylistics (including free verse and 17th century prose style), critical discourse analysis, and language teaching and learning (including all aspects of the curriculum).

Her approach to supervision, in common with all other aspects of her life, is driven by a personal philosophy that is underpinned by a deeply embedded belief in justice, equity and fairness. Over the past few years, she has supervised research projects by students from a wide range of backgrounds whose interests span a number of different academic disciplines. Among the PhD research projects she has successfully overseen are projects in the areas of intonation (Martin Parker), genre and language teaching and learning (Brian Paltridge; Ian Bruce; Lin, Hsiu-Chen; Ngaere Houia-Roberts), the teaching and learning of languages in New Zealand (Diane Johnson), the teaching of languages to young learners in Taiwan (Wang, Wei-Pei; Yu, Jui-Fang), the impact of globalization on English language education in Taiwan (Her, Jia-Huey), the teaching of English and business writing in tertiary institutions in Thailand (Pimporn Chandee; Parichat Sarayarntanawut), case roles and discourse relations from a Māori language perspective (Hēmi Whaanga), formulaic discourse patterning in Māori mōteatea (Raukura Roa), the concept of development in Ulawa in Solomon Islands and its implications for national policy and planning (Frederick Rohorua), the ecology and historical management of harakeke by Māori (Priscilla Wehi), and the negotiation of bureaucracy in the management and administration of a marae (Adelaide Collins). Among the PhD students she is currently supervising are students working in the area of language syllabus and curriculum design (Anthea Fester), the impact of the

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages within and outside of Europe (Philippe Valax), contrastive studies of writing in English and Chinese (Huang-Wu, Hsiao-li), theory and practice in the translation of documents from Māori into English and English into Māori (Jillian Tipene; Tom Roa), Māori language regeneration (Murray Peters), language policy and planning and Māori language (Roger Lewis), the teaching and learning of Māori in Aotearoa (Sophie Nock; Nātana Takurua), Hawaiian in Hawai'i (Keao NeSmith), English in Japan (Keiko Umeda), and German in Taiwan (Jörg Parchwitz). All of the people involved, including many more of those she has taught and supervised over the years, can testify to the fact that she is always prepared to go the extra distance, never putting herself first and always being ready with offers of additional help in the form of accommodation, transportation, loans (furniture, books, bedding, money), assistance with writing academic books and articles and, above all, that ever-present encouragement that is founded in her belief in the ability of others, particularly in that of those who have had to overcome obstacles in order to pursue research in which they have a genuine interest.

Although we are aware that, over the years, Winifred has sometimes, in order to keep this journal going, submitted articles to it that she has co-authored, even though she believed that they would have been more appropriately placed elsewhere, we asked her, one last time, to write an article for this journal. After some thought, she decided to combine two different pieces, one of which was delivered as a keynote address in Taiwan a few years ago. The resulting article, in which she explores some of the problems associated with the growing popularity in Pacific and Pacific Rim countries of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*, appears first. It is followed by an article by Brian Paltridge, Professor of TESOL at the University of Sydney, on the notions of discourse elements, discourse relations and semantic relations in the context of the teaching of English for academic purposes. Next is an article by Martin Parker, University of Bahrain, on the names of two main islands of Aotearoa/ New Zealand. An article by Ian Bruce, Senior Lecturer in linguistics and applied linguistics, at the University of Waikato in New Zealand, follows. In that article, Bruce reviews the application of genre theory to the classification of texts in six landmark studies with particular reference to the issue of construct validity. We contributed the final two articles ourselves. The first of these (Diane Johnson) explores *inter*-propositional relations as a tool for textual analysis in the context of reading comprehension; the second (Hēmi Whaanga) explores the signaling of *intra*-propositional relational meanings in te reo Māori.

The next issue of the journal will feature articles by current PhD students and recent PhD graduates.

Diane Johnson and Hēmi Whaanga

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Should Pacific and Pacific Rim countries get on board the bandwagon?

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Abstract

For many bureaucrats, the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) has an almost irresistible appeal. All that users have to do, apparently, is read its approximately 200 pages (plus appendices) and they will "find . . . all [they] need to describe [their] objectives, methods and products" (Council of Europe (CoE), p. xii). Having done that, they will be in a position to "overcome the barriers to communication . . . arising from . . . different educational systems" and "facilitate . . . mobility through . . . mutual recognition of qualifications" (p. 1). The CEFR has some very influential advocates, both within and outside of Europe. Investment in it is extensive in some areas of the world. It emerges out of an organisation whose ethical credentials are beyond question, one that has been responsible for some interesting innovations in the area of language education. In such a context, it is not surprising that many countries outside of Europe, including Pacific and Pacific Rim countries, are developing an interest in it. On the basis of a close reading of the CEFR, this article concludes that it has considerably less to offer than it claims and, therefore, advises language educators in Pacific and Pacific Rim countries, particularly those involved in the teaching of indigenous languages, to be extremely cautious about adopting the approaches it recommends too readily.

General introduction

When I was first asked to provide an article for this issue of *He Puna Kōrero*, I had some difficulty in deciding what type of focus would be appropriate. *He Puna Kōrero* highlights issues associated with Māori and Pacific Development and the articles it has featured since its inception have covered many different topic areas. However, a recurring theme has been that of language teaching and learning. So far as many Pacific countries are concerned, an important aspect of development is the maintenance/ revival of indigenous languages, something that often necessarily involves teaching some of these languages in classroom settings. So far as many Pacific Rim countries are concerned, an important aspect of development, particularly economic development, is the teaching of languages that are widely used internationally. Although there are significant differences between these two situations, what they have in common is that the issues that need to be addressed often arise out of an overall context in which globalization (including widespread neoliberalism) is exerting a powerful influence.

There is a steady "shift towards the perception of language as a technical skill and marketable commodity . . . [that] is having a profound impact on language teaching and learning" (Heller, 2002, p. 47). People expect to get what they pay for. Since the cost of education is high, they expect the returns to be high. In other words, they tend to equate expected outcomes with financial input rather than with the input associated with intellectual effort. However, learning languages to any reasonable level of proficiency involves sustained effort over a long period of time. It is not something

that can be rushed and it is not something that can be accommodated readily in a context in which teaching and learning are so often 'chunked' into smaller and smaller packages that are assessed independently of one another. And yet this is what language teachers are almost obliged to do at a time when "[the] wider frameworks and disciplinary knowledges [are being] swept aside in favour of more pragmatic and fragmentary approaches to knowledge" (Graddol, 2006, p. 72). As Her (2007, p. 71) has noted:

> In the context of ongoing dispute about the nature of the language syllabus, about methodology and materials, and with more and more areas competing for inclusion in the curriculum, there is, inevitably, a climate of confusion among language educators . . . and a tendency towards greater and greater specialization which can result in curriculum fragmentation. This can, in itself, lead to a loss of that essential core which is characteristic of language education as opposed to language training.

Kubota (2001, p. 13) has observed that"[while] globalization projects the image of diversity, it also implies cultural homogenization by global standardization". Ramirez and Boli (1987) have referred to the pervasive influence of 'mass curricula' and Benavot, Cha, Kamens, Meyer and Wong (1991, p. 97) have noted that such curricula are "directly defined and prescribed through the influence of international organizations [and]. . . through the models provided by dominant nation-states". So far as language teaching is concerned, there is increasing pressure throughout the world to conform to the same standards, procedures and practices, generally ones that are recommended by the small group of academics who effectively control much of the publication and dissemination of language-related research and language teaching materials. Although Canagarajah (2005, p. 9) has noted that "[the] local has negotiated, modified, and absorbed the global in its own way", it may have often done so at considerable cost.

To make matters even more complex, although there have in recent years been "frequent paradigm shifts in the field of second and foreign language teaching [they] have not resulted in significant progress in language learning" (Sheen, 1994, p. 127). Canagarajah (2006) has observed that although "we now have a plethora of theoretical positions and philosophical assumptions" (p. 28) and although "[scholars] may sometimes have fun with this plurality of assumptions and practices . . . teachers . . . want to know what options these new trends suggest for teaching on Monday morning" (p. 29).

The pressures on language teachers are in many ways similar to those experienced by teachers of other subjects. These include problems associated with the commodification and fragmentation of knowledge, the centralization of the curriculum and the increasingly high expectations of students and other stakeholders. For language teachers, these problems are, however, compounded by the fact that externally imposed orthodoxies to which they are often expected to conform may sometimes be subject to the phenomenon of 'semantic drift', that is, they may be subject to a bewildering array of different interpretations by different people at different times.

It is in this context that it is important to consider the impact of the work of the Council of Europe in the area of the teaching and learning of languages, particularly as that impact is no longer confined to Europe but can be detected in a wide range of Pacific and Pacific Rim countries.

Introduction to the *European Framework of Reference for Languages*

Readers of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* (CEFR) (CoE, 2001) are assured that they will find in that document "all [they] need to describe [their] objectives, methods and products" (p. xii), and, having done so, will be in a position to "overcome the barriers to communication . . . arising from . . . different educational systems" and "facilitate . . . mobility through . . . mutual recognition of qualifications" (p. 1). It is therefore hardly surprising that, in a context in which the neoliberal agenda pervades education, the CEFR appears to have such an irresistible appeal for educational bureaucrats around the world, not only those operating from within Europe (see Alderson, 2007, p. 662; Trim in Saville, 2004, p. 282). This, together with the fact that so many billions of euros (and, of course, pounds, dollars, yuan, etc.) have already been spent, both directly and indirectly, on issues associated with the CEFR, means that any fundamental criticism of it tends to be ignored or rejected. Thus, for example, Little (2007, p. 650), notes that scepticism about the European Language Portfolio is particularly in evidence in the case of those "who are unfamiliar with pedagogical approaches calculated to develop learner autonomy" and, in doing so, effectively undermines critics of the Portfolio. This may be one of the reasons why there has been comparatively little fundamental criticism of the CEFR in published books and articles. This does not, of course, mean that there has been no criticism of the CEFR. However, with some notable exceptions, much of that criticism has been couched in a way that suggests that the problems identified are not fundamental ones. Thus, for example, although even some of those who are generally positive about the CEFR have admitted that it is neither transparent nor user-friendly, it has sometimes been suggested that this is really simply a matter of failure on the part of the authors to adjust to the needs of their readers, something that can be resolved through further explanation (see, for example, Morrow, 2004). The implication is that the CEFR is, perhaps, too sophisticated for the average palate. The argument here, based largely on a close reading of the CEFR itself, is that the CEFR actually lacks sophistication and, in particular, lacks definitional adequacy in some critical areas and therefore (as a result of its opacity, inconsistency, incoherence and lack of necessary elaboration) cannot deliver on its claims and should be approached with caution.

Is the CEFR transparent, consistent, coherent and comprehensive?

It is noted near the beginning of the CEFR that it "aims to be not only comprehensive, transparent and coherent, but also open, dynamic and non-dogmatic" (CoE, 2001, p. 18). What is meant, in the context of the CEFR, by transparency, coherence and comprehensiveness? This is what the CEFR itself has to say about the first two (CoE, 2001, p. 7):

> By 'transparent' is meant that information must be clearly formulated and explicit, available and readily comprehensible to users.

> By 'coherent' is meant that the description is free from internal contradictions. With regard to educational systems, coherence requires that there is a harmonious relation among their components.

So far as comprehensiveness is concerned, the following passage occurs in the body of the text (CoE, 2001, p. 7):

> By 'comprehensive' is meant that the Common European Framework should attempt to specify as full a range of language knowledge, skills and use as possible . . . and that all users should be able to describe their objectives, etc., by reference to it.

In *Notes for the user* (CoE, 2001, p. xii), we find:

> A further word may be useful in respect of 'comprehensive'. This means that you should find in it all you need to describe your objectives, methods and products.

Also in the user notes, comprehensiveness is contrasted with exhaustiveness (CoE, 2001, p. xiii):

> Neither the categories nor the examples claim to be exhaustive. If you want to describe a specialised area, you may well need to sub-categorise further than the present classification goes.

These claims have not escaped criticism, particularly in so far as the wording of many of the descriptors included in the CEFR is concerned (see, for example, Weir, 2005, pp. 1 & 282). In focusing at this point on some of these descriptors, I am not claiming to add anything particularly new. I do, however, believe that it is necessary to begin by demonstrating some of the problems associated with these descriptors because these problems inevitably have implications for the CEFR project as a whole.

First, I would like to focus on descriptors that appear under the heading of 'coherence' in *Table 3* of the CEFR.

A1 : Can link words or groups of words with *very basic linear* connectors like 'and' or ' then'.

A2 : Can link groups of words with *simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'*.

B1 : Can link a series of *shorter*, discrete *simple elements* into a connected, *linear sequence* of points.

B2 : Can use *a limited number of* cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear, coherent discourse though there may be some *'jumpiness'* in a long contribution.

C1 : Can produce clear, *smoothly flowing*, well-structured speech showing controlled used of organisational patterns, *connectors and cohesive devices*.

C2 : Can create coherent and cohesive discourse making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of *connectors and other cohesive devices*. [italics added]

Although there is a great deal that could be said about these particular descriptors, I shall confine myself here to a few observations.

Although the descriptors in the CEFR are intended to be applicable to languages in general rather than to any particular language. there are repeated references in the descriptors to English, as in the case of the inclusion of 'and', 'then', 'but' and 'because' in the descriptors above. Furthermore, although they can be used as simple additive or contrastive markers, 'and' and 'but' (described respectively as 'very basic' and 'simple' connectors) are two of the most complex conjunctions in English, both structurally and functionally. Indeed, their multi-functionality means that each of them can occur in a wide range of very different contexts. A similar point could be made with reference to 'then' and 'because'. 'Then' is generally (but not always) a marker of chronological sequence and 'because' of reason. Typically associated with each are particular tense/ aspect sequences. 'Then' is introduced here at Common Reference Level A1. However, the global descriptor for that level (CoE, 2001, p.24) does not indicate a context in which the use of 'then' would be likely to be appropriate:

> Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/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.

One possible use of 'then' that would be broadly consistent with this global descriptor is in the context of sequential instructions (e.g. *Do X and then do Y*). However, although reference is made to questions and answers in the A1 global descriptor, there is no reference to instructions. What we have here is an issue that relates not only to transparency, but also to coherence and, specifically, to internal consistency. With reference to this, it is relevant to point out that the descriptors in focus at this point appear under the heading of 'coherence' rather than 'cohesion' and so we would expect the emphasis to be on coherence (e.g. additive or contrastive meanings) rather than on cohesive devices such as conjunctions.

The terminological confusion does not end there. The C1 descriptor above refers to 'connectors *and* cohesive devices'; the C2 descriptor refers to 'connectors *and other* cohesive devices'. The first suggests that connectors are not themselves cohesive devices; the second clearly indicates that they are.

Add to all of this the fact that the B1 descriptor makes little sense as it is currently worded and the difficulty of determining what might be intended by the inclusion of the word 'linear' in the A1 descriptor, 'jumpiness' in the B2 descriptor and 'organisational patterns' in the C2 descriptor, and it would be difficult to avoid the conclusion that the CEFR is not as transparent as it claims to be.

Problems associated with the descriptors in Table 3 of the CEFR that appear under the heading of 'coherence' are compounded when we compare them with descriptors that appear under the sub-heading of 'coherence and cohesion' in a table that occurs under the general heading of 'pragmatic competences' (CoE, 2001, p. 125). The two sets of descriptors are listed side-by-side in *Table 1* below:

***Table 1**: Comparison of a Table and a segment of a Table that occur in the CEFR*

	Extract from Table 3 (qualitative aspects of spoken language use – coherence) (CEFR, pp. 28-29)	***Table occurring under the heading of 'pragmatic competences' and the sub-heading of 'coherence and cohesion' (CEFR, p. 125)***
A1	Can link words or groups of words with very basic liner connectors like 'and' or 'then'.	Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like 'and' or 'then'.
A2	Can link groups of words with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'.	Can link words or groups of words with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'.
		Can use the most frequently occurring connectors to link simple sentences in order to tell a story of describe something as a simple list of points.
B1	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected, linear sequence of points.	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected, linear sequence of points.
B2	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear, coherent discourse though there may be some 'jumpiness' in a long contribution.	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear, coherent discourse, though there may be some 'jumpiness' in a long contribution.
		Can use a variety of linking words efficiently to mark clearly the relationships between ideas.
C1	Can produce clear, smoothly flowing, well-structured speech showing controlled used of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.	Can produce clear, smoothly flowing, well structured speech, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
C2	Can create coherent and cohesive discourse making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of connectors and other cohesive devices.	Can create coherent and cohesive text making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of cohesive devices.

The only difference between the entries in the two sides of the table above is that two descriptors have been added in the right hand column (presumably representing A2+ and B2+ or 'good' A2 and B2 performances). This raises some significant questions, including the following:

- Why are what are essentially the same descriptors treated under the heading of 'coherence' (under the general heading of 'qualitative aspects of spoken language use') in one case and 'coherence and cohesion' (under the general heading of 'pragmatic competences') in another?

- Why, in both cases, are conjunctions in English singled out for special mention in some of the descriptors?

- Why, in particular, do what are referred to as 'connectors and cohesive devices' appear under the heading of 'coherence' (where one might expect the emphasis to be on, for example, textual relations)?

Printed below are two extracts from the CEFR. The first appears in a section dealing with assessment (CoE, p. 181); the second in an appendix (p. 206):

> [It] is a weakness of the majority of existing scales that the descriptors are often negatively worded at lower levels. . . . They also make purely verbal distinctions between levels by replacing one or two words in adjacent descriptions which then have little meaning outside the co-text of the scale.
>
> [S]ince the 1940s, it has been a principle that distinctions between steps on a scale should not be dependent on replacing a qualifier like 'some' or 'a few' with 'many' or 'most' or by replacing 'fairly broad' with 'very broad' or 'moderate' with 'good' at the next level up.

Do the authors of the CEFR avoid problems such as this, problems that are inevitably associated with issues of transparency? Some of the descriptors relating to 'accuracy' in Table 3 of the CEFR (CoE, 2001, pp. 28 & 29) are listed below (with italics added to indicate sections that are particularly relevant to the discussion at this point):

A1 : Shows *only limited control* of *a few simple* grammatical structures and sentence patterns in a memorised repertoire.
A2 : Uses *some simple structures* correctly, but still *systematically makes basic mistakes*.
B1: Uses *reasonably accurately* a repertoire of frequently used 'routines' and patterns associated with more predictable situations.
B2 : Shows *a relatively high degree of grammatical control*. Does not make errors which cause misunderstanding, and can correct most of his/her mistakes.

There are here instances of what might be regarded as negative wording. There are also quantifiers that lack specificity: *limited* control; *some simple* structures; *reasonably* accurately; *a relatively high* degree of grammatical control. There are other problems associated with these descriptors. Is reference to a 'memorised repertoire' in A1 intended to indicate that use is made *only* of memorised chunks of language? Apparently not in that reference is made under the heading of 'fluency' in Table 3 (A1) to '*mainly* pre-packaged utterances'. This being the case, the distinction between 'a few' (A1) and 'some' (A2) appears to be critical.

Is there intended to be a difference between 'mistakes' (referred to in A2 and B2) and 'errors' (referred to in B2)? In a later section of the CEFR (CoE, 2001, p. 155), 'errors' are said to involve "a simplified or distorted representation of the target competence" that have "characteristics different from L2 norms". Mistakes, on the other hand, are said to "occur in performance when a user/learner (as might be the case with a native speaker) does not bring his competences properly into action". Bearing in mind these definitions, it is odd that the word 'systematically' is associated with 'mistakes' in the A2 descriptor above.

Finally, is it true that learners at the level represented by B2 do not typically make 'errors that cause misunderstanding'?

At this point, it is useful to examine some other descriptors. A number of illustrative tables are provided under the heading of what are referred to as 'productive activities and strategies'. Once again, the descriptors included in these tables raise a number of issues and questions. For example, in the table headed 'sustained monologue:

describing experience' (CoE, 2001, p. 59), the descriptors for C1 and C2 are as follows:

> **C1**: Can give clear, detailed description of complex subjects.
>
> Can give elaborate descriptions and narratives, integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.
>
> **C2**: Can give clear, smoothly flowing, elaborate and often memorable descriptions.

The distinction between these two descriptors appears to rest on the inclusion of 'smoothly flowing' and 'often memorable' in C2. It is, however, difficult to see why memorability is considered to be relevant in this context, especially as what one person might regard as memorable, another might regard as trite. Furthermore, there are occasions on which a sustained monologue may be more effective as a result of calculated pauses, pauses that are designed to disrupt the flow of speech so as to encourage listeners to focus on specific aspects of what is being presented. We are, after all, talking about the highest level, C2, at this point.

Comparing the descriptors to which reference has just been made (with one addition) with those for A1, C1 and C2 in the table headed 'creative writing' (CoE, 2001, p. 62) reveals some further issues associated with transparency and coherence. The two sets of descriptors are presented side-by-side in *Table 2* below.

***Table 2**: Comparison of descriptors that appear under two different headings in the CEFR*[1]

	Extract from a table headed 'sustained monologue: describing experience' (under the general heading ''productive activities and strategies') (CEFR, p. 59)	***Extract from a table headed 'creative writing' (under the general heading 'written production') (CEFR, p. 62)***
A1	Can describe him/herself, what he/she does and where he/she lives.	Can write simple phrases and sentences about themselves and imaginary people, where they live and what they do.
C1	Can give clear, detailed description of complex subjects. Can give elaborate descriptions and narratives, integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.	Can write clear, detailed, well-structured and developed descriptions and imaginative texts in an assured, personal, natural style appropriate to the reader in mind.
C2	Can give clear, smoothly flowing, elaborate and often memorable descriptions.	Can write clear, smoothly flowing and fully engrossing stories and descriptions of experience in a style appropriate to the genre adopted.

It is only the inclusion of the word 'imaginary' in the A1 descriptor relating to 'creative writing' that differentiates it from the A1 descriptor headed 'sustained monologue: describing experience' (and, for that matter from several other A1 descriptors). This raises the question of redundancy. More importantly, in terms of relevant competences, it is relevant to note that it matters little, if at all, whether

learners describe actual people or imaginary ones, the reference here to 'imaginary people' appearing therefore to have little function other than to fill out what would otherwise be a gap in the descriptors.

In the case of the C1 'creative writing' descriptor, the only 'creative' aspect is a reference to 'imaginative' texts. After all, 'an assured, personal, natural style appropriate to the reader in mind' (whatever a 'natural style' is) surely need not necessarily be associated with creative writing. There are also other aspects of this descriptor that do not bear close examination. What, after all, is a 'developed' description'? If a user of a language somehow less competent if he or she lacks imagination? Doesn't all of this simply divert attention from the core business of language teaching and learning?

It has already been observed with reference to the C2 descriptor relating to 'sustained monologue: describing experience' that the interpretation of the word 'memorable' is problematic. The same could be said with reference to 'fully engrossing' in the C2 descriptor relating to 'creative writing'.

In the case of both C2 descriptors, one referring to speech, the other to writing, we encounter the phrase 'smoothly flowing', a phrase that is even more difficult to interpret when applied to writing. It may be intended to relate in some way to coherence and/or cohesion. It is simply not possible to tell.

It is noted in the CEFR that "[entries] at each level describe selectively what is seen as salient or new at that level" (CoE, 2001, p. 37). The C1 descriptor relating to 'creative writing' makes reference to 'a style . . . appropriate to the readers in mind'; the C2 descriptor makes reference to 'a style appropriate to the genre adopted'. Presumably, therefore, 'genre' is intended to be salient in the case of the C2 descriptor. There are at least two problems here. First, the word 'genre' can be interpreted in a variety of different ways. Secondly, however we interpret the word 'genre', it is difficult to imagine a text being appropriate to 'the readers in mind' that is not also appropriate in terms of genre.

So far as recent research literature is concerned, there are two main uses of the word 'genre'. One relates to what have been termed 'social genres' (Swales, 1990); the other relates to what have been termed 'elemental genres' (Hyland, 2007) or 'cognitive genres' (Bruce, 2003). Both are clearly relevant from the very early stages of language learning. Both are fundamental to the concept of an appropriate style. Inclusion of the word 'genre' in the C2 descriptor does not therefore provide a useful way of discriminating between C1 and C2 in the case of 'creative writing'.

In connection with the few examples of descriptors to which reference has been made, it is relevant to draw attention to the following extract from the CEFR (CoE, 2001, p.1):

> The taxonomic nature of the Framework inevitably means trying to handle the great complexity of human language by breaking language competence down into separate components. *This confronts us with psychological and pedagogical problems of some depth* [emphasis added].

In view of the problems associated with the descriptors to which reference has already been made, the second sentence of the extract above seems to be something of an under-statement.

It was noted above that the word 'genre' can be used in a number of different ways. This is relevant to the treatment of what are referred to as 'microfunctions' and 'macrofunctions' (treated in the CEFR under the heading of 'communicative language competences' and the sub-heading of 'functional competences'). Microfunctions and macrofunctions are defined in the CEFR as follows (CoE, 2001, pp. 125 & 126):

> Microfunctions are categories for the functional use of single (usually short) utterances, usually as turns in an interaction.
>
> Macrofunctions are categories for the functional use of spoken discourse or written text consisting of a (sometimes extended) sequence of sentences.

The segments in parentheses are generally true but largely unhelpful in definitional terms. What of the other aspects of these definitions? Anyone who is familiar with literature on genre and speech act theory, is likely to have a problem with them. Why, for example, are microfunctions associated particularly with turns in an interaction? Why is reference made to 'utterances' in the first definition and to 'sentences' in the second? The implication seems to be that microfunctions are confined to spoken discourses, something that is certainly not the case (unless we are referring to that particular category of microfunction that is related to turn-taking (see, for example, Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Coulthard & Brazil, 1981)).

So far as 'macrofunctions' are concerned, the following list is supplied: *description; narration; exposition; exegesis, explanation, demonstration, instruction, argumentation, persuasion, etc.* (CoE, 2001, p.126). This list includes some categories that could be said to be representative of elemental or cognitive genres (e.g. *description, narration, explanation* and *argumentation*).[2] However, it also includes items that seem to be different in kind. Thus, for example, 'persuasion' would not generally be recognized as a cognitive or elemental genre (which appears to be what is meant in the context of the CEFR by 'macrofunctions'). After all, specific instances of a number of different cognitive/elemental genres may or may not be intended to be persuasive. Why, then, is persuasion included in the list?

Another issue arises out of the occurrence of *etc*. at the end of the list of 'macrofunctions'. It is noted in the CEFR that "[if] users of the Framework wish to exploit the descriptor bank, they will need to take a view on the question of what to do about gaps in the descriptors provided (CoE, 2001, p. 37). This is certainly true. However, they will also need to need to take a view on confusing definitions and on lists that appear to be made up of items that do not necessarily belong together and are, in any case, incomplete. Even if the term 'macrofunction' were clearly defined and followed by an appropriate list (whose membership was explained and justified), it would be somewhat optimistic to maintain that that list could make much contribution to the provision of "all that [we] need to describe [our] objectives, methods and products" (CoE, 2001, p. xii). If it were to do so, it would need to be accompanied by a clear and detailed discussion of cognitive genre and its impact on

linguistic selection as well as an indication of how this information could contribute to the teaching and learning of languages.

Bearing all of this in mind, it would be difficult not to agree with Alderson's (2007, p. 661) judgment that the CEFR is "all too frequently couched in language that is not easy to understand, often vague, undefined, and imprecise".

Is the CEFR open and non-dogmatic?

The CEFR makes a virtue of what it presents as its open and flexible positioning (CoE, 2001, p. 18):

> In accordance with the basic principles of pluralist democracy, the Framework aims to be not only comprehensive, transparent and coherent, but also open, dynamic and non-dogmatic. For that reason *it cannot take up a position on one side or another of current theoretical disputes on the nature of language acquisition and its relation to language learning* . . . [emphasis added]

The extract above extracts suggests that the reason why the CEFR does not (apparently) position itself theoretically is that it cannot afford to do so for political reasons. This would appear to be in conflict with a later extract in which a very different reason is provided (CoE, 2001, p. 21):

> The description needs to be based on theories of language competence. This is difficult to achieve *because the available theory and research is inadequate to provide a basis for such a description*. *Nevertheless, the categorization and description needs to be theoretically grounded*. In addition, whilst relating to theory, *the description must also remain user-friendly – accessible to practitioners*. It should encourage them to think further about what competence means in their context. [italics added]

It is interesting to speculate on how a work can 'relate to theory' and be 'theoretically grounded' at the same time as being absent of theoretical positioning. Closer inspection, however, raises doubts about the CEFR's claim not to take a position on one side or the other of current theoretical disputes.

Before looking in more detail at the CEFR's claim to theoretical neutrality, it is relevant to explore its claim to adopt a neutral stance on methodology. It is noted in the CEFR (CoE, 2001, p. 142) that "[t]he approach to the methodology of learning and teaching has to be comprehensive, presenting all options in an explicit and transparent way and avoiding advocacy and dogmatism". Nevertheless, readers are left in no doubt about the authors' stance. They are advised (CoE, p. 142) that:

> For many years the Council of Europe has promoted an approach based on the communicative needs of learners and the use of materials and methods that will enable learners to satisfy these needs and which are appropriate to their characteristics as learners.

Even so, practitioners are invited to challenge this stance, if, that is, they have the temerity to challenge what is presented as being 'current orthodoxy' and are open to the possibility of what is referred to as 'lively debate' (CoE, 2001, p.142):

> If there are practitioners who upon reflection are convinced that the objectives appropriate to the learners towards whom they have responsibilities are best pursued by methods other than those advocated elsewhere by the Council of Europe, then we should like them to say so, to tell us and others of the methods they use and the objectives they pursue. This might lead to a wider understanding of the complex diversity of the world of language education, or to lively debate, which is always preferable to simple acceptance if a current orthodoxy merely because it is an orthodoxy.

In a section headed *How do learners learn?* (CEFR, 6.2, pp. 139-140), the CEFR addresses the processes of language learning. In that section, there is a very brief account (approximately half a page in length) of what are presented as two 'polar extremes' between which can be located, according to the authors, the more 'eclectic practices' that are associated with "most 'mainstream' learners, teachers and their support services" (pp. 139 - 140):

> Some theorists believe that the human information-processing abilities are strong enough for it to be sufficient for a human being to be exposed to sufficient understandable language for him/her to acquire the language . . . Others believe that in addition to exposure to comprehensible input, active participation in communicative interaction is a necessary and sufficient condition for language development. They, too, consider that explicit teaching or study of the language is irrelevant. At the other extreme, some believe that students who have learnt the necessary rules of grammar and learnt a vocabulary will be able to understand and use the language in the light of their previous experience and common sense without any need to rehearse. Between these polar extremes, most 'mainstream' learners, teachers and their support services will follow more eclectic practices, recognising that learners do not necessarily learn what teachers teach and that they require substantial contextualized and intelligible language input as well as opportunities to use language interactively, but that learning is facilitated, especially under artificial classroom conditions, by a combination of conscious learning and sufficient practice to reduce or eliminate the conscious attention paid to low-level physical skills of speaking and writing as well as to morphological and syntactic accuracy, thus freeing the mind for high-level strategies of communication. Some (many fewer than previously) believe that this aim may be achieved by drilling to the point of over-learning.

Readers are not provided with any details of what are presented here as two polar extremes or with any indication of why certain beliefs are now generally regarded as being untenable. Furthermore, the second of these 'polar extremes', which is often associated with drilling, is instead associated here with the absence of a need to rehearse. About the favoured approach, the one that is described as being 'eclectic', little of substance is actually communicated, the primary function of the passage appearing to be to ensure that the CEFR is presented as occupying some middle ground between extremes. The reality is, however, that the CEFR is by no means a neutral taxonomy of possibilities. Its theoretical agenda is presented elsewhere (CoE, p. 9):

> [It] views users and learners of a language primarily as 'social agents', i.e. members of society who have tasks (not exclusively language-related) to accomplish *in a given set of circumstances, in a specific environment and within a particular field of action.* [italics added]

Is the approach advocated in the CEFR one that is consistent the construction of a framework intended to be applicable in a wide range of language learning contexts?

The origins of the CEFR lie in early work of the Council of Europe on the development of a 'unit-credit' system that would enable adult learners to gain credit for studying units of work with immediate practical application (see Morrow, 2004b, p. 5). In relation to the development of a unit credit system, a situational approach had initially been favoured by some (Saville, 2005, p. 276). In fact, the overall approach adopted in the CEFR is broadly consistent with this in that it highlights the accomplishment of tasks *in a given set of circumstances, in a specific environment and within a particular field of action.* What does this entail in terms of objectives setting? It is noted in the CEFR (CoE, 2001, pp. 179 & 137) that objectives may be expressed as "a Common Reference Level (e.g. B1)" or "a specific constellation of activities, skills and competences". It is also noted that "[tasks] are normally focused within a given domain and considered as objectives to be achieved in relation to that domain" (p. 137). This is broadly consistent with what Widdowson (1983, p. 18) has referred to as 'language training' (involving a focus on the application of skills/ functional capacity in particular domains) as opposed to 'language education' (where the emphasis is on the development of abilities that allow for transfer across domains). From this perspective, it might be expected that the CEFR would be particularly relevant in the context of courses that focus on 'language for specific purposes' (LSP) or even 'restricted repertoire language' (RRL). However, as Alderson (2007, p.662) has observed, the nature of its descriptors is such that the CEFR is, in fact, not well adapted to specific purposes contexts. However, it does not appear that the CEFR is particularly well adapted to general purpose language courses either, particularly those intended for young learners.

The CEFR was clearly not designed with young learners in mind (as witnessed by the nature of some of its descriptors). However, a project relating to the languages of school education is now under way. As North (2007, p. 658) has indicated, because the language of schooling "would need to situate the development of language competence within the overall cognitive and social development of the children concerned", most of the descriptive scales in the CEFR could prove to be unsuitable. Nevertheless, the authors of the CEFR seem to have raised no objections to attempts to draw on it in a fairly direct way in the design of national curricula for schools. In fact, the following extract from the CEFR (CoE, pp. 168 - 169) would appear to endorse its use in the context of schooling:

> It is generally the case that language teaching in schools has to a large extent tended to stress objectives concerned with either the individual's *general competence* (especially at primary school level) or *communicative language competence* (particularly for those aged between 11 and 16), while courses for adults (students or people already working) formulate objectives in terms of specific *language activities* or functional ability in a particular *domain*. This emphasis, in the case of the former on the construction and development of

> competences, and in the latter case on optimal preparation for activities concerned with functioning in a specific context, corresponds no doubt to the distinct roles of general initial education on the one hand, and specialised and continuing education on the other. In this context, rather than treating these as opposites, the common framework of reference can help to relate these different practices to one another and show that they should in fact be complementary".

There are, according to the CEFR, three types of competence: general competences, communicative language competences and cultural competences (for the last of which there are no descriptors). The development of communicative language competences "which empower a person to act using specifically linguistic means" (CoE, p, 9), is clearly "a central, indispensable aspect of language learning" (p. 149). So far as the authors of the CEFR are concerned, courses designed for learners in schools will focus on communicative language competence in a general sense whereas courses designed for adults may not do so. Instead, the may be based on objectives/activities that are domain-specific. If domain-specific objectives are not applicable in the case of school-based language courses, how should objectives for language teaching in schools be formulated? This is what the CEFR (CoE, 2001, p. 131) has to say on the matter:

> When charting the progress of students through the earlier stages of their general education, at a time when their future career needs cannot be foreseen, or indeed when an overall assessment has to be made of a learner's language proficiency, it may be most helpful and practical to combine a number of . . . categories into a single summary characterization of language ability, as, for instance, in Table 1 presented in Chapter 3.

It would appear, then, that what we are left with is simply those few lines at each 'level' that constitute the global descriptors. It is interesting to speculate on how curriculum designers operating at a national level are intended to relate these to language specifics. On the other hand, perhaps they need not concern themselves with this particular thorny issue. After all, it is noted in the CEFR (CoE, 20021, p. 141) that:

> Authorities, when drawing up curricular guidelines or formulating syllabuses, may concentrate on the specification of learning objectives. In doing so, they may specify only higher-level objectives . . . They are not obliged, although they may wish to do so, to specify in detail the vocabulary, grammar and function/notional repertoires which will enable learners to perform the tasks and treat the themes.

The option of avoiding the issue of how to relate objectives to language specifics may be available to 'authorities'. It is, however, an option that is not available to language teachers.

This leads to one of the most significant issues so far as the CEFR is concerned. It is certainly the case that language learners and language users are social agents with tasks to accomplish. Does it necessarily follow from this that particular 'tasks', 'circumstances', 'environments' and 'fields of action' should play a central role in the

formulation of a framework of reference for the learning, teaching and assessment of languages? If it does, that framework would certainly need to be open-ended and flexible (as the authors of the CEFR claim that it is). However, can an open ended and flexible framework really provide "all [we] need to describe [our] objectives, methods and products" (CoE, 2001, p. xii)? As Hulstijn (2007, p. 666) has noted, "[it] is high time that researchers of SLA, researchers of language assessment, and corpus linguists paid attention to each other's work and engaged in collaborative research, testing the linguistic, psycholinguistic, and sociolinguistic assumptions on which the CEFR rests".

What became the CEFR began as a relatively small-scale project with realistic aims. However, small-scale projects do not necessarily transform readily into large-scale ones, especially in the absence of any fundamental re-conceptualization. If we really do need a framework, perhaps it should be a framework of a very different kind, one, for example, that starts from a consideration of those meanings and textual relations that have cross-linguistic applicability (e.g. possibility, intentionality and temporal sequence)? After all, it *is* possible to relate these to a range of language-specific realizations.

Conclusion

The primary aims of the CEFR, as outlined in the document itself, are to provide readers with "all [they] need to describe [their] objectives, methods and products" (p. xii), and to "overcome the barriers to communication . . . arising from . . . different educational systems" and "facilitate . . . mobility through . . . mutual recognition of qualifications" (p. 1). A few of the reasons why we should be sceptical about its capacity to achieve these aims have been discussed here. Language professionals in Pacific and Pacific Rim countries have much to gain, in general terms, from the CEFR. However, they should think very carefully before adopting it as a framework for the development of curricula.

Endnotes

1. Tables 1 and 2 here also indicate just how repetitive the CEFR descriptors frequently are.

2. These could be linked either to the four categories, based on 'family resemblances', that Quinn (1993, pp. 34-35) identified through an analysis of the needs of students learning academic writing and/ or to the four categories identified by Biber (1989, pp. 34-35) as being typical of academic prose.

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Discourse relations, semantic relations and English in academic settings

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Abstract
This paper describes the use of the notions of *discourse elements, discourse relations* and *semantic relations* in the teaching of English in academic settings. The paper provides an overview of these notions as well as makes suggestions for how they might be drawn on in the teaching of English for academic purposes. Working with these notions can help students create the kinds of texts they need to be able to produce in their courses of study as well as give them strategies they can draw on for reading and writing texts in their future academic and professional lives.

Introduction

Recent years have seen an increase in a focus on discourse in language teaching and learning. There are, for example, a number of overview books on discourse analysis aimed at graduate students and researchers such as Gee's (2005) *An Introduction to Discourse Analysis*, Johnstone's (2007) *Discourse Analysis,* Jaworski and Coupland's (2006) *The Discourse Reader,* Schiffrin, Tannen and Hamilton's (2004) *Handbook of Discourse Analysis*, Martin and Rose's (2007) *Working with Discourse* and Paltridge's (2006) *Discourse Analysis*. There are also books aimed specifically at language teachers such as McCarthy's (1991) *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*, McCarthy and Carter's (1994) *Language as Discourse*, Riggenbach's (1999) and Wennerstrom's (2003) *Discourse Analysis in the Language Classroom,* Celce-Murcia and Olshtain's (2000) *Discourse and Context in Language Teaching* and Thornbury's (2005) *Beyond the Sentence*. Books which focus on discourse analysis for the teaching of English in academic settings are, however, less common. Two books which do touch on this are McCarter and Jakes' (2009) *Uncovering EAP* and Paltridge et al's (2009) *Teaching Academic Writing.*

An example of a student book which takes a discourse view of academic English is *EAP Now!* (Cox & Hill, 2004). This book focuses on a range of spoken and written academic genres such as oral presentations, academic essays and lectures. Other books such as Jordan's (1999) *Academic Writing Course* and Oshima and Hogue's (2006) *Introduction to Academic Writing* draw on discourse patterns such as Problem/Solution, Cause and Effect and Compare and Contrast for the organization of their teaching materials. One view of discourse that has been less explored in the teaching of academic English, however, is the notions of *discourse elements, discourse relations* and *semantic relations* (Crombie, 1985a, 1985b). This article provides an overview of these notions as well as makes suggestions for how they might be drawn on in the teaching of English for academic purposes.

Discourse elements, discourse relations and semantic relations

Discourse elements

Discourse elements refer to divisions in a text "in terms of the way in which their parts function to convey various types or categories of information" (Crombie, 1985a, p. 58) such as Situation and Problem in Situation-Problem-Solution-Evaluation texts

(Crombie, 1985a). Each discourse element "is classified in terms of the communicative function which it performs in relation to the discourse as a whole" (Crombie 1985a, p. 58). A Problem/Solution text, thus, may have four discourse elements: Situation, Problem, Solution and Evaluation.

The notion of discourse elements is not the same, however, as the macrostructure (van Dijk, 1980) of a text. The macrostructure of a text refers to the "higher level semantic and conceptual structures that organise the 'local' microstructures of discourse interaction and their cognitive processing" (van Dijk, 1980, p. v); that is, the "sequences [of a text] which somehow 'belong together" (van Dijk, 1977, p. 152). In scientific reports, for example, this refers to the Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results, Discussion and Conclusion sections of the text. The macrostructure of a text, in fact, represent a further aspect of discourse structure which co-occurs with other discourse structures in a text.

Discourse relations

Discourse relations refers to the relationship between discourse elements, such as, Problem-Solution and Solution-Evaluation in a Problem/Solution text. One discourse element, thus, combines with another discourse element to form a discourse relation. A Problem/Solution text may, thus, have three discourse relations: Situation-Problem, Problem-Solution and Solution-Evaluation. Discourse relations occur in all coherent texts and co-occur with all other discourse structures in the text.

Semantic relations

Semantic relations refer to the relationship between propositions in texts such as *Reason-Result*, *Condition-Consequence* within and between the discourse elements of texts (Crombie, 1985b). These relations are few in number and each of them is classified in terms of the perceptual process involved. Semantic relations, further, are divided into three broad categories, associative, logico-deductive and tempero-contiguity (Crombie, 1987, 1993). These categories and associated relations are listed in *Table 1*. Examples of semantic relations are given in *Table 2*.

Table 1: *Categories of semantic relations (Crombie, 1993)*

Associative relations	**Logico-deductive relations**	**Tempero-contigual relations**
Simple Contrast *Comparative Similarity* *Statement-Affirmation* *Statement-Denial* *Denial-Correction* *Concession-Contraexpectation* *Supplementary Alternation* *Contrastive Alternation* *Paraphrase* *Statement-Exemplification*	*Condition-Consequence* *Means-Purpose* *Means-Purpose* *Reason-Result* *Means-Result* *Grounds-Conclusion*	*Chronological Sequence* *Temporal Overlap* *Bonding*

Table 2: *Semantic relations: Some examples (Crombie, 1985b)*

Relation	Description	Example
Reason-Result	Here, the reason member (which very often follows the result member in English) gives a reason why a particular effect came or will come about.	Agamemnon was pleased because the princes fought.
Statement-Exemplification	Here, the first member provides a general statement and the second adds a proposition (or more than one proposition), which is presented as an exemplification of the general statement of the first member.	Battle always leads to unnecessary savagery. Witness Achilles' treatment of the body of Hector.
Simple Contrast	This relation involves the comparison of two things, events or abstractions in terms of some particular in respect of which they are different.	Paris was a Trojan; Helen, a Greek.
Means-Purpose	In this relation, the purpose member outlines the action that is/was/will be undertaken with the intention of achieving a particular result.	Agamemnon surrendered the girl in order to propitiate Apollo.
Condition-Consequence	In this relation, the consequence is dependent on a realizable or unrealizable condition or on a hypothetical contingency.	If Agamemnon confiscates Brises, (then) Achilles will withdraw.

Semantic relations, thus, describe the relationship between propositions in a text - as opposed to the relationship between clauses. Semantic relations may, equally, hold between two sentences with no conjunctive signaling, such as in the example of a *Reason-Result* relation given by de Beaugrande (1980, p. 37):

1. Peter burned the book. He didn't like it.
   [Result] - [Reason]

which, as de Beaugrande demonstrates, could equally be expressed by :

2. Peter burned the book because he didn't like it.
   [Result] - [Reason]

Semantic relations are, thus, different from clausal and interclausal relations. They are based on propositional rather than grammatical, or linguistic categories. Semantic relations, further, may be implicit or explicit and may be cued and encoded in a large number of different ways (Crombie, 1987). Thus, even though types of semantic relations are few in number, their potential encodings are not.

Figure 1 is an illustration of the statement of aims from a research report analyzed in terms of discourse elements, discourse relations, and semantic relations. Here the statement of aims outlines the problem that the study will aim to solve. It is preceded by the Situation component (the literature review) of the Situation-Problem relation and followed by the Solution relation (the methodology, results and discussion sections of the text) of the Problem-Solution relation. At the same time, this section of the text is the Result component of a *Reason-Result* semantic relation where the

reason for the study is the gap in the literature previously outlined in the review of research in the paper.

Figure 1: *A sample analysis: discourse elements, discourse relations, and semantic relations (based on Fuhrer, Egger, Lehnherr, Grandjean & Tschannen, 1989)*

Discourse elements and relations		**Semantics Relations**
(Situation)		*(Reason)*
- Problem	The objectives of the present study were to examine the yield and grain quality of field-grown cultivars of soft red winter wheat following a simulated air pollution episode during pollination with ozone levels in slight excess of current ESEPA secondary standard for ozone in the atmosphere (120 nLL-1 hourly average not to be exceeded for more than 1 day yr-1).	*- Result*
- (Solution)		

A pedagogic application

One way in which this kind of framework can be drawn on in the teaching of English for academic purposes is to prepare sets of materials that have one of these patterns in common and to draw learners' attention to them in the teaching and learning activities that take place in the classroom. For example, learners can be asked to focus on particular discourse patterns, such as Problem/Solution, to listen and take notes in academic lectures and then to use these notes as the basis for the preparation of other academic genres based on similar organizational patterns, such as a seminar presentation or an academic essay. In this way, the classroom can aim to simulate language use in academic settings where subject area content may be introduced within the context of one genre, the academic lecture, and then drawn on for the preparation of another genres, such as seminar presentations or academic essays.

The starting point for this kind of activity is to choose a short Problem/Solution text in a content area relevant to the students' present or future area/s of study. The teacher takes notes on the text under the categories of Situation, Problem, Solution and Evaluation, as well as under the categories of Reason and Result within the Problem component/s of the text. These notes can then be used to make a video recording of a simulated academic lecture.

To use this material in the classroom, the teacher can prepare a note-taking grid based on the discourse structures that have been identified in the analysis. As the simulated lecture is played to students, they can first take notes under the headings of Situation, Problem, Solution and Evaluation (normally the Conclusion element of the text) and then, during a second playing of the video, take notes under the Reason and Result headings in the worksheet. Students should also, as they watch, be asked to identify ways in which the Reason and Result relations are expressed linguistically. That is, they can be asked to identify how particular elements, such as Reason and Result, is expressed grammatically. They may, for example, identify connectives (such as 'as a

result', 'so' and 'therefore'), nouns (such as 'cause', 'reason' and 'result'), verbs (such as 'leads to' and 'causes') or groups of words that function like prepositions (such as 'because of' and 'due to') etc, depending on how the particular text has been presented.

After this initial analysis, students can be asked to prepare a seminar presentation of their own on a related topic using the same rhetorical structures and then, in turn, to write a Problem/Solution text based on the notes they used for their seminar presentation. *Figure 2* is an example of a student text written during a lesson based on this kind of analysis (see Paltridge, 1995, 1997 for further details of this).

Of course, not all lectures are based on Problem/Solution texts as this lesson might imply. Lectures may also be based on a number of other rhetorical patterns such as Cause and Effect, Compare and Contrast, Description, and Argument etc. Students should, in later lessons, be presented with tasks which focus on these organizational patterns as well. Lectures may also involve a mixing of rhetorical patterns and not always be very neat examples of Problem/Solution, Cause and Effect etc type texts. The texts students write may also include similar mixing of rhetorical patterns.

Figure 2: *A student text*

Discourse relations		**Semantic relations**
Situation	The Kakapo, which is found in the remote and inhospitable south of Stewart Island, is one of New Zealand's mist highly endangered birds.	*Statement-*
	Kakapos are flightless but good climbers, and usually live in native forests, sub-alpine zones. Leave, stems roots and fruit are their main food. They were once described as the	*Amplification*
Problem	most beautiful bird in the world. But nowadays there are only about 50 left.	*Result-*
	Because of developments of human beings such as removing soil and grass, cutting the forest for new roads, houses, or factories, the kakapo has lost its habitat and food resources.	*Reason*
	Huge numbers of them have died from starvation or hunting.	*Result-Reason*
Solution	A recovery programme has been launched to save the kakapo from extinction. In this programme, they are attempting to raise kakapos in captivity. In 1981, nests were located and several chicks were hatched.	*Statement-Amplification*
Problem	To conclude, the kakapo is nearly extinct.	*Result-*
Solution	We have to protect the rest of them and try	*Means*
Evaluation	our best with the recovery programme. We do not want to loose this gentle friend, which is part of New Zealand's heritage.	

The lesson the essay shown in *Figure 2* draws from was on the topic of endangered species. The lesson commenced with a group discussion which aimed to elicit what

the students already knew on the topic of endangered species. They then listened to a video presentation on the topic of one endangered species, the Black Stilt. As they did this they completed the chart in *Figure 3* which focused on the discourse elements and relations of a Problem/Solution text.

Figure 3: *A Problem/Solution listening task*

Situation	The Black Stilt is a long legged bird with a black bill and red legs…..
Problem/s	
Solution/s	
Conclusions/Evaluation	

The next task, shown in *Figure 4*, focused on the semantic relations of Reason-Result. Students listened to the presentation again and completed the chart noting the reasons that have led the Black Stilt to become an endangered species.

Figure 4: *A Reason-Result listening task*

Reasons	Results

After this, the students took notes on the ways in which the semantic relations of Reason-Result had been expressed linguistically in the text.

After they had completed these tasks, the students used the notes they had taken to prepare a presentation for the rest of the class on another example of an endangered species. They prepared a set of slides to help the other students follow their presentation, a handout to help the students follow their presentation and notes to use to help them give their presentation. Finally they each wrote an essay on their topic, as shown in *Figure 1*, drawing on the discourse and semantic relational patterns they had identified in their listening tasks and had used in their presentation.

Conclusions

This article has described a particular approach to the analysis of texts which can be drawn on to help students develop the discursive competence (Bhatia, 2004) they need to succeed in academic settings. This perspective on text analysis, it is important to say, aims to complement, rather than replace, other approaches to discourse (and genre) analysis. It looks for what different genres may have in common in terms of textual relations and explores ways in which this information might be exploited for the purposes of language teaching and learning. It looks, in particular, for relational patterns which occur in particular texts that may, equally, be found across a range of different genres. These similarities, I believe, can be usefully drawn on in the teaching of English in academic settings and can help students create the kinds of texts they need to be able to produce in their courses of study as well as give them strategies they can draw on for reading and writing specific purposes texts in their future academic and professional lives.

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What's in a name? The sense of reference, the rigidity of designators and the history of causes when determining the names of the two main islands of Aotearoa/New Zealand

Martin Parker

Abstract

The New Zealand Geographic Board recently revealed that the two main islands of Aotearoa/New Zealand have never been officially named. The revelation made both national and international news and led to a large number of publicly aired comments on the matter, suggesting that something so fundamental and seemingly innocuous as naming is in fact likely to generate a good deal of controversy, no more so than in a bicultural/bilingual context. This paper will examine the phenomenon of naming from a number of angles. After discussing a layperson's idea of what is meant by the meaning of names, we shall attempt to apply a number of theoretical models from the field of Language Philosophy to the case of the main islands of Aotearoa/New Zealand: the **Descriptivist** approach of Frege and Russell, Kripke's **Rigid Designators**, and **Causal Grounding** theory. We shall conclude that, in the case of applying the first two of these, there is a question mark over whether any of the current names for the two islands, both Māori and Pākehā, are in fact names at all; in terms of applying the theory of Causal Grounding, we are drawn to the conclusion that in history lies the key to the future.

Introduction

Over several days in late April 2009, the British and New Zealand media (among others) reported that Aotearoa/New Zealand's two main land masses have no official names. That is according to the New Zealand Geographic Board (Davison, 2009):

> For several years, the board had (*sic*) been investigating Maori[1] names for the islands and exploring a process for formally recognizing alternative Maori names for each island. Board chairman Don Grant said "[…] We therefore want to formalize alternative Maori names and, at the same time, make the naming of the North and South Islands official."

What can be described as the geographical north island and the geographical south island are commonly known among Pākehā as The North Island and The South Island respectively. However, early maps and charts – including those of Captain Cook, who "recorded only Maori names for the islands when he mapped what would later be called New Zealand in 1770" (Chapman, 2009) – show the names by which the islands are commonly known among Māori; Te Ika a Maui ("the fish of Maui") for the North Island, Te Wai Pounamu ("the place of greenstone") for the South Island.

In this paper, we shall first see how the New Zealand Geographic Board's revelation has led to an "etymological row" (Manhire, 2009), and particularly how mistrust and misunderstanding can quickly lead to a collective jump to wrong conclusions. Second, we shall examine some of the ideas relating to the meaning of names, from the perspectives of both layperson and expert to see if there is an answer to the question, "What's in a name?"

Public reaction to the New Zealand Geographic Board's revelation

The initial reaction to the New Zealand Geographic Board's revelation was one of general public outrage at such disruption of the assumed status quo. Most of the following quotes show a misunderstanding, not only of the New Zealand Geographic Board's intentions and motives, although clearly stated, but also of the meaning of the word, "alternative". The general sentiments expressed by respondents to the initial press reports might be positioned somewhere along a cline that runs from the plain silly and trivial at one end, to the contemptuous and imperialistic at the other. In all cases, however, the issue of the two islands' official names seems beyond discussion.[2]

It should be pointed out that the list of comments that follows is not the result of a subjective choice made by me but is representative of the published thoughts of the majority of correspondents;[3] the colonial ancestors of Angry from Manchester, perhaps. Yet we should not automatically assume that these opinions and attitudes are representative of the majority of the inhabitants of Aotearoa/New Zealand. After all, it is a certain type of person who writes to newspapers, calls radio phone-ins or sends text-messages or emails to media institutions to comment on an issue of the day, usually one whose opinions and attitudes have their foundations in a restricted view of reality, and whose opinions and attitudes are expressed as a reflex, without first establishing facts:

- "Call it (*sic*) what you like, but what's the point? 95% of New Zealanders will continue to call it (*sic*) North Island and South Island."
- "It seems the board has nothing better to do. Come on, leave the current names along (*sic*). North and south islands sound fine. If the board really doesn't have enough to do, how about restructure (*sic*) itself and save tax payers some money."
- "Stop wasting millions and millions of dollars on stupid, unimportant things, and spend the money where it's really needed. Helping dig NZ out of the recession might be a better idea of where the money can go."
- "Leave the names as North Island and South Island. These twats should concentrate on getting Australia to change its name to West Island."
- "How about South East Australia and Really South East Australia?"
- "North Island & South Island is (*sic*) fine. They are what they are, and everyone can pronounce them fine. It's all well and good for the Maori people to say that "Pakeha" (*sic*) people are being selfish etc by wanting names that aren't Maori – but in the bigger picture it is the Maori that are being selfish. NZ gets so many tourists, a lot of them can't speak English, let alone Maori. Whakatane and Whangarei are hard enough for even Australians to pronounce. Te Ika a Maui? You might get 1 in 25 tourists that can pronounce it."
- "We are meant to be a visitor-friendly destination, yet we persist in trying to make life more complicated for our visitors to NZ."
- "Where else could you go in the world and (*sic*) the locals have actually two different names for everywhere? It is political correctness of the worst kind – unthinking, unfeeling and completely immune from any heritage and history that is not Maori."
- Other suggestions include: Top and Bottom; Transit and Visit; Hot and Cold; Minor and Major; East and West; Fush and Chups and Kiri and Te Kanawa; Not Australia and Still Not Australia.

If these represent the majority voice, there is a minority voice. As one often finds with

minority voices, the marriage of logic and language is a happier one. One such example is the Editorial comment in the *Herald on Sunday* (nzherald.com, 26th April 2009) which goes some of the way to restoring a level of equilibrium on the matter of the naming of Aotearoa's islands:

> The public response to the proposal that alternative Maori names for what we habitually call the North and South Islands might be made official suggests that quite a lot of people are not familiar with the meaning of the word "alternative". […] many people reacted as though common parlance was to be swept aside by politically correct fiat. […] It is hard to avoid the suspicion that the reaction is driven by a belief that Maori are trying to put one over on everybody else. […] The proposed name changes do no abridge anyone's right to be who they are. They simply give expression to our dual heritages. We would do better to celebrate that than resist it."

Of course, as with many such issues that appear quite suddenly in the newspapers and news broadcasts one day, they fade away just as quickly. It will be back, but for now let's leave the last word to a correspondent to the BBC[4], who argues that "Surely we have better things to worry about as a nation, like winning the 2011 rugby world cup".

For those whose interests and concerns extend beyond the sports field to the fields of Philosophy and Linguistics, it is time to scrum down with the boys from the Philosophy of Language Department, see whether or not we can score a try for egalitarianism and, if the wind prevails and the weight of the kick and swing of the ball are correctly calculated, perhaps make a conversion.

What's in a name?

Semantics – meaning expressed by language as opposed to meaning expressed by language users – has never been able to deal adequately with naming, the linguistic identification of an entity by the use of a proper noun. **Reference** – the linguistic identification of an entity by the use of a common noun *or* proper noun – is less troublesome, although still highly complex and riddled with inconsistencies. **Deixis** – in relation to the current argument the linguistic identification of an entity by the use of a pronoun and some other non-linguistic, physical, means (for example, pointing a finger or merely occupying a space) is the least troublesome means of identifying an entity. For example, let's say, for the sake of argument, I rob a bank at gunpoint.

> "Give me the money," I say. "Put it in this bag."

Here, *me* is an **indexical** – it can refer only to the speaker; *the money* is a referring expression (it's a bank I'm robbing; there's a consensus that this is the case, so I don't need to point and say "that money" – the actual money is the **referent**, or the thing being referred to); *this bag* is indexical – without an actual bag, there can be no "this bag".[5] Anyway, as we know, crime never pays and I am arrested (there were four witnesses: the teller whom I accosted; a passer-by hurrying on his way to an appointment and not realizing what was going on until seeing the TV news bulletin later the same day; a butcher whose shop is next door to the bank; and a customer who walked in on the robbery and who turned out to be a former student of mine on a course in Semantics). They all identify me. "It's a fair cop," say I. The question is, "How were they able to identify me?" What linguistic and/or non-linguistic devices

were they able to call upon in order to get their meaning across? Here are some suggestions:

1. "Don't look now, but it's the guy who's leaning on a lamppost at the corner of the street."
2. "A short guy with a big nose, glasses and a goatee beard did it."
3. "Martin Parker did it."
4. "Him!"

Three of these are simple to interpret: expression 1 uses a bound relative clause as a referring expression such that I am identified; expression 2 is merely descriptive of certain physical features and is the weakest of the three – it narrows the field down to all short guys with big noses who sport goatee beards and wear glasses but the field is still a big one – this will identify me but only in a context where nobody else fits the description; expression 4 is unequivocal – language is unnecessary: the finger of blame is enough.

Expression 3, however, is not at all so simple. It ought to identify me absolutely but is in fact the least informative of all. If you search for "Martin Parker" on Google you will find there are quite a lot of me; close to 58,000 in fact if placed between inverted commas.

"What? The seventeenth century English balladeer?"

Obviously, the police investigating the bank job would need more than a mere name. Can she give them more?

"Dr Martin Parker."

The mouse clicks. It seems the combination of my given name and my family name augured well for those registered on programmes leading to the award of MD, DD, PhD etc.: there are more than 22,000, almost 40% of all Martin Parkers that make the Google list.

"He's a university professor," she says.

Click.[6] That narrows it down to around twelve-thousand or so.

"He teaches Linguistics," the former student says (she failed the course – she's out for revenge).

Click again. Only three-thousand-four-hundred-and-twenty-seven hits for Dr Martin Parkers teaching Linguistics. The police need more.

"He teaches Semantics," she offers with a grin (the police don't know what Semantics is and they are therefore unable to point out the precarious nature of the relationship between teaching and learning – if they did they would have been able to tell the witness that while *buy* and *sell* are converses, *teach* and *learn* are, sadly for her, not). That narrows it down to nine-hundred-and-forty-six.

"He teaches Semantics at the University of Bahrain," she says with an expression on her face that asks *Am I being helpful* (it was, after all, neither accident nor travesty of justice that lay behind her failing the course).

I am, finally, undone. Now, had my name been Theobold Cholmondley-Smythe, or that of either of his chums, Algernon Middleditch-Farquarson and Archibald Pilkington-Frobisher, the police investigation would have reached a far speedier conclusion and I would be exchanging my fifty-four acres, twenty-three bedrooms, sixteen bathrooms and countless gin-and-tonics on the terrace for much smaller accommodation. An indication, perhaps, of why upper-class twits rarely commit serious crimes while so many John Smiths do.

So, in order to identify me, and me alone, using my name would require the addition of one or more of the three descriptive expressions listed, or at least something equally damning, something that separates the name Dr Martin Parker, meaning the same "me" who uttered the fateful words *Give me the money*, from all the other Dr Martin Parkers who either practice medicine or divinity, or teach at universities around the world in this or that discipline: in other words, a **description** of some kind.

We shall return to the idea of names as descriptions shortly, since it is central to reaching the point towards which we are headed. First, however, we should also consider the significance, or lack thereof, of the derivation of names in a layperson's understanding.

A layperson's idea of names and their meaning

In Western cultures, name-giving is largely a matter of taste (whether positively or negatively oriented) and does not depend on the kind of meanings listed in dictionaries. For example, my own given name, "Martin", is supposed to carry such meanings as "from or of Mars", "warrior from Mars" or the less attractive "Martian warrior". Look out world – if all the Martins listed on Google were really from Mars, not even the imagination of H.G. Wells could predict the full horror of what we have in store for you earthlings.

Similarly, the etymology of family names bears no relationship to the present-day holders of those names. For example, "Parker" is, like Smith, Butcher, Baker, Cooper, Farmer, Thatcher, Archer, Fletcher and so on, derived from the trade one's ancestors would have practised centuries ago, in the case of my family name meaning one who looked after the park (i.e. the grounds of the feudal manor house).

Thus, if the meaning of "Martin Parker" (i.e. Martin the parker (= keeper of the park)) were of any present-day significance, I would, rather than be writing this paper, be a member of an alien sleeper unit biding my time before the impending conflagration, waiting for my Martian masters to give the command to attack. Meanwhile, I would, as my cover, be tending to the lawns and flowerbeds of somebody with some such preposterous name as Theobold Cholmondley-Smythe.

Names, then, are historically derived from descriptions. In some cultures, for instance in those of some indigenous peoples in the former colonies of European powers, such naming practices might still be carried on. In Western, and Westernized, cultures, while any such meanings can be found in the multitude of books and on the large

number of websites whose primary purpose is, in the case of place names, merely to satisfy the curiosity of one who might be interested to know, or, in the case of first names, to help parents choose a name for their newborn, they are generally overlooked, even ignored. What is important in choosing a name is that it might, in both aesthetic and phonetic senses, be euphonious, but any comical collocations should be avoided. Thus, my school friend with the family name Startin might not have had such an easy time of it had his parents, rather than calling him Geoffrey, called him Martin!

Place names are, of course, either unique: my home town of Uttoxeter in the English Midlands is one such. Otherwise they are severely limited in number: Stafford, the county town of Staffordshire, the county in which Uttoxeter is situated, also occurs in two other locations, both in the United States (one in Kansas, the other in Virginia). The derivation of both is also descriptive: the former was originally recorded in the Domesday Book as *Watochsede* (said to mean "Wat's homestead on the heath") which has since the 11th century undergone as many as 76 spelling changes before arriving at its present-day name; the latter is derived from "ford by a landing place" (OE *st{ð* + ford). These derivations are inconsequential to the "meanings" of the place names today, which are, if anything at all, likely to be only associative.

Interest in the relationship between etymology and human settlement, however, is usually restricted either to historical linguists or the curious and rarely troubles those who fit into neither category. Rarely do such issues hit the national and international media. This is what makes the current problem an interesting one. In the remainder of this paper, we shall consider the alternative names, both Māori and Pākehā, of the two main islands of Aotearoa/New Zealand in terms of a semantico-philosophical argument.

Theories of naming

For the purpose of the current argument, we shall consider three approaches to the problem: (i) **Descriptivism**; (ii); **Rigid Designators**; (iii) **Causal Grounding**. Since my concern is to test the application of ideas to the problem of naming the two islands of Aotearoa/New Zealand, details of the various approaches will be necessarily brief.[7]

Descriptivism (Frege and Russell)

In terms of naming, both Frege and Russell were concerned to demonstrate the relation between the utterance of a name and to what or whom it referred or what or who was denoted by it (e.g. Carney and Fitch, 1979; Jungman, 2009; Russell, 1905). The Frege-Russell approach, then, centres on the problem of **identity**: names are **abbreviated descriptions**. For example, let's return to the scene of the bank robbery detailed above, and the subsequent attempts by the police to establish the identity of the perpetrator.

In all cases the referent is Dr Martin Parker (i.e. "me", the speaker of the phrase "Give me the money"). We have various devices, all of which are intended to give a third-person identity to the indexical "me". Although they probably wouldn't know it, what the police need to establish, in a Fregean view of things, is the **sense** of "me", in Russell's terminology the **disguised description** of "me" (for the differences between Frege's and Russell's terms, see Carney and Fitch, 1979; Jungman, 2009). That is, they need a proper name but in only one instance do they get it. But how useful is the

name by itself? According to Carney and Fitch (1979, p. 384):

> "For Frege the way to determine whether 'a' differs in sense from 'b' is to ask whether a statement of the form [a = b] can be informative. It seems that the primitive way to determine whether such a statement is informative is to ask whether someone can believe that a is a and not believe that a is b."

If we call "Dr Martin Parker" *a* and all other identifications *b*, it should thus be possible, using the formula, *a = b*, to 'prove' who committed the crime. That is, we need to be able to determine that in all possible worlds: (i) *a = b* (and only *a = b)*; (ii) that the reference does not cloud the sense; or (iii) that the "description" (*b*) makes transparent the "disguised description" (*a*). This would necessarily mean that *a = b* is fully compatible with *a = a*. A revised formula might read, *(a = b) = (a = a)*:

1. *Dr Martin Parker = the guy leaning on a lamppost at the corner of the street*
2. *Dr Martin Parker = a short guy with a big nose, glasses and a goatee beard*
3. *Dr Martin Parker = him*
4. *Dr Martin Parker = a university professor*
5. *Dr Martin Parker = someone who teaches Linguistics*
6. *Dr Martin Parker = someone who teaches Semantics*
7. *Dr Martin Parker = someone who teaches Semantics at the University of Bahrain*

Clearly, only 1 and 3 fit the bill (depending on contextual factors). 7 might get close but, at the time of writing, it is no longer true since I have been usurped in that role by a colleague who, were he to grow a goatee beard and wear glasses, would also be identified by 2. He might still be identified as the robber because the police could assume that the beard and glasses were a disguise! All are, nevertheless, informative to a degree, although the informativeness might be more readily assigned to pragmatic, rather than semantic meaning. On the other hand, in any possible world, *a = a* would not be informative:

8. *Dr Martin Parker = Dr Martin Parker*

In relation to the naming of the islands of Aotearoa/New Zealand, however, it should be immediately obvious that applying the two formulae given will lead us round in circles if not to dead ends. First, let's see where a monolingual analysis takes us; English first, where *a* is a proper name, *b* a description:

9. *The North Island = the north island*
10. *The South Island = the south island*

These represent little difficulty in terms of measuring to what level they are informative when applying a Fregean analysis – provided they are represented in writing (i.e. The North Island (a name) = the north island (a description)); phonologically they are, of course, **tautologies**. Russell's idea of a disguised description, however, begins to look less likely – the disguise is entirely transparent and therefore we are left only with tautologies: they tell us nothing.

A problem arises if we apply the same kind of monolingual analysis to the Māori

names:

11. *Te Ika a Maui = Te Ika a Maui*
12. *Te Wai Pounamu = Te Wai Pounamu*

These are clearly tautologies. The only way to approach the Māori names, therefore, is to adopt a bilingual approach:

13. *Te Ika a Maui = the fish of Maui*
14. *Te Wai Pounamu = the place of greenstone*
15. *Te Ika a Maui = The North Island*
16. *Te Wai Pounamu = The South Island*

This will render 13 and 14 translations; and what are translations if not bilingual tautologies? Nevertheless they do have informative value, albeit in a strictly limited context. Furthermore, in relation to the same examples *(a =b) = (a = a)* would hold only for those who are familiar with both English and Māori. While the same formula would work for 11 and 12, they are meaningless to non-Māori speakers. On the other hand, 15 and 16 are informative without being bilingual. This makes them approximately equivalent to 9 and 10, except they remain so in speech as well as in writing but are otherwise simply giving two names for a single entity (this is well documented in the literature in relation to the planet Venus being both the Morning Star and the Evening Star). Again in Fregean terms, this would mean the two islands of Aotearoa/New Zealand each representing a single referent but having (at least) two senses.

Applying Frege's approach suggests the Māori names have no meaning (although, as we shall see, they clearly do and can be shown to have meaning if we apply another approach). However, we could also argue that the English-language names are not names at all but descriptions (not even disguised ones). From this point of view, we may just as well describe them in any terms we wish, capitalize the initial letters and – lo and behold – we have solved the naming problem! Examples 17-20 provide an idiosyncratic illustration:

17. *The North Island = the one with more people and more volcanoes on it*
18. *The One With More People and More Volcanoes On It = the north island*
19. *The South Island = the one with fewer people and more glaciers on it*
20. *The One With Fewer People and More Glaciers On It = the south island*

Searle (1958) introduced the seemingly obvious notion that (as the above discussion has already implied) names can be associated with any number of descriptions (see, for example, Lycan, 2008). As Jungmann (2009, p. 127) points out:

> For Searle, speakers manage to successfully communicate by using a proper name in virtue of knowing a "sufficient" but "unspecifiable" number of definite descriptions which are true of the object denoted by the name.

Such a "**cluster**" of descriptions makes identifying the referent a simpler process. Formulaically, this might be represented as $a = b \times X$, (and thus $(a = b \times X) = (a = a)$), where X is the number of descriptions in the cluster. Thus, while the descriptions

of the bank robber in 1-7 above might not be sufficient on their own, as a cluster of descriptions they ought to lead only to me. However, the idea of a cluster of descriptions excludes their coterminous occurrence – speakers select from the cluster, choosing the description that is most pertinent, or, in terms that will be familiar to anyone who has studied introductory Semantics, a sufficient and necessary number of pertinent items from the cluster that might lead to correct identification of the referent. Nevertheless, we have to allow for the fact that a speaker does this without necessarily knowing there is a cluster at all. For instance, my student witness knows I teach Linguistics but she does not know a whole catalogue of other descriptions that might "identify" me. Here are some of them:

21. Konrad's father
22. Lidia's husband
23. the mandolin player in *Celtic Rumours*
24. Frank Parker's son
25. Dr Winnie Crombie's former research assistant
26. the driver of a silver Dodge Charger

Again, some of these are more exclusive than others but there is no certainty that – individually – any of them refer to me and me only. I am the only person, however, who would know that all of them point to me; nobody knows you better than you know yourself. Yet even I may not know that this is the case. Imagine I am driving and, unwittingly and unknown to me, cause an accident but escape involvement. A message goes out that the police are looking for the driver of a silver Dodge Charger. I would believe that description 26 is making reference to anyone who drives a silver Dodge Charger *but not me*. Of course, it is clusters of descriptions, rather than single descriptions, which help the police solve crimes.

Kaplan (1989) provides an anti-Fregean perspective to the discussion with the Millian notion of **Direct Reference**. The main postulate of Kaplan, and other disciples of John Stuart Mill, is that "the semantic content of a name or other directly referring expression is nothing more than the referent […]. So there is no descriptive information semantically conveyed by a directly referring expression" (*The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*, 2006). In other words, names simply stand for their bearers" (Jungmann, 2009, p. 137). This is so even if the bearer doesn't exist (Santa Claus, for example).

The attraction of this notion for our discussion is that it obviates description and thus resolves the complexity of clusters, while also resolving any issues of tautology and the need to be bilingual. It also seems to suggest that an entity is whatever one calls it. Hence if I call the north island The North Island and Hine calls it Te Ika a Maui, then each of our meanings is wrapped up in the terms we have used. However, this is no more informative than saying something is named whatever it is named and that is its meaning. This seems most unhelpful and inconclusive. As Jungmann says, "the Millian view that names are directly referential is fraught with insurmountable difficulties" (2009, p. 131). It also conflicts with what we understand what it is that we are doing when we *use* a name. We shall return to this notion of usage later.

Rigid designators (Kripke)

The notion of rigid designation is most closely associated with Saul Kripke (1981).

Kripke identifies expressions as being either **rigid** or **non-rigid** (or accidental) **designators**. Names, along with generic terms for concepts, he argues, are rigid designators; definite descriptions are not. Thus, "Martin Parker", "dog", "building" etc. are rigid designators, "the Semantics teacher at the University of Bahrain", "the dog" (unless generic) and "a building" (again unless generic) are non-rigid designators.[8] In this view, the alternative names for Aotearoa/New Zealand's islands – both English and Māori – are rigid designators since they are names. Yet we already know that they are, at the same time, descriptions (albeit behaving as proper names). From a Frege-Russell perspective, this means that a rigid designator is synonymous with a non-rigid designator. Is this possible? The purpose of this section of the paper is to put that notion to the test.

Cohen (2008), presents three definitions of rigid designator:

A. α is rigid iff α designates the same object in every possible world.
B. α is rigid iff α designates the same object in every possible world in which that object exists.
C. α is rigid iff α designates the same object in every possible world in which α designates anything at all.

Following Cohen's argument, we can, as our first test, consider a description (since we know descriptions are non-rigid). The description of me, "the driver of a silver Dodge Charger", is not rigid in any of the three senses. At the time of writing it designates me and a lot of others in the actual world and potentially a great deal many more in some other possible world.

Next, consider a number, or an arithmetical equation: "2" is rigid in all senses; "2 + 2" always equals "4" and is therefore rigid in all senses.

Now let us consider a name. "Martin Parker" (the name and not any individual among the multitude of those who bear it) is rigid in all senses: sense A, because "it depends on whether a designator can designate an object with respect to a world in which that object does not exist" (Cohen, 2008); sense B because "it designates the same thing – [Martin Parker] – in every world in which Martin Parker exists" (Cohen, 2008); it is, of course, also rigid in sense C. However, as Cohen (2008) points out, the third sense of rigidity "is not Kripke's notion of rigidity".

The question here is one of whether both alternatives of the proper names for the islands of Aotearoa/New Zealand are rigid designators according to conditions A and B above. Now, the fatal flaw in this progression ought to be obvious: since all proper names are rigid designators, and we already know that both Māori and Pākehā alternatives are indeed *used* as names and therefore must be considered bona fide names, they must also both be rigid designators in all senses. We might want to argue that the Māori names are not quite as transparently descriptive as the Pākehā ones. Clearly, we are going to find ourselves running in circles (this is philosophy, after all) if we insist that The North Island and The South Island are descriptions pretending to be proper names while Te Ika a Maui and Te Wai Pounamu are proper names that look a little bit like descriptions (with mythological roots). It is hard to avoid the conclusion that in both cases, we have definite descriptions masquerading as names.

The sticking point, for this discussion, is the "all possible worlds" caveat in Kripke's definitions. In a bilingual/bicultural context, the rigidity of designators is thrown into chaos, or at least split in half, since all designated phenomena have two designators, whether rigid or not.[9] This, in turn, means that there are two sets of possible worlds. This being so, the inevitable conclusion is that in the world of Māori culture and language, Te Ika a Maui and Te Wai Pounamu are names, and therefore rigid designators; in Pākehā culture and language, The North Island and The South Island are names, and therefore rigid designators.

We might also usefully consider Kripke's related notion of **necessity** in trying to reach a solution. Briefly and simply, to say "Venus is Venus" is to state a truth which is **necessary**, or ***a priori***. However, the two observable "identities" of the planet Venus – i.e. the Morning Star and the Evening Star – were not always known to be descriptive of the same phenomenon; their dual identity, therefore, expressed by saying "The Morning Star is the Evening Star, is the result of **contingent**, or ***a posteriori***, truth. The question for our argument is whether the names for the islands of Aotearoa/New Zealand vis-à-vis their "descriptions" is necessary/*a priori* or contingent/*a posteriori*. Consider again examples 9-12 (repeated here for convenience as 27-30):

27. *The North Island = the north island*
28. *The South Island = the south island*
29. *Te Ika a Maui = Te Ika a Maui*
30. *Te Wai Pounamu = Te Wai Pounamu*

There is no sensible way of denying that 29-30 are both representative of necessary/*a priori* truth. There is, however, a case to be made for arguing that the truth of 27-28 is contingent. Now consider examples 13-16 above, repeated here a 31-34:

31. *Te Ika a Maui = the fish of Maui*
32. *Te Wai Pounamu = the place of greenstone*
33. *Te Ika a Maui = The North Island*
34. *Te Wai Pounamu = The South Island*

In relation to 31-32, I have already claimed that translations are bilingual tautologies, and therefore necessary by definition, and will stand by this claim as long as it is understood that the necessity applies only to bilingual speakers. Non-bilingual speakers will simply need to be made aware of the necessary/*a priori* nature of the two examples. This second point is reinforced if the two expressions in both 31 and 32 are reversed: *the fish of Maui = Te Ika a Maui* and *the place of greenstone = Te Wai Pounamu* would make sense only to a bilingual speaker without the aid of a barrage of contextual clues.

Examples 33-34, however, can be only contingent/*a posteriori*; this is because, before colonization there were no North Island or South Island, only various phonological representations of what are called today *Te Ika a Maui* and *Te Wai Pounamu*. Therefore the relationship between the names that exists today has not always existed. Interestingly, as we shall see in the following section, the key to solving this riddle can be found in history.

Causal Grounding (or the Causal-Historical Theory of Names or the Causal Theory of Reference)

The concern of Causal theory is to answer the question: "How is it that a proper name succeeds in referring to its bearer?" (Jungmann, 2009, p. 134). Consider this: one day, more years ago than I now care to admit to, I was born. "What shall we call him?" must have been a question on my parents' lips. They agree on the name "Martin". Thus, the name "Martin Parker", in so far as it attaches to the author of this paper (there we go with another description – for most readers, representing the only thing you know about me apart from some careless admissions contained herein), broke surface and entered the real world. This triggered a chain of subsequent mentions of my name – right up to the present and, I hope, beyond – all of which can be traced back to the baptismal, or grounding, moment. This allows us to use names without knowing very much about their bearers. For instance, if I say "Ludwig van Beethoven wrote the *Pathetique* sonata for piano", that may be all I know about him. The utterance of the name "Ludwig van Beethoven", however, forms a single link among innumerable links that go back historically to the original (i.e. causal) moment of naming (causal because someone – both or one of Beethoven's parents – caused the name to come into existence).

In relation to the naming of Aotearoa/New Zealand's islands, the picture suddenly starts to look a whole lot clearer. First of all, we can state with some confidence that, based on our general knowledge, the Māori names were grounded at a considerably earlier time than were the Pākehā ones. This is hardly a revelation. We also know that when Captain James Cook visited what is now known as Aotearoa/New Zealand in the eighteenth century, his maps recorded his orthographic versions of the current Māori names (Eahei No Mauwe *or* Aeheino Mouwe for Te Ika a Maui/The North Island and Tovypoenammu for Te Wai Pounamu/The South Island).[10]

And just how did the alternative names for Aotearoa/New Zealand's islands come into being? One can, of course, only speculate on the grounding of the Māori names when the islands were settled, and so too the Pākehā ones, but the latter perhaps with a deal more certainty. It might have gone something like this (with apologies to those who prefer their history to be dry and factual):

[*Back in London after his voyage, Cook is showing his maps to Lord North, the Prime Minister*.]

"So, James old boy, what did you discover?"

"Two land masses East of Van Diemen's Land. This one here [*he points to the map*] is called Eahei No Mauwe and this one [*his finger moves down the chart*] is Tovypoenammu."

"Tovy what? I say, bit of a mouthful."

[*Cook inwardly sighs and once again moves his finger over the chart*] "Eahei No Mauwe is the north island, Tovypoenammu the south island."

"Well, why didn't you say so in the first place, man? North Island – has a certain ring to it, eh? Yes, North Island, South Island. Right, let's go and colonize'em! Well done, James."

We have, then, in what is either the tangled links of a bilingual/bicultural causal chain or else two monolingual/monocultural causal chains entwined, what Jungmann (after Devitt, 1989) explains as being the result of the names that are used having different groundings (2009, 135), or of there being "a difference in the causally and historically constituted name using practices which had their beginnings in a single object" (2009, 135). The significance of this, theoretically, is that it mediates between the Fregean notion of sense and Millian direct reference, while at the same time accommodating the notion of rigid designators in that it at least gives us a clue about their origins (i.e. why rigid designators are thus rigidly designating in the first place). In other words, it makes a lot of sense (in a common, rather than Fregean meaning of "sense"). More significant, however, is that it focuses on the way in which we *use* names, something which, Jungmann argues, is of "paramount importance" (2009, 137).

Conclusion

The task which the New Zealand Geographic Board have set themselves, which you will recall is to formalize alternative Māori names and make the naming of the North and South Islands official, has four possible resolutions: (i) the aforementioned alternatives, Te Ika a Maui/The North Island and Te Wai Pounamu/The South Island will both be declared official (the Māori names subject to iwi consensus) and people can use either one or both alternatives, without their choice being stigmatized or "marked"; (ii) only one set of alternatives will be declared official (if this is the Māori names then again subject to iwi consensus) – the other will still be used but will remain unofficial, in which case people who use the form declared unofficial will probably feel stigmatized; (iii) the opposite of (i) but with the same result – i.e. declare neither alternative official and leave things as they are; (iv) invent new names (start over or, in technical terms, cause a new grounding event).

In relation to the three theoretical approaches outlined above, we should recognize that none of them is entirely satisfactory, although some are more useful than others.

First, in the descriptivist approach, we have the problem, from Frege's position, that in both languages the Reference *is* the Sense and vice-versa, from Russell's, also in both languages, two abbreviated descriptions (i.e. names) are identical to their associated non-abbreviated descriptions. The direct-reference approach is simply a non-starter, since to say "something is what something is (or isn't)" says nothing. My five-year-old son is fond of pointing this out to me when I try to fob him off with an answer to an impossible question. The answer "Because it just is" is no longer enough and I am told, in no uncertain terms, to stop giving such answers and be a little more informative (in so many words). One might say pretty much the same thing to the Millians.

Kripke's rigid designator theory offers little because it fails for the same reasons that the Frege-Russell approach fails – the incestuous and fatal relationship between name and description. We also saw that the distinction between necessity and contingency remains confused when applied to a bilingual context. The problem for Aotearoa/New Zealand, in the light of both aspects of Kripke's model, is that, in relation to the separate cultures, neither set of possible worlds is ready to give way to the other (even though, according to the real meaning of "alternative" no such thing is being asked of either); in more technical terms, it seems neither set of possible worlds is ready to accept either each other's rigid designators as such, or each others necessary/*a priori*

truths as such.

And so we must appeal to history. The causal grounding theory escapes the relationship that dogs the others, at least in terms of naming *per se* (any form of description attached to it being merely some knowledge about the name-bearer that has no significance at all for its grounding). Nevertheless, although it provides an academic base and vocabulary with which to talk about the issue, it says nothing that isn't already known – that Māori inhabited both Te Ika a Maui and Te Wai Pounamu several hundred years before Pākehā inhabited The North Island and The South Island. It hardly needs pointing out that Māori have also inhabited The North Island and The South Island for as long as Pākehā have as well as coterminously having inhabited both Te Ika a Maui and Te Wai Pounamu. Now, I am neither a philosopher nor a politician but, in spite of the implications, I do know that a first-come-first-served policy is one that would not have much sway with all inhabitants of Aotearoa/New Zealand.

Ultimately, it is all beginning to look as if the quest for names – from both political and philosophical perspectives – is a futile one since, as long as the two possible worlds are resistant to each other's concerns, the reality of the situation accords entirely with the view expressed by another correspondent to the BBC (see endnote 4) in which there is a note of hopelessness and finality: "[…] no matter what [… the islands are] called, the already-ingrained attitudes between [… Māori and Pākehā] are not going to change.

While history is the key, then, it is also the problem. It is not simply an issue of accepting or not accepting names (in the theoretical understanding of what a name is), but rather one of accepting biculturalism and bilingualism as something to celebrate, not as a tool for driving a wedge between peoples. Differences are, after all, essential for a society in that they can only enrich that society. To this end, surely what matters is that bilingualism and biculturalism thrive, regardless of the name of the land on which they do so.

Endnotes

1 Words from te reo Māori are as in the original form of the citation; thus, in citations, macrons are used only if used in the original. Since macrons are an intrinsic part of the written representation of the phonology of te reo Māori, choosing not to include them in a national newspaper or elsewhere is significant in that it could be argued that it demonstrates an attitudinal position vis-à-vis both the language and its speakers.

2. I have avoided subjective judgements of the listed contributions in order that the reader might be free to place each on its respective position along the aforementioned cline according to his or her own interpretations. Unless otherwise stated, all contributions were published in the online editions of the *New Zealand Herald* dated 22nd April 2009, and *The Guardian*, *The Daily Telegraph* or *BBC News* dated 23rd April 2009.

3. Eriksen (2009) gives a figure of 71% of people polled by the *Herald* as being in favour of The North Island and The South Island. However, there is no indication of what percentage of the 29% either don't care or are in favour of Māori names. Besides, there is no suggestion from the New Zealand Geographic Board – but plenty from irresponsible reporting – that any of the names will be either consigned to history or imposed.

4. Confusion over NZ island's names (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/asia-pacific/8011846 accessed on 23rd April 2009)
5. The use of the pronoun *it* is an example of grammatical reference – this is a discoursal feature and is not the same kind of reference as semantic reference.
6. Here the figures become fictional – complicating the search to include Linguistics and Semantics merely increases the hits to close to a quarter of a million!
7. Interested readers are encouraged to refer to the large inventory of literature in the 'Philosophy of Language'. For an overview, Lycan 2008 (Chapters 1-4) is an excellent introduction; Van Langendonck (2007) presents a more detailed study.
8. See Devitt (2005) for a critique of Kripke's theory. See also Chakravarti (1975) for the difference between rigid and non-rigid designators. For a detailed account of Kripke's work, see Hughes (2004).
9. There are, of course, instances of interlingual borrowings but, in relation to Māori words entering New Zealand English, the number is small and is mostly restricted to some place names (e.g. Rotorua, Kaikoura - Mount Maunganui and Lake Taupo, for example, are blends of both) or some elements of the country's flora and fauna.
10. "Names Through the Ages" (http://media.nzherald.co.nz/webcontent/document /pdf/nzislands.pdf - also see Eriksen, 2009b).

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Operationalization of genre as a categorizer of academic and professional texts: A review of construct validity in six landmark studies

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Abstract

This study reviews the application of genre theory to the classification of texts in six landmark studies, specifically in relation to the issue of construct validity. The genre theories that the studies draw upon include: North American New Rhetoric (more recently termed *Rhetorical Genre Studies*), genre theory influenced by *Systemic Functional Linguistics* and the *English for Specific Purposes* approach. The operationalization of genre in each study is examined using a framework of knowledge categories drawn from the *dual social genre/cognitive genre* model of the author (Bruce, 2005, 2008b). The findings indicate that the central genre-identifying element in the reviewed studies is some form of schematic or move structure to account for the staging of content within texts. While some studies associate the schematic structure with contextual, socially-constructed knowledge, others attempt to relate its stages to what are seen as genre-characterizing, linguistic features. However, what appears to be lacking in the three theories is a comprehensive, integrated approach to account for the socially constructed, general rhetorical and linguistic elements of genre knowledge. The findings of this study emphasize the developing nature of genre theory and research, and appear to support the need for a multi-faceted approach to genre in order to operationalize adequately so complex a phenomenon.

Introduction

The concept of genre as a categorizer of written texts, or of spoken language events in certain contexts, is used research in Applied Linguistics and also as a basis for language teaching. However, a problem that is central to genre theory is a lack of agreement on what it is that constitutes a genre. This problem has led to a multiplicity of ways in which the concept of 'genre' has been operationalized (see, for example, Hyon, 1996; Johns, 2002). For some, genre classification is largely a social phenomenon. Theorists following this approach see genre as being reflected in the socially recognized functions and conventionalized structures of language events that occur in specific contexts. These events may be shaped by complex contextual elements, participant relationships and communicative and transactional purposes. For other theorists, genre as a classifier of language entities is a more rhetorically motivated, cognitive phenomenon, often described in terms of general rhetorical categories such as: argument, explanation, recount and description. Following this approach, genre knowledge is seen in terms of elements of texts, including their internal organizational and linguistic characteristics. However, this binary characterization of does not adequately represent the complexity of the whole field of genre studies. The two approaches, in effect, tend to represent the polarities of a continuum, within which lies a wide range of classifiers, such as those presented in *Table 1*.

Table 1: *Diversity of approaches to text classification (Bruce, 2008b, p. 7)*

Whole texts	Parts of texts
genre (Hasan, 1989; Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Fowler, 1982) *text genre* (Pilegaard & Frandsen, 1996; Werlich, 1976) *macro-genres* (Martin, 1994, 1995, 1997) *discourse types* (Virtanen, 1992)	*genre* (Swales, 1990) *elemental genre* (Feez, 2002) *text type* (Biber, 1989; Pilegaard & Frandsen, 1996; Werlich, 1976; Virtanen, 1992) *rhetorical functions* (Lackstrom, Selinker & Trimble, 1973; Jordan 1997) *rhetorical modes* (Silva, 1990) *macro-functions* (Council of Europe, 2001) *macro-genres* (Grabe, 2002) *séquences* (Adam, 1985, 1992) *discourse patterns* (Hoey, 1979, 1983, 1995, 2002) *macrostructures* (Van Dijk, 1980) *generic values* (Bhatia, 2002, 2004) *language styles* (Bloor, 1998)

Therefore, it may be concluded that genre theory is characterized by a multiplicity of theoretical approaches and competing terminologies that often relate to the same or similar underlying constructs. However, as yet, there appears to be no general agreement among theorists concerning what it is that constitutes genres and how they may be operationalized. Given this current state of genre theory, it is now appropriate to reflect on the issue of what it is that constitutes a genre and how genre may be operationalized for the purposes of both research and language pedagogy. Therefore, against this background of the diverse field of text classification, the study reported here examines the issue of construct validity in the operationalization of genre knowledge in six well-known studies.

The issue: Genre theory and construct validity

Genre, in effect, is a theoretical tool used to classify existing written texts or spoken language events. The synthesis of knowledge elements that gives rise to these texts or language events forms the underlying construct. In research, the construct validity of a classificatory tool, such as genre, relates to its effectiveness in being able to identify and mirror (or operationalize) all of the characteristics of the underlying construct that it claims to represent. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) say that "in this sort of validity, agreement is sought on the operationalized forms of the construct . . . . Is the researcher's understanding similar to what is generally accepted to be the construct? " (p. 138). Thus, construct validity would also seem to require agreement by those working in a particular research field about the characteristics of the operationalized form of any construct.

Therefore, because genres aim to describe and classify language entities that are operational wholes (Widdowson, 1983), it is important to consider the nature of the underlying constructs of what is being classified, including those of both text and discourse, and their constituent elements. In distinguishing text and discourse, Widdowson says that text is" the overt linguistic trace of a discourse process. As such, it is available for analysis. But interpretation is a matter of deriving a discourse from the text, and this inevitably brings context and pretext into play" (2004, p. 169). Text, therefore, is the written record on the page (such as a written document or the written transcription of a dialogue), while discourse includes the written record as well as the

social and cognitive operations that surround it, both in its creation and processing. Corpus software can examine linguistic elements of text, but for the most part it cannot examine discourse. Thus, as the result of a detailed corpus study, Biber (1989) proposes a typology of eight text types identified in terms of general communicative purposes, and characterized in terms of linguistic features. Furthermore, in reporting his study, Biber does not support the idea of characterizing genre in terms of linguistic features. His conclusion was "genres are defined and distinguished on the basis of systematic non-linguistic criteria, and they are valid in those terms" (p. 39). Therefore, Biber's study and conclusions appear to prefigure a dual classificatory approach that distinguishes the analysis and classification of text (in terms of text types) from genres, which I suggest involve the analysis and classification of discourse.

Theories of genre

Despite Biber's proposal, however, approaches to genre research in Applied Linguistics have tended to focus on textual rather than discoursal elements. These include:

- the approach of genre theorists influenced by *Systemic Functional Linguistics* (hereafter SF);
- the *English for Specific Purposes* (hereafter ESP) approach to genre, such as articulated by Swales (1990); and,
- the North American *New Rhetoric* approach (Rhetorical Genre Studies, Artemeva, 2008)

In identifying categories of texts as genres, the first two approaches involve identifying a recurrent pattern regularly used to organize the content of a genre (category of texts). In SF-influenced approach, this is called a *schematic* or *generic structure*, and in the ESP approach it is described in terms of *moves and steps*. In both approaches, the stages of this content-organizing pattern are related to specific linguistic features. In the SF-influenced approach, linguistic features are identified through the variables of register and related to SF grammar (see Eggins, 2004). In the ESP approach, specific linguistic features may be associated with a particular move or step (sub-move). However, operationalizing genre in this way does not accord with Biber's distinction between text type (a linguistically defined entity) and genre (an entity that is identified mainly in terms of non-linguistic features).

In apparent support of Biber's position, a number of European text linguists also draw a distinction between text types, which tend to relate to segments of text (Pilegaard & Frandsen, 1996; Werlich, 1976; Virtanen, 1992) and text genres, (Pilegaard & Frandsen, 1996; Werlich, 1976) or discourse type (Virtanen, 1992), which relate to whole texts. Also, in relation to the teaching of academic writing, Paltridge (2002) argues that courses need a focus on both genre and text type knowledge. Similarly, Bhatia (2004) proposes that genre knowledge needs to be investigated from two perspectives: an ethnographic perspective and a textual perspective (p. 163). In further developing this dual approach to genre knowledge, I have attempted to account for these two areas of knowledge by proposing a model of social genre and cognitive genre.

> Social genre – refers to socially recognized constructs according to which whole texts (or conventionally recognized sections of texts, such as Methods sections in research articles) are classified in terms of their overall social purpose . . . . Purpose here is taken to mean the intention to consciously communicate a body of knowledge related to a certain context to a certain target audience
> Cognitive genre – refers to the overall cognitive orientation and internal organization of a segment of writing that realizes a single, more general rhetorical purpose [such as] to recount sequenced events, to explain a process, to argue a point of view (Bruce, 2008a, p. 39)

Social genres and cognitive genres are not mutually exclusive approaches to examining a genre but, in effect, two complementary approaches that involve examining a piece of text and its discoursal interpretations. The social and cognitive genre model that I propose involves a framework of knowledge elements that provide a basis for performing ethnographic and textual analysis, a summary of which is presented in *Table 2*.

Table 2: *Genre knowledge: Constituent elements (Bruce, 2005, p. 14)*

Social genre elements (relating to discourse)
• context
• epistemology
• writer stance (metadiscourse)
• content schemata
Cognitive genre elements (*relating to text)*
• gestalt patterns of ideas
• general textual patterns
• relations between propositions

Social genre knowledge

The first element of social genre knowledge is that of context. Widdowson (2004) characterizes context in terms of schematic knowledge that involves both "intralinguistic and extralinguistic factors" (p. 54). It is suggested that, in relation to academic or professional genres: extralinguistic factors involve the specialist, technical knowledge of the field to which the text belongs; and, intralinguistic factors include the forms of communication and technical vocabulary used in the particular field. The second element of social genre knowledge is epistemology – how experts working in a particular field perceive, validate (prove) and use knowledge. However, to understand how subject experts view knowledge, a necessary co-condition is to understand how they create knowledge. In any particular discipline, the knowledge-creating paradigms used (such as its research methods) strongly influence its knowledge-communicating forms, such as its written and spoken genres. In conjunction with this, the third element of social genre knowledge is that of the stance or standpoint of a writer in relation to his/her audience. The Russian formalist, Bakhtin (1986), proposes that writing, like speaking, is *dialogic* - a dialogue between the writer and the reader and, as a consequence, writing is constructed with the expectations and knowledge of the reader in mind. In developing Bakhtin's idea of diologism, Hyland (2005, p. 39) identifies a set of language devices that are used to connect the writer with the reader, language devices which he groups together under the term of *metadiscourse* and can be used to address dialogism in texts. The fourth

element of social genre knowledge relates to regularly-occurring patterns used in the organization of content within a genre. In most pedagogic approaches to genre, such patterns have been regarded as a central, defining element. As mentioned previously, the SF-influenced approach describes content patterns as schematic structures, and the ESP approach describes them as moves and steps.

Cognitive genre knowledge

According to the earlier definition, a cognitive genre is a segment of writing that aims to achieve one particular, general rhetorical purpose, such as argue, explain or recount. They are sometimes described as text types. The four cognitive genres of the model are based on the four *text types* that Biber (1989), in his corpus study, found to occur most frequently in academic English prose. However, in terms of their structure and internal organization, in the proposed model (Bruce, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2009, 2010), they are conceptualized in terms of cognitive structures rather than linguistic and stylistic features.

The cognitive genre model (see *Appendix A*) draws on a two key principles from cognitive science - the first is that any category (such as a category of text) is formed in response to purpose or intentionality. Thus, the four types of cognitive genre relate to general rhetorical aims to communicate certain types of knowledge within a text. The second principle from cognitive science is that complex knowledge is hierarchically organized - higher level general to lower level specific structures. Thus, the cognitive genres have a top-down, general-specific internal structure that involves:

- *gestalts* called *image schemata* (Johnson, 1987) - gestalt structure reflects the higher-level organization of ideas
- *discourse patterns* (Hoey, 1976, 1984, 1996, 2001) - discourse patterns account for the organization of the actual written text.
- interpropositional relations (Crombie, 1985) - these account for a more specific level of organization of a text.

Because cognitive genres are prototypical tendencies rather than fixed immutable forms, they may be realized in ways that closely or less closely mirror the features of the model. In relation to the overall social/cognitive genre model, cognitive genres are abstract organizational building blocks that are used in socially-driven ways to create texts from which discourses are derived.

Thus, the areas of knowledge included in the social genre/cognitive genre model (see Table 2) are employed in this study as a basis for examining the different types of constituent knowledge that may relate to both genre and text types (as an attempt to account for elements of discourse and text). It aims to achieve what the psycho-linguists De Jong and Verhoeven (1992) say that "a model is for, i.e., to explain reality by a simplification" (p. 5). The knowledge categories of the social genre/cognitive genre model as a "simplification of reality" are, therefore, used as a basis for examining the operationalization of genre in six genre studies under review.

Methodology

The six landmark genre studies

Table 3 shows the six studies in which operationalization of genre is analysed using the social genre/cognitive knowledge categories. Four are ESP studies, one is SF-

related and one is new rhetoric (NR), more recently termed rhetorical genre studies (RGS).

Table 3: *The six genre studies*

Study	**Genre**	**Genre Theory**
Swales, J. (1981). Aspects of article introductions. Birmingham, UK: Aston University, The Language Studies Unit	research article introduction	ESP
Ventola, E. (1984). Orientation to social semiotics in foreign language teaching. *Applied Linguistics, 5*(3), 275-285	service encounter	SFL
Schryer, C. (1993). Records as genre. *Written Communication, 10*(2), 200-234	medical record	NR/RGS
Bhatia, V. K. (1993). *Analysing Genre – Language Use in Professional Settings*. London: Longman	legal case	ESP
Connor, U., & Mauranen, A. (1999). Linguistic analysis of grant proposals: European Union research grants. *English for Specific Purposes, 18*(1), 47-62.	grant proposal	ESP
Yakhontova, T. (2002). 'Selling' or 'Telling'? The issue of cultural variation in research genres. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic Discourse* (pp. 216-232). Edinburgh: Pearson.	conference abstract	ESP

Method of Analysis

The social genre and cognitive genre model is used as a background framework against the types of knowledge identified in each study as genre-defining are examined. Each study is examined in terms of its focus on each of the areas of genre knowledge from the model outlined in *Table 4*

Table 4: *Social genre and cognitive genre models*

Social Genre Elements (relating to social purposes to communicate specific information to a particular audience)				**Cognitive Genre Elements (relating to particular general rhetorical purposes)**		
Context	Epistemology	Addressing Audience (metadiscourse)	Content staging (such as moves and steps or schematic structure)	Gestalt Structure (local ideas organization)	Textual Pattern (e.g. Preview Details; Problem Solution)	Cohesion and coherence/ linguistic features

Findings

Table 5 summarizes the findings of the analysis of the knowledge elements proposed as genre-identifying in the six studies.

Table 5: *Genre knowledge in the six studies*

	Sample	**Social Genre Elements**				**Cognitive Genre Elements**		
The Study		*Context*	*Epistemology*	*Addressing Audience (metadiscourse)*	*Content staging*	*Local Ideas structure*	*Textual Pattern*	*Cohesion and coherence/ linguistic features*
Swales 1981 (RA introduction) (*instruction in research writing*)	48 article introductions (physics, bio-medical, social sciences)				4 moves *1 establishing the field* *2 summarizing previous research* *3 preparing for present research* *4 introducing present research*			linguistic features that signal functions of moves, e.g.: Move 1 lexis of openings, position of references, reporting verbs, tense Move 2 topic prominence, references, reporting verbs, tense Move 3 markers of contrast, negative (nominal, verbal, lexical) Move 4 self mention or reference to paper as a subject
Ventola (1984) Sales encounter (*relating SFL to FL teaching*)	two illustrative sales encounter dialogues	General commercial contexts, such as a post office, travel agency	language as a social semiotic		Schematic structure: - *service bid* - *service* - *goods handover* - *pay* - *closing*			functional phrases for realizing the schematic structure e.g. Service Bid: *Can I help you?* Service: *Could you show me….?* Goods:
Schryer, 1993 (veterinary medical records) (*research perceived writing deficits in a certain group of students*)	academic practices surrounding two sample texts of POVMR genre	communicative practices that surround the use of one genre in veterinary science between veterinary professors (as assessors), veterinarians as professional peers	diagnosis as coordinated social action		- *data base* - *problem list* - *initial plan* - *progress notes*			
Bhatia 1993 (legal case) (*professional writing instruction*)	three versions of a legal case (from published case books)	professional functions of the genre of legal cases	material legal facts as procedural knowledge		4 moves - *identifying the case* -*establishing the facts of the case* - *arguing the case* (1)stating the history of the case (2)presenting arguments (3)deriving ratio dicendi - *pronouncing judgment*			Move 1 Citation practices for titles and sub-titles *Move 4* Pronouncing judgment traditionally begins with “Held . . .”

Table 5 (cont.): *Genre knowledge in the six studies*

	Sample	**Social Genre Elements**				**Cognitive Genre Elements**		
Connor & Mauranen (1999) EU Grant Applications (*service writing of researchers*)	11 EU grant proposals	General context of EU grants applications (The Specific disciplinary contexts of the 11 texts were not addressed)		Research grant awarding agencies	11 moves : - *territory* - *gap* - *goal* - *means* - *previous research* - *achievements* - *benefits* - *competence claim* - *importance claim* - *benefits claim* - *compliance claim*			
Yakhontova (2002)	45 conference abstracts, written by Ukrainians or Russians - 10 in Ukrainian, 5 Russian, 15 English (By U & R writers), 15 English (NS writers)	International and Ukrainian Applied Linguistics conferences		Reviewing panels and conference attenders	5 moves - *outlining the research field* - *justifying a particular study* - *introducing the paper* - *summarizing the paper* - *highlighting its results*			Use of pronouns & evaluative words,

The central genre-defining element in all six studies is a conventionalized pattern for the staging of content described as a schematic structure or a move structure. In the case of three of the ESP studies, those of Bhatia (1993), Swales, (1981) and Yakhontova (2002), individual moves of the content staging are linked to what are seen as move-characterizing linguistic elements. Similarly, in the case of the SF study by Ventola (1984), stages of the schematic structure of the sales encounter genre are linked to suggested formulaic phrases that could be used in their realization. A focus on knowledge elements that relate to the type of context in which the genre occurs is provided in five of the studies, but only two undertake a detailed description of the contextual elements and the function of the genre within that context (Bhatia, 1993; Schryer, 1993). Of the sample, the same two studies (Bhatia, 1993; Schryer, 1993) also include a focus on knowledge elements that relate to disciplinary epistemology, which were material legal facts as procedural knowledge in cases (Bhatia, 1993) and an heuristic for interactional diagnosis in veterinary science (Schryer, 1993). None of the six studies examines elements that relate to writer stance and addressing audience. Similarly, aspects of text type (cognitive genre), such as textual organization, cohesion and coherence, receive no attention in the operationalization of genres in those of the six studies that relate to more extended written texts.

Discussion

In relation to the application of genre theories to the categorization of texts and the achievement of construct validity, two important issues need to be considered. The first is the extent to which proposals for genre as a classificatory tool adequately operationalize the underlying construct, which is the concatenation of textual and discoursal elements that converge in extended written texts or spoken language events. The second issue relating to construct validity (referred to in the introduction)

is that of the degree of consensus within a research community of agreed understandings about the operationalization of the underlying construct.

In relation to the first issue, it seems that the approaches to genre exemplified in the reviewed studies operationalize genre in terms of a relatively limited number of knowledge elements that relate to the underlying constructs. As an obligatory element, all of the studies include a pattern for content staging, such as a schematic or move structure. However, while it is likely that this element of genre knowledge may be salient to the analysis of smaller, relatively formulaic categories of text, such as abstracts, research article introductions and shopping transactions, it may be less feasible to establish a content structure (such as schematic structure or moves and steps) for larger, less formulaic texts. For example, in a recent study of the genre of the extended university essay in two contrasting fields (English literature and sociology) using texts from the British Academic Written English corpus (Bruce, in press), it was only possible to establish move structures in relation to the introductions of the essays. This was the only section of the essays that were found to be sufficiently formulaic or conventionalized in their organization to be amenable to this type of analysis.

As the findings show, the context-related function of each category of text is addressed to some extent, but only two of the studies focus on epistemological influences, now seen by some researchers, such as those in the academic literacies movement (see Lea & Street, 1998) as an important influence in accounting for disciplinary differences in writing. Also among the six studies the issue of writer stance and audience receive no attention as a genre-defining element. Given that the concept of effect or effect on the language user is identified as a key element of discourse competence in the models of communicative competence offered by Canale (1983) and Bachman (1990), lack of a focus on this area would seem to be an important omission. Similarly, the element of embedded text types (cognitive genres) is not acknowledged in any of the reviewed genre studies whose object of analysis is a category of extended written texts. Therefore, on the basis of this review, it seems that the knowledge areas that receive little attention in operationalization of genre in the reviewed studies are those of epistemology, writer stance (including the use of metadiscourse) and matters of cohesion and coherence that relate to text types (cognitive genres).

In relation to researcher agreement on the operationalization of the underlying construct, the analysis of the selected genre studies shows that there is limited agreement in terms of the ways in which the researchers operationalize genre and the types of knowledge that they include and the terminologies that they employ. The reason for this is that the approaches employed in the studies draw upon the three different approaches to genre, and also that their implementation in some cases is eclectic in terms of the selection of the theory-related genre elements chosen to characterize texts as belong to a particular genre.

In relation to the ongoing discussion and development of genre theory, the findings suggest that in any approach to genre as a classifier of texts or other language events, the concept (of genre) needs to be operationalized comprehensively and systematically in terms of a range of knowledge features that account for elements of both discourse and text. Clearly in the operationalization of genre, one size does not

fit all, and that elements that are highly salient to the analysis of categories of smaller or relatively formulaic texts (such as move structures) may be less relevant to the analysis of categories of extended written texts, where author purpose may be realized in a number of ways that still lie within the accepted parameters of a genre recognized by a discourse community. Therefore, the findings of this study suggest that it is important that theorists and researchers maintain an ongoing discussion about genre and its operationalization, and that such a discussion considers the range of knowledge types that are salient to any categorization of texts. It may eventually be the case that the range of knowledge types accepted as potentially genre-categorizing prove to be broader than those employed in the reviewed studies.

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Appendix

Summary of the Cognitive Genre Model	
Report: static descriptive presentation	
Rhetorical focus	The presentation of data that is essentially non-sequential
Gestalt structure	WHOLE PART structure of which PART has an UP DOWN structure
Discourse pattern	Preview-details
Interpropositional relations	Amplification; reason-result, grounds-conclusion; simple contrast, comparative similarity, concession-contraexpectation, condition-consequence
Explanation: means-focused presentation	
Rhetorical focus	The presentation of information with the orientation on means
Gestalt structure	SOURCE PATH GOAL schema; LINK schema
Discourse pattern	Preview—details
Interpropositional relations	Means-purpose, means-result, amplification, concession-contraexpectation
Discussion: choice/outcome-focused presentation	
Rhetorical focus	The organization of data in relation to (possible) outcomes/ conclusions/choices
Gestalt structure	CONTAINER schemata (more than one)
Discourse pattern	Generalization—examples and matching
Interpropositional relations	Grounds-conclusion, reason-result, means-purpose, means-result, concession-contraexpectation
Recount rhetorical type: sequential presentation	
Rhetorical focus	The presentation of data or information that is essentially sequential or chronological
Gestalt structure	SOURCE PATH GOAL schema
Discourse pattern	General—particular, problem solution
Interpropositional relations	Means-purpose, means-result, amplification, chronological sequence, grounds-conclusion, reason-result

(Bruce, 2005, p. 14)

Super-size your control of language: *Inter*-propositional relations as a tool for textual analysis in language learning

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Abstract
In what might be considered traditional approaches to language teaching and learning, the focus is often on lexical or syntactic issues and instruction is often limited to phrase, clause or sentence. While learning at this level is important, it is also the case that learners, in developing a high degree of control of their target language, need to be taught skills that will give them the capacity to decode and encode complete texts of a variety of types in a variety of contexts. While, over the last two decades, some researchers have made some useful suggestions about approaches to the issue of above-sentence-level language control, they generally make little reference to the role of mental operations in textual comprehension. Against a background of Crombie's work on *inter*-propositional relations, the overall objective of this paper is to demonstrate, with reference to a specific example, the extent to which an *inter*-propositional approach provides a potentially rich methodological tool for language teachers and a mechanism for promoting in-depth comprehension of texts.

Introduction
Within the context of research in the area of semantics, a significant amount of attention has been focused on *intra*-propositional relations, that is, on relationships within propositions. This research, often conducted under the heading of 'case grammar' (see, for example, Fillmore 1968), involves a consideration of the relationships that exist between a semantic predicator and its argument or arguments. However, although there is also a considerable body of research, spanning semantics and pragmatics, that deals with relationships between propositions, that is, with *inter*-propositional relations, and the ways in which they can be signaled and encoded, and although that is beginning to have some impact on the teaching of L2 writing, it has not to date had a major impact on L2 reading comprehension in spite of the fact that *inter*-propositional relations and their signalling and encoding are clearly of fundamental importance in this area. The overall purpose of this paper is to provide a practical demonstration, with reference to a single advertizing text, of some of the ways in which an understanding of *inter*-propositional relations can support textual comprehension. It is argued that this that demonstration has implications not only for L2 reading comprehension but also for the teaching and learning of first and second languages more generally.

Inter-propositional relations: Understanding connections between propositions
What are referred to here as '*inter*-propositional relations' have been variously referred to in the research literature as 'clause relations', 'semantic relations', 'pragmatic relations', 'semantic-pragmatic relations' and 'discourse relations'. They have, furthermore, depending on the overall perspective and function of the research, been classified and described in a variety of different ways (see, for example, Ballard, Conrad & Longacre (1971 a & b); Beekman & Callow (1974); Beekman, Callow & Kopesec (1981); Fleming (1988); Grimes (1975); Halliday & Hasan (1976);

Hollenbach (1975); Knott (1996); Longacre (1972; 1996); Mann & Thompson (1986; 1988); Martin (1992); van Dijk (1977); Winter (1977; 1979). Whaanga (2005) provides a review of the similarities and differences among different approaches to *inter*-propositional relations and different ways of modelling them).

Crombie has had an enduring interest in *inter*-propositional relations, publishing a range of books and articles in which they are discussed in their own right (Crombie, 1985b), in terms of the contribution they can make to language curriculum design (Crombie, 1982; 1985a), to the teaching of writing (Crombie & Johnson, 2009; Crombie, Johnson & Lin, 2010; Johnson & Crombie, 2010), to the understanding of genres, including literary genres (Crombie, 1983; 1984; 1986; 1987; 1989; Crombie, Bruce & Roberts, 2005; Crombie & Johnson, 2004), critical discourse analysis (Crombie & Samujh, 1999; Crombie, Paki, Rolleston & Te Kanawa, 2002) and to approaches to describing the Māori language (Crombie & Houia, 2001). Although *inter*-propositional relations are presented in slightly different ways in some of these publications, there are a number of critical aspects of the way in which they are treated throughout. These include:

> **(a)** the fact that they are outlined and classified in terms of cognitive processes and, in particular, are presented from the perspective of a tripartite categorical distinction formulated on the basis of the three 'associating qualities' that David Hume identified in *A Treatise of Human Nature* (published 1737) – *resemblance*, *contiguity* in time or place, and *cause and effect* – qualities which Hume identified as being "the reason why . . . languages so nearly correspond to each other (Hume, Volume 1 p. 19).
>
> (b) the fact that they are treated as an extension of intra-propositional coherence (which is itself treated as being binary – e.g. Agent-Action), are described as being of two types – general (e.g. Condition-Consequence) and interactional (e.g. Elicitation- Replying Informative), and are related to unitary discourse values:
>
> > A single clause may encode either a single proposition or more than one proposition", and "where a single clause encodes more than one proposition (e.g., *His intervention caused her defeat*) . . . it . . . also [encodes] the type of *inter*-propositional relationship (e.g., *Cause-Effect*) which is normally associated with inter-clausal and inter-sentential coherence (e.g., *He intervened. Therefore she was defeated*)". Thus, "a single clause may . . . exhibit both *intra*-propositional coherence (e.g., *Agent-Action*) and *inter*-propositional coherence (e.g., *Cause-Effect*)" (Crombie, 1985b, pp. vii-viii).
> >
> > [Crombie] attempts to emphasise the binary nature of all of relationships involved using binary labels (e.g., *Agent-Action*; *Reason-Result*) wherever possible (Whaanga, 2005, p. 166).
> >
> > [Crombie] observes that unitary values (for example, "*warning*, *threat*, *insult*, with which Austin (1962) and Searle (1971) are largely concerned) are related to, but different from, binary values (e.g., *Condition-Consequence*, *Reason-Result*") (p. 2). Binary values and unitary values may be linked. Thus, for example, the unitary value

> 'threat' is composed, explicitly or implicitly, of the binary value *Condition-Consequence* (Whaanga, 2005, pp. 166-167).
>
> 'Interactional' values concern "the functional components of a conversational discourse and generally [relate] to the interaction between the conversational contributions of different speakers". 'General' discourse values can "occur in any type of discourse, including conversational discourse" (Crombie, 1985b, p. 3).

(c) the fact that all *inter*-propositional relations are treated as being semantico-pragmatic in nature:

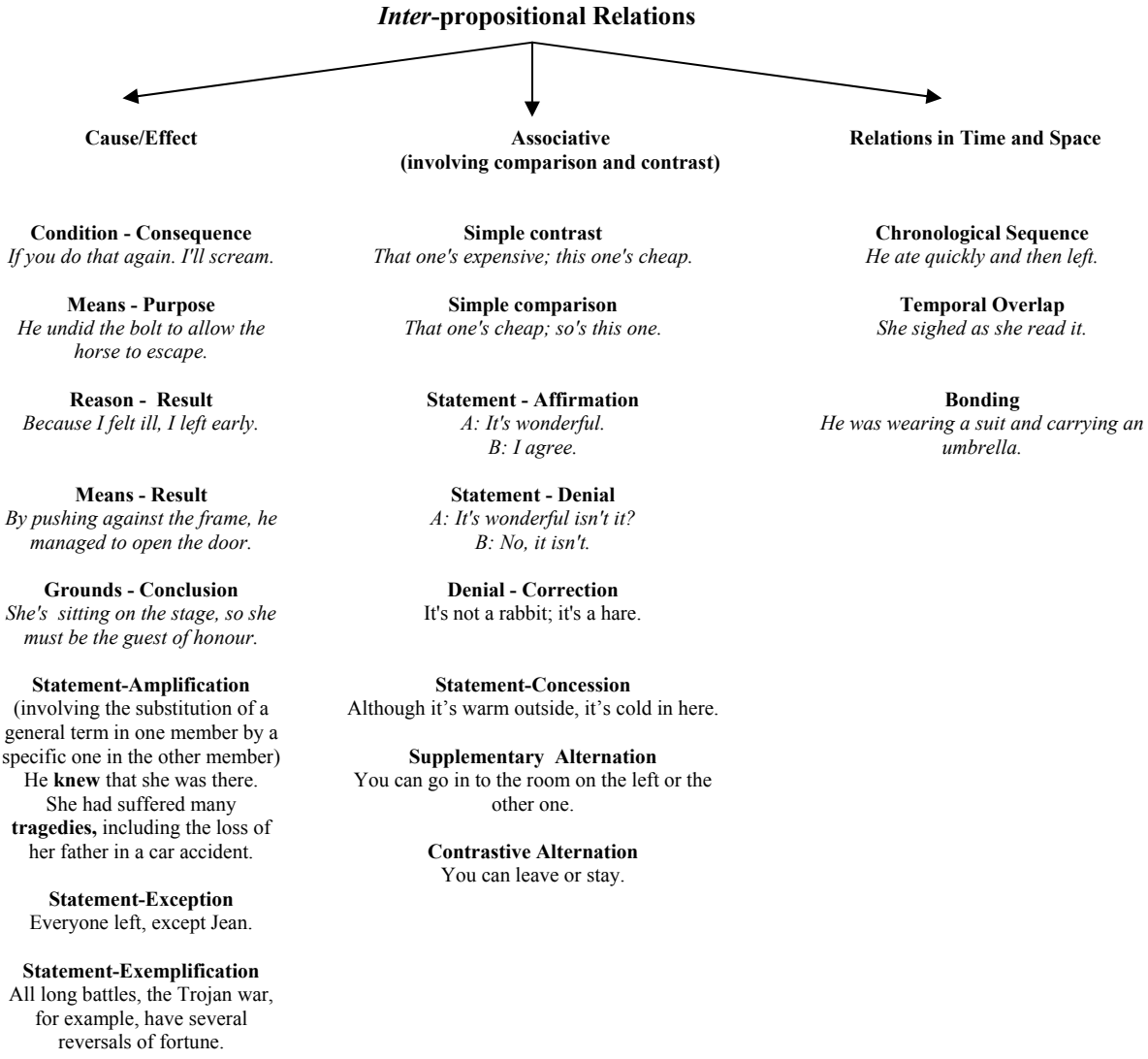
> These relations might . . . be referred to as semantico-pragmatic . . . in that they are recovered by inferencing (see Urquhart, in Selinker, Tarone and Hanzeli, 1981; Clark and Haviland, in Freedle, 1977). Inferencing is based on the encoded propositions (the *text*) and world knowledge. . . . A relationship (such as *reason-result*) may, or may not be . . . indicated textually by, for example, the occurrence of a word such as 'because'. Furthermore, the establishment of a particular relationship between encoded propositions (e.g., between 'John cried' and 'Mary said she loved Bill') will normally involve additional assumptions (e.g., that John and Mary are related in a particular way), or the recovery of additional known information which will add to the propositional store which constitutes for the hearer/reader the discourse base (see Schank & Abelson, 1977). It will also involve the establishment of a chain of relations between these additional propositions and between these and the encoded propositions which then constitute the discourse relational base. For example, in interpreting the relationship between 'John left the party early' and 'Mary's father was ill' as causative, one may add to the discourse base propositions such as for example, 'Mary is John's wife', 'Mary and John live in a particular place X', 'Mary's father lives in the place X' etc. This propositional enrichment will lead to a relational chain involving reason. . . . However, since it will not always be necessary, or indeed possible, to supply propositions among which such a relational chain may be established, hearers/readers must sometimes take on trust the fact that there *is* relevant information which would, if it were known to them, allow for the establishment of a relational chain. . . . Thus, the lack of . . . intersubjectivity between speaker/writer and hearer/reader ensures that the discourse base and discourse relational base will rarely be exactly the same for both. Nevertheless, the text itself, together with the cues (including simple juxtaposition) which it provides for the implementation of those universal perceptual processes which establish relation, provides a base for the implementation of communicative assumptions. In particular, the textually encoded propositions provide the beginning and end-point of the relational process – the necessary conditions for its operation (Crombie, 1987, p.7, fn1).

(d) the fact that signaling/ signposting, which may be either general or specific (e.g. *but* signalling the presentence of a contrastive relation of some type;

although signalling a specific type of relation), is seen as extending across lexical and grammatical systems (e.g. the *Reason-Result* relation may be signaled by subordinators (e.g. *because, as, since*), prepositions (e.g. *because of, in view of*), conjuncts (e.g. *therefore, hence*), verbs (e.g. *cause, lead to*), nouns (e.g. *effect, reason*)).

Figure 1 includes those *inter*-propositional relations that are central to Crombie's relational taxonomy

Figure 1: *Inter-propositional (with examples) central to Crombie's relational taxonomy*



Inter-propositional relations: Some background information

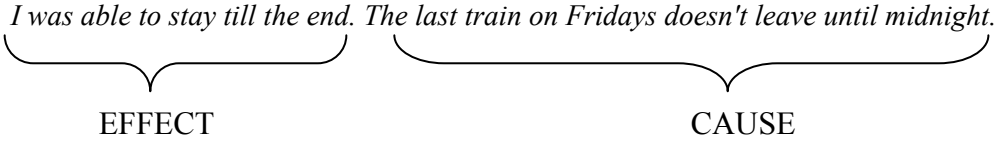
Inter-propositional relations and inferencing

When human beings communicate with one another, they do so not in terms of individual words, clauses or sentences, but in terms of the interaction between words, clauses and sentences and relevant context (including general knowledge of the world). All of this contributes to the making of assumptions that are fundamental to attempts to make sense of relationships between encoded propositions and, hence, to making sense of what we hear/ read.

As soon as two clauses, sentences or groups of sentences are juxtaposed, there is an assumption that each of them has a function in relation to the other, that there is a relationship of some kind between them:

I was able to stay till the end. The last train on Fridays doesn't leave till midnight.

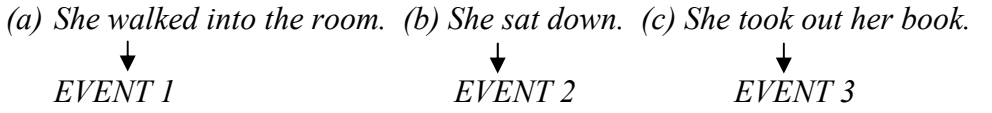
Here, the most likely relationship is one of a general cause-effect type:



However, in making the inference that this type of relationship is intended, all sorts of assumption come into play. These include, for example, the assumptions that reference is being made to some sort of event that took place on Friday and that the speaker intended to catch a train after leaving that event. These assumptions are, in a sense, added to the text in order to make it into a piece of coherent discourse (where the word 'text' is being used here to refer to what is actually said/ written and the word 'discourse' is being used to refer to a text *plus* all of the propositions the reader/listener adds in order to make sense of it). Thus, although two listeners/ readers may share the same text, they will not necessarily share the same discourse.

It is interesting to consider the complexity of the mental operations are involved in making connections between sections of a text. In the example above, it is almost inevitable that the relationship inferred between the propositions is one of a cause-effect type. However, in other cases, the inferred relationships may be quite different. In the following example, listeners/ readers are more likely to make the inference that the events referred to occurred one after the other and that, therefore, a relationship involving chronological sequence is involved:

She walked into the room. She sat down. She took out her book.

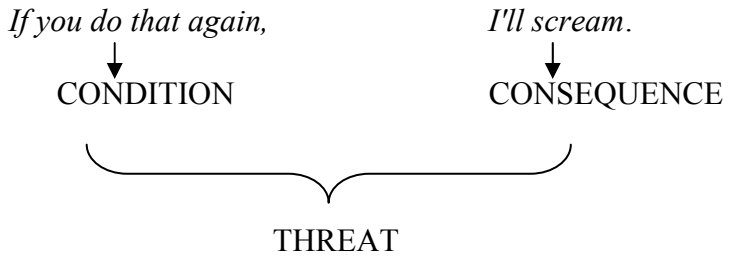


While the difference may seem so obvious as not to warrant attention in this case, there are many cases where making inferences about the applicability of different types of relation is a more complex matter. In either case, it is clear that a considerable amount of very rapid mental processing is involved. This is one of the reasons why words and phrases (e.g. *because, so, next; after that*) that can signal the author's intentions in terms of relationships and types of relationship can play a very important role in terms of processing.

Relationships and the concepts of unitary and binary values

The taxonomic scheme of *inter*-propositional relationships proposed by Crombie (1985a & b) is concerned with binary (two part) values or functions. This should not be confused with the kinds of unitary function (e.g. *threat*, *warning*, *insult*, *suggestion*) with which many researches in the area of pragmatics are primarily concerned, the type that is prioritized in, for example, Wilkins' *Notional Syllabuses*

(1976). There is, however, a connection between some unitary values and some binary ones. Thus, for example, the unitary value *threa*t presupposes the binary value *condition–consequence* which may, or may not, be evident in surface encoding:



Just you do that again……!

Inter-propositional relations: Coherence and cohesion
These two juxtaposed sentence have already been discussed:

I was able to stay till the end. The last train on Fridays doesn't leave till midnight.

In this case, readers are likely to agree that the sentences are coherent, that is, that they make sense. There are, however, no cohesive devices (words/ phrases etc. that 'tie' segments of text together) present and so we have coherence without cohesion in this case. Some cohesive devices signal/ signpost relationships. In the following example, the subordinator 'because' is a cohesive device that signals the relationship of reason-result:

I was able to stay till the end of the party ***because*** *the last train doesn't leave till midnight.*

Inter-propositional relations can be signalled or signposted in a whole range of ways - each one providing a cohesive link in the text. For example, the reason component of a *reason-result* relation can be signalled in many different ways as demonstrated in the sentences below:

Because *he was late, I started to worry.*
(Subordinator introducing subordinate clause of reason)

Because of *his lateness, I started to worry.*
(Complex preposition introducing nominalization)

His lateness ***caused*** *me to start to worry.*
(Causative verb linking a nominalized subject to an infinitival object)

The ***reason*** *I started to worry was that he was late.*
(Initial resultative noun)

A relationship of *simple contrast* may be signposted in a variety of ways. In the following sentence, it is signposted by the substitution/ replacement of 'the man' by 'the woman' (complementaries) and by the substitution of 'early' by 'late' (antonyms):

The man *left* ***early****;* ***the woman*** *left* ***late****.*

In the following example, the relationship of *simple contrast* is signposted in a different way - by the replacement/ substitution of 'her' by 'his' and by the use of the comparative (*better*) in the second clause.

***Her** work is good; **his** is **better**.*

Relationships of the type discussed here are aspects of discourse coherence. However, they may be signaled/ signposted by a wide range of cohesive devices. Indeed, it has been convincingly argued that a great deal of the vocabulary and syntax of languages serves this type of signalling function (see, for example, Winter, 1977; 1979). This, for example, the word 'because' may serve to instruct listeners/ readers to read what follows as a reason and what precedes as a result:

*She's skinny **because** she eats too little.*
↓ ↓
RESULT REASON

Similarly, the occurrence of the antonyms *stupid* and *intelligent* in combination with the replacement/ substitution of 'John' by 'Mary' can act as an instruction to listeners/ readers to interpret the two encoded propositions as being in a relationship of *simple contrast*:

John's stupid; Mary's intelligent.

Cohesion and relational signaling can take many different forms including ellipsis, substitution, conjunctives, non-finite verbs (*Being . . . . he . . .*), antonymy, synonymy, superordinates and hyponyms, co-hyponms and complementarity. In many cases, semantic chains made up of , for example, co-hyponyms, play a role in the most basic of all of the *inter*-propositional relations, that of *Bonding,* an additivfe (non-contrastive, non-elective) relation.

Inter-propositional relations and linguistic universals

Ballard, Conrad and Longacre (1971a, p. 73) note that "deep structure relations - which are on the situational or real-world side of language rather than on its more formal side - are *more universal* than the surface structures which encode them" [emphasis added] and Beekman and Callow (1974, p. 288) make a distinction between 'perceptual relations' and 'conceptual relations', defining the former as relations which may be perceived in the real world and the latter as relations that "derive from the fact that a writer or speaker is not content simply to state perceptions of the real world". Longacre (1996, p. 2) claims that both *intra*-propositional and *inter*-propositional relations, "are not language specific but belong to the general notional structure of language" and "emerge as categories which are marked in the surface structure of at least some languages". This, combined with the fact that those who have studied *inter*-propositional relations with reference to different languages and language groups have frequently proposed similar types of categorization (see Whaanga, 2005, pp. 85-197), that accounts for the prominent position they occupy in the relational approach to syllabus design proposed by Crombie (1985a).

Inter-propositional relations and reading comprehension

Inter-propositional relations feature prominently in a number of accounts of what are referred to variously as 'elemental genres' (Hyland, 2007), 'elementary genres' (Quinn, 1993) and 'cognitive genres' (Bruce, 2003), such as, for example, *argument*

and *recount* and reference is often made to them in genre-centred writing instruction (see, for example, Lin, 2010). Indeed, although Devitt (2004, p. 198) notes that this type of instruction can also have a positive impact on reading, there appears to be considerably less literature on the impact of *inter*-propositional relations on reading comprehension. Even so, this is an area that has by no means been wholly neglected. Thus, for example, Haberlandt (1982) has demonstrated that reading times are faster where linguistic indicators of relations are present, and Traxler, Sanford, Aked and Moxey (1997) have shown that where short texts involving an inferential relation are preceded by an indicator of that relation, reading speed will be faster than where they are not. Even so, Sanders, Spooren and Noordman (1992; 1993) have argued that it is necessary to account for *how* these relations play a role in cognitive representation and, in connection with this, have proposed a composite structure for these relations made up of four basic notions: BASIC OPERATION (causal; additive); SOURCE OF COHERENCE (semantic; pragmatic); POLARITY (negative; positive); and, in the case of causal relations, order of segments (BASIC ORDER; NON-BASIC ORDER). They then conducted three different experiments. In the first, they asked discourse analysts to decide, on the basis of examples and relational definitions, which relation could most appropriately be assigned in the case of a number of sample texts. In the second, they asked non-linguists to select appropriate connectives to link text samples. In the third, trained discourse analysts were asked to group texts in terms of whether the same relation occurred. Not surprisingly, although the results suggested that there were four distinct relational clusters, neither 'order of spans' nor 'source of coherence' appeared as relevant distinguishing features.

Relational analysis of a short text: An illustration

A relational approach to textual analysis is exemplified here with reference to a short text (371 words) that could be used in the teaching of L1 or L2 students. The text is an advertisement that appeared in the New Zealand *Sunday Star Times Magazine* on 25th July 2004.[1] The focus of the advertisement is the Chicken Royale Burger, part of the menu at MacDonald's Family restaurants during that year. The full text of the advertisement is attached as *Appendix 1*. The relational model applied is outlined in *Figure 1* above. No lesson plan is provided because the nature of that plan would be affected by a range of factors, including the background and proficiency of the students.

From the name of the burger (*Chicken Royale*), which evokes both royalty and French cuisine, to the final section of the copy (*Chicken Royale – A better class of chicken*), this advertisement plays on lineage/ whakapapa, status and privilege in order to convey an impression of quality and exclusivity which is in contrast with the general public perception of MacDonald's Family restaurants and the menu offered by them. In common with most other advertisements, the overall aim of this text is to persuade consumers to buy a particular product, often through techniques aimed at increasing product awareness and enhancing memorability. In this case, the advertisement relies heavily on humour, with the ingredients out of which the burger is made being personified as characters who, having lead a privileged lifestyle, eventually succumb to boredom and a sense of emptiness and (sportingly) agree to be transformed into a *Chicken Royal,* a burger presented as being intended for those with discerning taste, one that is intended to be associated with "the kind of lifestyle most ordinary New Zealanders can only dream about". The advertisement begins with a play on words that

relies on *Why did the chicken cross the road?* jokes and involves the relation (unsignalled) of *Reason-Result* (inverted):

> This chicken never has to cross the road. (*Result*)
> It was chauffeured. (*Reason*)

The first phase of the analysis involves identifying lexical chains that run throughout the advertisement. These include, for example, a food chain that includes an ingredients chain:

> **FOOD** (including **ingredient**s): ***chicken*** - burger – meal – burger – Chicken Royale – ***ingredients*** – ***the cheese –*** Cheese – ***the tomatoes*** – ***the Honey Mustard*** – ***French dressing*** – ***The Lettuce*** – ***Lettuce - the Chicken*** – ***Chicken*** – ***ingredients*** – burger – Chicken Royale - ***chicken***

They also include each of the following:

> **STATUS** (including ***royalty*** and modes of **transport**): pedigree – breeding – cocoon of privilege – lifestyle – ***hereditary count*** – mansion – ***royal family*** - vast villa – lazing – jet-skiing – water-skiing – wake-boarding – heir to a. . . substantial fortune – luxurious Château – ***minor member of Danish Royalty*** – wealthy – ***Prince William*** – trust fund – **chauffeur-driven cars** – **helicopter** – **private jet - motor yacht** - class
>
> **LOCATIONS** (including ***New Zealand locations*****)**: Lake Como – Klosters – Tuscany – ***Paihia*** – ***Pauanui*** – South America – New Zealand – New Zealand
>
> **LEISURE ACTIVITIES (SPORTS)/ DUTY**: lazing – jet-skiing – water-skiing – wake-boarding – parties – night clubs// public – duty – worthwhile contribution – give . . . something back – good sports

These lexical chains play an important role in establishing and maintaining that sense of coherence and continuity that underpins this advertisement and contribute to its narrative development.

The first part of the text, in bold print, establishes the theme of status and privilege (continued through the status chain) in the context of an unsignalled *Reason-Result* (inverted) relation:

This chicken never had to cross the road.	***Result***
It was chauffeured.	***Reason***

This is followed by a further *Reason-Result* relation, again unsignalled. Here the status chain is combined with the food chain and the presence of the modified attitudinal disjunct – *quite frankly* – establishes the conversational tone that runs throughout.

Chicken Royale is a burger that has, quite frankly, never had to worry where its next meal may be coming from.	***Result***
It is a burger of rare pedigree and breeding.	***Reason***

In the next section of the text, the ingredients sub-chain is established. This section of the text is linked to the previous section through a *Bonding* relation of the rhetorical coupling type (introduced by 'indeed') and contains a further *Bonding* relation introduced, as is often the case where *Bonding* is involved, by a present participle:

Chicken Royale is a burger that has, quite frankly, never had to worry where its next meal may be coming from. It is a burger of rare pedigree and breeding.	
Indeed all of Chicken Royale's ingredients were raised in a cocoon of privilege,	***Bonding***
enjoying the kind of lifestyle most ordinary New Zealanders can only dream about.	***Bonding***

The text segment above, in introducing the ingredients sub-chain, prepares the way for a relation of *Statement-Amplification* that links a number of text segments that continue the theme of status and introduce further lexical chains relating to status locations and leisure activities:

Indeed all of Chicken Royale's **ingredients** were raised in a cocoon of privilege, enjoying the kind of lifestyle most ordinary New Zealanders can only dream about.	***Statement***
The cheese is the eldest son of a hereditary count. Cheese was brought up in a mansion on the shores of Lake Como, spent its winters skiing at Klosters with the royal family and summers at a vast villa in Tuscany.	***Amplification 1***
The tomatoes never knew what it was like to work for a living, and grew plump and red lazing on the beaches at Paihia or Pauanui. For Tomatoes, Monday morning meant Tuesday was water-skiing. Wednesday was wake-boarding. By Thursday they didn't really know what day it was, but that could have been due to the parties and night-clubs they frequented most evenings.	***Amplification 2***
The Honey Mustard, heir to a substantial French dressing fortune, was brought up in a luxurious Château, went to South America to avoid military service, and later had a brief but tempestuous affair with a minor member of Danish Royalty.	***Amplification 3***
The Lettuce was born to a wealthy New Zealand family and attended the same school as Prince William. But unlike him, Lettuce was not burdened by the weight of public duty. Comforted by a trust-fund, Lettuce returned to New Zealand to write a movie script, which it never started.	***Amplification 4***
And as for **the Chicken.** Well. Let's just say that whenever Chicken felt like roaming it had the choice of seven chauffeur-driven cars, a helicopter, a private jet for longer journeys and a motor yacht.	***Amplification 5***

Within the context of the *Amplification* members of this relation, a number of other relations occur. These include *Bonding* (which is sometimes combined with *Chronological Sequence*):

Cheese was brought up in a mansion on the shores of Lake Como, spent its winters skiing at Klosters with the royal family and summers at a vast villa in Tuscany.	***Bonding***
The tomatoes never knew what it was like to work for a living, and grew plump and red lazing on the beaches at Paihia or Pauanui.	***Bonding***
Monday morning meant Tuesday was water-skiing. **Tuesday** was water-skiing. **Wednesday** was wake-boarding. **By Thursday** they didn't really know what day it was, but that could have been due to the parties and night-clubs they frequented most evenings.	***Bonding & Chronological Sequence***
The Honey Mustard, heir to a substantial French dressing fortune, was brought up in a luxurious Château, went to South America to avoid military service, and **later** had a brief but tempestuous affair with a minor member of Danish Royalty.	***Bonding & Chronological Sequence***
The Lettuce was born to a wealthy New Zealand family and attended the same school as Prince William.	***Bonding***
Comforted by a trust-fund, Lettuce returned to New Zealand to write a movie script, which it never started.	***Bonding & Chronological Sequence***

Also co-occurring with the relation of *Statement-Amplification* are the cause-effect relations of *Reason-Result* (signalled by the complex preposition 'due to'), *Means-Purpose* (signalled by the infinitive construction) and Condition-Consequence (signalled by the universal conjunction 'whenever' –i.e. *if, at any time*), the associative relations of *Simple Contrast* (signalled by the general contrastive conjunction 'but' and by the negative preposition 'unlike') and *Statement-Concession* (signalled by the general contrastive conjunction 'but' and the more specific concessive subordinating conjunction 'although').

By Thursday they didn't really know what day it was, — ***Statement -***
but that [didn't really know what day it was] — ***Concession*** — ***Result-***
could have been **due to** the parties and night-clubs they frequented most evenings. — ***Reason***

The Honey Mustard . . . went to South America — ***Means-***
to avoid military service . . . — ***Purpose***

The honey Mustard had a **brief** — ***Statement-***
but tempestuous affair with . . . — ***Concession***

The Lettuce was born to a wealthy New Zealand family and attended the same school as Prince William. — ***Simple***
But unlike him, Lettuce was not burdened by the weight of public duty. — ***Contrast***

Lettuce returned to New Zealand — ***Means-***
to write a movie script — ***Purpose***

Lettuce returned to New Zealand to write a movie script, — ***Statement-***
which it never started. — ***Concession***

whenever **Chicken felt like roaming** — ***Condition-***
it had the choice of seven chauffeur-driven cars, a helicopter, a private jet for longer journeys and a motor yacht. — ***Consequence***

In the final sections of the text, the most salient relations are *Simple Comparison, Concession-Contraexpectation, Bonding, Reason-Result* and *Reason-Result*. In the case of the final *Reason-Result* relation, the reason [They agreed] is unstated and has to be recovered by inferencing.

What all the ingredients had **in common** — ***Simple***
was a deep sense of personal dissatisfaction — ***Comparison &***
and a distinct lack of self esteem. — ***Bonding***

What all the ingredients had in common — ***Statement-***
– although that's not really the right word - — ***Concession***

Bored and feeling unfulfilled and empty within, — ***Reason-***
each yearned to make a worthwhile contribution to the world. — ***Result***

We suggested they might just enjoy being a burger.
[They agreed] — ***Reason-***
Hats off to them for being such good sports about it. — ***Result***

Making use of relational analyses in the language classroom

In introducing students to relational analyses of texts, it can be useful to reformulate the texts in focus, placing them in the centre of the page and leaving a substantial margin on each side for labelling and commentary. The visual impact helps them to

appreciate the fact that the same segment of text may enter into several different relations and, more generally, helps them to gain a greater understanding of the extent of textual layering and overlap.

It is generally advisable to undertake the analysis in phases. The first of these might involve the identification of cohesive devices; the second might involve the tracing of lexical chains; the third might involve the identification of *inter*-propositional relations and their association with a range of signalling devices, followed by a search for unsignalled relations.

The approach requires students to read and re-read the text many times, focusing not on micro-level grammar or individual vocabulary items, but in search for those aspects of the language that aid comprehension by highlighting textual links. An example of the kind of question that might be asked, one which focuses on uncovering a *Reason-Result* relationship might be:

> *What was the reason Chicken Burger did not have to worry about having enough money to buy food?*

With teacher support, some sections of the text can be reformulated and reworded in ways that highlight different encodings of *inter*-propositional relations, this heightening awareness of the critical role that they play in discourse comprehension (see *Appendix 2* for an example of the type of layout that can assist students to understand textual layering).

Conclusion

Focusing on *inter*-propositional relations is a useful way of helping students to use both bottom-up and top-down processing in reading texts and thus to gain a deeper appreciation of the interaction between form and function and of the ways in which textual meanings are layered and embedded. This type of approach to reading comprehension can also have a significant impact on writing competence, providing models of different genres and writing styles.

Endnotes

1. This is advertisement has been used with permission from MacDonalds and their marketing agents.

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APPENDIX 1: *The text*

THIS CHICKEN
NEVER
HAD TO CROSS THE ROAD.

IT WAS CHAUFFEURED.

Chicken Royale is a burger that has, quite frankly, never had to worry where its next meal may be coming from. It is a burger of rare pedigree and breeding.

Indeed all of Chicken Royale's ingredients were raised in a cocoon of privilege, enjoying the kind of lifestyle most ordinary New Zealanders can only dream about.

The cheese is the eldest son of a hereditary count. Cheese was brought up in a mansion on the shores of Lake Como, spent its winters skiing at Klosters with the royal family and summers at a vast villa in Tuscany.

The Tomatoes never knew what it was like to work for a living, and grew plump and red lazing on the beaches at Paihia or Pauanui. For Tomatoes, Monday morning meant jet-skiing. Tuesday was water-skiing. Wednesday was wake-boarding. By Thursday they didn't really know what day it was, but that could have been due to the parties and night-clubs they frequented most evenings.

The Honey Mustard, heir to a substantial French dressing fortune, was brought up in a luxurious Château, went to South America to avoid military service, and later had a brief but tempestuous affair with a minor member of Danish Royalty.

The Lettuce was born to a wealthy New Zealand family and attended the same school as Prince William. But unlike him, Lettuce was not burdened by the weight of public duty. Comforted by a trust-fund, Lettuce returned to New Zealand to write a movie script, which it never started.

And as for the Chicken. Well. Let's just say that whenever Chicken felt like roaming it had the choice of seven chauffeur-driven cars, a helicopter, a private jet for longer journeys and a motor yacht.

What all the ingredients had in common – although that's not really the right word- was a deep sense of personal dissatisfaction and a distinct lack of self esteem. Bored and feeling unfulfilled and empty within, each yearned to make a worthwhile contribution to the world. To make a difference. To give a little something back.

We suggested they might just enjoy being a burger. Hats off to them for being such good sports about it.

CHICKEN ROYALE

A BETTER CLASS OF CHICKEN

APPENDIX 2: *Examples of the type of layout that can assist students to understand textual layering*

★This ◆chicken

Never had to cross ➚ the road

★It was ②chauffeured.

Repetition
Royale
Chicken
Burger
Tomatoes
Lettuce
Cheese
Family
New Zealand
INGREDIENTS
skiing

Links
① **of royalty or privileged classes** - Royale; royal; royalty pedigree; breeding; privilege; hereditary; count; Chateau; minor member; Prince William; public duty;

② **of wealth and luxury lifestyle** - chauffered; trust fund; parties; nightclubs; heir; fortune; wealthy; private jet; chauffeur-driven cars; helicopter; private jet; motor yacht; luxurious; better class

③ **of luxury housing**- mansion; villa; chateau;

④ **of food**-chicken; burger; meal; ingredients; tomatoes; honey mustard; French dressing; lettuce \

⑤ **of sport** - skiing; jet-skiing; wake-boarding

⑥ **of leisure locations favoured the wealthy** - Lake Como; Klosters; Tuscany; Paihia; Pauanui

④◆**Chicken** ①**Royale** is a ④◆**burger** that has, quite frankly, never had to worry where ★its next ④meal may be coming from. ★It is a ④◆**burger** of ***rare*** ①pedigree and ①breeding.

INDEED, all of ④◆**Chicken** ①**Royale**'s ④INGREDIENTS were ⑧raised in a ⑧cocoon of ①privilege, **(C)**⑦enjoying the kind of ②lifestyle most ***ordinary*** ***New Zealand***ers can only ⑦dream about.

The ◆**cheese** is the eldest ⑨son of a ①hereditary ①count. ①◆**Cheese** was ⑧brought up in a ③mansion on the shores of ⑥Lake Como, **(N)** spent ★its ***winters*** ⑤skiing at ⑥Klosters with the ①royal ⑨*family* **AND (C)** ***summers*** at a vast ③villa in ⑥Tuscany.

The ④◆**Tomatoes** never knew what it was like to ***work*** for a living, and **(N)** grew plump **AND (C)**red ⑦ ***lazing*** on the beaches at ⑥Paihia or ⑥Pauanui. For ④◆**Tomatoes**, Monday ***morning*** meant ⑤jet-skiing, Tuesday**(N)** was water-skiing. Wednesday**(N)** was ⑤wake-boarding. By Thursday**(N)**★they didn't really know what day it was, **BUT**★that could have been due to the ②parties **AND** ②night-clubs ★they frequented most ***evenings.***

The ④◆Honey Mustard, ②⑨heir to a substantial ④French dressing ②fortune, was ⑧brought up in a ②luxurious ①③Château, **(N)**went to South America

Substitution
Nominal **Each; what**

Ellipsis
Nominal (N) (the cheese) (the tomatoes) (the honey mustard); (morning); (to the world)
Clausal (C) (It was); (It spent it's) ; (they grew) (Because he was) (Because they were);(We take our)
Verbal (V) (is)

Conjunctions
AND; BUT; WHICH

Continuates and other adverbials
INDEED; (and) LATER; AND; WELL

⑦ **of emotional states** - enjoying; lazing; tempestuous; comforted; burdened; personal dissatisfaction; distinct lack of self esteem; bored; feeling unfulfilled and empty; yearned

⑧ **of education and upbringing**- raised in a cocoon; brought up; attended the same school as Prince William;

⑨ **of family relationships**- son; family; heir;

Synonyms/Near synonyms

raised – brought up
roaming – journeys
common- ordinary

Antonyms

summer – winter
work – lazing
rare- ordinary
[common]
morning - evening

Part /whole

◆Burger [lettuce; Tomato; chicken; cheese; honey mustard]

Part / part

Monday Tuesday
Wednesday Thursday

to avoid military service, **AND LATER (N)**had a brief **BUT** ⑦ tempestuous affair with a ① minor member of Danish ①Royalty.

The ④◆**Lettuce** was born to a ②wealthy ***New Zealand*** ⑨*family* **AND (N)** ⑧attended ➚ the same school as ①Prince William. **BUT** unlike ★him, ④◆**Lettuce** was not ⑦ burdened by the weight of ①public duty. **(C)** ⑦Comforted by a ②trust-fund. ④◆**Lettuce** returned to ***New Zealand*** to write a movie script, **WHICH** ★it never started.

AND as for the ④◆**Chicken**. **WELL.** Let's just say that whenever ④◆**Chicken** felt like roaming ★it had the choice of seven ②chauffeur-driven cars, a ②helicopter, a ②private jet for longer journeys **AND** a ②motor yacht.

What all the ④INGREDIENTS had in ***common*** – although ★that's not really the right word- was a deep sense of ⑦personal dissatisfaction and a ⑦distinct lack of self-esteem. **(C)**⑦Bored and ⑦feeling unfulfilled **AND** ⑦empty within, **each** ⑦yearned to make a worthwhile contribution to the world. To make a difference **(N)**. To give a little something back **(N)**..

➚ We suggested ★they might just enjoy being a ④**burger**. **(C)**Hats off to ★them for being such good sports about ★it.

④◆**Chicken** **Royale**① **(V)**

A ② better class

of ④◆chicken

Inter-propositional relations: Representation in a small segment of the text

	Chicken Royale is a burger that has, quite frankly, never had to worry where its next meal may be coming from. It is a burger of rare pedigree and breeding.	***Result*** / ***Reason*** → ***Reason-Result***
Statement	**Indeed** all of Chicken Royale's **ingredients** were raised in a cocoon of privilege, **enjoying** the kind of lifestyle most ordinary New Zealanders can only dream about.	***Bonding*** → ***Bonding***
Amplification 1	**The cheese** is the eldest son of a hereditary count. Cheese was brought up in a mansion on the shores of Lake Como, spent its winters skiing at Klosters with the royal family and summers at a vast villa in Tuscany.	***Bonding*** / ***Bonding*** / ***Bonding*** / ***Bonding***
Amplification 2	**The Tomatoes** never knew what it was like to work for a living, and grew plump and red lazing on the beaches at Paihia or Pauanui. For Tomatoes, **Monday morning** meant **Tuesday** was water-skiing. **Wednesday** was wake-boarding. By **Thursday** they didn't really know what day it was, **but** that could have been **due to** the parties and night-clubs they frequented most evenings.	***Bonding*** / ***Bonding & Chronological Sequence*** / ***Statement-Concession*** / ***Result-Reason***

Intra-propositional relations and their signalling: An investigation of authentic Māori texts

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Abstract
I report here on one part of a research project that involved the investigation of a range of authentic Māori texts in terms of two types of meaning relation – those that operate *within* propositions ('*intra*-propositional relations') and those that link propositions or groups of propositions ('*inter*-propositional relations'). The focus here is on *intra*-propositional relations (relationships within propositions). On the basis of the comparison of a number of *intra*-propositional relational models, a new model which draws inspiration from the work of Crombie is proposed and applied to a corpus of texts written in Māori, the emphasis being on the ways in which these relations are signalled in Māori.

Introduction
There is a long tradition within linguistics of analysing clauses and sentences in terms of grammatical relations such as *Subject* and *Object*. It has been argued, however, that meaning relations that typically operate *within* clauses ('*intra*-propositional relations') and those that typically operate *between* clauses and groups of clauses ('*inter*-propositional relations') are at least as significant. *Intra*-propositional relations (also sometimes referred to as 'case roles/ relations'), are meaning relations that operate *within* a single proposition. In linguistic terms, a proposition (see Fillmore, 1968, p. 23), is essentially an abstraction made up of a semantic predicator (an action, state or process) and one or more arguments that relate to it. The same proposition can be expressed linguistically in different ways in the same language or in different languages. It is often encoded as a clause (with tense etc. added).

Much of the enquiry concerning *intra*-propositional relations and *inter*-propositional relations can be traced back to research in the context of what has come to be known as tagmemic theory (see, for example, Barnard, 1954; McKaughan, 1958; Miller, 1964), the potential for extension and wider application being evident in the work of Fuller (1959) whose primary concern was to elaborate an inductive method of Bible study which took account of thematic coherence. That research tradition, a tradition in which the focus has often been on Philippine and Papua New Guinea languages, has continued. However, the article that succeeded in attracting the attention of linguists more generally to the significance of '*intra*-propositional relations', an article that was published in 1968 (Fillmore, 1968) following two earlier related articles by the same author (Fillmore, 1966a; 1966b), was not located within the tagmemic tradition.

A brief comparative analysis of *intra*-propositional relational models[1]
The Case for Case, an article by Fillmore that appeared in 1968, is regarded as one of the major benchmarks in the discussion of the possibility of establishing a general set of *intra*-propositional relations. Fillmore (1968) lists six relations (*Agentive, Instrumental, Dative, Factitive, Locative,* and *Objective*), adding a further three (*Benefactive, Time, Comitative*) in the course of the discussion (for definitions and examples, see *Appendix 1 Table A1*). Fillmore (1971) later revised this model, making

a distinction between *Agent* and *Experiencer* and between both of these and *Location. Dative* was replaced by three relations: *Experiencer*, *Object* and *Goal*. *Locative* was also replaced by three relations: *Location, Source* and *Goal* (subsuming *Factitive*). Note that there are, in fact, five relations here (*Goal* appears in each set). Although the *Comitative* role was removed, *Benefactive* remained. Thus, the revised list consists of nine categories: *Agent*, *Experiencer*, *Instrument*, *Object*, *Source*, *Goal*, *Location*, *Time*, and *Benefactive* (for definitions and examples, see *Appendix 1 Table A2*). Chafe (1970) lists seven relations (which he refers to as 'noun-verb relations'). These are *Patient*, *Agent*, *Experiencer*, *Beneficiary*, *Instrument*, *Complement*, and *Location* (for definitions and examples, see *Appendix 1 Table A3*). Anderson (1971), on the other hand, proposes only four relations: *Nominative*, *Ergative*, *Locative*, and *Ablative* (for definitions and examples, see *Appendix 1 Table A4*). One framework that differs significantly is that of Grimes (1975), in which a distinction is made between *orientation roles* (orientation to motion or position), *process roles* (dynamic aspect of change of state and static aspect of stable states) and *agentive roles* (causative). There are thirteen roles in Grimes' (1975) framework: *Object*, *Source*, *Goal*, *Range*, *Vehicle*, *Material*, *Result*, *Patient*, *Referent*, *Agent*, *Instrument*, *Force*, and *Benefactive* (for definitions and examples, see *Appendix 1 Table A5*). This framework is an interesting one in terms of its potential applicability to languages other than English, including non-Indo-European languages, because it is motivated largely by considerations of meaning rather than structure. Crombie (1985) also classifies relations in terms of predicator type – *dynamic, process* (including material and experiential processes) and *stative* (including material and experiential states). She distinguishes five main relational categories - *causal*, *participation* (activity-participation; process-participation; state-participation), *orientation-transition, relational* and *abaxiant*. The relations identified in her model are: *Agent*, *Instrument*, *Force*, *Patient*, *Assignee*, *Material*, *Result*, *Mutant*, *Durant*, *Experiencer*, *Appertainant*, *Object*, *Source*, *Goal*, *Range*, *Referee*, *Referent*, *Quantant*, and *Abaxiant* (for definitions and examples, see *Appendix 1 Table A6*). Finally, Longacre (1996) presents a set of situational roles classified in terms of frames and verb types. Following Chafe (1970), he refers to *Patient* rather than *Object*. Following Halliday (1967, 1968), he includes *Range* (rather than *Complement*), his definition of *Range* being closer to Fillmore's definition of *Locative* than it is, for example, to Grimes' definition of *Range*. He also introduces a relation referred to as *Measure*, the final model having only nine relations: *Experiencer*, *Patient*, *Agent*, *Range*, *Measure*, *Source*, *Locative*, *Goal*, and *Path* (for definitions and examples, see *Appendix 1 Table A7*).

An intra-propositional relational model

Taking into account the similarities and differences among the models referred to above, a new model is proposed here, one that is based on a distinction between eight-predicator types: *non-transitional activity; material process; experiential state or process; material state; spatial state; transitional event; locational state; relational* (see Whaanga, 2006, *Chapter 2* for a full discussion). Each relation is associated with one, or more than one, of these eight predicator types, two of the proposed relations – *Temporal Location* and *Temporal Transition* – being distinctive in terms of the extent to which they span predicator type categories. Each of these predicator types is included in *Table 1* below. The resulting model of 27 *intra*-propositional relations is outlined in *Table 1* which includes definitions and examples drawn from English.

Table 1: *Classification of intra-propositional relations*[2]

Predicator Types	*Intra-propositional relations*	Definitions	Examples
With non-transitional activity predicator	***Source (Non-Transitional)***	Entity (entities) from which a non-transitional activity is identified as emanating.[3]	***The dog*** *ate the rat.*
	Instrument	Entity by means of which a non-transitional activity is carried out by an *Agent.*	*He broke the window with a* ***hammer****.*
	Directional Focus	The target of a non-transitional activity.	*The dog ate the* ***rat****.* *He lied about Mary to* ***John****.* *He bequeathed his house to* ***John****.* *He awarded a goal to* ***John***[4]
	Predicate Range	The entity (entities)/abstraction over which a non-transitional predicate ranges.	*He lied about* ***Mary*** *to John.* *He taught Mary about* ***Physics****.* *He taught* ***French*** *to Mary.*
	Material	Entity (entities) transformed into another specified entity through a non-transitional activity.	*She makes* ***clay*** *into bowls.*
	Result	Entity (entities) resulting from a non-transitional activity.	*She makes clay into* ***bowls****.*
	Event Location	Location of a non-transitional activity.	*He killed Henry* ***behind the garage****.*
With material process predicator	***Mutant***	Entity (entities) affected by a process.	***The butter*** *melted.*
With material state predicator	***Identified State***	Entity (entities) identified as being in the state referred to in the predicator.	***The door*** *is green.*
With spatial state predicator	***Entity Location (Spatial)***	Entity (entities) identified as being in a static location.	***The book is in the*** *drawer****.***
With experiential state or process predicator	***Experiencer***	Entity (entities) identified as experiencing an experiential state or process.	***He*** *heard the music.* ***He*** *likes music.*
	Appertainant	Entity (entities) identified as the source of an experiential state or process.	*He heard* ***the music****.* *He likes* ***music****.*
With transitional event predicator	***Source (Transitional)***	Entity (entities) involved in the initiation of a movement.	***He*** *shifted it off the table.*
	Starting Point	Location of an entity (or entities) at the beginning of a transitional event.	*It fell from the* ***table*** *to the floor.*
	End Point	Location of an entity (or entities) at the end of a transitional event.	*It fell from the table to the* ***floor****.*
	Transitional Range	Area covered during a transitional event.	*The egg rolled* ***down the hill****.*
	Transitor	Entity (entities) in (locational) transition.	***The egg*** *rolled down the hill.*
With relational predicator	***Possessor***	Entity (entities) identified as being the possessor in the case of a relational predicator.	***She*** *has a Mercedes.*
	Possessed	Entity (entities) identified as being the possessed in the case of a relational predicator.	*She has* ***a Mercedes****.*
	Quantified	Entity (entities) identified as being the quantified in the case of a relational predicator.	***It*** *weighs a tonne.*
	Quantifier	Quantifier of entity (entities).	*It weighs* ***a tonne****.*
	Affector	Entity (entities) identified as being the affector in the case of a relational predicator.	*Jean has* ***typhus****.*

Table 1 (cont.): *Classification of intra-propositional relations*

Predicator Types	*Intra*-propositional relations	Definitions	Examples
With relational predicator	***Affected***	Entity (entities) identified as being the affected in the case of a relational predicator.	***Jean*** *has typhus.*
	Relational Specifier	Topic of a relational predicator.	***The decision*** *is relevant to John.*
	Relational Target	Target of a relational specifier.	*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.	*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.	*He travelled* ***all day.***

It is important to note that a number of these relations are very similar, the differences among them relating to the types of predicator with which they are associated. Thus, for example, both *Source (Non-transitional)* and *Source (Transitional)* identify the agent of an action, the difference being in the nature of the action. *Experiencer, Relational Target*, *Directional Focus, Mutant*, *Transitor* and *Affected* all identify something (+/- animate) that is, or may be impacted on by an action or process. The difference relates to the nature of the action or process involved. Similarly, both *Appertainant* and *Affector* identify things that impact in a non-agentive way on an entity or entities. Although it would be perfectly possible to treat each of these groups of relations (and others) as a single relation, what would be lost in doing so is the critical semantic differences that are attributable to predicator type.

It is also important to note that not all *intra*-propositional relations are signalled/ signposted in all languages and also that there are a range of different ways in which they may be signalled in different languages or in the same language, some of the signals being more specific than others. Thus, for example, although the preposition 'by' may co-occur in English with both *Directional Focus* (e.g. He was killed by John) and *Affector* (e.g. He was killed by a rockfall), the preposition 'with' generally co-occurs with *Instrument* (e.g. He was killed with an overdose of morphine). However, the preposition 'from' is generally selected where the speaker/ writer does not know whether intentional agency was involved or wishes to avoid the attribution of intentional agency (e.g. He died from an overdose of morphine).

A final point that needs to be made here is that the signaling of *intra*-propositional relations may be over-ridden by other considerations. It is this that is treated first in the outline below.

The signalling of *intra*-propositional relations in Māori: A corpus-based study

Six texts in Māori analysed by Houia-Roberts (2004) made up the primary corpus used as the basis for the identification of relational signals. Three of these texts were written by Sir Apirana Ngata in the first half of the twentieth century, three were written by Tīmoti Kāretu at the end of the twentieth century (see *Appendix 2*).[5] In the following outline, some examples from the corpus are provided long with a gloss and a translation. A number of abbreviations are used in the linear glosses[6] which are

generally followed by a reference to the author and text number as set out *Appendix 2* (e.g. A.N.1 = Apirana Ngata (text 1); T.K.4 = Tīmoti Kāretu (text 4)). In cases where no examples of a particular relation were found in the corpus but were supplied by an informant, the translation is followed by (INF).[7]

Over-riding *intra*-propositional relational signals

In the following instances, the signalling of *intra*-propositional relations is over-ridden by other factors.

(i) Predicator nominalization is followed by the preposition ***a/o*** (see examples (1) and (2) below), or, in the case of *Appertainant,* by ***i*** (see example (3) below):

Source (Non-Transitional):

(1) *Tērā atu ngā kaupapa kōrero* ***a*** *ētahi atu iwi . . .*
DEM DIR DET-PL N ADJ PR DET-PL DIR N
that away the topic conversation of the away people
'There are many other explanations held by other peoples . . .' (A.N.1)

Experiencer:

(2) *koirā te kite-nga tautahi-tanga* ***o*** *te Pākehā i tēnei manu*
DEM-DET DET N-Canga N-Canga PR DET N PR DEM N
that is the sight first of the Pakeha this bird
'that was the first sighting by Pakeha of this bird' (T.K.5)

Appertainant:

(3) *koirā te kite-nga tautahi-tanga o te Pākehā* ***i*** *tēnei manu*
DEM-DET DET N-Canga N-Canga PR DET N PR DEM N
that is the sight first of the Pakeha this bird
'that was the first sighting by Pakeha of this bird' (T.K.5)

(ii) Actor emphatic constructions are accompanied by the prepositions ***nā***, ***nō***, ***mā*** and ***mō*** (see examples (4)-(7) below):

Source (Non-Transitional):

(4) ***nā*** *ā rātou kurī kē i whaka-mataku te kākāpō*
PR POSS N MAN TAM CAUS-V DET N
by their (3+, pl.) dog indeed PAST startle the kakapo
'it was their dog that startled the kakapo' (T.K.5)

Source (Non-Transitional):

(5) ***Nō*** *ngā kaitā te tino hē ki te perehi tonu i ērā*
PR DET-PL N DET MAN N PR DET N MAN PR DEM-PL
by the printer the very fault to the print still that
kōrero tino kino atu.
N MAN ADJ DIR
language very bad away
'The fault lies with the printers who continue to print this distasteful language.' (A.N.1)

Source (Non-Transitional):

(6) ***Mā*** *te tino tohunga anake e whaka-hua i tēnei ingoa . . .*
PR DET MAN N PP TAM CAUS-V PR DEM N
by the very priest only NPAST say to this name
'Only a tohunga (priest) could refer to him. . .' (A.N.3)

Source (Non-Transitional):

(7) *ko te mahi tuatahi tonu* ***mō*** *tō koutou rōpū . . .*
FM DET N ADJ MAN PR POSS N
the work first immediately for your (3+) group
'the very first thing that needs to be done by your group . . .' (A.N.2)

(iii) Emphatic fronting is accompanied by the preposition ***ko*** (see examples (8) and (9) below):

Predicate Range:

(8) ***Ko*** *te whakataukī pea hāngai ana ki te toa i tēnei wā, . . .*
FM DET N PP V TAM PR DET N PR DEM N
the expression perhaps direct CONT to the male at this time
'The expression best applied to the dominant males at this time is . . .' (T.K. 5)

Result:

(9) ***Ko*** *te tāne i hanga-ia i te tuatahi, nō muri ko te wahine*
FM DET N TAM V-PASS PR DET N PR LOC FM DET N
the male PAST create the first at back the female
'The male species was created first and then the female' (A.N.3)

(iv) The verb 'mate' selects the preposition ***i*** (see example (10) below):

Source (Non-Transitional):

(10) *he maha tonu ngā kākāpō ka mate* ***i*** *ā rātou kurī*
DET N MAN DET-PL N TAM V PR POSS N
IND many indeed the kakapo Unspec die by their (3+, pl.) dog
'many of the kakapo were killed by their dogs' (T.K.5)

(v) Durative aspect involving timeless, universal truths is accompanied by the preposition ***ki*** (see examples (11) and (12) below) except where it is followed by a possessive, in which case it is accompanied by the preposition ***i*** (see example (13) below):

Source (Non-Transitional:

(11) *he māmā noa iho* ***ki*** *te kurī te whaiwhai haere i tōna kakara*
DET ADJ MAN DIR PR DET N DET V ADV PR POSS N
IND easy freely down for the dog the pursue move their smell
'it becomes easy prey for dogs' (T.K.5)

Directional Focus:

(12) *Kimi tonu āna tāngata i tōna puta-nga mai* ***ki*** *te whaiao.*
V MAN POSS N PR POSS N-Canga DIR PR DET N
seek still its (pl.) man to his appearance hither to the daylight
'Man is still seeking knowledge of his creation.' (A.N.3)

Instrument:

(13) . . . *whaka-mahi* ***i*** *ō rātou ngutu hei unu mai i ngā kākano.*
CAUS-V PR POSS N PR N DIR PR DET-PL N
use their (3+, pl.) beak to suck hither the seed
'. . . the beak is used to suck out the seeds' (T.K.4)

(vi) Preceding a nominal substitute, the particle ***kia*** occurs (see example (14) below):

Identified State:

(14) *E hiahia ana rātou* ***kia*** *pēnei te roa-nga o*
TAM V TAM PRO TAM V DET N-Canga PR
CONT want CONT they (3+) like this the lengthening of
tōna ingoa Reweti T. Mōkena Kohere.
POSS N N N N N
his name Reweti T. Mōkena Kohere
'They want his full name to be Reweti T. Mokena Kohere.' (A.N.1)

(vii) In the context of a modified group to which reference is being made, ***mō*** occurs (see examples (15) and (16) below):

Possessor:

(15) . . . *ka waiho ko ngā hua o ēnā mahi hei*
TAM V FM DET-PL N PR DEM-PL N DET
Unspec leave the product of that work
ora-nga ***mō*** *te tangata Māori*
N-Canga PR DET N ADJ
welfare for the person Māori
'Māori people were left to exist on the monetary gains' (A.N.3)

Predicate Range:

(16) *e kōrero kē ana rātou* ***mō*** *te hunga pēperekōu*
TAM V MAN TAM PRO PR DET N ADJ
CONT speak instead CONT they (3+) for the group old women/man
'they are looking at older people in general' (T.K.4)

(viii) In the context of a relationship between an entity or entities and a property of that entity/ entities, the preposition ***o*** occurs (see examples (17)-(19) below):

Predicate Range:

(17) *me whaka-whāiti ngā mārama-tanga katoa e takoto nei*
TAM CAUS-V DET-PL N-Canga N TAM V PP
OBLIG collate the perspective all NPAST lie here
o *ngā mahi ahuwhenua o tō koutou rohe*
PR DET-PL N ADJ PR POSS N
of the work industrious of your (3+) area
'collate all this information about the work being carried out in your areas' (A.N. 2)

Identified State:

(18) *Ko te tae* ***o*** *ngā hune, e rite ana ki te pūkohu*
FM DET N PR DET-PL N TAM V TAM PR DET N
the colour of the down CONT same CONT to the mist
'The down is the colour of the mist . . .' (T.K.5)

(19) *Nā konei i pai ai te noho huna* ***o*** *te kākāpō i te*
PR LOC TAM V PP DET N ADJ PR DET N PR DET
by here PAST well the sit conceal of the kakapo at the
ao, i te pō.
N PR DET N
daytime at the night
'Because of this, the kakapo can stay concealed at day and at night. (T.K.5)

(ix) In the context of location in future time, the preposition ***ā*** occurs (see example (20) below):

Temporal Location:

(20) *ko te mahi tuatahi tonu mō tō koutou rōpū, me ērā*
FM DET N ADJ MAN PR POSS N CONJ DEM-PL
the work first immediately for your (3+) group and that
atu rōpū e whaka-tū-ria ana i roto i te rohe
DIR N TAM CAUS-V-PASS TAM PR LOC PR DET N
away group CONT establish CONT in the boundary
pōti o te Tairāwhiti ***ā*** *muri ake nei . . .*
N PR DET N PR LOC DIR PP
electoral of the Tairāwhiti behind upward here
'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 . . .' (A.N.2)

(x) In the context of a specific temporal reference, the preposition ***i*** occurs (see example (21) below); in the context of a general temporal reference, the preposition ***o*** occurs (see example (22) below):

Temporal Location:

(21) *. . . te kaute o ngā hipi, me ērā atu kararehe*
DET N PR DET-PL N CONJ DEM-PL DIR N
the count of the sheep and that away animal
a te Māori ***i*** *tēnei wā*
PR DET N PR DEM N
of the Māori at this time
. . . 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'(A.N.2)

(22) *I te āhua tonu* ***o*** *ēnei rā nei*
PR DET N MAN PR DEM-PL N PP
the appear indeed of these day here
'With things the way they are these days' (T.K.4)

Unsignaled relations

The *intra*-propositional relations of *Mutant*, *Source (Transitional)*, *Possessed*, *Affector*, *Affected* and *Quantified* were not signaled in any examples in the corpus (see examples (23)-(30) below):

Mutant:

(23) *I rewa te pata.*
TAM V DET N
PAST melt the butter
'The butter melted' (INF)

(24) *Ka whānui haere te tiriti.*
TAM V ADV DET N
Unspec widen move the street
'The street widened' (INF)

(25) *Ka ngēngē a Hoani.*
TAM V PERS N
Unspec tire John
'John tires' (INF)

Source (Transitional):

(26) *Ka nuku ia i te kai ki tua o te tēpu.*
TAM V PRO PR DET N PR LOC PR DET N
Unspec shift he the food further side of the table
'He shifted the food off the table' (INF)

Possessed:

(27) *He whare tōna.*
DET N POSS
IND house she
'She has a house.' (INF)

Affector:

(28) *E karawaka-ngia ana a Tīni*
TAM V-PASS TAM PERS N
CONT measles CONT Jean
'Jean has measles.' (INF)

Affected:

(29) *E karawaka-ngia ana a Tīni*
TAM V-PASS TAM PERS N
CONT measles CONT Jean
'Jean has measles.' (INF)

Quantified:

(30) *He tone tōna toimaha.*
DET N POSS N
IND tonne its weight
'It weighs a tonne.' (INF)

Relations signaled by *ki*

The *intra*-propositional relations of *End Point*, *Quantifier*, *Relational Target* and *Relational Specifier* were signaled by ***ki*** (see examples (31)-(34) below):

End Point:

(31) *Arā anō ētahi i tukuna atu* ***ki*** *ngā*
DEM-DET PP DET-PL TAM V-PASS DIR PR DET-PL
that is again some PAST send away to the
whare taonga o konei me tāwāhi.
(N ADJ) PR LOC CONJ N
museum of here and overseas
'Some were sent to the museums here and overseas.' (T.K.5)

Quantifier:

(32) *Tērā ka eke* ***ki*** *te 2.5 kirokaramu tōna taumaha.*
DEM TAM V PR DET N N POSS N
that Unspec reach to the 2.5 kilogram their weight
'[The Kaka] can reach a weight of 2.5 kgs'. (T.K.5)

Relational Target:

(33) . . . *i te wā i pai* ***ki*** *a ia*
PR DET N TAM V PR PERS PRO
at the time PAST good to him
'. . . (it/ staying nearby) is at his convenience' (T.K.5)

Relational Specifier:

(34) *Kei te pā te whakatau-nga* ***ki*** *a Hone.*
TAM V DET N-Canga PR PERS N
CONT pertaining to the decision to John
'The decision is relevant to John.' (INF)

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*** (see examples (35)-(43) below):

Predicate Range:

(35) *koirā tāku nā whakamāori-tanga* ***i*** *tērā whakaaro.*
DEM-DET POSS PP N-Canga PR DEM N
that is my here interpretation of that thought
'that at least is my interpretation of the notice.' (T.K. 4)

Material:

(36) *i hanga-ia mai te tangata* ***i*** *te puehu*
TAM V-PASS DIR DET N PR DET N
PAST create hither the man from the dust
'Man was created from dust' (A.N.3)

Result:

(37) *Hanga kōwhanga ai ngā uha* ***i*** *ngā tumu rākau*
V N PP DET-PL N PR DET-PL N ADJ
build nest the female the stump tree
'The females construct their nests around tree stumps and hollows' (T.K. 5)

Experiencer:

(38) . . . ***i*** *tō mātou kite-nga i ētahi kupu kāore e tika kia*
PR POSS N-Canga PR DET-PL N NEG VM V TAM
our (3+) seeing at some word not NPAST right
perehi-tia i roto i tētahi o ā tātou pepa Māori
V-PASS PR LOC PR DET PR POSS N N
print in at a of our (3+, pl.) paper Māori
'. . . we saw a type of language, that should not be printed, appeared in one of our Māori papers.' (A.N.1)

Starting Point:

(39) *me te aha, puta ohorere mai ana* ***i*** *tōna rua . . .*
CONJ V ADV DIR TAM PR POSS N
as a result emerge suddenly hither from its hole
'[their dog] caused [it] to emerge from its nest . . . ' (T.K.5)

Transitor:

(40) . . . ***i*** *a ia e oma ana e piki ana rānei*
PR PERS PRO TAM V TAM TAM V TAM CONJ
it CONT run CONT CONT climb CONT or
i tētahi mea
PR DET N
a thing
'. . . when it is running or when it is climbing trees' (T.K.5)

Relational Target:

(41) . . . *te karo tēnei kupu te 'māngere' ki raro* ***i*** *te*
DET N DEM N DET ADJ PR LOC PR DET
the parry this word the lazy in under at the
iwi Māori
N N
people Māori
'the use of this word 'lazy' in reference to the Māori people' (A.N.2)

Temporal Location:

(42) . . . *te kaute o ngā hipi, me ērā atu kararehe*
DET N PR DET-PL N CONJ DEM-PL DIR N
the count of the sheep and that away animal
a te Māori ***i*** *tēnei wā*
PR DET N PR DEM N
of the Māori at this time
'the numbers of sheep and other animals [being reared] by Māori people at this time'(A.N.2)

Event-Location:
(43) *I totohu te kaipuke* ***i*** *te moana.*
TAM V DET N PR DET N
PAST sink the ship at the sea
'The ship sank at sea' (INF)

Transitional Range:
(44) *Ka pīrori haere te hēki* ***i*** *te hiwi.*
TAM V ADV DET N PR DET N
Unspec roll move the egg the hill
The egg rolled down the hill.' (INF)

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 (see examples (45) and (46) below), combinations such as preposition + locative + preposition ***i roto i*** (see example (47) below), preposition + locative ***kei roto/runga*** and ***i muri*** (see examples (48)-(50) below) and the verb ***puta*** + post-posed periphery ***noa*** (see example (51) below):

Source (Non-Transitional):
(45) *Ko ētahi huarahi e tae-a ai te karo* ***ki***
FM DET-PL N TAM V-PASS PP DET N PR
some course NPAST able the parry in
taku whakaaro *koia ēnei . . .*
POSS N DEM-DET DEM-PL
my opinion that is these
'In my opinion . . . some courses of action . . .' (A.N.2)

Source (Non-Transitional):
(46) ***E ai ki*** *ō tātou koroua, kuia . . .*
(PR PP PR) POSS N N
according to our (3+, pl.) elder (male) elder (female)
'according to our elders . . .' (T.K.4)

Entity Location (Spatial):
(47) *Ko āna kōrero kino,* ***i roto i*** *tētahi reta tuku mai,*
FM POSS N ADJ PR LOC PR DET N V DIR
it (pl.) language offensive in at a letter sent hither
engari kāore pea i kite-a e te ētita.
SUBCONJ NEG PP TAM V-PASS PR DET N
but not perhaps PAST see by the editor
'This offensive language appeared in a letter sent in to the paper but this letter was obviously not noticed by the editor.' (A.N.1)

Entity Location (Spatial):

(48) ***Kei roto*** *i ngā whakapua-tanga kōrero o ia iwi o*
PR LOC PR DET-PL N-Canga N PR DET N PR
in the utterance saying of each people of
tēnei ao, tērā e kite-a ā rātou tini mano
DEM N DEM TAM V-PASS POSS ADJ ADJ
this world that NPAST see their (3+, pl.) multitude thousand
pūtake o te tangata.
N PR DET N
origin of the man
'Throughout the world, different peoples have different interpretations on the origin of man.' (A.N.3)

Entity Location (Spatial):

(49) *te wāriu o ngā whakapai-nga* ***kei runga*** *i aua whenua*
DET N PR DET-PL N-Canga PR LOC PR DEM-PL N
the value of the improvement on at that land
'the values of improvements on those lands' (A.N.2)

Event Location:

(50) *I patu-a a Henare e ia* ***i muri*** *i te karati.*
TAM V-PASS PERS N PR PRO PR LOC PR DET N
PAST kill Henry by he behind the garage
'He killed Henry behind the garage' (INF)

Temporal Transition:

(51) *Ko tōna haerenga* ***puta noa*** *te rā.*
FM POSS N-Canga (V PP) DET N
he travel throughout the day
'He travelled all day.' (INF)

Discussion

Most of the examples provided here are taken from a comparatively small corpus and the findings must therefore be regarded as provisional. Nevertheless, what *is* clear is the fact that a range of different *intra*-propositional relations may be signaled in the same way. This does not, however, appear to create any problem in terms of interpretation because context (both linguistic and extra-linguistic) plays a role in disambiguation. Thus, for example, although ***ki*** may signal both *Predicate Range* and *Material,* and although both of these *intra*-propositional relations occurs with non-transitional activity predicators, the specific sub-set of non-transitional activity predicators with which each of these relations may occur is different.

An approach to the description and classification of te reo Māori that includes reference to *intra*-propositional relations has a role to play in addressing some classificatory issues that have proved to be problematic in the past. There has, for example, been considerable debate about the use of the prepositions ***i*** and ***ki*** in Māori, especially in cases where the direct object of the same verb will sometimes occur with ***i***, and sometimes with ***ki*** (Bauer, 1981, 1993; Harlow, 2001; Mark, 1970). Thus, for example, whereas the stative verb *mōhio* (know) will generally select ***ki*** in the direct object position as a marker of *Appertainant* (e.g. *Kei te mōhio au i te whakautu* 'I

know the answer'), it may sometimes select ***i*** because *mōhio* can also occur with *Predicate Range* (e.g. *Kei te mōhio au ki a Raukura* 'I know Raukura'). Similarly, a verb such as *rapu* (search for/seek) takes a Direct Object with ***i*** where no transitional activity is involved. However, where it does involve transitional movement, it takes ***i*** with *Starting Point* and ***ki*** with *End Point*. This supports the observation made by Biggs (1998, p.115) that "after a universal connoting motion a comment in *i* will usually translate as 'from', there being in such cases a clear contrast between *ki* 'towards' and *i* 'away from'".

Conclusion

Crombie, Johnson and Te Kanawa (2001) and Bruce and Whaanga (2002) have observed the negative impact that the dearth of meaning-centred, pedagogically-based descriptions of Māori has had on the design of curricula and teaching materials for learners of the language. A few years ago, I was involved as one of three principal writers (the other two being Winifred Crombie and Ngaere Houia-Roberts) in the design of a curriculum for the teaching of te reo Māori in New Zealand schools. I was assigned the task of searching for accounts of the interaction between meaning and form in te reo Māori that would help teachers to (a) interpret meaning-centred achievement objectives,[8] and (b) associate them with a range of possible exemplars.[9] I had considerable difficulty in finding simple and straightforward descriptions of te reo Māori that accommodated the interaction between meaning and form. In particular, I found very few relationally-based descriptions and even fewer accounts of the various ways in which different relations could be signalled and encoded. This alerted me to the need for research and development in this area. The research reported here is intended as one small contribution towards meeting that need. It also has implications for the production of dictionaries (see, for example Bond & Shirai (1997) on the valency dictionary), for the theory and practice of English-Māori and Māori-English translation and interpreting (see, for example, Hollenbach (1975) and Beekman & Callow (1974) on translation) and, perhaps in the longer term, for computer-based analyses of Māori language corpora (see, for example, the discussion of computational lexicography in Fillmore & Atkins (1994), and Boas (2001), and of the automatic labelling of semantic roles in Gildea & Jurafsky (2002), Marquez, Carreras, Litkowski & Stevenson (2008), Moschitti, Pighin & Basili (2008), Pradhan, Ward & Martin (2008), Punyakanok, Roth & Wen-tau (2008), Toutanova, Haghighi & Manning (2008) and Xue (2008)).

Endnotes

1. See Whaanga (2006) for a detailed critique of the literature in this area.

2. The relational model presented here is derived from a comparative analysis of the models discussed in Whaanga (2006, *Chapter 2*).

3. *Source* (Non-transitional) may be explicit or implicit.

4. In some languages, predicators such as 'award' and 'bequeath' may be treated as involving metaphoric transition and, therefore, associated with *Source (Transitional)* and *Goal* rather than *Source (Non-transitional)* and *Target*.

5. Sir Apirana Ngata (Ngāti Porou) was a prominent Māori scholar and statesman. The texts selected for analysis here are all included in *Apirana Turupa Ngata* (1996), edited by Wiremu and Te Ohorere Kaa. Tīmoti Kāretu (Tūhoe and Ngāti Kahungunu) is a former professor of Māori language at the University of Waikato and a former Commissioner of *Te Taura Whiri i te Reo Māori* (The Māori Language Commission). The works selected for analysis here were published in *He Muka*, a quarterly journal in Māori.

6. The following abbreviations are used in the linear gloss:

ADJ	*Adjective*
CAUS-V	*Causative Verb*
CAUS-V-PASS	*Causative Verb Passive*
CONJ	*Conjunction*
CONT	*Continuative*
DEM	*Demonstrative*
DEM-PL	*Demonstrative – Plural*
DEM-DET	*Demonstrative Determiner*
DET	*Determiner*
DET-PL	*Determiner – Plural*
DIR	*Directional*
FM	*Focus marker*
IND	*Indefinite Determiner*
LOC	*Location*
MAN	*Manner particle*
N	*Noun*
N-Canga	*Nomilisation: C + anga (or variants)*
NEG	*Negative*
NPAST	*Non-past*
OBLIG	*Obligation (weak imperative)*
PAST	*Past tense*
PERS	*Personal article*
POSS	*Possessive*
PP	*Post-posed periphery*
PR	*Preposition*
PRO	*Pronoun*
SUBCONJ	*Subordinating Conjunction*
TAM	*Tense/aspect marker*
Unspec	*Unspecified Tense – Marker of relative tense*
V	*Verb*
V-PASS	*Passive Verb*

7. Tom Roa, a vastly experienced translator and native speaker of Māori from Waikato-Ngāti Maniapoto.

8. Such as, communicate, including comparing and contrasting, about habits and routines.

9. The following was provided as a range of possible exemplars for habits, routines, contrasting habits and routines and comparing habits and routines:

Habits

A: *Ka aha rāua?*
B1: *Totohe ai rāua i ngā wā katoa*.
B2: *Purei tēnehi ai rāua ia rā, ia rā.*

Routines

A: *Ka aha koe?*
B1: *Haere ai au ki te kura ia rā, ia rā.*
B2: *Purei whutupaoro ai au i ngā Rāhoroi.*

Contrasting Habits and Routines

Oho ai a Pita i te rima karaka, engari moeroa ai a Rei i ngā wā katoa.
Mekemeke ai a Rāwiri i ngā Rāhoroi, engari mekemeke ai a Rei i ngā Wenerei.

Comparing Habits and Routines

Haere ai a Pare ki te marae ia rā, ia rā, ā, haere hoki ai a Tame.

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Appendix 1: *Intra*-propositional relational models

Table A.1: *Case roles/ relations according to Fillmore (1968)*

Case Role/ Relation	Description	Specific Features	Examples
Instrumental	Inanimate force or object causally involved in the action or state identified by the verb (p. 24).	• Marked with the preposition *with* in English (p. 32). • Includes natural forces (p. 27).	(i) The key opened the door (p. 25). (ii) John opened the door with the key (p. 25). (iii) John used the key to open the door (p. 25). (iv) The wind opened the door (p. 27).
Agentive	The case of the typically animate perceived instigator of the action identified by the verb (p.24).	• Although the assumption here is that agents are generally animate (p. 24, fn.31; p. 26), the agent position is said to be "sometimes occupied by 'inanimate' nouns like *robot* or 'human institution' nouns like *nation*" (p. 24, fn.31). • Marked with the preposition *by* in a passive construction in English (p. 32).	(i) John opened the door (p. 25). (ii) The door was opened by John (p. 25). (iii) John opened the door with a chisel (p. 27). (iv) Mother is cooking the potatoes (p. 29).
Dative	Animate being affected by the state or action identified by the verb (p. 24).	• Typically marked by the preposition *to* (p. 32).	(i) John believed that he would win (p. 25). (ii) We persuaded John that he would win (p. 25). (iii) It was apparent to John that he would win (p. 25).
Locative	Identifies the location or spatial orientation of the state or action identified by the verb (p. 25).	• Includes both stative and directional locatives (pp. 25-26).	(i) Chicago is windy (p. 25). (ii) It is windy in Chicago (p. 25). (iii) It is hot in the studio (p. 44). (iv) There are many toys in the box (p. 46).
Factitive	Object or being resulting from an action or state identified by the verb, or understood as a part of the meaning of the verb (p. 25).	• Also used for cognate object construction (p. 85). • There is typically no prepositional marker for this case (p. 32).	(i) John dreamed a dream about Mary (p. 86). (ii) John had a dream about Mary (p. 86).
Objective	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 (p. 25).	• May occur as subject or object of a non-action verb or direct object of an action verb (p. 28). • There is typically no prepositional marker for this case (p. 32).	(i) John opened the door (p. 25). (ii) The wind opened the door (p. 27). (iii) John opened the door with a chisel (p. 27).
Benefactive	Not defined by Fillmore in his initial set (pp. 24-25). He does, however, discuss the possibility of this relation elsewhere (pp. 31-32).	• Marked by the preposition 'for' in English (p. 32).	An example might be: John washed the car for Mary.
Time	Not defined by Fillmore in his initial set (pp. 24-25). He does, however, discuss the possibility of this relation elsewhere (pp. 31-32).	• Associated with prepositions of time (p. 32).	He left on Monday (p. 32).
Comitative	Not defined by Fillmore in his initial set (pp. 24-25). However, it is included under 'coordinate conjunction' (pp. 81-82).	• Signalled by the preposition 'with' in English (p. 81). • Parallel to the conjunctor 'and' in English (p. 81).	He is coming with his wife (p. 81).

Table A.2: *Case roles/ relations in Fillmore (1971)*

Case Role/ Relation	Description	Specific Features	Examples
Experiencer	The experiencer of a psychological event or mental state (p. 247).	• Excludes non-psychological change of state verbs (i.e., *grow*) (p. 251). • Does not include transfer of property verbs (i.e., *give*) (p. 251).	(i) John loves Mary (p. 262). (ii) I am cold (p. 249). (iii) I imagined the accident (p. 261) (iv) The noise frightens me (p. 261).
Object	Semantically the most neutral relation (p. 251). The entity, which moves or undergoes change (p. 252).	• Includes non-psychological change of state verbs (i.e., grow, die) (p. 251). • Sentences embedded to Object can serve to identify the content of a psychological event (p. 251).	(i) The man broke the window (p. 252). (ii) The wind opened the door (p. 252). (iii) John hit the fence with his cane (p. 255). (iv) I imagined the accident (p. 261)
Goal	End point of a motion, state or time (p. 250).	• Transfer or movement of something to a person (p. 250). • Place towards which a motion tends (p. 250). • Final location with motion verbs (p. 250). • Final state with change of state verbs (p. 250). • Final time with time points (p. 250)	(i) I wrote a poem (p. 252). (ii) He went from the top of the hill to the cemetery gate (p. 250). (iii) He grew from a 96-pound weakling into a famous football hero (p. 250). (iv) The pageant lasted from sundown until midnight (p. 250).
Location	Place where an object or event is located (pp. 249-258).	• Optional complement of essentially any predicator (p. 258).	(i) The beer was in the garage yesterday (p. 258). (ii) I lived in Milwaukee in the forties (p. 258). (iii) This room is warm (p. 249).
Source	The origin or starting point of a motion, state or time (p. 250).	• Refers to the place from which the motion begins (p. 250). • Earlier location with motion verbs (p. 250). • Earlier states with change of state verbs (p. 250). • Earlier time with time points (p. 250).	(i) He walked from the top of the hill to the cemetery gate (p. 251). (ii) He grew from a 96-pound weakling into a famous football hero (p. 250). (iii) The pageant lasted from sundown until midnight (p. 250).
Agent	Instigator of the action identified by the verb (the principle cause of the event) (p. 251).	• Does not include natural forces (e.g., wind) (p. 253). • The preposition 'by' is no longer associated with Agent because it is introduced as a result of the operation of the Passive transformation (p. 252).	(i) The man broke the window (p. 252). (ii) John broke the window (p. 253). (iii) John hit the fence with his cane (p. 255). (iv) I wrote a poem (p, 252).
Instrument	The immediate cause or stimulus of an event as opposed to the Agent as the principle cause (p. 251).	• Natural forces such as wind are called Instruments (p. 253).	(i) This jacket is warm (p. 249). (ii) The man broke the window with a baseball (p. 253).
Time	The time in which an object or event is located (p. 258).	• Optional complement of essentially any predicator (p. 258).	(i) The beer was in the garage yesterday (p. 258). (ii) I lived in Milwaukee in the forties (p. 258). (iii) Summer is warm (p. 249).
Benefactive	The one who benefits from an event or activity (p. 261).	• Occurs only in sentences with *Agents* (p. 261). • *Agent* role is thought of as being deliberate or voluntary (p. 261).	John did it for me (p. 261).

Table A.3: *Noun-Verb relations in Chafe (1970)*

Noun-Verb relation	Description	Specific Features	Examples
Patient	Specifies something that is in that state or process (p. 98).	• State and process verbs are accompanied by patients (p. 100). • Does not include ambient verbs (p. 102).	(i) The wood is dry (p. 98). (ii) The rope is tight (p. 98). (iii) The dish is broken (p. 98). (iv) The elephant is dead (p. 98). (ii) Harriet broke the dish accidentally (p. 103).
Agent	Specifies something that performed the action (p. 100).	• Action verbs are accompanied by agents (p. 100). • Expresses what someone does (p. 100). • Does not include ambient verbs (p. 103).	(i) Michael rana (p. 98). (ii) The men laughed (p. 98) (iii) Harriet sang (p. 98). (iv) The tiger pounced (p. 98). (iii) Michael dried the wood (p. 104).
Experiencer	Not the instigator of an action but the one who is mentally disposed or affected in a mental process of some kind (p. 145).	• Not limited to *states* but can also include *processes* (p. 145). • Experiential states can be *ambient* (p. 147).	(i) Tom wanted a drink (p. 144). (ii) Tom knew the answer (p. 144). (iii) Tom liked the asparagus (p. 144). (iv) Tom saw a snake (p. 145). (v) Tom heard an owl (p. 145). (vi) Tom felt the needle (p. 145). (vii) Tom learned the answer (p. 145). (viii) Tom remembered the answer (p. 145).
Beneficiary	There is a kind of benefactive situation in which X can be said (in a broad sense) to be the one who benefits from whatever is communicated by the rest of the sentence (p. 147).	• No mental experience or disposition is involved (p. 147). • A beneficiary noun will appear in surface structure as a subject so long as no agent is present (p. 151).	(i) Tom has (or Tom's got) the tickets (p. 147). (ii) Tom has (or Tom's got) a convertible (p. 147). (iii) Tom owns a convertible (p. 147). (iv) Mary bought Tom a convertible (p. 149).
Instrument	The object which plays a role in bringing a process about, but which is not the motivating force, the cause, or the instigator (p. 152).	• Subsidiary to the agent – something which the agent uses (p. 152). • A verb specified as 'successful' must be accompanied by an instrument (p. 154).	(i) Tom cut the rope with a knife (p. 152). (ii) Tom opened the door with a key (p. 152).
Complement	A complement noun does not specify something that is in a state or that changes its state. It completes or specifies more narrowly the meaning of the verb (p. 156).	• A verb that describes an action, which by its very nature, implies the coexistence of a certain nominal concept (p. 156). • Involves an action which causes something to come into being (it creates something) (p. 156).	(i) Mary sand a song (p. 156). (ii) The children played a game (p. 156). (iii) Tom ran a race (p. 156). (iv) The infantry fought the war (p. 156).
Location	A verb which has been so specified as locative is accompanied by a noun which bears to it the relation of location (p. 159).	• Contain state verbs which are further specified as locative (p. 159). • A locative verb must be accompanied by a locative noun (p. 163).	(i) The knife is in the box (p. 159). (ii) The cat is on the roof (p. 159). (iii) The key is under the rug (p. 159).

Table A.4: *Case roles/ relations according to Anderson (1971)*

Case Roles/ Relations	Description	Specific Features	Examples
Nominative	Notionally the most neutral case that is obligatory with every predication (p. 37).	• Has a ± stative feature (p. 39). • Verbs with a + stative feature have a dependency rule which introduces the copula in English (p. 39).	(i) John died (p. 37). (ii) John sneezed (p. 37). (iii) John is dead (p. 37). (iv) It is snowing (p. 50). (v) It is hot (p. 50).
Locative	Indicates the spatial location of a *Nominative* (p. 81).	• Every verb is subcategorised with a ± locative feature (p. 83). • Stative locatives are characterised by *in*, *on*, *at*, etc. (p. 81). • With BE + Locative 'be' (be located) is added as a main feature to the verb (p. 88). • Includes 'affected verbs' (e.g., *understand*, *need*, *hate*, *love*, and *like*) (pp. 102-103). • Also includes verbs of possession (p. 107).	(i) The statue stands on a plinth (p. 81). (ii) He remained in London (p. 81). (iii) The apples are in the box (p. 89). (iv) The box contains the apples (p. 89). (v) John is cold (p. 96). (vi) I have a compass (p. 113). (vii) Many people know part of the truth (p. 100). (viii) Part of the truth is known by many people (p. 100).
Ergative	The instigator of the action associated with the verb (p. 40).	• Typically animate rather than necessarily animate (p. 40, fn. 1). • Has a ± reflexive rule which attaches the Nominative to the *Ergative* when the *Ergative* is reflexive (p. 51).	(i) Egbert read the book (p. 40). (ii) Egbert killed the seagull (p. 40). (iii) Egbert worked (p. 62). (iv) Egbert was cautious (p. 63).
Ablative	Locates directional and dynamic location (p. 119).	• Every *Locative* has a ± directional feature (- directional for stative locatives and + directional for dynamic locatives) (p. 119). • There are two locational phrases either present or implied (p. 119). • The prepositions used are directional (e.g., *from*, *out of*) (p. 119). • Notionally non-stative (p. 119). • Includes transfer of property verbs (p. 121).	(i) The ball rolled from Jane to Mary (p. 119). (ii) He has come here from London (p. 120). (iii) The fog stretched from London to Brighton (p. 124). (iv) The book was sold by John to Mary (p. 129). (v) The book was bought from John by Mary (p. 129). (vi) Mary has learnt Greek from John (p. 138).

Table A.5: *Roles according to Grimes (1975)*

Roles	Description	Specific Features	Examples
Object	The thing that is moving in the dynamic case, or the thing that is in a particular position in the static case (p. 120).	• The thing whose orientation to its physical environment is given by the predicate (p. 120).	(i) Water flows downhill (p. 120). (ii) A statue sits on the pedestal (p. 120). iii) The letter fell from her hand (p. 120).
Source	Identifies the location of the object at the beginning of the motion, the initial boundary of the event (p. 120).	• Applies to motions but not positions (p. 120).	The letter fell from her hand (p. 120).
Goal	Identifies the location of the object at the end of the motion, the terminal boundary of the event (p. 120).	• At end of the motion, the object is in a position identified by the *Goal* relation (p. 120).	The letter fell to the floor (p. 120).
Range	Location of a static entity or the path or area traversed by a moving entity. It can apply to meteorological (ambient) predicates (p. 121).	• With expressions of motion, *Range* indicates the path or area traversed (p. 121). • With position, *Range* indicates static location (p. 121). • Associated with ambient predicates (meteorological) (p. 121).	(i) The ball rolled down the hill (p. 121). (ii) Ithaca is cold (p. 121). (iii) His house is situated on top of a hill (p. 121). (iv) It is cold in Ithaca (p. 121).
Vehicle	Something that conveys the object and moves along with it (p. 122).		(i) The letter came by plane (p. 122). (ii) The tide floated the oil slick into the harbour (p. 122).
Material	The entity that undergoes a process of becoming (p. 125).	• Occurs with *Result* relations (p.125). • Either the *Material* or *Result* relation must combine with *Patient* (p. 125).	She makes dresses from flour sacks (p. 125).
Result	The entity that results from a process of becoming (p. 125).	• Occurs with *Material* relations (p. 125). • Either the *Result* or *Material* relation must combine with *Patient* (p. 125).	She makes flour sacks into dresses (p. 125).
Patient	The relation between a thing that gets changed and the process that changes it, or in the static sense, between a thing that is in some state and the state that it is in (p. 123).	• Can be a gradual process or abrupt (p.123). • Processes end, leaving the things that undergo them in some terminal state (p. 123). • Psychological processes such as perception and feelings employ the *Patient* relation to identify who perceives or feels (p. 124).	(i) The snow melted (p. 123). (ii) The foundation cracked (p. 123). (iii) The chef melted the butter (p. 123). (iv) The butter melted (p. 123). (v) The snowflake is white (p. 124). (vi) The foundation is cracked (p. 124). (vii) I hear (p. 124). (viii) I am dizzy (p. 124).
Referent	The limitation of a process to a certain field or an object from the actual application of a process to a patient (p. 125).	• Limits the process to a field (p. 125).	(i) We talked about politics (p. 125). (ii) This book costs three dollars (p. 125).
Agent	Identifies who/ what is responsible for an action (p. 126).	• Occurs with process and orientation roles (p.126).	(i) My wife made the cake (p. 126). (ii) The quarterback threw the ball (p. 126). (iii) Fred fixed the engine with his screwdriver (p. 126).

Table A.5 (cont.): *Roles according to Grimes (1975)*

Roles	Description	Specific Features	Examples
Instrument	Entity by means of which an action is carried out (p. 128). It can be metaphoric.	• If a person or part of that person is used in the instrument role, their body part is the object referred to, not the person acting independently (p. 128).	(i) The locomotive cleared the track with a snowplough (128). (ii) He parted the rope with an axe (128). (iii) He convinced the jury with a syllogism (129).
Force	Non-instigative cause (p. 131).	• Asserts a causal relation devoid of responsibility (p. 131). • Incompatible with both *Agent* and *Instrument* (p. 131). • May take the prepositions *of*, *from*, *on*, or *in* (in English)	(i) Malaria killed the girl (p. 131). (ii) The girl died of (from) malaria (p. 131).
Benefactive	Someone or something on whom or which an action has a secondary effect, good or ill (p.132).	• A supernumerary role that can be attached to almost anything (p. 132). • 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) (p. 133).	(i) We chased the cats out of the attic for her (p. 132). (ii) The milk turned sour on me (p. 132).

Table A.6: *Intra-propositional relations according to Crombie (1985)*

Relations	Description	Specific Features	Examples
Agent	Sentient entity carrying out an action (p.101).	• Always sentient (p. 101).	(i) Alan signed the contract (p. 101). (ii) The dog ate the rat (p. 101).
Instrument	The entity by means of which an action is carried out (p. 101).	• Rarely sentient (p. 101). • Non-volitional (p. 101).	Alan broke the window with a hammer (p. 101).
Force	Non-sentient causative (p. 101).	• Precludes the explicit or implicit involvement of an agent (p. 101).	(i) Typhus killed the man (p. 101). (ii) Curiosity killed the cat (p. 101).
Patient	The entity or abstraction involved non-causally in an activity (p. 102).	• An activity-participation role (p. 102) • Occurs with dynamic predicate types involving mental or physical activity (p. 102).	(i) He kicked the dog (p. 102). (ii) He chose a shirt (p. 102). (iii) He awarded a medal (p. 102). (iv) He rejected the idea (p. 102).
Assignee	The sentient entity (or collection of sentient entities) to whom/which the patient of an activity predicate is assigned (p. 102).	• An activity-participation role (p. 102). • Occurs with dynamic predicate types: general activity, momentary action, and mental activity (p. 102).	He awarded a goal to the team (p. 102).
Material	The entity that undergoes a process of becoming (p. 102).	• Occurs with factitive predicates (p. 102). • Occurs with *Result* relations (p. 102).	(i) She creates puppets from gloves (p. 102). (ii) She makes clay into bowls (p. 102).
Result	The entity that results from a process of becoming (p. 102).	• Occurs with factitive predicates (p. 102). • Can occur with *Material* relations (p. 102).	(i) She creates puppets from gloves (p. 102). (ii) He knitted a sweater (p. 102).

***Table A.6* (cont.):** *Intra-propositional relations according to Crombie (1985)*

Relations	Description	Specific Features	Examples
Mutant	The entity that is changed by a process (p. 102).	• ± sentient (p. 102). • A process-participation role (p. 102). • Occurs with process predicates (p. 102).	(i) The butter melted (p. 102). (ii) The plant grew (p. 102). (iii) The boy grew tired (p. 102).
Durant	The entity that is an identified state (p. 102).	• ± sentient (p. 102). • A state-participation role (p. 102). • Occurs with stative predicates (p. 102).	(i) The door is green (p. 102). (ii) The toy is broken (p. 102).
Experiencer	The entity directly involved in an experiential state (p. 103).	• + sentient (p. 103). • A state-participation role (p. 102). • Occurs with stative predicates (p. 102).	(i) He heard the music (p. 103). (ii) He feels hungry (p. 103). (iii) He likes music (p. 103).
Appertainant	The entity or abstraction experienced in a particular way by a sentient entity (p. 103).	• ± sentient (p. 103). • A state-participation role (p. 102). • Occurs with stative predicates (p. 102).	(i) He heard the music (p. 103). (ii) He likes John (p. 103).
Object	The entity described as being in a particular location or as being involved in a transitional event or a metaphoric transition (p. 103).	• ± sentient (p. 103).	(i) The coin rolled down the hill (p. 103). (ii) The book is in the drawer (p. 103).
Source	The location of an entity at the beginning of a movement (p. 103).	• Occurs with a *Goal* relation (p. 103). • Physical movement may not be involved: movement may be metaphorical (p. 103).	(i) The book fell from the table to the chair (p. 103). (ii) The book was passed from Mary to John (p. 103). (iii) The house passed from father to son (p. 103).
Goal	The location of an entity at the end of a movement (p. 103).	• Occurs with a *Source* relation (p. 103). • Physical movement may not be involved: movement may be metaphorical (p. 103).	(i) The book fell from the table to the chair (p. 103). (ii) The book was passed from Mary to John (p. 103). (iii) The house passed from father to son (p. 103).
Range	The location of a static entity or the path or area traversed by a moving entity (p. 103).	• *Range* is associated with meteorological (ambient) predicates (p. 103).	(i) The cat is on the bed (p. 103). (ii) The egg rolled down the hill (p. 103). (iii) Scotland is cold (p. 103). (iv) It is cold in Scotland (p. 103).
Referee	The entity or abstraction to which a relational predicate is linked (p. 104).	• + sentient (p. 104).	(i) It concerns him (p. 104). (ii) It fits her (p. 104). (iii) He deserves a prize (p. 104).
Referent	The entity to which a *Referee* is linked through a relational predicate (p. 104).	• ± sentient (p. 104).	(i) It concerns him (p. 104). (ii) It fits her (p. 104). (iii) He deserves a prize (p. 104).
Quantant	The expression of extent to which an entity is linked by a relational predicate.	• Occurs with either a *Referent* or *Referee* relation (p. 104).	(i) The book costs eighty pence (p. 104). (ii) He weighs one hundred and eighty pounds (p. 104).
Abaxiant	Entity affected by an action or process but not directly involved in action/process or in its outcome (p. 104).	• + sentient (p. 104).	(i) She washed the car for me (p. 104). (ii) He welcomed the guests on my behalf (p. 104). (iii) The milk turned sour on me (p. 104).

Table A.7*: *Case roles/ relations according to Longacre (1996)

Relations	Description	Specific Features	Examples
Experiencer	An animate entity whose registering nervous system is relevant to the predication (p. 156).	• The *Experiencer* may be reacting to its environment (p. 156). • The one whom an emotional state is ascribed (p. 156). • The one affected by someone else's activities (p. 156). • The object of an activity in which physical state or location is not necessarily changed but in which somebody else's physical violence, affection, etc is experienced (p. 156). • The one who desires, wants, loves or appreciates someone. The subject of sensation verbs (p. 156). • The one who is introduced to someone or made to appreciate someone (p. 156). • The one who suffers someone's scorn, derision etc (p. 156). • Co-referential with the *Agent* with a verb such as *listen*, or the recipient of verbs of speech, i.e., the addressee (p. 156).	(i) I'm cold (p. 156). (ii) I'm uncomfortable (p. 156). (iii) She's nervous (p. 156). (iv) He's happy (p. 156). (v) I'm scared (p. 156). (vi) I cheered him up (p. 156). (vii) John hit Bill (p. 156). (viii) John kissed his wife (p. 156). (ix) He loves her (p. 156). (x) The mother told her child a story (p. 156). (xi) She sang me a song (pp. 156-157). (xii) The artist showed Tom the painting (p. 157).
Patient	The entity of which the state or location is predicated or which is represented as undergoing change of state or location (p. 157).	• The entity may be inanimate or animate (in the latter case, the registering nervous system or the intentionality of the animate entity is not relevant to the predication) (p. 157). • An entity of which a state or location is predicated (p. 157). • That which undergoes change of state or location with or without the activity of some agent (p. 157). • An animate entity that undergoes a change of physical state or of location, or that which is possessed, acquired, or exchanged (p. 157). • Certain inanimate things (i.e., astronomical bodies) are patients which predict motion as a physical state or process (p. 157).	(i) The bolt is loose (p. 157). (ii) The key is in the drawer (p. 157). (iii) Joan's in Europe (p. 157). (iv) The bolt came loose (p. 157). (v) He loosened the bolt (p. 157). (vi) Don fell from the chair (p. 157). (vii) Dick has a new book (p. 157). (viii) Dick's acquired a new book (p. 157). (ix) Tom gave Dick a book (p. 157). (x) The earth rotes on its axis (p. 157). (xi) The moon revolves around the earth (p. 157). (xii) The machine is going (p. 157). (xiii) The wheel spun around one full turn (p. 157).
Agent	The animate entity which intentionally either instigates a process or acts (p. 157).	• Instigates a process (with action-process verbs) (p. 157). • Performs an action (with action verbs) (p. 157). • Intentionality is crucial to its definition (p. 157). • May unintentionally stimulate or condition change (in such a case the agent entity is construed as *Instrument* (of the stimulus variety)) (p. 157). • The *Agent* may be co-referential with other relations (p. 158).	(i) Mr Smith teaches Susan algebra (p. 158). (ii) I introduced Tom to Mary (p. 158). (iii) John smashed the dish with a hammer (p. 158). (iv) I shortened it two inches (p. 158). (v) Harry placed the book by the plane (p. 158). (vi) John is studying tonight (co-referential with *Experiencer*) (p. 158). (vii) Tom listened to the owl (co-referential with *Experiencer*) (p. 158). (viii) He's standing on the corner (co-referential with *Patient*) (p. 158). (ix) Harriet travelled in Europe (coreferential with *Patient*) (p. 158). (x) George grabbed the book from John (coreferential with *Goal*) (p. 158).

***Table A.7* (cont.):** *Case roles/ relations according to Longacre (1996)*

Relations	Description	Specific Features	Examples
Range	The role assigned to any surface structure nominal or adjectival that completes or further specifies the predicate; the product of the activity of a predicate (p. 158).	• Assigned to surface structure nominals or adjectivals (p. 158). • Completes or further specifies the predicate (p. 158). • May also specify the product of the activity of a predicate (p. 159).	(i) Anthony sang an unusual song/an obscene song/ four songs (p. 158). (ii) Anthony sang solo/a ballad/ a hymn (p. 158). (iii) Anthony sang the National Anthem (p. 158). (iv) The road glistened white in the moonlight (p. 159). (v) This soup tastes too salty (p. 159). (vi) Jane composed a song/ an opera/ a brilliant composition (p. 159). (vii) Sue made a table/ a house (p. 159).
Measure	The role assigned to the surface structure nominal which completes a predication by quantifying it (p. 159).	• Completes a predication by quantifying it (p. 159).	(i) It weighs six pounds (p. 159). (ii) This piece of equipment costs $500.00 (p. 159). (iii) He lost forty pounds (p. 159). (iv) I shortened it one yard (p. 159). (v) Out team gained ten yards (p. 159).
Instrument	The inanimate entity or body part which an agent uses to accomplish an action or to instigate a process. The price with verbs of transfer. The entity which conditions a state or which triggers a change in emotional or physical state. The potent inanimate entity which triggers such a change (pp. 159-160).	• The inanimate entity which an animate agent intentionally uses to accomplish an action or a process (parts of body are used here as well) (p. 160). • Not always specified in surface structure unless there is something unusual about it (p. 160). • Usually a body part with impingement verbs. With body part instruments like *kiss* and *pet*, the instrument is not specified unless there is something unusual about it (p. 160). • With verbs of transfer the price is considered to be notionally instrument (the medium of exchange) (p. 160). • The inanimate entity or a body part which conditions an emotional state or triggers a change of state, or an animate being unintentionally accomplishing a similar end (p. 160). • A potent inanimate entity that brings on a change (p. 160).	(i) John cut the rope with a knife (p. 160). (ii) John powered the granules with a pestle (p. 160). (iii) John covered the baby with a blanket (p. 160). (iv) The government is deepening the canal with a dredge (p. 160). (v) The construction company is widening the road with a bulldozer (p. 160). (vi) Edward speared the fish with a homemade spear (p. 160). (vii) John kissed his wife with a greasy mouth (p. 160). (viii) John petted the cat with both hands (p. 160) (ix) John hit Bill with his hand (p. 160). (x) John hit Bill with a board (p. 160). (xi) John is discouraged at the prospect (pp. 160 -161). (xii) The baby was frightened by the stranger's black moustache (p. 161). (xiii) In 64 A.D. a great fire destroyed most of Rome (p. 161). (xiv) A tornado wrecked my house (p. 161).
Path	The locale or locales transversed in motion and other predications or the transitory owner (p. 163).	• Can occur several times in the same clause (p. 163). • may be specified by itself with a motion verb such as *drift* (p. 163). • May occur in conjunction with *Source* and *Goal* (pp. 163-164). • With propulsion verbs, may specify either *Path* by itself, *Goal* by itself, or *Path* and *Goal* (p. 164). • With verbs of acquisition, transfer, and grab, the path indicates the transitory owner (p. 164). • With grab verbs, *Path* and *Agent* are co-referential (p. 164).	(i) John travelled from Frankfurt to Naples, via Geneva, Milan, and Rome (p. 163). (ii) The boat drifted across the river (p. 163). (iii) The boat drifted across the river from the left bank to the right bank (p. 164). (iv) Tom threw the knife across the room (p. 164). (v) Tom threw the knife across the room and into the box (p. 164). (vi) The department obtained a visa for Dr. Ho (p. 164). (vii) Tom gave Bill a book for Sue (p. 164). (viii) Mr. Smith sold Tom a convertible for his wife (p. 164).

***Table A.7* (cont.):** *Case roles/ relations according to Longacre (1996)*

Relations	Description	Specific Features	Examples
Source	The place of origin or the entity from which a physical sensation emanates or the animate entity who is the original owner of the transfer (p. 161).	• Occurs with verbs of motion, propulsion, and locomotion, acquisition, transfer, grab, sensation, speech, and attention (p. 161). • With verbs of propulsion, *Source* is co-referential with *Agent* (p. 161). • With speech verbs, the *Source* and the *Agent* are co-referential. • With verbs of acquisition, transfer, and grab, the *Source* indicates the original owner before the transfer (p. 161). • With verbs of transfer, *Agent* and *Source* are co-referential (p. 162). • With verbs like *receive* and *buy*, the *Agent* and *Goal* are co-referential, while the *Source* is an adjunct on the clause level (p. 162).	(i) Tom fell from the chair (p. 161). (ii) The boat drifted from the left to the right bank (p. 161). (iii) The baby crawled from the kitchen to the front room (p. 161). (iv) Tom threw the knife into the box (p. 161). (v) Tom heard the sound of a train in the distance ('Train' is the source of the sound waves that Tom hears) (p. 162). (vi) George smelled the odor of onions (the 'Onions' are the source of the smell) (p. 162). (vii) Tom listened to the owl (i.e., listened to the sound of the owl) (p. 162). (viii) The audience watched the performance of the dance group (p. 162). (ix) The mother told her child a story (p. 162). (x) Radio FBRS is broadcasting right now (p. 162). (xi) Mary obtained her visa from the Australian embassy (p. 162). (xii) George grabbed the book from John (p. 162). (xiii) Tom gave Bill a book (p. 162). (xiv) Mr. Smith sold Tom a convertible (p. 162).
Locative	The locale of a predication (p. 161).	• The place where the predication takes place without implying motion to, from, or across the space indicated (p. 161).	(i) The ship sank at sea (p. 161). (ii) The house stands in the park (p. 161). (iii) They placed the book by the plane (p. 161). (iv) Harriet's travelling to Europe (p. 161).
Goal	The locale point of termination for a predication or the entity toward which a predication is directed without any necessary change of state in that entity, or the animate entity who is the nontransitory or terminal owner (p. 162).	• With verbs of motion, propulsion, and locomotion, *Goal* specifies the locale point of termination for the predication (p. 163). • With verbs of desire, cognition, and evaluation, *Goal* expresses the entity towards which the predication is directed without any necessary change in state of that entity (p. 163). • With verbs of possession the *Goal* encodes the owner (p. 163). • *Agent* and *Goal* are co-referential with verbs such as *buy* and *receive* and with grab verbs (p. 163).	(i) The boat drifted from the left bank to the right bank (p. 163). (ii) Sam swam through the water to the raft (p. 163). (iii) Tom threw the knife into the box/at me (p. 163). (iv) Mary loves Tom (p. 163). (v) Mary fell in love with Tom (p. 163). (vi) I first introduced Mary to Tom (p. 163). (vii) Dick has a new book (p. 163). (viii) Tom acquired a St. Bernard (p. 163). (ix) John bought a book (p. 163). (x) John received a book from Mary (p. 163). (xi) George grabbed the book from John (p. 163).

Appendix 2: Texts and translations by Houia-Roberts (2004)

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 ahuwhenua, me ngā mahi i taea e te Māori i ērā rā, ngā mahi wīti, whakatupu poaka, hoko kaipuke 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 whakararurarutanga 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 ahuwhenua 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 pitihana 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 Tairawhiti, 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 (Houia-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.

Ahakoa 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 whakamāoritia 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.

Ahakoa 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 korero 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. Ahakoa rā he kaupapa ngaro, tērā tonu te takoto whānui i roto ngā whare wānanga, i te Taitokerau, 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 Rangi 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 Rangi, te Taumata o ngā Rangi,
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 Wananga (Māori Schools of Learning) and the knowledge that originated from inside the Whare Wananga.

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 kaua i tā te Māori titiro 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 whakatauira 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 titiro 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 whakatau 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 kauanuanutia.

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 whakatau 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 Tuhoe, Waikaremoana and Ruatahuna, 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 kaumatua (Māori elder) is being asked, and the reason for the question is that it has been seen that within some tribes there are no kaumatua left. We have reached the stage when some elders have no knowledge of the language, the customs, or even the stories. Is one a kaumatua 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 kaumatua 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)*

Ahakoa 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 tētahi 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 pūkohu, 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 kaipuke Acheron ki tētahi, engari nā ā rātou kurī kē i whakamataku te kākāpō, me te aha, puta ohorere mai ana i tōna rua, ā, koirā te kitenga 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 kākoa, 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 kaipuke tōna rite. Ka roa tonu rātou e pēnei ana, me te mātaki a ngā uha i tā rātou mahi. Nā wai, nā wai, ka whiriwhiri 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 awhi ana i ōna hua, kātahi ka pao mai ngā pīpī. Ka āhua whitu marama ngā pīpī 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 pea 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 mōhiotia 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 Tauiwi 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 ngahere i tīmata 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 whiriwhiritia. 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. In 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 the 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 distribution of 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 hokioi and the totorori.

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 mamae 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 tūkino, kei te kōhuru koe i tōku reo.' Ki te pīrangi 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 rongo 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 tūkino koe i tōku reo.'

Me mutu i konei. Whakatika rānei, kōrero Pākehā kē rānei engari me mutu te kōhuru, te tūkino!

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.

Guidelines for Final Submission of Article for JMPD

General

Manuscripts should be in Times 12 cpi with 1.5 spacing and fully justified. There should be the equivalent of one line left between paragraphs within sections and new paragraphs should not be indented. Articles that are 20 pages in length or shorter are preferred. The manuscript should **NOT** have numbered pages but should have a footer on each page with the first three words of the title.

Title

The title should be in Times 12 cpi boldface and should be centred on the page. The title should indicate as clearly as possible the nature of the content of the manuscript. All content words of the title are to have an initial capital letter.

Abstract

Each article must include an abstract of not more than 200 words. The heading Abstract should be in Times 12 cpi boldface, and centered.

Headings

Level 1 headings should be capitalized in the same way as the main title, and centered. The font used is Times 12 boldface. The format for *level 2 headings* is the same as for *level 1 headings* except that the font is Times 11, and the heading is justified to the left of the column. There should be the equivalent of a one line space between level 1 and level 2 headings and the following text. The format for *level 3 headings* is the same as for level 2 headings, except that the font is Times 10, and there should be no space left between the heading and the text.

References within the text

All references within the text should be placed in parentheses containing the author's surname followed by a comma and a space before the date of publication (Jones, 1999). If the sentence already includes the author's name, then it is necessary only to put the date in parentheses: Jones (1999). When several works are cited, each entry should be separated by a semicolon: (Jones, 1999; Peters, 1995; Simon, 1993). When a reference has more than three authors, cite only the name of the first author followed by *et al* in every subsequent reference to the same work. When including page references, separate them from the date by a comma and a space (Jones, 1999, pp. 7 – 14). Page numbers should be indicated as follows: Peters (1999, p. 1), Jones (1998, pp. 4 - 7).

Endnotes

Endnotes are indicated within the text by a number[1] in superscript. They should be in Times 9, and appear together at the end of the article and before the reference list.

Tables and Figures

All tables and figures should be centered in the manuscript. Tables and figures should be numbered in the text, and should be preceded by a caption in Times 12 cpi italic. The equivalent of one line space should be left between captions and the tables or figures to which they refer. Captions and the tables or figures to which they refer should always appear together on the same page.

References

References should be listed in alphabetical order at the end of the article. The title of the section, 'References', should be a *level 1 heading*. The first line of each bibliographical reference must be justified to the left of the column, and the rest of the entry should be indented five spaces. The following examples (of fictitious references) illustrate the format required for conference proceedings, books, journals, articles, Ph.D. theses, and chapters of books respectively:

Jones, L. E. (1999). Marae Protocol. In *Proceedings of the First Annual Conference of the Society for Māori Language Revitalisation* (pp. 71 -- 133). Wellington, NZ: Te Rapa Books.

Peters, S. O. (1997). *Words and Meanings*. London: Groves and Parker.

Stephens, E. & Jones, A. E. (1987). An Experimental Approach to Case, *Journal of Case Studies*, 2 (3), 12 - 17.

Houia, A. (1992). Common Syntactic Errors in Young Learners of Greek. Doctoral Thesis. University of Te Rapa, Auckland.

Edmonds, A. B. (1991). Scaffolding Second Language Learning. In T. A. Stone, A. T. Bread & V. Matthews (Eds.), *Scaffolding in Education* (pp. 12-48). Wellington, NZ: Learning Media.

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The editors will respect the decisions made by authors in relation to their use of the macron in text written in English and/or Maori. Where Maori words are included by the editors themselves in text written in English, the macron will not be used in cases where a particular word (such as, for example, the word *Maori* itself) is deemed by the editors to have been fully integrated into New Zealand English. Thus, the macron is not used in the title of the Journal.

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Each manuscript should be submitted on white A4 paper (3 copies) and sent to the Production Editor (Dr. Winifred Crombie) at *Pua Wānanga Ki Te Ao (*the School of Māori and Pacific Development), *Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato* (University of Waikato), Private Bag 3105, Hamilton, New Zealand.

The manuscript should be accompanied by a Word Disk and/or also sent by email attachment to <crombie@waikato.ac.nz>. Author's names should **NOT** be included in the manuscript but should be indicated in an accompanying letter in which institutional affiliations, institutional addresses, email addresses and phone and fax numbers are also included. The accompanying letter should indicate clearly whether the content of the manuscript has, in the same or similar form, either (a) been delivered as a conference paper and, if so, where and when, or (b) been produced or published in any other context and, if so, where and when.

Acknowledgments

Place all acknowledgements (including those concerning research grants and funding) in a separate section at the end of the article.