

# OBSERVATIONS ON THE DEICTIC CENTER IN DISCOURSE IN JAPANESE AND MAORI OF NEW ZEALAND

Kazuko Tanabe

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In the language of the Maori of New Zealand discourse is marked relative to the position of the speaker. The marking often indicates not only the physical location of discourse participants, but also the attitude of the speaker. This phenomenon is a syntactic function that can be regarded as grammaticalization, as defined as variation in grammatical function of lexical items and sentence construction depending on linguistic context.

Grammaticalized words for marking participants in discourse are similar in Maori and Japanese. In Maori, directional particles mark the participants in the discourse, and thereby elucidate the setting of the speech location. In Japanese, the verb *kuru* (to come) serves a similar function. When *kuru* attached to verbal gerund relates to an event of the past to the speaker's location at Coding Time (CT). Fillmore (1966) has previously said deictic motion verbs ("come," "go," "bring," and "take") and directional affixes share common features in exotic languages. Grammaticalized deictic motion verbs and directional affixes are anchored to the discourse location of the current utterance and are distinctly relative to reference. Levinson (1983) categorized this deixis function into the discourse deixis, as being parallel with time, space, and social deixis.

This study will examine the function of discourse deixis by comparing the marking of participants in discourse of the Japanese through the use of the verb *kuru* with the Maori of New Zealand through the use of directional particles. This research was conducted to contribute to establishing a clear, universal process and function of grammaticalizing the space deixis into a discourse deixis.

## 2. JAPANESE *KURU*

In Japanese the verbal gerund + *kuru* construction is used to describe an activity performed elsewhere or a movement to another place, followed by a return to the location of the utterance. The verb *kuru* translates as "come" in English, though there is slight difference between the usage of "to come" in English and *kuru* in Japanese.

While "come" describes the locomotion of coming closer to the addressee, *kuru* can be

used only in the cases where the speaker has already arrived at his or her final destination. Fillmore (1971) calls the verbs “come,” “go,” “bring,” and “take” deictic motion verbs whose description needs to include something about the location of the participants in the discourse. On the other hand, *kuru*, originally a deictic motion verb in Japanese, is grammaticalized into an auxiliary verb which functions to draw the addressee’s attention toward the speech location. However, grammaticalization has eliminated the sense of moving as an action in the English “come.” It retains its original property as a deixis, and means to be toward the speech location. Below are ten example sentences in Japanese using the verbal gerund + *kuru* construction.

Situation 1:

A mother has come back from shopping and talks to her daughter:

Ex. 1: okashi katta kita wa , issboni tabenai.  
candy buy came topic marker together don’t eat  
“I bought candy. Do you want to eat it together?”

*Kuru* is subordinate to the preceding predicate, creating a close link between the two. As a result, *kuru* indicates the present location of the speaker and the listener. The speaker communicates with the listener by using a sentence that begins with *kuru*, which indicates that the past action is related to the present. It follows logically that in example (1), this usage is an invitation to eat sweets with the speaker.

Ex. 2: okashi katta wa.  
candy bought particle  
“I bought candy.”

Example (2) simply reports a past occurrence. The speaker’s intention or expectation is naturally omitted from such a simple past tense sentence like this one. This makes it quite hard to distinguish space deixis from discourse deixis. Both forms certainly indicate placement, but not necessarily the physical place as in, here or there, the location of, or the direction intended by the speaker. The physical place is a sort of setting for communication. It is the location where the participants are speaking. Hereafter, I will refer to this place as the speech location. In Japanese, the verb *kuru* can introduce the events of a past topic into the speech location. In this usage, *kuru* marks the existence of the speech location, indicating where the speaker is.

Situation 2:

A woman talks to her husband after returning from shopping:

Ex. 3: seetaa     katte     kita     wa     yo.  
 sweater (I) buy     came     particle     particle  
 “I bought a sweater (for you).”

Because *kuru* is included in the above sentence, we can assume that the sweater is meant for the addressee. *Kuru* is likely used here because the speaker wants to begin communicating with the addressee. The speaker has chosen a sentence structure that will quickly capture the attention of the addressee.

Ex. 4: seetaa     katta     wa     yo.  
 sweater (I) bought     particle     particle  
 “I bought a sweater.”

In example (4), the sweater was not necessarily purchased for the addressee. It is highly likely the speaker bought the sweater for herself, or for some other reason. For example, it might be a birthday present for someone else. In the case where the sweater is intended for a third person, the use of *kuru* is not required.

In examples (1) and (3), it can be argued that the speaker must use *kuru* in order to elicit a favorable response from the addressee.

Situation 3:

A woman talking to her husband after she has returned home:

Ex. 5: Woman: kyoo, Takeshi no                     tannin to atte kita wa.  
 today Takeshi (their son)’s teacher with meet came particle  
 “I met Takeshi’s teacher today.”

Husband: sorede, nandatte.

Well what was said

“Well, what did he say?”

Ex. 6: Woman: kyoo, Takeshi     no                     tannin to     atta wa.  
 today Takeshi (their son)’s teacher with met particle  
 “I met Takeshi’s teacher today.”

Husband: soo.

So it is.

“Really?”

This couple has a problem with their son. In example (5), it is quite clear to Japanese language speakers that the woman had an appointment with their son’s teacher for a seri-

ous reason. This utterance implies the meeting had been planned for a specific purpose. In contrast, the situation in example (6) is completely different. Without the verb *kuru*, the passage implies the woman had a casual encounter with the teacher. She might have seen him walking in town.

Situation 4:

A conversation between nurse and a man getting a checkup:

Ex. 7: Nurse: rentogen wa ukete kimashita ka.  
 X-ray topic marker (you) receive came particle  
 “Have you had your X-rays taken?”

Patient: hai.  
 “yes.”

Nurse: dewa, tsugini naishin wo  
 Then next internal examination direct object marker  
 ukete kudasai.  
 receive please  
 “Then, next is the internal examination.”

The nurse asks the man whether he has already had X-rays taken. After confirming that he has, she tells him the next procedure. Through the use of *kuru*, the nurse refers to the past and tells the patient what to do next. *Kuru*, thereby functions to connect the present topic of conversation to the future.

Ex. 8: Nurse: rentogen wa ukemashita ka.  
 X-ray topic marker received question marker  
 “Did you have X-rays taken?”

Patient: hai.  
 “yes”

Nurse: ja, naishin wa.  
 then internal examination topic marker  
 “Then how about an internal examination?”

Patient: ukemashita.  
 (I) received  
 “I already had it done.”

Nurse: dewa, moo kaette iidesu.  
 then already (you) going home good (to be allowed)  
 “Then you can go home.”

In example (8), the nurse checks whether the patient has already had his X-rays taken, but does not move to a new topic at this time. The conversation ends with the nurse asking about a previous examination, and the patient replies using the simple past tense.

Situation 5: A conversation among friends:

Ex. 9: Yoshidasan no hoo kara ayamatte *kuru* beki yo  
 Mr. Yoshida of direction from apologize come should emphasis marker  
 “Mr. Yoshida is the one who should apologize.”

This utterance suggests the speaker is committed to solving a specific problem. The function of *kuru* is almost has the role of the object of the verb “us” in English. *Kuru* stresses the speaker and addressee (s) as the central people involved, so it is clear that Mr. Yoshida should apologize to the speaker or the people who are at the speech location.

Ex. 10: Yosidasan no hoo kara ayamaru beki yo.  
 Mr. Yoshida of direction from apologize should emphasis marker  
 “Mr. Yoshida should apologize to (them/you).”

Compared to example (9), in example (10), the speaker seems less insistent than she is in example (9). Judging from the language used, the matter could very well be unrelated to her. This utterance suggests the speaker is stating an opinion on a matter unrelated to those present.

In the ten examples above, *kuru* is consistently used to assign the topic of the utterance to the location of the speaker and addressee. When the speaker utters something to the addressee with the expectation of further communication, the speaker will insert *kuru* into the utterance so as to treat an event from the past as a matter to be discussed at a later time. That is why the direct object X in each utterance can be translated into “your (addressee’s)” X. The speaker seems to be at the center of the utterance; the person most concerned about the situation. Making use of this effect, *kuru* is frequently used at the beginning of a conversation as an opening strategy.

### 3. DIRECTIONAL PARTICLES AS SPACE DEIXIS IN MAORI

The Maori language contains four directional postpositions, which are placed after the

verb to indicate the direction of the action in relation to the speaker. It is striking that most utterances in Maori contain one of these postpositions after the verb to assign a directional aspect even when physical motion is irrelevant to the idea expressed. The four directional postpositions and examples follow.

mai: hither, towards speaker  
 atu: away from speaker  
 ake: upwards from speaker  
 iho: downwards towards speaker

Ex. 11: Aa te kurii i mau mai te raakau.  
 actgen the dog T/A bring hither the stick  
 "The dog brought me a stick."

(Bauer, 1993, p. 474)

Ex. 12: Naaku i whakahoki atu too pukapuka  
 actgen T/A return away sggenIIsg book  
 "I returned your book."

(Bauer, 1993, p. 475)

Ex. 13: Ka piki ake a Taawhaki ki te rangi  
 T/A climb up part Taawhaki to the sky  
 "Taawhaki climbed up to the sky."

(Biggs, 1969, p. 66)

Ex. 14: Ka tatu iho ra te tangata ki raro.  
 T/A reach bottom down over there the man to downwards  
 "The man reached down there."

(Williams, 1985, p. 327)

Ex. 15: I kata atu ia ki a Hone  
 T/A smile away IIIsg to pers John  
 "She smiles at John."

(Bauer, 1993, p. 475-476)

Example (15) shows that not only the speaker's spatial relationship, but also her emotional relationship to the participant is an important factor in determining the use of *atu*.

#### 4. DISCOURSE DEIXIS

Ex. 16: I toona koorero tanga atu ki a Hata  
 at talk the speaker away to per Hata

ka kohete mai a Pani  
 T/A scold hither pers Pani  
 “When she talked to Hata Pani scold [him].”

(Bauer, 1993, p. 475)

According to Bauer’s description, the postpositions in example (16) indicate the emotional distance that separates Pani and Hata. This usage is frequently used when narrating dialogue. In a narrative, these directional postpositions indicate the emotional distance between the participants. They sometimes indicate the physical location relative to the narrator, rather than to the characters in the story. In some cases, no physical movement is involved despite the use of directional postpositions. Most of those cases cannot be easily explained by physical direction. The rules of the appropriate use for these postpositions in such cases are not entirely clear.

Ex. 17: I haere ia mai i Te Rerenga Wairua ki Muri Hiku  
 T/A move IIIsg hither from the jump/nom spirit to Muri Hiku  
 Bluff

“He went from North Cape to Bluff.”

(Bauer, 1993, p. 474)

As in example (17), Bauer indicates this usage of *mai* can be understood to mean “from where the participant is.” He states that the reference locus is not with the “ia,” but with the discourse participants.

The above linguistic feature shows the production of the marking of discourse as deixis. Lexical items which had originally been used to indicate direction or movement, become deictic words which may be understood to refer to the physical location of the speaker or addressee. This marking of discourse between speakers is important to understanding highly contextual meanings in discourse.

## 5. OBSERVATIONS

Previous examples demonstrate the similarities in the marking of discourse participants in Maori and Japanese. The meaning and function of *kuru* is evident in Japanese text when it is omitted from a sentence, as in the following example. The following is a note from a telephone conversation, which was written by a non-native Japanese speaker. She had studied the Japanese language for three years at the University of Australia and worked for a Japanese company (Marubeni Company: New Zealand, 1988). The following is a memo to her boss:

Ex. 18:

X-san e,

Dear Mr. X,

Y-kaisha no Z-san wa, denwa wo 1) kake-mashita.  
company of Mr. Z Topic marker telephone DO gave a call  
“Mr. Z of Y-company called.”

Y-kisha no Z-san wa, denwa wo 1)' kakete-ki-masita.

Ima kare wa atarashii fax wo 2) dashite-imasu.

now he topic marker new fax DO is sending

“He has sent us a fax, now.”

Z-san wa, fax wo 2)' okutte-kite -imasu.

soshite, moshi anata wa motto information ga

and if you Topic marker more information (DO of “want”)

“If you would like further information,

hoshii-dattara kare ni denwa wo kakete-kudasai.

want-conditional he to telephone DO call (request)

please call Mr. Z.”

hoshi-kattara Z-san ni dennwa wo shite-kudasai.

I would like to refer to 1) “*kake-mashita*” in the first line and 2) *dashite-imasu*, in the second line of this note. While 1) *kake-mashita* means just to call up, *kakete-ki-mashita* means to telephone “to us.” “To us” is clarified by adding “*ki*.” *Ki-mashita* is the distal past form of *kuru*. If *kuru* had been inserted in this telephone note, the writer’s statement would have indicated clearly that the caller had called this office. In this note, it is unclear whether Mr. Z has called the company where this writer was working.

In example 2), “*dashite-imasu*” is the distal present progressive form of “submit.” It should be corrected to read, “*okutte kite-imasu*,” which indicates the fax was sent to the writer’s company. “*Kite-imasu*” is the distal present progressive form of “to come,” and its use denotes that Mr. Z is sending a fax to this office. If “*kite-*” is not added to “*okutte-imasu*,” native Japanese language speakers may wonder who received Mr. Z’s fax. Without proper context, a native Japanese speaker might interpret the memo to say Mr. Z had sent a fax to another company. As explained in the previous section, *kuru* is used to mark the participants’ discourse and to indicate the speaker’s location. If *kuru* is not used properly, the recipient of the action becomes unclear. Because the writer and Mr. X are employed by the

same company, the writer should have a sense of common membership with Mr. X, which would be reflected in her use of *kuru* in the memo. When the writer wrote the phone note, she was doing so as though she were with Mr. X at the time. That would assume she was sharing the same speech location with Mr. X, which she was not since this was a phone call. Her mistake was failing to write about the event from the outside by marking herself in the discourse with *kuru*.

This telephone note also sheds light on how discourse is marked in English. It is assumed that the marking of the participants in discourse, at least in a directional sense as in Japanese and Maori, is not required in English speech. If an experiment was conducted to teach Japanese to English speakers and Maori speakers under the same circumstances, the native English learners would likely experience greater difficulty understanding discourse marking with space deixis because it is a concept totally foreign to their understanding of language. Special training for English speaking learners would be necessary in order for them to acquire discourse marking with implied directions in the Japanese language.

## 6. STUDY

To test the hypothesis drawn from analysis of the telephone notes in the previous section, a study of Japanese language learners in Auckland University was conducted on August 25, 2001 and at the Maori Museum on August 28, 2001. The hypothesis was that Japanese language learners who are English speakers would experience difficulties in correctly using deixis in Japanese. A comparison with Maori language speakers was not performed in this experiment. Instead, several informants who speak both English and Maori were required to write down telephone notes in both Maori and English.

### Experimental Method:

At first, the informants were to read the prepared telephone dialogue and then were asked to write a note to Mr. Yoshida in Japanese, Maori, or English as if they were secretaries of Mr. Yoshida.

### The Telephone Dialogue

#### People Involved:

Mr. Smith (Purchasing manager of Jax Paper Mills.)

Kate (Staff member of pulp and paper dept. of Three Stars Ltd.)

Mr. Yoshida (Director of Three Stars Ltd.)

### Setting:

Telephone conversation in the office of Three Stars Ltd.

Mr. Smith: Hello, May I speak to Mr. Yoshida?

Kate: I'm sorry but Mr. Yoshida is out now.

He will come back to the office later this afternoon.

Mr. Smith: Oh, I see. Please tell him that we have an inquiry about price and shipment conditions regarding our pulp order.

I will send the details by fax. In case he needs more information, please have him phone me. Thank you.

Kate: I certainly will, good by.

### Results

By focusing on the first sentences of the messages, the samples of messages in English, Japanese and Maori are analyzed.

The four beginning sentence patterns of the messages in English are as follows:

1. Mr. Smith phoned to you.
2. Mr. Smith called this morning when you were out.
3. Mr. Smith rang to speak with you regarding to the details of their pulp order.
4. Mr. Smith called to inquire about prices regarding pulp order.

Of the messages, only No. 1 mentions the telephone call was for “you” with directional expression in the deictic sense. However, the subject who composed this message was Chinese and not a native English speaker. Message No. 4 was written by a native English speaking New Zealander. The writer of message No. 2 came from South Korea and No. 3 was written by an Indian woman. Deixis indicating the receiver can be interpreted to be largely irrelevant in English in this case.

The four beginning sentence patterns in the messages in Japanese are as follows:

1. kantokusama ga gaishutsu shita aida ni, Smith-san ga anata ni denwa wo  
director was out while Mr. Smith you to phoned DO

shimashita.

(past tense)

2. Smith-san kara denwa ga arimashita.  
Mr. Smith from telephone call subject marker there was

3. Smith san kara denwa wo moraimashita.  
Mr. Smith from telephone call DO was received

4. Smith san ga denwa wo kakete kimashita.  
Mr. Smith subject marker telephone call DO make come (past tense)

Sentence No. 1 was written by Japanese language learner of two years. No. 2 was written by a Japanese language learner with a good command of Japanese. This is a conventional expression for a telephone message. No. 3 and No. 4 were produced by native Japanese speakers. It is highly likely that native Japanese speakers are prone to use deictic expressions with directional expression or deictic motion verbs.

The two beginning sentence patterns in the message in Maori are as follows:

1. Kua waea mai a Mr. Smith.  
(perfective) telephone to me Smith

2. I waea ahau e Mr. Smith.  
(past tense) telephone I by Smith

Most of the native speakers of Maori use pattern No. 1. The deictic expression *mai* is essential. The pattern used in sentence No. 2 was used by a young Maori lady who is studying Maori in a language course in the University. She is little studying in a natural language learning environment. Maori language in New Zealand can be said to be strongly influenced by English because its structure is nearly identical to the English passive voice as an accusative language. The structure of the sentence “I was phoned by Mr. Smith” cannot be identified with the original structure as an ergative language.

Even more interesting is, in Maori, when a sentence begins with *mai* (to me), the message is expected to end with *atu* (away). It is customary to use *mai* and *atu* as a pair in this way. The two following sentences from the survey both contain the postposition *atu*.

1. Me waea atu.  
you shall phone away.
2. Ka awhi koe ki a ia me waea atu.  
please work you in order to shall phone away

The study shows evidence that both Maori and Japanese quite frequently require the deictic expressions such as *mai* in Maori, and nominal verb + *kuru* of deictic motion verbs

or a few directional expressions in Japanese. However, the deictic expression is not as important in English as it is for Maori and Japanese.

## 7. CONCLUSION

This study has shown that the directional particles in Maori, and the directional expression *kuru* in Japanese are both used to mark the discourse participants. They can be used to mark not only the physical position of the speaker, but in some cases also indicate the mental orientation of the speaker. Furthermore, through grammaticalization, they also indicate the speech location, at which field deictic words such as: here, now, and I, are relatively defined.

In the written Maori language, *mai* is sometimes interpreted to mean, “from where the participant is,” while, on the other hand, Japanese deictic motion verb *kuru* can be understood to mean “where the participant is.” These usages are categorized into discourse deixis. Both in Maori and Japanese, spatial deixis is grammaticalized into discourse deixis.

## ABBREVIATIONS

actgen	actual genitive
gen	genitive
per	personal article
sg	singular
T/A	tense/aspect marker
IIsg	second person singular
IIIsg	third person singular

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