A DIACHRONIC EXPLORATION OF THE
CONTRIBUTION OF THE HARVESTING OF THE
MARINE ENVIRONMENT TO A DISTINCTIVE
NEW ZEALAND ENGLISH LEXICON, 1796-2005

BY

CHERIE ANNE CONNOR

A thesis submitted to the Victoria University of Wellington in fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied
Linguistics

VICTORIA UNIVERSITY OF WELLINGTON
2010
ABSTRACT

This study examines the lexical contribution the harvesting of the marine environment has made to a specific New Zealand English lexicon from 1795 to 2006. It draws on a range of written sources including annual government reports, periodicals, and unpublished manuscripts. The identified words are compiled into a wordlist based on historical principles, which includes definitions and numerous citations of usage. The sea coast was an area of early economic activity in New Zealand, with whaling constituting one of our earliest industries, and its practitioners some of the earliest English speaking settlers. It remains an area of continued cultural and economic significance. Therefore, the compiled wordlist provides not just a repository of long forgotten words, but an historical account of a living language in an area of continued significance to New Zealand.

The body of New Zealandisms identified in this study are analysed systematically. Firstly, the lexical items are examined in seven 30 year time periods from 1796 to 2005 to determine changes in the number of innovations over time. The results show that the largest numbers of New Zealandisms were identified during the stages of early settlement, and in recent years. This suggests that New Zealand English continues to flourish at the lexical level, despite the threat which globalisation is perceived to pose to regional variation. Closer examination also reveals that lexical innovation in New Zealand is linked with New Zealand’s growing sense of independence, and a dynamic orientation to the marine resource.

In addition, a regional typology is applied to the identified lexis based on Deverson’s (2000) model which shows when and how the innovation occurs, via coining and borrowing, or semantic shift. New words are examined to identify which word formation processes are the most productive. The categorisation reveals that lexical innovation in the area of marine harvesting is strongly focused on referents which are unique to New Zealand, and this is constant throughout the period studied. However, this reflects ongoing changes in the way that we label our unique referents, rather than the sheer number of unique referents. While new words are slightly more prevalent than semantic shift as a means of innovation in the marine domain, there is significant variation in this over time. That is, borrowing as a significant feature of lexical
innovation during early European settlement is replaced in dominance by semantic shift as colonisation progresses. Since the 1970s, new words again dominate the form of lexical innovation, especially through the use of multi-word items employed to construct a complex management system. This impacts on the nature of the fisheries discourse and also our perception of the marine environment.

The study of the contribution of the marine harvesting lexicon to New Zealand English creates a cultural document in an area of social and economic importance. It also provides a body of words which is available for analysis. The results of categorising the identified New Zealandisms contribute to our knowledge of the nature of New Zealand lexical innovation, and how it has changed throughout the European settlement of New Zealand.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was undertaken with the financial support of a New Zealand Dictionary Centre scholarship. I am grateful for the opportunity which this has provided.

I thank my supervisors Laurie Bauer and Dianne Bardsley for their patience and sound advice.

Many people in the school of LALS, fellow students, and administration staff have offered me support and encouragement throughout the completion of the PhD. I thank especially Katherine Quigley and Xie Xie with whom I happily shared an office for several years. Also, thanks to my colleagues from the English Language Institute, who continued to be collegial as I took a side-step into the world of marine creatures.

I thank the staff at the Alexander Turnbull library who have given their time. Numerous people on hearing that I am studying marine words have shown an interest, shared their knowledge, and given magazines, newspapers, and articles that they thought would be helpful – they so often were.

Thanks to family and friends for all their kindnesses. Thanks to my sister Maria who generously provided her time for childcare. Lastly, thanks to John for all his help, and to Mirabelle and Iris for ensuring that life outside the research was always absorbing.
Table of Contents

ABSTRACT .......................................................................................................................... 2

GLOSSARY OF MAORI WORDS ...................................................................................... 10

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE TEXT ............................................................................. 11

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION ......................................................................................... 12
  1.1 WHY STUDY NEW ZEALAND LEXICAL INNOVATION? ........................................... 12
  1.2 THE VALUE OF A SYNCHRONIC / DIACHRONIC STUDY ................................... 13
  1.3 WHY THE SEA? ......................................................................................................... 13
  1.4 THE VALUE OF A DIACHRONIC STUDY ................................................................ 14
  1.5 WHAT IS THE HARVESTING OF THE MARINE ENVIRONMENT? ....................... 15
  1.6 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS ....................................................................................... 16

CHAPTER 2: BRIEF BACKGROUND TO THE HARVESTING OF THE MARINE ENVIRONMENT IN NEW ZEALAND ................................................................. 17
  2.1 WHALING AND SEALING ....................................................................................... 17
  2.1.1 Whalers as early settlers and agents of contact ................................................ 20
  2.2 REGULATION OF THE FISHERIES ..................................................................... 21
  2.3 THE RISE OF FISHING AS AN INDUSTRY ............................................................ 24
  2.3.1 Non-English speaking settlers’ participation in fishing ..................................... 26
  2.4 MAORI AND FISHING .............................................................................................. 27

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW ............................................................................... 30
  3.1 LEXICOGRAPHICAL ISSUES ................................................................................. 30
  3.1.1 Identifying independent lexical items ............................................................... 31
  3.1.2 What is a regional word? ................................................................................... 35
  3.1.3 Defining ............................................................................................................. 37

  3.2 THE STUDY OF NEW ZEALAND ENGLISH ......................................................... 38
  3.2.1 Recognition of New Zealand English as a variety ......................................... 38
  3.2.2 Origins of New Zealand English ....................................................................... 40
  3.2.3 Lexis: lexicographical work .............................................................................. 40
  3.2.4 What areas contribute to a distinctive New Zealand lexis: the perceived role of slang ......................................................... 42
CHAPTER 5: CHANGE OVER TIME .................................................. 92
  5.1 HAS THE AMOUNT OF INNOVATION CHANGED OVER TIME? .......... 92
  5.2 EARLY YEARS ........................................................................ 93
  5.3 LITTLE BRITAIN ..................................................................... 94
  5.4 AN INDEPENDENT NATION .................................................. 96
  5.5 THEMATIC DISCUSSION: CHANGE OVER TIME ......................... 97
     5.5.1 Whaling ........................................................................ 98
     5.5.2 From naming to managing .............................................. 100
     5.5.3 Fish labels – changes in names and the increase in
            commercialisation .......................................................... 102
  5.6 CONCLUSION ....................................................................... 107

CHAPTER 6: HOW DO WE INNOVATE: A REGIONAL
TYPOLOGY .................................................................................. 110
  6.1 IN WHICH TYPES DO THE INNOVATIONS CLUSTER? ............. 111
  6.2 NEW WORDS ........................................................................ 111
     6.2.1 The prevalence of new words for unique referents .......... 112
     6.2.2 New words for shared referents .................................... 113
  6.3 SEMANTIC SHIFT ................................................................. 113
     6.3.1 Substitution versus additional meanings ....................... 114
     6.3.2 Semantic shift to coining ............................................... 116
     6.3.3 Uncommon innovation: semantic shift for shared referents
            ...................................................................................... 117
  6.4 WHY DOES INNOVATION OCCUR? ....................................... 117
  6.5 CHANGES IN TYPE OF INNOVATION OVER TIME ................. 121
     6.5.1 Unique versus shared referents ..................................... 122
     6.5.2 New words versus semantic shift over time: English
            transplanted to English adapted ..................................... 125
  6.6 WHAT ARE THE MOST COMMON METHODS OF NEOLOGISING? ... 128
     6.6.1 Presence of Maori ......................................................... 129
6.6.2 Non-Maori borrowing ................................................. 138
6.6.3 Combinations .................................................. 141
6.6.4 Acronyms .................................................. 144
6.6.5 The use of the hypocoristic ie / y .............................. 145

6.7 Conclusion ........................................................................ 148

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR
FURTHER STUDY ............................................................................ 150

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: A BRIEF CHRONOLOGY OF SIGNIFICANT
EVENTS IN THE MARINE ENVIRONMENT ......................... 154

APPENDIX B: SERIAL PUBLICATIONS BY TIME PERIOD .... 155

APPENDIX C: WORDLIST PREFACE ................................. 156

APPENDIX D: MARINE HARVESTING WORDLIST .......... 159

APPENDIX E: LEXICON CATEGORISED BY TIME ............ 288

APPENDIX F: LEXICON CATEGORISED ACCORDING TO THE
DEVERSON TYPOLOGY (2000) ................................................. 296

APPENDIX G: ALLOCATION OF ITEMS TO THE DEVERSON
TYPOLOGY (2000) BY TIME PERIOD ................................. 304
TIME PERIOD 1: 1796-1825 ........................................ 304
TIME PERIOD 3: 1856-1885 ........................................ 305
TIME PERIOD 5: 1916-1945 ........................................ 307
TIME PERIOD 6: 1946-1975 ........................................ 308
TIME PERIOD 7: 1976-2005 ........................................ 309
Glossary of Maori Words

This glossary contains vocabulary from te reo Maori that appears in the thesis and which is not defined in the wordlist. Definitions are taken from Macalister (2005). These items have been used in the thesis without macrons, as examples of items which are well integrated into New Zealand English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hapu</td>
<td>a sub-tribe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hui</td>
<td>a meeting, traditionally held on a marae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iwi</td>
<td>a Maori tribe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kainga</td>
<td>a village or settlement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaitiakitanga</td>
<td>Guardianship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaumatua</td>
<td>an elder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuia</td>
<td>an old, or senior woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mana</td>
<td>authority, prestige</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakeha</td>
<td>a New Zealander of European descent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pounamu</td>
<td>Greenstone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tangata whenua</td>
<td>the Maori people; literally ‘the people of the land’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tangi</td>
<td>a funeral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tapu</td>
<td>the quality of being sacred; a restriction or prohibition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>te reo Maori</td>
<td>the Maori language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tikanga</td>
<td>Culture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THE TEXT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AJHR</td>
<td>Appendices to the Journals of the House of Representatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DARE</td>
<td>Dictionary of American Regional English (1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DNZE</td>
<td>Dictionary of New Zealand English (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JPS</td>
<td>Journal of the Polynesian Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZFN</td>
<td>New Zealand Fishing News</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZOYB</td>
<td>New Zealand Official Yearbook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OED</td>
<td>Oxford English Dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TrNZI</td>
<td>Transactions and Proceedings of the New Zealand Institute</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

This chapter offers a brief rationale for the selection of the area under investigation and an outline of the chapters of the thesis.

1.1 Why Study New Zealand Lexical Innovation?

The vast majority of the vocabulary of New Zealand English is shared with the vocabulary employed by speakers of other varieties of English. Yet there is a subtle distinctiveness to the lexis. It is interesting to consider those areas in which New Zealand English diverges lexically from other varieties, because it is in this distinctive labelling that we can identify features which mark our own response to, and perception of, the world. To talk of one New Zealand culture may be misleading in the face of different cultural and social groups leading varying lifestyles. However, as Butler notes (2001: 151), in our distinctive lexis there is “a sense of shared experience and a common history”, whatever our role in it. Bejoint (1994) claims, “the compilation of a native dictionary is a symbolic act of independence from the ‘mother country’”. It is the consideration of the variety as valid in its own right rather than a deviation from the British norm. Dolezal (2006: 695) emphasises the sense of legitimacy that a local dictionary confers: “a dictionary is not a requirement for a people to recognise themselves as part of a distinct set of English language users, but the presence of such a dictionary would undoubtedly seal the argument for the existence of a separate and equal English”. Trudgill (2002: 31) mentions the importance of people being able to speak their own variety of speech, without having to constantly monitor it for exonormative standards of correctness. In India, he claims, the varieties that have been established internally are the ones that should be taught there, because among other things its vocabulary has adapted to the culture and society. A national dictionary makes this a more real possibility, lending as it does a certain face validity to the lexical choices made by a region. Moreover, in New Zealand, where the native language has been marginalised, the investigation of borrowing from te reo Maori is an important means of acknowledging the contribution of Maori to New Zealand English.
We are currently in an age where technological advances have led to increased global communications. This is seen to have the potential to reduce regionalism, and as Schneider (2003: 236) notes, the possible emergence of a “relatively homogeneous international English” is a topic of current debate. Trudgill (2002: 149) claims that at the level of lexis “English looks set to become increasingly homogenised”. Therefore, it is important to document those ways in which groups continue to lexicalise differently, within ever-blurring geographical boundaries.

1.2 The Value of a Synchronic / Diachronic Study

Although not without drawbacks, studying vocabulary within a particular semantic field is advantageous because it allows us to focus on an area important to identity (Deverson, 2000). Moreover, it allows us to consider the entire development of one specific area of lexis over time. Simpson (1988: 144) suggests that diachronic study is a useful supplement to “a synchronic linguistic snapshot” in helping us to observe change that is unpredictable and “without identifiable rules”. A synchronic study then, provides a group of words from a particular area which can be utilised for systematic analysis. While allowing us to comment on the particular domain, it can also offer an example of the more general development of lexical innovation in New Zealand. Many studies have made intuitive observations about the New Zealand English vocabulary, but as Deverson (2001) points out, there are few studies which provide a systematic treatment of this lexis. The study of a particular domain may provide one method for supporting intuitions.

1.3 Why the Sea?

The marine environment certainly constitutes a domain that is of significance to New Zealand. As an island nation, New Zealand’s relationship with the sea has been significant throughout history, and there are several reasons why it deserves our linguistic attention. Firstly, it was on the coast, through the industries of sealing and whaling, that Europeans first established communities where English was regularly spoken in New Zealand. As these workers adapted to a new environment and interacted with Maori, adopting aspects of language and culture for their survival
(Bentley, 1998: 10), the English they spoke was influenced by their new environment. So, to examine the language of the marine environment is to consider the beginnings of New Zealand English. Furthermore, the marine environment is important both economically and socially in New Zealand. While it has been claimed that in recent years “the sea has receded in our imagination” (Atkinson, 2001: 10), ongoing public and political debate surrounding legislation governing the ownership of the country’s foreshore and seabed suggests that the coast is perceived to be of continued importance to New Zealand identity. A survey conducted in 1987 (Paul, 2000: 196) reveals that two million people (or more than 80%) aged over 12 had been fishing or gathered shellfish; an indication of the role of the coast in the lives of New Zealanders. It is also an area of significant economic importance to the country. Fisheries now ranks as the fourth largest export industry, earning over $1.5 billion in exports annually (Johnson, 2004: 485).

Another reason to focus on the marine environment is that it represents an area of early and continued cultural interaction. Bayard (2000: 323) predicts that “the increasing attention being paid to claims and rights under the Treaty of Waitangi” is likely to increase the volume of Maori items in New Zealand English. As fisheries have long been a significant area of Treaty negotiation, debated in parliament since the 1860s and leading to the establishment of the Maori Fisheries Commission in 1989, it is an appropriate area in which to examine this proposition.

1.4 The Value of a Diachronic Study

Discussion of the historical dictionary frequently highlights the role of preserving “antique words and phrases”, as Burchfield (1992: 166) refers to them, that may otherwise be lost. Burridge (2004: 164) speaks of “treasure troves of forgotten words”. However, culture is not fixed or static, and diachronic lexicography provides one avenue for examining general social shifts in attitude over time, a process which serves to better illuminate the present. As an example, Persson (2005) refers to the significant number of lexical items, which have become obsolete, used to describe servants in early Swedish dictionaries. This reduced lexical need to delineate types of servants may reflect and perpetuate a more egalitarian society. Here, a shift is evident in society’s perception and this shift is shaped by lexical innovation. Hence, the
diachronic study may be viewed, not as a collection of dead words “listed like moss-covered gravestones” (Burchfield, 1992: 166), but as a tangible representation of a living language.

The diachronic exploration of the contribution of the marine environment to a distinctive New Zealand English vocabulary has the potential to illustrate social, political, and environmental change in an area of cultural and economic significance. It may also reveal whether, and to what extent, New Zealandisms continue to be coined in the face of globalisation.

1.5 What is the Harvesting of the Marine Environment?

‘Harvesting of the marine environment’ does not constitute an identifiable domain as such. Rather, the topic seeks to identify those words which New Zealanders use in their taking of the sea’s resources or creatures. The specific strands considered within this topic are whaling and sealing, recreational and commercial fishing, Maori and fishing, and regulation of the marine environment. The topic includes lexical items which refer to methods, manner, equipment and regulations involved in the harvesting, as well as the items harvested and the people involved in it. The topic extends to those seaweeds which are or were harvested. Seaweed is actually designated as ‘fish’ in fishing legislation, so that the harvesting can be controlled (Paul, 2000: 238). While the topic includes harvesting of marine animals significant to New Zealand, including titi or muttonbirds (which incidentally are sold in fish shops), it does not include freshwater fish, or sea life with no particular relevance to being harvested. Hence, it is the utilisation of marine life within New Zealand which is focused on. The language used by fishers which is specific to New Zealand lexis but does not relate to the marine environment will not be included within this topic (for example, squeaker\(^1\), a whaler’s term for child). In this way, the topic does not represent the language of a specific group of people (for example whaler’s argot), but the language employed distinctively in New Zealand when discussing the sea as a resource.

\(^1\) Throughout the text, items are bolded when it is the label, rather than the referent, which is being referred to. This bolding is not restricted to words which occur in the wordlist of this study.
1.6 Outline of the Thesis

It is important to situate linguistic change into the socio-cultural context in which it occurs. Hence, Chapter 2 provides a brief history of marine harvesting in New Zealand. Chapter 3 aims to outline the broader field of study into which this study fits, and lexicographical literature relevant to the study is summarised. The study of New Zealand English with a particular focus on distinctive lexis is also outlined, along with the consideration of its place within the wider study of regional Englishes, or world Englishes. Literature regarding the analysis of wordlists, which has the potential to inform this study, is also outlined in Chapter 3.

The compilation of a wordlist requires a number of editorial decisions. Issues encountered regarding the selection of sources, selection of items for inclusion, organisation of the wordlist, use of labels, and selection of citations are addressed in Chapter 4. The editorial decisions made and the reasons underpinning these decisions are discussed. Applying a typology to any set of data is problematic and the issues faced in categorising the lexical items into a regional typology are addressed in this Methodology chapter. The wordlist itself, along with the categorisation of the lexical items, is to be found in the Appendices to the thesis.

The results of allocating the identified vocabulary into seven 30 year blocks to examine change over time are presented in Chapter 5. The results show that the largest numbers of New Zealandisms were identified during recent years. This suggests that regional lexical innovation continues to flourish, despite the threat which globalisation is perceived to pose to regional variation. The results of categorising the lexical items according to Deverson’s (2000) regional typology are presented and discussed in Chapter 6. This typology allows us to determine when, and in what form, lexical innovation occurs. The categorisation reveals that lexical innovation in the area of marine harvesting is strongly focused on referents which are unique to New Zealand, and this is constant throughout the period studied. While borrowing and coining new words is slightly more prevalent than semantic shift as a means of innovation, there is significant variation in this over time. The thesis is completed with a summary of the major conclusions and implications for further research.
CHAPTER 2

BRIEF BACKGROUND TO THE HARVESTING OF THE MARINE ENVIRONMENT IN NEW ZEALAND

In order to ground the linguistic behaviour which emerged in the area under investigation within its socio-historical context, an overview of the harvesting of the marine environment throughout the history of English speaking New Zealand will be given. This section will provide a brief historic overview, covering the history of whaling and sealing in New Zealand, the rise of fishing as an industry and its regulation, and Maori relation to fisheries. Appendix A provides a chronological table of significant events in the marine harvesting domain.

2.1 Whaling and Sealing

The first non-Maori marine industry in New Zealand was sealing. Taking of the New Zealand fur seal (an indigenous creature) was by all accounts a brief, intense and brutal business. The first attempt to slaughter these creatures in any great numbers was in 1792, under the Captainship of William Raven who brought a sealing gang from Australia to Dusky Sound. Sealing was conducted from the 1790s until the 1820s, with Otago, Fiordland, Southland and Campbell Island being the primary locations. It usually involved sealing gangs of itinerant seamen being dropped off on rugged coastlines for several months at a time, with only basic provisions. It was not uncommon for the sealers to be abandoned. This industry was short-lived because severe over-culling led to a rapid decline in the seal population (Smith, 2002; Mackay, 1992). Quick commercial gain was sought by Australian and American skin merchants while the fashion for fur seal hats, coats, and boots lasted, and as Grady (1986) notes, no thought was given to the survival of the species. With 70,000 – 80,000 skins collected each year from 1810 to 1820, it is not surprising that by the 1820s the seals in New Zealand waters were virtually extinct. Only infrequent bouts of sealing continued throughout the century, often to supplement whaling; for example, on Campbell Island in the first decade of the 20th century. In 1875, seals
were given partial protection and this was increased to full protection in 1894. These restrictions were lifted at various times until a total and final ban in 1946.

Although sealing was a short-lived industry, sealers left a mark on early New Zealand. As Mackay (1992: 16) argues, the geography ensured that “the first frontier for Europeans was located at the coastline” and it was sealers who fought it. Initially, sealers were regarded suspiciously by Maori (resulting in the loss of lives on both sides), but by 1829, many sealers were living semi-permanently in “European-Maori communities” (Belich, 2001:131). According to Belich, the hybrid communities in Codfish and Stewart Island were a reflection of significant cultural interaction. In Murihiku ‘the south of the South Island’, it is thought that some 100 sealers lived with Maori wives and families (The Ngai Tahu Seas Fisheries Report). Furthermore, although this dangerous industry did not lead to the establishment of permanent settlements, as Mackay (1992) points out, the sealers learned valuable information about the nature of New Zealand’s shorelines which facilitated the establishment of the whaling industry. Finally, while the seals disappeared, many sealers remained on New Zealand shores and diversified into other industries. The contacts made with local Maori and the knowledge gleaned of the coast and environment played a role in increased unofficial settlement of New Zealand’s southern islands.

As sealing declined in New Zealand waters, whaling began to flourish. The William and Ann was the first recorded whaling vessel to enter New Zealand shores, in 1791. By 1805, whaling ships were regularly visiting the Bay of Islands as a stopover on their hunt for the sperm whale (and to a lesser extent the right whale), sometimes employing local inhabitants as whaling crew. Between 1806 and 1810, 50 ships visited the Bay of Islands and there were 92 visits from 1815-1822 (Belich, 2001: 137). The settlement of Kororareka (currently more commonly named Russell), with its sheltered harbour, was the major stopover and provisions of pork, fish and potatoes were offered here. The settlement also had an ample supply of alcohol and gained a reputation for moral degradation. Grady (1986: 132) cites the conclusion made by New Zealand’s first surveyor, Felton Matthew: “Of all the vile holes I ever visited, this is certainly the vilest”. The whalers who frequented the port were notoriously described by Charles Darwin as “the very refuse of society” (cited in Johnson, 2004:16). Other ports, less frequently visited and viewed with less moral outrage,
were Akaroa (predominantly by the French whalers), Lyttelton, Otago harbour, and Stewart and Chatham Islands. From the 1830s, American ships began to dominate the whaling in New Zealand waters; before this time they had less incentive because they were prohibited from visiting Australian ports (Prickett, 2002). In 1839, 60 American ships visited Kororareka. However, by this time indiscriminate practices were evident in a massive decline in sperm whale numbers, and this in turn made sending whaling ships out to far locations unprofitable.

The first shore whaling station in New Zealand is thought to have been established in Te Awhiti in 1827, by Jacky Guard an ex-sealer. From this time, numerous small stations were established on New Zealand shores, including Kapiti and the Bay of Islands. Thirty-five whaling stations were established around Murihiiku, Otakou and Banks Peninsula from 1830 to 1845, the peak years of shore whaling (Grady, 1986). Other early, notable stations were run by Joseph Price in Canterbury, Captain Hempleton at Piraki, the Weller brothers in Foveaux Strait, Dicky Barrett in Marlborough, and Johnny Jones in Otago. The sizable Ocean Bay station was operated by 30 naturalised Europeans and around 100 Maori (Bentley, 1998: 208). These stations differed from bay whaling in that they focused on shallow water, and the processing of the whales occurred on shore. Mackay (1992) notes that they were significant because they created permanent settlement throughout the country, in contrast to the short visits which bay whaling facilitated. In 1840, the British imposition of taxes and excise duties led to the decline of visits by open sea whaling vessels, but there were around a hundred small groups operating from the shore, mostly operated by people from Australia. The revenue earned from shore whaling was considerable. Wakefield (1845: 339) reports that in the 1844 season, 1215 tonnes of oil worth fifty thousand pounds was sold to Britain, from stations in the Cook Strait area. However, few lessons had been learned from the fate of the sealing industry, and the ill-conceived practice of catching right whales when they came to calf on shore led to the steady decline of the species (Day, 1986). By the 1840s, European settlers’ second marine industry was in decline.

While the peak period had passed, whaling did continue, and in Kaikoura, whaling stations were running consistently from the 1840s until 1922. Norwegian attempts to catch whales in New Zealand waters in the early 1900s were unsuccessful; however,
two long running whaling stations were established in Whangamumu in 1890 and in the Tory Channel in 1908. These were largely based on the humpback whale, whose tendency to sink made them difficult to retrieve and therefore a less likely target before the invention of the compressed air spear. These stations continued, the latter employing modern methods and the former traditional methods (Grady, 1982), until 1963. This signalled the end of whaling in New Zealand waters, as lowered numbers and reduced demand coincided with a growing international feeling that the commercial harvest of whales was not a desirable practice. The numbers have never fully recovered, with only an estimated 5,000 left in the world (Grady, 1986: 65). In an interesting reversal, the expertise of former whalers is still utilised in connection with sighting whales, but the purpose is research rather than hunting.

2.1.1 Whalers as early settlers and agents of contact
Whalers constituted some of New Zealand’s earliest European settlers and shore stations were the first European settlements (Prickett, 2002). For example, John Guard’s Marlborough whaling station of 1827 grew to a population of nearly 200, making it the largest European settlement in the South Island (Flude, 2001). The increased settlement that followed the signing of New Zealand’s founding document, the Treaty of Waitangi, in 1840 meant settler groups began to live isolated from the indigenous people. As Clark (1990: 109) notes, “many New Zealand journals, bibliographies, letters … refer to a completely European world”. However, this was not the case for early whalers; as a small minority, they depended on Maori for survival. This dependence, coupled with the interest of Maori in the new technology and courageous methods of whaling which these settlers gave them access to, meant that “cross-cultural interaction and culture change was a dynamic two way process before 1840” (Bentley, 1998: 11). While Bentley refers to the Maori customs adopted by the whalers, Wakefield (1845: 336) refers to the “new wants as well as new vices” and “considerable degree of respect for the physical qualities of the Pakeha” which the whalers had introduced to Maori. He argues that these pioneers smoothed the way for subsequent settlement. As the whalers (almost exclusively male) commonly came without wives, marriage between them and Maori women was common. This is well documented by Wakefield (1845). In 1839, he noted 25 children of Maori mothers and European whaling fathers at the whaling station of Dicky Barrett in Marlborough. It was a common practice for European whalers to spend their winter seasons whaling
and their summers living with a local tribe, involved in minimal amounts of trade (Wakefield, 1845; Dieffenbach, 1843). Bentley (1998: 209) claims that these living situations in the 1830s constituted “integrated communities” neither European nor Maori, but a combination of both.

Close contact between the two linguistic groups provided the opportunity for the languages to impact on each other. Certainly, many notable whalers (including Dicky Barrett, Joseph Price and Lewis Acker) were highly assimilated into Maori culture and fluent enough in Maori to act as interpreters (Bentley, 1998). The whalers were also known for developing a distinctive sociolect, as Wakefield notes (1845: 318): “Their whole language in fact is an argot, or slang, almost unintelligible to a stranger”. However, the examples he gives to illustrate this are limited to isolated items of vocabulary that do not in themselves support his statement, that is, pigs were grunters, potatoes spuds and blankets dust spreaders. Wakefield claims that this allowed the whalers to discuss issues of trade without being understood by their Maori traders, which implies that as early as the 1830s many Maori (specifically those involved in trade) were to some extent bilingual. It is also noted that Maori living at shore whaling stations acquired the whaler argot (Bentley, 1998). It is likely then, that there was some bilingualism among both whalers and the Maori who they associated with, a situation which is likely to promote language change (Thomason, 2001). Whaling and sealing can be seen as significant then, in constituting some of the earliest European settlements, facilitating contact between local and settler groups, and providing a basis from which linguistic change may develop.

2.2 Regulation of the Fisheries

From a European settler’s perspective, before the 1860s the resources of the sea were a common resource available to anybody who wished to exploit them, without restraint (Straker, Kerr and Hendy, 2002).² Paul’s (1979) comprehensive bibliography on commercial fisheries concedes that there were no papers found on fishery management before 1840, only comments made by explorers of the potential

---

² It is important to note that while whalers had strict rules about the conduct surrounding the capture of whales, these were not aimed at promoting sustainability. Maori regulations surrounding the harvest of seafood are discussed in 3.4.
of fisheries. There was perhaps a belief amongst early settlers that the marine resources of New Zealand waters were of limited value. It took a mere 30 years from the time of Cook’s arrival for seals to be hunted almost to the point of extinction (Smith, 2002) and right whales were similarly depleted from 1830–1850 (Prickett, 2002). This belief was perhaps further compounded by the experience with dredge oysters which were also subjected to a rapid depletion. Unsurprisingly then, it was the land that held the most interest for the early settlers, and even prominent whalers aimed to gain enough money to buy and work a piece of land. For many years the fishing industry remained rather undeveloped (Richardson, 2000) and its potential not fully realised. Fishing for items other than whales and seals was minimal, tending to supplement the settler diet and income. While fish were a significant feature of the Maori diet, commercial exploitation was small-scale (Johnson, 2004), consisting mainly of trade with whalers. There was, then, before this time, little attempt to regulate the sea’s resources or exploit a variety of resources on a large scale.

However, from the 1860s, there began to emerge a perception that the country’s marine resources had potential, and that some fish stocks should be prevented from being depleted. Trawling, which was practised sporadically from 1866, was causing concern about damage to ocean beds and fish stocks. In the 1860s, Fisheries Commissions were established to investigate claims of overfishing, and the findings led to the beginnings of regulation. The first official piece of legislation was the Oyster Fish Act (1866). This legislation was designed to protect the dredge oyster of Stewart Island which had rapidly depleted within two years of its discovery. The Fish Protection Act (1877) was the first comprehensive attempt to regulate the activities of those involved in the industry, and various restrictions were imposed on size limits of the species which were then popular, including mullet and blue cod (Paul, 2000). In 1908, the Fisheries Act served to consolidate the various pieces of legislation into a comprehensive act, which basically remained in place, with modification, until 1983. It also established a Marine Minister. However, as Straker et al. (2002) point out, there appeared in this legislation to be two conflicting objectives: conservation and exploitation of the resource. A significant component of the Commission’s role was to see how the fisheries could be further exploited.
Outside interest prompted New Zealand to further review its perception of fisheries. Foreign vessels, largely from Japan, Korea, and Russia, began to trawl New Zealand waters from the 1950s. It was surmised that if foreign vessels were making the effort to fish New Zealand’s deep seas, then there must be something worth fishing for. A Fishing Industry Committee was established in 1962 to investigate and concluded that while fish numbers were unknown, licensing should be removed in order to promote the industry. This advice was heeded and in 1963 the industry became almost entirely deregulated (Paul, 2000: 189). Emphasis was on promotion rather than conservation of fisheries. However, the deregulation did not facilitate the growth of a deep sea fishing industry within New Zealand because it was perceived as expensive and risky. Because New Zealand’s narrow fishing grounds were easily accessible, small, less expensive boats had dominated the industry (Richardson, 2000). Meanwhile, foreign nations continued to fish the deeper waters extensively. Clearly, it was necessary to regulate at an international level and from the 1950s, smaller coastal nations were looking to the United Nations to enforce regulations of global fishing, as larger fishing nations encroached on their waters.

With the introduction of Exclusive Economic Zones in 1978, each nation was charged with the responsibility of maintaining its own coastal zone. It is here that the potential for countries to assert their individual response to the harvesting of marine resources is realised. New Zealand chose not to return to a restrictive licensing system which limits the number of vessels in a fishery, and instead introduced the Quota Management System (QMS) in the 1980s. Paul (2000) and Straker et al. (2002) note that while New Zealand was not the first country to develop a Quota Management System, it was the first to apply it so broadly, to a multi-species fishery. The system allocates tradeable rights (akin to property rights) to a specific amount of a particular species of fish, and deviates from systems that restrict various inputs, such as the number of boats which are allowed to conduct fishing, as are frequently adopted elsewhere. The new Labour government which took office in 1984, enacted a series of market-driven reforms. As it emphasises individual ownership and responsibility, the Quota Management System was well suited to the political climate of the time. This property-based approach to fish has its critics and, as Paul (2000: 191) notes, “there is inevitable debate between those who see fish as a commercial commodity and those who believe they belong to the people”. Nevertheless, fisheries continue to be added
to the QMS. Hence, the management of marine resources in New Zealand has evolved with changing conditions and social attitudes, and although the industry operates within a global context, developments have been made in accordance with local conditions.

2.3 The Rise of Fishing as an Industry

As suggested earlier, with the significant exception of sealing and whaling, fishing was not a developed industry in the early days of European settlement. While there are few records of fish being exported, a great deal of canned fish was imported from the United Kingdom in the early years of settlement (Johnson, 2004). The fish found in New Zealand waters were not thought to be as desirable as those that could be found back in Britain. This is evident in the great efforts to acclimatise fish (see the NZOYB volumes for details). Throughout the late 1800s, a picture emerges of a haphazard industry that was undermined by inconsistent markets and supply, difficulty in establishing effective distribution, and a lack of knowledge about fish stocks and the impact of fishing. Nevertheless, each port had its fleet of ships involved in fishing activity. Barracouta, hapuku, cod and gemfish, among others, were being smoked and canned in Dunedin and exported to Australia, while smaller smoke houses operated from Auckland. Mullet was canned in Whangarei in the 1870s, and it had a significant market in Auckland. In Timaru and Canterbury, trawling was conducted with varying results and resulting catches sold in retail outlets. Maori and Italian fishers dominated the Wellington region and sold their catch at markets. Oysters were an exception to a prevailing view that imported fish was superior to that found in New Zealand. The fashionable oyster was found in Hauraki Gulf and the Bay of Islands in the North, and Marlborough, Canterbury and Foveaux Strait in the South, and by the 1880s trade to Australia was quite established (Johnson, 2004: 32). Despite some successes, companies struggled to find a consistent domestic market, supply was inconsistent, and profits remained small. In 1887, New Zealand frozen fish exports were valued at only seven pounds (Johnson, 2004: 47).

Two significant developments in the industry were trawling and on-board refrigeration, the former allowing the easier catch of many fish and the latter greater potential for distribution. Around 1900, the Chief Inspector of Fisheries, L. F Ayson,
was determined to advance the local fishing industry. He initiated experiments with extensive trawling, and a number of larger trawler based companies began to emerge as a result. The New Zealand Trawling and Fish Supply Co. Ltd., which included a number of fish retail outlets, dominated the bottom of the North Island, while Sanford Ltd. incorporated in 1904 dominated (and continues to dominate) the top. In the South Island, traditional Bluff oyster merchants held sway (Johnson, 2004: 76).

Auckland and Otago remained the two main fisheries, and blue cod became the most important species. Although the industry remained small, companies were beginning to make a profit and there was growing diversity. Fish were cured, smoked, canned and refrigerated. Domestically, fish were sold at retail outlets, wharves and fish supper halls. At the same time, refrigeration led to increased exports, with 162 tonnes being sent frozen to Australia in 1906 (Johnson, 2004). In 1915, Sanford increased its number of trawlers, and with it a greater number of fish species. Adding to a steady supply of snapper, flounder, and mullet were trevally, gurnard, and crayfish. The domestic market for fish was increasing and the supply was diversifying.

However, outside the major companies, which combined catching and production, there remained something of an opportunist, gold rush mentality about the industry, with small operators chasing the latest find. This is demonstrated in what Johnson (2004: 192) describes as the “Chathams rush”. Crayfish were being canned for export to Britain in Dunedin and Akaroa in the early 1900s, with new companies opening up throughout the following decades. It was in the 1940s that crayfish (or lobster for trading purposes) really developed as an exportable commodity. By 1952, the value of exports of crayfish exceeded that of wet fish. The majority of boats fishing in Bluff were focused on this enterprise and, as with many other species fished in New Zealand waters, the stocks declined. Hence, when large quantities of crayfish were sighted in the Chatham Islands, fishermen from around the country flocked there in huge numbers. The onslaught was rapid, lacking in planning, and continued until the inevitable depletion of stocks. As Johnson (2004: 203) points out, this was another example of “excess and waste”, and very few people made any money.

It was not until the 1960s that the fishing industry began to thrive in New Zealand. Until this time, despite the existence of large companies like Sanford, small boats and a little upfront capital were all that was necessary to enter the fishing industry.
Fishing was “a cottage industry, with no capacity to exploit deep sea resources” (NZOYB, 2004: 448). Fishing reports, which were prompted by increased foreign vessels fishing in New Zealand waters, led to government action. Financial incentives were offered for increased investment in deep sea fishing and loans were made for the purchase of equipment. Figures in Richardson (2000) show that the number of vessels involved doubled to 3330 during the period 1962 to 1972, and people involved doubled to 5540 in the same period. It was the declaration of the New Zealand Exclusive Economic Zone (NZEEZ) in 1978 that facilitated a greater exploitation of New Zealand’s deep sea resources. In addition to deep sea fishing, aquaculture was also supported by government investment and research, with mussels, oysters and salmon becoming significant. Since this time, the fisheries industry has increased in commercial value both in real and proportional terms.

2.3.1 Non-English speaking settlers’ participation in fishing

Many groups from non-English-speaking countries also settled in New Zealand and participated in the fishing industry. In Wellington, from the 1880s there were communities of Italian fishers at Makara, Eastbourne, Rona Bay and Island Bay, fishing with lines and set nets for a large variety of fish (Elenio, 1995). Along with fishers from the Shetland Islands, they formed an influential fishermen’s co-op in 1932 (Johnson, 2004). There was also a significant Greek presence in both catching and curing fish. In Auckland, brothers from the Faroe Islands, Jack and Andy Andreason, were significant for introducing Danish seining into New Zealand. Within a year of their post-WW1 arrival, 22 vessels were employing the method around Auckland. Another notable group in Auckland were immigrants from what is now Croatia (commonly called Dallies ‘Dalmatians’). A number of those who came out in the 1880s became fishermen, but it was their expansion into processing and wholesaling which threatened the ongoing dominance of Sanford and led to investigation of their practices. The Croatian heritage is still evident in the fishing industries of Auckland today. While there was an undeniable presence of non-English speaking settlers within the fishing industry, the extent to which they have left a linguistic trace requires investigation.
2.4 Maori and Fishing

We may conceptualise three significant periods in regards to Maori and the harvesting of the marine environment (interestingly, these resemble the periods posited by Belich (2001) and supported by Macalister (2005) in relation to stages of colonisation). The first involves pre-European settlement but also extends through the 1860s, the time until which Maori dominated fishing in New Zealand. The second and longest period represents increased alienation from the resource, certainly on a commercial level. The final period begins in the 1980s with the establishment of the Maori Fisheries Commission, and sees increased involvement of Maori in every aspect of marine harvesting.

Maori were fishing with sophisticated techniques well before the arrival of Europeans, and Cook’s comments on the superior nature of their fishing nets are widely noted (Johnson, 2004; Taonui, 2004; Paul, 2000). Other methods included fishing with lines made of flax, the use of spears and plant fibre traps, and the hand-gathering of shell fish. Fish were a valuable source of protein and an important means of trade, and archaeological finds have revealed that seasonal fishing camps were a common practice for the taking of blue cod, wrasses and tarakihi (Day, 2002). Wakefield speaks of around 200 men, women and children living in a temporary settlement for the kahawai season, catching and drying the fish before leaving their “harvest-home” for their more permanent abodes (Wakefield, 1845). The gathering of fish was governed by strict protocols and religious ceremonies. For example, kapeta or dogfish were caught for only two days a year (Easton, 1992). Also, if crayfish with eggs were caught then that area came under rahui (Ministry of Fisheries, Economics fact sheet, 2005). Practically, such concepts had the effect of conserving the fisheries; or as Easton (1992:77) puts it: “the tikanga acted as a regulatory framework for a sustainable yield”. There was also a sense of territorial rights to a fishing spot and clear boundaries were established between fishing grounds along tribal lines.

The rapid settlement which followed the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840 led to many changes for Maori; fishing was no exception. In the early days of settlement, Maori were the primary catchers and traders of fish, and the Treaty had promised
them “full and undisturbed possession of … fisheries” for as long as they wish to retain them (Article II of the treaty of Waitangi as cited in Orange, 1987: 258). However, ongoing legislation from 1866 meant that the Treaty’s fishing guarantee was progressively eroded (Orange, 1987:188), especially with the Harbour and Foreshore Act 1878, which stated that the foreshore below the high-tide mark belonged to the Queen. By 1900, the government effectively controlled all fisheries (Taonui, 2004) and Maori rights were therefore marginalised. Non-fisheries regulation contributed to this, notably the Native Land Court Act 1870, which stated that Maori fishing rights could be over-ridden by the government. Maori protested against the legislation unsuccessfully, with ongoing concerns discussed at the Kohimarama conference in 1879. Also, Maori petitions about the degradation of fishing sites were made frequently towards the end of the 1800s (Paul, 2000). For example, in 1877, Hori Ngatai of Ngai Terangi asked the Native Minister John Ballance not to extend the Queen’s sovereignty to low coastal waters because the inland sea had been subdivided by his ancestors (Dawson, 2001: 98). The Otago Witness (1890, December 18: 27) reports a case where Maori apprehended for fishing illegally claimed “rights of fishery under the Treaty of Waitangi”. The Sea Fisheries Act 1908, which was to endure for 75 years of sea fishing in New Zealand, claimed that nothing in the Act would affect Maori fishing rights. However, Maori fishing rights were not adequately defined, and various court cases during the following decade reflected that these rights would not be accepted in the courts (Dawson, 2001). Clearly, during this period, the ability for Maori to take fish and trade them as they pleased was seriously diminished.

In the 1980s, the tide began to turn, as a widely acknowledged indigenous renaissance coincided with a growing recognition of Maori rights to various resources. Two major fisheries claims were brought before the Waitangi Tribunal following the introduction of the QMS, a system of management which was thought to impact on Maori unfairly (it based ownership of quota on previous commercial fishing and as Maori had not been well represented commercially they were allocated very little quota). The Muriwhenua claim (1987) was made on behalf of five North Island tribes, and the Tribunal concluded that as their case was valid the Crown should enter negotiation. This resulted in compensation of $10 million, 10% of all quota, and the establishment of the Maori Fisheries Commission in 1989 (Taonui, 2004). This was
considered a temporary form of compensation until a more comprehensive package could be established. The most recent development is what is known as the Sealord Deal. This arose when the major fishery company came up for sale and the government decided to purchase half on behalf of Maori, by way of compensation. This deal also involved the establishment and reinstatement of some traditional Maori methods of managing the fisheries resource. Maori negotiators, appointed by the Crown, were to ensure a majority of hapu agreed to the deal and it was signed despite serious reservations among some iwi. Although the deal remains controversial, it has resulted in Maori collectively being the dominant group in the fishing industry, holding 60% of all quota (Hartley, 1997) and playing a significant role in how the fishery is managed.

New Zealand’s industry has evolved within a global context. Technologies, trends and laws have frequently operated at an international level. However, the ways in which New Zealand has responded to various issues has been shaped by the natural environment, the nature of our coastline, the history of European settlement, and the dynamic relationship between Pakeha and Maori throughout contact. This may be apparent in and shaped by lexical innovation.
CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study involves the identification of New Zealand English vocabulary relating to the harvesting of the marine environment and the compilation of this in a wordlist based on historical principles. It also involves analysing the wordlist for implications for the nature of lexical innovation in New Zealand and the development of New Zealand English. This chapter aims to situate the study into the broader fields of research by examining the literature of three main areas. Firstly, certain areas of lexicographical literature particularly salient to the composition of this wordlist are considered. Then, research into the New Zealand variety of English is addressed with a particular emphasis on distinctive lexis. The broader study of world Englishes is also focused on. Finally, literature concerned with the analysis of bodies of lexis is considered, including literature concerned with the relationship between words and society.

3.1 Lexicographical Issues

Although the wordlist of this study does not constitute a dictionary as such, it is useful to make reference to the literature of lexicography in order to consider how the wordlist is compiled. The lack of a theoretical basis to lexicography is something which is frequently commented on. Notably, Wierzbicka (1985:5) has claimed that “Lexicography has no theoretical foundations, and even the best lexicographers, when pressed, can never explain what they are doing or why”. Stock (2008: 153) comments on this perception: “It is not infrequently stated that lexicographers are somewhat shy of explaining their own techniques – or are perhaps too busy to do so – or even that they are unaware of what they are doing, working from some intuition that cannot be stated”. This is reiterated by Kay (1998: 53): “to semanticists, lexicography often appears largely and lamentably untheorised, uneasily poised between the academic and commercial worlds”. The title of Landau’s (2001) well known text, Dictionaries: the Art and Craft of Lexicography serves to enhance this perception.

This view that there is a lack of theoretical basis to lexicography is something which lexicographers appear to be aware of. However, Atkins and Rundell (2008:8) ask
whether the absence of a comprehensive theoretical underpinning is necessarily negative. They suggest that it is more useful to consider the “principles that guide lexicographers in their work” (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 9). These principles, they argue, should be informed by lexicological literature which is based on solid research into the nature of lexis. This position is also presented by Apresjan (2008: 51) who discusses principles that he suggests are directly applicable to systematic lexicography.

One of the principles which is apparent throughout discussions of lexicographical literature is that it is important to have the user in mind at every stage of the lexicographical process. Landau (2001: 154) suggests that “every lexicographer, like any good author, has his readers very much in mind”. Philosophers, in contrast, according to Landau (2001: 154), are concerned with the “internal coherence of their system of definition”. Atkins and Rundell suggest that (2008: 5) “no amount of theoretical rigour is worth a hill of beans if the average user of your dictionary can’t understand the message you are trying to convey”. Jackson (2002: 76) also emphasises usability when he suggests: “We can conclude that dictionaries have two fundamental aims: coverage and accessibility”. There is a strong acknowledgement that the dictionary is a practical aid for an intended audience and this is paramount to its construction.

Hence, it would appear useful for the wordlist compiler to follow two broad principles. Firstly, utilise the research of linguistics, and especially lexicology, as applicable, and secondly, at all stages of the process consider the reader and the purpose and nature of the wordlist. This section will review literature on aspects of lexicology and lexicography which are relevant to the compilation of the wordlist forming the basis of this study. Specifically, aspects that have the potential to offer guiding principles for the organising, selecting and defining of items will be addressed.

3.1.1 Identifying independent lexical items
In order to identify a group of words for a specific wordlist, a clear idea of what a word is must be held. This, however, is an area which is subject to a considerable amount of theoretical discussion. Bauer (1998: 82) suggests that “any definition of the
concept ‘word’ is controversial”. The most salient question for this particular study is what separates a lexical item from a syntactic phrase and more specifically, a noun + noun compound from a syntactic phrase. This is an area of acknowledged difficulty. Cowie (2008: 164) admits that “any approach to the analysis of word-combinations is beset by terminological difficulties”. Atkins and Rundell (2008: 365) reveal that there is the potential for “a certain amount of confusion when it comes to recording compounds of which the first element is a noun, principally in noun + noun MWEs [multiword entries]”. Some descriptions of compounds are rather broad, such as that presented by Benczes (2006: 7-8) who defines a compound as “a word that is made up of two or more elements, the first of which is either a word or phrase, the second of which is a word”. Many discussions in the literature begin from this point, but they leave an important question unanswered. Bauer (1998: 65) puts it thus: “how do we know whether a sequence of two words forms a new lexeme or simply a syntactic construction?”

Ryder (1994: 12-17) and Bauer (1998: 65-86) are among those who offer a full discussion of the problems in identifying exactly what a noun + noun compound is. Each outlines a number of characteristics which are often presented as distinguishing compounds from phrases. These characteristics may be summarised as orthographical – a compound will be closed or hyphenated, phonological – noun + noun compounds will have first element stress, syntactic – they behave like single words (a modifier will modify the whole unit, rather than one element, it is not able to be co-ordinated), semantic – there is a habitual or permanent bond between the elements as well as semantic specialisation, and pragmatic – they are naming devices to refer not to assert.

Both Bauer and Ryder discuss the limitations of each of the characteristics mentioned above in determining a distinction. They reveal evidence that the way a word is written may vary from text to text and even be recorded differently in various dictionaries. Furthermore, many words that would not generally be considered compounds, such as stone wall, will pass the syntactic features test (in this case by not being sub-modifiable). Word stress, they argue, has been shown to vary from person to person. Giegerich (2004) claims that word stress is “the criterion invoked most frequently by those arguing for a distinction” between combinations that
originate in syntax (steel bridge), and those that are produced in the lexicon through deviational morphology. He suggests that the criterion of word stress under his interpretation “correlates rather well with other structural and behavioural characteristics” (2004: 2). However, his complex conclusions are rather qualified, depending to some extent on the relationship between the two elements. After a careful review and discussion of literature in the area, Bauer (1998: 67) claims that no criterion provides “a coherent way of distinguishing between morphological and syntactic constructions”. Ryder (1994: 15) concludes that “while all of these proposed tests reflect quite common characteristics of noun-noun compounds, none of them can serve as an absolute test”.

While it is clear that the criteria for distinguishing between a compound and a syntactic phrase are fuzzy, the sentiment expressed by Ryder (1994: 12) below is nonetheless compelling: “In the case of compounds, most English speakers feel strongly that there is an important difference between phrases and words, and that even though there are a great many forms they are uncertain about, some combinations of free morphemes clearly fall into the word category and are thus compounds, while others equally obviously do not”. She adds that although discrete boundaries for the category are not feasible, the concept of compounds is.

This discussion provides interesting information about the way words behave. However, for the lexicographer, this discussion can not remain at the level of theoretical abstraction. Concrete decisions must be made about what items to include in a wordlist and what to consider a headword in a wordlist. Ultimately, the lexicological descriptions of multi-word units leave the lexicographer with no clear idea of how to proceed in systematically organising lexical units into a practical list. The decisions which need to be made by the compiler of a wordlist are ideally replicable and describable, while considering at all time the needs of the user.

It is important to observe therefore, how lexicographers do make decisions in regards to lexical units. Because the wordlist of this study is a regional one based on historical principles, it is appropriate to turn to the prefaces of historical, regional dictionaries. It should be acknowledged that while the preface to a dictionary is unlikely to represent all the thought and discussion which informed the decision
making processes, it nonetheless serves as a useful guideline. The prefaces reveal opacity as a criterion which appears to be significant for lexicographers in determining whether a combination is a distinct lexical item. Orsman (1997: x) states that where there is a noun + noun or adjective + noun combination whose referent is no more than a sum of its parts they are presented as a combination or collocation, respectively. When “their referents taken together are more than, or independent of, the sum of their parts and indicate that a particular compound is a distinct lexical item” then a unit will be presented as special collocations or combinations. He also adds that some of these achieve separate headword status, but does not mention here the criterion under which this happens. Similarly, Avis (1991: xvi-xvii) comments that items in the Dictionary of Canadianisms were considered true compounds when “they have a referent quite distinct from the sum of their parts” whereas those more attributive in usage only occur as illustrations in citations. Dore (1996: xxvii) avoids (perhaps wisely) using the term compounds, but instead mentions that combinations or collocations are listed under the headword of the first item. He adds that a separate entry may be given if a “combination requires more detailed treatment, or is independent of the bulk of the entry”. No more detail is given regarding why an entry may require special treatment. Moore (2004: xiii) comments that compounds consisting of separate words (rather than closed compounds) are generally listed under the headword of the first word. Hence, the decision appears to be partly orthographical. Mention is made by Ramson (1988: vii) that combinations which have not coalesced into one word are listed under main entries unless they require “fuller treatment”. Items such as pepper tree, sit down and tooth man are examples of items which require fuller treatment and are given separate headword status. He also makes a distinction between simple combinations which do not require definition and special combinations which do, although they both tend to appear as sub-entries. It may be inferred that those requiring definition have a meaning which is different than the sum of its parts.

While the dictionaries frequently mention the meaning of an item exceeding the “sum of its parts” as a criterion for determining separate entries, the limited discussion of what this means leaves the phrase rather vague. It may be viewed that there are degrees of opacity. In an attempt to operationalise the concept of opacity, the lexicographers and meta-lexicographers Atkins and Rundell (2008: 170-172) offer a
typology of idiomatic compounds consisting of *figurative, semi-figurative* and *functional* compounds. Those which are non-idiomatic are frequently and spontaneously produced. Figurative compounds exist where “XY is not a Y that is X or even a Y at all”. An example of this is **red herring**. Semi-figurative applies when XY is a Y, but not a Y that is X. They give the example of **high school** – which refers to a **school**, but not one that is **high**. The least idiomatic of the trilogy is the functional compound where an XY is a Y that relates to X, but is also something more particular. An example here would be **beach ball**, which is a ball used on the beach, but not just any ball used on the beach (a tennis ball being used on the beach is not a beach ball) – but usually one which is blown up and softish. As such, there is some opacity to this term and it represents a useful entry in the dictionary. Atkins and Rundell (2008: 171) claim that this latter group are often overlooked. Employing this approach would allow for a principled and systematic approach to organisation, which could be adjusted based on the purpose of the dictionary and the needs of the users. For example, it could be decided that all type one and two semantic compounds would be given headword status. Clearly, as is the case with most forms of categorisation, the system is not watertight and will leave questionable cases.

For the general user of a historical dictionary, whether an item is a compound or syntactic phrase is of little concern, what is important is the accessibility of the information. However, how dictionary users access information is not clear. Jackson (2002: 77) claims that “despite a hundred or more studies of dictionary use, we are still far from understanding … the strategies that are used to access dictionary information”. According to Atkins and Rundell, “much research has been done in academia in an attempt to discover where people look up multiword entries, but no clear-cut view has emerged (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 236). In the face of this uncertainty, establishing a describable system for determining headword status may enhance the consistency of the dictionary, while not undermining the strategies of the dictionary user.

### 3.1.2 What is a regional word?

Deciding what constitutes a lexical item is not the only consideration for the regional wordlist compiler. Deciding how to determine whether an item is indeed specific is also important. The identification of a lexical item as being specific to a particular
area is not always straightforward and employing a limited definition which encompasses only those words used exclusively in that area would be problematic. Orsman (1997: vii) notes that the DNZE records “the history of words and particular senses of words which are in some way distinctively or predominantly, though not always exclusively, ‘New Zealand’ in meaning or use”. He also states that his policy is to be inclusive rather than exclusive, particularly for those items thought to have historical and social significance for New Zealand. This is an acknowledgement that to claim an item is totally exclusive to New Zealand English is indeed a difficult one to substantiate. Avis (1991: xiii) acknowledges this difficulty and also employs a broad definition encompassing those items “distinctively characteristic of Canadian usage though not necessarily exclusive to Canada”. Ramson (1988: vi) also advocates a liberal interpretation of what is distinctive to Australian English, adding that undue claims should not be made but words which are of “undoubted significance in the Australian context should be included”. Employing the broader meaning of ‘distinctive’ as indicated by Ramson (1988), Avis (1991), Orsman (1997), and Delbridge (2001) means including words which are “in some way distinctive” whether by virtue of being a coined term, reflecting a new or additional meaning, or occurring with special frequency or significance. This interpretation allows for the inclusion of items which have some ambiguity in origin, but lend to the distinctive character of a specific lexicon.

Wilkes (1996) refers to words that are Australianisms because they have faded from use in England or have limited currency there. As noted by Bauer (1994a), New Zealand English features many words from British dialect which have, as Gordon (1957: 14) puts it, “withered away” from English usage, and this constitutes a significant component of the distinctive feel of New Zealand English lexis. There seems to be little controversy amongst those compiling regional dictionaries that an inclusive policy is advisable, given that it can be very difficult to confirm exclusive usage. As such it is important for the regional lexicographer to acknowledge that “lexicography is to a significant extent intuitive, and always provisional” (Deverson, 2009: 7).
3.1.3 Defining
The traditional methods of defining are well summarised by Landau (2001) and Zgusta (1971). The principles of avoiding circularity and use of the word being defined, using simpler words than the word being defined, being brief and making the definition substitutable for the definiendum have been discussed and applied for many years in lexicography. The convention of defining an item based on its superordinate and its differentiae can be traced to Aristotle’s analysis. Adherence to the traditional principles has led to a consistency within dictionaries and a distinctive prose which as Atkins and Rundell (2008: 432) note has been referred to as “lexicographese”.

However, in recent years many tenets of the traditional principles have been questioned. Increasing use of corpora in lexicography has highlighted both the fuzziness of word meaning and the importance of collocation in determining meaning in a particular context. A number of lexicographers are questioning the notion of word meaning. Hanks (2008: 133) argues that “words have meaning potentials” rather than meanings, while Kilgarriff (2008: 151) states “I don’t believe in word senses”.

A notable alternative to the substitutable definition has been the use of full sentence definitions which may repeat the word being defined and which are thought by supporters to be user friendly, and to reflect the importance of a word’s typical environment to its semantics. Rundell (2008: 208) argues that while these are good for many words, for others they lead to long and redundant definitions. To describe a blue cod thus: “blue cod is a fish which is blueish…” seems unnecessarily redundant and not necessarily appropriate for the general reader of a historical dictionary. Hence some flexibility may be required in determining the best method of definition for a particular item in a particular wordlist. Landau (1984: 121) argues that “philosophic descriptions of definition often proffer as a principle what is clearly desirable but what may not be possible or practicable”. For example, he argues that substitutability is desirable but should be “pursued with discretion and abandoned if it can be purchased only at the expense of clarity or unambiguousness” (Landau, 1984: 134). He appears to suggest that good defining practice should take into account the item being defined and the intended user and purpose of the dictionary.
How much information to include in a definition is also an area of discussion in lexicographical literature. The perception of a sharp distinction between the encyclopaedic and standard entry has been questioned by Kay (1998) and Bauer (2002). As Kay (1998: 63) argues, “language is concerned with organizing our perception of the world, and it is not therefore unreasonable that an appeal to knowledge of the world should form part of the process of defining lexical items”. Halliday and Yallop (2007: 26) make the point that it would be unwise to suggest that a person did not know the meaning of a word because, for example, they did not know its zoological classification or chemical composition. Hence, deciding exactly which information to incorporate into a definition is not always straightforward.

The proposed wordlist will be compiled within the framework of historical lexicography. It will draw on principles of historical, regional lexicography and also consider the specific features salient to this domain, in order to organise the wordlist at the macro and micro structure levels.

3.2 The Study of New Zealand English.

The study of New Zealand English has developed and gained such momentum in recent years that Bell (2005: 151) claims it is “becoming one of the most-researched of the post-colonial varieties of English”. This section aims to situate the current study into the broader framework of this increased research on the New Zealand variety of English. It begins with a brief discussion of the development of the study of the New Zealand English. It then outlines research areas in New Zealand English vocabulary, namely lexicography, slang, Maori borrowing, and links to Australia.

3.2.1 Recognition of New Zealand English as a variety

A distinctive use of lexis was noted in New Zealand from the early days of settlement. For example, writing in the 1850s, Samuel Butler commented on lexical differences between New Zealand English and British English. However, awareness of a distinctive accent came a little later. Gordon, Campbell, Hay, Maclagan, Sudbury, and Trudgill (2004: 7) examine comments in government reports made by school inspectors which reveal favourable remarks about the school children’s pronunciation, said to be free from any “marked accents or provincialisms” until around 1900. Bauer
(1994a: 393) notes that towards the end of the 1800s the pronunciation of the settlers is praised from within for avoiding the worst of British regionalism. However, from the 1900s the tone changes and disparaging comments begin to be made on a distinctive accent. Baeyertz writing in 1910 notes that, much to his discontent, a dialect is gradually becoming evident in the children of New Zealand (cited in Gordon et al., 2004:9). However, it was many years before the study of New Zealand English as a valid variety emerged. As Kuiper and Bell (2000: 15) note, early work on New Zealand English was based on a prescriptivist approach which highlighted its deviation from “British English prestige norms”. Moreover, it is widely noted that early investigation of New Zealand English was generally bundled together with that of Australian English. This is apparent from the title of Morris’s *Austral English* (1898). In the introduction to Turner’s work *The English Language in Australia and New Zealand* (1966: vii), Quirk claims that “despite the small linguistic differences between the two countries … it is right that overriding emphasis should be given to the similarities both in the forms of the language itself and in the influences that have been brought to bear on it”.

While it has been late in coming, the investigation of New Zealand English as an independent and valid variety has certainly flourished in recent years. Kuiper and Bell (2000: 15) claim that it was not until the 1980s that the study of New Zealand English was conducted on a large scale. However, their edited volume *New Zealand English* (2000) reflects the wealth of research which has been done since this time. The accent is arguably the most distinguishing feature of New Zealand English and unsurprisingly phonology has received considerable attention. Recorded archives from the 1940s which feature elderly NZ born speakers have provided a rich source for examining the origins and development of the New Zealand English accent. Notably, Gordon et al have examined on-going changes in the accent, culminating with *New Zealand English: its Origins and Evolution* (2004). Research focusing on distinctive features of syntax and intonation has also been conducted. Additionally, studies examining regional and social variation have emerged. Maori English has received significant attention in recent years, notably by Stubbe and Holmes (2000) and Bell (2000). This recent proliferation may be viewed as a desire to establish a sense of linguistic identity which is not shackled to an external variety (although all considerations of a regional variety are to some extent exercises in comparison).
conjunction with linguistic interest is perhaps a growing acceptance amongst New Zealanders of the particular variety of English spoken in New Zealand. Recent research by Bayard (2000) conducted on students from Otago University found that “general” New Zealand English voices met with approval by participants. He suggests that this gives “hope for the growth of increased tolerance and respect for general New Zealand English voices” (Bayard, 2000: 323).

3.2.2 Origins of New Zealand English
Studies have been conducted which investigate the origins of New Zealand English. Bauer (2000) has utilised the *DNZE* (1997) in order to investigate the dialectal origins of vocabulary and observe whether there are any patterns which reflect a particular area of origin. He concludes that many of the words of dialectal origin have come via Australia, although there are also some interesting clusterings from various areas within the United Kingdom which may warrant more investigation. Of those which come direct from Britain “there is no single area of linguistic focus” (Bauer 2000: 52). Rather, there are several smaller focal points throughout Britain. Britain (2005) looks at six distinctive features of New Zealand English pronunciation and concludes that New Zealand English has a diverse range of origins with each of the examined features having “its own history”. In their discussion of the origin of New Zealand English at a pronunciation level, Maclagan and Gordon (2004: 54) conclude that New Zealand English “cannot be reduced to one simplistic set of influences”. Rather than a transplant of a particular British dialect, it is more likely that there were multiple influences and causes at every stage. It is the investigation of the particular way that this multiplicity of influences has merged, and continues to affect change within New Zealand’s social landscape, which ensures the study of the English spoken here is of enduring interest. Studies which contribute to understanding the nature of this ongoing change may also promote understanding of how regional varieties of English develop.

3.2.3 Lexis: lexicographical work
There have been a number of lexicographical works which focus on vocabulary which is distinctive to New Zealand English. The first major work was Morris (1898) which looked at items distinctive to Australia and New Zealand and offers citational evidence of their usage. This volume was the result of a request from James Murray to
identify words from Australasia for the *Oxford English Dictionary* (*OED*) resulting in such a rich contribution that this separate publication was warranted. Although it contains a fair amount of New Zealand material, and the inclusion of many Maori borrowings, there is a strong Australian content to this volume. Baker’s *New Zealand Slang* (1941) certainly offers more than is promised in the title, including words used in a range of contexts. Although its subtitle is a *Dictionary of Colloquialisms*, it is not presented as a dictionary, alphabetically with definitions, but rather includes and describes terms in paragraphs based on particular topics. He makes an early claim that the English spoken in New Zealand is valid in its own right. He calls for an acknowledgement of a distinctive lexicon and rails against those who deny the existence of New Zealandisms, stating that it is a “lamentable lack of knowledge…that leads them [most New Zealanders] to foster an implicit belief in their own lack of identity” (Baker, 1941: 8). However, the publication is limited by the absence of words that describe the physical environment. Furthermore, there are many items which have inadequate evidence of usage, or whose status as a New Zealandism is dubious. Turner (1966) covers a range of features separating New Zealand and Australian English from British English. While his discussion of vocabulary is extensive and insightful, it is another example of the New Zealand and Australian varieties of English being considered together.

A considerable advance in lexicographical works came with the publication of Orsman (1979). This is a landmark in providing a general purpose dictionary with a strong presence of New Zealand lexis. Undoubtedly the largest single achievement pertaining to the distinctive New Zealand English lexicon is the publication of the *DNZE* (1997), also edited by Orsman. The result of many decades of work, this dictionary offers an historical coverage of New Zealand English lexis, independent of Australian English. Its 6,000 headword entries and 9,300 sub-entries contain a broad and comprehensive coverage of the depth and variety of lexical innovation which has occurred throughout the history of New Zealand English. The *NZOD* (2005) edited by Deverson and Kennedy is a dictionary which provides coverage of the internationally shared vocabulary which makes up the majority of the vocabulary used in New Zealand, but also has a strong New Zealand flavour in the inclusion of “some 10,000 New Zealand entries and part-entries” which “establish the present dictionary’s
provenance” (Deverson and Kennedy, 2005: vii). As such, it reinforces the acceptability of the variety of English spoken in New Zealand.

3.2.4 What areas contribute to a distinctive New Zealand lexis: the perceived role of slang

Much New Zealand lexicography has focused on the slang or colloquial expressions distinctive to New Zealand. Many scholarly publications have emerged including Baker (1941) and Orsman (1999). Bennett (1943) and Gordon (1980) in their discussions also emphasise slang. More light-hearted dictionaries such as McGill’s various publications (1988, 1989, 1998), and Plowman (2002) also abound. Those involved in the research of New Zealand English lexis have long abandoned this exclusive focus and Orsman’s DNZE (1997), the subsequent NZOD (2005), and most recently Macalister (2005) show the depth and variety of uniquely New Zealand lexis. Bardsley’s (2003) study of the rural lexicon demonstrates that there is a large pool of distinctive lexis at the heart of farming terminology. However, there may still exist in the public a view that New Zealand words are either “Maori words or slang” (Bauer, 1994a: 410). Gordon and Deverson (1985: 63) suggest that the ongoing perception that the bulk of New Zealandisms are slang is unsurprising because slang elements are “conspicuous and colourful”. This perception is shared across the Tasman where slang is described by Delbridge (2001: 314) as the “most notorious element” of Australian lexis, while Moore (2008: xiv) notes that the idioms included in the many books devoted to Australian slang make up “only a small fraction” of what is distinctive to Australian English.

Gordon and Deverson (1985: 63) point to the media’s role in highlighting the slang which is included in the new dictionaries which emerge. Certainly this was evident with the publication of the NZOD (2005). Titles for reviews included “Poozlers and scarfies at home in dictionary” (Dominion Post, 2004, November 17: 10) and “What a Choice Resource, I’m Like Stoked” (Weekend Herald, 2004, October 30: 14). In the latter, the examples highlighted are dog-tucker, rattle your dags, throw a wobbly, perk-buster, and munted. While the reference to these as ‘wonderful terms’ is indicative of a decline in the traditional cultural cringe associated with New Zealand English, it does nothing to dispel the idea that New Zealand lexis is distinguished by slang. An attitudinal study by Batterham (1993) revealed that the participants feel
that too much slang is used in New Zealand and that it is both ugly and lazy. Such views are echoed in numerous letters to the editor such as the following which advocates language tests for New Zealand born teachers. “While most [New Zealand born teachers] are perfectly at home with New Zealand ‘Slanglish’, they are not all fluent in Standard English” (2005 Dominion Post, October 26: B4). Although colloquial and informal expressions are valuable and represent “the language of everyday life” (Baker, 1941: 70), the erroneous belief that they represent all that is unique in New Zealand English (or perhaps inversely, all that is unique must be slang) does limit our perception of the New Zealand variety of English. Arguably, it serves to relegate our distinctive lexis to what may be perceived as a non-standard form of language. Studies which do not exclusively focus on, for example, the whaler’s argot, but attempt to identify lexical items apparent across various levels of communication in areas of social and economic significance to New Zealand are of continued importance as a means to further highlight the diversity and significance of New Zealand English lexical innovation.

3.2.5 Maori borrowing in New Zealand English
It is frequently suggested that the presence of Maori words is the most distinctive feature of New Zealand English lexis (Bauer, 1994a; Bayard, 2000; Deverson, 1991; Kennedy, 2001; Macalister, 1999). It is also noted as the feature that most separates New Zealand English from Australian English. As Bayard (2000: 323) notes “Maoritanga and its associated Maori vocabulary is at least one thing which is uniquely New Zealand’s and shared with no other country”. As such, the contribution which borrowing from Maori has made to New Zealand English vocabulary has received considerable attention. In the comprehensive DNZE (1997) which is compiled from a systematic search through a wide variety of written sources, Orsman included 746 headwords of Maori origin (or 12.4% of the total headwords). This considerable number reflects what is possible “but not how that possibility is exploited in terms of usage” (Kennedy, 2001: 66). The presence of Maori has been well documented in other volumes which compile New Zealand lexis. Morris (1898), Baker (1941) and Turner (1966) all paid particular attention to the expressions borrowed from te reo Maori and commented on their significant presence in New Zealand English. Andersen (1946) created a list of words which he claimed were of such common knowledge that they could be considered part of the English spoken in
New Zealand. In the 1980s, a book was published by the Office of the Race Relations Conciliator which offered a list of 135 Maori words used in New Zealand English, although it made no claims of being definitive. These words exclude “a large number of Maori words which are very much part of our active vocabulary” (Hirsh, 1989: 7) including the names of flora and fauna. However, there is no particular mention of how the words which were included were chosen. The presence of Maori lexis was a feature noted by Looser (2001) as a distinguishing feature of the prison argot she investigated. While a number of commentators have considered Maori borrowing, Kennedy (2001:61) notes that “the impressionistic examples used for illustrating the phenomenon tend to differ substantially from one commentator to another”.

However, in recent years there have been studies which examine the amount and nature of borrowing into New Zealand English. A number of corpus studies have been done which serve to reduce the impressionistic nature of the observance of the presence of Maori to which Kennedy refers. Geering (1993), in a small scale non-computerised corpus study, examined the presence of Maori words in various newspapers from the 1860s, 1880s, and the 1890s. She found 84 different types, although it is notable that she did not include proper nouns or plants in this study. She found, despite these small figures, subtle changes in the types of words used. For example, in the 1860s amidst the New Zealand Land Wars, there were words that reflected this preoccupation. A desire to compare how the use of Maori words fared in current newspapers compared with Geering’s study led Davies and Maclagan (2006) to test the frequency and distribution of 13 Maori words from New Zealand English. They found that there was a tendency for their pre-selected items to occur in Maori contexts. Macalister (2003) conducted a large scale corpus study employing school journals, government papers, and newspapers which revealed a significant quantity of Maori borrowings and also highlighted various trends. He found that in recent years, a greater number of words which refer to Maoritanga are evident, whereas in the past, flora and fauna had been the dominant area of borrowing. Another finding was a correlation between Maori topics and Maori borrowing. This may add support for Kennedy’s (2001: 77) claim that the recent Maori borrowing is being “led by Maori” rather than driven by the lexical needs of Pakeha. This finding is also borne out in a smaller study by De Bres (2006:17) where Maori lexical items in mainstream television news were examined with the conclusion that they were used
“almost solely in Maori related news items”. Many of the above studies are based on media (newspaper and television) sources. There is a place for further research that systematically examines a range of sources in topics related to Maori to examine the nature of the Maori borrowing.

3.2.6 Other studies of New Zealand vocabulary
In addition to Maori borrowing, other features that distinguish New Zealand lexis have been explored. As mentioned in 3.2.2, items that have a dialectal origin are an area of distinctive New Zealand English lexis which has been considered by Bauer (2000). Bauer and Bauer’s research (2005: 209) examines differences in the vocabulary used by children in different regions of New Zealand. They find evidence to suggest New Zealand may have three major linguistic regions. The New Zealand prison argot, or “boobslang”, is the subject of Looser’s (2001) study. This is a colourful lexicon of some 3000 entries of vocabulary used in New Zealand prisons, which according to Looser (2001: 45) reflects “the unique mixture of cultural stimuli that construct New Zealand culture”. Bardsley (2003), in a diachronic study of the rural lexicon, found a rich vocabulary specific to New Zealand English, especially in the pastoral sector. Her study indicates that a systematic study of sources in a particular field has the potential to yield a large lexicon including many items that may be missed in a study with a broader focus. The studies above also represent a significant start to the quilt of topics to be investigated in New Zealand vocabulary, of which synchronic studies such as this one can offer an additional piece.

3.2.7 Sharing words with Australia
The historic and linguistic connection between New Zealand and Australia can not be denied. The early sealers and whalers of New Zealand frequently came via Australia, to the extent that Turner (1966: 84) claims “New Zealand was simply part of the Australians’ area of operations”. That travel between New South Wales and New Zealand was apparently less troublesome than travel between various regions within the country contributed to this perception of closeness (Belich, 2001). The connection between the two countries continues to remain close. Australia is New Zealand’s largest trading partner, in terms of both imports and exports (NZOYB, 2004: 426) and Australians are the most frequent international visitors. Given this long and continued history, as well as the close geographical proximity, it is not surprising that there are
many linguistic similarities between the two countries. Turner writing in 1966 claims that it is difficult to separate a purely New Zealand strand of English from the Australian variety (although he certainly acknowledges significant differences in the area of borrowing from the indigenous languages). Certainly, many features said to characterise New Zealand speech are also apparent in Australian English, amongst them intonational features such as the high rising terminal, and lexical features including a propensity to use hypocoristics (see Bardsley and Simpson (2009) for a discussion of similarities and differences in this area). Looking specifically at vocabulary, there is as Deverson (2000: 26) points out “a significant overlap of the two vocabularies”. Bauer (2000: 51) notes that many of the earliest British dialect words which have entered New Zealand English are also in use in Australian English. Additionally, many of the early whaling terms such as bay whaler and bay whaling, and the names for fish such as barracouta, ling, and trevally are also shared.

However, there is a limit to the similarities. The presence of te reo Maori in the English used in New Zealand is one clear distinguishing feature. At the turn of the century, Morris (1898: xv) suggested that “in New Zealand Maori is much more widely used in the matter of vocabulary than the speech of the aboriginals of Australia … and the Maori is in a purer form”. Those observing the two varieties from an outside perspective, also note the inclusion of items from the indigenous language as the most differentiating feature. For example, in more current literature, Kiesling (2006: 78) claims that the lexicon is the feature that most separates Australian and New Zealand English, and adds that this is largely because of the incorporation of indigenous vocabulary to describe local flora and fauna. But there are other areas of lexical divergence. Bardsley in her systemic collection of the rural lexicon concludes that “there are quite significant differences in respective rural vocabulary and usage”, and New Zealand has “developed its own distinctive, enduring and diverse lexicon” (Bardsley, 2003: 35). Hence, despite the prominence of Australians in early sheep farming (Turner, 1970: 85), a lexis emerged which met the need of farming within a New Zealand context. This is likely to be the case in the marine environment. Despite many shared fish and practices, there are areas in which the two countries diverge and this is likely to be reflected linguistically. One area is the management of resources which takes into account the particular relationship with Maori. Also, the comprehensive and rapid introduction of the Quota Management System in the 1980s
is an area where New Zealand strode out on its own, forging a direction in keeping with its specific environmental features and the current political climate.

3.2.8 Past works on marine vocabulary
Fisheries nomenclatures have emerged regularly throughout the period under investigation, beginning from the early days of English speaking settlers. Gray’s *Fauna* (1842), included a brief documentation of marine life, Hector’s more comprehensive *Notes on the Edible Fishes* (1872), Sherrin’s (it must be noted, highly derivative) *Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand* (1889), Powell’s *The Shellfish of New Zealand* (1937), and Graham’s *A Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* (1956) all provide thorough reference to the marine life in New Zealand. In recent years a large number of books describing commercial and recreational species have emerged. In these, there is discussion on variation in fish labels, but limited comment on whether the labels are specific to New Zealand. In addition to nomenclatures, glossaries also exist. Mossman (2002) has an extensive glossary of terms related to recreational fishing. However, investigation suggests, unsurprisingly given the aims of the glossary, that most of the terms included are not restricted to New Zealand usage. The Ministry of Fisheries also has a website with an extensive glossary, largely to describe terms relating to the management of the marine environment. Again, because of its focus and aims, no attempt is made to distinguish New Zealandisms. Furthermore, such glossaries make no attempt to show the usage of terms in context by providing citations.

In Orsman’s *DNZE* (1997) the marine environment is certainly not overlooked. There are a significant number of terms relating to the marine environment, especially whaling terms and fish nomenclature. Of the total headwords, 108 are Maori names for fish and shellfish. However, there are areas where he has paid less attention. Turner (1970: 86) comments that because modern civilisation is so urban it is likely that new localisms will be most apparent in government and social organisation. Hence, looking at the government language surrounding the marine environment is likely to be a key area for identifying New Zealandisms. It is also an area on which Orsman focuses less. Acronyms such as TACC ‘total allowable commercial catch’

---

3 The references for this and the following sources are located in the Primary Sources Bibliography.
and **Quota Appeal Authority** are items not included in the *DNZE* (1997) but which nevertheless contribute to the distinctiveness of fisheries discourse in New Zealand. Initial findings also suggest that antedatings are available for a number of items, and reveal the omission of some widely used items including **kupenga** ‘fishing net’, **mataitai** ‘salt water food’ and **octopus** ‘Octopus maorum’ – an endemic species. Hence, a synchronic lexicographical study has the potential to identify items not previously identified and present them in a way that provides evidence of usage.

### 3.3 The Study of Varieties of English

The study of the New Zealand variety of English comes within a broader tradition of examining regional varieties. It was from around the 1980s that the study of the English spoken in particular countries began to be considered as a unified field of study. Kachru was particularly influential in establishing “World Englishes” as a legitimate field of academic study, while also maintaining that various varieties of English were valid (Mesthrie, 2006: 273). The study of World Englishes continues to grow in line with the increasing numbers of people speaking English, and volumes such as *Who’s Centric Now? – the Present State of Post-Colonial Englishes*, edited by Moore (2001c), reflect the central role English spoken outside Britain plays in the study of the English language and its evolution. As such, it is appropriate to consider New Zealand’s place within this field. Briefly discussed below are two theories of new language dialect formation which are applicable to countries such as New Zealand and which have the potential to inform discussion on vocabulary development. Then, common lexical themes which are apparent in discussions of regional varieties of English are described.

#### 3.3.1 Theories of new dialect formation

Schneider (2003) draws on theories of language contact as outlined by Thomason (2001), and the notion of social identity and its construction via linguistic means, to develop a five stage model of the evolution of transplanted Englishes. Schneider claims there is a consecutive developmental process which occurs in colonial varieties, moving from *foundation*, where English begins to be spoken, through to *exonormative stabilisation, nativisation, endonormative stabilisation* and finally *differentiation*, where the resulting variety develops regional variation. At the heart of
his discussion is the belief that despite differences in the countries where English is spoken, transplanted varieties follow similar and describable developmental paths. Schneider uses the model to hypothesise that New Zealand is likely to be entering the phase of *differentiation*. Although the model focuses on the range of features, especially phonology, that make up a language variety, it is possible that such a model may provide a framework for examining the lexical innovation which has occurred in a settler country such as New Zealand.

An alternative theory, which also has the potential to provide insights or inform discussion of the early labelling of the natural environment in a language contact situation, is that of eco-linguistics. Eco-linguistic theory, as described by Mühlhäusler (2003), claims that English has an exotic element. The language enters a new country where it is foreign and not adapted to the local environment. Because the language is not suited to an environment (being unable to name, at least initially, many important features of the landscape), it has the potential to promote environmental harm. The labelling reflects an orientation which is born outside the environment. This, he argues, is illustrated by the historical development of Pitcairn, where the English language settlers were unable to name the native resources of the island which would have been useful, and relied too heavily on certain natural resources. This eventually led to environmental degradation. The English speaking settlers were accompanied by Tahitian speakers (whose language, it is claimed, would be more suitable) but only minimally utilised their linguistic resources for settlement on the island. A Pitcairn pidgin began to emerge, a reflection of a language adapting to a new environment. However this was suppressed in favour of standard English, when a key citizen experienced a religious conversion which also influenced his language beliefs. Hence, the emerging pidgin, which could have aided settlement because it was developing in response to the local environment, was suppressed, and the unsuitable, unadapted language was allowed to take root. With it came a raft of environmental problems. Mühlhäusler does not suggest that English cannot adapt, but the argument is posited that the adaptation process is certainly not instantaneous, and in the meantime, physical environmental damage may occur.

This view, whereby English, much like a noxious weed, can be an environmentally destructive force may appear extreme, but it does have the potential to inform
discussion on early language contact situations. It is also a theory which supports the notion that language varieties which emerge in a new location are not only valid but highly beneficial for life in the new environment (in the all too common event that the indigenous language is not maintained as the dominant language). Tenets of the argument are evident in the work of Arthur (2003: 2) who interprets the relationship between the English spoken in Australia and the physical Australian landscape via “lexical maps”. Words, she argues, are either indigenous or exotic to a place (2003:179). In Australia, a word such as **drought** is imported from outside the landscape and construes as an extreme weather event, the climatic conditions which are normal inside parts of Australia. As Arthur (2003: 144) puts it “through language, the colonist problematises a normal aspect of the Australian climate”. The language spoken in Australia impacts on the relationship that the settlers have to the place. This is a compelling angle from which to view the lexical development of English relocated, and aspects of this viewpoint, presented by Mühlhäusler (2003) and Arthur (2003), are employed to illuminate the findings of this lexical study focusing on an environmental area.

### 3.3.2 Common lexical themes in the study of varieties of English

A survey of the literature surrounding varieties of post-colonial English, with a particular reference to vocabulary, reveals some common themes. One common strand is the concern for the homogenisation of the varieties. In Australia, Taylor (2001) and Butler (2001) both reveal a perceived fear of a loss of a distinctive variety of English because of an influx of Americanisms. One letter to the editor complains that this occurrence “de-Australianises (our) heritage” (Taylor, 2001: 326). This sentiment is echoed by Barber (2001), writing of a similar lament amongst the Canadian public, and in New Zealand, Gordon and Deverson (1985) and Bayard (2000) reveal a similar fear amongst New Zealanders. Bauer (1994a) observes “an ambivalence” towards Americanisms amongst the New Zealand public. However, all of these observers point to the Americanisms that are already used in the varieties without being recognisable as such to the users. Results from a study by Vine (1999) reveal no awareness by the participants of whether the various terms they employed were American. She also concludes that the use of American terms reflect borrowing rather than semantic shift, in that the terms are meeting new lexical needs rather than
serving to replace other labels. Furthermore, the items borrowed tended to be adapted
to a New Zealand context. This supports the claims from Gordon and Deverson
(1985), Butler (2001), Taylor (2001) and Barber (2001) that although in this global
age we are likely to meet an influx of vocabulary from America, it is unlikely to
threaten the distinctive varieties of English spoken or lead to what Barber (2001: 296)
refers to as “a blandly homogenised universal English”. The “total vocabulary of a
language is never static” (Kuiper and Allan, 1996:181) and it is unsurprising that
vocabulary coined in America, a dominant nation, will enter other varieties of
English. Nevertheless, it is useful to look at one domain and determine quantifiably
the extent to which internal lexical innovation has remained stable over time. This
offers one method for examining whether or not regional, lexical innovation is being
lost to a homogenised version of English.

Another theme running through the literature of various post-colonial varieties is that
of a renaissance of the indigenous people being evident in lexical innovation. This
influence is noted in borrowings from indigenous languages but also in the use of
English lexical resources to express aspects of the indigenous culture. Barber (2001:
292) refers to “the influx of words designating aboriginal cultural realities” into wider
Canadian English and the prominence of land claims leading to items such as
aboriginal title becoming common currency. In Australia, Moore (2001a; 2008) and
Delbridge (2001) comment on the significant influence of aboriginal culture on
Australian English lexis. Moore (2001a) refers to the recent influx of aboriginal
words as paralleling the development of Aboriginal political and social activism and
adds that since the 1970s, Aboriginal culture has been responsible for the greatest
contribution to Australian lexis (2001b). As noted earlier, it is widely acknowledged
within the literature of New Zealand lexis that one of its most distinctive features is
the presence of Maori and that a cultural renaissance in recent years has enhanced this
presence (Deverson, 1991; Bauer, 1994a; Kennedy, 2001; Macalister, 1999; Bayard,
2000). A study by Macalister (2003) provides a diachronic picture of the borrowing
and demonstrates the increasing number of items that reflect the culture of indigenous
people. This incorporation of words denoting indigenous culture has also been
observed in Australia and Canada (Moore, 2001a; Barber, 2001). These three
varieties point to a strong revival of the influence of the indigenous cultures on their
distinctive varieties of English. However, no study has been done in New Zealand to
quantify the influence which the relationship between Maori and Pakeha has on lexical innovation outside borrowing. Items such as customary take, PRESA and Sealord deal are examples which utilise English language resources to lexicalise aspects of this relationship.

The convergence of these themes in Australia, Canada and New Zealand appears to support Benson’s (1993: 107) claim that “local innovations in lexis seem not to be unique to each variety, but rather the result of the variable operation of general tendencies of lexical innovation in World English under local sociolinguistic conditions”. While acknowledging then, that New Zealand’s vocabulary is developing within a larger process of change, it is interesting to identify those items which represent divergence because they have the potential to reveal what those ‘sociolinguistic conditions’ are and how New Zealand responds to them.

3.4 Analysis of Wordlists

Having identified a set of lexical items in a particular area, it is necessary to consider what they are able to tell us. Bauer (1994b) notes that lexical change is unsystematic and the difficulty with examining it is in identifying generalities. This is echoed by Singleton who suggests that while it is possible to consider regular changes in sounds, “notions of generality and regularity have little or no application to changes in meaning” (Singleton, 2000: 143). This may explain why few studies have aimed to analyse wordlists on a large scale. Nevertheless, a number of studies have been conducted which offer insight into the nature of lexical innovation. Bauer (1994b) and Simpson (1988) both examined supplements to the OED in order to show the potential for a comparative study to illustrate trends. Bauer (1994b) examined supplements to the OED over various periods and determined the origins of the new lexis. The study highlights changing patterns in lexical innovation in English. For example, it illustrates a move away from a reliance on French borrowing, to an increased use of resources from within English to meet new lexical needs, perhaps reflecting a shift in attitude towards the role of French language. Simpson, found that despite “a tendency among observers to suppose that nouns and noun phrases are much more heavily represented in new vocabulary” (1988: 147) his study found that there was no such dominance. Cannon (1987) employs a taxonomy with 21
categories, to investigate patterns in word formation from the 1960s to the 1980s. He utilises three dictionaries of new words to ascertain which processes are most prevalent. One of his many conclusions is the assertion than recent English demonstrates a propensity for compounds. This data-based conclusion supports the impressions made by a number of commentators. Before this time, he claims that conclusions about “tendencies and proportions within the emerging vocabularies chiefly came from impressions, intuitions, and general feelings” (Cannon, 1987: xi).

Much of the work that has been conducted on regional vocabularies has been illustrative in nature. Discussions of word histories, or the stories of individual lexical items, offer a unique inroad into a particular aspect of a place’s history. See for example the historical and cultural insights provided by Bardsley’s (2007) discussion of the Queen’s chain. Nevertheless, this informative type of discussion does not demonstrate patterns in lexical development. There are however, some studies in which typologies have also been applied to regional vocabulary with the aim of seeking patterns. Benson (1993) compares wordlists of Australian English and Hong Kong English. He discusses the motivation for innovation, whereby motivation refers to “the socio-cultural causes” of innovation (Benson, 1993: 101). These are grouped into several categories: labelling an unfamiliar environment, new referents, core concepts, social terminology and centralisation (where words because of their salience are abbreviated or altered). One finding indicated that there were no terms which he would describe as ‘slang’ within Hong Kong English. This he attributed to a restricted functional range of English usage. There are some difficulties in applying the typology; however, it allows him to make interesting comparisons regarding the lexical need underpinning the innovation in the respective countries. Dako (2001) collects a list of Ghanaianisms used in English from printed sources over ten years and divides them into loans from local languages and distinctive use of English items. From here, he examines whether the loans have English alternatives (and finds that many do), and the ways that the English items are used distinctively both semantically and formally. In these distinctive usages, he detects subtle meaning changes of pragmatic and cultural significance, and he suggests that these should not be considered non-standard usage but a necessary adaptation to reflect life in this part of the world (a point reiterated convincingly by Halliday (2003)).
One typology which appears to be comprehensive, in that it neatly combines elements from both studies mentioned above, is that devised by Deverson (2000). Deverson’s typology categorises lexical innovations into six Types. Distinctive vocabulary is divided according to reference; a distinction is made between vocabulary items whose referents are unique to New Zealand and those whose referents are shared. Then, distinctions are made between items whose labels constitute new words, that is coinings or borrowings, and those whose labels are examples of semantic shift. Semantic shift is further divided into those items whose labels have acquired an additional meaning (for example dairy, which in New Zealand has acquired the meaning of ‘a corner store’ in addition to its more international meaning of ‘food products from cattle’), and labels for which meaning has been substituted. An example of the latter is paddock, which in New Zealand English is a ‘field or piece of bordered land of any size’, rather than the ‘small field or enclosure’ it signifies in many other varieties of English. This typology has the potential to address questions of lexical motivation, namely whether innovation occurs because we have unique entities to name, or whether we label that which is shared in an innovative way. Furthermore, it considers the extent to which we coin and borrow compared with adding new meanings. This may allow us to consider how the nature of the innovation impacts on people’s orientation to the social and physical environment (as investigated by Arthur (2003)). Deverson’s application of this typology to 7% of headwords from Orsman and Orsman (1994) reveals some interesting findings. For example, it shows that despite a generally held belief that lexical innovation is predominantly the result of a new physical and socio-cultural environment, only around half of the words sampled fell into this category. The other terms denote items uniquely labeled despite existing elsewhere. The motivation for such coining is less obvious and warrants investigation.

The typology is not without limitations, as Deverson (2000) acknowledges. It is for example, difficult to decide what is a specifically New Zealand referent, and judgments need to be made in this area. However, the strength is that it allows us to test our assumptions or hypotheses statistically about how and when a region innovates, rather than solely relying on impressionistic observations. For example, the observation made by Morris (1898) that new uses for old words is the most common type of lexical innovation can be numerically tested. When applied diachronically,
the typology has the potential to shed light on how our motivation for lexical innovation and the manifestation of it has changed over time, and to detect whether there are patterns in this which may contribute to our understanding of the development of a New Zealand variety of English.

The studies above, conducted solely on wordlists, offer interesting insights. They reveal that our intuitions about aspects of innovation are not always borne out by a thorough analysis of the data (Devene, 2000; Simpson, 1988). Furthermore, they reveal the potential for wordlists to reveal the reasons for innovation (Benson, 1993; Devene, 2000; Dako, 2001), and the processes which are prevalent (Bauer, 1994b; Simpson, 1988; Dako, 2001). Despite this, in New Zealand there has been a scarcity of studies which offer a systematic treatment of distinctive New Zealand lexis. As Deverson (2001:32) notes, the bulk of scholarly work has been lexicographical and “has tended to be descriptive and illustrative rather than theoretically based”. Kennedy (2001) reveals the danger of relying on impressions when he refers to the lists of Maori words used in New Zealand English, which have been compiled by various observers, and the extent to which they differ from each other. This highlights the importance of systematic studies to test our intuitions, as well as the potential for the analysis to reflect social dynamics. Trudgill (2001: 313) claims Deverson’s “superb” typology should have “important implications for the work of lexicographers generally”; yet no large scale study has employed it for the analysis of wordlists in New Zealand. This typology is suggested by Melchers and Shaw (2003) as a framework for analysis but they do not reveal any extended study that employs it. Hence, a wordlist compiled on historical principles could contribute to the growing body of knowledge on New Zealand lexis by creating a substantial list available for such systematic analysis.

3.5 Words and Culture

This section offers a very brief discussion of the connection between thought, culture and language which underpins the perspective of this study. The basic premise posited here is that language, and hence lexis, not only reflects but to some extent perpetuates or constructs our perception of the world.
3.5.1 Culture
It is not possible to start from the position that lexis is a reflection and shaper of culture without briefly addressing the doubts which have been cast against this view. Firstly, there are those who argue that ‘culture’ does not exist. The concept of ‘culture’ in the singular has, as Wierzbicka (1997) mentions, come under attack for essentialising changeable and heterogeneous cultural practices. Proponents of this non-essentialising view, such as Wolf (1994) and Wallerston (1994), suggest that we are all members of myriad groups which overlap, constantly change and have no contours. However, one can reject the idea of culture as static, essential and homogenous, while still maintaining that there are certain practices and experiences which are salient in a particular group at a particular time and which may be described as culture. As Strauss and Quinn (1997:3) argue, “our experiences in our own and other societies keep reminding us that some understandings are widely shared among members of a social group, surprisingly resistant to change in the thinking of individuals … and broadly applicable across different contexts of their lives”. These understandings can be studied and explored. Wierzbicka (1997: 200) talks about the shaky ground that she may be on by discussing “Australian culture” in the singular. To suggest there is only one culture which encompasses the diversity of different peoples living in Australia, or indeed New Zealand, is indeed problematic. However, while it is crucial to acknowledge this diversity, it is also useful to consider that the way various diverse groups of people live together and respond to each other is something dynamic, but also observable, and may be described as the culture of the place.

3.5.2 Words and thought
The second component which causes debate is the extent to which language influences and reflects thought. Whorf (1956: 213) claims that “we dissect nature along lines laid down by our native languages”. Hence, different languages carve up the world in different ways and our language will definitively determine how we think about the world. The so-called Sapir-Whorf hypothesis that language constructs and determines our perception of reality has been well refuted (see Jackson (2000) for a concise summary). Some opponents reject outright the position that different languages and lexical items reflect a different ordering of reality. For example, Pinker (1994: 58) argues that “there is no scientific evidence that languages
dramatically shape their speakers’ ways of thinking”. He argues that foundational categories of reality are innate rather than imposed by one’s culture. However, it is possible to accept a ‘weak’ version of the hypothesis, and according to McArthur (2002: 15) many language scholars do (see for example Kuiper, 1993; Wierzbicka, 1997 and Singleton, 2000). For some lexicographical scholars the view is implicit in their discussion of language. For example, Moore (2008: 206) claims that words have “both formed [my emphasis] and expressed” the history of Australia, which suggests they shape as well as reflect. Arthur (2003: 181), also focusing on Australian regional vocabulary argues that “living and language both inform and limit each other”.

Halliday and Yallop (2007: 81) argue that differences between languages are real, reflecting different ways of categorising the world, but they are “not separated by an impenetrable chasm”. People are of course capable of learning new languages. Yet, it is difficult to deny that “the range of concepts covered by vocabulary and the ways in which the concepts are bundled in words will tend to diverge from variety to variety” (Singleton, 2000:124). The moderate Whorfian position acknowledges that while “specific features of a language do not determine perception, they do seem to have some influence on the processing of experience” (Singleton, 2000:127).

New words and changes in meaning then, reflect changes in society not just in terms of technological change but also in terms of a shifting orientation to the world around us. For example, Fischer (1998: 10) refers to the increasing number of coinages in recent years in Germany, which serve to personify nature, demonstrating “increased human involvement with inanimate nature”. This shift is evident in, and perpetuated by, lexical innovation, because having a label as Stubbs (cited in Singleton, 2000) reiterates, crystallises ideas and presupposes the existence of something. Burchfield (1992: 65) comments that people feel great sadness over language change, adding that of all types of change, “linguistic change is the hardest to accept”. This is reflected in countless letters to the editor, throughout, but certainly not confined to, the English speaking world. This “grief” (as Burchfield terms it) makes more sense if we consider that these linguistic changes are both constructing and representing new ways of seeing the world. Hence, to study the ways in which lexis is distinctive is, to some extent, to observe how our perception of the world differs in subtle ways from that of other speakers of English, how this has helped to shape a perception of the environment, and the shifts in this over time.
3.6 Conclusion

This study aims to contribute to the growing body of knowledge of New Zealand English, particularly in the area of vocabulary. Firstly, it aims to systematically identify localisms in an area of cultural, historical and economic significance that has not been systematically covered before. By focusing on a range of written sources, from pre-official settlement times until the present, it will enable a comprehensive coverage of the domain. It may fill the gaps which have been noted in fisheries nomenclatures and the *DNZE* (1997), which as a general (though admittedly comprehensive) work cannot afford attention to one topic in such detail. The study may serve as a comparison to the rural lexicon identified by Bardsley (2003), and complement future research that investigates other domains.

Secondly, the resulting wordlist will provide a list of items in one area which are available for analysis. Intuitions regarding the nature of lexical innovation in New Zealand can be considered numerically. Because the study is diachronic, the wordlist analysis can also be examined for changes over time. Observations about which word formation processes are prevalent can be tested in this area. It may also add to our knowledge of patterns in Maori borrowing and how these have altered diachronically over a range of source types. Because lexical innovation reflects and perpetuates our take on reality, the analysis of the marine harvesting lexicon may shed light on how New Zealanders, through language, have oriented themselves towards the marine environment.

Research Questions

This study addresses the following questions:

1) What, if any, distinctive vocabulary has the marine industry contributed to New Zealand English?

2) Has the number of lexical innovations changed over time?
3) In what ways is the vocabulary distinctive?
   - Does semantic shift or coining and borrowing dominate?
   - Is lexical innovation focused on shared or unique referents?
   - Has this changed over time?

4) Which methods of neologising have been the most prevalent within this semantic field from 1800 until the present?

5) What influence has te reo Maori had on New Zealand English in the marine environment and how has this changed over time?

6) What other origins are apparent in the marine vocabulary?
   Seafaring and whaling attracted people from a variety of countries such as Italy and Norway. Is this reflected in borrowings from non-English sources?
CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

This section will address the method followed for selecting sources for the study, determining which items constitute New Zealandisms, organising the wordlist at the macro and microstructure levels, and analysing the resulting wordlist. There were problematic issues for each of these areas and they are discussed in turn.

4.1 Issues for the Selection of Sources for Data Analysis

One of the primary focuses of this study is to identify, define and illustrate through citations, the words that the area of the harvesting of the marine environment has contributed to New Zealand English. In order to meet this aim, as broad a range of sources as possible is desirable. As another goal is to consider change in lexical innovation over time, consistency in the type and quantity of sources utilised throughout the designated period was necessary. However, this was problematic for a number of reasons. Some of these are the generic reasons that impact on all types of historical analysis, including diachronic lexicography, and others are more specific to the marine environment.

It is well documented that historical lexicography is made difficult because of access to source material. As Kay (1998: 63) notes “there is no recourse to native speakers or multi-million word corpora, but only to haphazardly surviving written texts”. While Orsman’s *DNZE* (1997) reveals that a systematic coverage of written sources does yield a rich supply of distinctive lexis, the reliance on sources which “survive by chance not design” (Labov, 1994: 11), is of concern if we are to engage in meaningful analysis of lexis which is collected historically. To some extent, New Zealand English’s comparatively short history does allow for a consistent line of sources. The *Appendices to the Journals of the House of Representatives* (*AJHRs*), for example, allow the reader, via comprehensive reports, to trace the complete history of the language of legislation. They outline the regulation of the fishing industry within New Zealand, from its first piece of legislation in 1866, until the present. Also, there are surviving journals existing throughout the whaling history of New Zealand, from the early days of deep sea whaling, through to the establishment of shore stations and
the technologically advanced modern whaling conducted in whale chasers. However, inevitably there is more information available from the present and a greater variety of sources. Moreover, we have access to extensive recordings which allow spoken English, the area where lexical innovation is most evident (Milroy, 1992), to be utilised for latter periods of the twentieth century but no such resource for earlier times. In summary:

1. We have limited access to the oral language of the earliest speakers of the language where innovation is predominantly initiated.
2. There is an imbalance in the surviving material, in that there is considerably more available in the present than in the past.
3. The sources, especially diaries, logs and correspondence that are available represent those which have survived, not all those which have existed.

These issues are compounded when we consider the marine environment specifically. Firstly, whaling and sealing were physically demanding jobs which were conducted in harsh and dangerous conditions. Writing for those working in the area was not a priority. As Rickard (1965: foreword) points out:

*We are fortunate that the old bay whalers were observed by some of the acutest and most literate men in New Zealand in the early days … because the whalers themselves were not addicted to writing, and if we had to rely on them for the details of their life, the picture we would obtain would be a rather incomplete one.*

Moreover, as Smith (2002: 6) notes, sealing and whaling were highly competitive and “business interests frequently did not wish to reveal precise data on where they had been working”. Amongst those involved in fishing for marine fishes, crayfish and other seafood, such secretiveness is also evident (Johnson, 2004). Elinio (1995: 21) refers to knowledge about fishing grounds being “jealously guarded” because of concerns over depletion of the resource and also over-supply to a limited market. Likewise, an Act passed in 1868 rewarded those who discovered new oyster beds in the South Island with exclusive rights for five years (Johnson, 2004: 33); hence secrecy prevailed. A comment in the *AJHRs* (1969, H15a: 34) suggests that there may be some negativity against writing: “More contributions for the bulletin from the industry would be welcomed but this is an industry of ‘doers’ rather than writers”.

61
The positive connotations of ‘doers’ suggests its valued position over not doing – or writing. All these factors lead to a lack of extensive written records or instructive publications. In discussing sources available in the rural sector, Bardsley (2003: 61) observes that much material was written “for farmers not by them”. However, in the marine industry little was written either by or for the practitioners, each protective of their area until the resource in question was depleted. Hence, the generic problem of source material being more limited in earlier times is likely to be exacerbated in the topic in question, by the written material available.

It is tempting for these reasons to focus only on the Marine Department reports from the AJHRs. Beginning from the 1860s, they provide an annual review of fishing and issues associated with it. From 1964 there is also a separate report from the Fishing Industry Board, and from 1992 the Treaty of Waitangi Fisheries Commission is established and reports are included in the AJHRs. As a data source they have several benefits. Firstly, they have been published annually, in a consistent format from their origin in the 1860s until the present (although there have been changes in the name of the organisations and changes in the make up of the departments). Secondly, they address all the strands under consideration, namely whaling and sealing, recreational and commercial fishing (including marine farming), and regulation of the industry. Finally, as Wood (1973: 60) claims, they are “a mine of information”, discussing topical issues at length, and are therefore a language rich source on the topic. They would provide a thorough and consistent line of data from which to identify specific New Zealand lexis and to analyse changes in motivations and processes in innovation over time.

However, there would be some limitations to utilising this single data source. Firstly, it would limit the data to post 1860 and would therefore miss the earliest examples of settler contact with a new environment, a period which yields much lexical innovation, as widely noted in the literature (Bauer, 1994b; Benson, 1993; Moore, 2008). This is particularly pertinent to this topic which focuses on the natural environment. Furthermore, although the reports include correspondence from a variety of contributors, they would restrict the data for analysis to a specific, formal style, whereas utilising a wider pool of data sources provides access to a greater range of styles. To avoid these limitations, all the reports from the AJHRs were employed in
conjunction to a range of other sources. As consistent a line of data sources as possible was searched for in manuscripts, serial publications, and published accounts on the topic.

4.1.1 Periodicals
Serial publications or periodicals are a useful tool for lexical analysis. Garrett and Bell (1998: 3) refer to the media’s reflection of current usage, while Aitchison (1998: 18) adds that the media extends our usage: “Journalists are observant reporters who pick up early on new forms and spread them to a wider audience”. It may be expected that magazines have the potential to record early examples of innovation.

In the earlier years, a variety of periodicals with no specific focus on marine activities were utilised. The *New Zealand Journal*, every copy of the short-running *New Zealand Magazine*, the *Southern Monthly Magazine* and the longer running *Journal of the Polynesian Society* were scanned for relevant articles. While marine harvesting was not the focus of these, as major publications they did include articles and commentary on marine harvesting, which was New Zealand’s largest industry at the beginning of the 19th century (Prickett, 2002), and considered of general interest. Preliminary reading identified some lengthy articles on sealing, whaling and the potential for fisheries in the colony, as well as letters by and about people in the industry. From 1893, the *New Zealand Official Yearbook (NZOYB)* was published and includes an annual entry on the state of recreational and commercial fishing, and whaling in New Zealand. While there are a number of periodicals with information relevant to fisheries, it needs to be acknowledged that there is significantly less than there is from the 1920s when periodicals with a specific focus on fishing are available.

The limited number of early magazines from the 1920s until the 1950s were read in their entirety. These magazines relate to non-commercial harvesting. Based on a comprehensive search for commercial literature from 1840, Paul (1979) concludes that before the 1960s, there were no publications specifically directed at commercial fishers (although, as noted earlier, the *NZOYB* includes an annual entry). From the 1960s, when publications became significantly more numerous, magazines were sampled on a one month a year basis for their duration (as pioneered by Bardsley,
2003). So, for example, in the year 1990, the January issue of *New Zealand Fishing News (NZFN)* was read and in 1991 the February issue was read. As with the rural domain, whaling and fishing have a seasonal component and a monthly rotation allowed all types of harvesting to be analysed. For those magazines which are annual, each was read. Magazines that are quarterly were read for the quarter which most closely corresponds with the month being sampled. Longer running magazines were selected, but consideration was also given to coverage of topic and regions. See Appendix B for a table of magazines and periodicals. Some of these publications, notably *Tangaroa*, are focused primarily on Maori fishing issues and this may be expected to impact on the number of items from te reo Maori which appear. However, that there is a publication devoted to this area is indicative of the growing role of Maori in the industry, and the periodicals are representative of current usage.

Two of the long-running serials employed as data sources are the *Journal of the Polynesian Society (JPS)*, 1892-1975, and the *Transactions and Proceedings of the New Zealand Institute (TrNZI)*, 1868-1933. The former could be described as having an anthropological focus. Discussion of fishing methods is not uncommon and it was therefore a suitable publication for scanning. Use was made of both content pages and the index to determine areas of relevance to this study. However, relevant discussion, which may have occurred incidentally within larger articles, would not have been identified. Hence, there is no attempt to claim a thorough and extensive reading of each journal. In contrast to the *JPS*, articles from the *TrNZI* have a rather scientific focus, describing characteristics of the species, rather than the methods or traditions surrounding their capture. As with the *JPS*, these volumes are academic in tone. Yet, there is reference to the names applied to particular referents by whalers and fishers, which make it a useful source. Additionally, the publication deals with new species and is useful in providing early application of labels. These two periodicals combine, along with the *AJHRs*, which are more commercial in focus, to provide a rounded picture of fish and fishing in New Zealand.

---

4 Note that the group after which the publication is named was called the *New Zealand Institute* until 1933 and then became the *Royal Society* from this time, with a corresponding change in the publication name. However, for consistency, the abbreviation *TrNZI* has been used throughout the wordlist and thesis.
4.1.2 Manuscripts, reminiscences and biographies

To consider the language of the earliest speakers of English in New Zealand is to consider that spoken before any formal colonisation took place. So, in the early part of the 19th century, logs, correspondence, and unpublished observations were significant sources of data for this study. Clearly, only those made available to libraries were identified for examination. While this is somewhat problematic, a thorough search of the National Library, as well as regional libraries, revealed a number of relevant sources, especially relating to whaling. Mesthrie (2003: 453), in discussing sources for examining language features, mentions that because many sailors were not formally educated, their logs and diaries, that is, their “written norm”, did not “disguise their speech norms to a great extent”. Hence, it was hoped that captains’ logs would be a good source of early lexical innovation. Some logs, including Hempleman’s Piraki Log (1836), are language-rich and full of early usages. However, many more logs contained brief daily entries (focusing mainly on weather) with a limited range of language, and many had only brief mention of time in New Zealand waters.

4.1.3 Published works

Additionally, published accounts were utilised. These are important because, as mentioned earlier, while not such a lot was written by or for the early whalers, sealers, and fishers, a considerable amount was written about them. New Zealand has been described in various accounts by many observant writers. Their description of the coastal environment was particularly relevant to this study. Moreover, such histories and biographies are useful because they are often based on interviews or close contact with the groups they describe (see for example Wakefield (1845), Best (1927), and Heberley (2005)).

In order to establish some consistency, 10 publications in each 30-year block were utilised as data sources. This is with the exception of the first 30-year block (1796-1815) where a limited number were available. Texts known to be important (as suggested by their frequent occurrence in fisheries bibliographies) were chosen, but a balance between regions, and types of marine harvesting was also sought. Within each thirty year period, an effort was made to ensure total coverage of region and type of harvesting. A nomenclature was included in each block. Coverage of whaling,
sealing, fishing, seafood collection, recreational fishing, and marine farming was taken into account. As noted, publications in the 19th century are less abundant than those in the 20th century. In particular, the publishing of fishing guides has become a burgeoning industry since the 1980s. Hence, when there were more books than required, a random selection was made. In the first instance, books were chosen which fit the criteria of representing a range of type and regional coverage of harvesting. Where publishing exceeded requirement, each book was allocated a letter. Letters were then randomly selected. As with other sources, it is apparent that while early publications are more general works which include a discussion of marine topics, the volume of publications in latter years means that sources which focus only on marine topics could be selected, again affecting the quantity and quality of material available over time. The published texts selected for systematic analysis are labelled [C] in the Primary Sources Bibliography.

4.1.4 Papers Past and other miscellaneous sources
Since the thesis was initially proposed, a valuable online source has become available. Papers Past, assembled by the National Library, provides a digitised, word searchable resource of 44 New Zealand newspapers from throughout New Zealand, from 1839 to 1915. Given the general nature of newspapers, this was too vast a source for identifying New Zealandisms in the marine area, but it was decided that it would be useful for sourcing antedatings or extra citations for items already identified. Hence, word searches were made for items on the list. Occasionally, other words were identified in this source and added. For example, old identity was found when word searching barracouta, and was subsequently added to the list. The newspapers available for word searching are listed in the Primary Sources bibliography.

In addition to Papers Past, other texts which were read for topic knowledge were employed for substantiating the citation file where items of lexical interest appeared. Notably, the Journal of Science and Technology, consulted for topic information, was utilised for additional citations where useful. However, it was in no way used systematically. The AJHRs often referred to government reports written on particular topics and these were used to gain additional citations for identified items. Online sources were also employed for background information and, where appropriate, included for citations. Notably, the reliable online source www.scoop.co.nz, which
includes numerous government Press Releases, was utilised for supplementing the
citation file, as was the comprehensive Te Ara, the online encyclopaedia of New
Zealand. These miscellaneous sources were used for adding citations, rather than
identifying items.

4.2 Assembling the Wordlist

Although the wordlist assembled here, does not constitute a dictionary as such,
adopting some specific principles of lexicography was useful in constructing the
wordlist in a principled manner. Hence, in the areas of identifying New Zealandisms,
organising the wordlist, defining lexical items and selecting citations, recourse was
made to the lexicographical literature.

4.2.1 Identifying terms for inclusion in the wordlist

Lexical items were identified as New Zealandisms based on meeting one of the
namely:

1. they are used only in New Zealand
2. they have additional or substitute meaning in New Zealand
3. they have a special significance in New Zealand by virtue of early usage or
   special historical significance
4. they have enduring usage in a New Zealand context, but not elsewhere

Various methods were employed to help determine whether an item was specific to
New Zealand English. Firstly, recourse was made to various dictionaries, most
such as that of Babcock (1954) which examines Melville’s Moby Dick for
Americanisms were also useful in eliminating potential items. Attention was also
paid to textual information which could provide insight into the origin of a term, as
for example in this citation for Christmas tree rope: “A local company soon
developed what became known as Christmas-tree rope, a synthetic rope with
numerous small branches…” (Johnson, 2004: 435). Some investigation was required
to determine where particular concepts and items originated and use was made of
relevant texts. Words were also searched for on Google – an online tool which
proved useful for later words. An indication that an item is localised was that it resulted in a lower number of Google results. For example, a Google search for total allowable catch, which is used in a variety of English speaking countries, resulted in a considerably higher number of results (109,000), than total allowable commercial catch (12,000), which is specific to New Zealand English. This is indicative of the smaller volume of web based material occurring within a country of New Zealand’s size.

Nevertheless, it is still the case that determining whether an item is a New Zealandism is not straightforward or conclusive. As Deverson (2009: 7) claims: “we must accept that all vocabularies are open-ended, in flux, and that lexicography is to a significant extent intuitive, and always provisional”. In order to attain some consistency within this study, a number of decisions were made in several grey areas. These areas are items shared with Australia, items with some wider currency, the presence of Maori, and items with limited written evidence.

Included in this list are many items which are likely to be shared between New Zealand and Australia. As Deverson notes (2000: 27), to exclude items that are shared between the countries would be “to fail to recognise a significant part of the contrast to be made between the New Zealand English and the major British and North American lexicons further afield”. The closeness between the two countries in the early days of English speaking settlement is widely acknowledged, and leads to difficulty in determining whether a lexical item originated in Australia or New Zealand. While Ramson (AND, 1988: vi) suggests locating the earliest written evidence may merely be “fortuitous” rather than evidence of provenance, it is nonetheless a useful indication. Bardsley (2005: 47-8) discusses how words have often been claimed as Australianisms when the citational evidence points to their early usage in New Zealand. In this study, no claim is made as to whether an item originates in Australia or New Zealand. However, a comparison has been made between this regional wordlist and the Australian National Dictionary (AND 1988). Items which are included in the wordlist of this study, and which also occur in the AND are identified as such. In brackets will be found AND and the date of the earliest citation (whether or not that citation is earlier or later). Datings are only included for items whose referents are direct equivalents. Hence, labels applied to similar but
different species are not identified. For example, in New Zealand English, *gummy shark* refers to *Mustelus lenticulatus*, whereas in Australia, it refers mainly to *M. antarcticus* (although note that these two species were at one time considered the same species). In the *AND* (1988), *butterfish* is said to refer to several unrelated fish, especially *Sciaena antarctica*. In New Zealand, it refers to *Odax pullus* and *Pseudolabrus celidotus*. In such cases, the Australian dating is not included. There are some interesting differences. *Skippy* in Australian English refers to a type of trevally, while *skipjack* is applied to a type of trevally in New Zealand. *Skippy* in New Zealand English refers to skipjack tuna, while the same fish is named *stripey* in Australian English (*stripey* refers to striped marlin in New Zealand English). Of the 30 items which were included in both this wordlist and in the *AND*, 16 have their earliest citation in the *AND*, 13 are recorded earlier in this wordlist, and one item has the same date. However, it is important to stress that an item not included in the Australian dictionaries may nonetheless appear in Australian English. For example, a Google search would suggest that *HFO* ‘honorary fisheries officer’ is used in parts of Australia as well as New Zealand, although it is not to be found in the regional dictionaries. Another example is *trev* (an abbreviation of *trevally*) which appears to occur in both varieties, but is not included in the *AND*. The 1988 publication of the *AND* also precludes any items which were coined from this date.

A referent being of cultural significance was not considered a reason to include its various labels into the wordlist if they were not specific to New Zealand English. However, items such as *beachcombing, black whale, black whaling, right whale, right whaling* and *shore whaling*, which have some currency outside New Zealand, were included because the practices surrounding them led to subtle meaning shift in early New Zealand, the citations available for them are early, or there are additional shades of meaning. For example, *shore whalers* were not only people who worked in the shore whaling industry, but an example of New Zealand’s first European settlers, who formed almost a class, one considered reprehensible. Often closely connected to Maori in the area and cohabitating with Maori women, they are also considered early cultural mediators. Hence, *shore whaler* evokes a specific and certainly uniquely New Zealand referent. It was the particular practice of the black whale coming into the shores of New Zealand (and also New South Wales, Australia) which has been offered as an explanation for its alternative name of *right whale*. It was the right
whale because it was easy to catch. In New Zealand English the label refers specifically to the whale *Balaena glacialis* whereas the label has more general application elsewhere (see *OED* whale n. 1, b. (b)). Additionally, a number of the items associated with early whaling, including *clapmatch* and *shore whaler* have their earliest citations in New Zealand, and as Babcock (1954: 161) suggests, “the nationality of individual words is largely based on the precedence of recorded evidence”. While it is certainly not claimed that these terms have exclusive New Zealand usage, if we accept as Deverson (2000: 30) proposes, that regional vocabulary exists on a cline from exclusive usage at one end and universal usage at the other, then these whaling items are in the middling ground. They deserve recognition on account of some aspect of their usage.

However, only those items that do have early or extended usage and subtly extended meaning shifts are included here. This has meant that a considerable number of items found in Orsman (1997), including *blubber knife*, *blubber room*, *blubber spade*, *bride cut*, *cooper’s flag*, *cut in*, and *fasten* have been excluded from this wordlist. The items above had a widespread currency, and do not appear to have had any special usage in New Zealand. In addition, a large number of the whales and sharks (presumably included by Orsman on the grounds of being culturally important) which are found widely and referred to by the same name in New Zealand as elsewhere, for example the *humpback whale*, have been omitted from this study.

Following the inclusive practice of Orsman’s *DNZE* (1997), families of fish that are represented by a unique species in New Zealand, and which are referred to by the family label are included in the wordlist. An example of this is *hagfish* – which in New Zealand is an endemic species of the wider hagfish family. Likewise, *filefish* and *triggerfish* are applied internationally to the Balistidae family, and the unique representatives of this family in New Zealand are also included in the wordlist. It may be argued that the unique referent offers a lexical choice, and perhaps choosing the generic family name is the path of least innovation, but it is an example of innovation nonetheless. While such items may not be included in a list that deals with the bulk of a regional lexicon, their inclusion seems appropriate in a specialised wordlist such as this.
The appearance of Maori items of vocabulary is a clear feature of New Zealand English lexis. However, as Bauer (1994a) and Gordon (2008) have suggested, it can be difficult to determine whether various usages of Maori words are examples of New Zealand English or code switching. In a number of periodicals and books employed in this study there is a frequent use of Maori vocabulary, especially in the description of fishing techniques and equipment. The following is a typical example: “Fig. 5 is of another whale-bone barb (tara) and wooden shank (papa-kau-awhi)” (JPS, 1933, vol. 42: 147). Here, both italics and brackets are used to differentiate the items from what is perceived as the regular text. Text with more direct referral to the Maori language also featured regularly: “The usual term for a shoal of fish is rangai, but with the kahawai the word moana is also used” (TrNZI, 1926, 56: 622). It is difficult to decide whether these items should be included in a wordlist. It may be argued that their appearance alone is grounds for their inclusion. While readers of the citations above were not expected to know the Maori vocabulary items, they were at least expected to be interested. Moreover, in the two articles mentioned above, the terms once introduced were then used without translation throughout the article. Despite this, it does not really seem reasonable to suggest that every Maori word which appears is an example of New Zealand English lexis. Hence, evidence of wider currency was sought, and it seemed sensible to adopt the general practice of requiring that the item occurred over three sources, with some consideration as to whether the item was introduced as a translation or put in italics, or marked by any other features of punctuation. Gordon (2008: 67) comments on the possibility that a word may be considered as having been adopted by another language when it is given the syntactic features of that language. This was also considered.

The issue of “hapax legomenon”, a single attestation of a word is considered by Cermak (2003: 20). He claims this is an enduring problem for historical lexicographers because “no useful and reliable generalisation can be made in such cases”. Such cases are also problematic because one cannot be sure that they were not an idiosyncratic feature of the writer which never gained wider currency. It is therefore customary to obtain three citations from different sources, in order to establish that an item is not simply a nonce word, but an item which has gained some currency. In this study, items for which only one citation was found were recorded. They were included in the wordlist only if there was some evidence of wider usage,
either being used in local internet sources (particularly fishing blogs, which while they were considered too ephemeral to be a data source, do give an indication of usage), or via personal knowledge. For example, sea opal, for which only one citation has been recorded, has been included because of the number of occurrences in online New Zealand sources which offer sea opal as an alternative name for paua shell. Likewise, items such as kahawai killer and reddie which appear on numerous online fishing message boards, but in only one formal written source, were also included in the wordlist. Many of the published sources include stories and anecdotes from a variety of people. Items were included when they were attributable to a number of different people within a single source. Items for which no evidence was found for wider usage were retained as a useful basis for further research, but not presented in this wordlist.

Deciding which terms were relevant to the topic also posed questions. ‘Harvesting of the marine environment’ does not constitute an identifiable domain as such. Rather, the topic seeks to identify those words which New Zealanders use in their taking of the sea’s resources. Items were considered relevant to the topic if they represented: items harvested, equipment, methods, restrictions or regulations, and people involved in harvesting. While both commercial and recreational harvesting were included in the topic, freshwater fishing was excluded. However, the distinction between fresh and sea water creatures was sometimes blurred. Some species, including for example flounders and eels, frequent both waters and many freshwater fish spawn at sea. Hence, it was decided to include in the list only those species which are harvested in the sea, and the practices surrounding them. Those seabirds, such as muttonbirds, which are harvested directly, or those such as Hooker’s sea lions which are harvested indirectly in what is termed by-catch, were included in this study. In addition, creatures which in some way influence harvesting are also considered relevant to the topic. One example is the kahawai bird, which through its behaviour signals the appearance of shoals of kahawai. Similarly, kohuwai is a seaweed used as a seasonal indicator for catching kehe. Various marine life not salient to harvesting, such as angelfish – which frequent New Zealand waters but are not harvested – were not included. The marine inhabitants are vast in number and again boundaries were required. While an attempt was made to include the names of various government organisations relating to the topic, especially at a national level, the profusion of
companies and organisations at a regional level were not included. Although the exclusions described may seem somewhat pedantic or arbitrary, the parameters of the topic did need to be clearly defined.

Another consideration was whether to include acronyms in the wordlist. Orsman (1995:11) reveals the general policy to omit acronyms from the DNZE (1997), though no particular explanation is provided. However, they are an important source of innovation in this domain. A frequent distinction is made between acronyms and initialisms, whereby acronyms are pronounced as a word (perhaps with an intentional manipulation of letters to allow this to happen), and initialisms have the letters pronounced separately. Kuiper and Allan (1996) suggest that only the former is a word. However, Landau (2001: 41) argues that the distinction is often arbitrary because the “same designation may be pronounced by some as a word while others pronounce it letter by letter”. Furthermore, initialisms often function as words, taking derivational affixes and modifying other words. Therefore, both will be included in this study and labelled in the wordlist as abbreviations (n. abbrev.). Throughout the discussion of this study the term acronym will be used to encompass both types, that is, items pronounced as a word and items pronounced letter by letter.

4.3 Macrostructure of the Wordlist

After identifying those items that ought to be included in a regional wordlist in the marine domain, comes the decision of how to organise them. The most salient issue here is to decide what criteria should be employed to determine the entry status that an item will be accorded. As suggested in the literature review, this is problematic. In making the decisions it was hoped to find a solution that considered the purpose and users of the wordlist, and could be consistently applied. Landau (2001: 108) recommends reserving decisions until there is some familiarity with the types of terms to be encountered, making minor adjustments at the initial stage. With this in mind, the particular issues of this domain were taken into consideration before deciding on an approach to organisation.
4.3.1 Fish names

It was the organisation of fish names that was to present the initial challenge. The labelling of marine creatures throughout the history of New Zealand English has been a complex affair. Graham (1956:172) comments that “any contact with our New Zealand fishes shows a regrettable lack of unity in vernacular names”. Hector, as reported in the *AJHR* (1870 D, 9: 3) claims “the English popular names are very vaguely applied … and seldom indicate their correct affinity”, adding that “it is impossible to determine which exact fish is meant in different parts of the Colony”. Hence, one creature may have many labels, changing over time and with regional variation. For example *Percis colias* has been called coalfish, blue cod, cod, rawaru and pakirikiri, and *Agonostoma fosteri* is variously makawhiti, aua, herring, and mullet. Not only does one entity have many different labels, but one label may refer to many different entities. Depending on time and location, kelpfish may refer to *Odax pullus*, several species of wrasse, and several fishes from the Chironemidae family. Moreover, modified headwords, for example blue cod, red cod, deep sea cod, frequently refer to unrelated species. Labels may match with one item but then also refer to separate, different items. For example, sea perch and highlander both refer to *Helicolenus barathri*, while sea perch also refers to orange roughy whereas highlander does not.

There are perhaps three ways of dealing with this complex array of label / referent combinations. One is to have headwords with modifiers as sub-entries as required. This approach is adopted in Orsman’s *DNZE* (1997), where fish names consisting of a noun preceded by a modifier are listed under the noun as a headword. Hence, cod is the headword and sub-entries include blue cod, black cod, rock cod, and deep sea cod. This occurs whether the fish are of the same family or not. It does result in some unusual outcomes. It appears that cod is frequently used as a rather generic name for fish, and frequently used with a modifier, rather similar in function to fish itself. However, because those items with fish as the second element are frequently spelt together they are usually given headword status, while those with cod as an element are nested. It also results in a certain amount of unpredictability. In the *DNZE*, fur seal is listed as a sub-entry under seal, while elephant seal – another marine mammal – is a headword under elephant. In the immensely comprehensive *OED*, it may be puzzling to find that paddle crab occurs as a sub-entry under paddle,
while spider crab occurs as a sub-entry under crab. The logic behind such decisions will not necessarily be apparent to the user of the dictionary.

Another method would be to deal with each item on a case by case basis. When various modifiers refer to the same species, they could be grouped together, and when they refer to different species, they could be given a separate headword entry. Thus, deep sea cod – a misleading trade name for monkfish – would receive its own headword entry under d, while the related blue warehou, white warehou, and silver warehou would all be nested within the headword warehou. The danger with this method is that the general reader, for whom this wordlist is intended, may not know which fish are related and be confused by the organisation. They may be confused to find an entry for blue cod (not actually a cod) under blue cod, while red cod (which is a cod) is nested within the entry for cod.

Therefore, with such a complex array of labels, it seemed suitable to adopt a third approach where each label is given headword status and presented in strictly alphabetical order, rather than having headwords with sub-entries for each modifier. This approach is taken in the DARE (1985) and implemented in conjunction with extensive cross-referencing. It also reiterates the sentiment of Atkins (2008: 40), who claims that “the ideal format is one in which there are no subentries” – though space generally prevents this. Hence, blue cod occurs under b, while red cod occurs under r. This approach does have drawbacks. It means that Bluff oyster, Foveaux Strait oyster, Stewart Island oyster, and dredge oyster, which all refer to the same entity and might be economically dealt with if oyster were the headword and the modifiers Bluff, Foveaux Strait, Stewart and dredge were grouped together as a sub-entry, are each given separate entries with three citations apiece. It means also that the reader cannot gaze down the page for a quick look at the complete range of fish with cod in their labels. However, this can be addressed through cross-referencing. At the entry for warehou, the reader will find: “See also blue, silver, and white”.

Additionally, this approach does seem to give precedence to the label. By listing each of these items alphabetically with their own citations, the range and usage of each particular lexical item is apparent. As each label represents a word that has developed distinctively in New Zealand to name a particular referent, it arguably deserves its
own entry. With this approach, extensive cross-referencing is required to make the list accessible and comprehensive. McArthur (1998: 155) claims that “it is impossible to find an ultimate true schema for ordering things and words in the world…there can only be better or worse schemata for any purpose…” The listing of each lexical item alphabetically by its first word appears to suit the purpose and nature of this domain.

4.3.2 Other multi-word combinations
Another feature of this particular wordlist is the abundance of combinations. Most notably, there are many instances of nouns modifying other nouns, and adjective plus noun combinations. Firstly, there is a tendency for fish to modify other nouns, as in piper net and moki season. The full extent of this is evidenced in paua. In the series of citations collected for paua, it was found modifying 32 other items. Decisions had to be made about the status of these combinations. It was necessary to consider which are examples of attributive usage and which are compounds or lexical items which require headword status. In considering what is useful for a general reader of this wordlist, one may argue that if the space is available then it is advisable to give all examples headword status. However, the desirability of defining and including citations for 32 paua entries is questionable. For example, the reader does not need a definition for paua patty – a patty made of paua.

Here, applying the criteria of compound idiomaticity proved useful. That is, only those items considered to be figurative, semi-figurative or functional compounds, as defined by Atkins and Rundell (2008), are given headword entry status (see section 3.1.1 for a complete discussion). Under this classification system, the functional compound barracouta hook (a hook relating to barracouta, but more specifically a device made of wood and a nail – not really a hook at all) is given headword status under b, while paua sausage, which falls outside the classification, is included in the citations for paua which is marked as ‘Frequently attrib.’. This criterion was used for all noun + noun and adjective + noun combinations. Hence, customary take (functional), capstone (semi-figurative), and spat stick (functional) all acquire headword status. It should be noted that all the compounded fish names fit this criterion also. Some are figurative (such as Jock Stewart), some are semi-figurative such as school snapper, and many are functional, such as silver warehou (while the label denotes a silvery fish, it refers to a particular species). Following the AND
(1988), those combinations which are proper nouns were given headword status and the idiomaticity criterion was not applied.

It should be noted that this is a specialised wordlist. As such, it differs from a wordlist that describes the core of a language and in which all elements of a combination are likely to occur. For example, the elements of *spat stick*, where the former element is not specific to New Zealand, and the latter is neither specific to New Zealand, nor relevant to the topic, would not occur in the wordlist. However, the combination is relevant and unique. When such an item falls inside the Atkins and Rundell (2008) classification, it will occur as a separate headword under the first letter of the first element. When it falls outside (as, for example, with *tanekaha rod*) it will be listed as a *special combination* under the first element. An item such as *tanekaha rod* offers a New Zealand flavour to the discourse, and it is useful to present it as an item relating to New Zealand English. It is an example of the naming of equipment used only in New Zealand, and as the following citation shows, it gives the connotation of simple, honest equipment: “give a man … a Tanekaha rod, with a 400 to deal with - that will test his skill and experience to the limit, and he will require all his resources to outwit the fish and bring it to gaff” (*New Zealand Fishing and Shooting Gazette*, 1927, 1:210). It is useful to include items such as this, which impart a New Zealand character to the fisheries discourse, in a wordlist which aims to be a cultural document.

It is certainly not suggested that the Atkins and Rundell (2008) method is a definitive way of determining what constitutes a compound or a word. These are areas that remain highly problematic. Moreover, whenever a classification system is imposed upon a set of data there are numerous items which appear borderline and require some personal judgement. Nevertheless, the method is a describable and replicable system for determining headwords when a line has to be drawn for a practical purpose. It also allowed for a generous approach to inclusion. Atkins and Rundell suggest that the functional compound type is often overlooked. Hence, to accord such items headword status is a rather inclusive approach. This suits the purpose of the list as a cultural document, in that it allows for a greater number of items to be displayed as representing New Zealand English, replete with definitions and a full range of
citations of duration and usage. Below is a summary of the decisions made in regard to combinations.

1. *noun + noun* and *adjective + noun* combinations will be allocated to one of the three types of compounds as defined by Atkins and Rundell (2008) or to the group outside the category.

2. Those items which are included as one of the three types will be presented as headwords – including the names of fish – with definitions and citations.

3. Items which fall outside the typology may be included as examples of attributive usage under the headword of the first element.

4. Items which fall outside the classification, and whose constituent parts do not appear in the wordlist are listed as ‘in combination’ under the first element of the combination.

4.3.3 Word classes

Different policies are employed in different dictionaries regarding whether parts of speech will be nested or given headword status. In the *DNZE* (1997: x), Orsman explains that “separate headword entries are given to nominal and verbal forms of the same word, with the noun entry usually preceding the verb unless the logic of the word’s history demands otherwise”. However, there are occasions when this does not appear to be the case. For example *toheroa* (v.) ‘dig for toheroa’ is nested as a sub-entry under *toheroa* (n.), while *floundering* ‘the catching of flounder’ is given separate headword status. In this wordlist, there are items where the verbal noun is the most suitable headword. For example, it is most likely that *bay whale* is a back formation of *bay whaling*. The practice of catching right whales in the bay gave rise to the term *bay whaling*. From here, these whales were occasionally referred to as *bay whales*. It would be most appropriate to have *bay whaling*, hence … *bay whale*. However, the converse is likely to be the case for *black whale* and *black whaling*. The catching of the *black whale* led to the coining of *black whaling* to name the practice. In order to avoid the confusion this may cause the general reader, and to avoid inevitable mistakes in determining provenance of individual items, it was decided here to give each part of speech a separate entry. Hence, the verbal nouns *crayfishing, butterfishing*, and *frostfishing* (which interestingly, do not appear to be
used as verbs) are each given headword status. Likewise, New Zealandise (v.), New Zealandisation (n.), and New Zealandised (adj.) were listed as separate entries. Because the wordlist is not overly large, this is a practicable option. This is also in line with the principle of minimising nesting, which is adopted throughout the wordlist.

4.4 Microstructure of the Wordlist

Here, decisions regarding defining and labelling are discussed.

4.4.1 Defining

This wordlist offers no challenge to the traditional method of defining single lexical items. Definitions aim to be substitutable for the item in question where practical (albeit with the inclusion of definite and indefinite articles for readability). They also follow the genus, differentia model where applicable, which is often. This wordlist contains many items denoting living items and other concrete nouns, items which as Atkins and Rundell (2008: 415) note are particularly suited to the genus and differentia defining strategy. Therefore, it must be acknowledged that this wordlist consists of a set of definitions “distilled from discourse” (Halliday and Yallop, 2007: 25) or decontextualised. However, an appreciation of the importance of context to convey usage is implicit in historical lexicography, and is reflected in the large number of citations included, which amongst other things aim to show the lexical company an item keeps. The citations are an important part of conveying word sense in the historical wordlist.

Here, fish are defined by using their Latin-based scientific names, by including salient, distinguishing features or differentiae, but also in relation to cultural information. The latter inclusion is an acknowledgement that the distinction between defining and encyclopaedic information is blurred. In discussing the treatment of plants in dictionaries, O’Hare (2004) states that there are commonly more definitions of plants that reveal their function to humans than is the case with animals. She claims: “function seems to be far less structurally significant in that field of the language” and adds that “one might speculate that this is because plants are perceived as materials for our use to a greater degree than are animals” (O’Hare, 2004: 186).
However in this domain, fish are often named in relation to their use to humans. For example, **snapper** has a nickname of **panny** ‘a smallish snapper the right size for cooking’. Here, for the purpose of this wordlist which focuses on the *harvesting* of the marine environment, it is argued that the relationship is important culturally and practically. Therefore, information regarding the way in which a fish is used by humans is included. For example, the definition for **Bluff oyster** refers to the type and method of harvesting: “*Tiostrea luteria* (formerly *Ostrea*), a native oyster which occurs intertidally around New Zealand, but most abundantly in Foveaux Strait where it is dredged and forms the basis of an old and important fishery”. As the purpose of this wordlist is to inform the non-expert, information which enables the reader to see the relative importance of a fish within New Zealand is important information and potentially more illuminating than aspects of its appearance. As Bauer (2002:114) points out, for the reader, some encyclopaedic information can be more useful than purely lexical information.

Latinate names including genus, species, and family are included. These Latinate names are subject to change with ongoing scientific discovery. This study has relied on the names provided in Paul’s *New Zealand Fishes* (2000) and the Seafood Industry Council’s *Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species* (2007). Any changes made subsequent to these will not have been acknowledged.

In this wordlist there are often various names for a single referent. Where there is more than one common name for the same referent, the definition is given under the label that appears to be favoured current currency. The preferred label, under which a definition may be found, is referred to in capitals under the other label. Other, alternative labels will be given in bold. Hence, the entry for **old identity** will include: “**BARRACOUTA, Thyrsites atun** ... See also **Cook Strait sailfish, couta**, and **manga**”.

The items that are from Maori are defined in terms of how they are used in New Zealand English language texts, within this domain. This has sometimes meant a narrowing of the meaning. So, for example **kaitiaki** is defined as ‘a person nominated by iwi to authorise customary fishing in a particular area’, rather than the broader definition of ‘guardian’ which is conveyed outside this domain. Also, **rahui**,
in current New Zealand English is largely used to refer to a ban on taking fish in a particular area, whereas in Williams (1971) it has a broader array of meanings.

### 4.4.2 Labels
The application of usage labels is another area where decisions need to be made. Dolezal (2006: 699) states that “there are no commonly accepted usage or status labels, so each dictionary compiler decides how much to leave to the user and how much to make explicit”. Decisions made regarding the application of labels related to duration, register and region for this wordlist are outlined below.

#### 4.4.2.1 Temporal usage labels
The description of an item as historical or obsolete is somewhat inconsistently described in the literature. For example, in their *Dictionary of Lexicography* (1998), Hartmann and James have no entry for **historical**, and give **obsolete** as a synonym for **archaism**, that is, a word which is no longer in current use, except in fixed contexts. Landau (2001: 218) however states that **obsolete** is a word which has completely disappeared from use, and is only retained for historical purposes. Landau (2001: 219) also claims that if there is no evidence of a word having been used for 200 years then it is obsolete. Because of its comparatively short history, it is unlikely to be appropriate to label any term in New Zealand English as obsolete under Landau’s definition. Some referents no longer exist, for example **shore whaler**, but continued use of the label is not unusual given the ongoing interest in New Zealand’s whaling history. There are also terms which have clearly fallen out of currency. However, it should be noted that some words not commonly employed (for example not included as one of several names in nomenclatures or in official use and not commonly appearing as a name in magazines on the topic) for referents which still exist, do still appear in later citations. For example, **coalfish** is mentioned in the following citation: “Captain Cook was probably closer to its true identity when he named it [blue cod] the coalfish because of its similarity to that inhabitant of British waters” (1985 *New Zealand Fishing News*, 8:11: 22). It was decided that **early usage** would be applied to such terms to distinguish them from items with less historic usage.

#### 4.4.2.2 Other labels
Where a term is clearly known to be restricted in use to a particular area, as evident in a wide range of material revealing so, it is labelled *regional* and the geographical location of usage is given. Cases which are less than certain are not labelled. All items in this wordlist relate to the harvesting of the marine environment, and it did not seem necessary to delineate further by supplying labels of restriction to a particular field. It would seem rather redundant, for example, to label *Spanish lace* ‘mesh used in the cultivation of mussels on ropes’ as *mussel farming*. No labels related to formality or register were employed in this wordlist. Such labelling is problematic for a variety of reasons and, as Ramson (1988: vii) suggests, there is a danger that using such labels can be “over-interpretive and over-restrictive”. Rather, citations reveal the range of sources that a term is found in and the context in which they appear.

4.5 Orthography

Deciding on the written form of a word was a problematic area. One issue is whether to write a multi-word item open, closed or hyphenated. Avis, in the preface to *A Dictionary of Canadianisms on Historical Principles* (1991: xvi-xvii), states that it is not easy to decide whether to list compounds open, closed, or with a hyphen because “the style of treating such compounds has never been consistent in English”. The inconsistency in the orthography of multiword items identified in this study is exemplified in *elephant fish*. This is written in various ways, as seen in Figure 4.5 below, with no apparent diachronic progression from open to closed (as has been suggested may be the case with compounds).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Orthography</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Newspapers 1840-1915</td>
<td>open, closed, hyphenated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doogue and Moreland (1960)</td>
<td>closed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZ Seafood (1966)</td>
<td>open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ayling and Cox (1982)</td>
<td>open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul (2000)</td>
<td>closed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similar, unpatterned variation is found with many other items, including *frostfish* and *dogfish*. For this reason, it was decided to follow the orthographical form as recorded
in the *NZOD* (2005), unless citational evidence pointed strongly away from this. Only one item, *scorpionfish*, required change. The citational evidence points strongly to a closed representation of the item, as opposed to the open spelling of the *NZOD*. Such a policy is followed by *DARE* (1985: xviii) which follows, except where evidence is contrary, Webster’s *Third New International Dictionary* to answer “the vexing question” of writing open, closed, or hyphenated compounds. For items which were not found in the *NZOD*, evidence of usage was considered from the citations gathered.

Another consideration is the spelling of Maori items included in the wordlist. Again, orthographic variation is commonplace. Of course, in the years of early settlement, the spellings show great variation as writers struggled without an established spelling system. In this wordlist, the various forms that occur in citations are included after the definition of an item, partly to assure the reader that they are examples of the word in question. However, even in current usage, some minor variation still exists, especially with representation of vowel length. For example, citations recorded from the last 20 years show *mataitai* written as *maataitai*, *mātaitai*, *mātaitai* and *mātaitai*. It was decided, here, to follow again the orthography accepted in the *NZOD* (2005), which does not include macrons to indicate vowel length. This seems appropriate given that the aim is to show how Maori is used in New Zealand English. However, in order to illustrate the Maori spelling, the orthography as employed in Williams (1971), which does feature macrons, is also included. This appears as follows: [Ma. āhuru] and is included even if the spelling matches that of the headword.

### 4.6 Selecting Citations

The importance of citations in diachronic lexicographical work is widely acknowledged. As Landau (2001: 210) notes, illustrative quotations provide “documentation for the definition, which is really only an interpretive claim made by the lexicographer”. Orsman (1995: 12) goes as far as to say that definitions “must be read in the context of their quotations” [*his emphasis*], such is their importance in reflecting usage. Ramson (*AND*, 1988: vii) argues that “the essence of an entry in an historical dictionary is its set of citations”, because these substantiate definitions and show the range of usage. Here, then, careful attention was paid to selecting citations.
that displayed the range of uses of the lexical item and, where possible, across a range of sources.

An important feature of historical dictionaries is their potential to illustrate the cultural values of a given time, and to reflect shifts in these over time. Quotations have the potential “to flesh out the kind of world in which the words are or were used” (Laugesen, 2002: 3). Dolezal (2006: 705) suggests that good English dictionaries “are not just reference tools; they are also informative, entertaining, and…raise our awareness of language and people and culture”. While Landau (2001: 198) suggests that it is pointless to give a citation unless the context sheds light on meaning or usage, in the historical wordlist citations may also be chosen for their cultural information. In order to fulfil this potential, in addition to selecting citations which combine to illustrate a range of usages, attempts were made to select those which reflect a range of cultural practices and contexts. For example, while the following citation from Hi Ika (2001, March: 3) does not provide information on the characteristics of kina, it was selected because it provides cultural insight into their harvesting: “As a kid I fondly remember setting the hinaki to catch eels from Lake Waahi and diving for kina at Raglan for the various hui held at the Pa”. In contrast, it is the opacity which the following acronym laden sentence imparts, representative of the regulatory language which has emerged since the 1980s, that saw it chosen: “Any increase in ITQ, consequent to the QAA allocating additional PMITQ, results in an increase in TACC” (Boyle, 1994: 12). Both citations give us a sense of the cultural context in which a word is used.

More citations were collected for each item than were required, in order to select a series of citations which would combine to offer semantic, duration of use, and cultural information. The selection of citations also aimed to reveal the range of source types in which an item occurred. It was not always possible to achieve all of this. Both the earliest and most recent citations from each source type were noted, to record the duration of usage, and these were not ways the most informative. More citations were included for items with a wide range of attributive uses. Paua, for example, is used in a range of constructions, and this is reflected in the large number of citations which are included in its entry. Other items with numerous attributive uses reflected in a wide selection of citations are toheroa and Bluff oyster. More
citations are also included when the item has early and enduring usage. As Ramson (2002:150) notes, the historical lexicographer hopes “the quotations chosen will be so apposite, will so immaculately reveal the meanings and uses of the words they illustrate” that nothing else will be required, and sagely adds that such a notion is seldom realised. Here, the necessity of supplying first and late quotations has led to the inclusion of bland citations which offer little to the goals of showing range of usage – beyond time.

4.7 Analysis of the Wordlist

4.7.1 Considering change over time
The words which were identified as being in some way specific to New Zealand English were allocated to one of seven 30-year time periods, based on the date of their earliest citation. The data was examined in 30-year blocks, and comparisons were made between each block regarding the number of lexical items. This allowed the question of whether lexical innovation has abated or continued over time to be addressed. Miscellaneous sources were employed in the interests of obtaining three useful citations. However, in the interests of maintaining an equal quantity of sources over time, only the core sources are used in determining earliest citations. These core sources include periodicals, the AJHRs, manuscripts, and ten published sources in each time period. These are distinguished in the primary sources bibliography by the inclusion of [C] following the bibliographical information. Also of note is that only the earliest dates found in the sources examined for this study are considered. Orsman’s DNZE (1997) has not been used as a source of ante-dating. This is because it is important that this study be an independent and internally consistent examination of changes in marine harvesting discourse over time. There will inevitably be cases where Orsman’s work does have earlier citations, firstly because he has examined Cook’s Journals and those of the crew from the Endeavour from 1769, a source outside the time period of this study, and one which, unsurprisingly, contains many references to the marine environment. Secondly, Orsman has utilised Lee and Kendall’s Grammar and Vocabulary of the Language of New Zealand (1820), a source type not included in this study, which includes many early usages. Finally, he utilises such a comprehensive range of sources that he is likely to have captured early usages from general sources which this comparatively small study has not.
4.7.2 Regional typology

In order to address the question of what type of innovation is prevalent in the harvesting of the marine environment, a method for the categorisation of regional lexis was employed. All lexical items which were identified as being in some way distinctive to New Zealand English were categorised into one of six Types as proposed by Deverson (2000). The table below sets out the Types and provides examples from the marine harvesting lexicon.

Table 4.7.2: Categorisation of lexical items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Unique referent</th>
<th>Shared referent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| New word | Type 1<br>
Christmas tree rope ‘a hairy rope used in mussel farming’ | Type 2<br>kai moana ‘seafood’ |
| Additional meaning | Type 3<br>
stalling ‘using staked nets to prevent others from catching fish’ | Type 4<br>gumboot ‘blue shark, Prionace glauca’ |
| Substitute meaning | Type 5<br>
departmental farm ‘an area of oyster cultivation administered by the Marine Department’ | Type 6<br>red gurnard ‘Chelidonichthys kumu’ a fish not restricted to New Zealand waters. Red gurnard is elsewhere applied to other species. |

This typology divides items into those which refer to specific or non-specific New Zealand referents, and then across new word, supplementary or substitute meaning. This allows the identification of when innovation occurred; either to label items which are unique to New Zealand (Types 1, 3, and 5), or items which are found more widely (Types 2, 4 and 6). Referents that are unique include endemic species and also cultural practices and institutions. Items which are shared include kai moana, which
is sometimes used for seafood in New Zealand. Next, the typology addresses how innovation occurs: through borrowing and the coining of new terms (Types 1 and 2), or by applying additional meanings (Types 3 and 4) or substitute meanings (Types 5 and 6) to existing words. Types 3 and 4 occur where a word already utilised in the language, such as gumboot, is extended to include another referent, perhaps because of a feature of that referent. In this case, gumboot is applied to a shark which is a sluggish fighter (putting up about as much fight as a gumboot). In contrast, Types 5 and 6 typically occur where the meaning has been transferred from a Northern Hemisphere referent to a New Zealand one because of an apparent similarity, so that snapper in New Zealand refers to the New Zealand referent rather than its Northern Hemisphere namesake. Because of the similarity in form and meaning, the use of substitute and supplementary may have the potential to cause confusion. Hence, in this study, the term additional replaces supplementary, and substitute is retained.

### 4.7.2.1 Issues in applying the typology

In categorising New Zealandisms within the typology proposed by Deverson (2000), a number of issues emerged regarding the most appropriate allocation of individual items. Various judgments were required and in order to promote transparency and highlight the issues, the decisions are reported below.

Perhaps the most difficult decisions to be made centred on determining what constitutes a distinctive referent. Firstly, it can be difficult to determine whether various cultural practices are in fact distinctive to New Zealand. Those concepts which include specific features that vary subtly from closely related terms require a judgement. For example, paua bending (harvesting paua by hand, from reefs which are abundantly supplied with paua), is a distinctively New Zealand label, but is this practice common to other areas where abalone is plentiful? Moreover, if paua bending is practiced but not lexicalised elsewhere, what is its status in terms of the typology? Another example is rahui – a ban from taking seafood in a particular area. Included within rahui is a spiritual component (in traditional usage this involved spiritual retribution if disobeyed). The particular nature of this concept is likely to be similar to those found elsewhere, but also to contain distinctive elements. Another aspect is apparent in the item kete kai moana. This is used metaphorically to refer to
the coast as a seafood producing entity. While the physical referent is obviously shared, the metaphorical concept of the coast as a basket filled with food, available to the community is less common. So, kete kai moana represents an additional way of conceptualising the sea – and it is necessary to determine whether it is the metaphor or the sea itself which is regarded as the referent.

Melchers and Shaw (2003), in commenting on Deverson’s typology, add a further column to the specific and non-specific dichotomy, whereby specific lexis is divided into inherently specific, and possible in other varieties but not lexicalised. Hence, indigenous species would fall into the former category, while fortnight as a non-lexicalised possibility in other varieties of English is an example of the latter.

However, a particular conception of the world may be manifest via lexical innovation, and it seems appropriate to consider this distinctive conceptualisation as a distinctive referent. As Cowie (1998:182) argues “those items and concepts which are named are named because they have cultural salience for a certain group of speakers”. Hence, in this study, the original dichotomy proposed by Deverson (2000) is retained, and those practices or concepts with subtly distinctive nuances are categorised as unique referents (Types 1, 3, and 5). All the bolded items discussed above are categorised as such. In this way, the distinctive referents group contains referents which are unique both from a physical and conceptual perspective.

Another issue was how to categorise those words whose referents are native to New Zealand, but which are now found elsewhere. There are many instances of this, in this domain. For example, it is now believed that Bluff oysters originated in New Zealand and then spread to Chile. All those referents which are known to originate in New Zealand, regardless of whether they are well known elsewhere, have been allocated to the distinctive referent column. This is because they were distinctive when they were labelled, and neologising, or adding new meanings to an existing word were choices which had to be made at the time. In a similar vein, labels which originated in New Zealand, but which have gained wider currency have been allocated to Types 1 or 2 (which constitute new words), because New Zealand was the source of the innovation. Examples of this are mako and orange roughy.
Another issue relates to the relationship between Australia and New Zealand. As established earlier, many labels are common to both Australia and New Zealand (a good many of which are the names for fish, such as ling, trevally, and yellow-eyed mullet), and these are included in the wordlist of New Zealandisms. Unsurprisingly, there are also a considerable number of fish that are restricted to New Zealand and (particularly south) Australian waters. It was decided that fish geographically restricted to the waters between New Zealand and Australia would be considered unique referents. As there are many such fish, they have been marked for identification with the symbol ♦ in Appendix F.

A further issue relating to fish names concerns whether closely related but not identical members of families will be classified as distinctive referents. For example, in describing kina, Paul (2000: 172) states that they are “restricted to New Zealand, but similar sea urchins occur in most seas”. The species is distinctive but the family is widespread. It is questionable whether kina warrants being referred to as a distinctive referent. Likewise, the Callorhinchus milii (common name elephant fish) is restricted to New Zealand, but similar species are found elsewhere. Such cases, where perhaps the genus but not the species are widespread, are not uncommon in this domain and a consistent policy was required for dealing with this situation. In categorising the New Zealandisms, a particular aim is to ascertain whether or not adapting to a new environment has been the major cause of innovation. Although they are similar to species found elsewhere, the unique species do constitute a new environmental feature to name. Hence, it was decided that these cases would be referred to as distinctive referents. Cases where a distinctive species takes the name of the internationally used family name (as with octopus and hagfish) have been categorised as Type 3, that is, the label is considered an additional usage because in addition to using it as a family name for a fish as it is internationally applied, it is used to name a specific, unique referent in New Zealand English. Items such as horse mackerel, which cover a range of species, of which some are restricted to New Zealand waters, are categorised as Type 5, because the grouping is distinctive and replaces the groupings denoted elsewhere.

Because in this study an inclusive policy – in line with criteria proposed by Wilkes (1996), Orsman (1997), Delbridge (2001), and Deverson (2000) – has been adopted in
considering what constitutes a New Zealandism, there are a number of words which are difficult to categorise. As Deverson points out “distinctive does not always mean exclusive in the context of a regional lexis” (2000: 30). Those words which have an extended usage (when, for example, the OED applies archaic to a word which has current common currency in New Zealand English) or special significance have been categorised as additional meaning (Type 3 or 4). It is argued here, that the ‘specialness’ gives the word an extended meaning in the New Zealand English variety.

There were also issues concerning whether a word has an additional or substitute meaning. The question which this division poses is a useful one. In New Zealand English has the label been given an extra meaning, as with diamond (which in New Zealand applies not only to the precious stone but also to a diamond shaped flatfish), or has the meaning been replaced, as with snapper, which refers to the New Zealand species of fish, rather than its Northern Hemisphere namesake? Items which are of transferred meaning, including a considerable number of fish names, are problematic. Does the label conjure up the item in New Zealand waters as well as the items in other waters? One may argue that conger eel, a fish little known or utilised in New Zealand waters, may also refer to the the more international species. On the other hand, a popular fish such as blue cod is unlikely to conjure up any other referent but the species found in New Zealand. Such items were considered on a case by case basis, with citations often offering contextual support for decisions.

4.7.3 Word formation processes and borrowing
All those items which constitute ‘new words’ (represented by Types 1 and 2), in that they are labels with no equivalent in other varieties of English, were divided into categories based on the processess by which they were introduced. To distinguish borrowing and coining from semantic shift, the term neologising is used here. For the purposes of this study, neologising includes borrowing and coining. Categories employed were: Maori borrowing, Combinations, Acronyms, Hypocorisitics, Other abbreviations, and Other. As discussed in section 3.1.1, deciding whether an item is a compound is an issue beset with problems. It was decided to refer to the multi-word items as combinations. Hence, golden snapper, Quota Appeal Authority, and fish supper room are all categorised as combinations.
In this domain there are many items which contain both a Maori and an English language element. Items such as **Maori chief** and **Kai moana Regulations** contain elements which have long been borrowed into New Zealand English. Hence it would be inappropriate to call these combinations borrowings – rather, they are the combination of two items existing in New Zealand English. Kachru (1982) has termed such items ‘hybrids’, and Macalister (2007) has employed this label in his discussions of the presence of Maori in New Zealand English. These terms do contribute to the presence of Maori in this domain. There is something notable about choosing the label **Kai moana Regulations**, rather than the possible alternative **Seafood Regulations**. **Copper moki** adds to the distinctiveness of New Zealand English in a way that **red snapper** does not. Hence, the presence of these items will be made visible within the combination category, marked by * to indicate that they are hybrids (see Appendix H). They will also be discussed in connection with Maori borrowing (though separated). An exception is made for three items whose Maori language elements do not occur elsewhere in the wordlist: **iwi fisheries** (**iwi** is first recorded in combinations in 1988 in the *DNZE*), **Muriwhenua claim** and **tanekaha rod**. These have been categorised as borrowings. Conversely, items combining a well established Maori place name with an English language item, such as **Akaroa cod**, simply fall within the combinations category.
CHAPTER 5

CHANGE OVER TIME

The diachronic wordlist provides one means of creating an historical narrative via the documentation of a lexicon and its change over time. This section will examine the results of changes in the extent of lexical innovation from the period 1796 until 2005. Firstly, changes in the amount of innovation are presented and discussed in relation to the history of the settlement of New Zealand. Then, the data is examined more closely to highlight particular areas, namely, changing lexical innovation in whaling, regulation, and the labelling of fish.

5.1 Has the Amount of Innovation Changed Over Time?

It must be stressed that although efforts have been made to maintain a consistent number of sources over the time periods, this is not a corpus study which has examined consistent bodies of texts with an equal number of words over time. Rather, the best sources available have been chosen for each time period, with an eye to representing the various strands of whaling, commercial and recreational fishing, and fisheries management. Efforts have been made to keep the number of sources equal (these core sources are distinguished from miscellaneous sources by the inclusion of [C] after the bibliographical information in the primary sources bibliography). However, because of the material available, many early sources were general in nature, while later sources have been targeted firmly at fishing. This may affect the number and nature of items identified over time. Also, some texts yield a considerable number of items. One example is Graham (1956). The obvious interest that the author takes in marine life, his desire to comprehensively document the nomenclature, and the comprehensiveness of the volume, mean that many items were sourced here that were not available elsewhere in earlier volumes – giving rise to a greater number of items from the time period in which it occurs than may be justified. Such shortcomings are difficult to avoid. Nevertheless, the findings are still indicative of the changing nature of innovation.
Table 5.1: Number of lexical innovations in each 30 year period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Percentage of total items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 1796-1825</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 1826-1855</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>18.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 1856-1885</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>14.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 1886-1915</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>9.24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 1916-1945</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>8.48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 1946-1975</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>16.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 1976-2005</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>28.64%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 660 headwords were identified from the written sources examined. This number does not include the numerous attributive uses which have been recorded and listed under headwords. This is considerably fewer than were identified in the rural domain by Bardsley (2003), but a number which nevertheless suggests that there has been significant lexical innovation in the marine harvesting domain. Allocating each item into one of seven time periods based on its earliest citation shows that lexical innovation has occurred throughout the history of New Zealand English in this domain. It also suggests that some time periods are more lexically productive than others. Most data-rich is the final time period, while the period of early settlement, 1825-1855, follows. Least data-rich, in addition to the first period, were the years between 1886 and 1945.

5.2 Early Years

The period of 1826-1855 at 18.94% accounted for the second largest pool of New Zealandisms. It is not surprising that a significant number of vocabulary items were found here. As Turner (1966: 6) writes, the study of an emerging language must give disproportionate attention to the first generation of settlers, as “new things are named early”. This was the first period of significant non-Maori settlement in New Zealand, where the population of settlers rose significantly. In 1815, it is estimated that there were only about 50 European settlers in New Zealand, and by 1840 this had jumped to 2000. The following year the population more than doubled to around 5000 with the first wave of systematic colonisation, and numbers ballooned from here (figures from
Lambert and Palenski, 1982: 161). As more people arrive, the need to describe new experiences and environmental features increases. The new Northern Hemisphere settlers were encountering a marine environment quite different to those they had left behind, creating a fertile ground for innovation. The settlers also encountered a new people with a particular way of doing things. A method of fishing which Wakefield (1845: 183) had never seen before requires “a piece of red wood with a nail driven through it and bent round in the shape of a hook” or “a Barracoota hook”. The convenience of coining **barracouta hook** rather than repeating a description is obvious.

It was also a time in which English-speaking colonists took to exploring the country, examining its physical resources and bringing a new language to bear on the landscape that they encountered. New marine plants and creatures were observed, and labels available in English were applied to ones which looked similar to those already known, including **crawfish, cockle, groper, and guardfish**. Many of the early European explorations were made possible by Maori guides (King, 2003: 193), which meant that many unfamiliar entities were named in Maori, including **hapuku, karengo, and moki**. Taylor’s (1855 :414) following description suggests an openness to describing what is distinctive to New Zealand: “Amongst the Crustacea is the koura which is the general name for both the sea crayfish and the freshwater; the former is nearly two feet long, and abundant on all the rocky shores”. A Maori label is borrowed to describe a somewhat familiar referent, but extra distinguishing detail is added. As Halliday (2003: 412) suggests, “whenever one language is used to describe settings that are primarily construed in another language, it is bound to take on new meanings, whether it does this by reconstructing old words or by borrowing new ones”. Both borrowing and reconstructing existing words were employed in early New Zealand English to describe a physical and cultural environment that differed markedly from the environment which the settlers and their language had left behind and which many were eager to know.

### 5.3 Little Britain

Between 1886 and 1945, the number of New Zealandisms identified is notably lower than in other periods (with the exception of the first time frame, where a smaller
number of relevant sources were found and few English speakers were present). During this time, innovation was apparent but to a lesser extent than in the years preceding and following. These are the only two time periods to individually account for less than 10% of the total lexical innovations identified. This may be linked to a socio-historic account of New Zealand. Belich (2001: 29) describes the years between 1880-1970 as a period of recolonisation, where attempts were made to strengthen the links between New Zealand and England. Macalister (2003) found that there was less borrowing from Maori in this period than in other years. It is interesting to see that there is also less lexical innovation in general in this domain during that period. The inclination to maintain close ties with Britain during this time has coincided with less lexical distinctiveness.

An expression of this inclination to the Northern Hemisphere is evidenced in the marine domain by the establishment of a fish hatchery at Portobello in Otago Harbour (in 1904). Fish, including Northern Hemisphere herring, turbot, and crab were introduced from outside New Zealand, in the hope that they would become established and fill some of the piscine gaps that were evident in the New Zealand environment. Amongst the coinings which do occur during this time is Home fish. For example, it is reported that “the quality of the Home fish” is praised “to the disparagement of the local sorts” (Evening Post 1905, October 14: 14). Although the introductions did not have the “traumatic impact” (King, 2003: 196) of plant and land animal introductions, they point to a country aiming to recreate the conditions of a remembered homeland rather than one embracing its own environmental features. In addition, settlers looked to the land to make their fortunes as the whaling industry waned, and focus on the coast for industry was reduced.

Perhaps both these features, an orientation towards Britain and towards the land, combine to produce a low level of lexical innovation in the marine domain during this period. There was less inclination to focus on and to establish areas of difference and uniqueness to New Zealand. This was also a time in which Maori and Pakeha interactions were minimised. While the two decades following the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi have been described as being “characterised nationally more by cooperation between Maori and Pakeha than by conflict” (King, 2003: 211), the New Zealand wars of the 1860s meant that separation rather than cooperation was the
dominating feature of the Maori / Pakeha relationship for many years following. This
decreased interaction, at least in the earlier of these two time periods, coupled with a
growing dominance in settler numbers, is likely to have led to decreased innovation as
a result of cultural interactions, and less inclination or opportunity to use indigenous
terms, a practice which had been reasonably commonplace previously (for a
discussion of this see 6.6.1).

5.4 An Independent Nation

From the following time frame, lexical innovation increases and the most recent time
period yields the most New Zealandisms of any single time frame. In the sixth time
period, 1946-1975, there are almost twice as many lexical innovations as in the period
preceeding, and the final time period is close to double this again. Even if it is
considered that the availability of material for identifying items may have had some
bearing on this, it is still apparent that lexical innovation continues to flourish in this
area of New Zealand English. It is during these final two time periods that New
Zealand begins to develop a greater sense of independence. The ANZAC alliance
may have had an impact on New Zealand’s perception of itself as an independent
country, but New Zealand still looked to Britain for economic and military security
for several decades after this (King, 2003: 306). However, a real inclination away
from Britain emerged with its joining of the European Economic Community in 1972.
From this time, New Zealand began to look closer to home for economic security.

In the fishing industry this independence is marked with the creation of the NZEEZ
in 1978, which made New Zealand responsible for the 200 nautical miles of ocean
around its coastline. Another signal of growing independence is the emergence of the
policy to New Zealandise, as evident in the following citation: “The government, the
domestic industry, and the board, strongly advocate advancing the concept of ‘New
Zealandisation’ by requiring the mixed fishing ventures as rapidly as possible to
increase their New Zealand content …” (AJHR 1980, C6: 6). The New Zealand deep
sea fishing industry was at this time dominated by foreign interests and it was thought
desirable to reverse this situation by ensuring that all fishing ventures had a
significant New Zealand component. This example points to a country that is
beginning to shape its own response to the issues with which it was confronted. The
large quantity of lexical innovation in this period occurs alongside a growing sense of national identity or awareness.

In these later time periods there is a difference in the type of innovation which occurs. As we might expect, in the earlier time periods the naming of the physical environment is the predominant area of lexical innovation, whereas in the more current time periods many labels describe the social environment. In the first time period, 1796-1825, every New Zealandism identified refers to a creature of the sea, with the exception of matau ‘fish hook’ and kupenga ‘fishing net’, both physical objects directly related to fishing. Although the business of whaling gives rise to terms less physical in the second and third time periods, this predominance remains until the period beginning 1946. Of the 189 items identified, 53 (or 28%) from the final time period refer to creatures of the sea – still a significant number, but much lower than the 74% (92 of the 125 items) that are found in the second period 1826-1855. From this time there is a wider range of referents, including the names of institutions such as NAFMAC, FIB, and Fishmac which have been established around fishing and fisheries management, government devised schemes, and terms directly relating to management. As settlement progresses, it is the development of the social framework surrounding the fishing industry which is developed with the help of lexical innovation. As New Zealand has evolved as an independent nation, New Zealand English has continued to develop a distinctive lexicon.

5.5 Thematic Discussion: Change Over Time

A general look at the variation in quantity of lexical innovation over time tells a story of New Zealand’s colonial development and growing independence. A more detailed diachronic examination of the lexical innovation in particular areas highlights links between a lexicon and cultural perception. This section will examine and discuss lexical change in the whaling industry, in the regulation of marine harvesting, and in the labelling of fish throughout the period. Each of these areas offers insight into the nature of the lexical change in New Zealand.
5.5.1 Whaling

One of the economic experiences integral to early New Zealand was whaling. As one of the earliest settler industries, it was a means of contact between Maori and Pakeha, with Wakefield (1845: 336) crediting these hardy pioneers with smoothing the way for subsequent settlement. Whaling also put the practitioners in intense contact with their natural environment. Therefore, whaling terms have made a lexical impact on New Zealand English. The variation in the number of distinctive whaling terms over time reflects the rise and fall of the industry in New Zealand waters.

Many lexical items in the first two time periods relate to whaling. Occurring as whaling did on the coasts, it is not surprising that shore occurs in a number of combinations. Shore stations, some of New Zealand’s earliest settlements, were worked by shore whalers who lived, often with local Maori, and remained at the settlement at the end of the shore whaling season. This was an occurrence particular to New Zealand because of the habit of the right whale to calve in the shallow bays of New Zealand waters. Right whale took on particular meaning in New Zealand English, as the whale which was the right one to catch because of this calving habit. Bay whalers hunted the bay whale, another name for right whale, black whale, southern right whale or tohora, whose many labels are suggestive of the animal’s significance. Maori participation in whaling necessitated tonguers, who interpreted in addition to other whaling duties on whale ships, and their payment in oil from the tongue and other parts of the whale led to the coining of tonguer’s oil. Other members of the whaling crew include pulling hands who rowed the whale boats. Further contributions such as scrag, early usage of blanket, life, and clapmatch highlight the brutal nature of this early industry. Various items such as piropiro ‘ointment made from whale oil’, and blubber rum reveal the utilisation of whale products. A significant cluster of lexical items in the area of whaling point to the prominence of this industry in these years to 1855.

In the next time frame, from 1856 to 1885, fewer contributions to the New Zealand English marine lexicon are made by whaling, and the industry had passed its prime at this point. The reason for the decline is reflected in the vocabulary; the shore stations catching the right whale, even if whalers had to make do with a scrag, had ensured that the numbers of this creature would be rapidly reduced. However,
throughout the time periods, a number of distinctive lexical items coincide with an attempt to keep the industry alive. In the time periods 1886-1945, lexical items that reveal technological advances and a more modern approach to whaling are evident. **Chasers** with **chaser crews** hunt whales with **gunners** firing. The animal unlucky enough to be hit by two parties was a **halved whale** to be shared between them. **Hauling up**, or finishing the season, nods to the ongoing existence of whaling seasons, while distinctive uses of **net** and **netting** for the catching of whales point to the innovative techniques developed because the popular methods employed by the Norwegians were not suitable to the narrow, shallow bays of New Zealand (Ommanney, 1933: 251). The whalers during this time forged their own path with whaling, hunting a depleted supply of animals using methods which were appropriate for local conditions, and this is apparent in lexical innovation.

Whaling in New Zealand ended in the 1960s and the coining of terms in this area also ended. The only additions from the final two time periods, 1946-2005, are the abbreviations **tubs-man** (from tuboarsman) and **humpie**. The latter is used in citations that describe whalers observing humpbacked whales for scientific rather than commercial purposes. New Zealand may consider itself a whale-friendly nation, and it is a vocal opponent to whaling within the International Whaling Commission, but it is the hunting of whales that has left a lexical legacy to New Zealand English. The lexical innovation relating to whaling is most prolific when whaling is at its peak in the second and third time periods. The attempt to maintain the whaling industry is apparent in reduced but continued coining, and the emergence of new whaling-related New Zealandisms ends with the termination of whaling in New Zealand waters.

While whaling is responsible for many lexical innovations in this domain, it should be noted that it did not yield as many innovations as may be expected given the observation that early whalers had developed their own distinctive sociolect. Wakefield’s (1845: 318) claim that “their [whalers’] whole language in fact is an argot, or slang, almost unintelligible to a stranger” is certainly not borne out in this study. Adding to the expectation is Orsman’s (1980) claim that whaling is one of the significant influences on New Zealand English lexis. It is important to note however, that this study examines only those items which focus on whaling and not the everyday life of the whalers. The use of **go ashore** ‘a copper pot used in cooking’,
copper Maori ‘an oven used by Maori’, and dust spreader ‘blanket’ are examples of words coined by whalers that fall outside the scope of this study. Whaling undoubtedly comes with a distinctive terminology and the descriptive journal of Browning (1856), who sailed a whaling ship around the Pacific including New Zealand, is a significant source of vocabulary that has taken on a new meaning in the whaling domain. Examples include coach ‘boy who helps to mince blubber’, case ‘upper part of a whale’s head’, scraps ‘blubber from oil which has been boiled’, gully ‘slime from a whale’s skin’, try out ‘obtain the oil from the blubber’. However, this language is not confined to New Zealand English.

Distinctive lexical items may be restricted due to the heavily international nature of whaling. Whaling occurs in deep waters between national boundaries. People searched the globe for the valuable mammal and therefore a common global lexis developed. There was undoubtedly a fluidity between Australia and New Zealand, but also between England, America and New Zealand with regard to whaling. However, the limited appearance of distinctive whaling terms in the documents surveyed does not necessarily reflect its absence in the daily life of whalers. It may reflect a lack of recording. The records which survive are often of whaling station owners who were not involved in the day to day catching of whales, and their records refer to the business side of whaling. Practitioners often did not leave written records. Another factor is that the written reminiscences which are available, such as that of Heberley (1878), are somewhat stilted, and the writers appear to have made a conscious effort to use a formal register, which may restrict the use of colloquialisms they shared with their peers. Nevertheless, the cluster of words relating to whaling is significant, if not as numerous as predicted.

5.5.2 From naming to managing

Another area with a notable change in quantity over time is that of terms relating to the regulation of the marine environment. The first legislation occurs in the 1860s but the terms to describe regulation, such as close season and limit bag, were ones brought over with settlers and not of distinctive New Zealand English usage. While there are only three items found relating to the management of the marine environment in the time periods until 1945 (namely Marine Department, stalling and blocking), there are no less than 50 lexical items relating to management in the
1976-2005 time period alone. The rise in fishing as an industry is accompanied by increasing regulation. From the 1980s, the Quota Management System (QMS), whereby fisheries are construed as property owned by people in possession of quota, was introduced. While this system was not unique to New Zealand, it was like many of the privatisation schemes developed in the 1980s, introduced rapidly and applied more broadly than elsewhere (Straker, Kerr and Hendy, 2002). Moreover, because New Zealand’s fishery is based on a variety of fish rather than a few large fisheries as is common elsewhere (Paul, 2000: 187), specific measures were required. The distinctive use of non-QMS species shows that fisheries remaining outside the system was not the norm. The growth in items relating to the management of the fisheries is deliberately emphasised in the following citation from the commercial fishing magazine *Catch* (1987, September: 14): “The FIN holder has to complete a Catch Landing Log (CLL), the quota holder - the one with the QRN - has to fill in a monthly Quota Management Report (QMR), and the LFRN holder is responsible for a Licensed Fish Receivers Return (LFRN”).

A significant shift has occurred from the early colonial period when legal discussion was restricted to “legalizing stalling, or the use of staked nets in the estuaries and tidal inlets of the Auckland district” (*AJHR* 1914, H15c: 12) or a man being fined £1 for taking small blue cod, then the charge being dropped with “the Magistrate stating that he would give him the benefit of the doubt” (*AJHR* 1896, H15: 4). Rather, deemed values are charged if a person exceeds their TACC (this will be apparent in their Quota Management Report), with cases heard at the Quota Appeal Authority. Full scale investigations, such as Operation Pacman, are undertaken to curb poaching lest a PMITQ should be exceeded. Cannon (1987: 271) comments that few linguists have properly recognised that vocabulary growth reflects social change, but perhaps less discussed and of equal significance is how language shapes change. The use of a variety of acronyms and multi-word combinations helps to construct the activity of fishing as a complex system. The sea’s fish, which were once perceived as free to all (or to the first people to catch them), have come to be regarded as a resource to be owned, managed, and exploited to the maximum sustainable level. This in turn necessitates the need for complex regulations and systems, all giving rise to further lexical expansion.
Many of the distinctive regulation items in this time period result from the relationship between Maori, Pakeha, and the regulation of marine resources. In recent years, the rights of Maori to fisheries has emerged as “an issue of great national importance” (AJHR 1988, C5: 29). The implementation of the Quota Management System (1986) led to a marginalisation of Maori from the fishing industry (Taonui, 2004), which was thought to violate rights under the Treaty of Waitangi. This led to claims to the Waitangi Tribunal. The Tribunal’s findings resulted in large scale negotiation between Crown and iwi to establish a fisheries settlement. The ongoing negotiation is shaped by a significant number of lexical innovations. Some arise directly from the proceedings: POSA and PRESA refer to the fisheries assets belonging to Maori before and after the signing of the Sealord Deal, which arose from findings made by Te Ohu Kai Moana (alternatively the Treaty of Waitangi Fisheries Commission). Also arising from negotiations are official acknowledgement of customary fishing and customary take, which are given legal status via customary fishing regulations or Kai moana Customary Fishing Regulations, and administered by kaitiaki ‘individuals who allow customary fishing for cultural purposes’, and authorising officers, which is an early name for the same role. The implementation of traditional Maori concepts for managing the resources sees the adoption of taiapure ‘local fishery of customary importance’ and mataitai ‘a reserve’ (note that a fuller discussion of Maori borrowing is found in 6.6.1). The only borrowing from Maori related to management found in time frames before 1976 was rahui. Rahui was originally used in New Zealand English in the context of Maori culture, but is revived in this period for use in New Zealand regulation of the sea. The considerable presence of items relating to Maori and the management of the sea’s resources, and their absence in earlier years, points to the changing relationship between Maori and the Crown. As King (2003: 502) puts it, Maori have “become a far more visible component of every aspect of the country’s life”. The New Zealand English fisheries lexicon reflects and contributes to this presence.

5.5.3 Fish labels – changes in names and the increase in commercialisation
In New Zealand English, the labels used to name fish species are numerous, overlapping, and often appear arbitrary. However, there are patterns in use which provide insight into the nature of lexical innovation and society. As noted above, the naming of sea creatures is a major source of the early lexical innovation in this
domain. However, the naming of fish continues throughout the period investigated, and over a quarter of the lexical items from 1975 refer to creatures of the sea. While a few of these refer to referents which have just been discovered, for example **colossal squid** and **northern kahawai**, most of them do not (note that rare, newly discovered fish which are not utilised are excluded from this study as not being relevant to harvesting). It is interesting, therefore, to consider why innovation continues and what changes there are in the labels describing fish over time.

One notable feature is that a number of fish names entering New Zealand English appear to have been coined to deliberately hide or mislead. An attempt to use a label in order to create the belief that something exists is evident in the coining of combinations with **Karitane**, which appear in the AJHRs in the 1960s and 1970s. These combinations relate to crayfish which have been caught in the Karitane region. The people who fished for them argued that they were a different and smaller species of crayfish (which they were not). Rather than illegally sell undersized catches, it seemed preferable to perceive of them as a separate item – a smaller type of crayfish, **Karitane rock lobster**, which were subject to regulations based on **Karitane sizes** and which when tailed were marketed as **Karitane tails**. To give them a name gives weight to their existence. That which is named is something definable or as Singleton (2000: 125), echoing the early concept of hypostatisation, suggests, new lexical creations “presuppose the existence” of the conceived referent. This does appear to be a rather cynical attempt to coin a label to sidestep the law and mislead the public, although the short duration of the label suggests the attempt may not have been entirely successful.

A similar case emerges with oysters. When, in the 1880s, the exportation of rock oysters was prohibited, a new variety of oyster seemed to emerge: the **shore oyster** (AJHR 1887, H4: 5). However, this label only appears in the AJHRs in inverted commas or with the preface of “so-called”, reflecting that the label is not wholly accepted in an official capacity. There is reference to “the taking of the oyster which is stated to be the ‘shore’ and ‘mangrove’ oyster”, but which the Marine Department maintained was a rock oyster: “The department contends that such oysters are the same kind as rock oysters, and the term ‘rock’ is the name of the oyster and that it does not necessarily follow that such oysters grow on rocks” (AJHR 1887, H4: 5).
Creative oyster dealers maintained that the mangrove and shore oyster grew in different places to the rock oyster and were a different type in their own right. Again, the creative coining aimed to establish the existence of a new referent, a new type of oyster, one which was not included in the definition of oysters excluded from export. That this was briefly upheld in court shows how misplaced the adage “it’s just a name” is; the new labels certainly influenced the conceptualisation of oysters.

From 1945, deep sea emerges as a modifier of various fish. This appears to be applied to fish which are unknown to, or unpopular with, the public. The final two time periods investigated encompass an era of greater exploration of the oceans around New Zealand, and deep sea therefore implies newly discovered fisheries. In the Sunday Star Times (2006, April 23: A1) a fishmonger defending his use of deep sea hapuku reveals: “It's a marketing thing .. I don't imagine people would buy it [if it was called cardinal]”. In a further example of the use of this modifier, the Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species (2007: 102) explains that “deepsea dory .. are not members of the Zeidae family (true dories) despite their market name”. The fluid nature of such names is revealed by another fishmonger: “I also fell into a hole when one week the deep sea cod is monkfish, and the next week it was ribaldo” (New Zealand Geographic 1998, July-September: 124). Here, the social environment (current views of particular fish) influences the creation of the label (one which disguises or enhances a species), and the language in turn influences the perception of the environment.

Furthermore, throughout the time period investigated, there are various changes in the use of labels for fish which reveal a growing commercialisation of marine resources. The use of names in the AJHRs is a good gauge of the ‘official’ name employed for a fish. One example of note is dogfish, which is found in the first time period examined. There are numerous references to this fish as a pest and the following type of comment is common: “dogfish of fair size were then numerous, and when caught in the nets tore them considerably” (AJHR 1935, H15: 21). Dogfish were clearly not viewed as eating fish. Dogfish is the only name employed in the AJHRs until the 1940s. However, from this time it appears on a table of fish caught for sale, but its name has changed to pioke, dogfish appearing only occasionally in brackets. The Maori name has none of the connotations that ‘dog’ brings to mind for an English
When this fish begins to be increasingly popular as a frying fish it undergoes a further change and is exported (along with elephant fish) as white fillets, a label which appears to deliberately hide the origin of the species; and then separately as lemonfish (AJHR 1962, I 19: 84). While dogfish served adequately to label a fish considered a net-tearing pest, it does not survive the fish’s transformation to a valuable commercial item.

Likewise, leatherjacket is frequently referred to in the AJHR from 1903. Initially, it was not much esteemed, but figures in the tables documenting values of respective seafood items reflect its growing commercial value from the 1940s. Coinciding with this increase in value is the coining of creamfish to label this species. By 1957, creamfish is used exclusively in these official documents. Hoki appears in Hector’s discussion of fishes in 1872, but the earliest mention of this fish in the AJHRs is under the label whiptail in 1962, and as Paul (2001:61) comments, it was thought to be valueless. However, as it becomes more commercially important, it receives a change in name in the AJHRs to hoki in the 1970s, an instance of an old label being reclaimed for official use. It is hoki which is the commonly used name for the fish today and no reminder of the worthless whiptail is evident. In the final two time periods, crayfish also undergoes a change, when in 1969, rock lobster appears in brackets. In the following year, it is crayfish which appears in brackets, and from the 1970s rock lobster dominates. As the export market for crayfish tails to the United States grew, the Fishing Industry Board explicitly stated a name change was required (AJHR 1969, H15a: 9) in order to increase the appeal to overseas destinations. In the final time periods, from 1946-2005, a change in fish labels emerges in conjunction with the growing importance of fishing as an industry. After World War Two, the supply of food is considered a priority and there begins to be a feeling that New Zealanders should utilise an increasing range of fish and fish products in their diet. The coining of appealing fish names is part of building a perception of our marine environment as a provider of a diverse range of food.

These examples also point to an acknowledgement that there is a link between the label used and our perception of its referent. If, like Kuiper (1993:225), we favour a “soft Whorfian theory”, whereby the terms used are responsible for "inculcating or at least sustaining" people’s attitudes, then the recent terms used for describing fish
construe them as pleasing foods. It would certainly be hard to deny that **fillet of creamfish** conjures up a more pleasant tactile experience than **fillet of leatherjacket**. An exotic **surimi** salad is likely to be more appealing than one of **processed fished bits**. In the coining of trade names such as **creamfish**, **lemonfish**, and **butterfish**, we see the features which humans value in them as a resource being emphasised; that is, their edibility. This seems to support Nwige’s assertion that “names give expression to human experience and economic interests, rather than the essences of thing” (2001: 6).

It is worth noting that this orientation towards fish as a commercial commodity in later years is compounded by the way that fish are described. Fill (2001: 49) discusses how natural phenomena tend to be named from the perspective of their usefulness to humans, and their construction as resources for humans is perpetuated by the language used. The description of fish size illustrates a measurement relative to human interest (note that amongst these, only **panny** is a New Zealandism). An **undersized fish** is not one which is too thin for its own health, but one whose weight is below the legal size to be caught and sold. The mention of **pannies** ‘smallish snapper just right for cooking’ clearly describes the ultimate destination of the referent. The coining of **rough fish** and **prime fish** (*AJHR* 1962, I19: 17) is not reflective of intrinsic features of the fish, but how they are perceived by the public. Hence, while **tarakihi** was **rough fish** in Dunedin, it was considered **prime fish** in Wellington, and while snapper was **rough fish** in Wellington, it was **prime fish** in Auckland. These are labels which emphasise the economic usefulness of their referents.

While there appears to be growing commercialisation of the marine resources (the catch of finfish doubled within five years in the 1970s (*AJHR* 1979, C6: 5)), there is evidence of lexical innovation which downplays this exploitation by adopting language which distances the reader from viewing fish as living creatures. In the early *AJHRs*, for example, fish are frequently **caught** and **killed**, seals and whales are **slaughtered** and there is **destruction** of oyster populations. Of **toheroa**, it is mentioned that their “**deaths** were taking place in their natural habitat” (*AJHR* 1938, H15: 31) and there is an admission that “fishing must inevitably **kill** fish and so diminish the fish population” (*AJHR* 1945, H15: 11). When more efficient fishing
methods are introduced it is stated that they are “from the point of view of the fish, more deadly” (AJHR 1945, H15: 11). These are direct references to fish as living creatures and the acceptability of killing them. It is difficult to imagine the point of view of the fish being mentioned in later volumes. Instead, the language appears to remove the idea that fish are living at all. In the final time period (1976-2005) fish are hidden within the label of quota, and TACCs ‘total allowable commercial catch’, which construes the fish as a piece of property. The number of fish caught is obscured by GMITQ ‘the minimum amount of a fish species a quota holder is eligible to catch’, and rather than being killed, they are processed and produced – labels usually reserved for man-made resources. A fish species whose numbers are falling is exploited at, or near, “the maximum sustainable level” (AJHR 1980, C6: 5) suggesting that fish are a renewable resource. Deaths of sea lions are obscured within MALFIRM ‘maximum allowable fishing related mortality’. These terms have the effect of distancing us from the activity of fishing and as Penman (2001: 151) suggests they exclude the active participation of human beings. This is referred to by Jacobsen (2004: 68) as “deanimating” or “deanimalizing”, which she argues spares the consumer from the moral dilemma of taking lives. Rather than merely reflecting a social change in fishing, these lexical innovations influence our view of the marine world and frame it as another industrial resource available for consumption by humans. This view, in turn, influences how we treat the sea and its creatures.

There is an increased awareness in society of the need to protect the environment. Yet, at the same time, the desire for economic growth, supported by industries such as fishing remains. This is evident in the role of the Ministry of Fisheries, which is charged with the dual role of sustaining and optimising New Zealand’s fisheries. By diluting the language which refers to the capture of fish there is less emphasis on the details of fishing which may detract from their conservation role. The exploitation still remains but the lexis used to describe it obscures its extent.

5.6 Conclusion

In a country such as New Zealand, it is unsurprising that many of the lexical innovations emerge in the early years of European settlement, when new items and practices are experienced for which the speakers of English have no current
vocabulary. However, it is also apparent that lexical innovation in New Zealand has continued well beyond the need to name the unfamiliar. The amount of lexical innovation appears linked to colonial New Zealand’s perception of itself as a nation. While an orientation towards Britain and the land coincides with a lower rate of regional vocabulary from the 1880s to the 1940s, from this time lexical innovation has increased rapidly. The New Zealandisms from this time are focused more on the social factors surrounding the marine environment and play a role in creating our perception of the sea and its inhabitants. From right whale to white fillets, our distinctive lexis frames our relationship to the environment. As part of a global community in which trends are seldom isolated, the concerns in New Zealand are certainly shared. The emergence of trade names in conjunction with a growing commodification of the marine environment, an increasing role of indigenous people in the management of resources, and ongoing regulation surrounding the taking of the sea’s resources are certainly important factors outside New Zealand. However, the continued lexical innovation in this domain of New Zealand English indicates an approach to marine harvesting born in New Zealand in response to local conditions. Because these conditions are dynamic, lexical innovation is likely to continue.

There has been considerable discussion of the impact that increasing globalisation is having on regional varieties of English. Concern among the public that Americanisation is extinguishing our local variety is not uncommonly expressed. A recent column in the Dominion Post (2009, Jan. 6: B5) puts it thus: “like noxious introduced weeds, American terms are invading the linguistic landscape and threatening to render our distinctive form of English extinct”. This horticultural description may seem extreme. However, amongst experts in regional Englishes, there is also recognition of a homogenising influence on the English language. As noted in section 1.1, Trudgill (2002: 149) claims that at the level of lexis “English looks set to become increasingly homogenised”, and argues that this is currently visible. Ramson (2002: 247) states that “English is a ‘World language’, and that the regional components are likely to be of less and less importance as time goes on”. It is undeniable that the United States of America, given its global influence, is the likely source of many of the new words that enter our language. However, this does not necessarily mean that local lexical innovation is curtailed. The results of this study
suggest that, in this domain, global forces have not mitigated the need for continued lexical innovation at a regional level.
CHAPTER 6

HOW DO WE INNOVATE: A REGIONAL TYPOLOGY

In this chapter the results of the categorisation of the 660 lexical items identified are presented and discussed. The New Zealandisms in this study have been categorised according to Deverson’s (2000) typology for examining regional lexical innovation (see 4.7.2 for table and examples). This typology provides one means of addressing the motivation for lexical innovation and the form that innovation takes. By employing the same time periods described in Chapter 5, this chapter also examines whether and in what ways this innovation changes over time.

The chapter is organised in relation to the typology. The discussion focuses on various trends evident in the data rather than discussing every finding in detail. The discussion is organised as follows:

1) In which types do the lexical innovations cluster?
   a) new words
      - for unique referents
      - for shared referents
   b) semantic shift
      - split between additional and substitute meanings
   c) unique versus shared referents

2) What changes have there been in this clustering over time?
   a) changes in the split between new words and semantic shift
   b) changes in the split between shared and unique referents

3) What are the most common forms of neologising, and how have they changed over time?
6.1 In which Types do the Innovations Cluster?

The table below shows the 660 lexical items identified in this study categorised according to Deverson’s (2000) typology. Appendix F shows the full list of items occurring in each type. Each major finding relating to the categorisation will be discussed in turn.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Percentage of total number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>New word / unique referent</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>43.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>New word / shared referent</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>16.36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Additional meaning / unique referent</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>11.97%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Additional meaning / shared referent</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>6.21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Substitute meaning / unique referent</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>17.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Substitute meaning / shared referent</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.94%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2 New Words

Combining Types 1 and 2, as shown in Table 6.2 overleaf, reveals that over 60% of the lexical innovation identified in this domain occurs through the coining and borrowing of new words while almost 40% of the items have transferred meanings. This is similar to the findings of Deverson (2000), when he categorised 321 (almost 7%) of the headwords in Orsman and Orsman (1994). In his study, new words accounted for 56.1% of the words categorised, compared with 43.9% for existing words with new meanings. New words are the more distinctive element of lexical innovation, containing items including borrowings, acronyms and combinations that
are found only in New Zealand English. They constitute items which are born in the environment of their intended use.

**Table 6.2: New words versus semantic shift**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Percentage of total items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New words</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>60.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantic shift</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>39.70%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.1 The prevalence of new words for unique referents

In this study, Type 1, new words employed to name unique referents, is the most productive Type by a considerable amount. As shown in Table 6.1, coining or borrowing new terms for unique referents accounts for nearly 44% of all lexical innovation. We might expect that this category would dominate as it is frequently argued that new words are coined to label what has not been labelled in a particular language before. In this domain, naming features of the environment (mainly marine inhabitants) is a significant component of the lexical innovation. When, as was the situation in New Zealand, many of those referents have already been named by an indigenous people, new words may be added to the settler language through borrowing. Hence, *ahuru, moki, toheroa*, and *tuatua*, names for endemic species utilised by Maori, were readily available for settlers who had no name of their own. Combining familiar elements and creating abbreviations are also used in New Zealand English to describe that which is distinctive (as is discussed in 6.6). Hence Bluff oyster, bastard trumpeter, and YEM (yellow-eyed mullet) are all coined to name entities within New Zealand’s unique marine life.

New coinings surrounding new ways of doing things is also a source of lexical innovation, and clusters of these are found in specific areas. For example, they are evident in aquaculture, an industry which is reliant on the trial and error of techniques that suit local conditions. In the early 1900s, the Auckland rock oyster was cultivated on departmental farms and stick oysters cultivated on sticks were sold at the Government oyster depot – the only outlet which could legally sell rock oysters. More recently, mussel cultivation with the help of Spanish lace and mussock (the only blend identified in this study), both invented in New Zealand to aid spat
settlement, has resulted in lexical extension. Aquaculture in New Zealand is characterised by experimentation and invention, and it appears fruitful for new terms which emerge and change quickly. *Spat* is an element in a number of these coinings. *Spat stick, spatted stick, and spating stick* all occur for a limited time, before *spat stick* dominates. *Spat farms, spat sticks, and Kaitaia spat* all play a role in assisting cultivation, while the *mussel farmer’s waltz* helps to prepare the final product. These new lexical items help to shape a culture of innovation – what is frequently referred to as New Zealand’s ‘number 8 fencing wire’ mentality.

### 6.2.2 New words for shared referents

New words are also adopted to label items that are widely distributed, and Type 2 accounts for the third largest amount of lexical innovation, at 16.36%. Sometimes a unique label identifies a particular feature of a referent which is salient in a New Zealand context. Hence, *kahawai bird* – a seabird which in New Zealand waters eats the prey of kahawai and therefore helps locate this sought after local fish – is given a distinctive name. The application of local nicknames also accounts for the prevalence of new words for shared things. The hypocoristic *humpie*, an affectionate term for the endangered humpback whale, *swordy* ‘swordfish’, and the jocular *old identity* all apply here. *Old identity* was coined to label *barracouta* in Dunedin, where it was applied because this fish was a too familiar sight on some menus. Items such as *New Zealand whaler* give a sense of place to shared referents (however misguided, given the widespread occurrence of the referent). The use of te reo Maori also ensures that many new items will apply to shared referents. Hence, *kai moana* and *seafood* coexist, and *sea urchin* and *kina* both occur. The use of the latter contributes a distinctive New Zealand quality to the following citation: “It’s good tucker, but doesn't hold a candle to kina pie” (*NZFN* 1980, 2: 10. 5). New terms for shared referents account for a significant amount of lexical innovation, and it is in these New Zealand English labels that we see a particular perspective on shared referents which is indicative of their place or context within a New Zealand landscape.

### 6.3 Semantic Shift

While new words dominate the lexical innovation in this domain, semantic shift is also considerable, accounting for nearly 40% of the New Zealandisms identified, as
shown in Table 6.2. This shift in meaning occurs when words are given an additional meaning, and when they are given a substitute meaning in a regional variety. While these items are a less obvious feature of lexical innovation, utilising existing words, they are nonetheless significant in number and impact. Items such as **snapper**, **blue cod**, and **crayfish**, all examples of semantic shift, are central to discourse in this domain because of the importance of their referents.

### 6.3.1 Substitution versus additional meanings

The findings of this study differ from those of Deverson (2000), in that substitute innovations (Types 5 and 6), where words attain new senses at the expense of existing ones, were more common in this study, than the addition of an extra meaning (Type 3 and 4). Type 3 items, such as **diamond** and **square** (flatfish shaped like a diamond and square respectively), have an additional meaning which has been inspired by one of the attributes of their referents, in this case their shape. A **moocher** ‘large snapper’ is named for its slow movements, **rasp** ‘banded parrotfish’ for the noise it makes, **gumboot** for the blue shark’s disinclination to put up a fight, while **black gold** emphasises the value of New Zealand’s distinctively coloured **paua**. However, more common in this domain is Type 5 which accounted for the second highest number of lexical innovations (about 17% of all New Zealandisms). This clustering points to the number of items that have been given labels available to the European settlers in English, which are applied to similar referents in a new environment. This may occur by mistake, as Moore (2008: 22) suggests is the case with the naming of some of Australia’s flora and fauna. Alternatively, it may occur because the referents are similar in some way to those which had been known by the early settlers. **Brill**, **butterfish**, and **coalfish** all label fish which bear some resemblance to those that New Zealand’s English speaking settlers had left behind.

Being labelled for a Northern Hemisphere namesake has made a larger lexical impact on New Zealand English in this domain than extending the meaning of existing words to describe features of a unique referent. The large quantity of substitute meanings may be indicative of the new country being viewed through the lens of the English language of its settlers, so that a label which describes a familiar referent is more likely than looking to the referent itself and naming it for features particular to it. Arthur (2003: 8), in discussing English in Australia, argues that it is a second
language not only for the inhabitants but also for the landscape. From this perspective, the substitute meanings highlight the discrepancy between the colonial language and the place in which it is being used.

When considering the division between additional and substitute meanings, it is important to note that a new word or word / meaning relation does not instantly appear and attain wide currency at the expense of another. Turner (1966: 44) points out that “the dating of words by dictionaries promotes a misconception that words always have a moment of birth, and typically a single creator who is imitated”, when in reality “there is often competition between alternative forms for a time”. Aitchison (2001: 124) describes the “cuckoo scenario”, whereby a new meaning coexists with an old meaning for a certain time before pushing out the existing meaning. This certainly exists in this domain in examples of semantic shift. Frequently, the British species of a fish coexisted as a referent with the New Zealand species of a fish. Over time however, the British species is replaced. An example to illustrate this is *turbot*, which is referred to throughout the time period investigated. Hector (1872:117) mentions that “a large flat fish, said to resemble the Patiki, has been brought to the market and sold as Turbot”. This statement carries the implication that the fish for sale is not turbot even though *turbot* clearly has some currency. In the following year the *West Coast Times* (1873, June 7th: 3) advertises sales “consisting of .. New Zealand turbot”, which serves to differentiate the fish caught here from the turbot of Britain. Later, the *AJHR* (*H15*: 9) suggest that the “so-called turbot” of New Zealand waters is “very unlike turbot” – whereby *turbot* is the British referent. The use of ‘so-called’ reveals the perception that any use of *turbot* for the New Zealand referent has been rather casually applied and is dubious. In 1935 it is said that “English turbot frequent shallow bays” while “New Zealand turbot” do not. Here, both referents are conceptualised within the label *turbot*, and modification is required to clarify which is intended. However, by 2006, a newspaper reports: “I had the turbot” (*Sunday Star Times Magazine*, February 26th: 44) – no modifier is necessary and the fish of New Zealand waters is being referred to. Illustrated here is how semantic shift is not necessarily immediate and total, but rather meaning is “reshaped, not by decree but through ongoing interaction in the semiotic contexts of daily life” (Halliday, 2003: 417).
6.3.2 Semantic shift to coining

It is also interesting to note that a number of items categorised as semantic shift in periods one and two (until 1855), reappear in combinations which constitute coinings in the following time period. Hence, **cod, flounder, herring, mackerel, mullet**, and **trumpeter** first appear as semantic shift (Types 3-6) in the period to 1855. Then they reappear modified in the following time period, as, **Cloudy bay cod, yellow-belly flounder, Picton herring, English mackerel** (strangely, because this is an endemic fish), **Auckland mullet**, and **bastard trumpeter**. Modifiers have been added which add more specificity. The following citation reveals how **sole**, applied to a variety of flatfish becomes more delineated with time: “this fish is popularly known as the lemon sole to distinguish it from *Peltorhamphus nova-zealandiae*…which the local fishermen call the English sole” (*TrNZI* 1905, 38: 543). Ramson (2002: 232) refers to the way in which flora and fauna in Australia “were seen through eyes which sought to identify some characteristic which they had known in their ‘old world’ days”. He cites as evidence of this the use of compounds, with one element stressing a resemblance to the British referent, while a modifier highlights the distinguishing feature, as apparent in **bush canary**. Such a stance is certainly evident in the New Zealand of the time also (as will be further discussed in 6.5.2). Nevertheless, these modified items do contribute to a more detailed description of the marine world in New Zealand, with an increased appreciation of the diversity of its marine life. They demonstrate the increasing adaptation of the English language to the new environment, albeit with an eye turned to the colonial homeland. An article in the *Evening Post* (1908, March 5: 6) states that “the flounder has always been popular in New Zealand, but its lovers have been saddened by a fear that their friend was likely to become rare”. By 1969, we have a distinction made between the different fish bundled within the general label **flounder**: “Three varieties of flounder are caught in New Zealand. The Sand Flounder … is caught on sand and often found in large river estuaries” (*New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer's Guide*, 1969: 9). Here, **flounder** is delineated into different types via the use of modifiers, and the habits of each are acknowledged. This finer delineation is necessary for a fuller understanding and more responsible utilisation of the marine environment.
6.3.3 Uncommon innovation: semantic shift for shared referents

While the findings from this study differ from those of Deverson’s (in that substitute meanings outnumber additional), they match with Deverson in that Type 5 (where the referent is unique to New Zealand) is much more common than Type 6. In both studies Type 6 is the least common Type. Unsurprisingly, semantic shift for items that are not unique to New Zealand, Types 4 and 6, are the least represented, as shown in Table 6. In this study, it was unusual for an item which exists elsewhere to be called by a different, already existing name in New Zealand English. It does occur infrequently, so that bluenose is used in New Zealand to name Hyperoglyphe Antarctica, a fish which is found in a variety of waters and described by different names, while bluenose is used elsewhere to describe fish not found in New Zealand. This is a situation which causes obvious confusion. It has been much more common for lexical innovation to cluster in Types 3 and 5, where existing labels are applied to unique referents in New Zealand. For example, the endemic blue cod of New Zealand waters is given a name commonly applied to other fish elsewhere. As mentioned in section 4.3.1, Hector (AJHR 1870, D9: 3) noted the somewhat confused labelling of fish in New Zealand, adding that the common names in English “seldom indicate their correct affinity”. That Type 6 does account for 26 items (or nearly 4%) is particular evidence of Hector’s claim.

6.4 Why does Innovation Occur?

This section addresses whether the naming of unique or shared referents is most prevalent in the lexical innovation in this domain.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6.4: Unique versus shared referents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique referents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared referents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.4 reveals that in this domain, lexical innovation is overwhelmingly centred on referents which are unique to New Zealand, with almost three quarters of the lexical items categorised as Types 1, 3, or 5. The dominance of unique referents in this study
differs from the results found by Deverson (2000). In Deverson’s study, while items with New Zealand specific reference also outnumbered those with broader reference, it was only by 52.6% to 47.4%. It may be that this domain, with a significant component being physical features of the environment, contains a greater number of unique referents than the broader pool of lexical innovations in New Zealand English. Also, Deverson’s results were based on headwords from Orsman and Orsman (1994), a work in which there is considerable nesting. It may be that the nesting, which often relates to modified headwords, contains a greater number of the distinctive referents. The difference may also be attributable to a different set of criteria for deciding to which category an item should be allocated. As Deverson (2000: 36) notes, “there is a grey area in referents as in words themselves .. between those to be regarded as distinctive and those not”. In this study, the decision was made to allocate the labels given to fish which frequent the waters between New Zealand and Australia (and there is a considerable number of these) to the unique referent category (note that these are marked ♦ in Appendix F). This has affected the unique / shared referent balance. Finally, it is easier to identify and confirm an item with a unique New Zealand referent as being a New Zealandism. It is therefore possible, that despite attempts to check a very large variety of terms which seemed in any way distinctive, the editorial role of identifying unique items played some role.

Nevertheless, the heavy concentration of items in the unique referent Types is what we might expect for a regional variety of English. It is that which is specific to an area which requires a unique label or a unique label / referent relationship. Especially prevalent in this domain is the naming of marine inhabitants which are unique to New Zealand. Endemic species of fish and seaweed are the source of considerable lexical innovation. Fish such as lemon sole and blue cod, seaweed such as karengo and rimurapa, shellfish such as toheroa, and dolphins such as Hector’s dolphin are all unique referents that require a label which will inevitably (whether it be a new word or existing one) be distinctive to New Zealand English. Many of these referents represent particular species or sub-species of families which are found elsewhere.

However, it is important to note that the number of unique referents is considerably lower than the number of labels used to describe them. The 393 items identified in this study which are labels for fish, are linked to only 134 referents. That is, there are
almost three times as many labels as referents. A significant feature of the clustering in this area then, is that a number of unique referents are given numerous labels. For example, **Bluff oyster** has the alternate names of **dredge oyster, Foveaux Strait oyster,** and **Stewart Island oyster.** The same species of snapper is variously **moocher, New Zealand golden snapper, panny, school snapper,** and **tai.** **Butterfish** is also known as **kelpfish** and **marari.** Some names involve a bundling of referents, such as **white fillets,** which includes **elephant fish** and **pioke,** while **tio** is used in New Zealand English to denote a variety of oysters.

There are several reasons for the existence of multiple labels for a single referent. Some labels have regional preference, for example **groper** (southern New Zealand), and **hapuku** (northern). The greater population of Maori in the North Island may have influenced the dominance of the Maori borrowing **hapuku** in that region, though it would be unwise to place much stock in one example. There are many other English and Maori labels with a less obvious regional usage, including **tuari** and **blind eel, patiki** and **flounder,** which contribute to the multi-labelling. Other labels with a notable regional variation are **butterfish** and **kelpfish; piper** and **garfish; kingfish** and **yellowtail.** Such regional variation has been noted by writers of nomenclatures on the subject, and Graham (1956:172) complains of “a regrettable lack of unity in vernacular names [of fish]”. It may be that two labels coexist in two locations, but the one which gains greater currency varies from one area to the other. Also, fishers working in their particular region may have accorded a name to a species with little reason to consider the name applied to it elsewhere. Once applied the name can become established and take root, even when an awareness of regional difference is known. Holmes (2004: 83) refers to such a case: “in the North Island of New Zealand a yellowtail is a kingfish - always has been and, as far as I can see, always will be”. The regional variation is a notable feature of the discourse, and contributes to the perception of a confused array of labelling.

Some labels applied may be considered nicknames and have arisen in conjunction with specific events or circumstances. **Red gold** emerged as a label for **crayfish** as it gained in value and was feverishly chased during the **crayfish boom.** The label would have made little sense in the 19th century. **Megrim,** a bony fish thought unpleasant to eat, received the regional name of **cadger’s fish** as it was cunningly given to people
who asked for free flounder on the wharves. These coinings situate the referents within a New Zealand context and connect them to stories in New Zealand’s history.

Re-labelling items with alternative names conducive to trade is another reason for multi-labels. As suggested in 5.5.3, the use of labels helps to shape our perception of a species. Paul (2000: 239) states: “Often a name has become an integral part of our attitude towards a particular species and has emotive as well as descriptive significance”. So, for example, crays are caught for personal use while rock lobster are for trade, as is evident in the following citations: “we could catch crays to eat all right, but no one ever thought of it as a commercial thing” (Hargreaves, 1998: 96), compared with “the only crustacean other than rock lobster which is becoming commercially significant at this time is the paddle crab…” (NZOYB, 1985: 472). As previously noted, labels such as creamfish, lemonfish, and white fillets emerged with a growing interest in exports, and help to construe marine life as a desirable consumer product. Hence, the large number of unique referents is not indicative of the quantity of marine life which is specific to New Zealand, so much as how variously we have named it.

Areas that have taken on a particular significance in some parts of New Zealand have also generated lexical innovation. For example, in addition to whaling, in the area of muttonbirding a cluster of distinctive referents has emerged from the unique culture surrounding the taking of muttonbirds or titi. The Sunday Star Times puts it thus: “Muttonbirding is a closed shop, not quite a secret society, but covert, nobody else's business” (2005, May 21: A8). The muttonbird industry is not supposed to be a major commercial undertaking in the lives of Maori, but a right passed down from generation to generation. In New Zealand, muttonbirding is open only to those muttonbirders who by birthright have access to the titi. Different families have rights to different, remote muttonbird islands, the access to which is often treacherous. The birds were once stored in poha titi or muttonbird bags made of bull kelp or rimurapa, and the birds (sold in fish and chip shops) are eaten and also utilised for muttonbird oil. Such clusters point to practices that have developed a special cultural significance in parts of New Zealand.
The naming of distinctive features of the physical landscape is a definite reason for lexical innovation. However, in this domain the renaming and reconceptualising of these features, which is part of an evolving perception of the environment, is also a significant component of the regional lexis. In addition to the physical landscape, the social framework which surrounds fishing as an industry and the significant role of Maori in this, also necessitates and is framed by lexical innovation. In this sense, the reason that lexical innovation is so heavily dominated by unique referents is not that our landscape is so vastly different but that subtle differences lead us to conceptualise it in subtly different ways.

6.5 Changes in Type of Innovation Over Time

Table 6.5 below shows how the clustering into Types has changed with time. Appendix G provides the complete list of words in each Type. The following discussion focuses on particular trends that emerge from this table. It reflects how New Zealand’s relationship to the marine environment has evolved in conjunction with the adaptation of English to a new land.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>New word / unique referent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>New word / shared referent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Additional word / unique referent</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.5.1 Unique versus shared referents

As evident in Table 6.5.1 below, in the area of shared versus unique referents, the percentage varies moderately and with little pattern over time. The overall average for unique referents is 73.18%, and the lowest percentage of unique referents is 63.66%, from 1796-1825, to a high of 78.57%, from 1856-1885. While the whole time period examined is consistent, in that lexical innovation to label referents which are unique to New Zealand form the majority of the items identified, the reasons for this may vary over time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Frame</th>
<th>Unique referents</th>
<th>Shared referents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1796-1825</td>
<td>63.66%</td>
<td>36.34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1826-1855</td>
<td>69.60%</td>
<td>30.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1856-1885</td>
<td>78.57%</td>
<td>21.43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1886-1915</td>
<td>71.43%</td>
<td>28.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1916-1945</td>
<td>69.64%</td>
<td>30.36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1946-1975</td>
<td>74.31%</td>
<td>25.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976-2005</td>
<td>76.72%</td>
<td>23.28%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first two periods have the greatest percentage of shared referents. Whaling has provided some terms that are distinctive, or which have taken on special meaning here because of how they were used, although their referents are not unique to New Zealand. For example, the early and extended use of blanket ‘a large sheet of blubber’ and the conversion of this to a verbal noun, give distinctiveness to common practices. However, the slightly larger proportion of lexical innovation for things
which are present outside New Zealand, in this period, is largely attributable to the coexistence of Maori and English labels. During this time of early contact, the use of Maori was not limited to those items which the English speakers had no name for themselves. Frequently a Maori and English name co-exist for shared referents, so that citations such as the following are common: “The fishing yielded three crayfish, and a tuari or blind eel; and we proceeded next day heavily laden with mamaku in addition to our potatoes” (*Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle* 1846, October 17: 130), and “The tohora (*balaena antipodum*) or right whale, was very abundant” (1855 Taylor, 1855: 396). Also co-occurring in this period are *haku* and *kingfish*, *kupenga* and *fishing net*, *matau* and *fish hook*. The use of both labels for non-unique referents suggests an empathy to, or influence by, Maori culture. This period of close contact with Maori, who were dominant both numerically and in knowledge of the landscape, led to a reading of the environment which was accessed (to some extent) via a Maori perspective.

In contrast, the period from 1856-1885 has the highest percentage of unique referents, at nearly 80%. This was a time of continued exploration, so that unique features of the environment were still being discovered by early European settlers (whether or not they were already known to Maori) and labelled. It was a time in which notable scientists, such as Hector, were taking a scientific stock list of the wildlife of New Zealand and documenting previously unknown species. A report from the *North Otago Times* (1869, August 27: 4) records a not uncommon scenario: “Some little time ago there was washed up on the beach near the landing-place a strange fish, to which we are unable to give a name, though we have heard it termed a ‘soldier fish’”. During this period, aspects of the physical world which were distinctive to New Zealand were still being encountered by the European settlers. Hence, it may be expected that this time period would yield the highest quantity of unique referents.

The next highest percentage of unique referents (over 75%) occurs in the final period, from 1976-2005. The reasons for this are less obvious. We would expect to find fewer discoveries in the physical environment, during this period. However, there are some discoveries, and also a further delineation of some known species. In addition to *kahawai*, there is *northern kahawai* which according to Paul (2000:93) was only recognised as a separate species in the early 1990s. Similarly, the *white warehou*
was a late find. The existence of the **colossal squid**, named by a New Zealand scientist, was another recent confirmation. More significant in number though, is the ongoing naming of unique referents (as discussed in 6.4). So in this time period for example, **snapper** now gains the additional labels of **panny, schoolie, and ike jime snapper**. These join the trade oriented labels **ceremonial snapper** and **New Zealand golden snapper** coined in the previous time period. The numerous labels for this fish are indicative of its ongoing importance commercially and recreationally. **Kahawai** has become a symbol for the right to fish recreationally and has been labelled **people's fish**. As previously mentioned, the coining of trade names to promote favourable connotations also accounts for additional labels for unique items. **Greenshell mussel** (more appealing to the North American market than **green-lipped mussels**) is a market name that coincides with a dramatic increase in export sales. **White fillets** provides a re-conceptualisation of several fish, including shark, into one edible fish product. Hence, in addition to the continued discovery and understanding of unique marine life, is the ongoing labelling of known referents.

However, more prominent in the distinctive referent category for this period are items relating to the social fabric surrounding fishing. Methods for responding to increased fishing result in terms such as **non-quota species, MALFIRM and TACC**. Organisations to manage resources such as **MFish, FMAC, and NAFMAC** also reflect a local response to fisheries issues. **Pre-settlement assets, post-settlement assets**, and **Kai moana Customary fishing regulations** relate directly to the consideration of Maori rights to the fisheries. All of these items point to issues that are significant globally: the rights of indigenous peoples, the conservation of endangered marine species, and regulating fisheries. However, the unique referents in New Zealand pinpoint the specific response generated by local conditions and shaped via lexical innovation. **Treaty of Waitangi Fisheries Commission**, referencing as it does the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840 could not be sensibly coined in any other variety of English. **Non-quota species**, which implicates as different those species which fall outside the Quota Management System, speaks of the rapid dominance that this widely used system acquired in New Zealand – a lexical trace of the extreme privatisation occurring in the 1980s. These unique referents illustrate the way that language continues to frame New Zealand’s evolving relationship with
marine harvesting, and how this is influenced by features of our particular social and physical environment.

6.5.2 New words versus semantic shift over time: English transplanted to English adapted

When the split between new words and semantic shift is addressed diachronically, as shown in Table 6.5.2 below, a clear trend emerges. That is, following a low from 1856-1885, there is a clear increase in the percentage of new words, with a corresponding decrease in semantic shift as a means of lexical innovation. Hence, new words account for 41.84% of innovation in the 1856-1885 period, and there is a steady increase reaching 79.37% in the 1976-2005 time period.

Table 6.5.2: New words versus semantic shift: percentage of each time frame

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New words</td>
<td>40.91%</td>
<td>52.80%</td>
<td>41.84%</td>
<td>48.18%</td>
<td>60.71%</td>
<td>62.39%</td>
<td>79.37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantic shift</td>
<td>59.09%</td>
<td>47.20%</td>
<td>58.16%</td>
<td>51.82%</td>
<td>39.29%</td>
<td>37.61%</td>
<td>20.63%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the second time period (1826-1855), 52.80% of the lexical innovation occurs via new words. During this time, which begins before official colonial settlement commenced, employing the local term to name an item was a common naming strategy. Borrowing from Maori was responsible for most of the new terms, accounting for 57 of the 66 new words (this is further discussed in 6.6.1). As this was a time when Maori were the dominant people and played a central role in trade and fishing, it might be expected that a considerable number of borrowings would be found here. These borrowings represent the adoption of labels that reflect a Maori perspective on the environment – the use of koura for fresh and marine water species, for example, combines creatures into one label that would be separated in the English language.

In the next time frame, there is a sharp decrease in neologising. Morris, (1898: xiii), states that it is new uses of old words rather than new words, which forms the bulk of
Australasian English. While this is not evident in this study as a whole, semantic shift is indeed the dominant means of innovation during the next two time periods (1856-1915). Making comparisons with things which are known is a typical strategy for naming a new environment. It is likely that, as Moore suggests (2008:22), semantic transference sometimes reflects a passing similarity and sometimes an error about the identity of an entity. Morris (1898: xii) rather bluntly emphasises the cause of error: “names were not given by the best educated in the community, but often by those least qualified to invent satisfactory names”, adding that “Australasian nomenclature is largely due to the ‘man in the bush’”. While lexis will develop where there is a need, and the non-specialist has a need to fill it as much as any scientist, there is some truth in Morris’s assertion. The impact on the labelling of the marine environment in New Zealand is described by Hector (AJHRs 1870, D9: 3): the common British names “are very vaguely applied to these fish, and seldom indicate their correct affinity”. In New Zealand, there is not quite the “world upside down” effect that is described in Australia by Moore (2008: 19) as European explorers were confronted by a vast array of wildly different creatures, evoking a “carnivalesque inversion of the natural order”. Rather, in New Zealand there is a marine world slightly skewed. Among items representing semantic shift are snapper, turbot, herring, and sole, so named in New Zealand for Northern Hemisphere fish to which they bore some resemblance, whether superficial or great.

One result of this transference was a perception that New Zealand fish were in some way imitations of the real thing. There are numerous references to New Zealand fish not being “true fish”. Native salmon (or kahawai, as it is almost exclusively called now) are described as “resembling the true salmon” (AJHR 1885, H15: 6). The only deep-sea species known at the time, the “so-called turbot”, is said to be “very unlike turbot” (AJHR 1885, H15: 9). Although there were fish referred to in New Zealand as herring, there is mention of establishing the ‘true herring’ in New Zealand. Mackeral in New Zealand is said to be “a good fish” but “much inferior in delicacy to the true mackerel” (AJHR 1870, D9: 5), while horse mackerel is said to be “somewhat like the true mackerel” (AJHR 1885, H15: 7). The implication is that there are fixed common names for fish in English which in New Zealand are being used wrongly. Also implicit, is that the New Zealand species are in some way abnormal and inferior to those of the colonial homeland. It is forcefully expressed in this
introductory comment, which refers to both marine and freshwater fish: “It seems strange that in the generally complete furnishing of the earth so much was left undone in New Zealand. It depends on acclimatization societies and individuals to remedy this defect” (AJHR 1892, H45: 3).

Turner (1966: 38) suggests that in looking at contact situations, the question posed is how English has been affected by a new environment. But it is also worth considering how English used in New Zealand has affected the perception of the environment. The difference in marine life between New Zealand and England was construed as a defect which ought to be mended and the ‘false’ use of names appears to frame them as anomalies. The acclimatisation societies’ attempts to remedy the ‘anomalies’, via the introduction of fish species, had the potential to wreak havoc with the marine environment (and did to freshwater life). Moreover, as Arthur (2006: 81) notes, the use of transferred names makes the existence of the creature in some way dependent on the existence of another, often unrelated European creature, rather than registering it as complete in itself. During these years, it is widely acknowledged that New Zealand was positioning itself towards England, creating a Britain in the Pacific and seeking to “emphasise the Britishness” of the colony (Macalister, 2005: xii) or as Ramson (2002: 232) puts it when discussing Australia, the settlers aimed “to make replicas of their past in the colonial homeland”. The use of transferred labels has the effect of shaping New Zealand as a skewed and substandard replica of the Northern hemisphere.

However, with time the amount of semantic shift decreases. In the last time period, around 75% of the lexical innovation results from new words. The increased neologising, at the expense of semantic shift, imparts a different quality to the discourse in this domain, a move from the world skewed and inferior, to one which is different in its own right. A sentence such as the following is unmistakably one written in New Zealand English: “The assets held by TOKM on behalf of iwi / Maori can be divided into two broad categories – pre-settlement asset (PRESA) and post-settlement asset (POSA) acquired as a result of the Deed of Settlement and the Sealord purchase” (NZOYB, 1996: 408). The following, likewise, has a New Zealand character: “The mātaitai must be of an appropriate size for effective management by Tāngata Whenua and the mātaitai cannot prevent commercial fishers from taking their
quota or ACE from the QMA for that species or prevent commercial fishers with a permit from taking non-QMS species from within the area of that permit” (Te Rūnanga o Ngāi Tahu Customary Fisheries Area Management Tools, 2007: 15).

Borrowings from te reo Maori are an important and visible feature of lexical innovation. However, acronyms including NAFMAC and POSA, other abbreviations such as puka, cloudie and humpie, and unique combinations such as Christmas tree rope, bird baffler, and transferable term quota, also combine to make the writing specific to fisheries in New Zealand. Maori / English hybrids, such as blue moki and iwi fisheries, also contribute to this effect. These are all terms with familiar elements, nevertheless they are ones which are born within the country in which they are used, and respond to and impact on the immediate environment. Mühlhäusler (2003) claims that English has an exotic element, and it enters countries foreign and unadapted to the local environment. From this perspective, ongoing neologising in a regional variety constitutes an adaption of the language to the local conditions, at the same time as it shapes it.

Hence, as New Zealand English has developed, it has adapted to and also framed the environment in which it exists. In this domain, after a brief period of looking to the local language to name the unfamiliar, there was a reliance on employing terms which were available in English and applying them to similar referents. The discrepancy between the language and the environment results in semantic shift. New Zealand was viewed from a colonial lens which rendered its marine world as an anomalous version of a British sea. However, with time, there has been an increasing tendency to build a vision of New Zealand’s marine environment, one which balances conservation and exploitation in an uneasy manner, via terms coined in the country of their intended use. These new words contribute to the perception of a marine environment that is different, rather than inferior.

6.6 What are the most common methods of neologising?

Table 6.6 shows the various methods for introducing new words (Types 1 and 2) in this domain. The most common form of neologising is combining, which accounts for 45.98% of all new words and 27.72% of all words identified. Borrowing from Maori accounts for 32.91% of all new words and 19.85% of all the words identified.
Maori / English hybrids, while considered part of combinations, have been separated so that it is possible to view them as part of the presence of Maori in this domain. At 33 items, they are notable in number. Different types of abbreviations were also significant. Many other word formation processes did not justify separate categories. The ‘Other’ category includes derivations, blends, conversions, and non-Maori borrowings. Some word formation processes are notable by their absence. It is perhaps surprising that phrasal verbs, a significant presence in Bardsley’s (2003) rural study were only rarely identified here. Furthermore, there is limited evidence of conversion in this domain. While many conversions, such as puration, recruitment, and eyeing, were identified in the fisheries discourse, few were found to be restricted to New Zealand usage.

Table 6.6: Methods for neologising: percentage of total new words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage of total new words (398 items)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maori borrowing</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>32.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combining</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>37.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Maori / English hybrids)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>8.29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8.54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypocoristics</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other abbreviations</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.54%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.6.1 Presence of Maori

As noted in section 6.6, borrowing from Maori is the second largest category of new items. Te reo Maori has played a significant role in the distinctive naming of the harvesting of the marine environment, accounting for 32.91% of all new words identified (or 41.20% when hybrids are added), and 19.85% of all words identified (or 24.85% when hybrids are added). It is frequently stated that borrowing from Maori is the most distinguishing feature of New Zealand English lexis, and it certainly has a significant presence in this domain. However, as Table 6.6.1 overleaf reveals, the quantity of its presence varies with time.
Table 6.6.1: Change in Maori borrowing over time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Borrowing</th>
<th>Hybrid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 1796-1825</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 1826-1855</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 1856-1885</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 1886-1915</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 1916-1945</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 1946-1975</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 1976-2005</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.6.1.1 Early settlement

The earliest time periods give rise to the highest proportion of Maori borrowing. In the period 1796-1825, borrowing from the Maori language accounts for all the new words identified (which it must be noted is only 9 items). The second time period, covering the years of early settlement, accounts for the single largest number of borrowings from Maori, with 57 items identified, constituting nearly 46% of the total lexical innovation for this time period. In periods of early settlement, utilising words from the indigenous language is a common method for giving labels to entities that have not previously been encountered, and it is not surprising that Maori borrowing plays a significant role in the naming of the physical marine environment during this phase of New Zealand history. The following comment reveals how a description of an unknown sea plant is usefully completed with a label that will allow the writer to refer to it concisely in future discussion: “On them grew a peculiar kind of large procumbent thin Alga, which, boiled or steamed, is commonly used as an article of food by the Maoris of these parts: they call it parengo, also karengo” (Colenso 1841, in TrNZI (1894) vol. 27: 360).

In these three periods, borrowings occurred for items such as toheroa, a shellfish unique to New Zealand, and many fish, including kehe, parore, and rawaru, which are similarly endemic. However, other borrowings, such as haku, ika, matau, reremai, and toroa, are names for referents which are found widely. In fact, borrowings for referents not unique to New Zealand account for around 40% of all
items borrowed during the second time period. One reason for this is that the early settlers no doubt found themselves encountering new experiences as well as a new environment. Therefore, they would not necessarily have been familiar with all the marine life they were exposed to, despite its existence elsewhere. Morris’s (1898: xii) ‘man in the bush’ was not necessarily a marine expert and the name used by the local people would have been a convenient choice of label despite one already existing in British English.

Moreover, New Zealand during the first two time periods was a Maori land. Maori were the dominant people in number and in knowledge of the country. Thomason (2001: 66) notes that the more “dominance one of the groups exerts, the more likely it is that the subordinate group will adopt features from the dominant group’s language”. The very early pioneers were dependent to some extent on the local people for their survival. Additionally, in the marine domain, Maori as skilled fishers dominated trade. In the initial stages of contact, Maori remained central in catching, drying, and supplying settlers with fish. In 1852, 1700 canoes were involved in delivering fish to the settler population in Auckland (Taonui, 2004). Therefore, many of the fish encountered were likely to have been introduced to the European settlers in te reo Maori, and retaining the name would have been convenient for future trade.

Furthermore, the methods of fishing used by Maori were prominent, observed, and imitated. The incorporation of kupenga ‘fishing net’, suggests an orientation towards Maori culture in fishing: “Having no provisions, we camped, made our kupenga, and set to work fishing” (Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle 1848, October 21: 134). This is also apparent in the use of pa: “In the baracouta season there are provided the proper rods, and a number of square pahs” (Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle 1864, July 14: 4). Here, pa ‘a piece of redwood with a hook used to catch barracouta’ is borrowed to describe the equipment used for a particular practice. In a period where those speaking English were a minority, it would be expected that items of the local language would find their way into the English language of the time, but these particular items could easily be replaced with seine net and hook respectively. As Macalister (2007: 500) suggests, need is not sufficient to account for all borrowings in a language. Amongst the motivations he describes for the presence of loan words are ‘expression of identity’ and ‘displaying empathy’. Certainly the
borrowings described above suggest some affinity with the people from whom the language is borrowed and an openness to incorporating aspects of the culture.

Another notable feature of the borrowing in the first two periods is that with the exception of four items – poha titi ‘a bag for storing muttonbirds’; rahui ‘a ban on fishing’; Tangaroa ‘god of the sea’; and taniwha ‘a sea monster’ – they are all names of marine creatures. Moore (2008: 8) comments that the types of words that are typically borrowed from indigenous languages denote referents which are visible and tangible, and this is evident here. The bulk of items denote fish and other items that are easily named via the indigenous language. As Thomason (2001: 69) notes, a particular level of competence is required in another language before various structures from that language can be borrowed. Knowledge of the Maori language at a level which would allow for a greater range of borrowing is certainly evident in some of New Zealand’s early English language settlers, but not in the bulk. Hence, the use of Maori words in the written discourse of this domain is largely restricted to concrete nouns. However, the restrictive nature of the borrowing may also be explained by the physical environment playing such a prominent role in the lives of pioneers. In this domain, the naming of the fish, an important source of food, and the methods for catching them were likely to be of primary concern. Hence, it was in these areas of immediate importance that borrowing was focused.

**6.6.1.2 Middle years**

Borrowing from Maori still occurs in the following periods, but it slows to the point that in the 1945-1975 period, only six items were identified. To some extent the decreased borrowing may be explained by reduced need, because that which is unfamiliar is named early. However, while English appears to be highly amenable to borrowing, it does not mean that “speakers will avail themselves of this facility” (Mühlhäusler, 2003: 76). Various social factors will influence whether and what items are borrowed. The rapidity of the immigration, where Europeans numbered just 2000 in the 1830s, about 256 000 in 1872 and half a million in 1881 (figures from Maclagan and Gordon, 2004:42) would have dramatically altered power relations between Pakeha and Maori. Additionally, the contact between Pakeha and Maori was minimised from the time of the 1860s New Zealand wars. King (2003: 285) describes
the relationship between Maori and Pakeha at the start of the 20th century thus: “each people lived parallel lives in separate spheres”. During this time, Maori dominance in the fishing trade also decreases, exacerbated by legislation which effectively puts the government in control of all fisheries. This commercial marginalisation remained well into the 20th century, (not really ending until the Muriwhenua Claim of 1984 led to an official acknowledgement of Maori rights to the fisheries). The decreasing influence of Maori in the fisheries is accompanied by a decreased incorporation of te reo Maori in this domain. Moreover, the general orientation towards Britain (as discussed in section 5.3) may have minimised the inclination to incorporate Maori concepts, because this is to focus on areas which distinguish New Zealand. The small amount of borrowing in these time periods is linked with the minimal role which Maori played in the lives of the majority of the urban-dwelling, English speakers.

Nevertheless, there is some borrowing in this period. Again, unsurprisingly, all of the items are nouns, which as Katamba (1994:194) suggests “are by far the most frequently borrowed” part of speech. A point of note is that the citations collected reveal that the borrowed items of this period are very much within the context of Maori culture, as separate from Pakeha culture. The following is a description of a practice conducted by someone other than the writer: “The cutting was done with a knife (mira-tuatini) edged with the sharp triangular teeth of the tatere shark, these teeth being fixed into a wooden blade” (Tregear, 1904: 246). The following uses of reti also suggest experiences not participated in by the writers: “The peculiar implement called a reti, employed on the East Coast, was not, according to my old native informants, a pre-European usage here” (Best, 1927: 49); “The Maoris used to fish there with "reti", and a great sight it was to watch them” (Mannering, 1943: 156). While not without respect for Maori culture, these citations contrast with the use of kupenga described earlier, which is used within the context of narrating the writer’s own activity.

One impact of the reduced borrowing in this period is the limited incorporation of features of the local culture which were attuned to the local environment. As Mühlhäusler (2003: 76) has noted, very little environmental knowledge has come from Maori into New Zealand English. From the 1860s, mention is made in the AJHRs of dwindling fisheries resources. In 1883, in response to on-going overfishing
of oyster beds, Joseph Tole, claimed that there was “no efficient machinery at present for preventing the wholesale destruction of fish” (cited in Johnson, 2004:36). However, concepts were available in Maori if decision makers were willing to consider them. The concepts of **rahui** and **tapu** had long been employed by the local inhabitants. While the rules associated with such practices had spiritual significance, as Easton (1992: 77) points out, “they also minimised pollution and preserved and enhanced the shellfish beds”. Bentley (1999) notes that in the decade preceding the Treaty of Waitangi, in the smaller whaling stations, the central notion of **tapu** was respected. However, with increased European settlement such adherence begins to wane. In discussing **rahui** and **tapu**, the Reverend Thomas Buddle (1851: 28) claimed that “Christianity has freed [Maori] from these burdensome rites and distressing superstitions”. However, it also marginalised a powerful tool for conservation. The indigenous concepts, occurring in the language of a people whose knowledge of the coast had been gained over hundreds of years, may have contributed to better management of the marine environment. **Rahui**, whose tenets involve removing no marine life from a particular area, for a particular time, has been found to be effective in conserving fish stocks (Clover, 2004: 217). As Macalister has argued (2003: 302), the status that the Maori language and its speakers has affects the influence it will have on New Zealand English. During this time of separation and some antagonism between the two peoples, the influence was unlikely to be high. Hence, an opportunity to borrow items into New Zealand English, denoting referents which may have assisted the emerging language in adapting to, and impacting positively on, its local environment, was underutilised.

### 6.6.1.3 Recent time period

There is a notable increase in borrowing and hybrids with Maori elements in the years 1976-2005: 16 and 16 respectively, compared to six and five from the previous time period. Furthermore, items such as **rahui**, and **tauranga ika**, which were discussed in early periods in relation to aspects of Maori culture, re-emerge in this time period within the context of managing the fisheries of all of New Zealand. **Tangaroa** is included in the mission statement of the Ministry of Fisheries in this time period: “earning respect nationally and internationally as the guardian of the multitudes of Tangaroa, requires strong and consistent values within the Ministry (2003, *AJHR*
There is also a notable increase in items such as **hui** ‘meeting’ and **tangi** ‘funeral’ which fall outside the scope of this study because they are not directly related to marine harvesting, but which combine to create a greater sense of te reo Maori in the fisheries discourse. The following sentence shows the extent of the presence of Maori in the domain: “Tangata kaitiaki / tiaki and tangata tiaki / kaitiaki are individuals or groups who can authorise customary fishing within their rohe moana, in accordance with tikanga Maori” (2000, *NZOYB*: 434). The following citation from a book of stories and anecdotes of women in the fishing industry shows that the use of Maori in written sources is not confined to the political arena: “Local iwi have the opportunity to get authorisation from their kaitiaki for their ‘customary take’ which allows Maori to take seafood for gatherings such as hui or tangi” (Heberley, 2005: 90).

It is accepted that borrowing words from the indigenous language is common in early colonial settlement as a method for naming an unfamiliar environment. However, this does not explain why additional use of Maori vocabulary continues well beyond this. Nor does it explain why the period from 1976-2005 yields considerably more Maori borrowings than the preceding time period, or why there is increasing diversity in the types of items being borrowed. Socio-historic motivations are required to answer these questions.

In the 1980s, two major fisheries claims were taken to the Waitangi Tribunal by Maori and this brought discussion of Maori fishing rights to the fore. From the successful outcome of these claims came the establishment of Te Ohu Kai Moana / the Treaty of Waitangi Fisheries Commission, which has seen the role of Maori in the management of fisheries increase dramatically. Also, as noted in section 2.4, it led to 60% of all fishing quota being owned by Maori (Hartley, 1997). So while there was little discussion of Maori issues in the sources investigated before the 1980s, the discussion of Maori issues in a wide variety of sources increased dramatically from this time. It appears that this increasing role of Maori in fisheries is matched by an increasing presence of Maori lexical items to describe the fisheries.

A notable feature of the borrowing is that many of the new lexical items from the 1980s reflect a range of items relating to aspects of fisheries management. Titles of
people involved in fisheries management include Pou Hononga, Kai Arahi, and Kaitiaki. Items which describe methods of facilitating conservation include rahui, mataitai, and taiapure, while traditional fishing boundaries are referred to in terms including manamoana, and rohe moana. This is in stark contrast to the earlier period of borrowing where the bulk of items were the names of fish or Maori ceremony. In revealing a greater range of borrowings that includes items of Maori social culture, this study supports the findings of Macalister (2003), and Davies and Maclagan (2006). Rieschild (2003: 1) suggests that a change in borrowing reflects a change in relationship between peoples. A broadening in the type of borrowing from Maori then, suggests a broadening perception of Maori culture in New Zealand life. However, a cynical view may hold that employing terms which couch regulations in terms which evoke traditional Maori concepts may help to ensure that they are adhered to by an increasingly Maori-operated fishery. For example, authorising officer appears in 1987, but is quickly replaced by kaitiaki and tangata tiaki / kaitiaki, as the person who allows or refuses customary fishing. If the position that language guides perception is taken, then the latter title (which with a simple translation is ‘guardian’) may be a more acceptable authority figure.

However, another explanation for the increase in variety of terms relating to fisheries management is plausible. Kennedy (2001:78), commenting on a corpus that showed Maori use more Maori lexis than Pakeha, has remarked on a Maori renaissance “exerting an increasing influence on New Zealand English” which is “being led by Maori”. The Maori vocabulary in this domain may arise from greater Maori participation in decision making, leading to a subtle re-conceptualisation of fisheries management. All of the borrowings from this period are from the unique referent types. The use of kaitiaki offers notions of protection and the role includes specific functions not performed by MAF officers. Mataitai reserves do not simply replace Marine Reserves. Rather, they are based on areas of historic importance. The use of rahui includes concepts not apparent in the previously employed close season. The latter was imposed by government, whereas the rahui aims to operate at a community level. A quotation from New Zealand House and Garden (2004, September: 133) illustrates this. “There are few rules in the Pukerua lifestyle either, although respecting the raahui is one of them”. The rahui is ‘respected’ rather than legally adhered to, suggesting a level of community involvement and complicity. Notably,
this use is not at all confined to Maori contexts. Rather, it is an example of a Maori concept which is adopted throughout New Zealand society. The re-emergence of rahui indicates an increasing awareness of the important role Maori may play in conservation, but also illustrates how New Zealand English is continuing to adapt to and shape its local environment.

Hence, these additions do not constitute renaming in Maori, referents which had previously held English language labels. Rather, the use of these terms involves a subtle shift in the perception of fisheries. This shift appears to indicate a move from managing resources to looking after natural resources, and also employs concepts from Maori culture not previously included within New Zealand fisheries at an official level. Cannon (1987: 254) claims that borrowings into English seldom replace existing items, but are terms which help to keep the “language adequate”. However it could be argued that they actually have the potential to enhance the language. As McArthur claims (2002: 15), “no language has a perfect ‘take’ on the world” and the merging of various elements from one language to another is beneficial in adding to that ‘take’ or perspective. As language helps to shape our perception of the world, the inclusion of Maori language items extends our ability to conceptualise the local social, political and physical environment – or as Halliday has argued (2003: 417), the incorporation of borrowed items reshapes the “meaning potential” of English.

The renaissance of indigenous people apparent in lexical innovation is a theme which has emerged in post-colonial literature in recent years. Barber (2001: 292) refers to “the influx of words designating aboriginal cultural realities” into wider Canadian English, while in Australia, Moore (2001a) and Delbridge (2001) comment on the significant influence of Aboriginal culture on Australian English lexis. Moore (2001a) refers to the recent influx of Aboriginal words as paralleling the development of Aboriginal political and social activism, and adds that since the 1970s, Aboriginal culture has been responsible for the greatest contribution to Australian lexis (Moore, 2001b). It is therefore likely that the evidence of such a renaissance in this domain in New Zealand is part of a wider, more international phenomenon. However, the specific examples of lexical innovation are born of the culture indigenous to this land, and the dynamic relationship between Maori and Pakeha.
The influence of Maori on lexical innovation should not be overstated however. While borrowing appears to be increasing in quantity and variety, it should be noted that it actually accounts for a small percentage of the total new words from the final time period, and is considerably lower than the proportion of borrowing that occurred in the very early years of European settlement. It is certainly not the most common strategy for naming, with the coining of new combinations and acronyms being more prolific in recent years.

6.6.2 Non-Maori borrowing
Examination of non-Maori borrowing reveals that other languages have minimal influence on New Zealand English fishing vocabulary. Although people from the Italian community have played a significant role in Wellington fishing, and while there is repeated discussion of this in the sources employed for this study, there is no lexical evidence of their influence. The few borrowings which do occur (for example lampara net), are not exclusive to New Zealand English. The lack of linguistic influence may be attributable to several factors. Firstly, the dialects spoken by those members, who did not necessarily come from the same area of Italy, may have meant that English became the shared language. Furthermore, these hardworking fishermen remained in their own communities and may have had little influence outside them. Tamanji (2004: 76) mentions that in order to borrow there must be a motive: either the prestige motive, or the need-filling motive. The dominant language at play in the fishing industry was English and it is quite possible that neither motive existed in this case. These findings are not necessarily surprising in the context of New Zealand, a largely monolingual country. The lack of non-Maori borrowing here supports the claim of Kuiper and Bell (2000: 12) that the languages of the groups of European migrants who settled in New Zealand “largely disappeared from public audibility”.

A notable exception to the lack of foreign borrowing is the significant presence of vocabulary from Japanese. Several hybrid combinations include a Japanese language component (see Appendix H). Many more items which appear in the fishing discourse are not unique to New Zealand English or were identified only once in the sources investigated, so do not feature in the wordlist or in the categorisation thereof.
However, they are significant for their sheer numbers, and are listed in the two tables overleaf to illustrate the extent of their appearance.

**Table 6.6.2a: Japanese language items from *Commercial Fishing*, 1960s – 1980s.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ayakozuke</td>
<td>marinated fillet slices</td>
<td>1972, December: 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>izui</td>
<td>a type of boat</td>
<td>1964, December: 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kamaboko</td>
<td>processed fish</td>
<td>1971, February: 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kataotoshi</td>
<td>a large set net</td>
<td>1975, June: 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuruma-ebi</td>
<td>type of shrimp</td>
<td>1964, June: 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mintai</td>
<td>dried, frozen fish</td>
<td>1974, January: 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>murazaki uni</td>
<td>kina or sea urchin</td>
<td>1984, June: 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>operu</td>
<td>frozen sardine</td>
<td>1964, December: 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sashimi</td>
<td>raw fish</td>
<td>1983, August: 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sekiyama</td>
<td>wire joined to the main line in longlining</td>
<td>1965, March: 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sukimi</td>
<td>dried, salted fillets</td>
<td>1974, January: 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sushi</td>
<td>fish with rice</td>
<td>1982, August: 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tarako</td>
<td>salted roes</td>
<td>1974, January: 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teichi net</td>
<td>a box net</td>
<td>1972, November: 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 6.6.2b: Japanese language items from *Catch*, 1970s-1980s.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bouke-ami</td>
<td>a net that uses lights as a lure</td>
<td>1979, February: 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hampen</td>
<td>boiled, processed fish</td>
<td>1980, October: 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>katsuobishi</td>
<td>dried skipjack</td>
<td>1976, October: 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kirimi</td>
<td>minced fish</td>
<td>1983, May: 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moheo</td>
<td>bamboo</td>
<td>1977, July: 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saibai gyogyo</td>
<td>an artificial rearing and reseeding centre</td>
<td>1980, February: 29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sashimi, markets, trawlers</td>
<td>attributive uses of sashimi ‘raw fish’</td>
<td>1988, February: 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shava-shava</td>
<td>acoustic fish lure</td>
<td>1974, October: 16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the 1960s, a notable amount of borrowing from Japanese is evident in New Zealand fishing magazines. By this time, Japan had become a large and lucrative market for fish exports, while also sustaining a thriving fishing industry. In the 1980s, Japan was “still the leading fishing nation” in terms of millions of tonnes caught, as well as a significant importer (Catch, 1988 October: 18). Because they were willing to pay for quality, various methods preferred by the Japanese were adopted. Training was given by Japanese fishermen, whose skill was admired. Hence, **ike jime snapper** ‘snapper killed via a spike to the head’, **teiche net** ‘a type of box net’, and **tai** ‘high quality snapper prepared for ceremonial purposes’ are all incorporated into fisheries discourse. Katamba (1994:196) suggests that a concentration of borrowed words in a particular area is indicative of the relationship between two groups, and this certainly appears to be the case here. The greater knowledge of Japanese as deep-sea fishers, along with their economic dominance, is linked with a considerable amount of lexical borrowing in this domain. Jackson and Zé Amvela (2000: 43) note an influx of vocabulary from the Japanese language and attribute this to “the increased commercial importance of Japan in the world generally”. The use of Japanese vocabulary in the language of fisheries allows for an inclusion of a Japanese way of doing things. It is perhaps indicative of power relations that the Italian community did not have such a linguistic influence.

The Japanese borrowing represents new methods and equipment for fishing for which borrowing the Japanese name is not surprising. However, it also includes items with English language equivalents, such as **murazaki uni** ‘sea urchin’ or **kina** in New Zealand, and items easily described, such as **tarako** ‘salted roe’, and **katsuobishi** ‘dried skipjack’. Halliday (2003: 409) poses the question of why borrowing occurs when a synonym is available, and suggests that the borrowed item is not just a synonym but takes on a subtle shift in meaning. This is borne out in the work of Vine (1999: 14-21), who investigated the coexistence of American and British equivalents in New Zealand English (for example **lift** and **elevator**). She found that they were assigned different meanings by the people who used them, and took on varying connotations or levels of formality. This is reiterated by Peters (2001: 303), who suggests that American loanwords take on new semantic functions when they are used abroad. This may be apparent in the Japanese borrowings identified in this study, many of which are food products. The exotic and sophisticated dining connotations
evoked by sashimi, kirimi salad, and kamaboko are rather lacking in the English language equivalents (raw fish, minced fish, and fish block respectively). The use of the former labels conjures up bowls of freshly prepared food, partly because the exact nature of the food is hidden to the English speaker and partly because of the social cachet attached to Japanese dining at the time of the borrowing. The image these products portray may be constructed with the help of the labels attached to them, labels associated with the economic and social prestige of the country from which they were borrowed.

6.6.3 Combinations
As Cannon (1987: 237) notes, “recent English demonstrates a propensity for compounds” and this domain of New Zealand English is no exception. Combinations are the single largest source of neologising, accounting for nearly 40% of all new words. They exert a notable presence in this domain. In this discussion, ‘combinations’ is used rather than ‘compounds’, which as discussed in 4.5, is a term difficult to define. Hence, those lexical items made up of two or more elements are classed as combinations.

A significant number – 52 of the 183 combinations, or close to a third – are modified marine inhabitants, including Tasman Bay oyster, New Zealand fur seal, southern blue whiting, and spiky dogfish. It is suggested earlier that these combinations consisting of a fish species and a modifier, often acting to distinguish it from a Northern Hemisphere counterpart, are indicative of a language adapting to the environment in which they occur, and help to establish a more finely drawn picture of the environment. Items such as Akaroa cod, Auckland mullet, Cook Strait sailfish, Karitane spat, Picton bloater, and Stewart Island oyster also help to situate the referents within a New Zealand landscape. While implicit in their elements is the other – as in, ‘this is a bloater found in Picton, not Scotland’, they also highlight their location within New Zealand ‘this is a bloater found in Picton, not in Auckland’. This contributes a strong, local quality to the discourse. Items named after a person are also apparent. Examples are Sandager’s wrasse, Hooker’s sealion, and Hector’s dolphin. Such combinations also, as Gwyn (2005: 2) argues, “carry historical information about how society slowly fashions the environment to reflect the
historical concerns of the present”. As such they also also contribute a local narrative to the marine harvesting lexicon.

Table 6.6.3: Change over time in the quantity of combinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of combinations</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of new words</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>9.09%</td>
<td>41.63%</td>
<td>56.67%</td>
<td>50.00%</td>
<td>72.06%</td>
<td>51.66%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although apparent throughout the period investigated, the amount of coining by combination in this domain alters over time, as shown in Table 6.6.3 above. It is notable that although there is no steady percentage increase in the coining of unique combinations over time, from the period beginning 1886 they consistently account for 50% or more of all new words. In the first two periods especially, borrowing from the indigenous language was a significant component of the new words coined, and combining English elements was a neologising strategy less relied on. From this time, many combinations emerge. The coining of combinations peaks in the time frame beginning 1946, with a considerable 72.06% of new words created in this way. In this period there are few borrowings from Maori. Here, the shaping of the marine environment via lexical innovation occurs with combinations which are created in New Zealand, but with minimal utilization of the local language.

When the types of combinations coined are examined, a couple of notable points emerge. Firstly, the early periods are dominated by modified fish names, whereas in the later time periods these are less represented. In period 3 (1856-1885), 72.22% of the combinations are fish names modified, often by a place (many of the combinations with a colour as the first element, for example red snapper and blue cod, are not labels which are distinctive to New Zealand). So for example, New Zealand sole, Cloudy Bay cod, and Picton herring all feature. In the last time frame, 28.21% of the combinations are modified fish names; a sharp decline. Many of the

---

5 These figures include hybrids.
combinations, including **Quota Management Area**, **Maori fishing rights**, and **total allowable commercial catch** construct non-material items. These findings are consistent with the other findings of this study. They suggest that physical items are named early, and the renaming that occurs – along with the coining of names for organisations, regulations and other non-material items – emphasises that continued lexical innovation is related to the ongoing social construction of our relationship with the marine environment.

Furthermore, while combinations are represented throughout the period investigated from 1825, words with three or more elements are much more prominent in the last two time periods. While some combinations with more than two elements do occur earlier, they usually include place names which require a multi-word combination, such as **New Zealand fur seal** and **Foveaux Strait oyster**. However, from the final two periods, multi-word combinations begin to increase. Many of the combinations are nominal and this has an impact on the fisheries discourse. Attempts to categorise the semantic relationships between the elements of noun + noun compounds abound (see Ryder 1994 for an overview); however it still remains that in nominal compounds, the relationship between the two or more elements is ambiguous. These combinations, which mitigate the need for full clauses (so that **stick oyster** is a less bulky version of “an oyster cultivated on a stick”), allow brevity, but do require some knowledge of context and world knowledge to interpret. In a corpus study, Biber, Johansson, Geoffrey, Conrad, & Finegan (1999: 593) found that noun + noun combinations were very productive in recent written sources. The dense use of these, they suggest, places a heavy burden on readers, who must infer the intended relationship between the elements. They also note an extensive use of noun + noun combinations results in “a very dense, integrated packaging of information” (op. cit.: 593). Such density is evident in the following citations: “the efficiency notes for processing Quota Management Reports (QMRs) and Licensed Fish Receiver Reports (LFRRs) are at a very satisfactory level” (AJHR 1989, C5: 47), and “to ensure that the vessel owners were aware that the total PMITQ holdings in many fish stocks exceeded the TAC, they were also informed of their guaranteed minimum individual transferable quota (GMITQ) .. spread across all of the assessed catch histories” (Lock and Leslie, 2007: 14). These combinations are very visible in the language of regulation, and the density of information which they evoke works to construct the
harvesting of the marine environment as a complex and involved process. They help frame the sea as a commodity that requires an involved system of management.

6.6.4 Acronyms

Another productive word formation process in this domain is the use of acronyms. As noted in section 4.2.1, the term acronym is used here to include items pronounced as words and items pronounced as individual letters. These account for 8.54% of the new words. It has been widely attested that the coining of what Cannon (1987) refers to as “letter words” has been increasing in recent years. Cannon’s research suggests that they are a reasonably recent phenomenon, whose presence increased significantly with World War Two, and has been increasing ever since. He found that while acronyms constituted a smaller portion of new words than new meanings and borrowings, they nonetheless demonstrate “a free-flowing, productive quality” (1987: 105). Katamba (1994: 183) observes that in the last few decades there has been an explosion in the growth of abbreviations, and Kuiper and Allan (1996) also point out that acronyms have recently become very productive in some areas of society. In this domain acronyms do appear to be a recent and productive area with all but two of the acronyms emerging in the final time period. Hence, New Zealand appears to follow a widespread linguistic trend to reduce a number of items into one orthographic word.

Jackson and Zé Amvela (2000:88) cite the motivation for acronyms as brevity and catchiness, and there is no denying that NAFMAC / næfmæk/ is catchier than the longwinded National Fisheries Management Advisory Committee. GMITQ is less cumbersome than guaranteed minimum individual transferable quota. Moreover, there has been an acknowledged increase in the use of multi-word nominal compounds in recent years, as Biber et al. (1999) report, and these lend themselves to acronyms. However, the “brevity and catchiness” may come at the expense of explicitness. The proliferation of letter words lends an opacity to the fisheries management discourse. An example of this is revealed in the following citation: “Any increase in ITQ, consequent to the QAA allocating additional PMITQ, results in an increase in TACC” (Boyle, 1994: 12). This sentence could refer to almost any industry. The information it carries, that increasing the amount of fish that an individual is allowed to catch will result in an increase in the total amount of fish allowed to be caught, is somewhat hidden. When abbreviations such as these are
clustered, they obscure the meaning to the outsider, and also distance the activity at hand. There is no suggestion of fish in the citation. The emergence of acronyms in this domain coincides with a greater commercialisation of resources, and they play a role in shaping the marine environment as an inanimate resource.

6.6.5 The use of the hypocoristic -ie / -y

Another form of neologising significant to this domain is the hypocoristic -ie / -y. Although it occurs elsewhere, it is widely noted for having particular significance in New Zealand (and Australia) (Bardsley and Simpson, 2009: 49; McArthur, 2003: 391; Svartvik and Leech, 2006: 110), and is widely employed in a variety of areas. As such, it warrants particular discussion. A close look at the sources of citations for the hypocoristics in this domain reveals that they occur in recreational magazines and some publications of fishing stories, but seldom do they appear in the commercial magazines and government reports. It is proposed, here, that the use of the hypocoristic in these sources contributes to constructing a particular stance to the fish which are caught recreationally.

When the celebrated big game fisherman, Zane Grey, came to fish in New Zealand waters he found much to recommend, and his *Tales of the Angler’s Eldorado* (1926) was penned from his experiences here. However, he was somewhat critical of the unsophisticated and outdated equipment which he encountered, and even suggested that the techniques might not be sportsman-like. It was a suggestion that led to many caustic comments in the fishing gazettes of the day. It was implied that individuals could not help but catch a fish with the fancy type of equipment that some foreign anglers employed (see section 4.3.2). There are also numerous references to how one can participate in the sport on a budget. It is important to the New Zealand angler that there is equality between the fishers and the fished. This desire to be seen as fair continues throughout the history of big game and recreational fishing. Editorial comments such as the following are not uncommon: “The public in general has long held a suspicion that game fishermen were callous, wholesale slaughterers of the giants of the deep” (*NZFN*, 1982, 5: 3. 20). This is always strongly refuted and the sportsmanship of the activity is emphasised. It is said that if inappropriate tackle is used “an enjoyable contest, with an adversary that has more than an equal chance of winning is missed” (*NZFN*, 1984, 7: 7. 8). The desire to be fair is central to the notion
of sportsmanship, and the editorial line is that a fair battle should be waged upon the fish.

It appears that in the recreational fishing magazines, a perception of fairness and sportsmanship is aided by the use of linguistic devices including hypocoristics. These help to construct the fish as a willing combatant in a friendly fight. The -ie / -y diminutive is used throughout varieties of English to signal affection, and for interactions with children (for example “look at the nice doggy”). In New Zealand it has an extended usage with proper and other nouns, and creates a sense of familiarity and informality. It also has a “solidarity function” (Bardsley and Simpson, 2009: 54) imparting a sense of friendship and unity between adult speakers. Its use is not restricted to conversation but is increasingly observed in newspapers, magazines and other written documents, reflecting its growing acceptance.

In the recreational fishing magazines the use of the -ie / -y diminutive (the spelling is very unstable and seems to arbitrarily alternate between these) abounds. Table 6.6.5 below shows the items occurring in *New Zealand Fishing News* alone.

**Table 6.6.5: Hypocoristic fish labels from *New Zealand Fishing News***

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>beakie</th>
<th>half-beak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bronzie</td>
<td>bronze whaler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doggie</td>
<td>dogfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flattie</td>
<td>flatfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jewie</td>
<td>jewfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kelpie</td>
<td>kelpfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kingie</td>
<td>kingfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>livie</td>
<td>live bait</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pillie</td>
<td>pilchard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reddie</td>
<td>red cod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>schoolie</td>
<td>school snapper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skippie</td>
<td>skipjack tuna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slimies</td>
<td>slimey mackerel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>smokie</td>
<td>smoked fish</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As these examples reveal, the diminutive is frequently used for fish names. However, it is much less frequently used for inanimate objects. Two exceptions are **possie** ‘position from which to fish’, and **flattie** which denotes a flat bottomed boat (as well as a flatfish). The prolific use of the diminutive for fish names functions to create an informal tone, and also to draw the reader into a friendly inclusion in the group. As Barbaresi (2001: 315) suggests, “the areas of use of y / ie suffix are all characterised by familiarity / intimacy or at least social proximity among participants, thus favouring an informal or even slangy use of the language”. But in this context, it also manages to establish an affectionate and inclusive stance towards the animal, as evident in the following citations: “This ‘swordie’s’ tactics were fairly normal, but twice we thought he was lost” (New Zealand Fishing and Shooting Gazette, 1950, 18:4. 22); “One of the most neglected fish in our coastal and estuary waters to my mind is the good old flattie” (NZFN, 1979, 1:11. 5); “And still that gutsy ‘kingie’ ran and wrestled and fought the hook within” (NZFN, 1983, 5:6. 8). The use of hypocoristics for people signals a certain affection for, or familiarity with, that person – and in the examples above it has a similar effect. There is a sense that the fish are valued members of a group.

While outside the scope of this study, it is worth noting another feature of the language because of its combined effect with the use of hypocoristic. In these magazines the fish are most often referred to as male. They are also called **old chap** (New Zealand Fishing and Shooting Gazette, 1929, September: 8), and referred to as a **handsome fellow** (New Zealand Fishing and Shooting Gazette, 1927, November: 15) in earlier volumes. Later, a cockabullly is described as “a super-devoted father” (NZFN, 1981, 3:9. 18). Also included in various volumes are wee fellow, noble fellow and little blokes. Fish are moreover, imbued with the ability to act **courageously** (NZFN, 1979, 1: 4. 10) be **gutsy** (1983, 6:5 8), have **mates** (1984, 7:7 22), and behave **sportingly** (Bay of Islands Swordfish Club, 1980-81: 14). This personification attributes human motivations to the fish and provides a specific way to think and act toward them (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003: 33). It serves
to compound the effect the use of hypocoristics has in creating an affectionate stance towards the fish. They are not simply marine life trying to survive. Instead, these fish are men with courage, adversaries to be admired and respected – and incidentally killed. It seems almost an insult to the “good old flattie” that he is “neglected”. Painting the fish in such a way creates the perception that this is an exciting but fair and sporting game among equals, where the fish is complicit in the fight for its life.

Throughout this discussion, the position outlined by Cowie (1998:181) that language plays an active role in construing human experience rather than simply reflecting it has been assumed. The use of the hypocoristic and personification in New Zealand recreational fishing magazines helps to construct a particular stance between the fisher and fished. While a more formal tone prevails, hypocoristics do appear in the commercial fishing magazines. However, they are largely restricted to people’s names. In the reading of Commercial Fishing and Catch, for example, no use of diminutives for fish was noted. It is not surprising that diminutives are absent in this context. As noted in section 5.5.3, fish in this context are a commodity and the act of killing is distanced through the language of property, quotas and TACCs. In contrast, in the recreational context the language does not serve to create a distance from fish as living creatures. Rather, the close proximity of the kill is mitigated by language which frames the fish as a worthy opponent.

6.7 Conclusion

Categorising the words identified in this domain into the regional typology devised by Deverson (2000) is not without issues, and the allocating of items to a Type requires some personal judgement and numerous qualifications, as outlined in the methodology section of his study. Nevertheless, it gives insight into the nature of regional lexical innovation in this domain.

Firstly, it reveals that in this area of New Zealand English, innovation has focused heavily on unique referents. This is not only because New Zealand has a number of features in the physical landscape which require naming. The unique referents are often a reconceptualising of an item so that a unique referent is renamed. Many of the non-material referents, framed via lexical innovation in recent years, also point to a
country responding to global issues (such as depletion of marine resources) in ways which meet the local, social and physical conditions. A significant part of this is the increasing role that Maori are playing in the harvesting of the marine environment.

Furthermore, the categorisation reveals that there has been a significant shift in the way that innovation occurs over time. The very first English language speakers in New Zealand were settlers in a Maori country whose immersion in a new culture resulted in considerable lexical borrowing. Items borrowed for shared referents reveal the influence of the local culture. However, with increased European settlement, the new land was viewed from a colonial perspective and the lexical innovation apparent is dominated by semantic shift as the environment is named after a British homeland. As New Zealand has oriented itself away from Britain, new words begin to dominate lexical innovation, with borrowing from Maori, unique combinations and letter words all playing a role in the way that New Zealand frames its relationship with the marine environment.
CHAPTER 7
CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The research questions outlined in Chapter 3 are briefly addressed in turn here. The discussion of each question includes implications for further research.

What, if any, distinctive vocabulary has the marine industry contributed to New Zealand English?
Creating a historical wordlist is challenging and the personal judgement required in deciding whether an item is eligible for inclusion points to the inevitability of editorial bias. The reliance on written sources which are available in varying quantities throughout the period investigated further limits the ability to claim a comprehensive list of the innovation which occurred. Nevertheless, it is undeniable that the harvesting of the marine environment has made a lexical impact on New Zealand English. The 660 headwords and their numerous attributive uses reveal a significant pool of New Zealandisms in an area of cultural and economic significance.

Has the number of lexical innovations changed over time?
Lexical innovation has been dynamic throughout the period investigated. Unsurprisingly, the early years of colonial settlement generated a wealth of New Zealandisms as the settlers began to name the unfamiliar. However, it is interesting to note that the largest number of New Zealandisms identified in this study occur within the period 1976-2005. This suggests that lexical innovation continues at a regional level despite fears that globalisation may be homogenising language varieties. Also, the time periods which yielded the smallest number of lexical innovations were those in which New Zealand was orienting itself toward Britain. In this way, changes in quantity over time appear to be linked to, and add to, the sociocultural climate, the closeness and separateness from a colonial homeland. It would be useful to see whether this pattern is echoed in other domains of New Zealand English. To this end, diachronic studies in other domains of New Zealand English would be valuable.

In what ways is the vocabulary distinctive? New words versus semantic shift.
The proportion of new words and borrowing versus transferred meanings as a means of lexical innovation has changed notably with time. An initial propensity for
borrowing from the indigenous language to describe the unfamiliar is superseded by semantic shift, or applying existing words from British English to apparently similar referents. Semantic shift is the dominant form of lexical innovation from the periods 1856 to 1915. From the period beginning 1916, borrowing and the coining of new terms becomes the predominant means of innovation, and this increases steadily over the final three periods. These are items which are born in the country of their intended use, and as such, they contribute to a greater understanding of the local environment. This is in contrast to the dominance of semantic shift, which has the effect of constructing the local environment as a somewhat skewed version of another place. This study provides an insight into the lexical innovation of a transplanted variety of English. As New Zealand English has developed, it has evolved from being a language transferred to a new surrounding that is was initially inadequate to describe, to one which has adapted and helped to shape a new environment.

This study offers results of a regional categorisation in one domain and it would be interesting to explore whether others, such as the rural domain so thoroughly documented by Bardsley (2003), yield similar results when applied to this typology. It is also worth investigating whether this pattern of new words gradually dominating semantic shift as a means of lexical innovation occurs elsewhere, and is a feature of transplanted varieties of English. Deverson’s typology could be usefully applied to other domains of New Zealand English as well as other varieties of English.

In what ways is the vocabulary distinctive? Unique versus shared referents.

In this study, lexical innovation is strongly focused on referents which are unique to New Zealand. This may be partly explained by the domain. Harvesting of the marine environment includes many physical entities unique to New Zealand. However, lexical innovation for distinctive referents is so dominant not just because features of the landscape are unique, but because these features appear to be continually reconceptualised. This is evident in the name changes which occur with fish as their popularity increases. The dominance of unique referents found in this study is in contrast to a more equal balance found in Deverson’s (2000) study. While interpretation of what is ‘unique’ may have played a role, it would be interesting to investigate whether this dominance is a feature specific to the marine domain,
environmental domains, or whether it would be evident in other domains which contribute to New Zealand English, such as education and sport.

**What influence has te reo Maori had on New Zealand English in the marine environment and how has this changed over time?**

Te reo Maori has had a significant impact on the lexical innovation in this domain. However, the impact has varied over time. The highest proportion of borrowing from Maori occurred during the early years of European settlement, when the indigenous language was frequently employed to name the previously unencountered. The use of Maori to label shared referents, also points to some affinity with, or immersion in the local culture. Following decades characterised by minimal borrowing, recent years have seen a significant rise in the presence of Maori vocabulary items and a greater variation in the types of words borrowed. This finding supports the work of Macalister (2003). The recent borrowing from Maori to name unique referents points to the growing influence of an indigenous perspective on fisheries management. It would be useful to continue to monitor the presence of Maori, firstly, to see whether this has been a brief period of increased borrowing, or whether there is an ongoing trend to utilise more Maori vocabulary in New Zealand English, and also to examine whether an increasing number of Maori concepts are being introduced into broader New Zealand society as evidenced in the Maori borrowing for unique referents.

**What have been the most common forms of neologising within this semantic field?**

This study bears out the observation that multi-word units are an increasingly productive word formation process. From the period beginning 1915, they account for at least 50% of all new words. Letter words are another recent and significant means of neologising within fisheries management discourse. Both these word formation processes have worked together to create an opacity to the fisheries discourse in recent years. Ongoing monitoring of letter words and multi-word units will reveal whether their increasing productivity is an ongoing trend in New Zealand English vocabulary.

**What other origins are apparent in the marine vocabulary?**

The suggestion by Kuiper and Bell (2000: 12) that the language of non-English speaking Europeans has remained largely inaudible in New Zealand English is borne
out in this study. No borrowings from European (or any other except Japanese) language communities were identified. The significant role which Italian, Croatian and Danish communities have played in New Zealand’s fishing industry is not reflected lexically. Only Japanese, an influence from outside the country, has left a lexical mark on the fishing discourse of New Zealand. This appears to be reflective of Japan’s economic dominance and the commercial benefits to be gained from adopting Japanese techniques. It remains to be seen whether other domains of New Zealand English are so unaffected by various language groups, and studies which focus specifically on the influence of non-Maori languages on New Zealand English could be conducted.

Lexical innovations help frame our perception of the marine environment. From a substandard replica of a remembered homeland, to the home of the multitudes of Tangaroa, whether a valuable commercial property, or a sporting ground, the lexical choices revealed in innovation play a role in how the sea and its inhabitants are perceived. The constant evolving of our relationship with the marine environment within a subtly unique landscape ensures that lexical innovation is likely to continue.

The lexical innovation in New Zealand English has certainly not arisen in a vacuum. Rather, it is tied to the wider English language community and reflects the dynamics of global concerns and the particular response that has been generated locally. The increased borrowing from te reo Maori mirrors the indigenous renaissance evident in other colonial societies. The types of coinings which are predominant, an increase in letter words and combinations to label new entities, are also trends which have been observed throughout English varieties. Hence, the distinctiveness is subtle and exists within an international context. And yet the precise innovations which occur here could not occur anywhere else, because they represent the language in contact with this particular social and physical environment. Therefore, the lexical innovation of New Zealand English is deserving of ongoing investigation.
**APPENDIX A: A BRIEF CHRONOLOGY OF SIGNIFICANT EVENTS IN THE MARINE ENVIRONMENT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Whaling and Sealing</th>
<th>Regulation</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1791 First whaling vessel to visit NZ waters</td>
<td>1860 Fisheries Commission established to investigate overfishing</td>
<td>1840 Treaty of Waitangi signed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1827 First shore whaling station is opened</td>
<td>1866 Oyster Fish Act</td>
<td>1867 Experimentation with trawling in Dunedin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1830 American whaling vessels begin to visit New Zealand</td>
<td>1877 Fish Protection Act – first comprehensive attempt to restrict fishing activities</td>
<td>1879 Maori concerns with fisheries legislation, and treatment of waterways is discussed at the Kohimarama conference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1840 Increasing British taxation sees the decline of Bay whaling</td>
<td>1878 Harbour and Foreshore Act – states that the foreshore below the high-tide mark belongs to the Queen</td>
<td>1880 Sanfords Ltd is established</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1890 Cook’s whaling station opens in Whangamumu, Bay of Islands</td>
<td>1908 Fisheries Act – remained until 1983</td>
<td>1881 Sanford employs a trawler – the first company to do so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909 Perano’s whaling station opens in Marlborough</td>
<td>1945 A system of restrictive licensing is introduced</td>
<td>1900 Government funded, experimental trawling is undertaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1909 Whaling starts Campbell Island</td>
<td>1964 Licensing is abolished in an attempt to promote deep sea fishing</td>
<td>1923 Danish seining is introduced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1919 Whaling ends on Campbell Island</td>
<td>1978 NZ declares a 200-mile EEZ Gvt announces attention to introduce ITQs</td>
<td>1915 Bay of Islands Mako shark and swordfish club is established (NZ’s first)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1926 Te Kaha whaling station (Bay of Plenty) closes - this is the last Maori whaling station</td>
<td>1989 The Maori Fisheries Commission is established</td>
<td>1959 Japanese longliners are fishing in NZ waters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962 Whaling ceases on Great Barrier Island</td>
<td>1995 MFish is established as a stand-alone agency</td>
<td>1960 Mussel farming begins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963 IWC prohibits the killing of the humpback whale</td>
<td></td>
<td>1984 The Muriwhenua Fishing Report is released</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963 Whaling ceases in New Zealand waters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## APPENDIX B: SERIAL PUBLICATIONS BY TIME PERIOD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Period</th>
<th>Serial Publication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1826-1855</td>
<td><em>The New Zealand Magazine</em>, 1850</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 1856-1885   | *Transactions and Proceedings of the New Zealand Institute*, 1868-1933  
*The Southern Monthly Magazine*, 1863-69 |
| 1886-1915   | *Transactions and Proceedings of the New Zealand Institute*, 1868-1933  
*Journal of the Polynesian Society*, 1892-1976  
*New Zealand Official Yearbook*, 1893- |
| 1916-1945   | *New Zealand Fishing and Shooting Gazette*, 1927-1956  
*Transactions and Proceedings of the New Zealand Institute*, 1868-1933  
*Journal of the Polynesian Society*, 1892-1976  
*New Zealand Official Yearbook*, 1893- |
*Fisheries Newsletter*, 1972-1973  
*New Zealand Fishing and Shooting Gazette*, 1927-1956  
*Journal of the Polynesian Society*, 1892-1976  
*New Zealand Official Yearbook*, 1893-  
*Bay of Islands Swordfish and Mako Shark Club*, 1948-83  
*Commercial Fishing*, 1962-1990  
*Catch*, 1974-1988 |
*New Zealand Fishing News*, 1978-  
*New Zealand Official Yearbook*, 1893-  
*Bay of Islands Swordfish and Mako Shark Club*, 1948-83  
*Commercial Fishing*, 1962-1990  
*Catch*, 1974-1988  
*Journal of the Polynesian Society*, 1892-1976  
*Tangaroa*, 1990-2004 |
APPENDIX C: WORDLIST PREFACE

This wordlist of terms used in the harvesting of the marine environment includes only those words which are in some way specific to New Zealand English. You will therefore see TACC, which is specific to New Zealand, but not TAC which also occurs in other varieties of English. In this sense it will not offer a complete list of specific marine terms, but a list of those which contribute to a New Zealand character in writing on fishing. Included are many fish names, such as snapper, which are used elsewhere, but which are applied to different species or sub-species in New Zealand. Appendix F shows whether it is the label or the label / referent combination which is unique to New Zealand.

As a rule, only those words for which three written citations were identified are included in the wordlist. However, some editorial discretion was allowed. Words such as reddie which were found to be used in undated website material, for example website message boards, were included, with only a single citation from a more formal source. Items such as double picking found in only one source, but which appear to be used by a number of different speakers collated within that single volume have likewise been included.

There is a wide array of names for fish which are specific to New Zealand English. One fish may have many names and one name may refer to a variety of fish. Hence, a significant amount of referencing is apparent in the wordlist. Where a variety of names occur, the definition is given under the name which appears to be most frequently used today. This is listed in capital letters in the definition section of alternative names. Alternative names are given in bold. Where two or more names vie for dominance the definition is given under the name which occurs first alphabetically. In the case where a label has been applied to various similar species, this is noted and followed by especially X, where one species is more commonly referred to.

This wordlist follows a strictly alphabetical approach to organising fish names. So for example blue cod can be found under b rather than being listed as a subset of cod. However, an entry for cod will reference blue cod and other fish which include cod.
as an element in their name. Other combinations also occur under the first letter of the first word.

Square brackets are utilised within citations to enclose editorial comment and are used especially to note errors [sic] and to name pronouns.

Due to the time and space constraints of this PhD study, it was not possible to give the etymology of all the items included in the wordlist. However, words from Maori are identified using [Ma.]. Items which also occur in the *Australian National Dictionary* (1988) are also identified and the date of the earliest citation given.
GLOSSARY

Abbreviations which occur in the wordlist.

*abbrev.* abbreviation
*adj.* adjective
*adv.* adverb
*AJHR* *Appendices to the Journals of the House of Representatives*
*AND* *Australian National Dictionary*
*attrib.* attributive
*ibid.* *ibidem* from the same book or passage
*JPS* *Journal of the Polynesian Society*
*JScT* *Journal of Science and Technology*
*Ma.* Maori
*NZFSG* *New Zealand Fishing and Shooting Gazette*
*NZFN* *New Zealand Fishing News*
*NZOYB* *New Zealand Official Yearbook*
*n.* noun
*ppl.* participle
*TrNZI* *Transactions and Proceedings of the New Zealand Institute (Royal New Zealand Society)*
*v.* verb
*vbl n.* verbal noun
Ahuru. n. [Ma. āhuru] Auchenoceros punctatus of the Moridae family, a small pink fish important as a source of fish food [First quotation may be misapplied].

1870 AJHR D9: 4 Ling, Ahuru (Lotella ruchinus).- Is a large coarse fish, not often seen at market. 1938 TrNZI 68. 426 Next in order is the ahuru; it is surprising that such an abundant fish, detected in numbers in red cod stomachs within three days of the commencement of the investigation, had not hitherto been known from Otago waters; it is now known to be eaten by at least 17 species. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 171 The Ahuru must be recognised as a major source of food for fish-eaters, second only in importance to Pilchards and Sprats. 1982 Ayling and Cox Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand 142 The ahuru is a small cod with two dorsal fins and a single anal fin.

Akaroa cod. n. RED COD, Pseudophycis bachus. See also Finnan Haddock, hake, and yellowtail ii.

1964 Commercial Fishing July 12 As for the special processing, all Mr Todd said he could disclose was that it made fish taste like salmon and that Akaroa cod or red cod was especially suitable for processing by this method. 2007 Government Press Release September 25 www.scoop.co.nz/stories/PA0709/s00435.htm- Red cod, or Akaroa cod as it is sometimes called, is an important east coast South Island coastal fishery. 2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 46 MARKET NAMES . . Red Cod, Akaroa Cod, New Zealand Cod.

Alert pigfish. n. Alertichthys blacki of the Congiopodidae family, a grey, large-eyed endemic fish, with elongated snout, which is occasionally caught in trawls.

1978 Catch August 13 Alert Pigfish Alertichthys blacki. Family Congiopodidae (pigfishes). 1980 NZFN 2: 7. 5 The Alert Pigfish is a member of the pigfish family (Congiopodidae) that are characterised by long snouts and few or no scales. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 100 Alert pigfish Alertichthys blacki . . Apparently restricted to New Zealand, and generally taken in deep water around the South Island.

AMA. n. abbrev. AQUACULTURE MANAGEMENT AREA.

2005 Hi Ika Autumn 6 The Maori Commercial Aquaculture Claims Settlement Act 2004 gives iwi the right to apply for a marine resource consent over 20 percent of the space created in new Aquaculture Management Areas (AMAs). 2006 Niwa Science, Water and Atmosphere 14: 2. 16 This Aquaculture Management Area (AMA), with a total area of over 3000 ha, harbours the largest block of marine farms in New Zealand. 2008 Marine Farming Association Newsletter June 5 Iwi would receive 20% of space in all new .. AMAs in their region, plus the equivalent of 20% of all space opened up to aquaculture between 1992 and 2005.

Aquaculture Management Area. n. an area of coast which is reserved for the development of aquaculture, as decided by regional councils. See also AMA.

2003 Tangaroa May 11 The proposed system of establishing Aquaculture Management Areas (AMAs) would have space tendered out by regional councils and was combined with a two-year moratorium on the granting of resource consents for any new ventures. 2005 AJHR C20: 16 The new legislation .. requires the regional council planning process to designate areas of coastal space as Aquaculture Management Areas before marine development can proceed. 2008 Marine Farming Association Newsletter June 11 If a marine farming permit is issued, it automatically becomes a deemed coastal permit and thus a deemed Aquaculture Management Area under the new legislation.

Araara. n. [Ma. araara] TREVALLY, Caranx georgianus. Also in the form arara.

1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 395 Araara, a fish about a foot and a half long, very broad and flat, having remarkably large scales, and its dorsal and caudal fins covered with scales. 1885 AJHR H15: 7
The arara of the Maoris, or the trevalli or cavalli of the fishermen (*Caranx georgi anu*), is a highly esteemed fish, that is very common in every part of the colony during the summer months, but is in best condition at the commencement and close of the season. 1927 Best Fishing Methods 49 The following fish were caught with hook and line: araara, maomao, moki, mango, ngoiro, pakirikiri, kahawai, tamure, tarakhi, and warehou. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler’s Fishes of New Zealand 78 The School Trevally was known to the Maoris as the "Araara" and to Europeans as the "trevally" or "Cavalli".

2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 204 As arara they were well known to the Maori, and were taken by line and net.

**aua.**  
*Ma. aua* YELLOW-EYED MULLET, *Aldrichetta forsteri*. Also in the form awa. See also *herring*, and *makawhiti*.  
1848 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle November 18. 149 Sprat or Sardine Aua. 1855 Taylor *Te Ika a Maui* 411 Awa, is a small tidal-river fish, resembling the roach; the settlers call it the herring, which it only resembles in shape. 1870 AJHR D9: 5 *Herring, Aua* (*Agnostostoma Forsteri*) … This is a kind of mullet, and is caught in large numbers off the wharf, with hook and line. 1886 Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand 65 The Picton herring, a dried fish, commonly known throughout the colony, is the awa, preserved by smoking. 1950 NZFSG 21: 4. 9 The yellow-eyed Mullet (*Agnostostomus forsteri*), called Aua or Matakawhiti by the Maoris, and wrongly called Herring by others, grows to a little over 12 inches long, will take any small bait, and great quantities of them may be caught in the surf under practically any conditions. 1969 New Zealand Seafoods: *Buyer's Guide* 36 YELLOW-EYED MULLET (AWA) (*Agnostostomus forsteri*).

**Auckland Mullet.**  
*Ma. aua*. Grey mullet, *Mugil cephalus* of the Mugilidae family, a deep silvery grey, thick bodied fish which is caught commercially in setnets in the upper North Island. See also deep-sea mullet, kanae, mullet, and sea mullet.

1880 Wanganui Herald June 22. 2 JUST ARRIVED.— A fine lot of Smoked Auckland MULLET and Fresh OYSTERS at the Empire Oyster Saloon. 1905 Evening Post September 02. 8 LAERY AND CO. have received instructions to sell by auction, at their rooms, JERVOIS-QUAY .. 15 cases Auckland mullet. 1957 Parrott *Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand* 40 It [kanae] is reported to be common in the Auckland markets from mid-winter until October, and is sold as Deep-sea Mullet or Auckland mullet.

**Auckland rock oyster.**  
*Ma. awa*. ROCK OYSTER, *Saccostrea glomerata*. See also Northern rock oyster and rock oyster.

1913 AJHR H15b: 8 Taking everything into consideration in connection with these oyster beds I am convinced that the Government should undertake the dredging and marketing in a similar way to that which is being done with the Auckland rock-oysters. 1920 AJHR H15: 20 It has been suggested that the Auckland rock-oyster should be tried at the Portobello Hatchery, but the natural range of the species is from the Hauraki gulf northwards, and it certainly would not thrive in the colder southern waters. 1937 Powell The Shellfish of New Zealand 20 There are two edible oysters in New Zealand that are of commercial importance, the Stewart Island mud oyster and the Auckland rock oyster.

**authorising officer.**  
*Ma. aua*. KAITIAKI. See also tangata tiaki / kaitiaki and TT/K.  
1987 Commercial Fishing February 27 MAF are suggesting that the Maori tribes should seek permission to gather seafood for hui and tangihanga where normal daily quota limits are likely to be exceeded, from ‘authorising officers selected by the appropriate Maori organisations’. 1999 The Maori Law Review January www.bennion.co.nz. The authorising officer must be advised of any bycatch which is taken.

**awa.** see AUA.

**baby blue.**  
*Ma. aua*. young HAPUKU.  
1981 NZFN 3: 12. 16 This feature [dark blue back and sides] gives rise to their local name of "baby blues" in parts of the South Island. 1986 Catch December 12 Bottom-living subadults [of hapuku] 50 to 60 cm long, variously named baby-blues, blue-bottles, or suckers, are well known in New Zealand waters, but records of
smaller specimens are conspicuously absent.

**banded parrotfish.** *n.*

*Banded Wrasse, Pseudolabrus fucicola* [early usage]. See also *rasp.*

1812 *TrNZI* 45. 231 The banded parrotfish is identified by Anderton as occurring not uncommonly in Otago Harbour. 1938 *TrNZI* 68. 413 Banded parrot-fish ... Localities: North and South of Otago Heads, Moeraki to Cape Saunders; occasionally inside the harbour at Harrington Point. 1956 *Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 277 The Banded Parrot-fish has a bright green body colouration with an ornamentation of six purplish coloured vertical bands, equally spaced, between the head and tail.

**banded wrasse.** *n.*

*Pseudolabrus fucicola* of the Labridae family, a greeny, yellow banded fish which is of interest to divers, but not commonly eaten. Previously known as *banded parrotfish.* See also *rasp.*

1868 Foreman in *A Red Cod and a Conger Eel* (1998) 44 My own catch was a four kilo moki, snapper of 2, 4 and 5 kilos, a 1.5 kilo banded wrasse and 6 and 7 kilo congers. 1982 *Ayling and Cox Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand* 255 Banded wrasses less than 10cm long are usually red-brown in colour, mottled with green and orange, a pattern that provides good camouflage amongst the seaweed fronds in which these small fishes normally hide. 2008 *NZFN* 31: 6. 55 Banded wrasse often has a strong iodine taste, but is ideal for smoking, like parore.

**barracouta.** *n.*

[AND 1835] *Thrysites atun* of the Gempylidae family, a deep blue, sharp-toothed fish with a long body, which was an important food for pre-European Maori and is now heavily fished by trawling. Also in the form *barracoota,* *barrassa,* *barrassu,* *barrassa,* *barrasso*. See also *Cook Strait sailfish,* *couta,* *manga,* and *old identity.*

1817 *Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand* ii. 259 The fish, however, which are in common use among the natives, are snappers, bream, the *barrassa,* the *barrassu,* the *parrish,* cray-fish, the *herring,* the *flounder,* and a fish resembling the salmon, but much inferior to it in flavour. 1826-1827 *Boulbbee Journal of a Rambler* (1986) 75 The Baracouta season had now commenced and we had abundance of these fish; the roes of which only, we ate, preserving the fish and drying them in the sun for a future period. 1842 *Heaphy Narrative of a Residence* 49 The "barracouta" is much esteemed, as is likewise the "snapper". 1843 *Dieffenbach Travels in New Zealand* (1974) 120 At the head of East bay is the village of Mokupeka, where we were well received and presented with roasted potatoes, pork, and an excellent dried barracuda. 1885 *AJHR H15:* 7 A very common fish, well known throughout the colonies as the barracuda (*Thrysites atun*), which name is no doubt borrowed from a fish of similar shape, the barracuda pike of the tropical parts of the Atlantic. 1969 *New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer’s Guide* 5 The New Zealand Barracouta has no relationship to the tropical Barracuda, but is the same fish as the South African or Australian Snoek. 2000 *Paul New Zealand Fishes* 120 For a long time barracouta was a nuisance species, caught accidentally on outer shelf tarakihi grounds in the north and over much of the South Island shelf traditionally fished for a variety of other species.

**barracouta hook.** *n.*

a wooden lure used predominantly for catching barracouta. See quotation 1845.

1845 *Wakefield Adventure in New Zealand* 183 This is a piece of red wood with a nail driven through it and bent round in the shape of a hook commonly called a Barracoota hook. 1875 *TrNZI* 8. 108 However, some pieces [of wood] they had in the canoe, used for barracouta hooks, would answer when dry. 1878 *Heberley Reminiscences* 81 I amused myself by catching Baracoota, the crew were surprised to see me catch them so fast with my nail. This is a piece of redwood with a nail driven through it and bent around in the shape of a hook commonly called a Baracoota hook. 1908 *Hamilton Fishing and Sea-foods of the Ancient Maori* 41 Fig. 36 is entirely composed of bone bars for barracouta-hooks, the base being passed through the wooden base, and fixed in position by a small peg.

**bass.** *n.*

*BASS GROPER, Polyprion moeone.* See also *black bass* and *moeone.*

1912 *TrNZI* 45. 218 The bass is, however, always sold as groper, and as
small specimens of the latter are preferred, on account of the more tender flesh, the merits of the bass may be said to be unknown outside professional circles. 1928 TrNZI 58. 126 After numerous examinations of hapuku and bass in our local markets, my conclusion is that we have in the indigenous bass a new species. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand 66 Unfortunately the name "Bass" is applied in other countries to a number of fishes not belonging to the Groper family, and therefore not closely related to our Bass. 1981 NZFN 3: 3. 9 The Bass is also more of a "loner" than the Groper and lives frequently in splendid isolation in large rock holes emerging only to feed on passing squid, fish or crabs.

bass groper. n.
Polyprion moeone, a large fish similar to hapuku, but stouter and deeper swimming. See also bass, black bass, and moeone.
1908 Taranaki Herald October 10. 2 One of the Zior's hapuka – or bass groper, as they are called – attracted a good deal of attention this morning at Mr Grupen's White Fish Shop, in Devon Street. 1912 TrNZI 45. 215 The fishermen who go out to the 100-150-fathom water of this coast frequently catch gigantic trumpeter nearly 3ft. long .. and also a huge groper, which they call 'bass groper', and which appears to be specifically distinct from the ordinary hapuka (Polyprion oxygeneios Bloch and Schneider). 1939 TrNZI 68. 422 There are, however, difficulties［in examining stomach contents］, notably those arising from ... the tendency for some fish, especially deep-water fish such as groper, bass groper, and bream, to regurgitate the stomach contents when hooked. 1981 NZFN 3: 12. 22 The Bass Groper and the Hapuka are two lookalike species that are caught in our waters. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 83 Bass ... Sometimes (and correctly) called bass groper.

bastard trumpeter. n.
COPPER MOKI, Latridopsis forsteri.
1861 Daily Southern Cross May 31. 4 They [the fish caught] comprise black cod, groper, rock cod, trumpeter, barracouta, perch, ling, conger eel, whiting, white fish, bastard trumpeter, skate, and plaece. 1938 TrNZI 68. 412 Latris forsteri Castlenau. Bastard trumpeter ... One specimen off Otago Heads. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 259 It can easily be distinguished from the New Zealand Trumpeter by the absence of the three wide longitudinal bands on the upper half of the Bastard Trumpeter, and no greenish-bronze colouring or bright yellow fins as in the former fish.

bastard warehou. n.
SILVER WAREHOU, Seriolella punctata. See also spotted warehou.
1986 Catch December 13 Alternative common names [for silver warehou] include spotted warehou and bastard warehou, used mainly for small fish. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 137 Also called spotted warehou, and the smallest fish were once known as bastard warehou.

batten farming. n.
a method of oyster farming which employs sticks for oyster spat to adhere to.
1965 Commercial Fishing January 18 The batten farming method is quite simple.

bay whale. n.
[AND 1820] a whale which is caught from an anchored boat in the bay, usually the RIGHT WHALE.
1843 New Zealand Gazette & Wellington Spectator November 15. 2 The Bay Whale Fisheries.

bay whaler. n.
1. [AND 1867] a boat equipped for BAY WHALING.
1844 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle June 22. 61 FOR SALE, FREIGHT or CHARTER, the schooner ORATAVIA ...Would make an excellent bay whaler. 1846 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle March 28. 13 Mr Wilcox is building a vessel of about 100 tons burden .. Mr. Wilcox intends her, during the whaling season, for a bay whaler. 1913 McNab Old Whaling Days 110 The Lucy Anne, as a bay whaler instead of a trader, began to seek for fresh places for the pursuit of whales and sailed on 1st June for Port Cooper.

2. a person involved in BAY WHALING.
1866 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle March 29. 4 Deserted sailors, escaped convicts, and bay whalers, all resorted there, forming the elements of a society in which neither law nor mortality was much respected. 1909 McNab Murihiku 382 The following month, as the season had closed, the remaining bay whalers returned to Sydney. 1947
Nodwell *Shore Whaling in Early Marlborough* 20 Complete amity did not exist between the bay whalers and the shore parties.

**bay whaling.** *vbl n.*

[AND 1837] the catching of whales from a boat anchored in a bay as opposed to open sea. Occasionally used to refer to SHORE WHALING. Also attrib. 1837 Clendon *The Whaling Journal of Captain W.B Rhodes* (1954) May 06. 102 I should recommend as a last measure that you make known to your crew that every means has been tried to complete the crew for Bay Whaling ... 1841 *New Zealand Gazette and Wellington Spectator* January 23. 2 The shore or bay whaling parties already resort to this harbour for their supplies, in exchange for whalebone and oil. 1842 *New Zealand Gazette and Wellington Spectator* June 15. 2 It has been remarked, that a whaling ship has double advantage over a bay whaling party, for not only can the ship shift bay to bay, but from sea to sea. 1847 *The New Zealander* September 01. 2 The 'Neptune' does not report the Bay Whaling as being remarkably successful as yet this season. 1870 *TrNZl* 3. 69 They would commence the bay whaling in all the principal harbours of the Middle Island from Cloudy Bay to Preservation Inlet, and would afterwards repair for the off-shore whaling, to the banks between New Zealand and the Chatham Islands. 1893 Jacobson *Tales of Banks Peninsula* 279 I and the others were under agreement to the firm for the whaling season, which for bay whaling reckoned from the middle of March to the middle of October. 1909 *Evening Post* June 22. 3 The sperm whale could be taken only at sea, but "bay whaling" was the favourite procedure in the case of the "right" whale. 1933 Ommanney *Whaling in the Dominion of New Zealand* 249 Much of the Right whale industry was carried on by the method known as "bay whaling". This branch of the fishery derived its name from the Right whales' habit of entering shallow bays and inlets along the coast for the purpose of giving birth to their calves. 1986 Grady *Sealers and Whalers in New Zealand Waters* 65 Whalers from America, Britain, France, Canada, Germany and Tasmania simply anchored in our bays and mopped up the slow movers on their seasonal migrations along the coast. Hence the term "bay whaling".

**beach comber.** *n.*

A person of no fixed abode, frequenting the beaches for means of survival. 1844 *New Zealand Gazette and Wellington Spectator* March 23. 2 The power the Company possesses amounts to nothing. A sanction of the kind from any beach comber would be just as operative as it would with the signatures of, the Governor and Court of Directors attached. 1845 *Wakefield Adventure in New Zealand* i 225 Even the corrupt and profane beachcombers and whalers of Kapiti would go out of their way to say a good word or do a service for Mr Hadfield. 1859 Thomson *The Story of New Zealand* 297 The Pakeha Maori must not be confounded with the idlers and beach-combers who loitered about Kororareka .. as few of these men spoke Maori or had intercourse with natives in the interior. 1868 *Evening Post* September 17. 2 Evidence was taken as to the prisoner's antecedents, and, as the judge said, it showed him to be a member of the genus "beach comber". 1887 *Wanganui Herald* March 12. 4 Beach comber is the local term for the European adventurers and long shore loafers who infect the Pacific Archipelagoes. 1999 Bentley *Pakeha Maori* 10 I have deleted all consideration of Maori travellers and European missionaries, beachcombers and sawyers as mediators of meaning between the cultures.

**beach combing.** *vbl n.*

Living as a beach comber. 1851 *Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle* January 11. 178 They had sufficient experience, even here, of the nature of a convict population, to know what they are; a people beach combing, lodging in houses, getting work where they can pick it up, and having no fixed habitation of their own.

**beach pick.** *v.*

To harvest mussels by hand from rocks. 2004 Dawber *Lines in the Water* 43 One of the first was set up by Sounds fisherman Don Bourke, who had dredged mussels and beach picked them, and whose boat *Fisher Lassie* was used to help transport the crop from the Associated Fisherman rafts. 2004 *Ibid.* 73 We always ate mussels around here, people came from all over to beachpick.
beach picked. adj. [of mussels] harvested by hand from rocks.
2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 18 From the late 1960s Talley's were intensively involved in processing and marketing wild mussels, based first on the dredge fishery and then on beach-picked mussels.

beach picking. vbl n. taking mussels by hand from rocks.
2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 70 Caravans and old buses began to appear around the Sounds and old workers' cottages were lived in again for the beach-picking season. 2004 Ibid. Again beach-picking attracted seasonal workers like New Zealand use. 1975 Ibid. September 17 Big-eye warehou was only recently discovered by Russian scientists.

big-eye warehou. n. SMOOTH OREO, Pseudocyttus maculatus.
1975 Catch March 7 Gavrilov does not suggest a common name, however, "Big-eye warehou" would be appropriate for New Zealand use. 1975 Ibid. September 17 Big-eye warehou was only recently discovered by Russian scientists.

big red. n. SNAPPER, Chrysophrys auratus. See also moocher, panny, tai, and tamure.
1990 NZFNI 13:6. 6 To catch big reds you must fish in their preferred habitat.
1993 NZFNI 16:2. 65 I never arrive without the expectation of another big red or leave with less than eight gurnard.

bird baffler. n. a device involving streamers, attached to a trawler, which aims to prevent seabirds flying into the warp and being killed. Also in the form Brady bird baffler.
2005 Department of Conservation Marine Protected Species Interactions with Commercial Fisheries 2003-2004 3 Of the various devices used to mitigate the effects of fishing practices on protected species, probably the one with most promise for trawl fisheries is the recently introduced bird baffler. 2005 Sanford Limited Annual and Sustainable Development Report 58 The bird bafflers work on the principle of a bird's aversion to having objects overhead or flying underneath items. 2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 12 The industry has led many initiatives such as the development and use of voluntary codes of practice and development of fishing gear modifications like Brady bird bafflers, tori scaring lines ... 2007 New Zealand Geographic May / June 12. .. the Ministry of Fisheries altered the regulations in 2006 to allow the use of any of three mitigation devices (bird baffler, twin tori lines or warp scarer).

black bass. n. BASS GROPER, Polyprion moeone. See also bass.
1912 TrNZI 45. 215 The fishermen who go out to the 100-150-fathom water of this coast frequently catch gigantic trumpeter nearly 3ft. long .. and also a huge groper, which they call 'bass groper', and which appears to be specifically distinct from the ordinary hapuka (Polyprion oxygeneios Bloch and Schneider). They say it is common off Wellington, and is there known as 'black bass'. 1913 Evening Post February 01. 4 A magnificent black bass, weighing 172 lb, was captured by Mr. Roger Lucena, last week, while fishing outside of Tory Channel.

black cod. n. species of Paranotothenia, especially MAORI CHIEF 1, Paranotothenia angustata.
1861 Daily Southern Cross May 31. 4 They [the fish caught] comprise black cod, groper, rock cod, trumpeter, barracouta, perch, ling, conger eel, whiting, white fish, bastard trumpeter, skate, and plaice.
1876 TrNZI 9. 486 Blue cod is a very common fish, and to be caught all around the coast. Two different fishes are included in this term, and one of them is sometimes called black cod. They are very much alike in shape, but the scales are different. 1905 TrNZI 38. 550 Notothenia microlepida, Hutton. Not uncommon outside the Heads, and sold as "black cod". 1938 TrNZI 68. 436 Scyphozoans were recovered from elephant fish, actinozoans from blue and black cod. 1982 Ayling and Cox Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand 275 The Maori chief, often named the black cod, is a large bottom-living fish similar in shape to the blue cod, and ranging in length as an adult from 30cm to
a maximum of about 65cm. **2000** Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 117 Family Nototheniidae (southern cods, ice cods). Sometimes called black cod.

**blackfish. n.**
1. any of various small whales and occasionally dolphins, but especially the *Globicephala melaea*. Also attrib. 1837 Rhodes *The Whaling Journal of Captain W. B. Rhodes* (1954) February 19. 42 Kept a good look out, but saw nothing worthy of notice, excepting blackfish and porpoises. 1846 Nelson Examiner and *New Zealand Chronicle* September 05. 105 The flats off Taupata Point, in the corner of the bay, are strewn with the bones of the grampus, or black-fish of the whaler, which in the month of April frequent in great numbers this coast, in search of the molluscae, their food. 1872 *TrNZI* 5. 164 The Black-fish visit the coast in large schools, and occasionally run into shallow bays, where they get stranded, and fall prey to the natives and settlers. 1954 *Sea Spray* June 20 We saw a herd of blackfish, a small species of whale, sporting in the Bay, and it was interesting to watch their gambols. 1993 Holmes *My Seventy Years on the Chatham Islands* 85 Blackfish, small whales that grow up to 20 feet long and weigh upwards of three tons, are often washed ashore on Chatham Island beaches … At one stage most weatherboard houses were painted with a locally made paint consisting of blackfish blubber mixed with a red oxide found in some volcanic soil areas.


**black-footed paua. n.** PAUA as a lucrative catch. See also muttonfish.

black gold. n. 
1846 Nelson Examiner and *New Zealand Chronicle* September 05. 105 The flats off Taupata Point, in the corner of the bay, are strewn with the bones of the grampus, or black-fish of the whaler, which in the month of April frequent in great numbers this coast, in search of the molluscae, their food. 1872 *TrNZI* 5. 164 The Black-fish visit the coast in large schools, and occasionally run into shallow bays, where they get stranded, and fall prey to the natives and settlers. 1954 *Sea Spray* June 20 We saw a herd of blackfish, a small species of whale, sporting in the Bay, and it was interesting to watch their gambols. 1993 Holmes *My Seventy Years on the Chatham Islands* 85 Blackfish, small whales that grow up to 20 feet long and weigh upwards of three tons, are often washed ashore on Chatham Island beaches … At one stage most weatherboard houses were painted with a locally made paint consisting of blackfish blubber mixed with a red oxide found in some volcanic soil areas.

**black oil. n.**
the oil extracted from the black whale. 1841 *New Zealand Gazette and Wellington Spectator* September 11. 3 3,200 barrels black oil, 36,000lbs. whalebone. 1860 Davis *Whaling in Foveaux Strait* 4 We called on Molyneux Bay where 2 boat crews had a station and took in about 20 tuns, all black oil – left and called in at Port William where I remained ashore. 1954 Straubeil in *Whaling Journal of Captain W. B. Rhodes* xvi The oil of right whales was usually called ‘black oil’, not because the oil itself was black, but because of the colour of the whales producing it.

**black oreo. n.**
*Allocyttus niger* of the Oreosomatidae family, a dark brown, endemic fish with large green eye, which is caught in commercial trawls. Also in the form black oreo dory. See also deep sea dory. 1978 *NZFN* 1: 1. 19 One species caught by the Russians – a black oreo – has never been seen before and is previously unknown. 1986 *AJHR* C6: 4 Ten new leaflets were produced, many dealing with ‘newer’ species such as smooth oreo dory, creamfish and black oreo dory. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 76 Black oreos give firm white fillets particularly suitable for cooking in sauces, casseroles or chowders, or for batter and crumb coatings. 2007 Seafood Industry Council *The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species* 103 In New Zealand Fishes...
Zealand Black Oreo are found along the south of the Chatham Rise, off the east coast of the South Island, and on the Campbell Plateau.

**black snapper.** *n.* PARORE, *Girella tricuspidata.* See also **blackfish** and **mangrove fish.**

1984 *NZFN* 7: 7. 5 Take parore for example, in the north they carry an alias that associates them with raw sewerage and are generally despised, whereas in some other areas of the country they are known as black snapper and are readily eaten and enjoyed. 2000 *Paul New Zealand Fishes* 101 Variousy known as blackfish, black snapper, black bream, and mangrove fish. 2007 *Seabfood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species* 104 MARKET NAMES ... Parore, Blackfish, Black Snapper.

**black whale.** *n.* RIGHT WHALE, *Balaena glacialis.* Also attrib.

1830 *Bell Correspondence in McNab Old Whaling Days* (1913) 3 The black whale fishery was tried in New Zealand some years ago, but it was again abandoned until last year, when it was renewed by one vessel and two shore parties from Sydney, and one vessel from Hobart Town. 1835 *Yate An Account of New Zealand* 27 In Cloudy Bay are several large whaling establishments; as, in calving time, that large sheet of water is visited by immense numbers of the black whale, many of which are killed; and, as they afford a good quantity of oil, the trade, in a prosperous season, is a lucrative one. 1840 *New Zealand Gazette and Wellington Spectator* July 18. 3 The southern whale fishery consists of three distinct branches; first, that of the spermaceti whale; second, that of the common black whale of the southern seas; and third, that of the sea elephant, or southern walrus. 1845 *Majoribanks Travels in New Zealand* 77 "Shore parties" as they are termed, for capturing the black whale (sperm whale never coming within reach of a shore party) are now forming rapidly in Cook's Strait and other parts. 1873 *TrNZI* 6. 94 I applied the name of *antipodarum* to this species, believing it to be the Black Whale of New Zealand, of which Dr. Dieffenbach had brought such an accurate figure.

**black whaling.** *vbl n.* the practice of catching black whales. Also attrib.

1835 *Weller Weller Brothers Papers* January 27. 87 In fact people are Black whaling mad, since the news of the Davis Straits Fishery has arrived. 1836 *Rhodes Whaling Journal of Captain W. B. Rhodes* (1954) August 07. 10 Capt. Howe observed that I had got an extremely rasally and mutinous set to deal with, and, not being supported properly by my officers, he plainly saw they were too lazy for black whaling, and advised me to go after sperm. 1854 *Daily Southern Cross* November 07. 2 The black whaling season in Hawk's Bay has been a very bad one, there having been but a few tuns of oil taken. 1913 *McNab Old Whaling Days* 149 Wright and Long purchased the *Governor Bourke* to fit out for sperm and black whaling, and also equipped the *Roslyn Castle* for bay whaling.

**blanket.** *n.* a large sheet of blubber cut off a whale. Also attrib.

1838 *Polack New Zealand ii.* 420 .. another tackle is applied to a fresh piece of blubber, technically called blanket pieces, during which the preceding piece is lowered into an inclosed place below the deck, called the blubber room. 1927 *Vosseler Journal of his Whaling Experiences* June Then the whale by means of the winch and tackle is completely turned over and the stripping of blankets completed. The big blankets are cut up into chunks about 10" square and then minced before being put into the boilers. 1986 *Grady Sealers and Whalers in New Zealand Waters* 61 The "blankets" rise in quick succession and are cut off and lowered into the square of the main hatch or blubber room. 2001 *Martin The Whale's Journey* 106 Once on the deck, flensers marked off sections of blubber, after which it was torn off in three large sections called 'blanket pieces'.

**blanketing.** *vbl n.* cutting large sheets of blubber off a whale. 1927 *Vosseler Journal of his Whaling Experiences* June We also cut off masses of blubber missed in the blanketing.

**blind eel.** *n.* *Eptatretus cirrhatus* from the Myxinidae family, a slimy, eel like fish which was
considered a delicacy by Maori. See also hagfish, snot eel and tuari.

1846 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle October 17. 130 The fishing yielded three crayfish, and a tuari or blind eel; and we proceeded next day heavily laden with mamaku in addition to our potatoes. 1896 Otago Witness January 02. 45 Then there is the nightmare of the deep, known as the blind eel—a snake-like thing which writhes and twists itself into knots when caught, finally apparently dissolving into a disgusting slimy mucus, which makes the boat unfit to live in. 1907 Otago Witness September 25. 32 One of the natural enemies of the red cod and the terakihi is the blind eel, a kind of parasite which attaches itself to its victims by means of a formidable row of teeth. 1935 NZFSG 8: 12. 12 The method of catching the blind eel is to place a hooked piece of fencing wire round them and they swim in on the surface. 1987 Catch September 25 The Board is now leading the research into the possibility of a commercial blind eel (hagfish) fishery.

blocking. vbl n. using nets to prevent others from catching fish, or boats to prevent others from catching whales.

1895 AJHR H29: 3 A complaint was made by fishermen at the Thames with reference to the system of "blocking", by which one person's nets were interfered with by other persons setting nets outside or round them; and, on inquiry it was found that there were good grounds for this complaint. A regulation prohibiting this practice was therefore made. 1982 Grady The Perano Whalers 43 In fact, it is not at all unlikely that the Peranos accelerated the closure of Baldick whaling by engaging in the tactic known as "blocking". This is achieved by "blocking" off whales from the opposition boats by using boats from your own team as a shield.

blubber, specific usage in combination; blubber floor, the area on which the blubber is kept; blubber ways, a platform via which blubber is hauled.

1839 Hempleman The Piraki Log (1910) April 23. 84 People employ'd bringing spars down for Blubber-ways. 1982 Grady The Perano Whalers 71 They rebuilt the flensing floor; realigned the blubber floor; realigned the mincing engine; turfed out the big steam engine that drove the mincer, and replaced it with a diesel engine. 2001 Martin The Whale's Journey 103 Perano' sons Gil and Joe rebuilt the flensing floor, rearranged the blubber floor …

blue cod. n. Parapercis colias of the Mugiloididae family, an endemic blue-green mottled fish with rounded body found around the South Island and the Chathams which is important commercially and popular recreationally. See also bluey, coalfish, rawaru, and rock cod.

1864 Otago Witness September 17. 13 Fish of the larger kinds are very scarce ... Of the smaller kinds, blue cod are the most plentiful, and they are brought from Cape Saunders-distant 12 miles from the Heads. 1896 AJHR H15: 4 On the 27th July, E. Andrews and P. Garbes were prosecuted for having small blue-cod in their possession in Wellington; the former was fined £1 and costs, but the charge against the latter was dismissed the Magistrate stating that he would give him the benefit of the doubt. 1897 Otago Witness January 21. 8 The schedule limits the size of the blue cod to 8oz and of the rock cod to 8oz. But these two names apply to one and the same fish (Percis colias), the first name being that by which it is known in the southern part of this colony. 1903 The New Zealand Fishing Industry 13 The blue cod is probably the most delicate fish in these waters, and one of the finest fish in the world. 1932 AJHR H15: 15 The blue-cod fisheries off Stewart Island and the Chathams have suffered seriously from the diminished demand for exports to Australia. 1969 New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer's Guide 7 Generally caught in and south of the Cook Strait, and in the wind-swept waters of Stewart Island and the Chatham Islands, the Blue Cod has fine flesh with very few bones and a delicious flavour. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 114 Blue cod are voracious predators, feeding on a wide range of bottom-living animals and small fishes, most of which they stalk, seize, and swallow almost whole. 2004 Holmes Hook it and Cook it 123 The commercial fishermen at Port Pegasus, Stewart Island, used to smoke blue cod simply by hanging them in the chimney overnight with a smouldering fire below – and they made a pretty good breakfast at that.
blue mackerel. *n.* *Scomber australasicus*, a blue green fish with dark stripes and a rounded tapering body which is found around New Zealand coasts and valued as a strong fighting fish. See also English mackerel, mackerel, slimey mackerel, and tawatara.  

1975 *AJHR* C5: 10 Blue mackerel were also found to be abundant in some years. 1993 Mossman *Serious about Sportfishing* 146 Blue mackerel (better known to fishos as slimy mackerel) are rather tuna-like in shape (in fact strictly speaking they are a type of tuna), iridescent blue-green on top with a distinctive wavy pattern and no scutes.  

2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 124 In New Zealand it has often been called English mackerel and Pacific mackerel, but it is becoming more widely and appropriately known now as blue mackerel. 2008 *Marine Farming Association Newsletter* June 21 Blue mackerel is one of New Zealand's few coastal fish species that are still abundant and under-utilised.

blue maomao. *n.* MAOMAO, *Scorpius violaceus*.  

1963 Sutherland *Maui and Me* 148 And just beneath the trewalkly, in even, but more open formation, stretched the accompanying school of blue maomao, a bright blue pattern against the inky blue water. 1979 *NZFN* 1: 8. 21 What's the difference between a Blue Maomao and a Sweep or isn't there one? The scientists have found by comparing the two species' "chemical fingerprints" that they are different species. 2006 *New Zealand Geographic* March / April 57 Shoals of blue maomao and demoiselle are permanent residents of these rocky portals, the maomao hanging in masses like turquoise chandeliers in mid-water, the inquisitive demoiselles (French for "young ladies") darting about like sparrows.

blue moki. *n.* *Latridopsis ciliaris*, of the *Latrididae* family, a silvery blue fish with dark bands and thick lips which occurs throughout New Zealand and is sought recreationally and commercially. 1979 *NZFN* 1: 14. 16 The blue moki is smaller, deeper and bluer and is found in much deeper water. 1984 *NZFN* 7: 5. 8 Blue Moki really are an elusive fish but when you hook one you become addicted forever. 2007 *Dominion Post Indulgence*

blue warehou. *n.* WAREHOU, *Seriolella brama*. 1977 *New Zealand Seafoods: a Buying and Catering Guide* 32 Blue warehou flesh tends to be darkish in colour, and as it is fairly dry it is best poached, steamed or smoked. 1986 *Catch* December 13 No, the silver warehou is not the species commonly found in shallow water around the South Island. This is the warehou, now more often called the blue warehou. 2004 Johnson *Hooked* 290 In the late 1960s and early 1970s large quantities of blue warehou, *Seriolella brama*, which could be finned at depths of less than 200 metres, had been caught.

bluey. *n.* BLUE COD, *Parapercis colias*.

blue moki. *n.* Hyperoglyphe antarctica, a large eyed, blue-grey, blunt snouted fish which is commercially trawled. See also *Griffin’s silverfish*. 1975 *Catch* September 17 Silver warehou is a mixture of bluenose, spotted and big-eye warehou. 1978 *Catch* October 18 Blue nosewarehou … Distinguished from the hapuka and bass by a laterally compressed body, a larger eye set lower on the head, and a blunt snout. 1986 *Catch* December 13 Bluenose have traditionally been line-caught from small domestic vessels, often in association with hapuka and bass groper, but from 1983 have also been taken .. by semi-pelagic trawling over rough ground. 2003 *New Zealand Seafood Industry Council Big Fish: Industry Profile* 41 Dave Moore has been catching snapper and blue moki not only looks very handsome (despite its Mick Jagger lips) in its banded blue-grey livery, sides flashing a chrome grey, but also reaches a good size (in excess of 9kg, but anything over 5kg is considered a big specimen).

bluey. *n.*
1998 O'Brien A Red Cod and a Conger Eel 45 The pickers (small fish) made little impression on the bluey heads and the big snapper loved them.

**Bluff oyster.** *n.* *Tiostraea luteria* (formerly *Ostrea*), a native oyster which occurs intertidally around New Zealand, but most abundantly in Foveaux where it is dredged and forms the basis of an old and important fishery. Also *attrib.* See also *dredge, Foveaux Strait, mud, and Stewart Island oyster.*

1892 *Otago Witness* October 13. 45 The next oyster, and the most important found in New Zealand, is what was formerly known as the Stewart Island oyster, but what is now called the Bluff oyster in the market (*Ostrea chilventris*).

1918 *AJHR* H15: 9 Sixty sacks of roughly culched oysters were supplied by one of the Bluff oyster firms. 1963 *Commercial Fishing* August 16 The conventional Bluff oyster boat lifts the dredge on board by means of the derricks over the side of the vessel. 1969 *New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer's Guide* 34 It has not been Government policy to permit the export of Bluff oysters over recent years so that the unique and piquant flavour of Bluff oysters is just a memory to those Australians who enjoyed this famous delicacy when regular supplies were sent by sea direct from Bluff. 1971 *AJHR* H15: 46 A small bed of mussels in Foveaux Strait was dredged by Bluff oyster dredgers during the closed season for oysters. 1982 *AJHR* C5: 29 Monitoring of the Bluff oyster fishery has continued, but, as expected, the overall oyster population has continued to decline and may do so for a few more years, even if there are significant spatfalls. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 166 Bluff oysters are popular in New Zealand, both fresh and cooked; they cannot be exported, despite a strong international demand for such high quality seafood. 2005 *New Zealand Herald* April 23 Bluff oysters are considered the *crem de la crem* of New Zealand oysters and the short season sends connoisseurs into a frenzy – even more intense when bad weather or bonamia, a mature oyster's worst bacterial enemy, limits supplies.

**boatie.** *n.* a person who fishes recreationally from a boat. 1990 *NZFN* 13: 6. 12 Boaties try anchoring off the wharf and use an oil burley and you should be rewarded. 2005 *Independent Herald* April 19. 17 The best day's fishing is better than the best day working .. and when you get a cracker day with a very light southerly the west coast off Wellington, from south of Makara up to Kapiti is a great playground for fishes and boaties. 2006 *New Zealand Herald* January 06. D15 Boaties in the north have to go deep at the moment – 60m to 70m – to get snapper unless they go out at first light or after dark.

**borer.** *n.* *Thais scobina*, a gastropod mollusc that attacks oysters. Also in the form *oyster borer. Also attrib.*

1869 *AJHR* D15: 10 Care should be taken to destroy the enemy of the young brood; the enemies are the five-fingers, the dog welk, the starfish, the borer, the stingaree, with his tail. 1928 *AJHR* H15: 16 The “borer” is a species of gastropod mollusc having the scientific name of *Thais scobina*, which resembles a small whelk and has similar habits to those of the dog-welk (*Purpura lapillus*), which is a notorious pest on European oyster-beds, or the “drill”, which is similarly obnoxious to American cultivators. 1930 *AJHR* H15: 15 A system of paying borer pickers by contract has resulted in a substantial increase in the number destroyed without unduly adding to the cost… 1931 *AJHR* H15: 17 The effects of the persistent borer-destruction of the last three years is now very apparent on most of the oyster-shores, but the quantities are still great in the Kaipara and in some of the Coromandel beds. 1967 *Commercial Fishing* October 9 Pests are few, the oyster-borer, a tiny shellfish that attack the oyster by boring through the shell with a rasp like tongue.

**bream.** *n.* small SNAPPER and occasionally unrelated fish including WAREHOU and BLUENOSE.

1807 Savage *Some Account of New Zealand* 11 The snapper and bream are uncommonly fine – the crayfish and crabs excellent. 1817 Nicholas *Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand* i. 419 We got here a seasonable supply of fish .. and we soon caught a quantity of bream, the fish that gives name to the bay. 1841 Hodgskin *A Narrative of Eight Months' Sojourn in New Zealand* 34 Whiting, bream, and snapper are abundant, with
several kinds of skate. 1870 *AJHR* D9: 3 Bream, or Takahiti (Cheilodactylus aspersus) ... This fish does not appear to be common in the harbour, except in the young state, but it is obtained outside, weighing 3 to 4 lbs. 1960 Doogue and Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 223 Chrysophrys auratus; “schnapper”; bream (“brim”); tamure (Maori). 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 96 Small snapper are sometimes called bream or brim, and the brightly coloured, medium-sized fish caught during the spring spawning season are often called school snapper.

**brill.** *n.*

Colistium guntheri of the Pleuronectidae family, an endemic flounder with dark mottling which is caught recreationally in nets and occasionally in trawls. [First citation may be misapplied].

1872 Hector *Notes on the Edible Fishes* 51 Pseudorhombus scaphus ... Brill. 1885 Grey River Argus October 26. 2 An unusually large brill (a fish allied to the turbot) was caught off New Brighton this morning, and presented to Sir J. Vogel by the fisherman. 1900 *TrNZI* 33: 57.4 The best results were perhaps obtained at Tewawae Bay, where in two hours 48 dozen of flat-fish, brill, and other good fish were trawled. 1956 Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* The Brill, with its brownish-grey colouring, each scale having a black mark on the outer edge, all of which form longitudinal lines on the body, together with its symmetrical shape, is one of the most handsome of our Flatfish. 1969 *Tuatara* 17: 3. 120 One common name may be used to denote different species, e.g., some fishermen use the name ‘Brill’ to denote Colistium nudipinnis and Colistium guntheri, others call both of them ‘Turbot’, while still others recognise that they are different species, and call them ‘Turbot’ and ‘Brill’ respectively. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 144 Brill Colistium guntheri ... Restricted to New Zealand.

**brim.** *n.*

Small SNAPPER [regional, Nelson]. See also bream.

1960 Doogue and Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 223 Chrysophrys auratus; “schnapper”; bream (“brim”); tamure (Maori). 1962 *AJHR* I19: 84 Schnapper, bream, and brim (small snapper). 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 96 Small snapper are sometimes called bream or brim, and the brightly coloured, medium-sized fish caught during the spring spawning season are often called school snapper. 2004 Johnson *Hooked* 309 In Nelson, small snapper were called ‘brim’ and some fishermen insisted they were a different species. 2008 *The Nelson Mail* September 13. 16 The term “snapper” is a bit of a misnomer - they are actually a type of sea bream, hence the local term “brim” for smaller, pan-sized specimens.

**bronzie.** *n.*

NEW ZEALAND WHALER, Carcharhinus brachyurus.

1885 *NZFN* 8: 8. 6 I can see a lot of new and potentially exciting encounters occurring with makos, bronzies, hammerheads, and yes, hopefully even a marlin or two. 1993 Mossman *Serious about Sportfishing* 73 What the bronzies do is provide some pre-season ‘poor man’s gamefishing’ for the owners of small boats, and a good challenge for land-based game fishing. 2009 *NZFN* 32: 2. 129 One anchored yacht with the day’s catch hanging over the side was visited by three bronzies just before dinner time...

**bull kelp.** *n.*

*Durvillaea antarctica* of the *Durvillaeaceae* family, a large, long-fronded brown seaweed harvested for various purposes. See also rimurapa.

1871 *TrNZI* 4. 354 The kelp used to make it float was the ‘rimapa’, or broad flat bull kelp, which was dried and then put in, and taken out when done with, and replaced when rotten. 1938 *TrNZI* 67. 377 In 1933 we found the bull kelp D’ Urvillea antarctica growing on the Poor Knights, the first record for the east coast of the Auckland Province. 1964 *Commercial Fishing* November 16 It was only twenty years ago that scientists realised the difference between the two big bull kelps, the one with the honeycomb airpockets that is split to make mutton-bird bags, and the other with a solid frond and branching stem. 1979 *NZFN* 1: 4. 5 While the bull kelp stayed crisp and the shark liver oil stayed clear, the weather was going to be fine. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 238 Bull kelp or rimurapa (*Durvillaea*) has been collected for algin, used in a variety of pharmaceutical and edible products, such as kelp salt.
butterfish.  

n.

1. *Odax pullus* of the Odacidae family, an endemic, dark greeny, brown fish common in the South Island which has been of steady commercial importance. See also greenbone, kelpfish, and marari.  

1869 *Daily Southern Cross* April 15. 3 The variety was great-flounders, flathead, and eels, salmon (colonial), butterfish, shark...were brought out of the water and carefully basketed. 1870 *AJHR* D9: 3 *Butter-fish, or Green-bone, Ripiripi (Coridodax pullus)*. - A dark-coloured fish, with mucous covering and rather forbidding aspect, but excellent food, which is caught outside, and comes into season in June. 1886 *Sherrin* *Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand* 14 Known by many as the kelp-fish, and by the fishermen in some places as the butterfish. 1929 *AJHR* H15: 22 Kelp-fish are not a common fish in the Dunedin market, but in Wellington they are abundant, and are sold under the name of "butterfish". 1957 *Parrott* *Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand* 130 It is unfortunate that the Butterfish has been given a variety of local names which have originated either from their habit of associating with kelp, their body form, or from the colour of their bones, as for example, Kelpfish, Kelp-Salmon, Green-bone, and several other names not so easy to explain. 1977 *Commercial Fishing* November 17 During a recent easterly the waves swept right past his property leaving a green bone (butterfish to the northerners) and a red cod wriggling but firmly impaled on his boxhorn hedge! 2000 *Paul New Zealand Fishes* 111 The true position of butterfish stocks is not known, but on many of the main grounds in central New Zealand the species is now much less abundant than it once was, and this may be so elsewhere.  

2. SPOTTY, *Pseudolabrus celidotus* (regional, South Island). See also guffy, kelpie, and paketi.  

1956 *Graham* *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 261 In Auckland the fish known to South Islanders as Spotty (*Pseudolabrus celidotus*) is called Butterfish on account of its bright golden colouring on the lower parts of the body and fins fancifully resembling the colour of butter. 1957 *Parrott* *Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand* 133 It [the spotty] is frequently, but quite incorrectly referred to as the Butterfish, and in Canterbury it is generally known as the "guffy". 2000 *Paul New Zealand Fishes* 107 Spotty *Pseudolabrus celidotus* ... Alternative names include paketi, kelpie, and butterfish (the last two being misleading).  

butterfisher.  

n. a person who fishes for butterfish.  

1938 *Kaikoura Star* December 08 in Garbes and Garbes *Kaikoura Fishermen* (2004) 98 A record for butter-fishing at Kaikoura this season was put up yesterday by two well known fishermen. We learn that Mr. P. Curran will visit Kaikoura shortly, when a new record can be looked forward to, as Mr Curran is the "daddy" of butter-fishers.  

butterfishing.  

vbl n. catching butterfish.  

2004 Garbes and Garbes *Kaikoura Fishermen* 98 Men butterfishing in their Sunday best in the 1920s.  

butterfly perch.  

n. *Caesioperca lepidoptera*, of the Serranidae family, a pink-sheened fish, with a dark blotch, which is occasionally trolled and of interest to divers. See also red perch and red snapper.  

1957 *Parrott* *Sea Angler's Fishes* 73 The Red Perch .. is also known as the 'Red Snapper'..or 'Butterfly Perch'. 1982 Aying and Cox *Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand* 208 Butterfly perch swim in loose plankton feeding schools but usually stay closer to the bottom than their relatives the pink maomao. 2009 *Ryan* *Fiords - Fish and marine mammals*, *Te Ara* - the *Encyclopedia of New Zealand*, updated 2-Mar-09 *http://www.TeAra.govt.nz/en/ Butterfly perch (Caesioperca lepidoptera), first collected on James Cook's second voyage to Dusky Sound in 1773, tend to follow divers for a while before losing interest.  

bycatch trade off scheme.  

n. a government introduced policy to allow the sale of fish caught above a quota allowance in exchange for quota of another species.  

1988 *AJHR* C6: 19 By-catch issues remain a problem, but have been alleviated to a very real extent, by the so called 'by-catch trade-off scheme' introduced by the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries during the 1986/87 fishing year. 1988 *AJHR* C5: 32 The Fisheries Act contains provisions for dealing with dumping but, in addition MAFFish worked
closely with industry representatives to develop alternative ways of handling it. This resulted in the introduction of the bycatch trade-off scheme which allowed fishers to lease back to the Crown quantities of quota held by them, in exchange for being allowed to keep fish that was caught outside quota. 1999 Saunders New Zealand Marine Sciences Society REVIEW 41, 29 He continues to provide advice on fisheries interaction, particularly the use of the by-catch trade-off scheme. 2004 Kerr & Aitken Motu Economic and Public Policy Research 10 The bycatch trade-off scheme allowed fishers who caught in excess of their quota holdings to legally sell the catch, and in exchange lease back to the government an economically equivalent quantity of unfished ITQ for another species.

cadger's fish. n. MEGRIM, Arnoglossus scapha [regional, Otago]. See also lantern fish and witch. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 187 Another name given to this useless fish by local fishermen, in Port Chalmers at least, was that of Cadger's-fish. 1980 NZFN 2: 3. 21 As a rule this ruse [supplying a bony megrim when somebody asks for a flounder] curbed his cadging and he would be missing from the wharf or did not specify the type of fish he wanted; hence the name Cadger's-fish.

capstone. n. a stone forming the top layer of a wall made to collect oyster spat in oyster cultivation. 1929 AJHR H15: 13 No fresh walls were built, but the capstones of old walls were turned where necessary and in some cases carried down to the best growing zone on the beach and replaced by new capstones for further catchment of spat. 1931 NZOYB 491 In the spawning season the oysters-spat attaches itself to the under-side of the rocks, which are allowed to remain in that position for a month or two, when they are turned over to permit the young oysters to grow to marketable size, the cap-stones thus covered being usually moved to the level of maximum growth and the walls provided with fresh cap-stones which in turn become covered with spat. 1933 AJHR H15: 15 We are also to transfer all the available capstones from Mahurangi and Kawau to Rat Island, Coromandel, to be placed among the boulders near high water to act as brood stock. 1940 AJHR H15: 16 Waiheke: 1,609,800 borers and 139 pupus destroyed .. and 116 yards of capstones spread.

carrot. n. GURNARD, Chelidonichthys kumu. See also kumukumu and red gurnard. 2007 Dominion Post Indulgence November 1. 9 With their a [sic] bright orange and steadily tapering body, it’s easy to see how gurnard earned themselves the nickname "carrots". 2008 NZFN 31: 7. 48 My main reason for pulling carrots is for eating, because gurnard are an excellent table fish that many people prefer to snapper. 2009 NZFN 32: 9. 10 Interestingly, the carrot numbers have improved a bit in the Hauraki Gulf over the last few years, and it is now common to catch one or two a day amongst the snapper.

catch/quota trade off. n. a government introduced system involving the surrender of quota for one fish, when it has been caught as by-catch, in exchange for another non-target species. Also attrib. 1987 Commercial Fishing September 2 MAF intends that the forfeiture of fish to the Crown, or the catch/quota trade-off, should be used by fishers as a mechanism of last resort. The catch/quota trade-off species and their equivalent values will be reviewed by MAF as the need arises. 1987 Catch September 12 "The catch/quota trade-off will continue in its present form into the new fishing year", Mr Ray Dobson, MAFFish Director (Operations), told Catch at the beginning of September. 1989 Clark, Major and Mollett Development and Implementation of New Zealand's ITQ Management System 141 This catch-quota trade-off system is not being widely used – it is rather complex and fishers by and large cannot be bothered with the work involved.

CELR. n. abbrev. Catch Effort Landing Return, a document completed by commercial fishers with information on fish caught. 2002 AJHR H15: 12 In managing the Catch Effort database, the Ministry implemented stage 3 of the strategic plan for management of catch and effort information. This included improving the explanatory notes for the Catch Effort Landing Return (CELR) forms. 2005
ceremonial snapper. n. high quality, frozen, whole SNAPPER, for the Japanese market. See also tai. 1972 Commercial Fishing November 10 He has broken into Japan, one of the hardest fish-selling markets of all, and is doing well with a line of "ceremonial snapper" 3/4 whole, perfectly formed fish snap frozen within a few hours of being caught, exported in cardboard trays. 1980 Commercial Fishing June 17 Guess which packaging Company helps get ceremonial snapper to Japan in 23 hours and live eats to Europe in 40? 2004 Johnson Hooked 189 By 1966 Sanford and several other new Zealand exporters were expanding the market for the small whole frozen ceremonial snapper, known as tai.

chaser. n. a small, motorised boat used in hunting whales. Occasionally in the form whale chaser. Also attrib. 1929 NZFSG 2: 11. 6 At this time the whaling season is in full swing, and these mighty brutes can be seen every day as they pass between Piercy Island and Cape Brett, with "chasers" in hot pursuit". 1938 AJHR H15: 20 In the Picton Sounds four oil-engined chasers and a recently acquired parent steamship were engaged. 1938 Gerard Strait of Adventure 91 The chaser crew settled themselves in the cockpits, while the little steamer set her course up the strait and started on the long tow home. 1946 Sea Spray February 15 All the chasers in Mr Perano's fleet were equipped this year with a new kind of harpoon gun which has better locking and loading devices. 1959 Sea Spray October 45 Since then there have been many 'chasers', and with each new one fresh ideas based on trial and error have been adopted until we have the present-day, strong, light boat capable of fighting a whale at high speed in a rough sea. 1982 Grady The Perano Whalers 140 But if whales were sighted then Trevor would be quickly collected from the bunk by a chaser-driver, who would soon have him out in the thick of the action of another whale hunt. 1986 Grady Sealers and Whalers in New Zealand Waters 274 Their kind of whaling involved sleek, fast chasers which sometimes mustered humpback whales, rather like a shepherd's dog rounding up sheep. 2002 Heberley Last of the Whalers 50 Trevor Norton, one of the other gunners, and Charlie were crouching together on shore, out of the wind, watching the sea breaking over the bow of the chaser and wondering how long it could survive. 2004 NZ Listener August 7. 3 Following whales is second nature to Peter Perano, who worked in the family whale business as a chaser driver. 2005 Heberley Ordinary Women 14 Earlier in the day the chaser crews had been chasing the whale but lost it.

Christmas tree rope. n. synthetic, hairy rope used in mussel farming to provide a surface for the settlement of small mussels and spat. 1984 Catch June 18 Observations of these different materials over several months during the settlement season suggested that the Christmas tree rope is still the most practical and successful mussel spat settlement surface. 2004 Johnson Hooked 435 A local company soon developed what became known as Christmas tree rope, a synthetic rope with numerous small branches to give a greatly expanded surface for spat and small mussels to set on. 2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 43 His experiments with different rope structures led to the evolution of Donaghys 'Christmas tree' rope for spat catching. 2006 Niwa Water and Atmosphere 14: 3. 16 Wild mussel spat are also collected directly from the sea by placing hairy 'Christmas tree' ropes in the water; these act like filamentous seaweeds, attracting mussel larvae to settle on them in high numbers.

clapmatch. n. full grown female seal, usually the FUR SEAL. 1815 Sydney Gazette in McNab Murihiku (1909) 172 [of the seals killed] the Clap Match, or female seal, furnish great proportion. 1876 New Zealand Tablet April 14. 14 In the trade a full-aged male is called a " wig " a female, " clap-match "; males not quite so old, " bull "; the
half-grown of both sexes, "yearlings"; the young of nearly a year old, "grey" or "silvered pups"; and before their coats are changed to this shade, "black pups." 1940 Howard Rakura 40 Incoming skins are sorted to arbitrary standards – wigs (old males), clap-matches (females) ... 1986 Grady Sealers and Whalers in New Zealand Waters 34 Sealers found the big, lumbering bulls yielded up to half a tonne of oil each, while it would take five females, called clam-matches, to produce the same quantity.

couldie.  n.
CLOUDY BAY COD, Lotella rhacinus.
See also hake and Southern hake.
1979 NZFN 1: 4. 23 Two other members also presented Cloudies but, although both of these fish bettered Michael’s, they could not be accepted for a record as both were presented gutted and gilled.

Cloudy Bay cod.  n.
ROCK COD, Lotella rhacinus, and occasionally LING, Genypterus blacodes, especially for trade. See also clouldie, hake, and Southern hake.
1870 AJHR D9: 3 Cloudy Bay Cod.- This is probably the hake (Bromius venustus) which is commonly cast up on the beach outside during South-east storms. The fishermen distinguish it from the ling. 1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 116 This fish, also known as the Cloudy Bay Cod, is exceedingly common in Cook Strait, and on the other parts of the coast to the southward. 1926 TrNZI 56. 533 Lotella rhacinus is not uncommon in Cloudy Bay, and during 1924 a small number were sold in Wellington as "Cloudy Bay cod" and "rock-cod". 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 340 In some parts of Nelson Province I have heard Ling referred to as Cloudy Bay Cod on account of its "cloudy" appearance and its being not unlike a Red Cod. 1979 NZFN 1: 3. 9 At our competition a Cloudy Bay Cod was weighed in at 15 ounces (425 gm) gutted and it is quite possible that had this fish been weighed before gutting it could have broken the existing club record which is also a New Zealand record.

codfish.  n.
BLUE COD [early usage]. Also in the form cole fish. See also pakirikiri, rawaru, and rock cod.

1842 Gray Fauna in Dieffenbach Travels in New Zealand ii 1843 (1974). 222 The "polach" he [Polack] speaks of are, perhaps, the young of the Percis colias, the adult of which are known to the settlers as the "cole-fish". 1871 West Coast Times March 25. 2 The best of the finny tribe caught was a dark-coloured cod, said to have been named the cole-fish by Capt. Cook. 1885 AJHR H15: 8 Rock-cod …This [Percis colias] is the coal-fish of Captain Cook and blue-cod of the settlers in the South, and the pakirikiri of the Maoris, and is the most commonly caught fish among rocks on the coast.

1985 NZFN 8: 11. 22 Captain Cook was probably closer to its true identity when he named it [the blue cod] the coalfish because of its similarity to that inhabitant of British waters. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 114 Known almost exclusively by this common name, the occasionally listed coal-fish being a name used only by Captain Cook and some early writers, and derived from an unrelated European fish.

cobbler.  n.
RED ROCK COD, Scorpaena cardinalis [regional]. Also applied to other members of the Scorpaenidae family, especially SCARPEE, Helicolenus percoideus and SEA PERCH 1, H. barathri. See also grandfather hapuku, matuwahapuku, and scorpionfish.

1849 Phillipps Native Fishes 55 This is the cobbler of Napier fishermen and the scarpee of Cook Strait. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand 164 Perhaps "Cobbler" would be the best name for this fish, but it is unfortunately not known under this name outside Napier. 1960 Doogue & Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers' Guide 271 Other names: Scorpaena cardinalis; red rock cod, scarpee, grandfather hapuku, cobbler.

cockabully.  n.
small, marine rock pool inhabitants of the Tripterygiidae family.

1897 Otago Witness October 07. 50 She recognised them as cock-a-bullies, the most irrepressible little fishes found on the New Zealand coast. 1901 West Coast Times August 10. 4Received your letter and the member of the finny tribe. I pronounce it to be "cocka bullorum". The at first puzzled one now wonders if the curator means, in the colonial vernacular cockabully. 1905 TrNZI 38. 550
zealand sea anglers' guide
cockabullies – darting around him for some time he usually has an army of snapper] has been feeding on the bed for 1 cockle.
"blennies" – difficult to identify.
commonly known as "cockabullies" and distinctive but others – particularly those
small fishes inhabit rock pools, some quite
Rambler c1826-1827
taken for food.
dense beds on harbour mudflats and average size which is commonly found in
175

1993 Paul and Moreland Handbook of New Zealand Marine Fishes 55 Many small fishes inhabit rock pools, some quite distinctive but others – particularly those commonly known as "cockabullies" and "blennies" – difficult to identify.

cockle.  n.
1. Austrovenus stutchburyi, a clam of average size which is commonly found in dense beds on harbour mudflats and taken for food.
c1826-1827 Boulbee Journal of a Rambler (1886) 110 cockles-tôakki. 1859 Thomson The Story of New Zealand 153 The pipi and cockle were the most esteemed, and at certain places where shell-fish abounded were tapped. 1904 Tregear The Maori Race 108 Oysters, limpets, haliotis (paua), cockles, and mussels, were abundant along the coast. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 158 New Zealand has several moderate-sized and very edible clams, although this name is seldom used and they are known by their individual names of "cockle", pipi, tuatua and toheroa. 2007 Dominion Post Indulgence June 23. 9 And yet our so-called cockle bears only a passing resemblance to what Molly Malone was selling when she cried "Cockles and mussels, alive alive-oh" on the streets of Dublin.

2. any of various bivalves [early usage]. 2003 Dominion Post April 01. A7 He said he wanted the sea monster named

1829 Dillon Narrative and Result of a Successful Voyage in the South Seas. 215 The head chief of Wangeroa at that period was named "Peepee" (or Cockle), who had a son. 1842 Wade Journey in the Northern Island of New Zealand 79 The pipi, or cockle, and other kindred bivalves, are very plentiful and universally eaten.

1852 New Zealander September 22. 2 Cockles, called here piples, fetch about the same price [as oysters]. 1888 Barlow Kaipara 134 Oysters and other bivalves, including Pipis (cockles) and escalops, also abound in the Kaipara.

cod, see Akaroa, bastard, RED, BLUE, black, Cloudy Bay, codfish, deep-sea, RED, RED ROCK, ROCK, and white.
codfish.  n.
1. any of various cod-like fish [early usage]. Also elliptically cod.

1835 Yate An Account of New Zealand 71 Those most plentiful and of greatest note, are, soles, mackarel, cod-fish, a species of salmon, whiting, snapper, mullet, bream, skate, gurnards, and a few smaller kinds. 1848 Nelson Examiner and the New Zealand Chronicle November 18. 149 There is not the slightest doubt that off the coast of New Zealand, there are extensive banks very little known, on which the Cod Fish abounds. 1886 Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand 15 Under the popular name of cod, at least four kinds of fish are recognised.

2. HAPUKU [early usage]. Also elliptically cod. See also groper and puka.

1838 Polack New Zealand 322 Some deep banks lie off the east coast, on which the kanai, or mullet, wapuka, or cod-fish, and the kahawai or colourless salmon, abound. 1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 102 It [hapuku] is also occasionally called the Cod fish, which is altogether erroneous, as it is more properly the representative of the Sea Perch (Seranus) of European seas. 1904 Tregear The Maori Race 106-107 The cod (hapuka) is a fine sea-fish, sometimes attaining a weight of 50 pounds.
colossal squid.  n. Mesonychoteuthis hamiltoni, a huge squid with large beak and eyes which is infrequently seen.

2003 Dominion Post April 01. A7 He said he wanted the sea monster named

175

102 It [hapuku] is also occasionally
"colossal squid" to highlight the possibility of it reaching 12-metres in length, longer than the giant squid. 2007 Dominion Post April 21. A14 Dr O’Shea, 42, was responsible for nicknaming the huge animal the "colossal squid" - a throwaway line to a local newspaper which stuck - and predicting that when one turned up, it would be much larger than its better known cousin, the giant squid. 2008 Wellingtonian December 04. 19 The colossal squid holds the record for the world’s largest eye, measuring 27cm in diameter.

**common sole.** *n.*
NEW ZEALAND SOLE, *Peltorhamphus novaezealandiae*. See also *English sole* and *patiki*. 1907 *AJHR* H15b: 4 Common and lemon soles, red-cod, schnapper, and tarakihi were taken at every haul, and might, I think, be expected in payable quantities; but the trawling area is narrow. 1924 *AJHR* H15: 19 Common soles (*Peltorhamphus novae-zealandiae*) and lemon soles (*Pelotretis flaviulatus*) were the principal fish caught. 1979 *NZFN* 1: 7, 8 The yellowbelly .. and common sole – our two most common flatfish. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 141 Also called common sole, or simply sole; once called English sole, but the species is restricted to New Zealand.

**conger eel.** *n.*
either the southern conger eel, *Conger verreauxi* or the smaller northern conger, *Conger wilsoni*, both of the Congridae family, marine eels of variable grey brown colour which are sometimes caught as food. See also *ngoroi*. 1840 Dieffenbach in Ward *Supplementary Information Relative to New Zealand* 87 Of fishes of different kinds there is great abundance; flat fish, soles, skates, the curious Achirus marmoratus .. eels, the conger eel, and another, which, when caught, emits a great quantity of slime. 1876 *TrNZI* 9. 488 On the 24th, a Conger Eel, 4 ft. long, was exhibited in one of the shops. 1956 Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 136 The bark of the Conger Eel is considerably louder than that the monotonous sound of a Seahorse, and not as loud as the pig-like grunt of a Gurnard. 1982 Ayling and Cox *Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand* 92 Conger eels are often caught on long-lines and are reasonable eating if prepared properly.

**continuous rope.** *n.*
long lengths of spatted rope used in mussel cultivation, which are looped continuously over backbone ropes. Also *attrib.* 2003 Butler *DOC Science Internal Series* 111 15 From the backbones the mussels are grown on a continuous rope 2500-3000 m long which is suspended in a series of loops (droppers) 5-10 m in length. 2004 Dawber *Lines in the Water* 188 One of the last major breakthrougths was the change from single droppers to continuous rope. 2004 *ibid.* 192 Over a few short years ropes were cut up into five-metres lengths, cut again and joined to make seven-and-a-half-metre droppers, then joined again to make continuous ropes. 2007 Indian Point Marine Farms Ltd *Newsletter* 4 February 1 http://indianpointmussels.ca/site/2007/02/01/newsletter-4/ That visit resulted in us changing our mussel growing methods to the much more efficient New Zealand continuous rope method which we still use today.

**Cook Strait sailfish.** *n.*
BARRACOUTA *Thyrsites atun*. See also *cotta, manga*, and *old identity*. 1993 Mossman *Serious about Sportfishing* 99 This is probably the most enjoyable way to fish for the old ‘Cook Strait sailfish’. 1998 O’ Brien *A Red Cod and a Conger Eel* 105 Glen Avison with a typical boat competition caught 'Cook strait sailfish', more commonly known as barracouta. 2008 Kaikoura Coast *fishingmag.co.nz/kaikoura2.htm* The "Cook Strait Sailfish", or should I say barracouta, can be a huge nuisance at Kaikoura.

**cooper’s flag.** *n.*
raupo as used by a cooper to seal whale oil casks. 1835 Weller *Weller Brothers Papers* February 16. 115 If you have any Coopers Flags send them up in the ship. 1867 *Daily Southern Cross* January 25. 6 Mr. Mason, I think, had not ascertained that in Holland the cooper’s flag is supposed to be the best material for preserving canal and river banks, and that abundance thereof grow in New Zealand.
straight after he is caught.

The ‘couta’ is best killed and bled alive.

barracouta is a very handsome fish while resembling a brilliant gleam of frosted silver such times [pursuing mullet] the ‘couta

1907 Otago Witness December 06. 10 They had just completed cleaning a huge pile of barracouta, or to use the abbreviation of our conductor, "couta".

1907 Otago Witness December 18. 18 At such times [pursuing mullet] the ‘couta resembles a brilliant gleam of frosted silver glistening in the sunlight, for the barracouta is a very handsome fish while alive.

1980 NZFN 2: 4. 9 A dark-fleshed fish the ‘couta’ is best killed and bled straight after he is caught. 1998 O’Brien A Red Cod and a Conger Eel 69 Paul was fishing Pencarrow and caught gurnard, some massive couta’s [sic], eels and a few odds and sods. 2008 NZFN 31: 8. 88 From all reports the ‘couta have been down in numbers, perhaps because the kahawai are starting to make a come-back.

couta feed. n. krill [regional].

1987 Commercial Fishing September 21 Krill (Nyctiphanes australis) or “couta feed” as it is termed by southern fishermen, and whalefeed (Munida gregaria) are key species in the marine food chain.

couta paw. n. wooden fishing lure used mainly to catch barracouta. See also barracouta hook and pah.

1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 310 When a school or Barracouta was found the Couta stick or paw, was brought out ready for fishing.

2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 213 This technique was adopted by European settlers, often with a nail replacing the earlier bone hook, to form a "couta paw".

crawfish. n. CRAYFISH [early usage]. See also cray and koura.

1834 MacDonell Extracts from Mr. M'Donell’s MS Journal 12 There are abundance of lobsters, crawfish, oysters, prawns, and shrimps.

1843 Dieffenbach Travels in New Zealand (1874) 163 Fishing was attended with great success, and I often had occasion to admire the expertise of the women in diving for crawfish in the surf near the Sugarloaf Islands.

1857 Cooper New Zealand Settlers’ Guide 30 In some parts of the colony, oysters, pipis, crawfish and other shellfish are plentiful.

1869 AJHR D15: 4 The Craw-fish …These are tolerably abundant on the coasts of the Peninsula, but, owing to the exposed situation, the supply brought to market is very uncertain.

cray. n. CRAYFISH. See also cray and koura.

1838 Polack New Zealand 323 The beaches on the whole line of coast, however rocky, afford sufficient space for clams, mussels .. crays, and oysters.

1914 Evening Post August 27. 2 A sack of crayfish was sold by auction at the
Working Men’s Club last evening, and individual “crays” were sold at prices from £2 14s downwards. 1953 NZFSG 21: 2. 20 It must gall every Maori in New Zealand to read of the export of crayfish tails in such immense quantities, not only because of the depletion of cray beds that should be feeding New Zealanders, but because of the shameful waste of what the Maori considers the best part of the cray. 1998 Hargreaves On the Next Tide 96 We could catch crays to eat all right, but no one ever thought of it as a commercial thing. 2004 Johnson Hooked 140 To everyone, they were crayfish, or more likely crays.

crayboat.  n.  A boat used for harvesting crayfish.  1963 Sutherland Maui and Me 209

Though blue cod had brought me to Bluff and crayfishing wasn’t strictly within my terms of reference, the urge to sail on a crayboat from the country’s principal crayfishing port was quite irresistible. 1998 Hargreaves On the Next Tide 91 The number of boats from the island grew .. to about 300 cray boats around the height of the boom. 2006 TimeOut August 24: 34 The final involves a trip on a cray boat on the treacherous waters south of Cook Strait with John Reader, who has been fishing the same patch for 25 years.

crayfish.  n.  
Jasus edwardsii or less commonly Jasus verreauxi of the Palinuridae family, red marine crustacean highly valued as food and very important commercially. Also attrib. See also cray, koura, green crayfish, red crayfish, green rock lobster, and red rock lobster.  1807 Savage Some Account of New Zealand 11 The snapper and bream are uncommonly fine – the crayfish and crabs excellent. 1842 Wade Journey in the Northern Island of New Zealand 178 I have never seen large crabs on the coast of New Zealand; but in some places crayfish are plentiful, and good rock oysters are to be obtained. 1859 Thomson The Story of New Zealand 203 Dexterous divers pick up large crayfish from among the rocks. 1898 North Otago Times August 24. 1 Those who relish the salt-water crayfish as an article of food .. have little idea of what a wonderful creature it is. 1936 NZOYB 382 An export trade in frozen crayfish-tails which had begun to develop in 1933 and 1934 has received a setback owing to the restrictions on imports into European markets. 1951 Kohere The Autobiography of a Maori 137 I dived, forgetful that a stingaree might be about, and with both hands I gripped the large crayfish and bore it ashore with glee. 1963 Sutherland Maui and Me 207 And as crayfish climbed higher on the list of luxury foods, many New Zealanders began displaying a new interest in, and desire for, the humble koura. 1983 Commercial Fishing August 10 Two recent burglaries of crayfish tails suggest that a thriving black market is waiting to accept them. 1990 NZFN 13: 5. 54 Crayfish a single word that is instantly recognisable by everyone as possibly the ultimate seafood delicacy. 2004 Garbes and Garbes Kaikoura Fishermen 159 About this time crayfish were being referred to as rock lobster, an advertising ploy for our overseas markets.

crayfish boom.  n.  A period in the 1960s and 70s, when the abundance of crayfish discovered in the Chatham Islands led to a frenzied bout of crayfishing by mainland New Zealanders.  1977 Commercial Fishing November 19 During the Chathams crayfish boom the company had facilities there, but when the boom fizzled the company began decreasing the fleet. 1979 Commercial Fishing May 101 But according to some fishermen the bonanza- which has been likened to the shortlived Chatham Island crayfish boom of the late 1960s could be short lived. 1993 Holmes My Seventy Years on the Chatham Islands 32 Those were the years of the crayfish boom, when the population of fishermen increased by 400 to 500, and at times controlling the bar and hotel generally became very difficult. 1998 Hargreaves On the Next Tide 92 I came over to fish in the Chathams in 1969 for 12 months. That was round the end of the crayfish boom. 2005 Heberley Ordinary Women 60 The crayfish boom at the Chatham Islands was on.

crayfisherman.  n.  A person who catches crayfish for commercial purposes.  1967 AJHR H15: 34 Other crayfishermen have not applied for loans or if they have inquired, have been given a copy of the terms of the scheme which does not include crayfishing. 2004 Johnson Hooked 202 It took far better than normal catches to keep crayfishermen in
the Chathams. 2008 Taranaki Daily News August 23. 9 Octopus are the natural enemy of crayfish. The eight-legged spineless creatures suck flesh from the crustaceans so thoroughly that even their black beady eyes are emptied from their sockets. And as New Plymouth crayfisherman Mark Bamford steers his boat past a dawn-soaked Paritutu, he says it sometimes feels the same thing is happening to Taranaki’s small but hardy fishing industry.

crayfishing. vbl n. taking crayfish recreationally or commercially.

1864 Otago Witness October 29. 19 For several weeks the attention of the seine-men have been almost solely directed to cray-fishing – the consequence being that more fish of this sort have been rushed to market than there was demand for, and prices at once fell to starvation point. 1894 North Otago Times January 31. 3 One of the party had brought a pair of light lines with the idea of doing a bit of cray-fishing, but the water being rather rough these lines were left on the top of the cliff. 1953 AJHR H15: 21 The principal increases occurred at those ports or places where crayfishing has only recently developed. 1964 Commercial Fishing September 38 He built his business up from nothing to one of the most progressive crayfishing concerns in the Dominion, and had plans that would have brought much expansion in the years ahead. 1997 Makarios Nets, Lines and Pots 51 The craypots were made out of supplejack which was gathered in the bush. 1998 Hargreaves On the Next Tide 24 You might be continually pulling up empty craypots but you’re always looking over the side to see if there’s anything in the one you’re not pulling up. 2006 New Zealand Geographic September/October 14 This year, a humpback whale became entangled in craypot lines near Kaikoura, just one of seven such incidents reported in the last five years.

cray-pot. n. a pot or basket used to catch crayfish.

1906 Grey River Argus March 17. 3 PATENTS APPLIED FOR...Christian Steffenson, Puketoraki, an improved crayfish pot. 1997 Makarios Nets, Lines and Pots 50 When crayfishing he would work up to forty crayfish pots which he hauled by hand. 2004 Garbes and Garbes Kaikoura Fishermen 94 As fish was not transported out of Kaikoura every day the crayfish were put into “craywells”. These were specially constructed wooden triangular traps, fastened to a submerged concrete block, anchored on the sea near the Old Wharf.

cray-tail. n. the tail end of crayfish, especially for export.

1953 AJHR H15: 21 Approximately 80% of the crayfish catch was exported, mostly as frozen craytails. 1988 Commercial Fishing October 8 Up until recent times, cray fishermen in the Fiordland area had been reliant on the sale of cray-tails.

craywell. n. a wooden trap for holding crayfish before transportation.

2004 Garbes and Garbes Kaikoura Fishermen 94 As fish was not transported out of Kaikoura every day the crayfish were put into “craywells”. These were specially constructed wooden triangular traps, fastened to a submerged concrete block, anchored on the sea near the Old Wharf.

creamfish. n. LEATHERJACKET, Parika scaber, especially for trade. See also file-fish, kokiri, and triggerfish.

1962 AJHR I19: 84 Creamfish .. Cantherines scaber .. Leatherjacket, triggerfish, filefish. 1983 Hohepa The Best of Bill Hohepa 39 The fish the old-timer
was on about was the Leatherjacket, that delicious little oddball they call "creamfish" in the few shops that stock it. 1986 AJHR C6: 4 Ten new leaflets were produced, many dealing with 'newer' species such as smooth oreo dory, creamfish and black oreo dory. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 146 Leatherjackets have some commercial value, several hundred tonnes being caught annually, mainly by trawlers, and sold as creamfish.

culch. v.
[of oysters] to separate from the marine debris surrounding them. Occasionally applied to scallops. Also as culched ppl. adj.

1918 AJHR H15: 9 Sixty sacks of roughly culched oysters were supplied by one of the Bluff oyster firms. 1979 Robjohns Bluff Oyster Industry 6 He reported that all the oysters seen were well culched but the minimum size allowed to be taken (then 1½ inches) was too small for the market. 1983 Catch September 17 The catch is ready to be culched, ie, the takeable oysters sorted from the unwanted material and undersized oysters. 2001 Michael and Cranfield New Zealand Fisheries Assessment Report 2001/68: A summary of the fishery, commercial landings, and biology of the New Zealand queen scallop, Zygocthalamys delicatala 8 Larger items are hand culched before the scallops are packed in bags.

culcher. n.
a machine designed to remove oysters from the debris that surrounds them.

1963 Commercial Fishing April 34 At present dredges operate fast enough to keep all hands busy at culching but more dredging could be done if culching could be speeded up – preferably by a mechanical culcher. 1963 Ibid.15 “We’d have winched you into the bin easily enough but I doubt whether you’d have got through the culcher.

culching. vbl n.
removing oysters from the debris surrounding them.

1949 AJHR H15: 26 In view of the high catch in 1948, the dredge size has been restricted to 11ft. in length for the 1949 season. This will not only assist conservation, but should ensure better culching of the oysters on the part of some of the oystermen, who tend to become careless when the daily catch is too high. 1969 AJHR H15: 46 Pre- and post-season surveys of the dredge oyster beds of Foveaux Strait were again undertaken in 1968 for stock assessment, growth rate determination, size-frequency distribution (prior to culching and after) … 1979 Robjohns Bluff Oyster Industry 11 These benches removed a lot of the drudgery from oystering as now the oystermen could stand up while culching and this was a big improvement to working on the hands and knees method. 1983 Catch September 17 The traditional method of hand culching is used by most of the fleet. 1997 Makarios Nets, Lines and Pots 61 Once all the oysters are emptied onto the benches all the crew start sorting, or culching as it is called on the oyster boats. 2004 Johnson Hooked 33 Some crew members squatted on the deck culching-sorting dead shell and rubbish from the haul-and throwing culch over the side while the vessel sailed back to the top mark to start the next run.

culching bench. n.
a table onboard a boat where oysters are separated from the debris surrounding them.

1972 Watkinson and Smith New Zealand Fisheries 57 Dredges are emptied onto culching benches and oysters sacked. 2005 Dunn New Zealand Fisheries Assessment report:Stock assessment of Foveaux Strait dredge oysters for the 2003-04 fishing year. 5 The dredge contents are emptied on to culching benches and the oysters sorted and sized by hand.

customary fishing regulations. n.
regulations which stipulate the rights of Maori to take fish for traditional purposes. 1994 AJHR C5: 20 Customary Fishing Regulations – consultation with Maori on a basis for customary fishing regulations flowing from the Treaty of Waitangi (fisheries claims) Settlement 1992 was undertaken. 1995 AJHR C6: 10 Work on customary fishing regulations proceeded during the year following the formation of the Customary Fisheries Working Party. 1998 AJHR C20: 10 In April 1998 customary fishing regulations covering the South Island were promulgated. The regulations provide for customary food gathering and mataitai reserves. 2005 Sunday Star Times June 19. A5 The case was tipped by the Ministry of Fisheries to
become a test of the customary fishing regulations, which allow Maori to appoint guardians or kaitiaki to manage harvesting fish for hui, tangi or other customary purposes.

customary fishing rights.  
n.  
the rights of Maori to take fish for traditional, non-commercial purposes. Also attrib.  
1999 Moon The Sealord Deal 53 In this context, customary fishing rights are those that are considered traditional and non-commercial.  
2004 AJHR C2: 15 The Ministry has been developing a strategy for implementing the Crown’s obligations under the Fisheries Deed of Settlement, particularly with respect to customary fishing rights.  
2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 13 Customary fishing rights are acknowledged today through a permit system which allows iwi to gather kaimoana for special occasions.  
2005 Sunday Star Times June 19.  
A pakeha farmer refused a customary fishing rights permit has lost a bid to have a human rights complaint investigated, despite the refusal being declared racist.  
2007 Rural Bulletin April 17 This will mean that when someone goes down to the sea to exercise their customary fishing rights, the issues to which rohe applies, and how the rules apply to manage the fishery will be clearer.

customary take.  
n.  
seafood taken by Maori for cultural purposes.  
2002 Aniwaniwa 20.  
Waihopai runaka members .. who help monitor and keep records of the Maori customary take from Oreti Beach, participated in the survey.  
2005 Heberley Ordinary Women 90 Local iwi have the opportunity to get authorisation from their kaitiaki for their 'customary take’ which allows Maori to take seafood for gatherings such as hui or tangi.  
2007 Hi Ika June 3 If customary use increases, the Ministry would have to increase the allocation for customary take, and consider the impact of this on the recreational and commercial sectors.  
2008 Maori Party Press Release June 28 www.scoop.co.nz/stories/PA0806/500479.htm Our people have been monitoring and protecting customary take, and indeed our rohe moana over centuries.

dab.  
n.  
SAND FLOUNDER, Rhombosolea plebía. Also attrib. See also diamond, patiki, square, tinplate, and three corner.  
1903 Wanganui Herald July 24.  
The size at which dabs, a species of flounder, but broader, may be caught has been reduced to eight inches.  
1933 AJHR H15: 12 The flounder and dab supplies (both kinds being generally marketed under the common name of “flounder”), have shown a marked increase on the Auckland market during the last three years, this fishing being specialized in by some of the Danish seiners.  
1998 Hargreaves On the Next Tide 64 He still comes down to the wharf occasionally to burgle a feed of dabs.  
1932 AJHR H15: 14 The flounder and dab fishing, prosecuted by Danish-seiners off the entrance to the Thames Firth, off the north coast of Waiheke, and off the western shore, was particularly good; and it would appear that the quantities of these flatfish have recently increased.

Dab Patch.  
n.  
an area of sea, north of Auckland, known for being abundant in dabs.  
1930 AJHR H15: 14 A particularly good flat-fish season was experienced in the spring months by Danish seiners working mainly on the “Dab Patch” (between Ponui and Deadman Point).  
1958 AJHR H15: 69 In Auckland waters the main work has been concerned with investigations on the “dab patch” .. and routine collection of biological material and data connected with snapper and tarakihi research.  
1970 Commercial Fishing December 9 The main concentrations of fish in spawning conditions have been found near Japan in about 7 fathoms, with smaller numbers in a belt extending from Tapu north-west ward toward the Dab Patch, which lies to the east of Waiheke Island in about 17 fathoms of water.

Dally fleet.  
n.  
seine boats owned by Dalmatians.  
2004 Johnson Hooked 160 While there might have been a small amount of truth in the jibe [ that the boats didn’t travel very far] during the 1930s, when the 'Dally fleet' was inclined to be the butt of jokes by other members of the fishing community, it was not the case in the 1940s. The Dalmatian vessels fished down to the Bay of Plenty at times …
Deed of Settlement. *n.* an (apparent) agreement between the Crown and Maori in 1992 to settle the fishery grievances of Maori under the Treaty of Waitangi. Also as Fisheries Deed of Settlement.

1996 NZOYB 408 The assets held by TOKM on behalf of iwi / Maori can be divided into two broad categories - pre-settlement asset (PRESA and post-settlement asset (POSA) acquired as a result of the Deed of Settlement and the Sealord purchase. 2004 AJHR C20: 15 The Ministry has been developing a strategy for implementing the Crown's obligations under the Fisheries Deed of Settlement, particularly with respect to customary fishing rights. 2006 www.recfish.co.nz Coromandel scallops fisheries plan 2006 20 When Coromandel scallops were introduced into the QMS, 20% of the quota was allocated to Te Ohu Kai Moana, in partial fulfilment of the Fisheries Deed of Settlement. 2007 Hi Ika June 6 This is a good example of one of the biggest benefits of the Deed of Settlement – the obligation for the Ministry of Fisheries to involve tangata whenua in fisheries management.

Deemed value. *n.* a financial penalty paid by commercial fishers who catch fish outside, or in excess of, their quota. Also attrib.

2003 AJHR C20: 139 An increase in deemed value revenue to be paid by quota holders who have overfished, based on current activity. 2005 Heberley Ordinary Women 89 Some vessels catch fish they have no quota for and as all fish must be recorded, rather than keep them and have to pay a deemed value, good fish are sometimes dumped at sea. 2007 Lock & Leslie New Zealand's Quota Management System 57 Deemed values were a financial penalty that fishers had to pay for catching fish without the relevant quota holdings. 2008 Mossman Snapper 60 Depending on your point of view, deemed value can be a well-deserved penalty for catching fish that should have been avoided, or it can be an unfair penalty for accidently catching certain kinds of fish that could not be avoided while legitimately trying to catch other fish. 2008 Taranaki Daily News August 23. 09 If they catch more snapper than the ACE they have, fishermen must pay the government a penalty, called Deemed Value.

deep sea cod. *n.* either MONKISH, Kathetostoma giganteum, or ribaldo. Mora moro, especially for trade. 1998 New Zealand Geographic July-September 124 Then one memorable morning when I phoned the Christchurch wholesaler he offered me "Monkfish, or, as it is sometimes called, deep sea cod"... Of course I also fell into a hole when one week the deep sea cod is monkfish, and the next week it was ribaldo. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 58 [Ribaldo is] often marketed as deepsea cod. 2006 Sunday Star Times April 23. A2 It [the Commerce Commission] had received three other complaints relating to alleged mislabelling of fish in the past year. No further action was taken in relation to two, but a warning letter was sent to New World supermarkets last month about advertising fillets of "deep sea cod (monkfish)". 2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 114 MARKET NAMES: ... Ribaldo, Deepsea Cod, Googley-eyed Cod, White Cod, Mora.

deep sea dory. *n.* BLACK OREO, Allocytus niger, and SMOOTH OREO, Pseudocyttus maculates, especially for trade. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 76 [Black oreo is] sometimes sold as deepsea dory. 2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 102 MARKET NAMES: New Zealand: Black Oreo, Black Dory, Deepsea Dory ... They are not members of the Zeidae family (true dories) despite their market name. 2007 CenSeam Newsletter February 3 Smooth oreo, along with black oreo, are usually marketed under the name "deepsea dory".

deep sea groper. *n.* cardinal, especially for trade. Also in the form deep sea hapuku. 1991 Dominion Post August 16. 13 A cardinal fish is not a groper, even when it is labelled deep sea groper, Judge Pat Keane ruled. 2006 Sunday Star Times April 23. A1 Seafood company Harbour Inn Seafoods was found guilty of two breaches of the Fair Trading Act in 1991 for selling cardinal as ‘deep sea groper’... The fishmonger's owner.. said ‘deep sea hapuka’ was the name cardinal was sold to the store under by supplier Foodchain. ‘It's a marketing thing’ he said. "I don't
imagine people would buy it (if it was called cardinal)". 2006 Sunday Star Times April 30. A7  He was familiar with the name deep sea hapuka from his time working as a chef, and had believed it was an accepted market name.

depth sea mullet.  
n.
AUCKLAND MULLET, Mugil cephalus, especially for trade. See also kanae, mullet, and sea mullet.

1957 Parrott Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand 40 The grey mullet is an important commercial fish in Auckland. It is reported to be common in the Auckland markets from mid-winter until October, and is sold as Deep-sea Mullet or Auckland mullet.

depth sea warehou.  n.
WHITE WAREHOU, Parika scaber.

1986 Catch December 13 An alternative common name [for white warehou] is deepsea warehou.

departmental farm.  n.
an area of oyster cultivation administered by the Marine Department. From 1973 as Ministry farm.

1969 Commercial Fishing November 29 Departmental farms, said Mr Turner, were set up as pilot schemes, designed to show the oyster farmer what could be done. These departmental farms do not demonstrate anything really because they are not run as private farm units. 1971 AJHR H15: 24 Of the 9,070 (9,412) sacks harvested in 1970, 1,470 (3,052) were for maturing on departmental farms; the balance 7,600 (6,343) was for private farms. 1973 AJHR C5: 85 Because there has not been a spat fixed since 1969 in Kaipara Harbour, the number of oysters available for Ministry farm stocks from this source will decline.

departmental oyster.  n.
a rock oyster which is cultivated on a government run oyster farm. 1970 NZOYB 46 Departmental oysters for the local market are sold by competitive tender.

diamond.  n.
SAND FLOUNDER, Rhombosolea plebia. See also dab, patiki, square, three corners, and tinplate.

1949 Phillipps Native Fishes 29 This species is also called sand flounder, dab, diamond flounder or "flat" by fishermen.

1969 New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer's Guide 9 Three varieties of flounder are caught in New Zealand. The Sand Flounder, or Dab, sometimes called Tinplate or Diamond, is caught on sand and often found in large river estuaries.

2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 143 Often called dab, sometimes diamond or square.

diarrhoea fish.  n.
ORANGE ROUGHY, Hoplostethus atlanticus. See also sea perch.

2004 Johnson Hooked 286 The bright orange 'diarrhoea fish' had made its mark.

2005 Defending the Deep: the Orange Roughy Story weblog.greenpeace.org/deepsea/archives June 14 Early attempts to determine the edibility of orange roughy achieved some unsavoury results which resulted in yet another unappealing moniker: 'diarrhoea fish'.

digging.  vbl n.
harvesting toheroa by digging in the sand. Frequently attrib.

1939 AJHR H15: 24 It is a delusion to suppose that, because they are private persons digging "only for a feed", their effects on the toheroa population are negligible. 1943 AJHR H15: 4 Helped by the fact that fewer digging parties now visit the toheroa beaches, the beds are now, generally speaking, well stocked. 1946 AJHR H15: 41 The effects of commercial digging which were carried out in the two previous years appeared more serious than is actually the case. 1949 AJHR H15: 38 The only canning company at present operating again had a successful season, but the season was shortened considerably because digging was apt to cause damage among the large number of small toheroa that were present in the beds. 1963 AJHR H15: 29 Following the survey of the Ninety-mile beach in 1961, a portion of this beach was opened for commercial digging. 1979 NZFN 1: 11. 24 As in the past no digging tools are allowed and the daily per-person limit is 10 - or 50 per party of five or more. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 161 Digging must be by hand, which on many beaches requires knowledge of the toheroa's habits, skill, determination and a preparedness to get wet.

digger.  n.
a person who harvests toheroa by digging in the sand, for private or commercial use.
1932 AJHR H15: 16 The well-stocked condition of some of the other beaches would appear to warrant their being opened for licensed diggers … 1945 AJHR H15: 20 According to some reports, the toheroas provided a very much appreciated addition to their [Army and Airforce units] daily rations and suffered considerably from their depredations. This was in addition to the not inconsiderable toll taken by local residents and by the cannery diggers. 1979 NZFN 1: 11. 24 Muriwai Beach stays closed to diggers again following an enormous population decline there and the only beach open will be Dargaville.

dog, see DOGFISH.

dogfish.  n. any of various members of the two dogfish families Triakidae and Squalidae, especially spiny dogfish, Squalis acanthias, and GUMMY SHARK, Mustelus lenticulatus. Also elliptically dog. See also doggie, kini, lemonfish, pioke, rig, spotted dogfish, and spiky dogfish.

1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand i 269 On these stages were placed a quantity of the dog-fish and stingray, which were drying there as a supply against the winter; and some very large nets that appeared to have been recently used, were spread out on stakes along the strand. 1845 New Zealander November 08. 3 Great preparations had been made for this feast, by planting some hundred acres of good land with potatoes, expressly for the occasion, and by drying an immense number of small sharks or dog fish, a food much esteemed by the natives. 1869 AJHR D15: 4 Three varieties of Dog-fish and young Sharks. These are principally used by the Maoris.

1893 Jacobson Tales of Banks Peninsula 274 White has known a party to take two tons of dog fish to Little River, the Maoris there bringing in exchange two tons of eels. 1921 AJHR H15: 10 In the northern districts sharks and dogfish were very plentiful during the warm months and did a lot of damage to fishermen’s nets. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 82 The main argument against the use of this fish as food is that it is carnivorous, that it eats offal, and that it is called Dogfish. 1983 NZFN 6: 2. 7 The other shark that ends up on our table (or in our fish and chips) more frequently than we realise is the Dogfish – or Lemonfish as it is called in the fish shops. 1984 Commercial Fishing June 12 Common practice in the Firth of Thames is to use standard 120mm nets for rig (locally known as “pioke” or “dogs”). 2008 Hutching. ‘Sharks and rays’, Te Ara - the Encyclopedia of New Zealand, updated 1-December 2008 /www.TeAra.govt.nz/EarthSeaAndSky/SeaLife/SharksAndRays/en The name dogfish was coined by anglers who observed them chasing smaller fish in large packs, like dogs.

doggie.  n. DOGFISH.

1962 AJHR I19: 84 Lemon fish … Mustelus antarcticus (mainly) Dogfish, doggies, pioke, flake, rigs, kini, white fillets. 1980 NZFN 2: 7. 22 The locals say due to overfishing by the trawlers (which wiped out the sharks and doggies, the main predators) the crabs are now an epidemic. 1990 NZFN 13: 6. 5 Kingfish, trevally and doggies are still about.

DoSIP.  n. abbrev. Deed of Settlement Implementation Project, a government led project to help fulfil the settlement requirements relating to Maori in fisheries management.

2005 AJHR Statement of Intent C20: 25 The Ministry of Fisheries is implementing the Deed of Settlement Implementation Programme (DoSIP) to “establish capacity and capability to build effective working relationships with iwi and hapū as a platform for effective input and participation of tangata whenua in fisheries management processes”…Establishment of effective relationships with tangata whenua is crucial if the DoSIP is to be a success. 2007 Hokianga Accord Report: Hokianga Accord 6 DOSIP was established to increase the capacity of Maori to participate in fisheries management processes.

double picking.  vbl n. putting down a pot twice in one day to catch crayfish.

1998 Hargreaves On the Next Tide 91 Sometimes we’d lift our pots twice in the one day - double-picking we called it. 1998 ibid. 96 Somebody suggested we try double-picking. We did two picks over two days and got 9½ ton.
dredge oyster. n. BLUFF OYSTER, Tiostrea luteria (formerly Ostrea). Also attrib. See also Foveaux Strait, mud, and Stewart Island oyster. 1902 Evening Post April 25. 6 The Northern beds are closed and do not export, and in order to test the exporting capacity of the Stewart Island or “dredge” oyster beds, Mr. Ayson intends to survey or chart them. 1969 AJHR H15: 46 Pre- and post-season surveys of the dredge oyster beds of Foveaux Strait were again undertaken in 1968 for stock assessment ... and other statistical information. 1992 NZOYB 299 The commercially important dredge oyster (Tiostrea chilenis) beds in Foveaux Strait have been severely depleted by the parasite Bonamia in very recent years. 2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 209 Dredge Oysters belong to the Ostreidae family (oysters).

drift oyster. n. a ROCK OYSTER not attached to rocks [early usage]. 1892 AJHR H29: 3 On the 6th October last an Order in Council was made prohibiting the export of rock, shore, drift or mangrove oysters, but so much of the Order as related to shore or mangrove oysters was revoked by order in Council dated the 1st February last. 1909 Otago Witness August 04. 6 As there is a quantity of mangrove and drift oysters fit for picking in the middle subdivision of the northern oyster fisheries, the Governor has declared it lawful for the department to take these oysters, and the inspector of Fisheries at Russel has been instructed to do so. 1916 AJHR H15: 11 Since February a large quantity of drift oysters have been collected from the flats in the Kerikeri estuary and bedded down on shingle beaches in the Tei and Porerua channels.

elephant fish. n. Callorhinchus mili, of the Callorhynchidae family, a silvery fish with a trunk-like extension which is an important commercial catch along the south of the South Island. See also reperepe. 1842 Gray Fauna in Dieffenbach Travels in New Zealand ii 1843 (1974) 226 Callorhinchus antarcticus ... It is the “erheperhepe” of the natives, and the “elephant-fish” of the the English settlers. 1869 AJHR D15: 14 The Elephant-fish ... These are principally used by the Maoris. 1869 West Coast Times and Westland Observer April 06. 2 As a specimen piscine it is well worth looking at, and should be viewed by the cognoscenti, in these matters, so that they might be able to determine whether the name of elephant fish – bestowed upon it – is the correct one or not. 1914 AJHR H15c: 14 The large quantity of elephant-fish occurring in the inshore waters suggests the proposition that these could be experimented with, and the exceedingly fine, firm flesh utilized, either by smoking or by some other method, and turned into a good marketable product. 1977 New Zealand Seafoods: a Buying and Catering Guide 10 Elephant fish are so called because of the fleshy trunk-like appendage on their head. 2004 Johnson Hooked 166 Elephant fish, the staple of the fish-and-chip trade, made up nearly 30% percent of the catch, with tarakihi and gurnard another 20 per cent each.

elephant fishery. n. the population of elephant fish. 1979 Commercial Fishing May 101 He predicts that the elephant fishery could be wiped out within five years if local fishermen continue to plunder the previously untapped spawning grounds of the fish.

elephant seal. n. SEA ELEPHANT, Mirounga leonina. Also elliptically elephant. 1852 Cook Journal of John Cook 1 We have killed all the Elephants that have come up here, as yet. 1903 Carrick Historical records of New Zealand South 116 The oil is procured from a large amphibious animal which they call the sea elephant, which only comes on shore on an island in Bass’s Straits named King’s Island and yield each nearly half a ton of oil. 1909 Norton John Norton Papers February 4 Yank and Cloe went to N.W killed 5 seal, 1 Elephant seal. 2009 Sunday Star Times Escape March 29. 4 The Catlins is a wonderful place for independent wildlife-watching ... Fur seals and sea lions laze along the coast, while elephant seals breed at Nugget Point.

English mackerel. n. BLUE MACKEREL, Scomber australasicus [early usage]. See also mackerel, slimey, and tawatawa.
A veritable specimen of the English mackerel was caught in the harbour yesterday morning by Captain Marks. 1909 Evening Post March 06. 14 There are apparently two varieties of mackerel here—one known locally as 'horse mackerel', with a row of spiny scales on the sides, and the other, designated 'English mackerel', which does not possess the spiny scales, and is more like the English mackerel in marking, though in my opinion the English variety, as seen in England, is far more beautifully marked and coloured. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 124 In New Zealand it has often been called English mackerel and Pacific mackerel, but it is becoming more widely and appropriately known now as blue mackerel.

English sole. n. NEW ZEALAND SOLE, Peltorhamphus novaezeelandiae. See also common sole and patiki. 1868 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle February 06. 3 The Redcliff returned to Port Chalmers from her voyage of exploration on Saturday morning, with her well full of groper, ling, trumpeter, flounders, cray-fish, skate, and the "real English sole." 1905 TrNZI 38. 543 This fish is popularly known as the lemon sole to distinguish it from Peltorhamphus novae-zealandiae, Gunther, which the local fishermen call the English sole. The names are somewhat unfortunate, seeing that they are applied to totally different species in Britain. 1970 AJHR H15: 48 A study of the systematics, reproductive biology, and growth of the common sole (English sole) ... 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 141 Also called common sole, or simply sole; once called English sole, but the species is restricted to New Zealand.

experimental farm. n. an area of oyster cultivation [established and monitored by the Marine Department]. 1969 New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer's Guide 35 A start has been made on the cultivation of oysters through experimental farms operated by the Marine Department. 1972 Watkinson and Smith New Zealand Fisheries 9 The marine department established four experimental farms and knowledge learnt was made available to industry. 1981 Catch March 14 Pacific oyster spat settled here have been ongrown at the MAF experimental farm at Bay of Islands and at 2 years of age returned to the hatchery for spawning. 2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 207 The Coromandel peninsula was a prime site for rock oyster farming and in the late 1960s and 1970s an experimental farm was developed by Les Curtain of the Fishing Industry Board.

farmer, specific usage in combination; farmer fisherman, farmer who fishes opportunistically; farmer whaler, farmer who catches whales opportunistically. 1963 Commercial Fishing April 18 When de-licensing happened once before, the farmer-fisherman came in when the groper were running and skimmed the cream off the bona fide fishermen's seasonal profits. 1986 Grady Sealers and Whalers in New Zealand Waters 198 Maori farmer-whalers in the Bay of Plenty in 1919 hold the irons they used to harpoon whales that swim close to shore.

filefish. n. LEATHERJACKET, Parika scaber. See also creamfish and kokiri. 1868 North Otago Times November 03. 2 A singular specimen of the file-fish, captured at Lyttelton recently, and sent to the Museum at Christchurch ... 1938 TrNZI 68. 418 Cantherines scaber (Forster). Leather-jacket (trigger-fish, file-fish). 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 375 This interesting fish has a number of other vernacular names, such as File-fish, and all with a bearing on its construction. 1983 Hohepa The Best of Bill Hohepa 40 The reason for the Filefish nickname is quickly understood if you try
rubbing your hand along his body from tail to head.

**Finnan haddock.** *n.* cured RED COD, *Pseudophycis bachus [regional. Otago].* See also *Akaroa cod, hake,* and yellowtail ii.

Also in the form Findon Haddock.

1871 *Oamaru Times* December 12. 2

There is also the pink cod, which is the same as the fish they are curing in Dunedin, and which they call the ‘Finnan haddock’. 1877 *TrNZI* 10. 329 Both large and small fish are cured by smoking, and sold as Finnan Haddock, which they resemble very much, but far too many small ones are caught. 1885 *AJHR* H15: 9 Red-cod (also called the yellow-tail and the Haddock) (*Lottella bacchus*) is a well-known fish on some parts of the coast, being the species that is cured and sold as the Findon haddock at Port Chalmers.

**Fisheries Development Council.** *n.* a short-lived council established to promote the fishing industry.

1957 *AJHR* H15: 67 The adoption of the report of the caucus Fisheries Committee 1956 led to the setting up of the Fishing Industry Advisory Council.

1958 *AJHR* H15: 69 In Auckland waters the main work has been concerned with investigations on the “dab patch” (requested by the Fishing Industry Advisory Council). 1962 *Commercial Fishing* October 4 The Minister said he had no jurisdiction over prices but the FIAC could make recommendations to him.

2004 Johnson Hooked 173 [The Federation of Commercial Fishermen] wanted something stronger than the Fishing Industry Advisory Council that had been established in 1957.

**Fishing Industry Board.** *n.* a national board established in 1964 to promote the fishing industry in New Zealand. See also *FIB.*

1963 *Commercial Fishing* October 21 The setting up of a Fishing Industries Board made it clear that the Government was determined to maintain and, if possible, tighten its already iron grip on the fishing industry.

1970 *Commercial Fishing* December 17 The Fishing Industry Board should be responsible for stimulating the development of commercial fish ventures, and for helping to coordinate research, investigation and other activities designed to encourage and facilitate investment.

1999 Moon The Sealord Deal 36 The Fishing Industry Board established in 1964, had helped the industry achieve improvements in the quality of fish products, and the promotion of less popular fish species, especially in overseas markets.

**fishing related mortality limit.** *n.* the number of sea lion deaths which are allowed before trawl fishing is stopped. Previously as MALFIRM.

2005 *AJHR* C20: 21 The fishery was closed by agreement once the Fishing Related Mortality Limit of 115 sea lions was reached. 2006 *Government Press Release* April 11 [www.scoop.co.nz/stories/]

The fishing related mortality limit for sea
lions, which is reviewed annually, was set at the start of the season at 97. 2008 Rural Bulletin October 4 The plan is aimed at minimizing sea lion mortalities caused by trawl fishing by imposing a fishing-related mortality limit (FRML).

**fisho.**  *n.*
a recreational fisher.

1993 NZFN 16: 2. 22 Most Kiwi do-it-yourself fishos carried bulging tackle boxes filled to capacity and beyond with all the necessary materials to make their own terminal tackle rigs. 2005 Independent Herald April 19. 17 The best day's fishing is better than the best day working .. and when you get a cracker day with a very light southerly the west coast off Wellington, from south of Makara up to Kapiti is a great playground for fishos and boaters. 2006 New Zealand Herald January 07. B6 Dive gear on and weighted more than usual, Christie, 37, and two of his fellow "fishos" drop into the 3.3m deep tank and ambush Wobby as she swims towards them.

**Fish of Maui.**  *n.*
TE IKA-A-MAUI: See also Maui's fish. 1867 von Hochsetter New Zealand 203 To Maui is due the honour of fishing up the land out of the oceans; hence its name the fish of Maui. 1904 Otago Witness December 21. 3 Maui, says the legend, went out in his canoe to fish, and so potent were his incantations and the mana of his magic hook that he drew up from the ocean depths the Island of New Zealand, which to this day is known as "Te Ika-a-Maui" (The Fish of Maui). 1907 Otago Witness December 18. 95 Does not one of the most ancient Maori legends relate with grave detail the fishing of the god Maui, who hauled these islands up from their hiding place in the cool depths of the ocean, and celebrated the first fishing story of the period by calling them "Te Ika-a-Maui" (The Fish of Maui). 1915 Evening Post May 15. 9 It was the incantations of the priestly navigators and their knowledge of the stars that guided the canoes of our ancestors across the seas to the fish of Maui.

**FishServe.**  *n.*
a commercial body which provides administrative services to the commercial fishing industry. 2001 Tangaroa November 8 The ability to electronically transfer ACE through the FishServe website has significantly sped up the process. 2005 AJHR C19: 32 An indication of the value of the Group's quota holdings can be obtained by using the average traded price for the year for each fishstock as reported by Commercial Fisheries Services Ltd ("FishServe"). 2006 New Zealand Seafood Industry Council Annual Review 2005-2006. 3 Electronic submission of .. LFRR (Licensed Fish Receivers Report) reports via the FishServe website .. remained largely static at around 50%.

**fish supper room.**  *n.*
an eatery specialising in fish [early usage]. 1905 Otago Witness July 26. 73 Let us throw a searchlight on a certain fish supper room not 100 miles away from the Arcade. 1906 Wanganui Herald December 15. 7 The fresh fish which arrived at Yarrow's this morning will be nicely cooked by an experienced chef for the appetising fish suppers this evening at Yarrow's Premier Fish Supper Room. 1962 Commercial Fishing December 28 "When people go into a fish-supper room", reported a witness, and "get a small bit of fish and a cup of tea for 1/-, a groper goes a long way". 2004 Johnson Hooked 81 Another 105 people worked in 'fish-supper rooms' and 73 fish hawkers roamed the streets of the city and the countryside.

**fish the foul.**  *v.*
to catch fish in areas of rugged sea bottom, especially with pots. 1966 Commercial Fishing August 10 He had adopted a different technique at the Chathams from the usual method on the south coast, where it was normal to "fish the foul", which meant setting the pots in the pits and dips in the seabed. 1990 NZFN 13: 6. 5 Don't forget the burley, fish the foul, try a live bait as a float for a kingfish.

**fixing.**  *vbl n.*
adherence of young oysters to a surface. Also attrit.

1916 AJHR H15: 9 In Te Kumu and Manaia Bays there is now a fair quantity of oysters ranging in ages from this season's fixing of spat to six-years-old mature oysters, and all the other repleted beds are showing equally satisfactory results. 1923 AJHR H15: 9 At Bay of Islands there was a very good "fixing" of spat on the underside of the rock walls which were built during the previous three years, but in
Te Kumu Bay the “fixing” during the last two seasons, both on the natural beds and also on the rock walls which were built there, was poor. 1925 AJHR H15: 20 The rock-wall oyster-cultivation work at Putiki and Brown's Bay have now got a splendid fixing of young oysters on them. 1964 Commercial Fishing October 42 This has proved to be the only really first-class “fixing” area in New Zealand.

fizz-boat.  n.
a small, motorised boat often used for fishing.
1979 NZFN 1: 9. 9 I thought this was a bit far to go in a 16-foot “fizz boat” but Jack explained that boats had to be easy to launch and retrieve fast because sometimes it blew up quick, and there was no shelter they had to come home fast.

1979 Commercial Fishing May 89 In December and January “fizz boats” can frighten away the fish and make it harder for commercial fishermen to make satisfactory catches. 1980 NZFN 2: 8. 10 Most people associate fishing afloat with the specimens examined that we have seen. The supply of fish in town yesterday was as plentiful as usual. It is apparent from the specimens examined that we have seen two species which have been treated here two species which have been treated as one. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 286 The Flatehead has a repulsive appearance and this hinders its usefulness as a food fish. The name Flatehead is derived because the upper surface of the head is flat, broad and hard, almost like stone or concrete. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 118 [Monkfish is] known by a number of local names: giant stargazer, flathead, bulldog, boof, etc.

flattie.  n.
1. a simple, flat-bottomed rowboat.

1882 Otago Witness May 13. 21 He was in a “flattie,” and was supposed to have been sculling, when the oar in which the oar was come off, causing the lad to fall overboard. 1943 Mannering Eighty Years in New Zealand: Embracing Fifty Years of New Zealand Fishing 160 One day a friend and I were blown out to sea in a flattie – not a nice experience.

1986 Grady Sealers and Whalers in New Zealand Waters 254 The five-tonne flipper with blubber attached was within seconds going to crash down on Henry Larsen and his flattie boat, directly underneath.

2. flatfish, fish of the Bothidae and Pleuronectidae families.

1979 NZFN 1: 3. 8 First you identify your flattie by its faint oval outline in the mud. 1979 NZFN 1: 11. 5 One of the most neglected fish in our coastal and estuary waters to my mind is the good old flattie. 2001 Baty in Marshall New Zealand Writing about Fishing 70 The most common ‘flattie’ is the sand flounder (pakiti).

flattying.  vbl n.
catching flatfish, usually with a spear.

1979 NZFN 1: 3. 8 Today sport, you are going to learn the delicate art of flattying! First you identify your flattie by its faint oval outline in the mud. 2004 Collins Birkenhead Historical Society: Members Stories www.historicalbirkenhead.com Many dark evenings we would go ‘flattying’. This adventure was spearing flounder.

flounder.  n.
fish from the two families of flattfish, Bothidae and Pleuronectidae. See also dab, green flounder, sand flounder, and yellow belly.

1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand ii 259 The fish, however, which are in common use among the natives, are snappers, bream, the beneecootoo, the parrot-fish, cray-fish, the herring, the flounder, and a fish resembling the salmon, but much inferior to it in flavour. 1864 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle July 14. 4 Flounders are gradually getting smaller, and gar fish are very rare. 1908 Evening Post March 05. 6 The flounder has always been popular in New Zealand, but its lovers have been saddened by a fear that
their friend was likely to become rare.  

1933 AJHR H15. 12 The flounder and dab supplies (both kinds being generally marketed under the common name of "flounder"), have shown a marked increase on the Auckland market during the last three years, this fishing being specialized in, by some of the Danish seiners. 1969 New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer's Guide 9 Three varieties of flounder are caught in New Zealand.  

2009 Sunday Star Times Escape September 27. 14 Flounder and floundering had been on my mind on a daily basis since a delicious whole-flounder meal at the Dunedin restaurant Plato.

floundering. vbl n.  the catching of flounder with line or spear. Also as flounder v.

1906 Wanganui Herald November 08. 5 Details of the drowning fatality at New River Heads last night show that a party of six tradesmen set out in an oil launch for an evening's floundering. 1911 Norton Norton's Dairies October 6. 45 Cloe & Dick went floundering got 3, 1 cod & a weka, we eat the first lot for dinner. 1998 Hargreaves On the Next Tide 70 When we went out floundering I always did two low tides a day because I had to make hay while the sun shone.  

2009 Sunday Star Times Escape September 27. 14 He decided on the bay in which we floundered from the wide range of possible bays and inlets because he had never seen anyone floundering there ... Our neighbours had a fancy setup for night floundering ... Everyone in the floundering party waded around the inlet at high tide, holding their spears ready for the moment they saw the outline of a flounder cast in the glare of one of the car headlamps held underwater on the end of poles.

FMAC. n. abbrev.  Fisheries Management Advisory Committee, a committee set up to manage fishery planning at a regional level. Also in the form Fishmac.

1984 Catch February 9 FMACs will be established to provide an effective exchange between users and management groups. 1984 Commercial Fishing October 13 MAF's first attempts to get Fisheries Management Advisory Committees (FMACs) off the ground seem to have gone down like a lead balloon. In theory the aim of FMACs is to provide an effective exchange between users and management groups.  

1985 AJHR C5: 27 MAF's objective is now to develop Fishery Management Plans (FMPs) for each of the FMAs. To achieve this MAF has established a consultative structure within each region, headed by a FMAC. 2004 Johnson Hooked 359 In mid-1984 these committees were recreated as FISHMACs, regional and less powerful clones of NAFMAC, with the same spread of representation.

Foveaux Strait oyster. n.  BLUFF OYSTER, Tiostra luteria. See also dredge and Stewart Island oyster.  

1917 NZOYB 500 A planting of Foveaux Strait oysters is shortly to be made in Cook Strait and near Lyttelton.

1944 AJHR H15: 10 The Foveaux Strait oyster beds are the last of the large natural oyster-beds of the world, and it is the duty of the Government to prevent the depletion of these natural resources. 1954 Beattie Our Southernmost Maoris 62 The fame of the Foveaux Strait oysters has spread far abroad and my Maori friends combat the idea that their race knew nothing of these succulent bivalves until the white man came. 1972 Watkinson and Smith New Zealand Fisheries 56 Initially the Foveaux Strait oyster boats were powered by sail and the oysters were taken in the shell to Dunedin. 1979 Robjohns Bluff Oyster Industry 9 The Foveaux Strait oyster (OSTREA LUTARIA) is a very similar species to the South American oyster.

freezing works. n.  a land-based plant for refrigerating fish.  

1889 Wanganui Herald April 18. 4 Freezing works are established in several parts of New Zealand where the fish would be refrigerated at the small cost shown in the accompanying statement. 1906 Kaikoura Star May 04 Let us inaugurate this freezing works, which will be a stepping stone to something greater. By the establishment of fish freezing works here, probably 50 or 60 more fishermen will be induced to settle in our midst. 1911 AJHR H15: 8 During the year two firms have established fishing-stations at the Chatham Islands, where they have erected freezing works. 1923 JScT 6: 1. 51 I am informed that the company has from time to time approached the neighbouring owners of the Owenga Estate with a view to purchasing some of the foreshore adjoining the freezing-works,
in order to settle the fishermen under better conditions, but so far has been unsuccessful in its negotiations. 1974 Commercial Fishing September 3 Substantial premises were erected covering all processing requirements for fresh fish, for smoking, the production of fish meal from offal, ice making and freezing works.

FRIA. n. abbrev.
Fisheries Resource Impact Assessment, an assessment of the environmental impact a potential mussel farm will have. 2004 NIWA Annual Report 34 NIWA helped Mfish develop new guidelines for Fisheries Resource Impact Assessments (FRIA) required to enable permits to be issued for new mussel farming activities. 2005 NIWA National Centre for Coasts and Oceans Update June 1 The Ministry of Fisheries requires a FRIA where people want to build a new marine farm, extend an existing farm, or renew a permit. 2008 Marine Farming Association Newsletter April 11 MFish has been told this application is in a consortium; we are waiting for the FRIA.

frostfish. n.
Lepidopus caudatus of the Trichiuridae family, a long, slender silver fish with pinkish base which is occasionally found by anglers on shore and by offshore trawlers. See also hiku and para. 1865 North Otago Times May 18. 3 He went out to look for frost fish. 1869 AJHR D15: 9 There is a fish called the "frost-fish" which throws itself on beaches during the winter months, usually during frost weather with off-shore winds; it is highly prized for its delicate flavour, and as it comes in a season when fish is scarce, it commonly fetches a high price. 1875 TrNZI 8. 219 All the Frost Fish which come on shore here are in fine condition; they seem to be in perfect health, and their landings appear to be deliberate acts of self-immolation. 1929 TrNZI 60. 147 Frost fishes are occasionally cast ashore on the beaches at the Islands, and as elsewhere are esteemed a great delicacy. 1949 Phillipps Native Fishes 51 The frost fish has a long eel-shaped body which becomes more or less flattened when it is brought to the surface. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 123 A widespread species of temperate oceanic waters, generally simply called scabbard-fish, but known as frostfish in Australia and New Zealand (from the skin's colour which comes off when touched).

frostfishing. vbl n.
taking frostfish, usually by finding them stranded on the beach. 1878 North Otago Times May 30. 2 A young friend of mine, just turned 14 summers, went frost-fishing, and was lucky in his undertaking, having found two nice ones. 1887 North Otago Times August 03. 3 Mr Stoddart: Would you bring in a Bill to lease the Beach in small areas for frost fishing. (Roars of laughter). 1890 Wakefield Catching Fish with a Shotgun 308 .. in blessed ignorance of what frost fishing was like I took a good trout rod and a book of flies, and also a stout trolling line and a large and varied assortment of hooks.

fur seal. n.
Arctocephalus forsteri of the Otariidae family, an eared seal which was hunted extensively for its soft under fur and which is becoming abundant around the New Zealand coastline. Also in the form furr seal. See also kekeno, New Zealand fur seal, and sea bear. 1826 Shepherd in Howard Rakiura (1940) 357 The fur seal does not frequent the woods but breeds about the rocks. 1833 Fanning’s Voyages in McNab Murihiku (1909) 145 At this place, the officers and crew whom Captain Pendleton had left, had taken and cured rising of sixty thousand pure fur seal skins, a parcel of very superior quality. 1871 TrNZI 4. 196 On 13th February last, during the visit of H.M.S. ‘Clio’, to Milford Sound, on the west coast of the south Island, several seals were shot by His Excellency Sir George Bowen, which proved to be the Eared Seal or Fur Seal of New Zealand, as it is termed by the traders. 1893 NZOYB 231 The fur-seal is found on the islands near the coast of New Zealand, but may not now be killed. 1918 Norton John Norton Papers January 14 Two fur seal came up past the house just before dark, Alby went out after them. 1921 Thomson Wild Life in New Zealand 75 The Fur-seal (Arctocephalus forsteri) is named after J. R. Forster, the naturalist who accompanied Captain Cook on his second voyage of circumnavigation. 1962 AJHR I19: 59 The Committee was informed that a number of fishermen were shooting fur seals and using the carcasses as crayfish bait. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 223
The fur seal issue has received much general publicity; these animals have learned that full hoki trawls provide an easy meal, but some become trapped and drown.

garfish.  n.  [AND 1699] any fish of the Hemirhamphidae family, especially Hyporhamphus ihi a pale greeny, brown fish with an extended lower jaw which is sought by recreational fishers for its delicate flesh.  See also guardfish, ihe, and piper.  

1864 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle July 14. 4 Flounders are gradually getting smaller, and gar fish are very rare.  1936 AJHR H15: 26 We used a large net like a whitebait net on a long pole, and often if this was dropped into the water ahead of the garfish their frightened leap carried them right into it, but, unless the net was quickly raised, they lept as instantaneously out again.  

1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 157 Garfish can be distinguished from all other fish by the extremely long bottom jaw, which is about two and a half inches in length, while the upper beak is only half an inch in length.  

2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 65 Garfish are caught year-round in inshore waters usually with a fine mesh beach seine pulled across seagrass beds.

gemfish.  n.  [AND 1974] Rexea solandri (formerly Joranidia), of the Gempylidae family a deep bodied iridescent blue fish which is found sporadically throughout New Zealand and is of some commercial importance.  See also hake, southern kingfish, and tikati.

1979 Catch May 17 MONKFISH Kathetostoma giganteum Giant stargazer … Mottled olive brown above, white below; small fish have longitudinal pale stripes.

2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 118 [Monkfish is] known by a number of local names: giant stargazer, flathead, bulldog, boof, etc.  

2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 141 Giant Stargazer is widespread in New Zealand coastal waters and more common around the southern part of the South Island at depths between 50 metres and 500 metres off the continental shelf.

girdled parrotfish.  n.  GIRDLED WRASSE, Pseudolabrus cinctus.

1912 TrNZI 45. 231 The girdled parrotfish … This species is characterized by a dark band surrounding the body, but when kept in a strongly lit aquarium-tank, this band sometimes becomes nearly white.

1938 TrNZI 68. 412 Girdled parrot-fish … Occasionally specimens inside the harbour at Harrington Point, also at Brinn’s Point, Cape Saunders, The Rock and Taieri Mouth, on rocky bottoms, 0–50 fathoms.  

1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 275 The general colour is olive with a single wide slaty-blue band across both sides of its body, hence its common name Girdled Parrot-fish.  

2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 154 The giant spider crab is not related to the large North Pacific king crab.  

2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 239 Giant Spider Crabs are caught using large steel frames and wire mesh pots.  

2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 118 With a leg span of 80 centimetres, the giant spider crab (Jacquinotia edwardsii) is New Zealand’s largest crab.
Ayling and Cox Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand 259 GIRDLED WRASSE (Girdled parrotfish) Pseudolabrus cinctus.

girdled wrasse. n. Pseudolabrus cinctus of the Labridae family, an olive green, South Island fish which is occasionally caught and sold locally. Formally as girdled parrot-fish. 1982 Ayling and Cox Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand 259 The girdled wrasse is similar in shape and appearance to the spotty but grows to a larger size, reaching a maximum length of about 35 cm. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 107 The girdled wrasse, P. cinctus, is rather similar to the spotty but grows larger (to 35 cm). 2008 NZFN 31: 6. 38 Members of the wrasse family include the common spotty (paketi), the red pigfish, banded wrasse, scarlet wrasse, green wrasse, girdled wrasse, sandagers wrasse and a number of others.

GMITQ. n. abbrev. Guaranteed Minimum Individual Transferable Quota, the minimum amount of a fish species a quota holder is eligible to catch.

1993 Boyle New Zealand Commercial Fisheries 6 MAF Fisheries calculated each permit holder’s proportion of each TACC and notified this as Guaranteed Minimum Individual Transferable Quota (GMITQ). 2007 Lock & Leslie New Zealand’s Quota Management System 14 .. GMITQ represented the amount of quota that the individual would receive if the reduction in catch required to get from the total PMITQ to the TAC was spread across all of the assessed catch histories.

go through. n. the path leading from a seal rookery back down to the sea.

1954 Beattie Our Southernmost Maoris 20 The path from the rookery to the sea was a ‘go through’ to the white man, but an ‘ara’ to us, and along this ara men were stationed at the most suitable places to kill the seals rushing down to the sea.

golden snapper. n. Centroberyx affinis of the Berycidae family, a gold to red, short snouted fish taken by line as a food fish. See also goldie, koarea, and red snapper.

1922 NZOYB 357 Golden snapper; koarea … Austroberyx affinis. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler’s Fishes of New Zealand 50 The Golden Snapper belongs to the Red fish of Slimehead family (Berycidae), and is also found in the southern half of Australia, where it is known as the Red Fish or Nannygai. 1984 NZFN 7: 2. 8 Red snapper (or Golden Snapper) whatever you like to call the delicious little deep-water fellow with the gold skin and the big, black eyes is fine eating in New Zealand. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 72 Alternatively the golden snapper, and redfish or nannygai in southern Australia.

goldie. n. GOLDEN SNAPPER, Centroberyx affinis. See also koarea and red snapper.

1933 Mossman Serious about Sportfishing 151 Darryl must have caught ten or more nice ‘goldies’ with his deep fly technique. 2008 NZFN 31: 6. 38 .. goldies are most common in the northern half of the North Island and are not relatives of our common snapper.

Government oyster depot. n. an outlet where rock oysters are sold exclusively by the government.

1921 AJHR H15: 11 The Government oyster-depot was opened for the sale of oysters on the 1st June, and the season finished on the 21st August. 1924 AJHR H15: 14 The oyster-beds are in very good condition, and last season 1,381 sacks were picked and forwarded to the Government oyster-depot. 2004 Johnson Hooked 169 In season they [rock oysters] were available from the Government Oyster Depot, which shared the southern side of the Viaduct basin with the fish sheds.

grandfather hapuku. n. RED ROCK COD, Scorpaena cardinalis of the Scorpaenidae family. See also cobbler, matuawhapuku, and scorpionfish.

1960 Doogue & Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 271 Other names: Scorpaena cardinalis; red rock cod, scarpee, grandfather hapuku, cobbler … 1982 NZFN 4: 1. 5 Like grandfather snapper, any grandfather hapuku you catch is probably not very old at all either. 1983 Hohepa The Best of Bill Hohepa 50 If you accuse any self-respecting hapuku of being a distant relative of the ugly Grandfather hapuku he’ll probably disgorge your bait on the spot. 2000 Paul
New Zealand Fishes 79 There is another very similar but more variably mottled species, S. cardinalis, the red rock cod, in northern New Zealand; it can reach 40 cm, and is often called grandfather hapuku. 2004 Holmes Hook it and Cook it 81 The 'grandfather hapuku' incidentally, is no relation to the hapuku, but is actually a red rock cod. Grandfather hapuku are not particularly good eating, but are passable smoked after being heavily salted.

green.  adj. [of fish] whole and unprocessed.

1912 AJHR H15: 12 Mr Crocket, your suggestion was 11in. green; that would be be 9in. headed, in length? 1929 TrNZI 60. 147 The quality of the fish may be judged from the fact that from one day's catch off the best grounds quite a lot of fish can be sorted out which scale more than eight pounds green weight, i.e. with head and uncleaned. 1964 AJHR H44a: 11 At the end of the year, work was almost complete on the first part of the standard, defining the characteristics of fresh fish in the whole or green state and providing detailed requirements regarding the temperatures and times after which fish may be caught. 1965 Commercial Fishing November 21 The proposed acquisition of a fleet of refrigerated vehicles is designed to enable the transportation of "green" and processed fish to all inland North Island centres with minimum deterioration in quality. 2004 Johnson Hooked 113 Green fish were sent from Auckland to Hamilton on the back of an open truck three times a week, cooled by blocks of ice and covered with a tarpaulin.

greenback.  n.
Rhombosolea taprina of the Pleuronectidae family, a green, pointy snouted flatfish which is an incidental trawl catch and considered good eating. Also in the form greenback flounder.

1912 TrNZI 45. 232 Rhombosolea taprina Günther. The greenback flounder is also found in all the inlets along the coast. 1979 NZFN 1: 7. 8 The rare greenback flounder are also caught in trawls, though usually by accident when trawling for other species. 2001 Baty in Marshall New Zealand Writing about Fishing 71 The green-back is thought by many to be the most succulent of the flatfish.

greenbone.  n.
BUTTERFISH 1, Odax pullus. See also kelpfish and marari.

1870 AJHR D9: 3 Butter-fish, or Green-bone, Ripiripi (Coridodax pullus). - A dark-coloured fish, with mucus covering and rather forbidding aspect, but excellent food, which is caught outside, and comes into season in June. 1932 AJHR H15: 20 Green-bone or kelp-fish (Coridodax pullus). - Continuous attempts were made by Mr. Graham to obtain fertilized eggs of this species, but so far without success. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand 130 It is unfortunate that the Butterfish has been given a variety of local names which have originated either from their habit of associating with kelp, their body form, or from the colour of their bones, as for example, Kelpfish, Kelp-Salmon, Greenbone, and several other names not so easy to explain. 1977 Commercial Fishing November 17 During a recent easterly the waves swept right past his property leaving a green bone (butterfish to the northerners) and a red cod wriggling but firmly impaled on his boxhorn hedge!

2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 111 They are frequently sold as greenbone (from a very characteristic colouring in the bones), and as a long established fish of trusted quality they command above average prices.

green crayfish.  n.
PACKHORSE CRAYFISH, Jasus verreauxi of the Palinuridae family. See also pawharu.

1951 Sorensen The Fishing Industry in New Zealand 124 There are two species of crayfish in New Zealand waters, though one of them, the 'green crayfish', more common in the north, is seldom caught in quantity. 1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers' Guide 281 Other names: Jasus verreauxii; green crayfish, pack-horse. 1968 AJHR H15: 44 Work to date has included studies on growth, early development, fecundity, size at first maturity and differences in yield for both species Jasus edwardsii (the red crayfish) and J. verreauxi (the packhorse or green crayfish).

green-lipped mussel.  n.
Perna canaliculus, a large, green shelled, native mussel taken for food throughout New Zealand and also farmed. Also
elliptically greenlip. See also greenshell mussel and kuku. 1971 AJHR H15a: 23 Some of the methods employed by the Spanish farmers are now being tried in New Zealand although the Spanish cultivation is of the "blue" mussel and New Zealand works covers the green lipped mussel (Perna canaliculus) as well as the blue mussel (Mytilus). 1981 Commercial Fishing November 7 A product as succulent as the green-lipped mussel has to take off. 1987 Catch May 10 Our marketing philosophy for farmed mussels has been that the green lipped mussel is bigger and therefore better than the blues and that is the way we presented it to the world. 2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 147 The words 'green lip mussel' or 'cultivated mussel' must be more prominent on the packaging than the words 'Kiwi Clam', MAF decreed. 2004 Johnson Hooked 442 While the green-lipped mussel was native to New Zealand in the strictest sense, it was impossible to control of [sic] Perna species found in other countries, particularly in South America and Africa.

greenshell mussel. n. GREEN-LIPPED MUSSEL, Perna canaliculus, especially for trade. 1989 Commercial Fishing November 13 After the world's buyers marvelled at the isolation of the Marlborough Sounds, they had the chance to see the full range of greenshell mussel products New Zealand exports. 2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 16 New Zealand's Indigenous Greenshell Mussel, Perna canaliculus, was dredged by commercial fishermen from 1927. 2006 Niwa Water and Atmosphere 14: 3. 10 In the past two decades, the Greenshell™ mussel industry has grown from small pioneer beginnings to become one of New Zealand's most valuable seafood exports.

Griffin's silverfish. n. BLUENOSE, Hyperoglyphe antarctica. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand 60 As far as I know this species has not received a common name, and I have never heard a Maori name for this particular fish, so it is here referred to as Griffin's Silverfish, in honour of the late L.T. Griffin, who originally described it. 1981 NZFN 3: 8. 14 Discovered in 1928, the Griffin's Silverfish somehow managed to elude anglers and scientists for over 100 years of New Zealand's piscatorial history. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 138 Alternative New Zealand names include stoneye, bonita, bream, and Griffin's silverfish.

groper. n. HAPUKU, Polyprion oxygeneios. Also attrib. See also puka. 1844 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle June 01. 51 The fish which at Port Nicholson, is known by the name of habooka, but which is called groper to the southward, makes its appearance about the middle of November. 1864 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle July 14. 4 Groper is a fine large fish, and is not half so much in request in Dunedin as its qualities would lead one to suppose. 1872 Otago Witness July 13. 8 The Groper, a lordly fish is also largely caught with the hook on its favourite banks off the same coast, and in the vicinity of Mason Bay. 1929 AJHR H15: 12 The past year has witnessed the discovery or rediscovery of a further new groper-ground, known as the Mana Bank, in Cook Strait. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 232 The common name Groper is a corruption of the Portuguese word garrupa, written also 'gruper', 'grooper', and applied to fish belonging to the Family Serranidae. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 82 Widely known throughout New Zealand as either hapuku (often pronounced hapuka) or groper, the former generally in the North Island, the latter in the south.

guardfish. n. GARFISH, Hyporhamphus ihi. See also ihe and piper. 1848 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle November 18. 149 The following is a list of those which would seem to be the most available for the purpose required ... Guard Fish, Takeke ... 1869 AJHR D15: 4 The Guard-fish. - There is a very small supply of this fish, but it is much prized. 1870 AJHR D9: 3 Guard-fish, or Ihe. - Two very distinct fish are sold under this name, the most common being the Half-beak (Hemorhamphus marginatus). The other, true gar-fish (Belone) is also occasionally caught, and may be recognised by the equal prolongation of the beak. 1873 Evening Post October 31. 3 1 small guard fish net. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 157 This fish is known in
Auckland as Piper, although in Otago it is called Garfish or Guard Fish.

guffy.  n. SPOTTY, Pseudolabrus celidotus [regional. Canterbury]. See also butterfish 2, kelpie, and pakeeti. 1869 AJHR D15: 4 The Guffie or Rock fish. - Not much esteemed. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 275 In Canterbury they are called Guffy, but for what reason I have yet to learn. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand 133 It [the spotty] is frequently, but quite incorrectly referred to as the Butterfish, and in Canterbury it is generally known as the "guffy". 2001 Baty in Marshall (ed.). New Zealand Writing about Fishing 157 Large guffies — we call them spotties in the North Island — were there in number. Guffies which weighed under a kilo each but which tasted delicious when filleted carefully to avoid the bones.

gumboot.  n. blue shark, Prionace glauca. 1993 Mossman Serious about Sportfishing 154 Blue sharks — ‘gumboots’ — are beneath the notice of the billfish brigade, but these fish are pretty substantial propositions on a fly rod. 2007 New Zealand Land Based Game Fishing www.nzibgangling.com/SharkSpecies.html They're not renowned for their fighting ability and have earned the local nickname "gumboots".

gummy shark.  n. Mustelus lenticulatus of the Triakidae family, a goldy brown shark with white spots which is common around New Zealand, is an important commercial catch, and is often the fish of fish and chips. See also dogfish, kini, lemonfish, mango, pioke, rig, and spotted dogfish. 1960 Doogue & Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers' Guide 172 Other names: Mustelus antarcticus; smooth hound, spotted dogfish, gummy; mango (Maori). 1979 NZFN 1: 3. 24 While most of the sharks in the Kaipara are the delicious — and fairly inoffensive — "gummy sharks" that we eat as Lemon Fish, the killers lurk there also. 1979 Catch September 22 Dogfish, gummy shark, spotty, kini, lemonfish, pioke, rig .. the smooth-hound dogfish (Mustelus lenticulatus) probably has more common names than any other New Zealand fish — which causes confusion, especially for MAF staff who analyse fishing returns. 2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 180 MARKET NAMES: ... Rig, Spotted Dogfish, Gummy Shark, Smoothhound, Spotted Smoothhound, Lemonfish.

gunner.  n. a person who shoots the harpoon on a whale boat. 1912 Norton Norton's Diaries June 22. 1 Cook's gunner missed. 1927 Vosseler Journal of his Whaling Experiences June The gunner directs with his hand behind his back so as not to give the Rivals the tip in case they have not seen. 1959 Sea Spray August 42 The boats are bare of nonessentials and carry only gunner and helmsman ... One reason for petrol engines, apart from high performance and excellent powerweight ratio, is that the gunner up for'ard and the helmsman aft have to converse by voice, and a diesel would make too much noise the operators feel. 1986 Grady Sealers and Whalers in New Zealand Waters 289 Many former whalers like ace gunner, Trevor Norton, became keen conservationists once they realised whales were at risk from over-exploitation. 2004 NZ Listener August 7. 3 The gunner worked at the front of the chaser with nothing between him and the whale he was harpooning except the water that sprayed over the bow.

gurnard.  n. [AND 1828] Chelidonichthys kumu of the Triglidae family, a reddy orange fish with white spots which moves along the sea bottom and is commercially important. Also in the form gurnet. Also attrib. See also kumukumu and red gurnard. 1835 Yate An Account of New Zealand 71 Those most plentiful and of greatest note, are, soles, mackerel, cod-fish, a species of salmon, whiting, snapper, mullet, bream, skate, gurnards ... 1943 Mannering Eighty Years in New Zealand: Embracing Fifty Years of New Zealand Fishing 160 The gurnard (Trigla kumu) was another fish that was plentiful off the shore, which we used to get occasionally when boating for kahawai. It grunts like a pig when you get it in the boat. 1963 Commercial Fishing January 26 .. every New Zealand fisherman must be familiar with the beautiful appearance of freshly caught gurnard — the brilliant colour of the fins, the sheen of the body through its translucent layer of slime and the
brightness of the transparent, prominent eyes. 1969 New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer's Guide 13 Skinned Gurnard fillets are very similar in appearance and flavour to Australian Flathead. 1998 O'Brien A Red Cod and a Conger Eel 69 Paul was fishing Pencarrow and caught gurnard, some massive couta's, eels and a few odds and sods.

hagfish. n. BLIND EEL, Eptatretius cirrhatus. Also elliptically hag. See also snot eel and tuere.

1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 87 Bdellostoma cirratum hag. 1934 AJHR H15: 31 In February the hagfish (Eptatretius cirrhatus), which has been in the hatchery for the last three years, laid fifty-three eggs on the floor of the observation tank. 1953 Sea Spray December 42 One of the oddest fishes described is the hagfish, a most unpleasant specimen that will bore into another fish, while still alive, and emerge when it has eaten the complete inside, leaving a husk of skin and scales. 1981 NZFN 3: 4. 8 Haul your line every 1 1/2 hours; leave it any longer and you find that the only thing left on the line is a groper (the work of Hagfish or "snot-eels").

hair seal. n. NEW ZEALAND SEA LION, Phocarctos hookeri. Also in the form hare seal. See also Hooker's sea lion.

1826 Shepherd in Howard Rakiura (1940) 357 The hare seal is a singular looking animal of the brownish colour. 1892 TrNZI 25. 257 The mode of life of the hair-seals has however, been much altered since 1863, when I made my first observations, and I believe that the New Zealand hair-seals have now become much more solitary, and that they will soon become extinct. 1892 TrNZI 25. 256 HAIR-SEALS, or SEA-LIONS, which are covered with long, coarse hair and have no under-fur, and are therefore only commercially valuable for the production of oil, and formerly as food and clothing. 1907 AJHR H15: 8 In conjunction with the aquarium, three hair seals and a sea-lion brought by the Government steamer "Hinemoa" from Campbell Islands, were on exhibition. 1986 Grady Sealers and Whalers in New Zealand Waters 48 The current population of Hooker's sea lions — often called New Zealand sea lions, hair seals or sea bears — is probably little more than 5,000, says zoologist Dr Graham Wilson.

hake. n.
1. ROCK COD, Lotella rhacina and occasionally applied to other unrelated species.

1840 Ward Supplementary Notes 11 These consisted of hake, colefish, spotted dog-fish, gurnet, flounders, and joe-fish, all of which are eatable. 1900 TrNZI 33. 574 The hake fish was found for the first time near Wanganui ... 1891 TrNZI 24. 212 Hake (Lotella rhacinus) ... Only one specimen recorded, from Mokohinou, in August, 1887. 1900 Grey River Argus October 12. 4 In the water of the Old Country, the hake is known as the "poor man's fish," as it is comparatively cheap on account of its not being very edible. But the hake found on the coast of this colony, it is stated makes capital eating. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 172 Lotella rhacina ...Up to 1891 this fish was universally known to scientists and fishermen as Hake, then for some unknown reason E. R. Waite ... transferred the name Hake to Merluccius gayi ...

2. Merluccius australi of the Merlucciidae family, a silvery, slender bodied fish found around the South Island which has become a very valuable commercial catch in recent years. See also whiting 3.

1938 TrNZI 68. 404 Merluccius gayi (Guichenot). Hake (whiting) ... The name whiting, though more properly reserved for Gadus, is firmly rooted in Otago and Canterbury. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 165 The flesh of the Hake is white, of a delicate flavour and dry, looks well on the retailers' slabs and makes an ideal fish food. 1980 NZFN 2: 9. 15 The hoki and the hake are two cold-water fish that have begun appearing in numbers lately in northern fish shops. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 60 There appears to be a separate spawning ground for hake near the Chatham Islands in summer.


1926 TrNZI 56. 533 If we are continue to apply English names to New Zealand species, Merluccius gayi has prior right to the name "hake"; but, unfortunately Jordanidia solandri is in Blenheim, Nelson, Picton, Wellington, and Napier caught and sold as "hake". 1938-39 TrNZI 68. 415
Southern kingfish (hake). *Jordanidia solandri* (Cuv. and Val.). Southern kingfish (hake). 1956 Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 166 In Napier, Wellington and Marlborough the Southern Kingfish (*Rexea solandri*) is caught and sold as Hake. 1960 Doogue and Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 263 Although this species is often referred to as hake, it bears no resemblance to the European hake. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 60 [*Merluccius australis*] is quite different from the unrelated gemfish, but sometimes confused by the erroneous use of “hake” for gemfish in some localities.

**haku.** *n.* [Ma. haku] KINGFISH 1. See also yellowtail and yellowtail kingfish.

1848 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle November 18. 149 The following is a list of those which would seem to be the most available for the purpose required ... Yellow tail Haku ...

1870 *AJHR* D9: 5 King-fish, Haku (*Seriola gigas*). - is a very large fish, weighing 60 lbs. 1886 Sherrin *Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand* 40 In the table recording his three years’ observation, the haku is absent altogether. 1907 *Otago Witness* December 18. 19 He is the haku of the Maoris, and gives sport equal to the American torpon. [sic] running 4ft. to 5ft. in length and 40lb. to 60lb. in weight. 1928 *NZFSG* 2: 2. 12 The Maori calls this fish the Haku, and values it as food much higher than does his pakeha friend. 1947 *JPS* 56: 1. 41 The true North Island kingfish is the haku, *Seriola grandis*. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 205 Known as haku, taken by early Maori, mostly by lure, and still important to northern fishing communities.

**halved whale.** *n.*

whale which is shared between two whaling groups, both having a role in its capture.

1927 Vosseler *Journal of his Whaling Experiences* June Joe Perano got fast then and both parties got in bombs making it a halved whale.

**hapuku.** *n.*

[Ma. hapuku] *Polyprion oxygeneios* of the Percichthyidae family, a large, silvery grey fish, with pointy head which is important commercially and popular recreationally. Also in the form abuka, habooka, habua, hapuka and wapuka. Also attrib. See also groper and puka.

1838 Polack *New Zealand* 322 Some deep banks lie off the east coast, on which the kanai, or mullet, wapuka, or cod-fish, and the kahawai or colourless salmon, abound. 1857 Cooper *New Zealand Settlers’ Guide* 30 The hapuku is the richest and finest fish taken about the New Zealand coast; its head much resembles that of the cod, only it is larger, and far superior in flavour. 1885 *AJHR* H15: 6 The first on the list of marketable fishes is the hapuku or whapuku of the Maoris (*Hectora gigas* of Count Castelnaud), or habua, as the name is generally pronounced by Europeans, who in the south apply the name groper to the same fish. 1908 *AJHR* H15b: 9 Left anchorage in Totaranui Bay at 7a.m. and made out to try and locate a hapuka-bank which was reported to exist about 3 miles off. 1919 Poata *The Maori as a Fisherman and his Methods* 10 After the hapuka is landed into the boat it will lie very still for a while, then it will bang its tail a few times, which is considered a very good omen, the calling up of the whole tribe of hapukus.

1928 *AJHR* H15: 15 Another very interesting feature in the recent history of the Wellington fishing industry was the discovery of a new and very productive hapuku (groper) reef in Cook Strait, about half way between Mana Island and the Brothers upon which the Wellington lining-boats began to concentrate in September, 1927. 1960 Doogue and Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 206 Groper has a wide usage in the South Island, while hapuku is largely used in the North Island. 1972 Watkinson and Smith *New Zealand Fisheries* 22 Hapuku long lining is a traditional fishery in the Cook Strait region for Island Bay fishermen. 1991 Doak Wade Doak’s *World of NZ Fishes* 187 At the Three King Islands I was once surrounded by a huge herd of hapuku, which came whirling up from the deeps like a maelstrom and caromed around me for 10 minutes before vanishing again into the dark blue. 2007 *Sunday Star Times Magazine* March 11. 23 There’s no chicken here, instead it’s sliced Loin of Lamb and Pan Crisp Wild Hapuka, shipped directly from New Zealand for the event.

**haul up.** *v.* see citation.
1927 Vosseler The Swiftsure’s Last Whale 1 We were all discussing what we were going to do as we were “hauling up”, that means finishing the whaling season.

hauture.  n. [Ma. hauture, hâtûre] HORSE MACKEREL, Trachurus spp. Also in the form hature and hauturi.

1870 AJHR D9: 5 Mackerel, Hature. - Under this name is sold the schad or horse mackerel (Trachurus trachurus), which though a good fish, is much inferior in delicacy to the true mackerel (Scomber pneumatophorus) a species which is only rarely brought to market. 1874 TrNZI 7. 247 I obtained my specimens among a shoal of immature hauturi (Trachurus trachurus) in Tutukaka harbour, near Ngunguru. 1890 Otago Witness January 23. 17 The horse mackerel (Trachurus trachurus) or hauture of the Maori, is a fish which has a very wide range, being common to the seas of Britain and New Zealand. 1969 New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer’s Guide 36 HORSE MACKEREL (HATURE) (Trachurus novae-zelandiae).

Hector’s dolphin.  n. Cephalorhynchus hectori of the Delphinidae family, a small, rare endemic dolphin which is occasionally caught as bycatch, but not eaten.

1972 Baker New Zealand Whales and Dolphins 32 Hector's Dolphin is an inshore coastal species and is often found in muddy or discoloured water seaward of river mouths. 1988 Catch October 19 Hector's dolphin is believed to be both the rarest and the smallest oceanic dolphin in the world. 2001 AJHR C20: 11 Proposals for long-term measures mitigating the incidental catch of Hector’s dolphin in the Banks Peninsula set net fishery have been developed and consultation with stakeholders is underway. 2008 NZFN 31: 7. 104 The banning of set-nets in many areas, supposedly as a Hectors dolphin conservation measure, is seen by many Coasters as an overreaction.

herring.  n. YELLOW-EYED MULLET, Aldrichetta forsteri, and occasionally PILCHARD, Sardinops neopolichardus. See also aua and makawhiti.

1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand ii 259 The fish, however, which are in common use among the natives, are snappers, bream, the beneecootoo, the parrot-fish, cray-fish, the herring, the flounder, and a fish resembling the salmon, but much inferior to it in flavour. 1869 AJHR D15: 4 The Mullet or Herring. - These are generally in the market in small quantities. 1914 AJHR H15c: 10 While the New Zealand waters produce several fish which are called “herring” and resemble herring - I myself saw vast quantities of these small fish at Nelson in April-they differ from the true herring in several important points. 1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 205 The name herring is widely used in New Zealand for the yelloweye mullet but the true herring is a very different kind of fish. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 113 The yellow-eyed mullet is probably best known as the “herring” taken by light-tackle wharf fishing; they are readily attracted to small hooks baited with tiny pieces of meat, shellfish, etc.

herring scad.  n. either KOHERU, Decapterus koheru, or the HORSE MACKERELs, Trachurus novaezelandiae, T. declivis and T. murphyi. Frequently elliptically scad.

1874 TrNZI 7. 247 Native name-Koheru. The Herring Scad. 1890 Otago Witness January 30. 17 The true mackerel (Scomber australasicus) .. very closely resembles the famed English mackerel, and is in every way a superior fish to the scad, or horse mackerel. 1905 TrNZI 38. 550 Trachurus trachurus, Linnæus. The horse-mackerel or scad. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler’s Fishes of New Zealand 88 The Herring Scad also occurs in Australia, where it is known as the “Yellow-tail”, and is reported to grow to a length of about 13 inches. 1960 Doogue & Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 218 Other names: Decapterus koheru; horse mackerel, scad.

HFO.  n. abbrev. HONORARY FISHERIES OFFICER.

1987 Catch May 14 While HFOs could, under the Fisheries Act, have powers as wide as Fisheries Officers, their warrants of appointment relate only to amateur fishing-marine and/or freshwater, he said. 1999 AJHR C20: 14 The HFO training manual was completed and distributed to HFOs in the quarter ended September 1998. 2003 AJHR C20: 99 Honorary Fishery Officers (HFO) are actively involved in monitoring activities. 2008
The Bite: News from MFish April 7 HFOs have all the powers of a fulltime fisheries officer, except the power of arrest.

highlander.  n. either SCARPEE, Helicolenus percoideus or SEA PERCH 1. H. barathri. Occasionally applied to other members of the Scorpaeidae family. See also Jock Stewart, pohuiakaroa, and scroddie. 1938 TrNZI 68. 416 Helicolenus percoideus (Richardson). Sea perch, so called John Dory (scroddie, fivefinger, soldier-fish, Jock Stuart, Highlander). 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 344 The Seaperch is a fish well known to all fishermen both sports and commercial fisherman alike, which give it quite a number of vernacular names, a few of which are as follows: Jock Stuart, Highlander, Fivefinger and Soldierfish … The first two names are supposed to be given on account of the colouring of the fish resembling, in some ways, the tartan of a Scot. 1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 269 Other names: Helicolenus papillosus; Jock Stewart, scarpée, highlander, fivefinger, scrodde; rock gurnard (Australia); pohuiakaroa (Maori).

hiku.  n. [Ma. hiku] FROSTFISH, Lepidopus caudatus. See also para. 1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 109 The Frost Fish or Hiku of the Maoris … is esteemed the most delicious fish in New Zealand. 1927 Donne Rod Fishing in New Zealand Waters 87 He [Maori], too, appreciated the fighting qualities of the hiku, or paea, as he terms him, and has a saying that “the capture of the hiku is proof of manhood”. 1960 Doogue & Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 260 Other names: Lepidopus caudatus; para, hiku, taharangi (Maori).

hiwihiwi.  n. [Ma. hiwihiwi] Chironemus marmoratus of the Chironemidae family, a mottled, olivey North Island fish with large fins which was considered good eating by Maori. See also kelpfish and rock cod. 1874 TrNZI 7. 243 The Maoris prize the hiwihiwi highly as food, considering it hardly inferior to the maomao (Ditrema violacea). 1886 Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand 19 The family to which this fish [nanua] belongs-the Cirrhitidae—contains the hiwi-hiwi, the tarakiti, the moki, the trumpeter, and the porae, most of which are well-known fish, and stand, as it were, sponsors of its belonging to a good parentage. 1960 Doogue & Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 234 Other names: Chironemus marmoratus; hiwihiwi. 1993 Francis Coastal Fishes of New Zealand 37 Hiwihiwi are very curious, but are also easily frightened. 1998 O’ Brien A Red Cod and a Conger Eel 109 His final bag also included four snapper and two hiwihiwi which was a good effort …

hoka.  n. [Ma. hoka] RED COD. Also in the form ehogoa. See also reddie. 1842 Gray Fauna in Dieffenbach Travels in New Zealand ii 1843 (1974) 222 Lota bacca … It is probably the “haddock” of the settlers: its native name in Queen Charlotte’s Sound is “Ehogoa”. 1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 413 Hoka, a fish about two feet long, of a reddish color, with small scales. 1982 Ayling and Cox Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand 142 RED COD (Hoka) Pseudophycis bachus (Physiculus bachus). 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 214 Hoka were important to early South Island Maori, who caught them by line and net in large numbers.

hoki.  n. [Ma. hoki] Macruronus novaezelandiae, a large, silvery fish, with tapering tail, which is a major commercial species. Also attrib, especially as used in food products. See also whiptail and whiting. 1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 49 Coryphaenoides novaezelandiae. Hoki … thrown up in large quantities on the shores of Cook Straits after heavy gales. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 163 The smallest Hoki seen by me measured eleven inches. 1980 AJHR C6: 29 It was clearly established that frozen fish is acceptable, and that hoki is the most economical and available species for use in hotels and restaurants as the base fish on menus. 1982 AJHR C6: 23 As an extension of an earlier project, a storage trial on hoki mince block was undertaken to determine whether antioxidants could reduce textural losses during frozen storage. This proved unsuccessful and is not recommended. 1986 Catch December 9 He said that hoki loin or fillet [has a] greater potential value
than surimi. 1992 NZOYB 301 Since 1986, approximately 2000 fur seals (from a population of 6500) have died in hoki nets, representing 15 years of breeding. 2005 Heberley Ordinary Women 162 The white moist flesh of hoki makes it suitable for most methods of cooking and it is excellent for processing into fish fingers or portions. 2007 Sunday Star Times March 25. A9 . the price of hoki blocks has risen about 10% over the past year, since certification. 2008 NZFN 31: 10. 62 Millions of birds escorted us all the way out to the hoki grounds.

Home, in combination; [of fish] species from Britain. 1868 Otago Witness March 07. 11 The fish said to be the salmon, is certainly very like the Home salmon. 1871 Otago Witness April 22. 1 How are we to ascertain whether the fish is a suitable one for curing like the home herring? 1872 Otago Witness July 13. 8 The head and shoulders of this fish [hapuku], boiled, equals the best home cod; and smoked or salted is excellent. 1877 AJHR H13: 3 The Home oyster begins to be whitesick, and introducing Home fish was one in which he had interested himself for some time. 1905 Evening Post October 14. 14 People from the Old Country praise the quality of the Home fish to the disparagement of the local sorts. 1910 Hawera & Normanby Star August 16. 3 Supposing we had introduced Home cod at an expense of £1000 and lost them all, you would have been the very first to have fault with us.

home freight. n. see citation. 2004 Johnson Hooked 239 Traditionally, crews were entitled to what was known as 'home freight', 25 kilograms of fish green weight per crew member to be taken home after each trip.

Honorary Fisheries Officer. n. a volunteer who patrols beaches with to help prevent people taking seafood illegally. See also HFO. 1972 Commercial Fishing March 23 These [shellfish] they had tried to land and sell without being detected by Marine Department and honorary fisheries officers, leaving them in sacks or heaps in shallow waters where collaborators later retrieved them. 2003 AJHR C20: 32 A greater level of management and support is required for the Honorary Fishery Officer networks, and their numbers have had to be limited in some areas to ensure appropriate training and operational support can be provided. 2008 The Bite: News from Mfish April 6 Fishers, divers and snorkellers are out in force. So are Mfish's honorary fishery officers (HFOs)-166 hard-working volunteers who spend much of their spare time making sure fishers are aware of the regulations, inspecting catches and looking after our fisheries for future generations.

Hooker's sea lion. n. NEW ZEALAND SEA LION. See also hair seal and sea lion. 1979 New Zealand Journal of Marine and Fresh Water Research 13: 3. 373 Hooker's sea lion (Phocarctos hookeri) is endemic to the New Zealand region, but there is no precise account of either its geographical range or its numbers. 1986 Grady Sealers and Whalers in New Zealand Waters 29 Hooker's sea lions were also called sea bears or hair seals. 1992 NZOYB 301 The rarest sea lions in the world, the Hooker's sea lion on the Auckland Islands are being caught in fishing nets at a rate of 110 a year from a population of between 5500 and 6500. 2002 Todd Seals and Sea Lions 17 The New Zealand sea lion is also known as the Hooker's sea lion, after Sir Joseph Hooker, a British botanist who first described the sea lion in the 1860s.

horse mackerel. n. [AND 1793] Trachurus novaehollandiae, declivis, and murphyi of the Carangidae family, similar blue green fish widespread throughout New Zealand which are caught in trawlers and purse seiners and often canned [the trade name currently preferred is Jack Mackerel]. 1841 Hodgskin A Narrative of Eight Months' Sojourn in New Zealand 34 Large quantities of the horse mackerel are annually caught, and dried by the natives in a peculiar manner, without the use of salt; they keep a good long time, and are an agreeable relish for breakfast. 1870 AJHR D9: 5 Mackerel, Hawke. - Under this name is sold the schad or horse mackerel (Trachurus trachurus), which though a good fish, is much inferior in delicacy to
the true mackerel (Scomber pneumatomorphus) a species which is only rarely brought to market. 1964 Commercial Fishing June 22 Mr York said that horse mackerel, dumped in hundreds of tons every month by New Zealand fishermen, was considered a prime fish by the Rumanians. 1970 AJHR H15a: 24 Horse mackerel - The texture and colour of the flesh and the high bone content make this fish unsuitable for the normal fresh-fish market. The research report concludes that the most suitable outlets for this fish appear to be as bait, for reduction to meal, or possibly as feed for eel farming. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 90 Commonly called horse mackerel. The name jack mackerel is more appropriate and is applied to a number of related species of Trachurus throughout the world.

horse mussel. n. Atrinapectinata of the Pinnidae family, a large marine mussel which lives buried in sand and which is harvested in small quantities for food. 1947 Powell Native Animals 20 Horse Mussel (Atrina zelandica). 1984 NZFN 7: 3. 10 The despised Horse-mussel is delicious - if you know which part to eat. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 169 New Zealand has the large horse mussel or fan shell, Atrinapectinata, which belongs to the related pen shell or fan-mussel family (Pinnidae).

humpie. n. humpback whale. 2004 NZ Listener August 7. 3 "It’s not a humpie", says Joe. 2007 McCallum The Blue I seen six spouts. I reckon it’s a pair of humpies. They should be up again in five.

ihe. n. [Ma. ihe] GARFISH, Hyporhamphus ihi. Also in the form ihi. See also mini marlin and piper. 1848 Taylor Leaf from the Natural History of New Zealand 13 Ihe, a scaleless fish 4 inches long, full of oil, much prized. 1870 AJHR D9: 3 Guard-fish, or ihe. - Two very distinct fish are sold under this name, the most common being the Half-beak (Hemiramphus marginatus). The other, true gar-fish (Belone) is also occasionally caught, and may be recognised by the equal prolongation of the beak. 1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 118 This name [garfish] is applied both to the Skipper (Scombresox Forsteri) and to the Ihi or Half Beak (Hemiramphus intermedius), which are allied fishes representing those of the same names in the British seas. 1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 195 Other names: Reporhamphus ihi; piper, half-beak; ihe, takeke.

ika. n. [Ma. ika] fish. 1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand ii 330 Fish Heeka. 1840 Polack Manners and Customs of the New Zealanders 132 Fish are termed ika or Eka, but each one has a distinct name as in Europe. 1894 Evening Post December 06. 4 And, who, too, is Hongi "Ika" - "The Fish". 2003 Tangaroa December 13 So the wedding in Rarotonga also saw the upoko of the ika being joined with the hiku, albeit briefly.

ike jime snapper. n. snapper killed via a spike to the head, usually for the Japanese market. Also elliptically iki snapper. 1986 Commercial Fishing April 25 He highlighted the fact that the 150 inshore fleet is made up of independent vessels targeting the Japanese ike jime snapper market. 1987 Commercial Fishing February 23 Maintaining tight quality control on ike jime snapper is very much a priority ... 2008 Mossman Snapper 56 In the factory these top-quality fish (known as ‘iki’ snapper ..) were swiftly packed in polystyrene bins with small bags of ice alongside, and air-freighted the same day.

iki. v. to kill [fish] by stabbing with a sharp spike to the brain. 1998 Hargreaves On the Next Tide 84 As soon as the fish come up we iki (or kill) them by stabbing them with a sharp point into the brain. 2008 NZFN 31: 8. 21 Once caught, if you intend to eat your trevally, iki it and place it on ice. 2008 Mossman Snapper 180 .. snapper are often ‘ikied’ – killed with a spike to the brain – to improve their eating quality before putting them on ice.

iki bin. n. lidded container lined with ice for holding whole fish for export. 1990 NZFN 13: 5. 26 Large slurry bins, stacks of iki bins and half a dozen Dan
buoys, with flags complete the picture. 2003 New Zealand Seafood Industry Council Big Fish: Industry Profile 41 The fishers then pack the fish, belly down, onto a bed of ice in an 'iki bin plasticbox'. 2004 Johnson Hooked 484 Perfect whole fish are packed under slurry in iki bins, quickly repackaged at the factory and within a few hours are on an aeroplane to their destination.

iki killing. vbl n. killing of a fish via a spike to the brain, as done in Japan. Also attrib.

1996 Goodson Kahawai Cowboys 53 One fishing knife among twenty-six fishermen made the traditional iki killing technique more or less impossible and the students, in their haste to kill the fish, had reverted to whacking them over the head with their Gameboy computers. 2005 New Zealand Herald July 08. D19 But it was a good learning experience for the late-night discussion where opinions on everything from the pros and cons of iki-killing fish to snapper secrets, secret spots and best baits were chewed over at length.

iwi fisheries. n. fisheries owned by particular iwi. Frequently attrib.

1996 AJHR C19: 18 A course in iwi fisheries management was provided in conjunction with Te Wananga o Raukawa, 20 enthusiastic students are expected to graduate from this course in December, better equipped to manage their iwi fisheries assets. 2000 Tangaroa August 4 IWI FISHERIES TRAINING COURSE EARN HIGHEST PRAISE FROM PARTICIPANTS [title]. 2003 New Zealand Seafood Industry Council Big Fish: Industry Profile 22 His skills are also being utilised in the development of an iwi fisheries plan and strategies to ensure more effective participation in all aspects of fisheries management. 2007 Rural Bulletin April 17 iwi fisheries forums such as Te Tau Ihu are a way of addressing the treaty responsibilities that result from the 1992 Fisheries Deed of Settlement and the Fisheries Act 1996.

Jap hook. n. recurved fishing hook. Also elliptically Jap.

1984 NZFN 7: 3. 10 For the "Jap-hook" is modelled very closely on the old time Maori hook that worked with devastating effectiveness. 1990 NZFN 13: 4. 12 These hooks are also called "longline hooks", "tuna hooks" and "Jap hooks" in some areas. 2007 Hokianga Accord Report: Hokianga Accord 37 A separate, larger trial was conducted on the commonly used 'Jap' or size 16r Tainawa commercial hook.

Jap pack. adj. [of snapper for the the Japanese market] good quality.

1979 Catch May 21 The prized "Jap Pack" market is lost and the Japanese trevally buyers don't want to know New Zealand sellers while they can get warehou from South Korean companies working boats off New Zealand. 2004 Johnson Hooked 242 Two grades of snapper were now listed: premium (generally known as 'Jap-pack') and ordinary. 2004 Ibid. 305 By that time much of it was bruised and scaled, and as a result downgraded from Jap-pack to local snapper when it arrived at the factory.

Jock Stewart. n. either SCARPEE, Helicolenus percoides, or SEA PERCH 1, H. barathri. Occasionally applied to other members of the Scorpaenidae family. Also in the form Jack Stuart and elliptically Stuart. See also highlander, pohuiakarara, and scroddie.

1876 West Coast Times April 08. 2 Another fish of curious and bright colouring, to which fishers in these parts have given the fanciful name of "Jack Stuart". 1902 Otago Witness April 23. 56 Their Maori name is Pohui-akaroa, and their scientific name Sebatos percoides; but no fishermen could use such a name as that, so we call them "Stuarts", because that is the sort of colours they generally wear. 1954 Beattie Our Southernmost Maoris 65 We call the crab papuck (papaka), the flathead moeanu and the Jock Stewart ta-kaka-ha. 1984 NZFN 7: 5. 19 The jock stewart reminds me of the scorpionfish or grandfather hapuku common in the north. 2008 NZFN 31: 6. 37 Big sea perch (AKA jock stewarts or scarpies) .. are easy to catch and yield a decent-sized fillet.

kaeo. n. [Ma. kāeo] Pyura pachydermatina, a long sea squirt whose inner was eaten by Maori. Also in the form kaio.
1920 *TrNZI* 52. 75 My informant said, “The kaio fastens one end of itself to the rocks and the other end is like a spud. You take this knob and soak it all night and eat it.” A European who has boiled and eaten them says: “They taste like a boiled egg flavoured with oil, and have a very good flavour. 1954 Beattie *Our Southernmost Maoris* 63 An Otago Peninsula Maori said to me: “The kaio, or sea-spud, was eaten here. We used to cut it, soak it in fresh water, and then eat it raw”. 1963 *Commercial Fishing* August 15 Boats would be chartered in the off-season for this work while oyster-bearing areas would be cleared of kaeo and similar growth. 1993 Holmes *My Seventy Years on the Chatham Islands* 88 I was riding to Waitangi West with Charles Seymour in spring 1924 and down a bank of Patoki Creek I saw a large mound of kaio (sea tulips) about nine or 10 feet in diameter and two feet high in a round stack like the bottom of a haystack.

kahawai.  n.  [Ma. kahawai] *Arripis trutta* of the *Arripididae* family, a shallow water fish, dark blue and green above and silvery below, common in and north of Cook Strait and valued by recreational fishers for its fighting value, while increasing in commercial importance. Also common in the form kawai. See also *Native salmon*, *New Zealand salmon*, *people’s fish*, and *sea trout.*

1838 Polack *New Zealand* 322 Some deep banks lie off the east coast, on which the kanai, or mullet, wapuka, or cod-fish, and the kahawai or colourless salmon, abound. 1870 AJHR D9: 5 Kawai are usually caught with spoon bait. 1906 AJHR H15: 4 There are large numbers of kahawai in the harbour, but as there is no sale for them they are not fished for. 1927 Best *Fishing Methods* 42 A good catch of these kahawai would mean that many fish would be preserved for future use, scaled, cleaned, steamed in a *hangi*, and hung up on racks to dry and harden. 1928 NZFSG 2: 1. 8 The Maori with his happy knack of nomenclature, has given this fish a most sensible name. Kahawai means “strong in the water. 1960 Doogue and Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 221 Only the Maori name is used in New Zealand, and is usually mispronounced as “kawai”. 1962 AJHR I19: 54 References were made to kahawai which in Australia was canned as Australian Salmon and it was advocated that kahawai should be canned in this country for export and artificially coloured if that would increase the sales. 1979 NZFN 1: 14. 1 The humble kahawai is now a game fish – and that’s official. 2007 *Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species* 79 Commericially, most Kahawai are caught by purse seine year-round, but are often targeted in the winter when the Skipjack Tuna have moved north.

kahawai bird.  n.  white fronted tern, *Sterna striata* which pursues small, surface fish.

1936 D’Ombrain *Emu* 36: 17 One species of sea bird which appeared in fairly large flocks out in the open sea, was known locally as the “Kahawai bird,” evidently named so because it was supposed to follow the schools of kahawai. 1950 *Sea Spray* September 25 Fascinated, we watched a Kahawai bird “dive-bombing” and knew that the kahawai fish was probably on the hunt, like a submarine beneath the surface, in this combined operation against the lesser fry. 1960 Doogue & Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 44 The tiny terns, which are such clear pointers to the presence of kahawai that they are called “kahawai birds”, seldom feed more than four feet below the surface. 2008 NZFN 31: 7. 55 There is still a notable absence of kahawai birds in many areas, which is an ongoing concern for the overall health of our marine environment.

kahawai killer.  n.  lure thought to be particularly effective with kahawai.

1983 NZFN 6: 9. 5 Small models are effective on albacore and kahawai, particularly the white model embedded with paua shell and known as the “kahawai killer”.

Kai Arahi.  n.  [Ma.] coordinator who assists iwi with the management of customary fisheries.

1998 AJHR C20: 11 The contract provides for the employment of five Kai Arahi (Customary Co-ordinators) to work with iwi, hapu, whanau and marae groups who have responsibilities for managing aspects of the Fisheries (South Island customary Fishing) regulations 1998. 2000 *Hi Ika* September 3 Kai Arahi/ regional Coordinators from the Customary
Fishing Unit play an important role in helping local iwi with training and delivery of customay fisheries support services.

**kai moana. n.** [Ma.] food from the sea. 1963 *Kai Moana* May 01. 1 The title, ‘Kai Moana’ – Food of the Water, is appropriate. 1974 *School Journal*3: 3. 6 If it was a sunny day, the reef would already be crowded with other people searching for kai moana. 1999 *Hi Ika* July 3 Kaimoana taken under Regulation 27 may only be used for a hui or tangi. 2005 *The Dominion Post* May 06. B4 My whanau and I have been fishermen all our lives. Over the years, we’ve noticed a steady decline in kai moana along the whole Wellington coast.

**Kai moana Customary Fishing Regulations. n.** laws which relate to Maori taking seafood for traditional, non-commercial purposes. See also *Kai moana Regulations.* 2000 *NZOYB* 433 The customary values of fishing have now been recognised with the introduction of the Kaimoana Customary Fishing Regulations. 2004 *Hi Ika* Spring 3 Kaitiaki, or tiaki, are essential to the operation of the kaimoana customary fishing regulations, which cover non-commercial customary fishing in the North Island. 2006 *Dominion Post* October 13. C7 This notice is made pursuant to regulation 9 of the Fisheries (Kaimoana Customary Fishing) Regulations 1998.

**Kai moana Regulations. n.** KAI MOANA CUSTOMARY FISHING REGULATIONS. Also attrib. 1999 *AJHR* C20: np In the North Island the final nominations for Tangata Tiaki/ kaitiaki entered the statutory appointments process prescribed in the Kaimona regulations. 2004 *AJHR* C20: 52 Kaimoana Regulation authorisations were checked, indicating a compliance rate of 82%.

**Kaipara oyster. n.** a rock oyster grown on a government run oyster farm in Northland. 1932 *AJHR* H15: 16 The muddy condition of many of the Kaipara oysters had previously been a serious drawback in marketing them. 1933 *AJHR* H15: 13 The Kaipara oysters, which in the past have been regarded as of inferior class, were supplied this season in very good condition, well picked and thanks to the new mechanical washer, they were quite free from the mud, which in the past, even more than their smaller size, detracted from their value.

**Kaitaia spat. n.** wild. Northland mussel spat that is collected from the beach and sold for use in mussel culture. Also attrib. 1984 *Catch* June 17 Although the most economical source of mussel spat continues to be the so-called Kaitaia spat, its collection is a matter of chance. 1985 *Catch* November 2 Kaitaia spat is first bound onto ropes with a specially designed cotton sock, and then ongrown until the seed is large enough for thinning out to an ideal growing density. 2004 *Dawber Lines in the Water* 102 Before long Kaitaia spat, as it was commonly known throughout the industry, was big business. 2008 *Marine Farming Association Newsletter* June 2 The farm has one significant attraction, that is the liberal and frequent access to fresh Kaitaia spat which they logically get at a lower cost than we pay. 2008 *Ibid.* 2 I envy these guys, they have very few Kaitaia spat failures and you can always get a little bit more next week.

**kaitiaki. n.** [Ma. ] a person nominated by iwi to authorise customary fishing in a particular area. See also *authorising officer, tangata tiaki / kaitiaki* and *TT/K.* 1999 *Hi Ika* March 2 Kaitiaki are required to report every three months on how much of each species was approved for customary harvest and how much was actually taken. 2000 *Paul New Zealand Fishes* 194 Kaitiaki authorise customary fishing, and may do so for the purposes of the marae even when the reserve is under a rahui, or temporary closure, to other fishers. 2003 *AJHR* C20: 24 Progress on implementing the customary fishing regulations, including the appointment of kaitiaki and establishment of mataitai reserves, is slower than anticipated. 2005 *Sunday Star Times* June 19. A5 Customary harvests are not subject to the usual catch and size limits and anyone-Maori or non-Maori-can carry one out as long as they are granted a permit by a kaitiaki.
kanae.  
[Ma. kanae] AUCKLAND MULLET,  
Mugil cephalus. Also in the form kanai. See also Auckland, deep sea, grey, and sea mullet.

1838 Polack New Zealand 322 Some deep banks lie off the east coast, on which the kanai, or mullet, wapuka, or cod-fish, and the kahawai or colourless salmon, abound. 1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 411 Kanæa, a fish abundant in some parts of the coast, and also found in the Wangape, a fresh water lake, seventy miles inland, near the Waikato. 1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 113 The kanæ frequents the tidal rivers, going out to sea in summer and returning in the winter in immense numbers. 1938 Makereti The Old-time Maori 232 Kanæ (mullet) was another favourite, which to me tasted like the mackerel I've eaten in England. 1963 Commercial Fishing March 23 The grey mullet, or kanæa, as the Maoris call it, abounds around the North Island coasts, particularly north of Auckland. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 202 As kanæa, they were taken by Maori for centuries, and remain one of their important fisheries.

kapeta.  
[Ma. kapeta] spiny dogfish, Squalus acanthias. Also applied to school shark.

1908 Hamilton Fishing and Sea-foods of the Ancient Maori 71 The kapeta, a small shark or dogfish, was formerly taken in great numbers by the Maoris, and dried on long stages or racks in the sun for winter use. 1910 TrNZI 43. 602 The kapeta, or dogfish, is well known to be viviparous. 1938 Makereti The Old-time Maori 226 These tahua were made up of schnapper .. kapeta ... 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 207 Kapeta, as they were known, were important seasonally to early Maori in some localities, caught by both line and net, mostly during their spring-summer inshore aggregations.

karengo.  
[Ma. karengo] Porphyra columbina, a greeny red finely fronded seaweed which is valued as a food, especially by Maori. See also parengo.

1841 Colenso in TrNZI (1894) 27. 360 On them grew a peculiar kind of large procumbent thin Alga, which, boiled or steamed, is commonly used as an article of food by the Maoris of these parts: they call it parengo, also karengo. 1868 TrNZI 1. 32 A few also of the seaweeds were eaten; such as the Karengo, (a tidal species of Laminaria found plentifully from the East Cape to Cape Turnagain). 1904 Tregear The Maori Race 102 Karengo was generally eaten after being steamed in the oven and mixed with tutu juice, when it became like jelly and was allowed to cool. 1964 Commercial Fishing December 29 This laver is very like a Maori delicacy called Karengo, which is popular with the Ngati Porou of the East Cape district. 2005 Air New Zealand Magazine September 12 It has transformed the lettuce-like fronds of the mild-flavoured karengo – a close relative of the Japanese nori – into soft flakes that are perfect to use as a garnish or seasoning.

Karitane concession area.  

An area in Otago from which undersized crayfish can be legally taken.

1972 AJHR H15a: 55 There has been considerable concern among those members of the industry who operate in the so-called “Karitane concession area”, and further representations have been made by the fishermen and processors involved in the fishery on the grounds that the Parliamentary Select Committee did not give due weight to the socio-economic effects of its recommendations on the area. 1978 Catch July 30 Mr Cooper says it is planned to do a proper review of the Karitane concession area before next season.

Karitane rock lobster.  

CRAYFISH caught in the Otago region which are small. In earlier use Karitane crayfish.

1963 Commercial Fishing January 7 All Karitane crayfish and the under 10in. Crayfish from Oamaru, Moeraki, Taieri Mouth and Nuggets be processed in a licensed plant within Otago and distributed in consumer packs bearing an appropriate seal for sale throughout New Zealand. 1971 Commercial Fishing February 8 The exemption of the Otago area from a legal size limit was ended by the 1959 amending regulations, an overall size limit of 6 inches being set as a minimum for the so-called “Karitane rock lobster”. 1973 Fisheries Newsletter September 8 Excluding the peak period of landings at the Chatham Islands (1967-1969), the aggregate landings for June are the highest on record; despite the lowering of the conversion factor for rock lobsters, and the increase in legal size of "Karitane" rock
lobsters. 1976 Catch June 14
Government has approved the retention of a 5-inch (12.7 cm) minimum tail length for Karitane rock lobster in the coming season.

Karitane sizes. n. exemption which operated in Otago, from size limits for crayfish. 1971 Commercial Fishing February 8
The position in respect of Otago rock lobsters (or “Karitane sizes” as they came to be described), remained the same - i.e., no minimum size limit applied.

kawai, see KAHAWAI.

kehe. n. [Ma. kehe] MARBLEFISH, Aplodactylus arctidens. Also in the form nghe. See also Maori chief 2.
1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 412 Ngehe, a rock fish, curiously spotted white and brown. 1908 Hamilton Fishing and Seal-foods of the Ancient Maori 63 A somewhat similar net (called simply kupenga), only narrower at the point, is used to catch kehe by the process called koko-kehe.
1919 Poata The Maori as a Fisherman and his Methods 15 As soon as the Kehe is landed on the rock it grabs some of the seaweed, and hangs on till the next wave comes to carry it back with its mouth full of seaweed. 1926 Hiroa Maori Craft of Netting 618 The kehe is a tapu fish, and must not be cooked in the earth-oven at night, or they will forsake the channels.

kekeno. n. [Ma. kekeno] FUR SEAL, Arctocephalus forsteri. Also in the form cakenno. See also New Zealand fur seal and sea bear. 1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand ii 320 Phoca, or seal Cakenno. 1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 395 The seal, mimihia or kekeno (fam. Phocidae), appears to have once been very numerous, as their bones are met with in considerable quantities along the coast, mingled with those of man. 1908 Otago Witness September 09. 53 The hair seal generally makes his home on the east or sheltered part of the islands which he inhabits, but not so with the kekeno, or fur seal. 1920 TrNZI 52. 61 .. when a boy he copied some white boys and made bow and arrows, and he got into sad trouble for shooting an arrow into a poha of kekeno flesh suspended to the floor. 1954 Beattie

Our Southernmost Maoris 25 An esteemed Maori friend said to me: - “The kekeno, or fur seal, had a kind of hair or fur you could comb out like wool”. 2004 Johnson Hooked 12 The only other large animal was kekeno (the fur seal).

kelpfish. n.
1. BUTTERFISH 1, Odax pullus. See also greenbone and marari.
1870 Evening Post October 24. 2 Dr. Knox exhibited and described a beautifully prepared skeleton of the kelp fish, (coridodax pullus) showing the peculiar green colour which the bones of this fish have, resembling that of the green bone blenny of the Northern Seas. 1871 TrNZI 3. 131 On the second day of August last (1870), a large quantity of the kelp-fish were offered by sale in and about Wellington, and although by no means prepossessing in external appearance, being of a dingy black colour and covered with a slimy mucus, a few were purchased. 1929 AJHR H15: 22 Kelp-fish are not a common fish in the Dunedin market, but in Wellington they are abundant, and are sold under the name of “butterfish”. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler’s Fishes of New Zealand 130 It is unfortunate that the Butterfish has been given a variety of local names which have originated either from their habit of associating with kelp, their body form, or from the colour of their bones, as for example, Kelpfish, Kelp-Salmon, Greenbone, and several other names not so easy to explain.

2. any of various species of wrasse of the Labridae family.
1878 TrNZI 11. 384 The Wrasse and Parrotfish are mostly caught outside among the kelp, and with the Spotty are indiscriminately named Kelp-fish by the fishermen, though the term Butter-fish is also given to the smaller sorts. 1921 AJHR H15: 16 The weather was extremely cold at the time, and the sudden change of temperature killed the majority of the fish, only a trumpeter and a kelp-fish surviving, in the ponds at the hatchery. 1979 NZFN 1: 2. 13 PARROTFISH Other names are Soldier-fish, Kelpfish, Butterfish and Kelpie.

3. [AND 1842] HIWIWI, Chironemous marmoratus. Occasionally refers to other species of the Chironemidae family.
kelpie.  n.
any of various fish which are associated with kelp, especially, BUTTERFISH, Odax pullus; SPOTTY, Pseudolabrus celidotus; and fish of the Labridae family.

1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 261 The name Kelpie, of course, is derived from its [Odax pullus] habit of living amidst kelp and it is easily understood how the “ie” was tacked on by fishermen. 1960 Doogue & Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers' Guide 108 Most fish caught by New Zealand spear fishermen are rock fish or fish that live close to rocky areas, the common ones being butterfish, parrotfish, kelpies, moki, tarakihi, snapper, occasional groper and conger eel. 1979 NZFN 1:2. 13 PARROT FISH Other names are Soldier-fish, Kelpfish, Butterfly and Kelpie. 1982 NZFN 5: 5. 18 Most recent reports feature a few kahawai, cod, gurnard and the odd kelpie.

kete kai moana.  n.
[Ma. kete + kai moana] [literally seafood basket] the coast as a provider of seafood. 2005 Hi Ika Autumn 2 Established by the Rakiura Maori Land Trust last year, the mataitai reserve will use tools available under the customary fishing regulations to manage the local community’s kete kaimoana (seafood basket). 2006 Kapiti Coast: Choosing Futures, Otaki Local Outcomes 25 www.beackworkz.com/files/otaki That the coast is valued as a kete kaimoana, food basket, and there is fresh water for shellfish growth.

kina.  n.
[Ma.] Evechinus chloroticus, an endemic sea urchin common throughout New Zealand which is taken in large numbers, mostly by recreational fishers as food. Also attrib.

1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 417 He kina, the sea egg, or hedgehog. 1927 Best Fishing Methods 61 It [a trap] was made of strips of Phormium leaf, and the bait of paua shell-fish (Haliotis) or of kina (sea-urchin, sea-egg) was placed in a small netted bag called a torehe, the mouth of which was then drawn together and the bag was secured inside the net. 1974 School Journal 3: 3. 5 Kinas are spiky sea food, also known as “sea urchins”. 1980 NZFN 2:10. 5 It’s good Tucker, but doesn’t hold a candle to kina pie. 1985 Catch March 8 The company has already created employment for 12 people, mostly women, who process and pack the kina roe into pottles which are transported to markets mainly in the Auckland area. 2001 Hi Ika March 3 As a kid I fondly remember setting the hinaki to catch eels from Lake Waahi and diving for kina at Raglan for the various hui held at the Pa. 2007 Dominion Post February 05. A8 Kina, or sea urchins, may be blind, but they have the same genes that help people see, as well as genes for a sense of smell and one of the most complicated immune systems in the animal world, researchers reported recently.

kingfish.  n.
1. [AND 1825] Seriola lalandi, a blue-green fish, with iridescent, vertical gold stripe, which is found throughout open coastal waters, and is much prized in game fishing. See also hakü, kingie, yellowtail, and yellowtail kingfish. 1870 AJHR D9: 3 King-fish, and also a kind of tunny, which is occasionally in the market, are exceptions to the above rule [of fish being sold in bundles], being the only fish which are sold in cuts by weight, the usual price being 6d. per lb. 1885 AJHR H15: 8 The hakü of the natives is the kingfish (Seriola lalandi) of Wellington and the yellow-tail of Australia. 1918 AJHR H15: 7 The sport of angling for kingfish and swordfish has become famous, and the number of sportsmen from England, Australia and from all parts of the dominion is increasing every year. 1929 NZFSG 2: 9. 16 He [Zane Grey] states that its proper name is Yellowtail (Seriola dorsalis) "but is miscalled kingfish
in New Zealand”. 1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 219 The general adoption of the term yellowtail for this species would be more appropriate than the sometimes confusing term of kingfish. 2004 Holmes Hook it and Cook it 83 In the North Island of New Zealand a yellowtail is a kingfish—always has been and, as far as I can see, always will be.

2. GEMFISH, Rexea solandri. See also southern kingfish and HAKE. 2004 Johnson Hooked 104 King fish, today more commonly known as gemfish was first discovered during the Government Trawling Expedition of 1907, and described by Canterbury Museum director Edgar Waite.

kingfishing. vbl n. fishing for KINGFISH 1. 1913 Grey River Argus January 30. 8 One great recommendation of the kingfishing in New Zealand is that it can be held at practically no expense. 1914 Evening Post January 15. 3 “Rod fishing,” says Mr. Darcy, "is usually referred to as the 'gentle art,' but as applied to kingfishing it is quite a misnomer, for I found it to be about the most strenuous physical exercise that I have undertaken for many years”. 1915 Evening Post May 11. 16 Bay of Islands, commonly believed to be a peaceful region, and better known for king-fishing than political angling, has been in an atmosphere of intrigue for three years.

kingie. n. [AND 1936] KINGFISH. Also in the form kingi. Also attrib. 1928 NZFSG 2: 2. 7 I think those who come from afar for the big game fishing should at least have a day or two after kingi. 1978-1979 Bay of Islands Swordfish Club 12 However, this tournament to us means more than just the winning of a trophy, it means the chance of hooking into those mighty 'kingies' in the most magnificent surrounding and enjoying the warm hospitality of the New Zealand people. 1980 NZFN 2: 8. 22 His wife shot back to the car and found some heavy kingi gear. 1983 NZFN 6: 5. 8 And still that gutsy 'kingie' ran and wrestled and fought the hook within. 1984 NZFN 7: 4. 5 I was plagued with problems when first inflicted with a case of kingi-mania; fish failed to hook up, hooks ripped out, kingis cut me off on rocks, and regurgitated livebaits with the hook turned in.

kini. n. [Ma.] GUMMY SHARK, Mustelus lenticulatus. See also dogfish, pioke, spotted dogfish, and rig. 1962 AJHR 119: 84 Lemon fish .. 1. Mustelus antaricus (mainly) Dogfish, doggies, pioke, flake, rigs, kini, white fillets. 1979 Catch September 22 Dogfish, gummy shark, spotty, kini, lemonfish, pioke, rig .. the smooth-hound dogfish (Mustelus lenticulatus) probably has more common names than any other New Zealand fish- which causes confusion, especially for MAF staff who analyse fishing returns.

koarea. n. [Ma. koarea] GOLDEN SNAPPER, Centroberyx affinis. See also red snapper. 1922 NZOYB 357 Golden snapper; koarea ... Austroberyx affinis. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 175 GOLDEN SNAPPER (KOAREA)...It has a very short snout, and except for the even more brilliant colouring might easily be mistaken for a Snapper. 1981 NZFN 3: 10. 10 The ancient Maori fisherman knew him as "koarea" and also prized his flesh.

koheru. n. [Ma. kōheru] Decapterus koheru, a small, blue green fish, with long rounded body, which is taken by anglers on light tackle. See also herring scad and yellowtail. 1848 Taylor Leaf from the Natural History of New Zealand 13 Koheru, a fish. 1886 Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand 100 There is an allied species [to the trevalla] called the koheru, or the herring scad, which is without doubt edible. 1963 Sutherland Maui and Me 122 Koheru are satisfying fish to catch; sturdy, and well filled out, with blue-green backs, silver sides shot with a faint golden bloom, fins tipped with dull yellow, and with very large eyes for their length of about a foot. 1977 New Zealand Seafoods: a Buying and Catering Guide 20 There are actually two almost identical species of jack mackerel in New Zealand, one of which koheru, is the same species as the Japanese jack mackerel. 1993 Mossman Serious about Sportfishing 147 Koheru are very strong pullers for their size, and I have taken them to over 2 kg on fly at Cape Brett.
kohikohi. \(n.\) [Ma. kohikohi] either the TRUMPETER, \(L\)\(atris \)\(lineate\), or species of Hemerocoetes spp., Opalfishes.

**1843** Gray *Fauna* in Dieffenbach *Travels in New Zealand* ii 1843 (1794) 213 The New Zealand name of this fish is written "Kogohooe" by G. Forster, and "Kohiko" by Dr. Dieffenbach. **1885** AJHR H15: 7 The trumpeter (\(L\)\(atris \)\(hecataea\)) which is during this taonga, groper, and kohikohi are descended from Parauri through Whata-maomao and Kohuru. **1947** JPS 56: 1. 44 Kohikohi, *Hemerocoetes monopterygius*. **1947** Ibid. 44 Kohikohi, trumpeter, *Latridopsis lineata*. **2000** Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 213 As kohikohi, caught by early Maori, and now taken in fairly small quantities, by recreational fishermen.

kohuwai. \(n.\) [Ma.] *Tyndaridea anomala*, a rock-covering seaweed which is eaten by fish. **1901** *Otago Witness* December 25. 9 Do not the children of the Mist to this very day call the long floating kohuwai the sacred hair of Hau-Mapuhia? **1926** Hiroa *Maori Craft of Netting* 619 It is during the kohuwai season that the kehe reach their best, being at their very best in March. **1926** *TrNZI* 56. 598 The luxuriant growth of the kohuwai seaweed brought the well-conditioned kehe up the rocky channels of the favoured reefs. **1956** Pringle and Vangioni *Old Maori Place Names* 5 KOHWAI is the Maori for the green moss or seaweed that covers the rocks and stones in sheltered places, and is a favourite food for blue cod and butterfish.

koinga. \(n.\) [Ma. koinga] spiny dogfish, *Squalis ancanthias*. Occasionally applied to other small sharks. See also dogfish, okeoke, and spiky dogfish.

**1910** *TrNZI* 43. 603 This species has two dorsal fins, and in front of each is a strong bony tusk, or spine, which gives it the distinctive name of koinga (a sharp point). **1956** Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 82 The Maori name for Spined Dogfish is Koinga or Okeoke, and the fish is used by them as food, usually being hung outside and dried, when it will keep for long periods. **1980** Catch October 11 In the recent past, dried spiny dogfish ("Koinga" or "Okeoke") was consumed by the Maoris. It was more valued than rig because its flesh was less rank. **2000** Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 217 As koinga, caught by line and net by early Maori, who dried large quantities of many kinds of small shark for winter food.

do koiro, see ngoiro.

kokiri. \(n.\) [Ma. kokiri] LEATHERJACKET, *Parika scaber*. Also in the form kokiddle and kikiri. See also creamfish, filefish, and triggerfish.

**1817** Nicholas *Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand* ii 22 I observed in one of the canoes a very singular fish, which the natives call cokiddie, or the spear-fish. It was from this bone that the natives gave it the name of cokiddle, which signifies spear in their language, and therefore appropriate name. **1848** Taylor *Leaf from the Natural History of New Zealand* 12 Kikiri, a rough skinned fish with one or two spines which it can elevate at pleasure, springing from its back, it grunts like a pig. **1926** Hiroa *Maori Craft of Netting* 646 Some of the smaller that remove the bait from hooks with impunity fell an easy victim to the torehe. Such a fish is the kokiri (Cantherines convixirostris Guenther) (leather-jacket). **1983** Hohepa *The Best of Bill Hohepa* 40 The Maori knew the Leatherjacket as "kokiri" or "worthless spear" and caught him at depths down to around 100 feet. **2000** Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 212 As kokiri, presumably used by Maori, being common, easily caught from coastal reefs, and good eating.

koko. \(n.\) [Ma. koko] scoop net with bag and poles which is mainly used to catch kehe. Frequently attrib.

**1874** *TrNZI* 7. 242 It [kehe] is caught in large numbers by the natives in the deep runlets excavated by the sea in the chalk marl strata which form the coastline, and for this purpose they use a peculiar net called the koko. This is a large scoop net made with a bag net suspended between two poles. **1926** *TrNZI* 56. 615 The kōkō method requires two men, one with the pointed net and the other with a pole about
9 ft. long. 1941 Best The Maori ii 405 The kor Papa is a scoop or landing net, the koko a small hand net for taking the kehe fish … 1957 Parrott Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand 114 This "koko" net is actually a large scoop, made with a bag-net suspended between two poles.

kon-tiki. n. a raft used in fishing to pull a hooked line out past breaking waves. Frequently attrib. 1963 Evening Post January 23. 14 It [an unidentified ship in the Bay of Plenty] could very well be a very large 'Kon-Tiki' fishing device … 2000 Vector May/June 5 'Kon-Tiki' fishing has long been popular off beaches around the New Zealand coast … Kon-Tiki or raft fishing involves setting a line through the surf with a floating bag or raft being drawn off shore by a favourable wind, towing out a rigged long-line of baited hooks or lures. 2008 Mossman Snapper 116 The sailing raft is another venerable shore-based longlining technique, and is universally known as the Kon-Tiki, after the famous balsa-wood raft Thor Heyerdahl sailed from Peru to Polynesia in 1947.

kopapa. n. [Ma.] small or juvenile KAHAWAI. 1973 Fisheries Newsletter May 17 Species: Kahawai … Common Names: Kopapa ... 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 92 The name kopapa is sometimes given to the spotted and barred juveniles. 2009 NZFN 32: 9. 45 I am not much into live baiting, but some friends swear by using kopapa (small kahawai) under a balloon for kingies and john dory.

korohe. n. [Ma. kōrohe] bag-net for fishing, especially for crayfish. 1902 TrNZI 35. 80 Korohe: A large net used for many kinds of fish. 1941 Best The Maori ii 405 We have wai as the bag of a net; korohe, a bag net ... 1964 Commercial Fishing March 23 Maui is thus credited with inventing the korohe, or bag-net with which crayfish are caught, but the art of net-making came to the Maoris from another source, the fairy-folk of the Turehu.

korowhawa. n. [Ma. korowhāwā] anchovy, Engraulis australis, a silvery fish distinguished by a large, undershot mouth, which is not much exploited in New Zealand. Also in the form korowawa. 1848 Taylor Leaf from the Natural History of New Zealand 13 Korowawa, a fish. 1890 Otago Witness February 13. 17 The anchovy has been caught at the mouth of the river Thames by the Natives, who call it the korowhawa. 1922 NZOYB 356 Anchovy; korowhawa … Engraulis antipodum. 1940 Phillips Fishes of New Zealand 5 The anchovy or korowhawa of the Maori is not known to many European fishermen.

koura. n. [Ma. kōura] CRAYFISH. Also in the form kohuda. Also attrib. See also crawfish and cray. 1838 Polack New Zealand ii (1974) 136 This cavern … is mostly in request by parties fishing for the kohuda (crawl fish,) and other, which abound in all these bays … 1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 414 Amongst the Crustacea is the koura which is the general name for both the sea cray fish and the fresh water; the former is nearly two feet long, and abundant on all the rocky shores … 1908 Hamilton Fishing and Sea-foods of the Ancient Maori 13 The principle item in the bill of fare taken in this group was the koura – the large red crayfish (Palinurus or Jasus) – and the fresh-water koura of the lakes and streams (Paranephrops). 1926 Hiroa Maori Craft of Netting 628 Koura are not put in fresh water to render them soft (mara) until the blooms are off the kowhai. 1963 Sutherland Maui and Me 207 Then, at the beginning of the 1950s, the koura began to make its sensational smash-hit on the American market. 1999 Tangaroa October 8 He’s also interested in helping with TOKM-sponsored research at Kennedys Bay into developing sea cages for koura. 2002 Aniwaniwa 20. 2 Some of these artificial reefs, along with isolated natural reefs nearby, had the shelters – which we call koura kainga – placed on them.

kourepoua. n. [Ma.] either MONKFISH, Kathetostoma giganteum, or SPOTTED STARGAZER, Genyagnus monopterygius, both of the Uranoscopidae family. See also giant stargazer. 1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 246 Other names: Geniagnus monopterygius; catfish, monk, dogfish; kourepoua (Maori).
1993 Francis Coastal Fishes of New Zealand 47 Spotter stargazer (Kourepoua) Genyagnus monopterygius.
2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 216 Early Maori caught the monkfish or giant stargazer, kourepoua, which has a very wide depth range. Also the spotted stargazer common in shallow bays, and the small estuarine and surf zone species.

kuku. n. [Ma. kuku] any of various mussels.
1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 417 Kuku, (mussel,) is very abundant in the north of the island, where it is frequently found ten inches long. 1908 Hamilton Fishing and Sea-foods of the Ancient Maori 13 The shell of the kuku, or large mussel, was used in preparing flax and peeling potatoes, and a pair made good tweezers to extract undesired hairs on a well-tattooed countenance. 1938 Makereti The Old-time Maori 236 Kuku or mussels originated from a relative of Hine-moana, from whom also sprang all the different kinds of seaweed which were to form a shelter for her descendants. 2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 11 The tides have sustained people across the top of the South Island for centuries and the kutai (green mussel) and kuku (blue mussel) have played an important role.

kumukumu. n. [Ma. kumukumu] RED GURNARD, Cheilodinichthys kumu. Also elliptically kumu.
1843 Dieffenbach Travels in New Zealand (1974) 65 A fish was often caught which is nearly allied .. to one described by Cuvier under the name of Trigla papilionacea. The natives call it kumu kumu. 1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 411 Kumukumu, is a red fish, with a hard horny skin; it derives its name from the noise it makes. 1870 AJHR D9: 3 Gurnet, or Kumu Kumu (Trigla kuma). - Is caught in the harbour, sometimes the net being drawn at Kaiwarra with nothing else in it. 1911 JPS 20: 1. 40 Now I will say, yes, it is true, the Tuatara was eaten; and as for the kumukumu, it is an excellent fish for that purpose. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand 168 The Maori name Kumukumu is often shortened by Europeans to "Kumu". 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 206 Kumukumu were taken by early Maori by line and seine.

kupai. n. [Ma.] SPRAT, Sprattus antipodum or Sprattus muelleri. Also in the form kupai. 1872 TrNZI 51. 270 Clupea sprattus...This fish is called "Kupai" by the Thames natives. 1886 Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand 94 Sprats are called kupai by the Natives at the Thames, and are found in great abundance – in tons, Mr. Masefield says – in the early months of the year in the Kaipara waters. 1922 NZOYB 356 Sprat; kupai … Clupea antipoda. 2004 Holmes Hook it and Cook it 85 There are actually two varieties, the sprat (kupai) which grows to only about three inches long, and the pilchard (mohimohi) about twice as long.

kupai, see KUPAE.

kuparu. n. [Ma. kuparu] John Dory, Zeus faber of the Zeidae family, a deep-bodied olive fish, with prominent mouth, which is an important commercial catch. 1848 Taylor Leaf from the Natural History of New Zealand 14 Kuparu, a fish. (Pagrus iatus). 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 178 JOHN DORY (KUPARU) .. Zeus australis. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 212 As kuparu, certainly taken by early Maori … It is not a target species for recreational fishermen, but valued when caught.

kupari. n. [Ma. kupari] a fishing net, especially a seine net. Also in the form koopenga. See citation 1979 for possible modern usage, catching fish with a small hand held net.

1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand ii 334 A fishing-net Koopenga. 1838 Polack New Zealand i. 190 Our direct and nearest road would have been to pass a beach that lay before us, but that was strictly tapued; a party being engaged making a kupenga, or seine; on which account the waters and the land in the immediate neighbourhood were also under the law of the priesthood. 1843 Dieffenbach Travels in New Zealand ii (1974) 45 In size the seines (kupenga) used by the natives rival our largest, and are made of unprepared flax exactly in the same way and form as ours are. 1848 Nelson Examiner & New Zealand Chronicle October 21. 134 Having no provisions, we camped, made our
kupenga, and set to work fishing. 1893 TrNZI 26. 426 The manufacture of the kupenga was a great work, in which the whole community in a kainga, or village, took part, each family making an allotted portion. 1919 TrNZI 51. 261 This net was known as a kupenga, and it was used in almost the same way as the seine or large drag-net of European use. 1963 Sutherland Maui and Me 51 The great net was the idea of Te Pokiha Taranui, or Major Fox, as this popular chief of the Ngati-Piiao tribe of the Arawa was known. In 1885 he planned the great kupenga which would make all others look like toys. 1979 NZFN 1: 6. 19 Students travel many miles over outback roads today to watch Len, 68, demonstrate the ancient art of "kupenga" as it is called.

kutai.  n.  [Ma. kūtai] mussels of the Mytilidae family.

1890 Evening Post May 21. 13 The mussel Mytilus [sic] latus, the Maori kutai, makes excellent eating and is much sought by the natives. 1891 Otago Witness March 12. 37 After the "first course" was over, what was left of the salt was thrown away, the pannikin turned up and filled with tea, which was drunk with the bread that had served for a plate, together with a relish of some "kutai", or dried mussel. 1968 Kerema The Tail of the Fish 52 Before the Pakeha came to New Zealand, the Maori had access to beaches with their toheroa, kutai, mussel, oysters and many other shell fish without laws to limit their use. 2006 Northern Advocate February 21. My way of preparing kutai is to boil them in sea-water until open, then eat them with fresh bread and butter.

lantern fish.  n.  MEGRIM, Aronglossus scapha. See also cadger's fish and witch.

1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 186 In Napier it is known as Lantern-fish, but for what reason I am unable to say, unless it is from the peculiar transparency when it is held up to a strong light. 1980 NZFN 2: 3. 21 He is almost paper thin, and this probably accounts for one of his nicknames "Lanternfish" for a lantern could easily shine through his body.

leatherjacket.  n.
1. [AND 1770] any fish of the Monacanthidae family, but especially Parika scaber, a grey brown, rough-skinned fish with a spike-like dorsal fin above its eye which is trawled commercially. See also creamfish, file-fish, kokiri, and triggerfish.

1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 120 The usual size of the Leather Jacket is about 11 inches long ... 1886 Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand 59 The leather-jacket is not known in the Auckland market, but is common enough outside the harbour, at the Barriers, Whangarei, the Bay of Islands, and other places on the coast. 1903 AJHR H15: 7 We were catching leather jackets and skinning them and sending them to the shops. 1983 Hohepa The Best of Bill Hohepa 39 The Leatherjacket has a sense of humour, plus a personality uncommon in any other fish. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 146 Leatherjackets have some commercial value, several hundred tonnes being caught annually, mainly by trawlers, and sold as creamfish.

2. PIGFISH, Agriopus leucopoecilus [regional, Dunedin].

1877 TrNZI 10. 330 There is also the common leather-jacket or pig-fish of our harbour (Agriopus leucopoecilus) which is often caught, but very seldom offered for sale, though good eating. 1905 TrNZI 38. 545 This fish is popularly known as "pig-fish," on account of the grunting noise it makes when taken out of the water and left to gasp for air. It is sometimes called "leather-jacket," a name which, however, is more correctly applied to Monacanthus scaber, another very common fish in Otago Harbour. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 351 This fish is sometimes called Leatherjacket by many fishermen, probably on account of its leathery skin, but this name is misleading as the proper and popular Leather Jacket is a smaller fish with a tough rough and leathery skin and with one single spine on its back.

lemonfish.  n.  GUMMY SHARK, and other dogfish species, and occasionally other species perceived as undesirable, especially for trade.

1947 JPS 56: 1. 41 The king-fish of the South Island is the hake of Wellington and
the lemon fish of Auckland. **1965 Commercial Fishing** May. 36 With the exception of lemon fish there has been no attempt to provide more imaginative names for some of these [undervalued] varieties. **1982 NZFN** 5: 4. 14 It is only in comparatively modern times that shark flesh (or lemon fish as the fish shops call it) has become a desirable comestible. **1998 New Zealand Geographic** July-September 124 The identity of lemonfish has to be the worst kept secret in the country, but for some reason every single customer seems to enjoy being party to the deception. **2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes** 30 The flesh [of *Mustelus lenticulatus*] is white, firm textured, and boneless, suited to most cooking methods; usually sold as lemonfish. **2004 Holmes Hook it and Cook it** 80 Dogfish: this usually ends up in the shops as lemon fish.

**lemon sole.** *Pelotretis flavilatus*, an endemic, oval flatfish with mottled, greeny hue which is of some commercial importance. **1875 TrNZI** 8. 215 A fish not uncommon in the Dunedin market, where it goes by the name of "Lemon Sole", agrees so well with Dr. Gunther's description of a *A. rostratus*, from Tasmania, that I have no hesitation in considering it that species. **1905 TrNZI** 38. 543 This fish is popularly known as the lemon sole to distinguish it from *Peltorhamphus nova-zealandiae*, Gunther, which the local fishermen call the English sole. The names are somewhat unfortunate, seeing that they are applied to totally different species in Britain. **1924 AJHR** H15: 19 Common soles (*Pektorhamphus nova-zealandiae*) and lemon soles (*Pelotretis flavilatus*) were the principal fish caught. **1969 New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer's Guide** 21 The Lemon Sole is an excellent food fish and occurs mainly in sand bottomed coastal areas to a depth of up to 100 feet, and usually is located more in southern waters than in northern waters. **2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes** 140 Lemon sole are splendid eating, having white flesh with a delicate texture; large fish are filleted, with smaller fish best cooked – particularly grilled – whole on the bone.

**leopard seal.** *Hydrurga leptonyx*, a long slender seal with spotted pelt which preys upon other seal species. Also elliptically leopard. See also sea leopard.

**1852 Cook Journal of John Cook** 2 There is not such a thing as a fur seal on the Island – we have killed several Leopard Seals and I think that it is the only sort of seal that comes up here. **1911 Norton Norton's Dairies** September 24. 42 I killed a Leopard and wounded another. **2000 Richardson Bateman New Zealand Encyclopedia** 568 Leopard seals (*Hydrurga leptonyx*), which grow to 3.5 m long, are abundant in Antarctic seas and occasionally visit NZ.

**LFRN.** *n. abbrev.* Licensed Fish Receivers Number, an official number given to people who receive fish for commercial sale.

**LFRR.** *n. abbrev.* Licensed Fish Receivers Report, a report submitted to the Ministry of Fisheries by people receiving fish, regarding the type and quantity of fish received.

**1987 Catch September** 14 Each quota holder has a Quota Registration Number (QRN) and each licensed fish receiver has a Licensed Fish Receiver number (LFRN).
May 174 The seal, in advancing over rocks, raises its flipper sufficiently high for the lance to be thrust into the region of the heart, or "the life", as it is technically termed. 1878 Heberley Reminiscences 55 The natives would not allow us to eat any Fish on account of their relatives being drowned, we had to live on the Life of a 'right Whale' for six weeks …

ling.  n. [AND 1895] Genypterus blacodes of the Ophiidiidae family, a reddy brown eel-like fish, with irregular stripey markings, which is a commercial catch on trawl or longline. Also attrib. See also Cloudy Bay cod and rari.

1842 Heaphy Narrative of a Residence 49 The bream, ling, gunnard, herring, sole, rock-cod, and a species of mackerel, are all in abundance, as are also many fish unknown elsewhere. 1876 TrNZI 9. 487 Ling has a sickly look about it, which keeps people from fancying it much; but it is, nevertheless, a most palatable article of food, and, moreover, can be salted down with great ease. 1926 TrNZI 56. 528 Practically all stomachs of ling were much infected with parasitic worms. 1945 AJHR H15: 17 Ling-liver oil, like that of the true cod, is relatively easy of extraction which is not the case with that of groper and kingfish. 1980 AJHR C6: 23 Methods of drying ling bladders have been evaluated with the only major problem encountered being the procurement of raw material free from blood splash. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 64 Ling are occasionally caught by anglers in coastal waters and are regularly taken by groper fishermen.

lookout.  n. a specific point on land from which to keep watch for whales. Also attrib.

1893 Marlborough Express August 29. 2 When on the Lookout Hill, two miles distant, the signal is given for the boat lying at Te Awaite "cutting out" the dead whale, to put to sea. 1903 Hombre Deep Sea Sailormen 25 It [blue smoke] was a signal from the look-out to the shore whaling station that whales were in sight. 1911 Norton Norton's Diaries May 7. 3 Allan Charlie & I went over with some of our thing [sic] went up on the lookout seen nothing Charlie shot sea lion. 1938 Gerard Strait of Adventure 87 Two watchers stay at the look-out, to hoist a flag and wireless the steam-tender Tuatea that a pair of whales has been sighted about four miles out in the strait. 1982 Grady The Perano Whalers 3 And it was in the lookout that the whalers who had been deluged by ocean spray or "greenies" breaking over the bows of their whale-chasers were able to dry out … As a rule, a team of seven manned the lookout: the driver and harpoon-gunner of each individual whale-chaser and the permanent lookout man. 2001 Martin The Whale's Journey 100 When alerted by men on lookouts, the whalers took the fast launches out after the whales.

look out.  v. to search for whales from a specified vantage point.


mackerel.  n. [AND 1770] any of various commercially important fish of the Carangidae and Scombridae families. In recent years, refers mainly to BLUE MACKEREL, Scomber australasicus. See also English mackerel, mackerel, slimey, and tawatawa.

1835 Yate An Account of New Zealand 109 Their method of preparing the mackerel is different from this; when taken it is gutted, thoroughly washed with seawater, and hung up to drain … The mackerel, thus prepared, eat very short, and are a favourite winter-food amongst the great folks of the land. 1843 Shortland Southern Districts of New Zealand (1851) 143 Mackerel were playing around us in large shoals, and were taken in great numbers by the crews. 1908 Hamilton Fishing and Sea-foods of the Ancient Maori 55 Tawatawa, so-called mackerel, only found in the north. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 124 Blue mackerel Scomber australasicus. Often simply called mackerel, from its close similarity to the common mackerel (Scomber scomber) of the Northern Hemisphere, and to distinguish it from the unrelated jack mackerels.

MAF.  n. abbrev. Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, the formergovernment ministry responsible for managing fisheries and agriculture. Also attrib.
1974 Catch March 9 Fishermen and MAF are the joint custodians of New Zealand’s fishing heritage and both have responsibilities. 1978 AJHR C5: 4 A control centre has been set up in MAF’s head office in Wellington to monitor foreign-fishing activity and to co-ordinate inspection policing activity. 1986 NZFN 9: 7. 4 Despite outcries by the public all over New Zealand and warnings by their own scientists (as early as 1979) the MAFF has continued to let the destruction of our fishery go on. 1992 NZOYB 356 It has only been since the ‘70s that the number of women in MAF Fisheries has become significant.

MAFFish. n.
The unit within the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries formerly responsible for the management of New Zealand fisheries. 1987 Commercial Fishing May 3 MAFFish will be a combination of the two fisheries divisions, fisheries management and fisheries research, with added support from the former economics division. 1988 AJHR C5: 4 MAFFish: This group is responsible for management of the fisheries resources of New Zealand. 1989 AJHR C5: 49 The MAFFish role in regard to the management of Maori fisheries is not clear while the issue of Maori fishing rights remains unresolved. 1993 Mossman Serious about Sportfishing 191 A few years ago, MAFFish nailed a black-market operation involving five trawlers and 1000 tonnes of snapper a year, in Tauranga.

mahinga kai moana. n.
[Ma.] traditional seafood gathering area under the control of local iwi. 1993 NZFN 16: 2. 49 He said when a similar concept was first mooted .. calling for the creation of Mahinga kaimoana (another concept and phrase for exclusive rights), then recreational fishers had objected very strongly. 2004 Johnson Hooked 402 It also recommended amending the Fisheries Act to allow the establishment of mahinga kai moana, the management of and ownership of tribal fisheries by iwi (tribes).

mahinga mātaitai. n.
[Ma.] an area of traditional importance for harvesting. 2002 Aniwaniwa 20. 1 Sometimes this [responsibility for the local management of seafood] is formalised by the establishment of taipure or mahinga mātaitai (an area which is traditionally important to, and is managed by, tangata whenua) … 2004 Johnson Hooked 405 It [TOKM] introduced mahinga mātaitai reserves, as recommended by the Waitangi Tribunal. 2008 Freediving New Zealand Newsletter July 9 Factors important for utilisation for the customary sector include: .. Mahinga mātaitai (harvest sites) are identified.

maka. n.
[Ma.] BARRACOUTA, Thyrsites atun. Also in the form maga. See also manga. 1842 Gray Fauna in Dieffenbach Travels in New Zealand ii 1843 (1974) 210 This fish [Thyrsites atun] is named ‘Maga’ by the natives of Queen Charlotte’s Sound, where it was seen by the Forsters. 1885 AJHR H15: 7 This fish [Barracouta] is a favourite of the Maoris who call it the manga or maka.

makawhiti. n.
[Ma. makawhiti] YELLOW-EYED MULLET, Aldrichetta fosteri. See also aua, herring and sea mullet. 1877 TrNZI 10. 326 Herrings, Makawhiti Agonostoma forsteri. 1885 AJHR H15: 8 The makawhiti or aua of the Maoris (Agonostoma Fosteri), a common fish obtained at all seasons of the year by fishing from the wharves in the harbours, is commonly called herring, from its general resemblance in size and form to that fish, except in Dunedin, where it is known as mullet. 1890 Otago Witness January 30. 21 Among the small migratory fishes which visit our coasts in immense shoals at certain seasons of the year, one of the most important is the little sea mullet (Agonostoma fosteri), the makawhiti of the Maori.

mako. n.
1. [Ma.] any of several sharks, but especially the MAKO SHARK, Isurus oxyrinchus. 1848 Taylor Leaf from the Natural History of New Zealand xiii Mako, the shark which has the tooth so highly prized by the Maoris. 1874 TrNZI 7. 237 Two Maori carvers from Poverty Bay, Northern Island .. pronounced the skin to belong to a young Mako and informed me that this fish when in an adult state was about 12 feet long … 1924 JScT 6: 5-6. 268 It is possible, of course, that present-day Maoris would apply the term "mako" to any
large shark. 1928 NZFSG 1: 5. 12 Lady Grimþthorpe had the skin of the mako, caught by Lord Grimþthorpe, preserved, and it is her Ladyship's intention, when she arrives back in England, to have the skin made up into shoes and other articles of use. 1963 Sutherland Maui and Me 116-117 The mako is a fighter in the same class as the striped marlin, given to wild leaps in the air and to dogged endurance in long-drawn trials of strength in deep water. 2004 Holmes Hook it and Cook it 83 The mako can be cooked in any way, but – as they will tell you at Whitianga – he is particularly good smoked.

2. the tooth of the MAKO SHARK, as made into jewellery, especially earrings. 1847 Angas Savage Live i 267 .. she was dressed in the European fashion, in a blue cotton print, but retained the mako, or shark's teeth, in her ears, and wore suspended round her neck the tiki, or household god of green jade ... 1878 TrNZI 11. 91 Here, also, were found their various ornaments of greenstone for both neck and ears, and sharks' teeth, too, in abundance (mako). 1944 JPS 53: 22. 5 Ear-ornament (mako). Bright light-coloured green jade carved in the form of a shark's tooth, two eyes each side of a large hole for suspension.

mako shark. n. Isurus oxyrinchus of the Lamnidae family, a streamlined shark, blue grey above and white below, which is sought by big-game fishers and utilised by Maori for its teeth. 1884 TrNZI 17. 419 The mako shark, so well known for its beautiful teeth, which are highly prized by the Maoris as ornaments, is found off this island and nowhere else in the world I believe, but the natives told me it was getting very scarce. 1914 AJHR H15c. 19 After three hours' exciting play he was at last able to reel in his fish, and found that he had hooked a fine "moko" shark, 9½ ft. long, weighing 200 lb. 1923 AJHR H15: 11 Deep-sea fishing has provided excellent sport to visitors, who speak highly of the local fishing-grounds, and several splendid specimens of swordfish, kingfish, and mako-sharks were landed during the season. 1963 Sutherland Maui and Me 127 .. the wicked-looking triangular teeth of the mako sharks were prized as adornments of rank, and catching the monsters offered the kind of challenge to manhood that the mettle-some Maori was always ready to accept. 1996 Goodson Kahawai Cowboys 31 A mako shark of 1.6 to 1.8 metres and around fifty kilos continued to chase the fish in my line.

MALFIRM. n. a limit on the number of sea lion deaths allowed in the squid trawl fishery. 2002 AJHR C20: 3 The plan imposed a maximum allowable fishing related mortality limit (MALFIRM) of 79 sealions for the 2001/02 fishing year. The fishery was closed on 13 April 2002 in response to advice that the MALFIRM had been reached. 2003 Ministry of Fisheries Operation Plan to Manage the Incidental Capture of New Zealand Sea Lions in the SQU6T Fishery for the 2003-2004 Fishing Year 4 Both the Ministry of Fisheries and the Department of Conservation believe that, without the formal imposition of a MALFIRM, there is a high probability of fishing-related mortality exceeding the maximum mortality figure derived from the Breen-Kim model. 2005 Sanford Limited Annual and Sustainable Development Report 60 Another method to limit the incidental death of sealions is the implementation of a Maximum Allowable Fishing Related Mortality (MALFIRM).

mana moana. n. [Ma. mana + moana] authority or rights over a coastal area based on traditional tribal boundaries. Also attrib. 1999 Moon The Sealdor Deal 118 Half of the 42,000 tonnes of deep-water species quota would be shared out under the 'mana-moana' basis, that is, that the fish off any particular tribe's coast is exclusively theirs. 2001 Dawson The Treaty of Waitangi and the Control of Language 144 That particular tribe stood to gain or lose .. tens of millions of dollars depending on whether the allocation proceeds on a population basis or according to the length of the coast associated with its rohe (traditional tribal area) under a mana moana model. 2002 Aniwanawa 20. 8 We have signed Memoranda of Understanding with various groups and recognise manawhenua, manamoana and kaitiakitanga. 2008 Wairarapa News July 02. 30 Ngati Hinewaka me ona Karangaranga, being the tangata whenua who hold manawhenua manamoana over the
bands on a dark ground .. does not take
bait, but frequents rocks among the
mangroves at high water. 1922 NZOYB
356 Mangrove fish; parore .. Girella
cyanea. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes
101 Various ly known as blackfish, black
snapper, black bream, and mangrove fish.
mangrove oyster.  n.
ROCK OYSTER growing amongst
mangroves.
1888 AJHR H19. 6. The question of the
taking of the oyster which is stated to be a
"shore" and "mangrove" oyster, and which
scientific authorities and the department
hold to be "rock-oyster", still remains
unsettled. 1892 AJHR H29. 3. On the 6th
October last an Order in Council was
made prohibiting the export of rock, shore,
drift or mangrove oysters, but so much of
the Order as related to shore or mangrove
oysters was revoked by order in Council
dated the 1st February last. 1915 NZOYB
599 Large quantities of mangrove-oysters
grow on the mangrove-trees in the
northern part of Auckland, but there is no
market for them in New Zealand.

manga.  n.
[Ma. mangā] BARRACOUTA, Thyrsites
atun. Also in the form mōkka. See also
Cook Strait sailfish, couta, and old
identity. .
c1826-27 Boultbee Journal of a
Rambler (1886) 113 Baracoota-mōkka.
1845 Wakefield Adventure in New Zealand
i 182 During the calm, Worser amused us
by an exhibition of his skill in catching
manga, or barracouta. 1870 AJHR D9: 4
Barracouta, or manga (Thyrsites atun). -
Weighs from 2 to 6 lbs.; is obtained with
the hook, chiefly outside. 1962
Commercial Fishing October 30 They
(naval motor lauches) are named after
fish: Paea (Swordfish), Mako (shark) and
Manga (barracouta).
mango.  n.
[Ma. mango] any of various sharks,
especially GUMMY SHARK, Mustelus
lenticulatus. Also in the form mangho.
1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to
New Zealand ii 336 A shark . Mangho.
1838 Polack New Zealand 323 The
mango, or shark (Squalus) .. frequent the
coast, especially the River Thames, in vast
shoals, and are preserved by the natives
as winter food. 1845 Wakefield Adventure
in New Zealand i 93 .. the mango, or dog-
fish, of which the natives catch and store
large quantities, by drying them in the sun
...1962 JPS 71: 4. 402 The beach was
lined with several hundred yards of fish-
drying frames made of manuka poles. In
the late spring these frames, last used
about 1890, were loaded with sharks
(mango) ... 1982 NZFN 5: 4. 14 He lured
"mango" as he collectively called the 20-
odd shark he recognised, with rattles and
when he had him within range of the
canoe lassooed his tail. 2001 Grace in
Marshall New Zealand Writing about
Fishing 41 My father caught 10 sharks this
way, grabbing their tails and sending them
arcing out over our heads to the rocks
behind, with us all watching and shouting
out 'Mango, mango', yelling and jumping
about us on the rocks.
mangrove fish.  n.
PARORE, Girella tricuspidata. See also
blackfish 2.
1875 TrNZI 7. 245 Parore, or mangrove
fish. A fish 18 inches long with black
proposed mataitai reserve areas, have
applied to the Minister of Fisheries for the
reserves.

Maori chief.  n.
1. Paranotothenia angustata of the
Nototheniidae family, a dark, mottled,
greeny grey fish with a large head which
frequents the rocky coast and can be line
cought.
The dark colour and the peculiar expression of the face has given rise to the popular name of Maori Chief, which has suggested to me the proposed specific designation. 1905

During such times as they are found in the bay Grimothela gregaria have been found in the stomachs of almost all the fish examined, including sea-trout, spotties, pig-fish, dog-fish, rock-cod, red-cod, blue-cod, barracouta, and Maori chief. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand 146 The Maori chief should be a favourite fish with the Sea-angler, as it is rather difficult to catch and fights well when hooked. 1960

Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers' Guide 248 Three species of Notothenia occur in our southern waters and all are similar in appearance. However the big-headed species, sometimes called Maori chief, can be recognised by its stouter form, having only four spines in the first dorsal and by its higher head profile. 1979 NZFN 1: 11. 19 The Greek called him a Notothenia but to us he's a Maori Chief.

2. MARBLEFISH, Aplodactylus arctidens. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 248 At one time this fish was sold in Auckland and Wellington as Maori Chief but I do not know why this should be, as the true Maori Chief is quite different and not at all like the Granite Trout. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 111 Also called marble trout, granite trout, Maori chief.

Maori fisheries.  n. fisheries to which Maori are entitled. Frequently attrib. 1988 AJHR C5: 29 Other noteworthy events in 1987-88 were: the emergence of Maori fishing claims as an issue of great national importance and the establishment by the Government of a Joint Working Group on Maori fisheries. 1999 Moon The Sealord Deal 82 Indeed, the six Maori fisheries negotiators signed the Settlement Deed in their capacity as negotiators, and gave no indication of their iwi affiliation. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 182 "Maori fisheries" remained an important social and political topic during the 1990s, with a range of issues and viewpoints expressed and debated. 2003 Tangaora December 3 Under the stewardship of the Commission, the value of the Maori fisheries settlement has increased threefold in the last decade which demonstrates what is possible when assets are managed appropriately. 2004 Johnson Hooked 391 It [a Joint Working Group] was asked to report by 30 June 1988 how Maori fisheries might be given effect, how fisheries were to be conserved and managed in the meantime, and to set a timetable.

Maori fishing calendar.  n. a calendar which identifies fishing and planting conditions based on the phases of the moon. Also elliptically Maori calendar. See also maramataka.

1954 Doogue Saltwater Angling in New Zealand 40 This all ties in with the Maori fishing calendar that follows. 1960 Doogue and Moreland Sea Zealand Sea Anglers' Guide 39 I think there is more than a little truth in the Maori fishing calendar and in similar records which are part of the traditions of coast-dwelling peoples around the world. 1979 NZFN 1: 3. 9 The only things that will help you more are your old Maori Fishing Calendar and a lump of fresh juicy mullet guts. 2003 New Zealand Seafood Industry Council Big Fish: Industry Profile 21 She argues that Maori traditional management practices are extensive, elaborate and sacred and are largely based on the maramataka (the Maori fishing calendar) - known in western science as 'biological indicators'.

Maori fishing rights.  n. rights of Maori to access of the fisheries. Occasionally singular. Also attrib. 1981 Commercial Fishing March 19 The only mention in the law is an 1894 clause protecting 'existing Maori fishing rights', but, according to MAF officials, it has been difficult to determine what were fishing rights then, and whether the clause applies to fishing rights developed since. 1987 Catch 14: 1. 10 Up until now, New Zealand courts have ruled that a Maori taking fish under a Maori fishing right was subject to fisheries legislation. 1988 AJHR C5: 7 The emergence of Maori fishing rights as an issue of great national importance placed a check on the achievement of these objectives. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 181 Under the Fisheries Act itself, the provision was considered vague, with the phrases "their (Maori) fisheries" and "Maori fishing rights" having no formal legal definition, or perhaps little authority because the Treaty of Waitangi was not widely regarded as a
legal document. 2004 Johnson Hooked 406 The campaign to define Maori fishing rights was not the only battle being fought at the time.

maramataka.  n.  [Ma.] a calendar which identifies fishing and planting conditions based on the phases of the moon. See also Maori fishing calendar.

2003 New Zealand Seafood Industry Council Big Fish: Industry Profile 21 She speaks of the influence of maramataka that decrees, for instance, that the best time to harvest kina is when the kowhai tree is flowering. 2007 Meredith. ‘Maramataka – the lunar calendar’, Te Ara - the Encyclopedia of New Zealand, updated 21-September 2007 URL: http://www.TeAra.govt.nz/EarthSeaAndSky/Astronomy/MaramatakataTheLunarCalendar  According to the maramata, or Māori lunar calendar, the winter month of Hereturi-kōkā is so cold that ‘the scorching effect of fire’ is seen on the knees of man. 2008 NZFN 31: 8. 55 Before 1998 we would go fishing once a month, depending on our Maramataka (Maori calendar).

marari.  n.  [Ma. marari] BUTTERFISH 1, Odax pullus. Also in the form marare, mararee. See also greenbone and kelpfish.

1842 Gray Fauna in Dieffenbach Travels in New Zealand ii 1843 (1974) 218 Odax pullus … Named ‘Mararee’ by the inhabitants of Queen Charlotte’s Sound. 1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 114 The Marare of the natives, known as the Kelp Fish among the fishermen and the Butter Fish in the market (Coridodax pullus), is the fish most commonly sold in Wellington during the winter months. 1885 AJHR H15: 9 The bones of the marare are singular from their being of a bright-green colour. 1896 Otago Witness October 15. 47 Trumpeters we like best, but they are very scarce; then butter fish or marare. 1960 Doogue & Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 239 Other names: Coridodax pullus; greenbone; marari, rari (Maori). 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 203 Known to the Maori as marari, and easily netted, trapped or speared in shallow kelp beds.

marblefish.  n.  Aplodactylus arctidens of the Aplodactylidae family, a greeny marbled fish with a rounded head which is sometimes speared, and was caught in nets by Maori. See also kehe and Maori chief.

1938 TrNZI 68. 424 Conger eel eats marble fish, greenbone, threepenny. 1960 Doogue & Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 29 Butterfish and marblefish are clearly solitary inhabitants of weedy shores and spend much of their time hidden in the weed on which they feed. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 111 Marblefish Aplodactylus arctidens Also called marble trout, granite trout, Maori chief.

Marine Department.  n.  the government department whose responsibilities include fisheries.

1878 Grey River Argus November 15. 2 Tonight’s Gazette notifies that Sir George Grey has been appointed Minister in charge of the Marine Department. 1917 Grey River Argus May 04. 3 The Marine Department has decided to endeavour to acclimatisate Stewart Island oysters at the mouth of the Awatere River, south of Blenheim, with a view to establishing oyster beds. 1972 Fisheries Newsletter September 1 Note that as from 1 September 1972 the fisheries functions of the former Marine Department were transferred to the Fisheries Division of the newly constituted Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries. 2004 Johnson Hooked 121 The whole emphasis of Marine Department management had shifted from industry promotion (with the object of increasing the fish supply) in Ayson’s days, to conservation (with the intention of conserving fish so that there would be something on the table in the future) in Helford’s days.

mataitai.  n.  1. [Ma. mātaitai] a marine reserve established in a traditional Maori food gathering area. See quotation 1995. Also in the form mataitai reserve. See also mahinga mataitai.

1993 AJHR C5: 52 Mataitai Reserves - a discussion document was released on the nature of regulations to be developed to govern the establishment and management of mataitai reserves. 1995 NZOYB 447 The establishment of taiapure (local fishery areas of significance to hapu or iwi) and mataitai reserves (areas of traditional importance to tangata whenua) represents a key step in this process [involving Maori in the management of
1999 *Hi Ika* January 3 More mātaitai reserves are likely in the near future as tangata whenua take up the opportunity to manage their traditional fishing grounds. 

2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 194 Ngai Tahu’s mātaitai guardians were designated Tangata Tiaki/Kaitiaki.

2005 *New Zealand Herald* September 16. A11 Mātaitai were introduced as part of the Treaty of Waitangi (Fisheries Claims) Settlement Act 1992 to provide a tool for Maori to manage all non-Commercial Fishing grounds. 

2007 Lock & Leslie New Zealand’s Quota Management System 39 Mātaitai are reserves set up in traditional food gathering areas, thus enabling Maori to control fishing resources in these culturally significant areas.

2. salt water food.

1872 *Daily Southern Cross* December 20. 2 A few days ago a body of the 150 of the Hauhau Ngātihaua arrived there with three cartloads of mātaitai, or preserved fish, to further swell the stores of kaikai.

1910 *Evening Post* June 25. 19 .. whether the habitat of the pipi is sandy beaches or mudflats, to the Maori they are pipi, and are catalogued as mataitai (sea mudflats, to the Maori they are pipi, and are catalogued as mataitai (sea produced). 

1927 *Best Fishing Methods* 70 When a people dwelling inland felt the desire for mātaitai, or salt-water products, and had the right to ownership of the shore lands, they would abandon their village for a while and move out to a fishing-station, there to busy themselves in fishing and the collection of shell-fish.

1954 Beattie *Our Southernmost Maoris* 63 Other mātaitai (saltwater) foods were the kaeo, the kakihi and the bubu or periwinkle. 

1963 Sutherland *Maui and Me* 127 Not only were they [mako sharks] kai mātaitai, the general term for all sea foods from sharks to shellfish ...

matarau. *n.*

[Ma. matarau] a circular net for catching fish, especially maomao.

1906 *West Coast Times* December 14. 4 And in triumph the wanderers returned and exhibited their spoils of pounamu and the ingenious matarau, which was immediately adopted as an excellent idea by the fishermen of the plains. 

1926 *TrNZI* 56.108 Matarau net: upper eight radiating lines support the hoop; lower four are for bait [photo caption].

1934 Best *The Maori As He Was* 244 The matarau was a funnel-shaped net, a hoop-net of considerable size.

1951 Kohere *Autobiography of a Maori* 36 We used a circular net, called matarau, about five feet in diameter and seven feet in depth, and stretched out on a supple-jack frame.

matau. *n.*

[Ma. matau] a fish hook. Also in the form mattow.

1807 Savage *Some Account of New Zealand* 58 The fish-hook, whether native or European, they call mattow. 

1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand ii 336 A fish-hook Mattow. 

1893 *TrNZI* 26. 429 The matau, or fishhooks, were made from bone (often human bone), from wood, and from shell; and of various patterns, according to the fancy or ingenuity of the maker. 

1982 Grady *The Perano Whalers* 212 Using Perano whale bone .. Norman Clark has won international acclaim with his carved tattoo sets, tikis, pendants, matau (fish hooks), koropepe (ear pendants) and hair combs.

2008 Mossman *Snapper* 30 .. the more common and familiar hook type was the matau, made from bone, whale ivory, stone, shell or wood.

matuawhapuku. *n.*

[Ma. matuawhāpuku] RED ROCK COD, *Scorpaena cardinalis* of the Scorpaenidae family. See also cobbler, grandfather hapuku, and scorpionfish.

1921-1922 *NZOYB* 356 Red rock-cod; matuawhapuku .. *Scorpaena cardinalis*. 

1947 *JPS* 56: 1. 46 Matua whapuku, red rock cod, *Scorpaena cardinalis* .. 1956 Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 350 The old-time Maori considered this fish was the grandmother of the hapuku, hence the Maori name of Matuawhapuku.

1960 Doogue & Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 271 Other names: *Scorpaena cardinalis*; red rock cod, scarpee, grandfather hapuku, cobbler .. matua-whapuku (Maori).

Maui’s fish. *n.*

TE IKA-A-MAUI. See also *Fish of Maui.*

1907 Wilson *The Story of Te Waharoa* 126 They named their island *Te Ika a Maui* (Maui’s fish), or Ehinomaui (fished up by Maui). 

1910 *Evening Post* June 02. 3 At the third meeting, when the committee reports, there will be an effort to make a splash like Maui’s fish made when it was first dragged out of the Southern Ocean.

1930 Cowan *The Maori: Yesterday and Today* 87 The Maori calls it [the milky way] Te Ika Mango-roa, "The Long Shark-fish", 

221
and again “Te Ika-a-maui,” or “Maui’s fish”, the ancient Polynesian name for the North Island of New Zealand.

megrim.  
_Arnoglossus scapha_ of the Bothidae family, a grey-brown, endemic left-eyed flatfish whose thin body makes for poor eating. See also _cadger’s fish, lantern fish_, and _witch_.

1912 _TrNZI_ 45. 232 This specific name belongs to the megrim, or witch, a common form, not sold as food fish on account of its lean bony character. 1956 Graham _Treasury of New Zealand Fishes_ 186 The Megrim is the only one of our New Zealand Flatfish with the eyes on the left side of the head and this is a convenient and quick method of field identification to anyone not already acquainted with this fish. 2000 _Paul New Zealand Fishes_ 145 Witch _Arnoglossus scapha_ … Also called megrim, both names derived from similar European flatfishes.

MFish.  
abbrev. Ministry of Fisheries, the current government ministry responsible for regulating the New Zealand fishing industry.

1996 _AJHR_ C20: 7 The Ministry of Fisheries was established on 1 July 1995, following the split of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries into three organisations: the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Fisheries (MFish) and the National Institute for Water and Atmospheric Research Ltd (NIWA). 1998 _AJHR_ C20: 3 MFish Strategic intent “Sustainable fisheries in a healthy aquatic ecosystem”. 2000 _Hi Ika_ June 3 MFish recognises that tangata whenua also fish under the Amateur Fishing Regulations. 2007 Hokianga Accord _Report: Hokianga Accord_ 38 Eventually MFish may need to use input controls to implement new environmentally friendly fishing technologies. 2008 _NZFN_ 31: 10. 28 Where the heck does the Minister’s info come from? I bet two bob to my Bag of goat dung it doesn’t come from the locals, who know the Sounds far, far better than DoC and MFish.

mini marlin.  
_GARFISH, Hyporhamphus ihi_. See also _ihe_ and _piper_.

1981 _NZFN_ 3: 5. 16 Great little fighters they are sometimes nicknamed “mini marlin”.

Ministry farm, see DEPARTMENTAL FARM.

Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries.  
abbrev. Former government ministry responsible for managing fisheries and agriculture. Also elliptically _Ministry of Ag and Fish_.

1972 _Fisheries Newsletter_ September 1 Note that as from 1 September 1972 the fisheries functions of the former Marine Department were transferred to the Fisheries Division of the newly constituted Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries. 1983 _NZFN_ 6: 7. 6 The Ministry of Ag and Fish is in no position to talk about conservation. 2004 Johnson _Hooked_ 249 In 1973, FRD’s first year as part of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, or MAF, it employed 33 scientists and 52 technicians.

moeone.  
_[Ma. moeone] BASS GROPER, Polyprion moeone_. Also in the form _maione_. See also _bass_, and _black bass_.

1887 _TrNZI_ 20. 127 The Barrier natives call the small-headed or common kind hapuka, and the other _maione_. 1928 _TrNZI_ 58. 126 After numerous examination of hapuku and bass in our local markets, my conclusion is that we have in the indigenous bass a new species. I suggest that Waite’s example be regarded as the type of a new species to be known as _moeone_, the present name in common use among the Maori. 1963 Sutherland _Maui and Me_ 172 Old copper nails, bits of brass, and scraps of other metals were treasured raw materials, to be fashioned, drawn, and hardened by constant tapping into hooks ranging from maomao size to those used for the huge moeone, or bass. 1981 _NZFN_ 3: 12. 22 The hapuku are back on the bite again. And so are their close cousins the Sea Bass, or Moeone as some know them. 1984 _NZFN_ 7: 7. 4 Alby had caught a blue nose bass, Don a moeone bass and mine was the regulation type hapuka.

mohimohi.  
_[Ma. mohimohi] PILCHARD, Sardinops neopilchardus_.

1902 _TrNZI_ 35. 319 Assisted by a native lad, I twice lifted the net in about
three-quarters of an hour, with the following result . . about 60 lb. or 70lb. weight of pilchard or mohimohi. 1922 NZOYB 356 Pilchard; mohimohi . .

Sardina neopilchardus. 2004 Holmes Hook it and Cook it 85 There are actually two varieites, the sprat (kupae) which grows to only about three inches long, and the pilchard (mohimohi) about twice as long.

moki. n.
[Ma. moki] any of various fish of the Cheilodactylidae and Latridae family, but usually the BLUE MOKI, Latridopsis ciliaris. See also copper moki and red moki.

1842 Heaphy Narrative of a Residence 48 Next to the Abuka in size, as also in richness of flavour, is the moki, varieties of which are of all sizes, the largest weighing about 30 lbs. 1885 AJHR H15: 7 When in good condition the flesh of the moki is very rich, and well adapted for being cooked by roasting or baking, which latter is the favourite method of preparing this fish among the Natives in the South. 1919 Poata The Maori as a Fisherman and his Methods 12 The best known fishing ground for Moki, and a very sacred one too, is the Whaiti, at Cape Runaway. 1955 NZFSG 22: 10. 9 Suddenly the silvery blue body of a moki slips out from the weeds-then hangs motionless and watchful in his watery element. 1979 Commercial Fishing May 15 Although moki doesn't look like carp it would sell because it is very similar-and carp is very expensive.

mollyhawking. vbl n.
following another boat to benefit from their tow.

1993 Mossman Serious about Sportfishing 76 This last method [of baiting for tuna] is called 'mollyhawking' by the fishermen. The bluefin hang around the hoki boats, feeding indiscriminately on the 'fallout' from the nets and unwanted by-catch discarded over the side. 2007 McCallum The Blue 138 'You doing a bit of mollyhawking over there, Lucky?' 'He's not poaching, you silly bugger,' said Jimmy.

monkfish. n.
Kathetostoma giganteum of the Uranoscopidae family, a mottley grey green fish with a large flattened spiny head which is found throughout New Zealand and is part of the South Island trawl catch. See also flathead, giant stargazer, and kourepoua.

1959 TrNZI 87. 283 . the only leech he found during the examination of 58 species of fish, was removed from the branchial chamber of a monkfish which was caught off Makara, near Wellington. 1979 Catch May 17 Of New Zealand's six species [of Stargazers], only the monkfish is commercially important. 1998 New Zealand Geographic July-September 124 Everyone thinks the industry made up monkfish to conceal something. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 118 The name monkfish is well established for this species in New Zealand, whereas overseas it is used for similarly shaped but unrelated anglerfishes. Despite the monkfish's unattractive appearance the flesh is of superb quality; it is white and firm, and when cooked has a shellfish-like texture and flavour.

moocher. n.
a large SNAPPER.

1979 NZFN 1: 6. 15 The schoolies may have been on their way back to sea but there were enough big moochers still around to make the 1979 King of the Gulf contest a winner. 1985 NZFN 8: 4. 6 It is among these heavily weeded points and reefs that large snapper, known locally as "moochers" tend to dwell. 1986 NZFN 9: 7. 15 At this time of of year, too, rocky headlands where bull kelp sweeps its mighty strands in the surges, big snapper, or "moochers" as we call them, are to be tempted with a limb of squid or octopus. 2005 Dominion Post October 01. A7 Minnie the Moocher, according to the Blues Brothers' song was a "lowdown hookie coocher". But Wellington restaurateur John Coleman's mooching mini (a moocher is fishing slang for a "granddaddy" snapper) has proved a lot more high class and definitely worth singing about.

mud oyster. n.
BLUFF OYSTER, Tiostrea lutaria. See also dredge, Foxeaux Strait and Stewart Island oyster.

1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 417 If taken from below the low water mark, it [the rock oyster] is extremely good, and far superior to the mud oyster, which is generally large, and has a strong taste. 1892 Otago Witness October 13. 45 What were locally called mud oysters, dredged some few years back at Anderson's Bay bridge,
were very fine flavoured. 1937 Powell The Shellfish of New Zealand 20 There are two edible oysters in New Zealand that are of commercial importance, the Stewart Island mud oyster and the Auckland rock oyster. 2004 Johnson Hooked 33 Varieties of oysters were defined according to the depth at which they were found. There was the shore oyster … Next was the lesser mud oyster, between low water and a depth of 10 fathoms.

Muldoon trough. n. a bin used to collect and recycle spat for use in mussel cultivation. 2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 103 Seeding benches were set up with crates and bins under them to catch the dropped spat and recycle it, and within some circles the spat bin became known as the Muldoon trough, a reference to the Prime Minister of the day.

mullet. n. any of various fish of the Mugilidae family, but especially AUCKLAND MULLET, RED MULLET, and YELLOW-EYED MULLET. Also attrib. 1835 Yate An Account of New Zealand 71 Those most plentiful and of greatest note, are, soles, mackarel, cod-fish, a species of salmon, whiting, snapper, mullet, bream, skate, gurnards, and a few smaller kinds… 1859 New Zealand Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle August 03. 1 The old warrior chief, Nuitone te Pakaru, told me that the stones I prized so much…are nothing more than "roke-kanae," which means the excrement of the fish commonly known amongst the settlers by the name of mullet. 1864 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle July 14. 4 Only in one case has the writer heard of a profit being made, and in this case it was something like a fraud; for the parties procured old herring barrels, filled them full of salted mullet, and sold them for Scotch cured herring. 1888 Barlow Kaipara 132 Mullet, resembling in appearance the grey mullet of the old country, but far richer and superior in flavour, are very plentiful during the summer months. 1897 Otago Witness January 21. 8 As was asked before, "What is mullet?" In Auckland the grey mullet or kanae (Mugil perusii) is meant; in Dunedin it is the sea mullet (Agonostoma Forsteri), a totally different fish. 1922 AJHR H15: 13 The mullet-cannery at Batley, which had been closed down for a good many years, recommenced operations during the year. 1983 Hohepa The Best of Bill Hohepa 35 The Kaipara tinned mullet was considered by many people to be superior to the finest English and Scottish salmon.

mullet boat. n. a small broad beamed sailing boat originally designed for fishing in the shallows. 1905 Otago Witness June 24. 64 Two fishermen were plying their calling in a 20ft mullet boat off Cape Colville, when a large fish (thought to have been a whale) struck the craft below the waterline, apparently just grazed the boat's bottom. 1951 Sea Spray August 28 What may be justly claimed as a purely Auckland class, are the "Mullet Boats", so named because the originals were built for the fishing industry, and were used for netting mullet in the shallow bays and rivers of the Hauraki Gulf. 1973 Commercial Fishing March 6 "I've always been fishing, it's born in a boy at Matauri Bay", says Paddy, but he cut his teeth on commercial fishing with a little mullet boat on long-lining out of Mangonui at 19. 2004 Johnson Hooked 49 It [mullet] was such a staple catch that a specialised form of small sailing craft developed. Initially called 'fishing smacks' or 'half deckers', these had become known as 'mullet boats' by the 1890s.

mullety. n. a MULLET BOAT or a person who sails one. 1948 Sea Spray July 20 With the wind still but a gentle whisper we rapidly overhauled the first yacht- a mullety, hauled that moment by two new chums; we cut our motor and, in response to our shouts, the mullety skipper appeared from below in a blanket … The mullety made more of the light airs than we did, so with the ever present urge to be really on our way we again requested George, our motor, to speak to the glorious scene. 1960 Sea Spray February 51 As I won't be cruising this Christmas I'm extremely jealous, so I wish all the mulleties the best. 1992 Metro February 90 The mullety started life in the 1860s as a fishing boat with a broad beam for carrying the catch, and a shallow draught for sailing up the creeks and mudflats of the Waitemata and the gulf.
mullock. *n.* marine debris which is dredged up with oysters and considered a pest. Also in the form mulloch.

1966 Commercial Fishing December 24 Patches of sponges and nesting mussels Musculus (locally known as "mullock") choke the meshes and reduce filtration efficiency. 1979 Robjohns Bluff Oyster Industry 10 A term widely used by oystermen to describe certain fauna very unpopular with them is "mulloch"… Mulloch is in competition with oysters for the same type of food material as its contents are largely filter feeders like oysters, although there are exceptions such as crabs which eat mulloch but without reducing the quantity of it. 2007 Wassilieff. 'Shellfish', Te Ara - the Encyclopedia of New Zealand, updated 21-September 2007 www.TeAra.govt.nz/EarthSeaAndSky/Sea Life/Shellfish/en Fishermen knew that the muttonbird industry was not supposed to be a major commercial undertaking in the lives of the Maoris, it was something that had been handed down for generations and was something all Maoris with the right were entitled to share. 1981 NZFN 3: 6. 20 Soon mutton birds will begin to re-appear in our fish shops and will be gratefully gobbled up by their fans. 2004 Holmes Hook it and Cook it 119 A boiled mutton bird is like a boiled seagull – that is, you could imagine yourself eating one only if facing death.

mussock. *n.* cotton mesh stocking used to protect ropes of young mussels in mussel cultivation.

2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 105 He called the product Mussock, which stood for 'mussel seeding socking', a phrase coined by Ron Bell when the product was introduced to the industry, because it was effectively a sock that protected the ropes of immature mussels.

muttonbird. *n.* the young of the sooty shearwater, or other species of Puffinus which are taken for food and oil. Occasionally applied to the young of the grey faced petrel. Also *attrib.* See also *titi.* 1823 Captain Kent in Howard Rakiura (1940) 345 Outside were bags of preserved mutton birds, the method of preserving is simple, baking a quantity underground with hot stones then matting them closely together they are left to cure in their fat. 1857 Hursthouse New Zealand or Zealandia, the Britain of the South 121 The young Titi (mutton-bird), a species of puffin, is caught by the southern natives in great quantities at the breeding season, potted in its own fat. 1890 Evening Post April 15. 7 Our feet were in a dreadful state, and they tore up every piece of linen and rag they could find, and bound them up and dressed them with mutton bird oil. 1910 Evening Post May 10. 4 They look less to the money, however, than to the enjoyment the mutton-bird season affords. 1926 TrNZI 56. 58 Mutton-bird oil is one of the richest known natural sources of vitamin A. 1966 Commercial Fishing May 28 He said that the muttonbird industry was not supposed to be a major commercial undertaking in the lives of the Maoris, it was something that had been handed down for generations and was something all Maoris with the right were entitled to share.
from starvation. But even then you would not expect to enjoy it.

**muttonbird.**  n.  
[AND 1881] a person who harvests muttonbirds for food or trade.

**1890 Evening Post** April 15. 7 The occupants of the boat that remained were .. muttonbirders. 1903 Hombre *Deep Sea Sailormen* 19 For skipper he engaged Dan Cameron, a half-caste, whalingman, prospector, fisherman, mutton-birder; anything in fact, whereby he could make a few pounds. 1910 *Evening Post* May 11. 4 At the time of my visit, three gangs of mutton-birders were at work on Tia Island. 1979 *NZFN* 1: 7. 6 The issuing of permits to muttonbirders is strictly policed. 1993 Holmes *My Seventy Years on the Chatham Islands* 85 Early muttonbirds always gave the first bird killed as a sacrifice to the god Muru. 2005 Heberley *Ordinary Women* 117 Every year local Maori tribes chartered one of the ferries to take the mutton-birders out to Stewart Island’s peripheral islands, which are the breeding ground of the titi or oi, known as mutton bird.

**muttonbird islands.**  n.  
various islands off Stewart Island where the MUTTONBIRD breeds and from where they are taken.

**1902 Otago Witness** April 09. 5 The s.s. Napier has just returned from a trip to the mutton-bird islands, where it conveyed a number of Maori mutton bird hunters. 1909 *Otago Witness* July 21. 13 In July, 1905, a case was brought before the magistrate at Invercargill regarding the Maori right to the muttonbird islands on behalf of the Maori Chief Teone Te Mamaru. 1910 *Evening Post* May 11. 4 Harsh words seem to be banished from the vocabulary of a mutton-bird island. 2006 *Sunday Star Times* May 14. A1 A former Bluff fisherman said the Muttonbird Islands were bleak and inhospitable and "very very scary".

**muttonbird bag.**  n.  
a bag made from seaweed and used to store preserved muttonbirds. 

1964 *Commercial Fishing* November 16 It was only twenty years ago that scientists realised the difference between the two big bull kelps, the one with the honeycomb airpockets that is split to make mutton-bird bags, and the other with a solid frond and branching stem. 1965 *Commercial Fishing* January 24 An elderly Maori woman at Bluff once told me of the use of bull kelp for making mutton bird bags, but this business has probably died a natural death as other receptacles are more easily come by. 2000 Richardson *Bateman New Zealand Encyclopaedia* 338 The bull kelp is the toughest and most resilient of the giant algae, and the cylindrical stalk was often slit open by Maori to serve as a muttonbird bag or water carrier.

**mutton fish.**  n.  
PAUA, *Haliotis iris.*

1838 Palmer *Trial Evidence in McNab Old Whaling Days* (1913) Thomas *Ashwell Evidence* 211 There is a fish called mutton fish, which if eaten raw is very hurtful. 1846 *Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle* September 12. 111 The mutton fish, or pawa, although resembling india rubber in toughness and colour, is very excellent and substantial food for explorers, both European and native. 1937 Powell *The Shellfish of New Zealand*
mutton shell. n. PAUA-SHELL. Also attrib.

1859 Thomson The Story of New Zealand 31 Several very beautiful sea shells are found on the coast, the finest of which are the *Trochus Cookii*, the *Trochus imperialis*, the Paper Nautilus, and the *Haliotis iris* mutton shell, from the shining interior of which glittering buttons are made. 1873 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle November 28. 3 Mutton shell eardrops: Sunbeam, honorable mention. 1889 Otago Witness August 8. 17 The fishhook was made of a bit of mutton shell, which had been fashioned to a suitable shape and bound on a bit of bone.

NAFMAC. n. abbrev.
National Fisheries Management Advisory Committee, a group including government officials and industry representatives formed to consider fisheries management issues. Also attrib.

1982 Catch August 4 A National Fisheries Management Advisory Committee (NAFMAC) was established in February 1982 to allow full industry involvement in fisheries management at a national level. 1983 AJHR C5: 9 This year has seen the growing importance of the National Fisheries Management Advisory Committee (NAFMAC) established in the previous year by the Minister. 1984 Commercial Fishing June 3 Ministry and FIB staff put a tremendous effort into producing a policy document to be discussed by industry in what has become known as the NAFMAC circus.

2004 Johnson Hooked 358 Part of the change was the creation of a National Fisheries Management Advisory Council, immediately shortened to NAFMAC.

nanua. n. [Ma. nanua] RED MOKI, *Cheilodactylus spectabilis*. 1874 TrNZI 7. 244 *Cheilodactylus spectabilis* .. is common near the East Cape, and is called by the natives Ehouhounamu or Nanua. 1927 Best Fishing Methods 49 The kehe, nanua, and kopipiro are believed by the Maori to live on vegetable matter, and so cannot be taken by hook and bait. 1969 New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer's Guide 36 RED MOKI (NANUA) (*Chironemus spectabilis*). 1979 NZFN 1: 14. 16 To the Maori the black moki is "moki" while the red is a "nanua". 2000 Paul New Zealand fishes 209 As nanua, caught by early Maori from shallow reefs around the northern North Island.


1879 Otago Witness January 18. 13 A feature of the week has been the appearance in the market of an unusual number of the Kahawai, or native salmon. 1885 AJHR H15: 6 kahawai. - This fish (*Arrippus trutta*) is frequently termed the native salmon, from its elegant form and lively habits, in which it resembles the true salmon. 1900 Otago Witness March 08. 50 The Maoris call him a kahawai, but he is also known as the 'native salmon', I explain as we both admire his beautifully spotted sides … 1964 Commercial Fishing September 18 Dr E. B. Slack, senior lecturer in Applied Fisheries at Victoria University of Wellington, a keen advocate of colouring the kahawai, suggested it be renamed "native salmon" a term used by Sir James Hector to describe the fish.

net. v. to catch [whales] with a steel net strung between rock and shore, as pioneered in Whangamumu.

1909 Otago Witness February 24. 13 Many people receive with some doubt statements that whales are caught in nets … He tells me, however, that whales are still netted in the season at Whangamumu, near Cape Brett, in the Bay of Islands.

1910 Hawera & Normanby Star July 18. 5 Right whales are to be found in these grounds, and recently thirteen right whales were netted at Tory Channel. 1917 Mair Notebook 93 The Cook Brothers: these three I think conceived the idea of netting whale … 1986 Grady Sealers and Whalers in New Zealand Waters 220 The Cooks netted around eleven to sixteen whales a season.

netting. vbl n. catching [whales] with nets strung between rock and shore. Also attrib.
1909 Otago Witness February 24. 13
The Cook Brothers who have established this whale-netting station, have erected buildings and machinery there, and they now utilise every part of a whale. 1986
Grady Sealers and Whalers in New Zealand Waters 218 At the end of their second season they moved to Whangamumu, where Bert pioneered their netting of whales. 2001 Martin The Whale's Journey 114 Netting was abandoned in the 1920s. A steam launch enabled Cook to pursue and catch the humpbacks using more commonly used methods.

New Zealand Federation of Commercial Fishermen. n. a national body that represents the interests of owner-operator commercial fishermen in New Zealand. Also elliptically
Federation of Commercial Fishermen
1992 Commercial Fishing September 13 I was interested to note that the New Zealand Wholesale Fish Merchants Association and the New Zealand Federation of Commercial Fishermen support the concept of a body of this type [a fishing industry board]. 1980
Commercial Fishing February 17 The Federation of Commercial Fishermen has accused the Government of turning its back on New Zealand fishermen and was allowing big companies to destroy much of the country's fish resource with massive new joint venture fleets. 2004 Johnson Hooked 245 The Federation of Commercial Fishermen continued to represent the large number of regional fishermen's associations, concentrating on political and organisational matters.

New Zealand fur seal. n.
FUR SEAL, Arctocephalus forsteri. See also kekeno, fur seal, and sea bear. 1888 Otago Witness September 14. 16
Another interesting specimen is that of the New Zealand fur seal, placed in the case containing the bears, the skin being so perfect that it was thought desirable to keep it under cover ... 1892 TrNZI 25. 257 I can only speak of the latter, or New Zealand fur-seal. Formerly they were very abundant along the west coast of the South Island and on the Tasmanian coast. 1974 Catch November 14 The total population of New Zealand fur seals (Arctocephalus forsteri) is approximately 38,500. 1986 Grady Sealers and Whalers in New Zealand Waters 33 New Zealand fur seals were first sighted on Macquarie Island in 1810 by the island's discoverer Captain Frederick Hasselburg, master of the brig Perseverance. 2002 Todd Seals and Sea Lions 23 New Zealand fur seals are currently considered to be the deepest-diving fur seal: the record holding female reached 274 m.

New Zealand golden snapper. n.
SNAPPER for export. 1972 AJHR H15a. 26 The New Zealand snapper, Chrysophrys auratus, has been called snapper since Captain Cook first visited New Zealand. We have therefore adopted the name "New Zealand golden snapper" which describes the origin of the fish, uses a portion of the scientific name (whether this was wisely applied or not) and the common name by which the fish has been known in Australia and New Zealand for over 200 years. 2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 126 MARKET NAMES: ... Snapper, Bream, Schnapper, New Zealand Golden Snapper, Brim.

New Zealandisation. n.
advancement of New Zealand's control of its deep sea fishing industry. 1980 AJHR C6: 6 The government, the domestic industry, and the board, strongly advocate advancing the concept of "New Zealandisation" by requiring the mixed fishing ventures as rapidly as possible to increase their New Zealand content ... 1983 Commercial Fishing January 3 The obvious stop to New Zealandisation is the reintroduction of the duty-free import scheme for trawlers – there appears to be no requirement for New Zealand manning at all. 1990 Commercial Fishing April 2 Mr Shirley said that the New Zealandisation of the deepwater was a key policy of the incoming Labour Government in 1984. 2004 Johnson Hooked 275 The government's official policy of 'New Zealandisation' was pursued with considerable vigour.

New Zealandise. v.
to advance New Zealand's control of its deepwater fishing industry. 1980 Catch June 15 We cannot New Zealandise without fishermen and this requires training. 1981 AJHR C6: 6 If they [joint ventures] do not New Zealandise rapidly enough, they are subject to criticism from the domestic
industry as merely exploiting the fisheries and providing little real benefit to New Zealand.

**New Zealandised.** adj. [of fishing ventures] employing New Zealanders and having some New Zealand ownership and involvement in processing.

1980 AJHR C6: 6 Government has recently formalised its intention of requiring mixed fishing ventures to actively pursue this increased "New Zealandisation", but the harsh reality remains that "New Zealandised" mixed fishing ventures face economic problems in the future for the same reasons which apply to the rest of the industry.

**New Zealand littleneck clam.** n. COCKLE, Austrovenus stutchburyi. See also tuangi.

2002 Journal of Shellfish Research 21: 1. 21 Transplants of intertidal shellfish for enhancement of depleted populations: preliminary trials with the New Zealand littleneck clam. 2007 Southern Clams Ltd www.nzclams.com/littleneck_clam.php The New Zealand littleneck clam, more traditionally known as the New Zealand cockle, tuaki or tuangi, is the single most abundant large invertebrate animal found on intertidal sand flats in sheltered harbours and estuaries throughout New Zealand. This species, Austrovenus stutchburyi, is found only in New Zealand, including the Chatham Islands, and is common throughout the country. 2007 Dominion Post Indulgence June 23. 9 Indeed "New Zealand littleneck clams" find a ready market in the United States, and there is a sufficient resemblance to the vongole to sell them to the Italians, too.

**New Zealand Recreational Fishing Council.** n. a national body which represents the interests of non-commercial fishers.

1983 NZFN 6: 1. 4 Well its great to see a strong organisation like the New Zealand Recreational Fishing Council fighting for anglers. 2007 Walrod, ‘Recreational sea fishing’, *Te Ara - the Encyclopedia of New Zealand*, updated 21-September 2007 www.TeAra.govt.nz/EarthSeaAndSky/HarvestingTheSea/RecreationalSeaFishing/en The New Zealand Recreational Fishing Council, representing clubs around the country, lobbies central government – for instance to reduce the commercial allowable catch for kahawai... 2008 NZFN 31: 9. 20 Unless it can attract a wider membership, the NZ Recreational Fishing Council is unlikely to have a future.

**New Zealand rock lobster.** n. CRAYFISH, especially for export.

1969 Sorensen *Fisheries Technical Report* 29 The New Zealand rock lobster or marine spiny crayfish Jasus edwardsii [title]. 2004 Johnson Hooked 152 Mostly exported as 'New Zealand Rock Lobster', catches peaked at more than six thousand tonnes in 1956 during what was known as the Fiordland Boom.

**New Zealand salmon.** n. KAHAWAI, Arripsis edwardsii. See also native salmon, people’s fish, and sea trout.

1842 Heaphy *Narrative of a Residence* 48 The Kawai, or New Zealand salmon, is esteemed by many as equal to the European species in excellence; it is of the same size, and much resembles it in appearance and taste. 1846 Majoribanks *Travels in New Zealand* 82 .. the kawai, or New Zealand salmon, though by some amateurs considered equal to ours would no doubt be much prized by the slaves in Brazil ... 1886 Otago Witness December 17. 27 The kahawai, or the New Zealand salmon, as it is sometimes called, is a perfect fish, both as regards shape, colour, eating, and sport. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 93 The final pinkish product does superficially resemble the true salmon and has been marketed under such names as New Zealand salmon, Pacific salmon or sea salmon, although there is some risk of confusion with the product of the developing industry “farming” the quinnat or true Pacific salmon.

**New Zealand sea lion.** n. Phocarctos hookeri of the Otariidae family, an endemic, bristly brown haired sea lion which is currently fully protected, and found mainly at the Auckland Islands. Also attrib. See also Hooker’s sea lion and hair seal.

1964 Tuatara 12: 1. 45 New Zealand Sea Lion (Neophoca hookeri), adult male. 2002 Todd *Seals and Sea Lions* 17 Currently the New Zealand sea lion is listed as a threatened species and remains one of the rarest eared seals in the world, with a population estimate of between 12,000 and 15,000 animals. 2005 Ministry of Fisheries *Strategy for Managing the Environmental Effects of
Fishing 19 A good example of this approach [flexibility in how an annual limit is achieved] is the New Zealand Sealion bycatch limit in the Squid 6T fishery around the Auckland Islands.

New Zealand sole.  n.  Peltorhamphus novazeelandiae, an oval, broad headed flatfish, common in the South Island, which is taken commercially and recreationally. See also common and English sole, and patiki.

1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 117 The New Zealand Sole (Peliorhampus) is an inferior table fish to the Patiki, and not equal to the English Sole in flavour.  1911 Evening Post April 17. 7 Captain Eastick held that the sole of Northern Europe was a fish superior in point of flavour, texture and everything else to the New Zealand sole … 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 141 The growth rate of New Zealand sole (as with most of our flatfish) is probably rapid, with a high population turnover.

New Zealand turbot.  n.  TURBOT, Colistium nudipinnis [early usage].

1873 West Coast Times June 07. 3 CLEARING OUT SALE, to close consignments, consisting of .. New Zealand turbot, milk … 1893 Evening Post September 16. 2 Even New Zealand turbot, are sold to him at 7s per dozen, big and little, and they are sold again at from 1s 6d to 3s each.  1912 TrNZI 45. 232 This fine fish is named "New Zealand turbot" by Waite.

New Zealand whaler.  n.  bronze whaler, Carcharhinus brachyurus of the Carcharhinidae family, a bronze-sheened shark of around 2 metres in length which occurs internationally, and is sometimes caught on heavy lines. See also bronzie.

1953 Tuatara 5: 1. 34 Carcharhinus brachyurus .. New Zealand whaler. Uniformly grey; up to 9 feet. (Recorded previously in our literature as Carcharias and Eulamfa.) 1960 Doogue & Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 168 Sometimes called New Zealand whaler, it is similar to another species occurring in our northern waters, but this latter is more slender and has a flatter, more pointed snout. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 26 Sometimes called New Zealand whaler, although the species is now known to be world wide in subtropical to warm temperate coastal waters.

ngoiro.  n.  [Ma. ngōiro] CONGER EEL, Conger verreauxi. Also in the form koiro.

1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 412 Ngoiro, and koiro, the conger eel, is very similar to the European one; it is frequently taken, and esteemed good eating. 1872 TrNZI 15. 153 A rock, awash at half-tide, lying beyond all the rest to seaward, was in the olden time celebrated for the ngoiro, or conger-eel (Conger vulgaris). 1927 Best Fishing Methods 49 The following fish were caught with hook and line: arara, maomao, moki, mango, ngoiro, pakirikiri, kahawai, tamure, tarakihi, and warehou.

1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 138 The Conger Eel is known to the Maori as Koiro, and is considered a fine eating fish, either fresh or smoked. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 212 As koiro and ngoiro, undoubtedly used by Maori, being moderately common and easily caught from reefs.

NIWA.  n.  abbrev. National Institute for Water and Atmospheric Research, the government body responsible for researching the marine environment.

1996 AJHR C 20: 7 The Ministry of Fisheries was established on 1 July 1995, following the split of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries into three organisations – the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Fisheries (MFish) and the National Institute for Water and Atmospheric research Ltd (NIWA). 2002 Aniwania 20. 4 One of NIWA’s aims is to empower individuals and their communities to understand, manage, and conserve the marine environment and its resources. 2008 Dominion August 16. A6 The work is part of a multimillion-dollar research project by NIWA investigating the potential for marine farming groper in giant sea cages.

northern kahawai.  n.  Arripis xylabion of the Arripidiae family, a blue-green, grey spotted, forked tail fish which is taken in trawls. Of larger size than the KAHAWAI.

2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 93 Recognised as a separate species only in the early 1990s, although previous reports of these large northern kahawai had questioned their identity. 2007 Seafood
northern rock oyster.  

ROCK OYSTER, Saccostrea glomerata. See also Auckland and rock oyster.

1870 AJHR H15: 21 1920 AJHR H15: 13 Our northern rock-oyster (Ostrea cucullata) is identical with the oyster which is so extensively cultivated in New South Wales and Queensland. 1930 AJHR H15: 21 A more extreme case of wasted effort owing to the ignorance of this factor was when, in 1915, northern rock-oysters were transplanted to the Marlborough Sounds where they failed to reproduce, and the experiment proved a failure. 1967 Commercial Fishing October 9 Deeper coloured flesh then the Foveaux Strait oyster is one characteristic of the Northern rock oyster. 1976 AJHR C5: 59 The impact of the Pacific oyster on the ecology of the northern rock oyster is being studied and its impact on farming practices will need to be reassessed during 1976.

NPOA.  

n.  abbrev.  

Seabird National Plan of Action, a government strategy aimed to reduce the number of seabird deaths caused by the fishing industry.

2002 AJHR C20: 3 The Seabird National Plan of Action (NPOA) is a long-term strategy for reducing the level of incidental bycatch for albatross and petrels in New Zealand fisheries. 2003 Southern Seabird Solutions Newsletter 4. 5 The NPOA proposes a mix of voluntary and mandatory measures (such as the continuation of existing mandatory measures like the use of tori lines on tuna longliners and a prohibition on trawl net monitor cables). 2004 AJHR C20: 17 In April 2004, the Ministers of Fisheries and Conservation approved and formally launched a National Plan of Action (NPOA) to reduce seabird mortality. The NPOA will be implemented incrementally over the next 12 to 18 months. 2008 Albert Times February 1 The management of seabird interactions is set to come under MFish’s Standards Framework with the recent release of a draft Seabird National Plan of Action (NPOA).

NZEEZ.  

n.  abbrev.  

New Zealand Exclusive Economic Zone, the 200 nautical miles over which New Zealand has economic and social control.

1999 New Zealand Journal of Marine and Freshwater Research 3, 444 The New Zealand Exclusive Economic Zone (NZEEZ) bisects the Subtropical Convergence (STC) and thus includes Subtropical (ST), Subantarctic (SA), and frontal water masses. 2001 Department of the Prime Minister and Cabinet Maritime Patrol Review 9 In the waters of the NZEEZ we have specific economic rights concerning the management of marine living resources, and throughout the continental shelf can exercise rights over non-living resources (i.e. minerals etc). 2005 Heberley Ordinary Women 80 In June 1985 the intention to establish an observer programme to monitor the activities of large fishing vessels operating in the New Zealand Exclusive Economic Zone (NZEEZ) was announced. 2006 Jack New Zealand Marine Sciences Review 48 New species, included [sic] coastal and deepwater, continue to be discovered within the NZEEZ through donations from MFish Observers, fishing industry, recreational anglers and NIWA.

octopus.  

n.  

Octopus maorum, a reef dwelling species similar to those found elsewhere which was utilised by early Maori for food. 1855 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle January 06. 3 A cephalopod mollusc, called the Octopus or Poulpe, was very plentiful and of great size. It has eight arms, that may be extended to two or three feet in length … 1927 Best Fishing Methods 49 The whai, or sting-ray, was taken by means of a hardwood spear, while small wheke (octopus) were taken by hand and utilized as food. 1983 Hohepa The Best of Bill Hohepa 12 Cooked properly the "wheke" (octopus) more than lives up to its nickname of "chicken-of-the-sea". 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 157 The New Zealand octopus, Octopus maorum, is similar to species found in other parts of the world.

okeoke.  

n.  

Barracouta, 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 82 The Maori name for Spined Dogfish is Koinga or Okeoke, and the fish is used by them as food, usually being hung outside and dried, when it will keep for long periods. 1980 Catch October 11 In the recent past, dried spiny dogfish ("Koinga" or "Okeoke") was consumed by the Maoris. It was more valued than rig because its flesh was less rank.

**old identity.**  n.  BARRACOUTA, Thysites atun [regional, Dunedin]. See also Cook Strait sailfish, couta, and manga.

1864 Otago Witness June 18. 8 One called "here's fish!!" and immediately tossed a barracouta into the boat. I had now a good opportunity to see the "Old Identity" in a live state. 1885 Otago Witness November 21. 27 Nor let me furthermore forget that noted denizen of the deep, the barracouta, which for some reason beyond my ken is known as the "old identity". 1903 New Zealand Free Lance September 05. 14 Jock Graham who used to vend barracouta in Dunedin about this time took up the parable, and began to cry out "four old identities for a bob"! After that the phrase caught firmly on and took root.

**opening factory.**  n.  factory where Bluff oysters are shelled.

1973 Fisheries Newsletter October. 3 As part of a large scale trial of the benefits to be derived from returning shell to the sea, all oyster shell from Bluff opening factories was returned to an experimental dumping site in Area A to the north of Ruapuke Island. 1975 Catch September 5 All oyster shells from Bluff opening factories were again taken to the experimental dump site in Foveaux site. 1979 Robjohns Bluff Oyster Industry 13 The advent of opening factories in Bluff and Invercargill has eliminated problems in distribution towards the end of the week and this factor has made the industry more efficient and continuous.

**Operation Pacman.**  n.  a campaign led by the Ministry of Fisheries to apprehend people who had taken large quantities of paua illegally. Also attrib. Also elliptically Pacman.

2002 New Zealand Herald February 12 In Operation Pacman, a fisheries officer went undercover to track smugglers who were taking thousands of kilograms of paua out of the country in suitcases on flights from Auckland International Airport. 2003 AJHR C20: 25 In poaching and black-market enforcement, we placed considerable effort on the prosecution of offenders apprehended in Operation "Pacman". 2004 North and South May 58 Now with many of the released Pacman "offenders" back on the coastline black market prices have settled and MFish admits poaching is almost back to previous levels ... In the past five years there have been 525 successful paua prosecutions (although this is inflated by smaller offences that have been contested in court and some of these are the infamous Pacman cases). 2005 Dominion Post September 14. A5 A legal loophole meant that 20 men who had pleaded guilty to poaching charges after the Ministry's Operation Pacman had their convictions quashed.

**orange roughy.**  n.  Hoplostethus atlanticus, a deep bodied, large headed reddy fish whose firm white flesh is of significant, commercial importance. See also diarrhoea fish and sea perch.

1979 NZFN 1: 12. 17 The orange roughy is a member of the "berycoinds" family all of which are reddish fish with compressed bodies, spiny fins and large eyes. 1981 AJHR C5: 21 There is now a strong demand for the recently discovered stocks of deep-water orange roughie and dorries. 1981 Catch July 3 The first catch of orange roughy by the New Zealand domestic fleet occurred when the Fifeshire landed 60 tonnes of the fish at the end of June. 1997 Makarios Nets, Lines and Pots 56 One of the most significant discoveries, in terms of our present commercial fishing industry, was the 1957 discovery of the first orange roughy. 2004 Johnson Hooked 284 MAF scientist Gavin James and his Japanese counterpart Tadashi Inada had never seen the fish before, nor could they find it in their identification guides ... It was orange, so they recorded it as 'orange roughy'. 2004 Ibid. 285 The first shipment was sold as sea perch, a name which seemed to have good connotations in Australia, but 'orange roughy' soon took over. 2005 New Zealand Herald November 09. A9 The four fish whose fishery faces the most problems are orange roughy, deepwater
dory, pacific bluefin tuna and southern bluefin tuna.

oreo, see BLACK and SMOOTH OREO. See also DEEP SEA DORY.

outside. adj., adv. [AND 1896] beyond the harbour or caught beyond the harbour. Frequently attrib. 1864 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle July 14. 4 I have hitherto spoken of the outside or deep-sea trade; there is another class of fishermen—those who use the seine net in the shallow water of the harbour. 1872 West Coast Times May 06. 2 Those who fish outside get many kinds … 1878 TrNZI 2. 381 It was not considered advisable to make any regulations about the outside fishing, as it was thought that risk, weather, etc., were quite sufficient protection. 1886 Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand 16 It [red cod] is in finest condition during the winter months, when pretty large takes of good-sized specimens are got from the outside fishery, those being caught by the seine-net in the harbour, being, as a rule, smaller. 1903 AJHR H15b: 1 At Port Chalmers, on the 14th November, four fishermen representing the “outside” or linemen; four representing the seine-men … attended at the Shipping Office. 1903 AJHR H15b: 7 Seine fish and outside fish were very scarce indeed. 1903 Ibid. 6 There are twenty seven outside boats and crafts, with two or three men in each of them.

oyster, see AUCKLAND, BLUFF, dredge, drift. Foveaux, mangrove, mud, northern rock, rock, shore.

oyster borer, see BORER.

pa. n. [pā] BARRACOUTA HOOK. Also in the form pah. See also couta paw. 1864 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle July 14. 4 A baracouta [sic] rod is seven or eight feet long, with a strong line of about four feet, to the end of which is attached a piece of cedar — the pah, about one inch square and six inches long, through which is driven a long nail, bent and sharpened in a peculiar way … In the baracouta [sic] season there are provided the proper rods, and a number of square pahs. 1920 TrNZI 52. 60 We caught these fish [baracouta] with a rod (matere), using a jigger (pa) worked with string (tau). 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 315 Old Maoris of Opotiki told me they used a chip of Tawhai (Nothofagus fusca), which is dark red, in the making of a pa (paw).

packhorse crayfish. n. Jasus verreauxi of the Palinuridae family, a large, olive green marine lobster which is taken by divers for food, but is of little commercial importance. See also green crayfish, green rock lobster, and pawharu. 1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 281 Other names: Jasus verreauxii; green crayfish, pack-horse. 1968 AJHR H15: 44 Work to date has included studies on growth, early development, fecundity, size at first maturity and differences in yield for both species Jasus edwardsii (the red crayfish) and J. verreauxi (the packhorse or green crayfish). 1979 NZFN 1: 5. 9 These big fellows are the so-called “pack-horse” crayfish. The name is thought to derive from the fact that they are to the common crayfish as a Clydesdale horse is to a pony. 1982 NZFN 5: 3. 7 Packhorse crayfish are believed to walk the entire length of the seabed along the West Coast of New Zealand from Foveaux Strait to Cape Reinga to reach their spawning grounds in the Far North. 2004 Holmes Hook it and Cook it 44 Fishermen are paid a little less for packhorses because of a belief that the flesh is coarser.

Pacman, see OPERATION PACMAN.

paddle crab. n. Ovalipes catharus, a smooth shelled crab with flattish back legs which is taken for local commercial use. 1980 AJHR C5: 22 Paddle crabs - Methods of handling and processing these crabs have been studied. 1984 Catch February 17 Some initial market feedback has likened the New Zealand paddle crab to a smaller version of the Dungeness crab, the choice species in San Francisco Bay. 1985 NZOYB 472 The only crustacean other than rock lobster which is becoming commercially significant at this time is the paddle crab (Ovalipes catharus). 2005 Dominion Post September 17. E16 Paddle crabs of frightening proportions wave their pincers menacingly. 2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand
Commercial Fish Species 236 Paddle crabs are caught with baited traps or pots.

**paea. n.** [Ma. paea] swordfish. *Xiphias gladius* of the Xiphiidae family. See also swordie.

1927 Donne *Rod Fishing in New Zealand Waters* 87 He, too, appreciated the fighting qualities of the haku, or paea, as he terms him, and has a saying that "the capture of the haku is proof of manhood". 1960 Doogee & Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 259 BROADBILL SWORDFISH … Other names: *Xiphias gladius*; swordfish; paea (Maori). 1962 *Commercial Fishing* October 30 They (naval motor launches) are named after fish: Paea (Swordfish), Mako (shark) and Manga (barracouta).

**paihau. n.** [Ma. paihau] female maomao and possibly applied to sweep. 1947 *JPS* 56:1. 47 Paihau, female of Maomao. 1963 Sutherland *Maui and Me* 170 In some places the blue shadows would be joined by grey ones; the paihau, a near relative of the maomao, seemed more voracious and thus easier to catch.

**paketi. n.** [Ma. possible alteration of pakirikiri] SPOTTY, *Pseudolabrus celidotus*. See also butterfish 2, guffy, and kelpie.

1960 Doogee & Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 240 Other names: *Pseudolabrus celidotus*; butterfish, kelpie, guffy. None is widely used. Paketi, pakirikiri (Maori). 1980 *NZFN* 2: 8. 4 Patiki and paketi are the Maori names for two very common (but very different) fish. The former is the flatfish and latter the spotty. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 203 The spotty, or paketi, is commonly caught by wharf fishermen.

**pakirikiri. n.** [Ma. pakirikiri] BLUE COD, *Parapercias colias*. See also coalfish, rawaru, and rock cod.

1848 Taylor *Leaf from the Natural History of New Zealand* 15 Rawaru, a fish. Syn. With Hapuku and Pakirikiri; also a large Kokopu. 1874 *TrNZI* 7. 240 Frequently as many as 70 to 80 fish, of from 2 to 15 pounds weight, were obtained at a single haul of the net after it had been set for only an hour, the most abundant being the pakirikiri or rock cod (*Percis colias*) … 1885 *AJHR* H15: 8 Rock-cod.-

This [*Percis colias*] is the coal-fish of Captain Cook and blue-cod of the settlers in the South, and the pakirikiri of the Maoris, and is the most commonly caught fish among rocks on the coast. 1927 *Best Fishing Methods* 49 The following fish were caught with hook and line: araara, maomao, moki, mango, ngoiro, pakirikiri, kahawai …

**pakurakura. n.** [Ma. pākurakura] RED PIGFISH, *Bodianus vulgaris*.


**panny. n.** a smallish SNAPPER.

2004 Geoff's *Fishing Report* 2/10/04 www.majortom.co.nz. Some good snapper are being taken in the shallow reef areas at the back of Russell Peninsula. We are catching some pannies out in the middle that are heavily roed, even at this early stage of the season, and we expect the action to hot up as we approach the end of October and the water starts to warm up. 2008 Nelson *Mail* September 13. 16 The term "snapper" is a bit of a misnomer – they are actually a type of sea bream, hence the local term "brim" for smaller, pan-sized specimens (called "pannies" in the North Island). 2008 *NZFN* 31: 8. 88 In the deeper spots we have been getting some really good-sized john dory over the last month, along with a smattering of larger snapper amongst the pannies.

**papaka. n.** [Ma. pāpaka] any of various crabs found in New Zealand.

1848 *Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle* November 18. 149 It may be as well to take this opportunity of mentioning Shell Fish likewise: … Crabs Papaka. 1848 Taylor *Leaf from the Natural History of New Zealand* 14 Papaka crab; there are two kinds, both very small. 1855 Taylor *Te Ika a Maui* 415 Papaka, the crab: the largest is about two and a
flesh was the sweetest meat to the Maori, sperm whale, a rich haul indeed, for its the Maori these shores, the para paraua, or the leviathans, who Sport in shoals around mottled color. ochreous or dingy red, and frequently of a whale (paraua), is found of different colors, Taylor [Ma. para parao.]

parra. n. [Ma. pâra] FROSTFISH, Lepidopus caudatus. Also in the form paara. See also hiku.

1874 Johnstone Maoria: a Sketch of the Manners and Customs of the Aboriginal Inhabitants of New Zealand 4 When the easterly winds of spring prevailed, with their world-wide accompaniments of fog and rheum, the sands of the snare provided quantities of the delicious para, or frost fish, at other times so difficult to catch, but now helplessly entangled in the back waters of the eddy, to punish them, as the Maoris said, for being proof against both net and line. 1908 Otago Witness January 01. 86 Its [the frostfish] Maori name is para, but I do not know its meaning. 1929 Best Fishing Methods 72 They are para (frostfish), Ngoiro (conger-eel), Tuna (river-eel), and Tuere (blind eel); these were the offspring of Te Ihorangi who came down to this world. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 306 FROSTFISH (PARA) Lepidopus lex. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 214 When stranded, paara were undoubtedly collected by early Maori, as they are today by all who find them before the gulls do. 2008 Keane. ‘Te hopu tuna – eeling’, Te Ara - the Encyclopedia of New Zealand, updated 12-February 2008 www.TeAra.govt.nz/TheBush/UsesOfTheBush/TeHopuTunaEeling/en. The para was silver, but it was considered a tuna because of its long, thin body.

parapa. n. [Ma. paràoa] sperm whale, Physeter macrocephalus. Also in the form paraua.

1838 Polack New Zealand i 323 Among the leviathans, who Sport in shoals around these shores, the para paraua, or sperm-whale (Physeter macrocephalus) ... 1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 395 The sperm whale (paraua), is found of different colors, some being white, others black, or of an ochreous or dingy red, and frequently of a mottled color. 1930 Pomare Legends of the Maori 103 It was a dead paraoa, a sperm whale, a rich haul indeed, for its flesh was the sweetest meat to the Maori, and from certain of its bones he could fashion his long, curved, broad sword-like weapon, the hoeroa. 1994 Harris Tohoro: the Story of Fyffe House, Kai Koura 46 In the past, visitors to Kai Koura have mostly come for seaside holidays, and to enjoy the magnificent scenery. They still come for these reasons, but since 1989 many more have come to see the whales – mainly parâoa, sperm whales.

paranga. n. [Ma. parengo] KARENGO, Porphyra columbina.

1841 Colenso In TrNZI (1894) 27. 360 On them grew a peculiar kind of large procumbent thin Alga, which, boiled or steamed, is commonly used as an article of food by the Maoris of these parts: they call it parengo, also karengo. 1919 Poata The Maori as a Fisherman and his Methods 14 I have heard that Bonnington's Irish Moss, as used for coughs, is manufactured from the Maori delicacy called the parengo. 1926 TrNZI 56. 617 The kehe feed on both the parengo and kohuwai seaweeds that grow abundantly on the rocks of the district. 1984 NZFN 7: 7. 16 Seaweed was also known as "Parengo" in some areas and here it was gathered in July and August for maximum taste.

parore. n. [Ma. parore] Girella tricuspidata, a deep-bodied, grey fish with darker vertical stripes which is found in North Island waters and sold locally. Also in the form parori. See also blackfish 2 and mangrove fish.

1848 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle November 18. 149 Black rockfish Parore. 1875 TrNZI 7. 245 Parore, or mangrove fish. A fish 18 inches long with black bands on a dark ground...does not take bait, but frequents rocks among the mangroves at high water. 1908 AJHR H15: 8 Besides these, rock-cod, mullet, kahawai, trevalli, kingfish, parori, tarakihi, maumau,and yellow-tail have been taken. 1963 Commercial Fishing August 8 Sanford Ltd., Auckland report that there is no market for parore as an edible fish. 1970 AJHR H15a: 24 Parore (Black Bream)- this fish appears to be unacceptable in the normal fresh-fish market because of heavy bone-structure, dark tough skin, dark purplish flesh, and low filet recovery. 1991 Doak Wade Doak's World of New Zealand Fishes 84
Parore are wary, furtive herbivores, rather like wild sheep.

**parrotfish.** *n.* (AND 1827) Any of various fishes of the Labridae family (wrasse), especially *Pseudolabrus miles* and *fucicola*, reef-dwelling fish taken mainly for bait, or viewed by divers. See also banded, girdled, Sandagers, and scarlet parrotfish. See also wrasse. 1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand ii 259 The fish, however, which are in common use among the natives, are snappers, bream, the beneecootoo, the parrot-fish, cray-fish … 1878 Timaru Herald January 11. 4 The result of the forenoon's work was that some dozens of fish were transferred from their native element to the bottoms of the boats. They included sea perch, cod, soles, teraki, parrot fish (of a beautiful bright pink color), trumpeter, and sundry infantile sharks. 1896 Otago Witness January 02. 45 More often we went down to the rocks and caught a few parrot fish—a small green fish which will bite at anything—then put off in the boat, anchored, and baited our sea hooks with parrot fish, and awaited results. 1960 Doogue & Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers' Guide 15 Parrotfishes use their pectoral fins like a pair of oars and only resort to body propulsion when frightened. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 107 In most parts of the world these fish are called wrasses; the name parrotfish is incorrect, being properly applied to a separate family of tropical fishes.

**patiki.** *n.* [Ma. pātiki] Any of various New Zealand flounders but especially the SAND FLOURNDER. Also in the form batik. See also, dab, diamond, patiki, square, tinplate, and three corner. c1826-1827 Boulbbee Journal of a Rambler (1886) 110 Flatfish—batik. 1838 Polack New Zealand 322 The patiki, between the large flounder and the sole is equally excellent with the European fish as are also the mackerel, of which there are several varieties. 1843 Shortland Southern Districts of New Zealand (1851) 11 And every now and then, we had a present of "patiki," a fish not unlike the sole in appearance, and quite equal to it in flavour, which a retired whaler used to spear on the shoals of the harbour. 1886 Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand 21 The patiki is very common in the shallow bays and tidal estuaries on every part of the coast, and is everywhere highly esteemed both by Natives and Europeans. 1946 JPS 55: 1. 37 The lagoon was the feeding-ground of this taniwha, for there it came to feed on the aua (herring), eels and patiki which then abounded in the lagoon. 1980 NZFN 2: 8. 4 Patiki and pakieti are the Maori names for two very common (but very different) fish. The former is the flatfish and latter the spotty.

**pua.** *n.* 1. [Ma. pāua] *Haliotis iris* of the Haliotidae family, a common black-fleshed univalve found around New Zealand, which is important commercially and utilised both for food and its iridescent shell. Also in the form pawa, pawaiia. Frequently attrib. See also black footed, queen, and yellow foot pawa. See also black gold and mutton fish. 1838 Polack New Zealand 324 The pawa, or mutton-fish, also clings to the rocks. 1842 Workman Family Papers 1 They are a noble race of people, limbs on them like great bullocks; they would eat anything even a hard pawia. 1937 Powell The Shellfish of New Zealand 28 For a creature of its size the pawa animal is capable of exerting phenomenal force, and it is necessary to act quickly in order to remove one from the rock. 1945 AJHR H15: 21 However, the pawa has now definitely made its debut among our marine products of commerce. 1962 AJHR 119: 47 The popularity and consumption of pawa on the New Zealand market had increased measurably in the last few years, and pawa could now be purchased in some fish shops in most towns, while many fried-fish shops had pawa fritters available … The sale of pawa meat in the central North Island area where there was a significant Maori population was reported to be a well established trade. 1970 AJHR H15a: 24 In many parts of the world abalone is a gourmet item and commands a high price. Unfortunately, the commonest New Zealand member of this family, pua (*Haliotis iris*) has a black surface and dark flesh and is considered an inferior product on overseas markets. 1971 AJHR H15: 46 Paua (abalone) diving has become an important fishery. 1973 AJHR C5: 94 Wellington pua fishermen have moved into the Wairarapa, Kaikoura, and
Marlborough areas as local stocks have further declined. 1976 *Catch* February 16 Chris has devised a very efficient method of paua picking while free diving. 1980 *NZFN* 2: 8 21 Today customs have changed and most Maori paua-gatherers would think you were a bit porangi if you suggested they should go around licking the soles of the pauas they were dislodging. 1985 *Catch* March 15 Of the three species of paua that occur around the New Zealand coastline only the black paua, *Haliotis Iris* is fished commercially. 1987 *Commercial Fishing* February 5 Discussions of rock lobsters and paua fisheries followed, the latter including comment on the paua buy-back controversy. 1988 *NZOYB* 569 A further $1.4 million was paid for paua quota bought back in 1987. 1988 *Commercial Fishing* February 18 A change in legislation is expected to allow paua farmers who are growing their own in onshore tanks to export undersized paua, but this may be some time away. 2004 Johnson *Hooked* 465 He sold most of the meat to a wholesaler and also made paua sausages which were sent 'up country'. 2004 Dawber *Lines in the Water* 18 Beach-picking attracted seasonal workers like paua divers and shearers... 2007 *Dominion Post* January 12. A5 "We enjoy chasing paua poachers but education is pretty important," says Barry. 2008 *The Bite: News from MFish* June 5 Organised paua poaching has been on the rise since the 1990s, when it became clear it was a lucrative and easy target for sophisticated groups of poachers.

2. The iridescent shell of the PAUA, especially as used in jewellery. Frequently *attrib*. See also *paua-shell*. 1845 Wakefield *Adventure in New Zealand* i 255 Porera mats, paua hooks, baskets, fishing-lines, and carved boxes made their appearance on all hands, and some even brought pigs, dried dog-fish, and baskets of potatoes to barter. 1946 *JPS* 55: 2. 155 A rage has set in for the wearing of paua jewellery and the use of paua small goods.. 1962 *AJHR* I19: 46 That the manufacture of paua jewellery and other items decorated with shell was restricted to disabled servicemen. 2004 Johnson *Hooked* 464 The Returned Services Association, employing disabled servicemen in its workshops, was given a monopoly to manufacture paua jewellery. 2007 *New Zealand Geographic* May June 95 There are wooden hooks with interchangeable bone-carved barbs, some with paua inlay.

**paua bender.** *n.* a person who harvests paua from rock pools. 2004 Johnson *Hooked* 205 For the next few years the paua divers, and then the paua divers, would keep Chathams Packing going.

**paua bending.** *vbl n.* harvesting paua by lifting them out of rock pools. 2004 Johnson *Hooked* 205 Lifting them out of the rock pools was called 'paua bending'.

**paua-shell.** *n.* the iridescent shell of the PAUA, especially as used in jewellery and carving. Also *attrib*. See also *sea opal*. 1838 Polack *New Zealand* i 92 The eyes were formed of pieces of the pearl, paua or mutton fish-shell... 1873 *Evening Post* February 05. 3 LOST, on Sunday Evening, on the Terrace .. a lady's dark green Umbrella, with black glazed cover; small handle, inlaid with paua shell. 1893 *Evening Post* December 23. 1 Her beautiful arms were bare, and on her wrists she wore two bracelets of exquisitely cut paua shell. 1894 *Otago Witness* March 15. 15 In several of the bays the beautiful paua shell abounds-notably at Roaring Bay, on the southern side of Nugget Point, which is a favourite rendezvous for picnic parties. 1944 *JPS* 53: 22. 4 The base is of the usual form with raised figures with *paua-shell* eyes. 1954 Doogue *Saltwater Angling in New Zealand* 33 Paua shell makes a wonderful lure but it is so fragile that losses are high. 1982 *AJHR* C6: 17 Because of a ban imposed on the export of paua shell to protect the jewellery industry, hundreds of tonnes of shell have been dumped because they were in excess of jewellery manufacturers requirements. After considerable discussion with the parties involved and the Department of Trade and Industry, it was decided to resolve this problem by forming a paua shell exchange. 2004 Garbes and Garbes *Kaikoura Fishermen* 165 The idea of live paua exports was mooted, but this proved impractical due to Paua shell Exchange regulations, opposition from thriving paua
pelorus sounds. Also elliptically dolphin, thought to have led boats through celebrated and legally protected risso pe
dlarau, n. [Ma. pawharu] PACKHORSE CRAYFISH, Jesus verreauxi. See also green crayfish and green rock lobster.
1926 TrNZI 56. 629 Pawharu are caught only in deep water. 1951 Kohere The Autobiography of a Maori 137 Kate
caught three small ones, but I was after big game – a pawharu, or full-sized crayfish. 2001 Tangaroa November 12 Tania was part of a team of scientists investigating the growth of a delicacy of her Ngatiwai people, the Pawharau lobster, a rare relation to the red rock lobster. 2007 National Rock Lobster Management Group RLMG 2007 Annual Report 38 The less common species Sagmariasus verreauxi (pawharu – green or packhorse rock lobster – PHC) is most abundant along the north and east coasts of New Zealand …

Pelorus Jack. n. celebrated and legally protected risso dolphin, thought to have led boats through the Pelorus Sounds. Also elliptically Jack. 1902 Evening Post March 1. 6 A bottle-nosed whale, 21ft in length, was stranded on the Boulder Bank at Nelson, a few days ago. Some people thought it was the well-known "Pelorus Jack;" but "Jack" is white and of a different species. 1908 Evening Post February 25. 2 The expert on the te denizen of the deep said there was no other mammal like him in the world, so the people who lived in and travelled by the steamers, and who look on Pelorus Jack as an old friend, made an agitation .. and the New Zealand Government made a law to protect Pelorus Jack from the harpoon of the whaler and the bullet of the sharp-shooter. 1927 Donne Rod Fishing in New Zealand Waters 124 Instead of being normally dark, or black, Pelorus Jack was of yellowish white – an albino. 1939 Nelson Mail June 24. 7 It was from Clay point to the Chetwode Islands, a distance of about six miles, where Pelorus Jack followed the passing vessels. 1983 Baker Whales and Dolphins of New Zealand and Australia 104 The famous New Zealand dolphin 'Pelorus Jack', which rode the bow waves of steamers passing across the outside of Pelorus Sound and Admiralty Bay, Marlborough, between 1888 and 1912, was a Risso's dolphin.

people's fish. n. KAHAWAI, Arripis trutta. See also native salmon, New Zealand salmon, and sea trout.

2005 New Zealand Herald August 15. A2 Kahawai are sometimes dubbed "the people's fish" because they can be caught with a modest rod from boat, beach or wharf and are often the first catch of young fishers. 2007 Dominion Post Indulgence November 10. 9 The humble kahawai, popularly known as "the people's fish", remains reasonably prolific throughout New Zealand's coastal waters despite huge commercial inroads into the species. 2007 Wairond. 'Recreational sea fishing', Te Ara - the Encyclopedia of New Zealand, updated 21-September 2007 www.TeAra.govt.nz/EarthSeaAndSky/HarvestingTheSea/RecreationalSeaFishing/en The New Zealand Recreational Fishing Council, representing clubs around the country, lobbies central government – for instance to reduce the commercial allowable catch for kahawai (known as 'the people's fish').

perch, see butterfly, red, and sea perch.

Picton bloater. n. PILCHARD, both raw and smoked. Also elliptically bloater. Also attrib. See also mohimahi and Picton herring.

1880 Evening Post August 06. 3 LARRY & CAMPBELL will sell at their 11 0 clock MARKET SALE - fowls, ducks, fresh butter, eggs, Picton bloaters, smoked cod … 1888 West Coast Times June 06. 2 Various firms are contemplating the erection of extensive buildings for curing and tinning fish, especially the Picton "bloater", and numerous parties of fishermen have located themselves at different points of the sounds near Picton to pursue their vocation. 1906 Hawera & Normanby Star April 23. 7 The fish are very similar to Picton bloaters, and they have never before been seen on this side of the French Pass. 1962 AJHR I19: 84 Herring .. 2. Sardinops pilchardus .. Picton herring, pilchard, sardine, bloater. 2004 Johnson Hooked 139 At Picton, Auckland canners Brown, Barrett set-up a second-hand plant to can whale meat from Perano's whaling station and to resurrect the once-famous fishery for 'Picton bloaters' (sardines, or pilchards) in Queen Charlotte Sound.
On the other hand, red cod and pigfish, which are required for feeding the lobsters and tank-fish, do not seem in any way affected by the very cold water. 1956 Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 350 Although pigfish is not classed as one of our commercial food fishes in New Zealand it has been, and could be, used as an edible fish more than it is.

**Picton herring.** _n._ PILCHARD, both raw and smoked. See also mohimohi and Picton bloater.

1871 *Otago Witness* May 13. 8 It is very good eating, and is cured and sold as the Picton herring; but for curing I should judge it to be much inferior to the *Clupea sagan*. 1885 *AJHR* H15: 1 The most abundant fish is the Picton herring; not a true herring, neither is it a true pilchard; but it is a good fish, and adapted for tinning and curing, and, as it is found here in immense quantities it could be so cheaply procured that the export trade in this article alone should rival in a few years the herring trade from the North of Scotland. 1929 *AJHR* H15: 12 For many years shoals of sardines have been noticed at times off different parts of the New Zealand coasts, and in the past they were netted in Picton Sound and marketed under the name of "Picton herring"; but their appearance inshore appears to have been irregular. 1944 *AJHR* H15: 8 The fishery for sardines or pilchards (formally known popularly as the "Picton herring") is carried on mainly in Queen Charlotte Sound, and of late years has been growing in importance. 1957 *Parrott Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand* 31 In Queen Charlotte Sound, the so-called "Picton Herring" is said to spawn about Christmas time.

**pigfish.** _n._ *Congiopodus leucopaecilus* of the Congiopodidae family, a brownish fish with white banding having a protractile snout which is found around the South Island and taken recreationally. See also ALERT and RED PIGFISH.

1876 *TrNZI* 9. 486 There is another fish, termed the *Agriopus leucopocelus* (Leather Jacket, or Pig-fish), quite different from the fish of that name in the North, which is very palatable, with firm white flesh; but it is very seldom eaten, though common enough in Otago Harbour. 1903 *Otago Witness* May 27. 45 These same bags were stacked on the wharf and left there all day on Thursday, where they formed a happy hunting ground for errant small boys, who delight to haunt the wharves and play pig fish, when there is no other mischief to get into. 1905 *TrNZI* 38. 545 This fish is popularly known as "pig-fish," on account of the grunting noise it makes when taken out of the water and left to gasp for air. 1932 *AJHR* H15: 24

**pilchard.** _n._ *Sardinops neopolichardus*, of the Clupeidae family, an elongated blue and green fish, found throughout New Zealand’s inshore waters and currently caught mainly for bait and animal food. See also mohimohi, Picton bloater, and Picton herring.

1842 *Crocker in Letters from Settlers and Labouring Emigrants* (1843) 132 There are plenty of mackerel here, but no nets to catch them, and there are pilchards; please to bring one good net. 1897 *Otago Witness* January 21. 8 The fish which is so abundant round the southern and south-eastern coasts of this island in the early part of the year is the sardine or pilchard (*Clupea sagan*). 1938 *AJHR* H15: 29 For a time the desired pilchards were obtained by purchase from one or two fishermen who specialized in the "Picton herring" fishery, but subsequently the owners of long-lining boats on both sides of the Cook Strait acquired for themselves large seines of small mesh suitable for the capture of these fish in shallow bays, the shores of which they frequently approach on summer evenings at sunset. 1956 Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 106 There is no more interesting sight than to be in a launch speeding ahead and to see shoals of Pilchards, as far as the eye can see, swimming closely packed side by side, tier above tier, moving rapidly ahead, darting hither and yon, their blue backs and silvery sides glistening in the sun as they leap and turn, chasing food. 1982 *Ayling and Cox Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand* 104 Pilchards are blue along the back, green on the sides, and silver beneath, an effective countershaded colour pattern for an open water pelagic fish. 2000 *Paul New Zealand Fishes* 40 There is a small, steady market for pilchard as food for marine birds and mammals in zoos and marine-lands.

239
pinfish.  

A prize winning fish in a club competition, earning the catcher a lapel badge (often in the shape of a fish). Occasionally refers to the badge itself.

1951 Bay of Islands Swordfish and Mako Shark Club 2 Mr. R. H. Coxhead, of Manurewa caught the most fish, he landed four mako shark (one a pin fish), thirteen Striped Marlin (one also a pin fish) – of these, four marlin were released. 1973-1974 Bay of Islands Swordfish Club 6 Betty's fish was a pinfish also and later proved to be the winner of the striped marlin stakes. 1984 NZFN 7: 8. 7 However, the fish was a club record and thus a pinfish and it was a great effort by all concerned with the catch and the weigh in. 1985 NZFN 8: 4. 3 She won a silver pinfish for being the first woman club member to catch a marlin this season.

1998 O'Brien A Red Cod and a Conger Eel 142 Tony Noble gains another Association pinfish and now has pins for trevally, moki, snapper and kingfish.

pinfisherman.  

A person who has caught a prize winning fish in a club competition.

1979 NZFN 1: 10. 7 You’ve heard of a "pin fish" probably. And possibly even met a pin fisherman.

pink maomao.  

Caprodon longimanus of the Serranidae family, a striking pink fish with a forked tail which is caught recreationally.

1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers' Guide 212 Although commonly called pink maomao, particularly in the far north, this species is a member of the groper and butterfly perch family (Serranidae), so is not strictly a maomao. 1982 Ayling and Cox Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand 207 During the day pink maomao move in loose schools off rocky headlands or above rock pinnacles, anywhere where strong currents bring an abundance of planktonic food. 1984 NZFN 7: 3. 9 One fish that I rate highly is the Pink Maomao, that fish weighed only about a kilo but had me fooled into thinking that I had hooked a Snapper of more than twice that size.

pinna mussel.  

HORSE MUSSEL [early usage].

1847 Angas Savage Life i 246 The pinna mussel (pinna zealandica) was found in considerable abundance, sticking in the mud at the mouth of a small river that discharged itself into the harbour.

pioke.  

[Ma.] GUMMY SHARK, Mustelus lenticulatus [formerly antarcticus] and occasionally applied to other dogfish. See also DOGFISH, lemonfish, rig, spotted dogfish, and white fillets.

1908 Hamilton Fishing and Sea-foods of the Ancient Maori 71 The young of the kapeta is known as the pioke. 1939 AJHR H15: 19 The catch from Manukau harbour was 1, 835 cwt., the principal kinds of fish caught being mullet, flounder, pioke, and snapper in order of abundance.

1969 AJHR H15a: 6 Ten varieties showed reductions, namely tarakihi, gurnard, hapuku, sole, flounder, blue cod, moki and pioke. 1972 AJHR H15a: 10 Pioke and Elephant Fish - the combined landings of these two varieties which are exported in considerable quantities as white fillets rose in weight from 40, 552 cwt to 49, 266 cwt .. representing .. 11 percent of the total landed value of the fisheries production in 1971. 1972 AJHR H15a: 28 What is known as "gummy shark" in Australia (Mustelus antarcticus) is known in New Zealand as pioke, smooth hound, or rig, but is often sold in Australia as flake.

1984 Commercial Fishing June 12 Common practice in the Firth of Thames is to use standard 120mm nets for rig (locally known as "pioke" or "dogs"). 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 30 Other names include spotted dogfish, gummy shark, smoothhound and pioke.

piper.  

GARFISH, Hyporhamphus ihi [regional, Auckland]. See also guardfish and ihe.

1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 118 Angling for Gar Fish in Auckland Harbour, where it is known as the Piper, is thus graphically described by the writer of a letter ..."The Pipers are 'jest awful' cannibals', and you will be often informed on Auckland wharf that 'pioke is deeth on piper'. 1907 Otago Witness December 18. 19 The photographer was now placidly casting a trout line and catching nothing but he suddenly woke up and caught a garfish (locally called piper because of its peculiar long-bill and a splendid eating fish). 1950 NZFSG 18: 4. 22 Very soon our hope rose on seeing a shoal of piper leaping from the water at speed, so close together that they appeared at first as a shadow coming out
of the sea. 1979 NZFN 1: 4. 10 The piper does an elaborate salome-like “dance-of-death” as he’s hauled from the water. 2004 Johnson Hooked 335 There was some experimentation with nets, leading eventually to a small meshed piper (garfish) net enclosed in a trawl to strengthen it.

pipi. n. 1. [Ma. pipi] any of a variety of New Zealand bivalves taken as food. Also in the form peepee. 1842 Wade Journey in the Northern Island of New Zealand 79 These they thread and dry, so as to form a convenient portable breakfast; the long strings of dried pipis, worn as necklaces both by adults and children, being ready to hand for a bite at any time. 1908 Hamilton Fishing and Sea-foods of the Ancient Maori 13 .. pipis of various kinds were also threaded and dried for future use. 1910 Evening Post June 25. 19 The name “pipi”, he explains, is a generic term for all bivalves not attached to rocks or other fixtures. 1931 AJHR H15: 30 Attention is drawn to the occurrence of great quantities of pipis (Amphidesma forsteriana Finlay) both within and outside Otago harbour. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 159 The name pipi is sometimes applied to a number of New Zealand’s common bivalves which are collected for food …

2. Paphies australis, a common yellow-shelled burrowing bivalve which is taken for food. Also attrib. 1847 Angas Savage Life i 246 Many native houses are scattered along the margin of the harbour; and as the tide went out, the women were busily employed in gathering pipis, a species of cockle from the uncovered flats. 1859 Thomson The Story of New Zealand 153 The pipi and cockle were the most esteemed, and at certain places where shell-fish abounded were tapued. 1880 Hocken in The Early History of New Zealand (1914) 16 .. hence sprang up another trade, and whole tribes would be engaged in scraping with their pipi shells flax to barter with the Sydney schooners. 1908 AJHR H15: 8 Mussels, pipis, and cockles and escallops abound on the coast, and crayfish are taken in fair quantities. 1931 AJHR H15: 16 Many cockle and pipi beds in Hawkes Bay have been totally destroyed by having been lifted above the level of the tides. 1954 NZFSG 21: 5. 9 Most of our sand beaches produce the Pipi which, salted or fresh, is excellent bait for all bottom feeding fish.

3. COCKLE, Austrovenus stutchburyi [early usage]. 1829 Dillon Narrative and Result of a Successful Voyage in the South Seas. 215 The head chief of Wangeroa at that period was named “Peepee” (or Cockle), who had a son. 1843 Dieffenbach Travels in New Zealand ii (1974) 44 Formerly pipis, or cockles, formed a great part of their food, and were obtained in large quantities on the ebb of the tide. 1883 Rusden History of New Zealand i 12 The remains of pipi shells, strewed on every old pah in myriads, attest the enormous supply and consumption of cockles in the islands… 1888 Barlow Kaipara 134 Oysters and other bivalves, including Pipis (cockles) and escallops, also abound in the Kaipara. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 158 Formerly listed as Chione, and sometimes called pipi.

piropiro. n. [Ma. possibly erroneous use of piro, smelly] ointment of whale oil and turpentine applied to relieve the symptoms of rheumatism. 1842 Wade Journey in the Northern Island of New Zealand 35 The lads, who had not of late been much accustomed to travel, were beginning to feel rather tired, and asked me if I would give them some piropiro, certainly to me, a novel remedy for weariness. Piropiro is a name given by the natives to a mixture of whale oil and turpentine, used as a coarse embrocation in cases of rheumatism.
PMITQ.  _n._ *abbrev.*
Provisional Maximum Individual Transferable Quota, the maximum amount of a fish species which somebody is eligible to take.

1993 Boyle _New Zealand Commercial Fisheries_ 8 The role of the QAA is to hear appeals against allocation of (or failure to allocate) provisional maximum individual transferable quota (PMITQ) and to make any changes in allocation if appropriate.

1994 Boyle _New Zealand Commercial Fisheries_ 12 Any increase in ITQ, consequent to the QAA allocating additional PMITQ, results in an increase in TACC. 2007 Lock & Leslie _New Zealand's Quota Management System_ 13 From the selected catch history, the vessel holders' provisional maximum individual transferable quota (PMITQ) was calculated, stating the individual's largest possible entitlement.

poha titi.  _n._
[Ma. pōhā + tītī] sealed kelp bag of MUTTONBIRD (tītī) or the receptacle itself.

1844 Shortland _Southern Districts of New Zealand_ (1851) 224 The boats were hauled on the beach, and by them stood the cargo with which they had been freighted, consisting chiefly of "poha-titi" or casks of preserved mutton birds. 1920 _TrNZI_ 52. 57 Since then _he poha-titi_ (a kelp bag) has always been the receptacle to hold these birds, fat being poured over the contents and acting as an efficient preservative. 1940 Howard _Rakiura_ 209 The packages of birds ("Poha Titi"), made up as described, were carried northward by land parties, and in canoes that hugged the coast with anxious care; but when the white man came with whale boats and swift schooners, the Maori at once utilised the new transport, and the trade expanded rapidly ...

pohuiaakaroa.  _n._
[Ma. pohuiaakaroa] either Scarpee, _Helicotelhus percoideus_ or SEA PERCH 1, _H. barathri_. Occasionally applied to other members of the Scorpaenidae family. See also _highlander_, Jock _Stewart_, and _scrodle_.

1872 Hector _Notes on the Edible Fishes_ 108 Pohuiaakaroa .. though not figured deserves mention, as it is a small fish representing in these seas the genus to which the Norway Haddock belongs.

1902 _Otago Witness_ April 23. 56 Their Maori name is Pohui-akaroa, and their scientific name _Sebatos percolides_; but no fishermen could use such a name as that, so we call them "Stuarts", because that is the sort of colours they generally wear ...

1930 _TrNZI_ 60. 149 Sea Perch. Maori: Pohuiaakaroa.

porae.  _n._
[Ma. pōrāe] _Nemadactyulus douglasi_ of the _Cheilodactylidae_ family, a green-grey, upper North Island fish with full, down turned mouth, which is line-caught but of minor commercial importance.

1875 _TrNZI_ 7. 245 _Chilodactylus_ Douglassi ... Native name — Porae. 1949 Phillipps _Native Fishes_ 43 The porae is a warm-water fish known from the Bay of Plenty northwards. 1979 _NZFN_ 1: 12. 20 According to our records the only big Porae on record weighed 4.99kg and was speared off White Island. 2000 _New Zealand Fishes_ 103 Porae _Nemadactyulus douglasi_ ... Also occurs off southern Australia, where it is known as the grey morwong. 2007 _Seafood Industry Council_ _The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species_ 109 Porae are distinguished from tarakihi by their colouring, lack of a dark shoulder band, and more pronounced lips.

porpoise.  _n._
any of various dolphins of the Delphinidae family found in New Zealand waters.

1837 Rhodes _The Whaling Journal of Captain W. B. Rhodes_ (1954) February 19. 42 Kept a good look out, but saw nothing worthy of notice, excepting blackfish and porpoises. 1843 Dieffenbach _Travels in New Zealand_ (1974) 43 The porpoise of the New Zealand seas (_Delphinus Novae Zelandiae_) .. is decidedly a peculiar species, and we have not sufficient data to pronounce that the whale is independent of what appears to be a general law of nature. 1876 _West Coast Times_ April 08. 2 Porpoises leapt and puffed, and puffed and leapt, as if life were all a holiday. 1921 Thomson _Wild Life in New Zealand_ 47 I myself have seen a few whales and dolphins, and numerous porpoises; and this is the experience of all who travel by sea and care to observe its wonders. 1940 Phillipps _Fishes of New Zealand_ 9 Some uncanny sense seems to warn the shoal [of pilchards] when porpoises enter the Sound, and even before they are in sight, fishermen know by their agitated
movements that porpoises will come along later.

**POSA.** *n. abbrev.*

POST SETTLEMENT ASSETS.  
*1996 NZOYB 408* The assets held by TOKM on behalf of iwi/Maori can be divided into two broad categories - pre-settlement asset (PRESA) and post-settlement asset (POSA) acquired as a result of the Deed of Settlement and the Sealord purchase.  
*1999 Tangaroa* October 2 POSA are to be allocated after the PRESA via a new Maori Fisheries Act to be written by the Commission.  
*2002 Tangaroa* February 1 POSA, under this model, [of allocation] would be made up of POSA deepwater quota and shares in fishing companies.  
*2007 Lock & Leslie* *New Zealand’s Quota Management System* 32 TOKM was given ownership of both the pre-settlement assets (PRESA) awarded under the 1989 Maori Fisheries Act and the post-settlement assets (POSA) awarded under the 1992 Treaty of Waitangi Settlement Act.

**possie.** *n.*  
[AND 1915 position of advantage] specially chosen place on shore from which to fish.  
*1978 NZFN* 1: 1. 3 Blokes who don’t read the waves properly or don’t take the advice of the locals when they fish from risky possies.  
*1979 NZFN* 1: 7. 4 Their crayfish “possies” are secrets they guard as closely as the identity of their mistresses.  
*1983 Hohepa* *The Best of Bill Hohepa* 16 The whole thing is an exercise in futility if you can’t find the possies when you go back to fish them.  
*1998 O’Brien* *A Red Cod and a Conger Eel* 75 Some members would have preferred evening possies and then fish another location in the morning.  
*2001 Norcliffe in Marshall (ed.)* *New Zealand Writing about Fishing* 18 We’ll go up the channel, said her father. Found a good possie there last time.

**post-settlement assets.** *n.* fishery assets allocated to Maori under the Deed of Settlement. See also POSA.  
*1999 Moon* *The Sealord Deal* 125 In this report the Commission also outlined a process for the proposed allocation of the pre-settlement assets of the Commission, and more importantly, discussed briefly the need for the development of proposals relating to the allocation of post-settlement assets.  
*2002 Tangaroa* February 1 Allocating the Pre-Settlement Assets along the lines of the already proposed Optimum Method of Allocation for PRESA while placing the Post-Settlement Assets into a Trust to be centrally managed through company structures providing dividends to Iwi.  
*2004 Johnson* *Hooked* 403 Anything received in terms of a new settlement, including Sealord, would be referred to as ‘post-settlement assets’ and allocated on a basis of a new Maori Fisheries Act, the contents of which were yet to be defined.

**Pou Hononga.** *n.* [Ma.] a person who liaises between iwi and the Ministry of Fisheries at a regional level in matters of fisheries management.  
*2005 AJHR* C20: 6 The primary mechanism for building these relationships is through the establishment and operation of regional fisheries forums by relationship managers (Pou Hononga). The role of Pou Hononga is to manage the Ministry/tangata whenua relationship at the regional level .. and to establish and organise the regional fisheries forums.  
*2005 Paua Industry Council Ltd* Newsletter 6 October np It is extremely disappointing that Mfish have unleashed 12 Iwi Liaison Officers (Pou Hononga) to promote the establishment of mataitai, taiaipure and Section 186a closures throughout New Zealand with scant regard to the effect on the quota management system.  
*2006 Hi Ika Winter/ Spring* 3 Also this year, we will be working to further develop Mfish/iwi relationships in the Gisborne East Coast region. Towards this, a new Pou Hononga has been appointed to work .. out of our Gisborne office.

**PRESA.** *n. abbrev.*  
PRE-SETTLEMENT ASSETS. Also attrib.  
*1996 NZOYB 408* The assets held by TOKM on behalf iwi/Maori can be divided into two broad categories – pre-settlement asset (PRESA) and post-settlement asset (POSA) acquired as a result of the Deed of Settlement and the Sealord purchase.  
*1998 NZOYB* 425 Significant progress on PRESA allocation was made in 1996.  
*1998 AJHR* C19: 13 Out of approximately $50 million PRESA cash, $40 million will be allocated to Iwi in proportion to the Iwi affiliations relative to the total Iwi affiliations as determined from the 1996 census.  
*2004 Taonui* *Linkz* 13 In 1989, the Crown offered Maori $10 000 000 for developing the Maori fishing industry, 10%
of all quota (these are now called PRESA) ...

**pre-settlement assets.** *n.* those assets allocated to Maori in 1989 as compensation for fisheries lost through the introduction of the Quota Management System. See also PRESA. 1999 Moon *The Seaward Deal* 125 In this report the Commission also outlined a process for the proposed allocation of the pre-settlement assets of the Commission ... 2002 Tangaraa February 1 Allocating the Pre-Settlement Assets along the lines of the already proposed Optimum Method of Allocation for PRESA while placing the Post-Settlement Assets into a Trust to be centrally managed through company structures providing dividends to Iwi. 2004 Johnson *Hooked* 405 Te Ohu Kai Moana had struggled to get agreement for the allocation of pre-settlement assets. It was now faced with allocating post-settlement assets.

**puka.** *n.* HAPUKU, Polyprion oxygeneios. Also *attrib.* See also groper. 1984 *NZFN* 7: 7. 4 I reckoned that if I latched onto a puka over a hundred pounds I would have plenty to pump up to the surface without getting a hernia ... 1986 *NZFN* 9: 1. 7 You've never lived till you've tasted "puka throats" my cousin Hemi told the bloke in the pub the other night. 1990 *NZFN* 13: 8. 34 Locals had been into a few puka in recent weeks as the fish moved into shallower, spawning water. 2008 Mossman *Snapper* 158 Of course snapper are just one of the great options here, as well as big crays, 'puka, tuna and marlin.

**puka pull.** *n.* a line drop for hapuku. 1990 *NZFN* 13: 6. 30 After doing a few puka pulls myself, I have slowly learnt what is required in the way of tackle, etc for a successful trip.

**puka pulling.** *vbl n.* line fishing for hapuku. 1990 *NZFN* 13: 6 30 Hapuka is the name of the game and good sturdy tackle is required as deep water puka pulling is probably harder on the tackle than any other form of angling. 2008 *NZFN* 31: 7. 37 While the reel takes the drudgery out of 'puka-pulling', it still does not guarantee you will catch your fish; angling skill and luck are still required!

**pulling hand.** *n.* the person of a whaling party who rows the whale boat.

1837 Weller *Wellers Brothers Papers* 04 March 99 The Sydney people are raving mad about whaling and some parties are giving their pulling hands the 85th lay, but not as great a price for the oil as we give. 1860 Davis *Whaling in Foveaux Strait* 2 There were about 30 white men, headmen boatsteerers carpenters pulling hands. 1893 Jacobson *Tales of Banks Peninsula* 280 A pulling hand will get say, one share, a steerer one and a-half, and a headsman two shares – just as is agreed on. 1966 Sherrard *Kaikoura: a History of the District* 81 The ordinary pulling-hand received the smallest share – one seventieth, by the Fyfe – Wade agreement.

**pupu.** *n.* [Ma. pūpū] cats eye, *Turbo smaragdus* and occasionally other univalve molluscus and periwinkle. Also in the form bubu. 1855 Taylor *Te Ika a Maui* 415 The common name for all fish is *ika*, or *rigohengohe*; of all univalve shells, *pupu*; and of bivalves, *pipi* and *anga*, which includes both kinds. 1882 *TrNZ* 15. 452 Kahungunu stayed and watched the manners of the people, their food was *paua* (*Haliotis*) and *pupu* (limpets). 1930 *AJHR* H15: 15 .. a further gastropod enemy of the oyster is being dealt with. This is the large whelk-like mollusc *Thais succincta*, commonly known by its Maori name "pupu" which is able to open an oyster by muscular suction. 1954 Beattie *Our Southernmost Maoris* 63 Up at Russell the bubu was put in baskets and rinsed to wash the sand out. 1974 *School Journal* 3: 3. 4 My sisters and I, we called them pupus. But the name they are given in the dictionary is: "winkle, *Lunella smaragda*, *Zediloma aethiops". 1983 *NZFN* 6: 3. 14 The little "pu-pu" as the Maoris call him is aptly named, unless you know which part to eat and which part to discard. 2001 Grace in Marshall (ed.) *New Zealand Writing about Fishing* 41 The younger children, who were not old enough to stand in the deeper water and not strong enough to turn the big rocks for paua and kina, would look about in the rock pools for pupu, each one of them hoping to find the biggest and the best.
who have fisheries quota. The Quota Management Report, a monthly QMR allows the Minister to change QMA boundaries without the agreement of 1999 allows the Minister to change QMA. Zealand's Quota Management System (QMAs). One and ten Quota Management Areas (QMAs). 2007 Lock & Leslie New Zealand's Quota Management System 5 The Fisheries Act 1996 Amendment Act 1999 allows the Minister to change QMA boundaries without the agreement of quota owners. Quota Management Report, a monthly report on fish catch to be filed by those who have fisheries quota. 1987 Catch September 14 The FIN holder has to complete a Catch Landing Log (CLL), the quota holder – the one with the QRN – has to fill in a monthly Quota Management Report (QMR), and the QRN. Quota Registration Number, an official number to record the catch against in your Catch Landing Returns. Queen paua. A second New Zealand species .. is the yellow-footed or queen paua. H. australis. 1985 Catch March 15 In addition we are looking at the possibility of culturing and on-growing the queen paua, Haliotis australis and its white-footed cousin, Haliotis virginea, using similar techniques developed for the black paua. 1986 Catch April 7 The small queen paua H. australis, which has a black and its yellow-coloured foot, has often been erroneously regarded as the female of the common species. 1993 Boyle New Zealand Commercial Fisheries 8 The role of the QAA is to hear appeals against allocation of (or failure to allocate) provisional maximum individual transferable quota (PMITO) and to make any changes in allocation if appropriate. 2008 Mossman Snapper 6 In addition to the original 6546 tonnes of snapper quota allocated, the QAA dished out a further 1679 tonnes … QAA. n. abbrev. QUOTA APPEAL AUTHORITY. 1993 Boyle New Zealand Commercial Fisheries 8 The role of the QAA is to hear appeals against allocation of (or failure to allocate) provisional maximum individual transferable quota (PMITO) and to make any changes in allocation if appropriate. 2008 Mossman Snapper 6 In addition to the original 6546 tonnes of snapper quota allocated, the QAA dished out a further 1679 tonnes … QMA. n. abbrev. QUOTA MANAGEMENT AREA. Also attrib. 2003 Tangaroa December 3 The formula for inshore quota is based soley on the proportion of an Iwi's coastline to the total coastline in each QMA: 2004 Department of Conservation Aotea (Great Barrier Island) Marine Reserve Proposal 2 For each species managed under the QMS, New Zealand's Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) has been divided into between one and ten Quota Management Areas (QMAs). QMR. n. abbrev. Quota Management Report, a monthly report on fish catch to be filed by those who have fisheries quota. 1987 Catch September 14 The FIN holder has to complete a Catch Landing Log (CLL), the quota holder – the one with the QRN – has to fill in a monthly Quota Management Report (QMR), and the LFRN holder is responsible for a Licensed Fish Receivers Return (LFRN). QMS (Quota Management System), distinctive usage in combination. [Frequently prefixed with non] non-QMS regulations; fisheries regulations that do not relate to the QMS; non-QMS species, fishery fish or fishery which is not regulated by New Zealand's Quota Management System.

1992 AJHR C5: 24 - introduction of new non-Quota Management System (QMS) regulations. 1996 AJHR C20: 12 Using a structured process of information gathering, information analysis and consultation with stakeholders the Ministry was able to complete fishery assessments for all major QMS and non-QMS species. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 192 Until 1991, most permits were comprehensive, allowing a fisherman to take any non-QMS species that was not specifically prohibited by that permit. 2004 Johnson Hooked 431 MAF was at that time working towards control of non-QMS species, putting them into a quasi-QMS system controlled by permits. 2005 Ministry of Fisheries Final advice Paper: Setting of Sustainability Measures and Other Management Controls for Stocks to be Introduced into the QMS on 1 October 13 MFish acknowledges that information on which to base catch limits in a number of non-QMS fisheries is deficient. Queen paua. n. Quota Registration Number, an official number given to those who own quota. 1987 Catch September 14 The FIN holder has to complete a Catch Landing Log (CLL), the quota holder – the one with the QRN – has to fill in a monthly Quota Management Report (QMR), and the QRN. Quota Registration Number, an official number given to those who own quota. 1987 Catch September 14 The FIN holder has to complete a Catch Landing Log (CLL), the quota holder – the one with the QRN – has to fill in a monthly Quota Management Report (QMR), and the LFRN holder is responsible for a Licensed Fish Receivers Return (LFRN). 1993 Boyle New Zealand Commercial Fisheries 18 The Registrar of Fisheries will direct you where to land the fish, and advise you of the Quota Registration Number (QRN) to record the catch against in your Catch Effort and Landing Returns (or Catch Landing Returns). Queen paua. n. YELLOW-FOOTED PAUA, Haliotis australis. 1983 Catch June 13 A second New Zealand species .. is the yellow-footed or queen paua, H. australis. 1985 Catch March 15 In addition we are looking at the possibility of culturing and on-growing the queen paua, Haliotis australis and its white-footed cousin, Haliotis virginea, using similar techniques developed for the black paua. 1986 Catch April 7 The small queen paua H. australis, which has a yellow-coloured foot, has often been erroneously regarded as the female of the common species. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 237 The commercial
fishery is based only on the black-footed paua, with small quantities of the smaller yellow-footed or queen paua taken.

Quota Appeal Authority.  

Quota Appeal Authority is a semi judicial body, independent of MAF, established to assess appeals for the allocation of fisheries quota. See also QAA.

1987 Catch February 9 The tentative programme for appeals shows that the Quota Appeal Authority will be sitting about every two weeks up till July, to begin dealing with the 956 appeals lodged.

1993 Boyle New Zealand Commercial Fisheries 8 The Quota Appeal Authority was established with the introduction of the Quota Management System in 1986.

1993 Mossman Serious about Sportfishing 191 Nearly every commercial fisherman appealed their quota allocation before the Quota Appeal Authority. 2007 Lock & Leslie New Zealand’s Quota Management System 15 Quota owners had 28 days from the notification of their PMITQ .. to lodge an appeal ...These appeals were heard by the Quota Appeal Authority, which was .. established in early 1987 ...

Quota Management Area.  

Quota Management Area is an area within New Zealand’s Exclusive Economic Zone under which a fish stock is managed. See also QMA.

1999 Moon The Sealord Deal 43 Under the QMS, the Minister of Fisheries was able to declare Quota Management Areas, and set those species which were to be subject to the QMS. 2004 Department of Conservation Aotea (Great Barrier Island) Marine Reserve Proposal 2 For each species managed under the QMS, New Zealand’s Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) has been divided into between one and ten Quota Management Areas (QMAs).

2007 Lock & Leslie New Zealand’s Quota Management System 3 Managing a particular species at a national level is not the optimal method. Thus, each fish species in the QMS is subdivided into separate fish stocks defined by Quota Management Areas (QMAs), each of which is managed independently to ensure sustainability of the stock.

rauhui.  

Rahui is a total ban on the taking of seafood in a particular area. Occasionaly as adj. in early usage. Also in the form raahui and rāhui.

1841 Colenso in Moon The Sealord Deal (1999) 8 These preserves are all 'rauhui' i.e. private; and scrupulously descend from the chief to the chief to his nearest relatives. Any infringement on such a fishing preserve was invariably resented, and often ended in bloodshed.

1850 New Zealander 6: 475. 3 The natives always treat a rahui with much respect, considering it an act of great dishonesty to catch eels, or any other fish .. of whatever kind which it is erected to preserve. 1926 TrNZI 56. 619 Thus declaring a rahui, or close season, over those deeper grounds entails no irksome restriction on the people, and gives the chief an opportunity to exercise his mana or authority. 1979 NZFN 1: 13. 5 It’s high time the old Maori principle of "rahui" was re-introduced. In olden times the tohunga declared that certain shellfish beds or fishing grounds were under "rahui". 1989 AJHR C5: 50 Further development of the rahui area programme has identified non-commercial fishing areas, mainly around the South Island. 1999 Hi Ika March 2 The rāhui/closure has provided a good example of how 'lore' and 'law' can work closely together. 2002 Hi Ika August 1 A dawn ceremony was held on the beach at Mount Maunganui on 6 July to place a rāhui on the green-lipped mussel beds in the area. 2004 NZ House and Garden September 133 There are few rules in the Pukerua lifestyle .. although respecting the rahui is one of them. 2007 Lock & Leslie New Zealand’s Quota Management System 40 Traditionally, Maori have applied rahui (temporary bans on fishing activity) to areas to ensure that a resource is not exploited and the 1996 Fisheries Act provides provision for rahui to be put in place for two years.

rari.  

Rari is a large fish, with two long white appendages to its lower jaw, it is about the size of the cod, and much resembles it both in appearance and flavour. 1886 Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand 304 Genypterus blacodes .. Ling, or Rari. 1920 TrNZI 52. 60 Another old Maori, in speaking of sea-fish, said, "We called the blue cod, rawaru; rock-cod moeana; red cod, hoka; ling, rari ...
rawaru. n. BLUE COD. Also in the form raoroo. See also coalfish, pakirikiri, and rock cod.

1826-1827 Boulbee Journal of a Rambler (1886) 113 cod fish- raoroo.
1848 Taylor Leaf from the Natural History of New Zealand 15 Rawaru, a fish. Syn. With Hapuku and Pakirikiri; also a large Kokopu.
1922 NZOYB 357 Blue cod; rawaru ... Parapercis colias. 1954 Beattie Our Southernmost Maoris 65 One ex-mariner told me he considered the commonest fish in the sounds was the rawaru (blue cod). 1985 NZFN 8: 11. 22 "Rawaru" means "throw up" in Maori and this name was obviously given because of the blue cod’s habit of regurgitating its food when brought top [sic] the surface.

recap. v. supply the rock walls used for collecting spat in oyster cultivation with a new top layer of stones.

red cod. n. Pseudophycis bachus, a reddy brown fish with a squared tail which is of moderate commercial value. See also Akaroa cod, Finnan haddock, hake, and yellowtail ii.

1867 West Coast Times September 27. 2 The boat was well nigh swamped going out, but did manage to gain the roadstead, and during the night was loaded to the gunwale with red cod, and was headed for shore on the morning’s tide. 1869 AJHR D15: 5 At Port Chalmers there is a fish-curing establishment, which keeps the Dunedin market fairly supplied, principally with cured red cod, which resemble very much the Findon haddock known at home.

1908 Hamilton Fishing and Sea-foods of the Ancient Maori 13 The principal item in the bill of fare taken in this group was the koura – the large red crayfish (Palinurus or Jasus) – and the fresh-water koura of the lakes and streams (Paraneophrops). 1968 AJHR H15: 44 Work to date has included studies on growth, early development, fecundity, size at first maturity and differences in yield for both species Jasus edwardsii (the red
crayfish) and _J. verreauxi_ (the packhorse or green crayfish).  2007 Bruce and MacDiarmid. ‘Crabs, crayfish and other crustaceans’, _Te Ara - the Encyclopedia of New Zealand_, updated 21-September 2007 www.TeAra.govt.nz/EarthSeaAndSky/Sea Life/CrabsCrayfishAndOtherCrustaceans

Once common all around New Zealand, red crayfish or kōura (_Jasus edwardsii_), have been heavily harvested since the 1950s, and their populations have been depleted in many places.

**reddie. n.** RED COD, _Pseudophycis bachus_. See also _hoka_.  
1980 _NZFN_ 2: 3. 23 Red cod are still present (they have never left) and with the Reddie season due to start in a couple of months it seems that we will be catching these fish all year.

**red gold. n.** CRAYFISH as a valuable catch.  
1968 _Commercial Fishing_ November 25 Other reasons for the poor season were .. the "red gold" bonanza of the Chathams attracting local boats away.  
1969 _Commercial Fishing_ March 26 As competition increases for the red gold of New Zealand waters, crayfishing practices earn newspaper headlines almost daily.  
1978 _Catch_ July 1 Red gold bonanza is over.  
2004 _Johnson Hooked_ 336 There was always the chance of striking ‘red gold’.

**red gurnard. n.** [AND 1873] _Chelidonichthys kumu_ of the Trigidae family, a reddish pink fish with large pectoral fins which is common throughout New Zealand and is an important commercial species. See also _gurnard_ and _kumukumu_.  
1872 Hector _Notes on the Edible Fishes_ 113 The Red Gurnard or Kumukumu .. is very abundant during the summer months in the harbours in the north.  
1886 _Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand_ 81 Mr. Wilson says the red mullet are frequently found in the Kaipara.  
1890 _Otago Witness_ January 30. 21 Another important North Island fish is the red mullet (Upeneoides vlamingii).  
1993 Francis _Coastal Fishes of New Zealand_ 31 Goatfish (Red mullet) _Upeneichthys lineatus_.

**red moki. n.** _Cheilodactylus spectabilis_, a mainly North Island fish with bold red and white stripes and big lips which is commonly taken by spearfishers.  
1938 _TrNZI_ 68. 411 _Chironemus spectabilis_ Hutton. Red moki.  
1978 _NZFN_ 1: 1. 12 Red moki are the "Banded Morwong" of Australia.  
1984 _NZFN_ 7: 3. 18 Red moki feed by sucking up sand and small animals from crevices and amongst small turfing seaweeds.  
2000 _Paul New Zealand Fishes_ 104 Red moki live closely associated with reefs … Some are commercially netted, but more are speared by divers …

**red mullet. n.** _Upeneichthys porosus_ of the Mullidae family, a red and pink fish, with blue stripes and a longish body, which is sometimes taken in setnets or hooked by anglers.  
1885 _AJHR_ H15: 9 Our red mullet was first caught by Captain Cook in Queen Charlotte Sound, and the second specimen was not caught for a hundred years afterwards, off the Brothers.  
1886 _Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand_ 81 Mr. Wilson says the red mullet are frequently found in the Kaipara.  
1981 _NZFN_ 3: 11. 5 Well, the red snapper ("oia" to the old Maoris) is really the red perch.
**red pigfish.** *n.* *Bodianus vulpinus* of the Labridae family, a blotchy pink fish with elongated snout which is occasionally caught on line. 1956 Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 408 Red Pigfish *Verreoo unimaculatus* (Gunther). 1960 Doogue & Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 244 RED PIGFISH Distinguishing features: Body elongate, moderately deep, covered with large scales. 1988 Francis *Coastal Fishes of New Zealand* 41 Red pigfish eat a variety of large invertebrates, using their long narrow jaws to prize them from rocks and crevices. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 108 Red pigfish *Bodianus vulpinus* … Named from its elongated snout, although “pigfish” is more properly applied to fishes of a different family.

**red rock cod.** *n.* *Scorpaena cardinalis* of the Scorpaenidae family, a bright red fish with a compressed body found throughout New Zealand which is frequently caught but not much esteemed. See also cobbler, grandfather hapuku, matuawhapuku, and scorpionfish. 1869 AJHR D15: 4 The Red Rock Cod. - These are caught with hand line all the year round, but the supply is not great, nor is it properly sent to market. 1949 Phillips *Native Fishes* 55 The red rock-cod is of tan brown on the back with a crimson breast. 1957 Parrott *Sea Angler’s Fishes of New Zealand* 164 This species [Ruboralga cardinalis] is known under several names, but the name Red Rock Cod is the one most generally used. Unfortunately this name is not the most appropriate, as the Red Rock Cod is not even remotely related to the true Cods of the family Gadidae. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 79 There is another very similar but more variably mottled species, *S. cardinalis*, the red rock cod, in northern New Zealand; it can reach 40 cm, and is often called grandfather hapuku.

**red rock lobster.** *n.* CRAYFISH, *Jasus edwardsii*. See also cray, koura, and red crayfish. 1972 AJHR H15: 51 The early life history of the principal species, the red rock lobster, *Jasus edwardsii*, has now been worked out. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 151 [The packhorse rock lobster is] less spiny than the red rock lobster, but the smoother effect is largely due to the absence of small bristles at the spine bases and to a lack of sculpturing, particularly on the tail. 2001 *Tangaroa* November 12 Tania was part of a team of scientists investigating the growth of a delicacy of her Ngatiwai people, the Pawharau lobster, a rare relation to the red rock lobster. 2004 Johnson *Hooked* 140 The local animal is *Jasus edwardsii*, the spiny (or red) rock lobster

**red snapper.** *n.* either BUTTERFLY PERCH, *Caesioperca Lepidoptera* or GOLDEN SNAPPER, *Centroberyx affinis*. See also koarea and red perch. 1872 Hector *Notes on the Edible Fishes* 106 It is generally called the Red snapper by seamen who are acquainted with the fish of the coast, the colour being a uniform bright red, with a few dark streaks on the fins and a black spot on the side. 1927 Donne *Red Fishing in New Zealand Waters* 105 Red snapper fishing is greatly in favour with the yachtsmen of Auckland, and on a fine day, with bright sunshine, a good luncheon basket, some genial companions and a large school of snapper on the bite, the experience implants a pleasing recollection. 1949 Phillips *Native Fishes* 25 This [Centroberyx affinis] is the fish called red snapper by fishermen. 1956 Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 233 As far back as 1863 Red Perch was not uncommon in Milford Sound, when it was known as the Red Snapper. 1984 NZFN 7: 2. 8 Red snapper (or Golden Snapper) whatever you like to call the delicious little deep-water fellow with the gold skin and the big, black eyes is fine eating in New Zealand.

also known by the Māori names makorepe and reperepe.

reremai. n.
[Ma. reremai] basking shark, *Cetorhinus maximus*, of the family Cetorhinidae, a large, scaley skinned surface-feeding shark which is occasionally caught in big game fishing. Also as reremai shark.

1848 Taylor *Leaf from the Natural History of New Zealand* 15 Reremai, shark. 1929 NZFSG 2: 11. Then the third of our party arrived, bringing in a huge reremai shark, and a tail of a big black marlin seen of Cape Brett. 1948 *Bay of Islands Mako Shark and Swordfish Club* 4 The undermentioned are not Game fish, but a Certificate will be issued if so desired: Blue Shark, Tiger Shark, Reremai Shark, and grey Nurse Shark. 1956-1957 *Bay of Islands Mako Shark and Swordfish Club* 6 An exception to Whangaroa’s list of conditions was that the Reremai Shark be excluded as this fish did not come under our heading of big-game fish.

reti. n.
[Ma. reti] a board with attached rod used for catching fish. See citation 1943. Also in the form riti.

1927 Best *Fishing Methods* 49 The peculiar implement called a reti, employed on the East Coast, was not, according to my old native informants, a pre-European usage here. 1943 *Mannering* *Eighty Years in New Zealand: Embracing Fifty Years of New Zealand Fishing* 156 The Maoris used to fish there with “reti”, and a great sight it was to watch them. The reti consists of a canoe-shaped board about a foot long with a spinning bait attached with about four feet of strong line. 1953 NZFSG 20: 11. 7 The “Riti” is a very ingenious device very similar to a minesweeper’s hydroyane. At the mouth of the Wairoa River, I saw a party of Maoris using Ritis, fill a small truck with kahawai in less than an hour.

rig. n.
GUMMY SHARK, *Mustelus lenticulatus*. See also dogfish, doggie, lemonfish, pioke, and spotted dogfish.

1977 *Commercial Fishing* November 19 She landed 260 cases of elephant and rig last trip, from south-east of Stewart Island. 1979 *Catch* September 22 Dogfish, gummy shark, spotty, kini, lemonfish, pioke, rig .. the smooth-hound dogfish (*Mustelus lenticulatus*) probably has more common names than any other New Zealand fish – which causes confusion, especially for MAF staff who analyse fishing returns. 2000 *Paul New Zealand Fishes* 30 Heavy target fishing for rig has greatly reduced its numbers in many areas. 2007 *Seafood Industry Council* *The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species* 181 Rig are caught in coastal waters throughout New Zealand after their spring migration, usually in long set nets in shallow water (less than 50 metres deep).

right whale. n.
*Balaena glacialis* of the Balaenopteridae family, a large black baleen whale which was sought extensively by early whalers, especially as it came to shore to calf. See also black whale, southern right whale, and tohora.

1838 *Polack* *New Zealand ii* 402 A Right whale of sixty feet may give ninety barrels of oil, or ten imperial tons, the tongue will render six barrels of an inferior quality, and the under lips, (a mass of blubber) will give four barrels. 1841 *New Zealand Gazette and Wellington Spectator* October 13. 3 The writer of this article has had the good fortune to have the opportunity of investigating, anatomically, the foetus of that species of whale of all others the most valuable, viz., the balaena mysticetus borealis — right whale. 1845 *Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle* May 31. 50 It should also be borne in mind, that the shore parties can only be carried on during six months in the year; but when the season for fishing the right whale is over, these vessels can be employed in the sperm whale fisheries. 1872 *Tuapeka Times* August 22. 5 The value of this capture will be enhanced by the quantity of bone it will yield, the whale being of that description know as the “right” whale. 1994 Harris *Tohora: the Story of Fyffe House, Kai Koura* 11 Well before this time, shore whaling had been established, hunting tohora, the baleen or right whale (*Balaena glacialis*, formerly *B. australis*), called ‘right’ because it was easy to catch). 2009 *New Zealand Geographic* September-October 72 .. they were the ‘right whale’ for whalers to target because they were large, slow, curious and easily approachable – all attributes which led to their demise.
right whaling. vbl n. the industry of hunting the right whale. Also attrib. See also black whaling. 1852 New Zealander February 04. 2 RIGHT WHALING GROUND: SOUTH PACIFIC. 1867 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle November 09. 3 Meantime, however, right-whaling goes on as briskly as ever, the chief difference being the changes of ground rendered necessary by the retirement of the right whale further and further from the tracks of navigation. 1898 Taranaki Herald July 23. 3 Sperm whaling is an even worse case than "right" whaling. 1956 TrNZI 84. 149 Whaling in New Zealand waters commenced with the arrival of the "William and Anne" in 1792, but sperm whales were then the main objective and remained so until right whaling commenced in the 1820's.

rimurapa. n. [Ma. rimurapa] BULL KELP, Durvillaea Antartica. 1848 Taylor A Leaf from Natural History 33 Rimurapa, a sea weed, edible; largest kind. 1868 TrNZI 1. 32 A few also of the seaweeds were eaten; such as, the Karengo .. the Rehia, the Rimurapa (D'Urvillea utilis), and some others ... 1880 TrNZI 13. 29 Sometimes in the season it [karengo] was steamed in the earth-oven, and together with two other species of sea-algae, rehia and rimurapa (Gigartina and Gracilaria sp.), was mixed with the sweet juice of the tutu, as an excellent kind of blancmange-like summer food, eaten cold and devoured with avidity. 1985 Catch March 6 One of these bulletins is about Durvillaea (also called the bull-kelp or rimurapa) – the massive, leathery seaweed which can be seen at low tides on the wave-exposed rocky coasts of New Zealand. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 238 Bull kelp or rimurapa (Durvillaea) has been collected for alggin, used in a variety of pharmaceutical and edible products, such as kelp salt.

ring pot. n. a metal ring with netting attached for catching crayfish. 1965 Salt Oxford New Zealand Encyclopaedia 120 In some places, and at certain seasons, the crayfish seem to feed more greedily and can be fished for with 'ring-pots' or 'hoop-nets', conical pieces of netting fastened to a metal ring. 1998 Hargreaves On the Next Tide 96 Some New Zealand boys came over in the early sixties and started dropping ring pots out at Owenga and began catching fish wholesale. 2004 Garbes and Garbes Kaikoura Fishermen 94 Ring-pots were the method used for crayfishing and the pots were set and lifted on the same day. 2008 NZFN 31: 7. 104 A baited ring-pot thrown out into the surf whenever the seas are calming down is a good way to secure a catch of paddle crabs to eat.
ock cod n. 1. Lotella rachinus, a deep-bodied brown fish frequenting rocky coast which is taken recreationally by spear or line and was once sold locally. See also Cloudy Bay Cod. 1874 Evening Post June 22. 2 The remarkable superabundance of the fish known as red or rock cod continues .. and excites surprise on the part of those who have lived longest there, and profess to be conversant with the habits and customs of the finny tribe. 1876 TrNZI 9 486 Rock Cod, or Red Cod, is very common, occurring in the Harbour in large shoals, and a favourite object of sport from all the jetties and piers as well as from boats in the Channels. 1926 TrNZI 56. 533 Lotella rachinus is not uncommon in Cloudy Bay, and during 1924 small numbers were sold in Wellington as "Cloudy Bay cod" and "rock-cod". 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 172 The most common name among Otago fishermen was Rock Cod, because this fish favours a rocky habitat. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand 42 The Rock Cod
is a member of the true Cod family, the Gadidae, and is related to the Hake, Red Cod, and Rockling. **1982** Ayling and Cox *Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand* 144 The rock cod is similar to the red cod in shape and appearance but has a stouter body and does not grow to such a large size, averaging only 20 to 40cm in length.

2. **BLUE COD, Percis colias** [early usage].

1864 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle July 14. 4 As the season goes on, the fish seem to retire to the south or deep water, and the boats have then to go to the neighbourhood of the Cape, where groper and the blue or rock cod are generally plentiful. 1869 *AJHR* D15: 3 The hapuka are limited in number, and the rock cod are inferior in size and firmness to those found in the Otago province. 1885 *AJHR* H15: 8 Rock-cod.: This *Percis colias* is the coal-fish of Captain Cook and blue-cod of the settlers in the South, and the pakirikiri of the Maoris, and is the most commonly caught fish among rocks on the coast. 1895 *Otago Witness* November 28. 49 The schedule limits the size of the blue cod to 8oz and of the rock cod to 8oz. But these two names apply to one and the same fish (*Percis colias*), the first name being that by which it is known in the southern part of this colony.

3. **HAPUKU** [early usage].

1843 Shortland *Southern Districts of New Zealand* (1851) 131 In the offing is the reef Takia-maru, a celebrated fishing ground for the "hapuku" or rock cod, as it is called by the whalers – the finest fish of the seas.

**rockfish. n.**

_Acanthoclinus quadridactylus_ of the _Acanthoclinus_ family, a small, dark green fish which is frequently found in rock pools.

1899 *Otago Witness* May 4. 62 If we turn out a crowd of small fry in a strange place where there may be no suitable food but a horde of wrasse and rockfish for enemies, it is a forlorn hope for one of them to survive. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 135 The rockfish, _Acanthoclinus quadridactylus_, is dark green with a pale head stripe, and lives under stones or in crevices in rock pools.

**rock groper. n.**

large, old _SNAPPER_.

1954 Doogue *Saltwater Angling in New Zealand* 44 This brings out all the 'rock groper', old men schnapper which can be identified by their black colour.

**rock lobster. n.**

CRAYFISH, especially for trade. Also _attrib_. See also _green_ and _red rock lobster_.

1969 *AJHR* H15a: 9 In line with the practice in South Africa, Australia, and the U.S.A. the board has recommended that the name crayfish be changed to rock lobster over the next two years. 1972 *Commercial Fishing* November 15 Early in 1972 the Fishing Industry Board requested an investigation of the quality of rock lobster tails ... 1974 *Catch* May 17 Rock lobster and paua fisheries have stabilised, and new fisheries for southern spider crabs and seaweeds are being developed. 1980 *Catch* June 7 A call for MAF to immediately adopt the carapace length as the only method of ascertaining the legal size of rock lobsters, except in the "tailing at sea" area was made. 2004 Johnson *Hooked* 154 *Jasus edwardsii* now had a split personality: crayfish at home, rock lobster when it travelled overseas.

**rock oyster. n.**

_Saccostrea glomerata_ of the Ostreidae family, a predominantly upper North Island endemic, grey shelled oyster which was a popular food but is now very rare. See also _Auckland_ and _Northern rock oyster_.

1842 Wade *Journey in the Northern Island of New Zealand* 178 I have never seen large crabs on the coast of New Zealand; but in some places crayfish are plentiful, and good rock oysters are to be obtained. 1849 Hursthouse *An Account of the Settlement of New Plymouth* 123 Crayfish, rock-oysters, fine cockles and muscles are abundant; but shrimps and crabs are small and worthless. 1888 Barlow _Kaipara_ 134 The rough corrugated shelled rock oyster .. are very abundant in places; and there is another kind, a smooth shelled oyster, very like the English native, which locates itself in deep water, and therefore is seldom met with. 1892 *Otago Witness* October 13. 45 While working at Port Pegasus prospecting for tin, my companions and self made many stews of a fine rock oyster to be found there in my time. 1931 *AJHR* H15: 11
The reason why certain localities, within what may be termed generally the "Rock-oyster zone", produce good stocks of oysters, while other localities, also within the zone, produce no oysters, or very few, or of poor quality, is that the natural conditions, which cannot be controlled, are favourable or less favourable in varying degree to the point of unfavourableness, where there is no production. 1979 NZFN 1: 3. 3 The days of the rock oyster are numbered. That's the sad writing on the rocks for the delicious little bivalve. 1981 NZFN 3: 2. 19 The little rock oyster (Crassostrea glomerata) is tiny and tasty and does not venture much south of Tauranga. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 164 The rock oyster settles on a range of hard natural or artificial surfaces at the mid-tide level, either singly or in clumps, extending from clear ocean waters into mangrove inlets and estuaries.

rohe moana.  
[Ma. rohe + moana] marine area traditionally controlled by an iwi. Also attrib.  
2000 NZOYB 434 Tangata kaitiaki/ tiaki and tangata tiaki/ kaitiaki are individuals or groups who can authorise customary fishing within their rohe moana, in accordance with tikanga Maori. 2005 Hi Ika Winter / Spring 3 One of the key components of establishing this [mataitai] is the acknowledgement of a rohe moana, or marine area of local control, and the appointment of Kaitiaki or local guardians. 2006 Dominion Post October 13. C7 The taking of fish, aquatic life or seaweed (ie, customary food-gathering) may not take place in the area/rohe moana without an authorisation from a duly appointed Kaitiaki. 2007 Hi Ika June 4 Implementing a rohe moana management plan or other sort of management involves ongoing commitment …

Sandager's parrotfish.  
SANDAGER’S WRASSE, Coris sandageri.  
1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 243 Sandager's parrotfish is a warm water species. It can be distinguished from all other New Zealand species of the family by its more compressed body, small scales and by its colour. 1980 NZFN 2: 9. 14 While he looks not unlike many of the other more colourful inhabitants of our waters the Sandagers parrotfish is a very queer fellow indeed. For he can change his sex-almost at the flick of a fin. 2006 New Zealand Geographic March-April 69 Hundreds of hours were spent observing fish behaviour, one species of special interest being Sandager’s wrasse – at that time called Sandager’s parrot-fish (Sandager being the name of the lighthouse keeper who discovered the species).

Sandager’s wrasse.  
Coris sandageri of the Labridae family, a fish with bands of colour whose palete varies with age and sex; of no commercial importance but of interest to divers and other fish. Formally as Sandager’s parrotfish.  
1982 Ayling and Cox Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand 262 Some aspects of the behaviour of the sandagers wrasse have been observed and it has been found that they spend the night completely buried in a layer of sand, thus protecting themselves from the night roaming predators. 1988 Francis Coastal Fishes of New Zealand 42 Sandager’s wrasse are very active during the day and are strongly attracted to divers. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 108 Sandagers wrasse Coris sandageri … Also found off south-eastern Australia, called king wrasse because of its striking colour pattern.

sand eel.  
SANDFISH, Gonorynchus gonorynchus.  
1870 AJHR D: 5 Sand Eel (Gonorynchus Greyi). - A fish belonging to the carp family and not in any way connected with the eels. 1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 119 The flesh of the Sand Eel is firm, of a white colour, and very delicate in flavour. 1949 Phillipps Native Fishes 14 The sand fish, also called sand eel, has a long eel-like body and large fins. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 55 None of its common names - sand fish, sand eel, beaked salmon - is particularly appropriate.

sandfish.  
Gonorynchus gonorynchus of the Gonorynchidae family, a grey and brown fish with a receded jaw and rounded, elongated body, which is caught infrequently but thought to be good eating. See also sand eel.
1928 TrNZI 58. 132 I found the sandfish to be not uncommon at Greymouth and Hokitika, and am now informed that it is a good edible species. 1982 Ayling and Cox Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand 133 The sand fish is a rather strange elongate and cylindrical fish that is usually between 30 and 40cm long, but may reach 60cm. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 55 None of its common names - sand fish, sand eel, beaked salmon - is particularly appropriate.

**sand flounder.** n. *Rhombosolea plebia*, of the Pleuronectidae family, an endemic, diamond shaped greenish fish which is trawled commercially, and also taken recreationally. 1906 TrNZI 39. 480 *Rhombosolea plebeius*, commonly known as the sandflounder: This species was taken in large numbers by the steam trawlers and seine fishermen in June last, in Bluestin Bay. 1956 Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 191 The common Sand-flounder is known from one end of New Zealand to the other, sometimes by other names in different localities. 1973 AJHR C5: 114 Data on the biology of the sand flounder and yellow-belly flounder in the Hauraki Gulf collected during 1968-70 are being prepared for publication. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 143 Recreational fishermen take sand flounder by setnetting, beach seining, and spearing, and occasionally by line fishing in suitable areas with light tackle and very small hooks. 2008 Dominion Post Indulgence February 02. 9 Though there are about a dozen recorded species of right-eyed flounder in New Zealand, fishers are likely to come across just five of them: the common sole, the lemon sole, the sand flounder, the yellowbelly flounder and the black flounder.

**scad.** see HERRING SCAD.

**scarlet parrotfish.** n. *Scarlet wrasse*, *Pseudolabrus miles*. 1912 TrNZI 45 231 The scarlet parrotfish was originally described from Dunedin by Hutton. 1956 Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 271 If the Granite Trout, with its colouring and patterns similar to dull marble, be protected from its enemies on account of its being like its habitat, how can the Scarlet Parrot-fish, living in the same habitat, also be protected by its vivid pink colouring? 1957 Parrott *Sea Angler’s Fishes of New Zealand* 136 The Scarlet Parrotfish is a large and handsome species, taken frequently by hand lines, and is especially abundant at the Chatham Islands. 1983 Hohepa *The Best of Bill Hohepa* 51 The Scarlet parrot fish is also one of the few fish that actually take a nap during the day – especially after meals.

**scarlet wrasse.** n. *Pseudolabrus miles*, of the Labridae family, a deep red, black banded fish which is often used as bait. Formally as *Scarlet parrotfish.* 1982 Ayling and Cox Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand 256 The scarlet wrasse is a moderate sized labrid averaging 20 to 30cm in length as an adult and attaining a maximum size of about 40cm. 1988 Francis *Coastal Fishes of New Zealand* 44 Scarlet wrasse are always active when in the open but are frequently found sheltering under the boulders or in crevices. 2008 NZFN 31: 6. 55 The scarlet wrasse, or parrotfish, is the most colourful species of wrasse, and most sought after, with a firm white flesh.

**scarpee.** n. *Helicolenus percoides* of the scorpaenidae family, an orangy fish, with large brown stripes, which is frequently caught by anglers along rocky coastal areas. Also applied to SEA PERCH 1, *H. barathi*, and occasionally to other species of the Scorpaenidae family. Also in the form *common scarpee.* See also highlander, Jock Stewart, pohuiakaroa, and scrodie. 1949 Pillipps *Native Fishes* 55 This is the cobbler of Napier fishermen and the scarpee of Cook Strait. 1957 Parrott *Sea Angler’s Fishes of New Zealand* 164 It is also known as the "Common Scarpee" and in Napier it is known as the "Cobblor". 1960 Doogue and Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 269 Other names: Helicolenus papillosus; Jock Stewart, scarpee, highlander, fivefinger, scrodie; rock gurnard (Australia); pahuiakaroa (Maori). 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 78 These fishes, [Scorpaenidae] known variously as as scarpees, sea perches, jock stews, etc. were once thought to comprise a single species, but recent work has established that there are several, different in size and colour pattern.
school fish. n. MULLET found in deep water. 2004 Johnson Hooked 50 On the Kaipara mullet were referred to as 'school fish' and 'settlers'. School fish came from outside the harbour, while settlers were caught in the rivers and bays within the harbour.

schoolie. n. SCHOOL SNAPPER. Also in the form schoolie snapper. 1979 NZFN 1: 6. 15 The schoolies may have been on their way back to sea but there were enough big mouchers still around to make the 1979 King of the Gulf contest a winner. 1984 NZFN 7: 12. 5 On the line schoolies have got a reputation as being rather sluggish fighters, and rightfully so. 1998 O’Brien A Red Cod and a Conger Eel 155 While this was happening I brought in a schoolie snapper and Ian Donaldson went down to land it. 2008 Mossman Snapper 78 .. the average Ninety-Mile snapper has never been exceptional, mostly 1-3 kg 'schoolies'.

school snapper. n. young, brightly coloured SNAPPER swimming in uniform schools. See also schoolie.

1920 AJHR H15: 14 The "school" snapper were more numerous than usual this season, and were in as late as the third week of February. 1973 Fisheries Newsletter June 2 It is therefore proposed to examine the possibility that "school" snapper come from rough ground areas, where they have over-wintered, by tagging live and trap caught fish from these areas. 1993 Mossman Serious about SportFishing 217 There is a beauty and magic in the sea, be it in the clean rocket-dive of a gannet .. or the gorgeous colours and scale pattern of a freshly caught school snapper. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 96 Small snapper are sometimes called bream or brim, and the brightly coloured, medium-sized fish caught during the spring spawning season are often called school snapper.

scorpionfish. n. usually RED ROCK COD, Scorpaena cardinalis, but also applied to other members of the Scorpaenidae family. See also cobbler, grandfather hapuku, matuawhapuku, SCARPEE, and SEA PERCH.

1871 West Coast Times March 03. 2 A peculiar fish was caught at the Orawati, near Westport, on Thursday last variously called the elephant fish and scorpion fish. 1984 NZFN 7: 19 The jock stewart reminds me of the scorpionfish or grandfather hapuku common in the north. 2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 123 Scorpionfish are most commonly known as sea perch but they do not belong to the sea perch family – they belong to the Scorpaenidae family (scorpionfish).

scrag. n. a small whale which yields a small quantity of oil. 1839 Hempleman Piraki Log (1910) April 16. 83 Boats out and saw a scrag: pursued her and did not succeed. 1843 Diefenbach Travels in New Zealand (1974) 45 These young whales are called scraggs, and they yield about four tons of oil. 1913 McNab Old Whaling Days 230 The cow whales produced the most oil, and they had been the scarcest, their places being filled by young bulls and "scraggs". 1965 Rickard The Whaling Trade in Old New Zealand 79 The most repellent aspect of the whole business of bay whaling was another universal tradition that had it that the whale belonged to the boat which first made fast to the calf, or "scrag", as it was know to the whalers.

scroddie. n. either SCARPEE, Helicolenus percoides or SEA PERCH 1 H. barathri. Occasionally applied to other members of the Scorpaenidae family. See also highlander, Jock Stewart, pohuiakaroa, and soldierfish.

1938 TrNZI 68. 416 Helicolenus percoides (Richardson). Sea perch, so called John Dory (scroddie, fivefinger, soldier-fish, Jock Stuart, Highlander). 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 344 The name Scroddie, commonly used at the northern end of the South Island, is derived from the word Scrod which means a young Dogfish. It appears from my researches that when the early colonists first saw a small Seapearch they at once named it Scrod and later the "ie" was tacked on to make Scroddie. 1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 269 Other names: Helicolenus papillosus; Jock
Stewart, scarpee, highlander, fivetfinger, scrodie; rock gurnard (Australia); pohuiaakaroa (Maori). 1978 NZFN 1: 2. 12 PERCH Nicknamed "Five finger", Scrodie and Soldier fish.

sea bear.  n. FUR SEAL, Arctocephalus forsteri. See also kekeno and New Zealand fur seal. 1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand II 318 The ursine-seal or sea-bear, and the sea-lion, are found in congregated herds to the southward … The valuable furs of these animals are found in great plenty … 1892 TrNZI 25: 256 FUR-SEALS, or SEA-BEARS, which have an under-fur as well as a clothing of long hair, both of which are cast and renewed each summer, so that the skin of the animal when taken at the proper season is of value as a "pelt" or furrier’s material. 1901 Evening Post, June 01. 5 In the right-hand corner is a finely-carved dolphin, and on the left-hand panel the head of a sea bear, above which is the monogram of the Board, and beneath another strand of seaweed.

sea elephant.  n. Mirounga leonina of the Phocidae family, a very large marine mammal with a trunk-like nose (in males) which was hunted extensively for the oil of its blubber. 1863 Southern Monthly Magazine May 174 The sea-elephant is of a brownish hue, with a dark grey coloured variety. 1868 TrNZI 2. 31 The swimming paws much resemble those of the Macrorhinus, or Sea Elephant, having more the shape of a fin, or wing, than of a paw. 1891 TrNZI 24 256 Sea-elephants. These are massive, unwieldy and gigantic animals, which have a very restricted distribution, being confined to the islands in the extreme south. 1924 Ayson New Zealand Fish and Fisheries 14 The three species of seals in New Zealand waters are the fur seal (Arctocephalus forsteri), the sea-elephant (Macrorhinus leoninus), and the sea-leopard (Hydrurga leptonyx). 1894 Otago Witness November 15. 25 A large number of photographs, some very fine stuffed specimens of penguins, the skull of a large sea elephant, the skull of a sea leopard .. were exhibited. 1892 TrNZI 25. 256 SEA-LEOPARDS, which are large spotted seals covered with coarse hair, but, not being gregarious in their habits, although abundant and widely distributed, having no commercial value. 1906 Grey River Argus September 15. 3 At the Magistrate's Court at Motueka, John McNab, of Riwaka, was fined £1 and costs for killing a sea leopard. 1924 Ayson New Zealand Fish and Fisheries 14 The three species of seals in New Zealand waters are the fur seal (Arctocephalus forsteri), the sea-elephant (Macrorhinus leoninus), and the sea-leopard (Hydrurga leptonyx).

sealer class  n. people involved in sealing, thought to be of a particular character. 1859 Thomson The Story of New Zealand 291 Sealers in character resembled the whalers; and Stewart, who first discovered the insularity of the Southern Island, was a good specimen of the sealer class. 1949 Mackay Historic Poverty Bay 460 Thomson .. says that Stewart was a good specimen of the sealer class and that, by birth, he was a Scottish Jacobite, “who had seen the world and had drunk Burgundy.”

sea lion.  n. NEW ZEALAND SEA LION, Phocarctos hookeri. Also attrib. See also hair seal and Hooker’s sea lion.

SeaFIC.  n. abbrev. Seafood Industry Council, a national body representing members of the fishing industry. 1997 AJHR C19: 11 Industry and the Ministry of Fisheries continue to debate government charges, and industry restructuring including the creation of SeaFIC, a new national organisation … 2005 AJHR Statement of Intent C20: 14 Engagement with separate sectors … enhance the working relationship with the Seafood Industry Council (SeaFIC) and Te Ohu Kai Moana Trustee Limited (TOKMTL) at a policy level. 2008 Seafood April 16: 3. 6 SeaFic is willing to engage constructively in this process on behalf of the industry …
1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand ii 318 The ursine-seal or sea-bear, and the sea-lion, are found in congregated herds to the southward .. the valuable furs of these animals are found in great plenty ...  
1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 396 The sea-lion wakahao (Phoca jubata) or morse, once frequented the shores of the middle Island.  
1892 TrNZI 25. 256 HAIR-SEALS, or SEA-LIONS, which are covered with long, coarse hair and have no under-fur, and are therefore only commercially valuable for the production of oil, and formerly as food and clothing.  
1909 Norton John Norton Papers January Tried out 5 gns sealion oil and greased all oares.  
1978 Kerr and Judd Marlborough Whalers at Campbell Island 26 When the weather got so bad that there was no hope of catching a whale, we would sometimes go out along the coast to look for a sea lion or elephant seal that could be used for dog tucker.

Sealord Deal.  
Maori fisheries settlement between the Crown and Maori representatives which included the acquisition of the large fisheries company Sealords. Also  
Sealords Deal.  
1992 NZOYB 358 Prime Minister Bolger announcing Maori fisheries Sealord Deal [photo caption].  
1999 Moon The Sealord Deal 1 The Sealord Deal itself was a dark process which had lasted almost a decade, covering a plethora of grievances dating back to the 1840s, over a right to the fisheries that extended back to the beginnings of human settlement in Polynesia, millennia ago.  
2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 182 In 1992 the Treaty of Waitangi (Fisheries Claims) Settlement Act was passed. It provided further commercial quota through the acquisition of a major fishing company (the "Sealords Deal"), the right to 20% of the quota of any new species added to the QMS, and development of policies on non-commercial, customary fishing rights.  
2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 230 The Sealord Deal, as it was known, passed into law in December 1992 but it did not include all South Island Maori.

sea mullet.  
[AND 1844] either AUCKLAND MULLET, Mugil cephalus, or YELLOW-EYED MULLET, Aldrichetta forsteri. See also aua, herring, kanae, makawhiti, and mullet.

1886 Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand 51 Kahawai is one of the early fishes in spring, at which season it follows voraciously the young fry of the aua, or sea-mullet.  
1890 Otago Witness January 30. 21 The sea mullet can be taken readily with the rod and line.  
1904 Tregear The Maori Race 188 The sea-mullet (Kanae: Mugil perusii) often ascends tidal rivers in great numbers.  
1969 JPS 78: 2. 201 Fish likely to have been readily caught [at Dusky Sound] include rock cod, coal-fish, barracouta, sea mullet and sea perch.

sea opal.  
PAUA-SHELL, Haliotis iris. See also PAUA.  
1946 JPS 55: 2. 155 A rage has set in for the wearing of paua jewellery and the use of paua small goods, ink-stands, serviette-rings, etc, and a new name has been given to it- sea-opal, and its deeper tints are as beautiful as opal if not as durable.

sea perch.  
1.  [AND 1873] Helicolenus barathri of the scorpaenidae family, an orangy fish with subtle brown stripes which is frequently caught by offshore trawlers. Also applied to H. barathri and occasionally to other members of the Scorpaenidae family. See also highlander, Jock Stewart, pohuiakaroa, scarpee, and scroddie.  
1869 Otago Witness June 19. 3 Fish of excellent quality are abundant, and can be taken by hook and line in great quantities. They include blue cod, trumpeter, sea perch, grouper, and barracouta.  
1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 344 The Seaperch is a fish well known to all fishermen both sports and commercial fishermen alike, who give it quite a number of vernacular names.  
1982 Ayling and Cox Collins Guide to the Sea Fishes of New Zealand 196 Sea perch are similar in shape and appearance to the scorpion fish but have smoother heads, more laterally compressed bodies, shorter dorsal fin spines, and are orange-brown rather than red.  
2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 78 Sea perch Helicolenus barathri ... Once thought to be a deepwater form of the common scarpee, but now recognised as a separate species.  
2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 123 Scorpionfish are most commonly known as sea Perch but they do not belong to the
sea perch family-they belong to the Scorpaenidae family (scorpionfish).

2. ORANGE ROUGHY, Hoplostethus atlanticus.

2004 Johnson Hooked 285 The first shipment was sold as sea perch, a name which seemed to have good connotations in Australia, but 'orange roughey' soon took over.

sea salmon.  n.
KAHAWAI, Arripis trutta [early usage and trade].  See also native salmon, New Zealand salmon, people's fish, and sea trout.

1901 New Zealand Illustrated Magazine September 01. 950 The kahawai (Arripis Salar) is frequently called the sea salmon. 1903 Otago Witness March 25. 54 The kahawai, or sea salmon, is also common, and affords good sport, either with spoon, artificial minnow, or live bait. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 93 The final pinkish product does superficially resemble the true salmon and has been marketed under such names as New Zealand salmon, Pacific salmon or sea salmon, although there is some risk of confusion with the product of the developing industry "farming" the quinnat or true Pacific salmon.

sea trout.  n.
KAHAWAI, Arripis trutta.  See also native salmon, New Zealand salmon, people's fish, and sea salmon.

1876 TrNZI 9. 488 On the 30th, a fine Sea Trout, weighing 10 ½ lbs., was caught in the Lower Harbour. 1957 Parrott Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand 92 The Kahawai is a very active fish of graceful form, and it is probably due to its superficial resemblance to the trout that it has received the popular name in Australia and New Zealand of "Sea Trout". 1987 NZFN 10: 3. 25 A trend to call kahawai "sea trout" is causing concern in fishing circles. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 92 Known principally by its Maori name, kahawai, in New Zealand and only occasionally (and erroneously, despite its scientific name) as sea trout or salmon.

separate fishery.  n.
a marine area which is managed separately.
1997 AJHR C19: 10 This includes the proposal to calculate the allocation to Chatham Islands Iwi based on the history of catches within a "separate fishery" zone around the Chatham Islands. 1998 AJHR C19: 11 Allocation to the Chathams will be calculated using the concept of a "separate fishery" for the Chathams defined broadly as a 200 nautical mile circle around the Chathams. 2002 Tangaroa August 4 Chatham Islands Iwi are allocated quota on the basis of a separate fishery for a 200 mile zone around the Chathams and all Inshore Quota in that zone is allocated to the Chathams.

settler.  n.
MULLET, especially grey mullet, which stay within the harbour.
1897 AJHR H17: 17 The fishermen in Kaipara distinguish between 'school fish' and 'settlers'... The 'settlers' are those mullet of moderate size which stay in the harbour and run up the rivers. 2004 Johnson Hooked 50 On the Kaipara mullet were referred to as 'school fish' and 'settlers'. School fish came from outside the harbour, while settlers were caught in the rivers and bays within the harbour.

shore fishing.  n.
whaling from a land base.
1842 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle September 03. 103 It is now considered that the shore fishing will certainly not repay the parties engaged, and that in fact many of them will be losers. 1842 Heaphy Narrative of a Residence 123 The great number of whale-ships which are continually cruising in their vicinity, proves the Chathams to be a fit locality for shore-fishing ... 1893 NZOYB 231 The harbours of New Zealand were formerly visited by whalers, for the purpose of refitting, carrying on shore-fishing, and barrelling their oil.

shore gang.  n.
a group working on a land based whaling station, rather than at sea.
1837 Weller Weller Brothers Papers March 04. 99 Should James who is connected with the Palmer [sic] send .. a shore gang to Otago, as I am informed he intends doing, annoy him all you can ... 1909 McNab Murihiku 387 Readers will notice that Guard commanded the Waterloo outside the whaling season, but when the shore establishments were busy another captain had command, Guard leaving to manage the shore gangs. 1913 McNab Old Whaling Days 195
Employment in a shore gang sometimes proved too attractive for weaker men. 2004 Johnson Hooked 168 It took the shore gang two days to unload, refuel and providore the ship.

**shore oyster. n.**

ROCK OYSTER [used by oyster dealers in the late nineteenth century in an effort to bypass a regulation which banned the export of rock oysters].

1888 AJHR H19: 6 The question of the taking of the oyster which is stated to be a “shore” and “mangrove” oyster, and which scientific authorities and the department hold to be “rock-oyster”, still remains unsettled. 1888 West Coast Times May 08. 2 The case was brought at the instance of T. Hill, Collector of Customs, and Mr Williamson, who appeared for the prosecution, said Government wished to have a decision as to the meaning of the term “shore oysters”. 1892 AJHR H29: 3 On the 6th October last an Order in Council was made prohibiting the export of rock, shore, drift or mangrove oysters, but so much of the Order as related to shore or mangrove oysters was revoked by order in Council dated the 1st February last.

2004 Johnson Hooked 38 Rock oysters and so-called mangrove or shore oysters were the same, the degree to which they were twisted or deformed in shape depending entirely on what they had been growing on. Willy dealers continued to cover their rock oysters in mud, or added mud to the top of the sacks to be able to claim they were shipping mud oysters if the 'shore oyster' defence failed.

**shore party. n.**

1. a group involved in the catching of whales from a base [often a settlement] onshore.

1831 Bell in McNab Old Whaling Days (1913) Correspondence 17 There have been no less than six vessels and three shore parties fitted out from Sydney and two vessels, I believe, from Hobart Town.

1836 The Logbook of the Mary Mitchell Thursday April 28 Another whale killed today by the shore party. 1842 New Zealand Gazette and Wellington Spectator June 15. 2 A whaling vessel in competing with a shore party has also great advantage even when in a bay, for she can remain at the entrance and intercept the whales as they proceed to the coast.

1845 Majoribanks Travels in New Zealand 77 “Shore parties” as they are termed, for capturing the black whale (sperm whale never coming within reach of a shore party) are now forming rapidly in Cook’s Strait and other parts; composed chiefly of emigrants who have gone to settle in that country. 1845 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle May 31. 50 It often occurs that when a whale runs off to sea, to a greater distance than is considered prudent to follow in boats from a shore party, the pursuit is abandoned, and the fish is lost. 1833 NZOYB 231 The industry is not a great one at the present time, being only carried on by a few shore parties, the export for 1892 having been: Whale-oil - sperm, 3,100gal.; black, 1,572gal.; whalebone, 29cwt. 1965 Rickard The Whaling Trade in Old New Zealand 59 Ships were also employed in this trade, either working in conjunction with shore parties, or else quite independently of them.

2. a group who hunt seals from an isolated coastal base.

1842 Heaphy Narrative of a Residence 120 Shore parties were also left on the principal islands, and for some time the trade proved very profitable, the numbers captured being very great. About 1832, however, from the increasing scarcity of the seals, the pursuit was abandoned.

1863 Southern Monthly Magazine May 172 Shore parties, taking up their residence in some of the deeply-indented harbours about Dusky Bay and Milford Haven, would remain, perhaps over two or three cruises of the brig, until a cargo was collected.

**shore sealing. n.**

the hunting of seals on shore.

1863 Southern Monthly Magazine May 173 In shore sealing, some favourite haunt in a narrow rocky bay is watched by the sealer, perhaps for weeks, until a sufficient number of the animals are together, and the water be low; the boat then approaches – if possible under sail – and as soon as land is made, a rush takes place up the beach.

**shore station. n.**

a base, usually a small settlement, from which whales are caught and processed.

1845 New Zealand Spectator and Cook Strait Guardian July 12. 2 The Tyne would also have immediately received a cargo direct to England, the produce of the shore stations belonging to the merchants of this
settlement. 1846 New Zealand Spectator and Cook Strait Guardian January 10. 2. From the return of the oil caught at the different shore stations this season .. it will be seen by a comparison with the two former years, that the deficiency has not been so great as was anticipated. 1909 McNab Muirihiku 380 A small vessel of perhaps 100 tons visited the shore station from time to time to take away the oil and bring stores in return. 1913 McNab Old Whaling Days 173 The Denmark Hill, and the Louisa were Sydney whalers, working quite independent of the shore stations. 1940 NZOYB 490 There is now only one shore station in commercial operation, that in the Tory Channel, Marlborough Sounds, and during the 1938 whaling season seventy-five hump-back whales, one sperm whale, and one blue whale, which produced 400 tons of oil were caught in that area. 1956 Hauraki Whaling Limited Prospectus 9 Smaller shore stations with low overhead costs have proved they are more efficient than stations or factory ships requiring a large through put, and no noticeable depletion of stocks has been observed in their area of operations. 1965 Rickard The Whaling Trade in Old New Zealand 114 Bereft of their vigorous inhabitants, the abandoned shore stations became New Zealand’s first ghost towns as the empty buildings made their last stand against the weather.

shore whaler. n. a person involved in capturing whales from a base on land.

1842 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle November 26. 152 The practice with shore whalers of killing the call to secure the mother is looked upon as destroying the trade. 1843 Diefenbach Travels in New Zealand (1974) 7 The shore whalers, in hunting the animal in the season when it visits the shallow waters of the coast to bring forth the young, and suckle it in security, have felled the tree to obtain the fruit, and have thus taken the most certain means of destroying an otherwise profitable and important trade. 1872 TrNZI 5. 156 The females visit the bays and inlets around the coast to calve during the winter months from May to August, where they are captured by the shore whalers. 1905 Otago Witness July 12. 61 The whales caught by the present-day shore-whalers at Whangamumu (North Auckland), Te Awaiti (Marlborough Sounds), and Kaikoura are all of the humpback variety. 1954 Dawbin Maori Whaling 2 Once good relations were established the tribe assisted the shore whalers by growing vegetables and supplying pork and fish in hut building. 1965 Rickard The Whaling Trade in Old New Zealand 86 Like any other community which is set apart in some way from the rest of society, the shore whalers had developed their own argot, much of it unintelligible to outsiders. 2004 Johnson Hooked 490 In comparison to the efforts of factory ships working south of New Zealand, the depredations of the New Zealand shore whalers were small.

shore whaling. vbl n. the catching of whales in bays, from a land base. Also attrib.

1831 Correspondence from Cloudy Bay in McNab Old Whaling Days (1913) 14 Mossman’s Shore whaling gangs have secured 170 barrels. 1843 Diefenbach Travels in New Zealand (1974) 109 Like all shore-whaling, however, that of Kapiti, is on the decline, and I do not suppose that the establishment will be kept up much longer. 1903 Hombre Deep Sea Sailormen 21 But there’s no shore whaling on this coast now worth talking about, so I go fishing, or anything else, so long as I can make tucker. 1933 Ommanney Whaling in the Dominion of New Zealand 243 Shore whaling stations were situated in Tory channel in the old baywhaling days. 1939 Department of Internal Affairs Whaling, Sealing and Early Settlement part 2. 2 Shore whaling, the only type of whaling which involved settlement, commenced in the late 1820s, and by 1840 shore stations had been established around the coast on the route of whales’ annual migration … 1949 Eccles & Reed John Jones of Otago 20 It was not long before a chain of shore-whaling stations extended from the West Coast sounds, along the mainland shore of Foveaux Strait, and northward to Banks Peninsula. 1949 ibid. 22 If shore-whaling returned large profits it also involved serious risks.

shortie. n. an undersized crayfish.

1973 Commercial Fishing July 14 One common ploy used was for a man to have a conversation with the inspector while another man placed a bag of “shorties” into the boot of a car, he said. 1976 Catch February 12 High returns encourage greater mobility in illegal trafficking and
aircraft are frequently used to move "shorties" from one location to another, hundreds of kilometres away.

**silverfish.** _n._ any of various silver-coloured fish, especially SILVER WAREHOU, _Seriolella punctata_, and SILVERSIDE, _Argentia elongata._

1864 _Otago Witness_ February 20. 13 FISH. Barracoutas, 6d each .. garfish, 4s to 6s per dozen .. silver fish, 1s to 2s 6d per dozen ... 1905 _Otago Witness_ May 10. 46 FISHING FOR SILVERFISH AT THE CROSS WHARF DUNEDIN [photo caption]. 1957 Parrott _Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand_ 58 The Silverfish is also found in Australia where it is known as the "Mackerel trevally". 1983 _NZFN_ 6: 2. 4 One of the prettiest fish in our waters, and one that is sadly becoming one of the rarest is the lovely silverfish.

**silverside.** _n._ _Argentia elongata_, an iridescent, elongated fish with bands which is sometimes caught in trawls and utilised as food. See also silverfish and snogdall. 1907 _Evening Post_ Sept-13. 8 There are specimens of the dog-fish, the smooth-hound .. the silver-side ... 1912 _TrNZI_ 45. 234 The silverside .. is common along the east coast, and was frequently taken in the trawl during the cruise of the "Nora Niven." 1938 _TrNZI_ 68. 402 _Argentia elongata_ .. silverside (snogdall). 1940 Phillips _Fishes of New Zealand_ 45 According to Thomson and Anderton the silverside is common along the Otago Coast being called silver fish or snogdall by the local fishermen. 1956 Graham _Treasury of New Zealand Fishes_ 121 The name Silverside is derived from its glistening, silver body, though in medium sized fish the colour is yellowish with pale brown criss-cross bands, but these bands do not extend below the lower half of the body. 2000 _Paul New Zealand Fishes_ 54 Small quantities of silverside are caught by offshore trawlers; much is converted simply to fishmeal, but some is processed for sale.

**silver trumpeter.** _n._ PIGFISH, _Congiopodus leucopaecilus_, or ELEPHANT FISH, _Callorhinus milii_, especially for trade. 1956 Graham _Treasury of New Zealand Fishes_ 355 It is said that at one time this fish was sold on the Christchurch Fish Market as Silver Trumpeter. 1980 _Catch_ October 11 Market names to disguise the true nature of a fish are not new to New Zealand, and there are a number of well-known examples – "lemon fish" (rig), "white fillets" and "silver trumpeter" (elephant fish), "pearl fillets" (ghost shark), and "snoek" (barracouta). 2007 Seafood Industry Council _The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species_ 176 MARKET NAMES: ... Elephant Fish, Silver Trumpeter, White Fillets.

**silver warehou.** _n._ _Seriolella punctata_ of the Centrolophidae family, a shiny silvery blue fish with brown head which has been a commercially important export since the 1970s. See also bastard warehou, silverfish, and spotted warehou. 1938 _TrNZI_ 68. 409 _Seriolella porossa_ Guichenot. Silver warehou. 1979 _Commercial Fishing_ May 92 Although the silver warehou has a fast growth rate and a relatively short life, its habit of congregating within a small area could encourage and allow over-fishing. 1989 _AJHR_ C6: 8 Growth in silver warehou exports were also spectacular, totalling $18.4 million, increasing 64% in value and 70.7% in volume on 1987. 2000 _Paul New Zealand Fishes_ 223 When trawling developed on offshore grounds large stocks of silver warehou were found and exploited by Soviet and Japanese vessels, mainly on the Stewart/Snares shelf and parts of the Chathams Rise.

**skinny string.** _adv._ [of fishing] on ultra light tackle. 1986 _NZFN_ 9: 6. 26 If you have never fished "skinny string" for maomao, then you are missing a lot of fun.

**skipjack.** _n._ TREVALLY, _Caranx georgianus_ [early usage]. See also _araara_ and _trev_. 1863 _Otago Witness_ June 26. 2 Caught, a skipjack, 28th. 1872 Hector _Notes on the Edible Fishes_ 110 .. this fish, which he says is the Skipjack of the sealers, used to be a staple article of food with the natives, who assembled on fine calm days and drove the fish into weirs formed of branches of trees, which they stretched across the shallow bays. 1956 Graham _Treasury of New Zealand Fishes_ 236 It is quoted that the early sealers called this fish [trev] Skipjack.
skippie.  n.  skipjack tuna, *Katsuwonus pelamis.*  1993 *Mossman Serious about Sportfishing* 152 The skippies were nailing anchovies, in a seething frenzy as they were broadcast like wheat to farmyard chooks.  I flipped a 10-cm blue-and-white deceiver into the strike zone, and although the hyped-up skippies rushed at it, they refused, turning aside with a swirl that could have been mistaken for a mixed strike.  1998 *O’ Brien A Red Cod and a Conger Eel* 126 On the second day they went wide for skippies and got about five each.  2008 *NZFN* 31: 7. 99 There are still sporadic schools of skippies around the Bay, so a top-up of the freezer is always on the cards.

SLED.  n.  abbrev.  Sea Lion Excluder Device, apparatus used by the squid fishery to hinder the entrance of sea lions into trawl nets or to allow escape.  2000-2001 *Sanford Limited Triple Bottom Line Report* 9 The SLED allows the sea lions to escape from the trawl nets, without the loss of fish.  2004 *Johnson Hooked* 486 The industry has risen to the challenge with solutions to the by-catch of seabirds developed by Southern Seabird Solutions; and sleds, an innovative method of releasing sea lions, caught in nets.  2005 *Sanford Limited Annual and Sustainable Development Report* 60 A device called a Sea Lion Excluder Device (SLED) is minimising the negative consequences of these interactions.  2007 *Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species* 12 The industry has led many initiatives such as the development and use of voluntary codes of practice and development of fishing gear modifications like Brady bird bafflers, tori scaring lines, and SLEDs (Sea Lion Excluder Devices) which release sea lions and seals alive from trawl nets.

slimy.  n.  BLUE MACKEREL, *Scomber australasicus.* Also in the form slimey mackerel.  See also English mackerel, mackerel, and tawatawa.  1984 *NZFN* 7: 3. 5 The predominance of white flesh in a slimy fillet marks it as being an excellent meal, if eaten fresh.  1984 *NZFN* 7: 3. 5 Slimies are a very common fish around much of our northern coastline and yet surprisingly few people seem to know of their existence.  1990 *NZFN* 13: 6. 7 Live slimy or jack mackerel can certainly turn the trick sometimes.  1993 *Mossman Serious about Sportfishing* 146 Blue mackerel (better known to fishos as slimy mackerel) are rather tuna-like in shape (in fact strictly speaking they are a type of tuna), iridescent blue-green on top with a distinctive wavy pattern and no scutes.

SMEEF.  n.  abbrev.  Strategy to Manage the Environmental Effects of Fishing, a government initiative to plan for minimising the environmental damage caused by fishing.  2005 *AJHR* C20: 14 This year, we completed our Strategy to Manage the Environmental Effects of Fishing (SMEEF) which we will implement from 2005/06 onwards.  2005 *Press Release: Forest and Bird* November 08.  www.scoop.co.nz/stories/PO0511/S00066.htm. The Ministry of Fisheries has released their Strategy for the Management of the Environmental Effects of Fishing (SMEEF).  2008 *Taranaki Regional Council Biodiversity Strategy* 17 The SMEEF describes how to set environmental limits around fishing management and how to manage fishing’s footprint on other species, and on marine habitats and ecosystems.

smooth oreo.  n.  *Pseudocyttus maculatus* of the Oreosomatidae family, a grey, large-eyed Southern Hemisphere fish, with a less angular body than other orees, which is taken in commercial trawls.  See also deep sea dory.  1978 *NZFN* 1: 1. 19 In recent weeks Russian fishermen working in New Zealand waters have caught 50 rare Smooth Orees.  1986 *AJHR* C6: 4 Ten new leaflets were produced, many dealing with ‘newer’ species such as smooth oreo dory, creamfish and black oreo dory.  2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 77 Smooth oreo *Pseudocyttus maculatus ...* Mid grey, with small fish having dark spots on the back.  2007 *Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species* 101 Smooth oreo are caught year-round by deep-sea trawling along the Chatham Rise and in the south-eastern area of the EEZ.
snapper.  n. [AND 1699] Chrysophrys auratus of the Sparidae family, a reddish pink fish with pale blue spots, common in the North Island, which is an important commercial catch, and eagerly sought by anglers. Also in the form schnapper. See also big red, coalfish, bream, brim, GOLDEN SNAPPER, red snapper, school snapper, settler, and tamure.

1807 Savage Some Account of New Zealand 11 The snapper and bream are uncommonly fine— the crayfish and crabs excellent … 1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand i 88 They brought with them some fish, which Europeans call snappers, and these weighed generally from twelve to twenty pounds each, being of a pleasant flavour, and very nutritious. 1842 Wade Journey in the Northern Island of New Zealand 180 Some snappers which the lads had caught furnished us with a hearty supper, and some boards of the wreck, spread upon the rocks, supplied a sleeping floor … 1845 Wakefield Adventure in New Zealand i 156 We caught in two hours enough snapper to last the whole ship's company for many days. 1888 Barlow Kaipara 130 The schnapper fisherman files the barbs off his hooks, that, they may readily be extracted from the fishes' mouths … 1960 Doogue & Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers' Guide 165 Our snapper is called Chrysophrys auratus and because the Australian snapper is very closely related to our fish it too is included in the genus Chrysophrys as Chrysophrys unicolor. 1981 NZFN 3: 11. 5 Captain Cook named the "snapper" in 1770 when he saw one and mistook it for a member of the true northern snapper family. 1983 AJHR C6: 22 Orange roughy ($23.6 million) displaced snapper ($18.4 million) as the most important fin fish, maintaining its climb in value on the U.S and Australian markets. 2008 Mossman Snapper 7 If New Zealand has an iconic sea fish, there can be little doubt that it is the snapper.

snodgall.  n. SILVERSIDE, Argentina elongata, [regional, Otago]. See also silverfish. 1938 TrNZI 68 402 18. Argentina elongata … silverside (snodgall). 1940 Phillips The Fishes of New Zealand 45 According to Thomson and Anderton the silverside is common along the Otago Coast being called silver fish or snodgall by the local fishermen. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 121 Although Silverside is the correct name, almost all fishermen continue to call this fish Snodgall but none has been able to tell me how the name originated.

snot eel.  n. BLIND EEL, Eptatretus cirrhatus and an occasional name for LING, Genypterus blacodes. See also hagfish and tuere. 1981 NZFN 3: 4. 8 Haul your line every 1½ hours; leave it any longer and you find that the only thing left on the line is a groper skin (the work of Hagfish or "snot-eels"). 1998 Hargreaves On the Next Tide 84 Most of the fish we catch we can sell, apart from a few things like snot-eels, skates and carpet sharks. 2004 Garbes and Garbes Kaioura Fishermen 81 They also caught blue cod, trumpeter, and ling commonly known as "snot fish" because of their slimy covering, but at that time ling were worthless.

soldierfish.  n. any of various red fish, especially SCARLET WRASSE, and species of Helicolenus. Frequently in the form soldier.

1842 Gray Fauna in Dieffenbach Travels in New Zealand ii 1843 (1974) 218 Fam. Labroideae Julis miles … Named the 'Soldier' by the seamen who accompanied Cook on his second voyage. 1869 North Otago Times August 27. 4 Some little time ago there was washed up on the beach near the landing-place a strange fish, to which we are unable to give a name, though we have heard it termed a "soldier fish". 1874 Otago Witness March 21. 6 The handsome soldier fish was very abundant, and when three or four were found swimming about, their bright crimson colour might momentarily deceive one into the belief he had dropped upon a gold-fish pond. 1902 Otago Witness April 23. 56 Some [parrotfish] are green, others are red, and others again are striped with various colours, so that we call the green ones marines, the red ones soldiers, and the others according to the tartans they wear. 1931 AJHR H15: 33 Sea-perch, or soldier (Helicolenus peroices): the stomachs contained young fish of their own species, pigfish and sprats. 1949 Phillipps Native Fishes 48 Around Wellington this common species is generally referred to as red spotty, while I have heard fishermen call it red soldier or soldier, a name used first of all by Captain
Cook. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 344 The name Soldierfish is derived from the similarities of this fish to the activities of a soldier or picket on sentinel duty. 1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 241

**Other names:** Pseudolabrus coccineus; soldier, red soldierfish; pau, puwaiwhakarua (Maori).

**sole. n.**
Any of several fish of the Pleuronectidae family, right-eyed flatfishes valued as food. See also common, English, lemon, and New Zealand sole.

1835 Yate An Account of New Zealand 71 Those most plentiful and of greatest note, are, soles, mackarel, cod-fish, a species of salmon, whiting, snapper, mullet, bream, skate, gurnards, and a few smaller kinds ... 1893 NZOYB 230 The following is a list of the fishes which are chiefly met with in the market: Hapuku, kahawai .. flounder or patiki, sole ... 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 140 There are two families of flatfishes in New Zealand: left-eyed flounders (Bothidae), and right-eyed flounders (Pleuronectidae). Some of the latter are called soles, but they are not closely related to the true soles (family Soleidae) of the Northern Hemisphere.

**southern blue whiting.** n. *Micromesistius australis*, of the Gadidae family, a spotted blue grey fish with elongated body which is fished commercially.

1978 Commercial Fishing December 15 There is little or no experience in marketing hoki, southern blue whiting and some of the newer deeper water species which have been caught by foreign fishermen. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 56 Southern blue whiting *Micromesistius australis* ... A Southern Hemisphere species, known from southeastern New Zealand and southern South America ... 2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 135 Southern Blue Whiting have three dorsal and two anal fins that distinguish the species from small Hake.

**southern hake.** n. ROCK COD, *Lotella rhacina*. See also Cloudy Bay Cod and hake 1.

1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 172 ROCK COD or SOUTHERN HAKE *Lotella rhacina* 1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide 198 Other names: *Lotella rhacina*; Cloudy Bay cod, southern hake.

**southern kingfish.** n. GEMFISH, *Rexea* (formerly *Jordanidia*) solandri. See also hake.

1912 TrNzI 45. 229 The southern kingfish appears in the “Index Faunae Novae-Zelandiae” .. and by that name I have recorded it in the list of fishes found in Otago Harbour. 1938 TrNzI 68. 415 *Jordanidia solandri* (Cuv. and Val.). Southern kingfish (hake). 1957 Parrott Sea Angler’s Fishes of New Zealand 155 When freshly taken from the water the Southern kingfish is an attractively coloured fish, it is iridescent blue above, silvery beneath, with a deep black spot on the 1st dorsal fin between the 1st and 3rd spines, and with the fin narrowly edged with black. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 121 Gemfish *Rexea solandri* ... New Zealand names include silver or southern kingfish and hake.

**southern pigfish.** n. *Congiopodus leucopaecilus* of the Congiopodidae family, a pinky brown fish found around rocky South Island coasts which is infrequently taken on line.

1922 NzlScT 5. 95 *Congiopodus leucopaecilus*. Southern Pigfish. An attempt to sell this species under the name of ‘silver trumpeter’ in Christchurch was unsuccessful. 1974 N.Z Journal of Marine and Freshwater Research 8: 4. 611 The southern pigfish is a small .. teleost which lives around the shallow rocky coast of south-eastern New Zealand. 1988 Francis Coastal Fishes of New Zealand 24 Southern pigfish are usually seen resting on the bottom often nestled in seaweed or against rocks. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 100 Southern Pigfish *Congiopodus leucopaecilus* ... Restricted to the cooler coastal waters of the South Island.

**southern right whale.** n. RIGHT WHALE, *Balaena glacialis*. See also black whale and tohoroa.

1909 Evening Post February 25. 3 A southern right whale yields 5cwt of whalebone. Some have given 15cwt, and the prices for southern whalebone range from £800 to £1050 a ton. 2007 Hutching. ‘Whales’, *Te Ara - the Encyclopedia of New Zealand*, updated 21-September 2007
Ropes instead of sticks could be put out in the spat catching areas at the beginning of the settlement season and left to catch whatever settlement eventuates. 1985 Catch November 3 The communal spat catching area may not have adequate depth to allow the lower catching and holding techniques which may be necessary to ensure spat survival. 1979 AJHR C6: 17 The spatfall forecasting service has continued and the board again organised communal spat catching lines. 1981 AJHR C6: 20 Spatfall forecasting was initially developed by the board, but is now performed by the ministry, and communal spat catching lines in favourable sites, originally managed by the board have now been taken over by the Marine Farmers' Association. 2004 Johnson Hooked 436 He then organised communal spat-catchig lines.

**southern spider crab.** *n.*
Jacquinotia edwardsii of the Majidae family, a large, blotchy red-brown endemic crab which has been experimentally harvested. Formerly known as spider crab. See also giant spider crab.

1970 AJHR H15a: 20 Quantities of the southern spider crab (*Jacquinotia edwardsii*) were caught by potting. 1974 Catch May 17 Rock lobster and paua fisheries have stabilised, and new fisheries for southern spider crabs and seaweeds are being developed. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 154 Also known as the southern spider crab and Auckland Islands crab.

**Spanish lace.** *n.*
Mesh used in cultivating mussels on ropes.

2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 24 They also pioneered the commercial use of Spanish binding mesh, which New Zealand mussel farmers quickly came to know as Spanish lace. 2004 ibid. 103 Initially Spanish lace was made with rayon, but that was replaced with nylon which suited the continental blue mussels better, and then the remnants of lace had to be cut away from the ropes.

**spat catching,** specific usage in combination; **spat catching area,** an area designated for the collection of spat; **spat catching lines,** lines which are attached to flotation buoys, spaced at regular intervals, and used for the collection of spat in mussel cultivation.

1972 Watkinson and Smith New Zealand Fisheries 58 The Marine Department has established a spat catching area in the lower Mahurangi River. 1983 Catch February 17 Figure 1 shows settlement from 1980 to 1982 at Clova Bay, one of the industry's communal spat catching areas. 1984 Catch June 18 Ropes instead of sticks could be put out in the form of Spanish lace, lines which are attached to flotation buoys, spaced at regular intervals, and used for the collection of spat in mussel cultivation. 1994 AJHR C6: 20 Spatfall forecasting was initially developed by the board, but is now performed by the ministry, and communal spat catching lines in favourable sites, originally managed by the board have now been taken over by the Marine Farmers' Association. 2004 Johnson Hooked 436 He then organised communal spat-catchig lines.

**spat collector.** *n.*
a person who collects spat for the cultivation of mussels or oysters.

2004 Dawber Lines in the Water 102 By the early 1980s the spat collectors had learned how to chill the product and make transport time less critical... 2004 ibid. 272 In 1994 spat collectors were licensed, and there have been proposals to include the resource in the Quota Management System (QMS) operated by Mfish for other commercial species. 2008 Marine Farming Association Newsletter June 2 It is in Pukenui that all the spat collectors live and have their bases.

**spat farm.** *n.*
a marine area where juvenile mussels (spat) or scallops are caught on lines suspended in the water.

2004 Johnson Hooked 453 One option was to hand over spat production to privately owned spat farms, then seeding zones could remain as controlled fisheries.

2008 Rural Roundup March 11. 16 In terms of effect on amenity values the proposed spat farm in our view will be appropriately sited so as not to conflict with recreation use of the harbour and public access to the beach area.

**spat stick.** *n.*
a fibreglass stick used for collecting spat in the cultivation of oysters. Also, earlier, in the form spatted stick and spatting stick. Also attrib.

1968 AJHR H15: 36 The spatted sticks from these areas are to be used on the rock oyster farms in the growing area to
demonstrate the development of fully integrated production from these units. 1969 *AJHR* H15: 7 Steps were taken to set out spatting stick areas to ensure a continuing supply of young or seedling oysters to rock oyster firms. 1971 Dinamani *Identification of Oyster Species with Rock Oysters for Settlement Space* 6 In January 1971 an occasional oyster that grew considerably larger than the other oysters of the same batch was observed among the spat sticks in Mahurangi, usually one or two per standard bundle of Fibrolite sticks. 1972 *NZOYB* 433 This new industry [oyster farming] is in the process of changing from tray to stick cultivation assisted by a large-scale Government spat-stick catching programme. 1979 *NZFN* 1: 3. 3 The Ministry of Fisheries tried to halt the march of the aggressive newcomers [Pacific oysters] by banning the transport of spat sticks containing breeding stock. 2004 Johnson *Hooked* 448 When spat sticks arrived with both varieties attached, some growers left them out of the water until the lighter-shelled, less hardy Pacific oysters died.

**spider crab.** *n.* SOUTHERN SPIDER CRAB, *Jacquinotia edwardsii* [early usage]. 1871 *TrNZI* 45. 140 Crustaceans abound on our coast. From the active and predatory crayfish down to a minute shrimp, there are many that sport a long tail; while the short-tailed ones, from a large solitary-living spider crab down to a little mite of a thing, no bigger than a pea, are abundant everywhere. 1900 *TrNZI* 33. 576 Professor Benham exhibited a large specimen of a spider crab (*Prionorhynchus edwardsii*), one out of a haul that had recently been obtained by the fish-trawler “Express,” off the Otago Heads, in 23 fathoms of water. 1900 *Otago Witness* April 12. 47 The trawl brought up great quantities of sponges, and a great number of specimens of a new spider crab, measuring 12 in from tip to tip of its slender legs.

**spiky dogfish.** *n.* Spiny dogfish, *Squalis acanthias* of the Squalidae family, a grey brown, sparsely spotted shark which is found mainly in South Island waters where it is not sought by anglers but is of minor commercial interest. Also elliptically spiky. See also dogfish, *koinga* and *okeoke.*

1983 *AJHR* C6: 20 Spiky dogfish has poor eating qualities because of the development of a bitter off-flavour on storage, which is strong in the cooked fish, and because of the soft mushy texture.

2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 31 Spiny dogfish *Squalis acanthias* ... Other names include southern dogfish, spurdog, spineback, or spiky. 2006 *NZMSS* Review 48 In two seasons (Summer & Autumn), seven demersal fish species ... were recorded on the recovering area surveyed, whereas only three species ( ... 91% spiky dogfish *Squalis acanthias*) were recorded on the recently dredged area.

**spotted dogfish.** *n.* GUMMY SHARK, *Mustelus lenticulatus* [until recently thought to be *M. antarcticus*]. See also doggie, dogfish, kini, lemonfish, pioke, and rig. 1960 Doogue & Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 172 Other names: *Mustelus antarcticus*; smooth hound, spotted dogfish, gummy; mango (Maori). 2008 *NZFN* 31. 38 Spotted dogs ... No, not Dalmatians, but spotted dogfish, also called spotted smoothhounds, gummy sharks or (commercially) rig or lemon fish.

**spotted stargazer.** *n.* *Genyagnus monopterygius* of the Uranoscopidae family, an endemic, green brown fish with light oblong spots which is found around New Zealand and is taken in trawls.

1960 Doogue & Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 245 The slender form and colour pattern together with the preference for a river estuary habitat, distinguish [the stargazer] from the spotted stargazer. 1993 *NZFN* 16: 2. 75 To my surprise, a spotted stargazer took a half skipjack tuna head during the evening ... 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 119 Spotted stargazer *Genyagnus monopterygius* ... Apparently restricted to New Zealand. Listed alternative names include catfish and dogfish, both inappropriate. 2007 *Seafood Industry Council* *The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species* 141 Spotted Stargazer (*Genyagnus monopterygius*) is green-brown to grey above and cream to pinkish-white or yellow below and is covered with large creamy-white oval spots.
spotted warehou.  

*SILVER WAREHOU, Seriola punctata.*

See also bastard warehou.

**1977** New Zealand Seafoods: a Buying and Catering Guide 32 Spotted (silver) or deep sea warehou, are magnificent steaked. 1986 Catch

December 13 Alternative common names [for silver warehou] include spotted warehou and bastard warehou, used mainly for small fish. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 137 Also called spotted warehou, and the smallest fish were once known as bastard warehou.

**spotty.  

*Pseudolabrus celidotus* of the Labridae family, a grey-brown, black-spotted shallow water fish commonly caught on wharves and occasionally eaten. Occasionally, other small, spotted marine fish. See also butterfish 2, guffy, kelpie, and paketi.

**1877** Thompson in Sherrin, Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand (1886) 92

The spotty, or butter-fish of our local fishermen, has been very plentiful this year, and has been brought to town in large numbers at times. 1886 Otago Witness December 17. 27 There are various other kinds of fish which afford good sport, such as elephant fish, horse mackerel, gurnard, and spotty, &c. This last named fish is the bete noir of all small boys fishing from wharves ...

**1935** AJHR H15: 22 Wrasse and spotty have been in great abundance ...

1957 Parrott Sea Angler’s Fishes of New Zealand 132 The young are marked with indistinct band. The majority of specimens however, have the dark patch on the lateral line more or less distinct and the series of dark spots on the upper part of the body, and from these markings the fish has received the name of Spotty. 1980 NZFN 2: 4. 22

Children catch spotties and other marine life by the bucketful and take it home to die and rot. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 107 Spotties are very edible, but at the end of the day the main beneficiaries of these fishing expeditions are probably the resident wharf seagulls and the family cat.

**sprat.  

*Sprattus antipodum* or *Sprattus muelleri* of the Clupeidae family, thin bodied blue green fish with a line of sharp scales which are caught for bait. Occasionally refers to YELLOW-EYED MULLET, *Aldrichetta forsteri.* See also kupae.

1848 *Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle* November 18. 149

Sprat or Sardine *Aua.* 1886 Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes of New Zealand 94 Sprats are called kupai by the Natives at the Thames, and are found in great abundance-in tons, Mr. Masefield says-in the early months of the year in the Kaipara waters. 1927 AJHR H15: 23 On one occasion (in January) the lighthouse-keeper at Cape Saunders informed me by telephone that large quantities of sprats were being washed ashore. 1956 Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 103 I have witnessed many discussions among Otago fishermen as to the separation of the Sprat from the Pilchard and the older fishermen always finalised the argument as follows: (1) If a Sprat is held by the dorsal fin, the head will fall downwards. 1986 NZFN 9: 1. 11 The four most common baits in New Zealand are yellow-eyed mullet (also called sprats or herring) jack mackerel .. koheru .. and blue or slimy mackerel.

**square.  

*SAND FLOUNDER, Rhombosolea plebeia.* See also dab, diamond, patiki, tinplate, and three corner.


**stalling.  

*vbl n.*  

an illegal fishing practice involving the use of staked nets to prevent others from taking fish.

**1909** AJHR H15: 8 In one case the Inspector at Auckland found a boat containing flounders which had recently been taken by stalling. 1914 AJHR H15c: 12 The question as to the desirability of legalizing stalling, or the use of staked nets in the estuaries and tidal inlets of the Auckland district was brought before me on several occasions. 1918 AJHR H15: 6 The following proceedings have been taken for breaches of the Fisheries Act … H. Hayward, M. Hayward, and J. Duffy, for stalling – each fined £5 and costs (forfeited nets were returned on payment of £5). 1919 AJHR H28: 6 They asked to
be allowed to use nets up to 600 fathoms in length. We can see no objection to this, so long as the regulation preventing “stalling” is complied with, and we recommend that the regulation be amended to permit nets up to 600 fathoms in length being used. 2004 Johnson Hooked 81 Six prosecutions of fishermen for not having their licence numbers painted on their mainsails, two for assaulting an inspector of fisheries and two for ‘stalling’ – placing a net so as to block a channel and falling tide or someone else’s net — showed that Ayson and his men were getting a grip on the situation.

**stargazer. n.** any of various fishes of the Leptoscopidae and Uranoscopidae families, big-headed fish with eyes on the top of the head, but especially *Leptoscopus macropygus*, which frequents shallow waters and estuaries. See also GIANT and SPOTTED STARGAZER. 1928 *TnZNi* 58. 133 The star-gazer (*Leptoscopus macropygus*) is one of our common food-fishes. It is most abundant on the large stretch of sandy trawling area off Westport, Hokitika and Greymouth, being commonly seen exposed for sale in the latter town. 1956 Graham *Treasury of New Zealand Fishes* 280 The Stargazer is seldom used for food but is edible and I have found the flesh of good flavour. 1960 Doogue & Moreland *New Zealand Sea Anglers’ Guide* 15 Stargazers are slow and cumbersome swimmers and spend much of their time buried in sediment with only the eyes and capacious upturned mouth exposed. 1977 *New Zealand Seafoods: a Buying and Catering Guide* 22 Monkfish are sometimes called stargazer because of their upward looking eyes. 2000 Paul *New Zealand Fishes* 119 Stargazer *Leptoscopus macropygus*.

**State Loan and Mortgage Guarantee Scheme. n.** a government scheme allowing for loans to fishermen to buy fishing gear. 1972 Watkinson and Smith *New Zealand Fisheries* 7 In 1965 the Government instituted a State Loan and Mortgage Guarantee Scheme to enable fishermen to purchase new fully equipped fishing vessels. 1974 *Commercial Fishing* April 1: 3 15 The State Loan and Mortgage Guarantee Scheme for the Fishing Industry was introduced by Government on 30 August 1965 for the acquisition of new fishing vessels, engines, gear, and equipment.

**Stewart Island oyster. n.** BLUFF OYSTER, *Tiostrea luteria*. Also attrib. See also dredge, and Foveaux Strait oyster. 1872 *Otago Witness* July 13. 8 The Stewart’s Island oyster has an established reputation for superior excellence in every market it has been introduced into; in Melbourne it commands a higher price than any other … 1899 *Evening Post* February 15. 7 Stewart Island oysters at the SILVER GRID, Cuba-Street, Fresh Daily. 1937 Powell *The Shellfish of New Zealand* 20 The Stewart Island oyster industry is by far the larger, but it is an exclusively southern industry, as the so-called Stewart Island oyster does not exist in workable quantities outside of Foveaux Strait. 1975 *Catch* September 3 The history of the Stewart Island oyster is one of variable catches, scientific studies, licensing, and Government restrictions. 2004 Holmes *Hook it and Cook it* 18 The world’s worst [seafood cocktail] is to be found in a five-star New Zealand hotel where they chop one Stewart Island oyster into little pieces, drop the pieces into tomato sauce, and serve with a happy smile.

**stick farm. n.** an area of government-run rock oyster cultivation. 1971 *Commercial Fishing* October 23 A start was made on building the departmental stick farms at Te Tii, Orongo Bay, and Te Kouma Harbour on the Coromandel peninsula. 1972 *AJHR* H15: 37 When the stick farms are fully stocked with caught sticks and deep creek with concrete slabs, it is anticipated that the farms will sustain production without recourse to natural oysters.

**stick oyster. n.** a rock oyster cultivated on fibro sticks. 1971 *AJHR* H15: 39 Stick oysters caught in the Kapa River, Mahurangi Harbour in 1968 and set out to grow in Orongo Bay, Bay of Islands, were sold during the year. These regularly shaped light shelled oysters were well received in Auckland. 1973 *AJHR* C5: 85 Significant numbers of stick oysters will reach the market in 1973. 1974 *Catch* July 20 Quite significant numbers of stick oysters were
now being marketed, Mr Roadley said, but problems had arisen in separating the thinner-shelled stick oysters from the fibro stick.

**stingaree. n.**  
[AND 1830] any of various stingrays of New Zealand waters, especially *Dasyatis breviceadatus* and *D. thetidis*. See also whai and whai-repo.  
1849 *New Zealand Spectator and Cook Strait Guardian* November 28. 2 A native of Uruhi .. was fishing for snappers along the beach; he waded up to his knees in order to throw out his line, when he suddenly trod upon a Wai or Stingaree which struck him in the leg with its tail; from the poisonous nature of the wound the poor fellow died in a quarter of an hour.  
1859 Thomson *The Story of New Zealand* 152 Every fish found in the surrounding sea is eaten by the natives, except the shark, from which teeth are obtained for ornament; portions of the stingaree; and one or two red-coloured fish, which are said to be poisonous.  
1888 Barlow *Kaipara* 133 .. a fish called the *Stingarie*, doubtless a corruption of *Stinging Ray*.  
1903 *Otago Witness* December 16. 55 A stingaree, weighing between 70lb and 80lb, caught in a fisherman’s nets near Day’s Bay was on view in a fishmonger’s shop, Wellington, a few days ago.  
1962 *JPS* 71: 4. 402 The beach was lined with several hundred yards of fish-drying frames made of *manuka* poles. In the late spring these frames, last used about 1890, were loaded with sharks (*mango*) and stingarees (*whai* or *roha*).

**stone cultivation. n.**  
oyster cultivation utilising stone walls.  
1970 *AJHR* H15: 36 The department has several stone cultivation areas in Kaipara Harbour.  
1971 *Commercial Fishing* October 23 As an aid to the industry the department confined its picking to the stone cultivations in Kaipara Harbour and to the other artificial structures, leaving all natural supplies for private farmers.

**stripey. n.**  
striped marlin, *Tetrapturus audax*.  
1970 *Bay of Islands Swordfish Club* 4 Mrs Margaret Williams poses with her fine stripey that won her a world record; our striped marlin stakes, and a 400 club pin.  
1981 *NZFN* 3: 5. 3 Barry also broke the world record for a stripey on 6kg line.  
2006 *New Zealand Herald* February 03.  
D19 Dad landed and weighted a 121kg striped marlin, snared a 210kg blue and tagged and released another stripey over the period of a week.

**sub-surfacing. vbl n.**  
the dropping of lines deep enough to minimise the settlement of blue mussels in green mussel aquaculture.  
2004 *Dawber Lines in the Water* 301 Although it was practised by some farmers throughout the 1980s, it wasn’t until the late 1990s that sub-surfacing was widely carried out in the Pelorus Sound.

**surf crab. n.**  
PADDLE CRAB, *Ovalipes catharus*. See also swimming crab.  
2000 *Paul New Zealand Fishes* 155 Also commonly known as paddle crab, sometimes surf crab.

**sweeping the beach. vbl n.**  
[of trawlers] fishing very close to the shore.  
1979 *NZFN* 1: 9. 2 It seems that the practice of “sweeping the beach” is growing among local fishermen.  
1981 *NZFN* 3: 2. 2 At least it would stop the iniquitous practice of pair trawlers “sweeping the beach” under the noses of the infuriated sport fisherman who have spent the day returning undersize snapper to the surf-only to see them end up in the trawl, and on their way to the Fiji fishmarket.  
1982 *NZFN* 5: 5. 21 I refer to that insidious practice (which I believe to be illegal) of “sweeping the beach” the night before a major fishing contest.  
1984 *NZFN* 7: 10. 6 In recent years, commercial trawlers have been fighting close to shore and frequently “sweeping the beach” at night.

**swimming crab. n.**  
PADDLE CRAB, *Ovalipes catharus*. See also surf crab.  
1874 *Otago Witness* August 15. 8 The following are the presentations to the Museum during the month of July .. Mr Hastie; a kaka .. Mr A. G. Allan; a swimming crab ...  
1912 *TrNZI* 45. 227 Over 150 stomachs have been examined, and among the contents were red-cod, mackerel, warehou, soles, pig-fish, octopus, squid, whale-feed (*Munida*), swimming-crabs ...  
1979 *Catch* September 3 There may be enough swimming crabs around New Zealand to
support a commercial fishery ... 

**2000** Paul New Zealand Fishes 155 Swimming crabs appear to be more abundant around the North Island, but grow to a larger size at South Island localities.

**swordie. n.** swordfish, *Xiphias gladius.* Also attrib. Also in the form *swordy.*

**1928** NZFSG 1: 4. 9 He seems to know every movement of these denizens of the deep, and it is due to this expert that when once a "swordie" is hooked, the fish has little chance of escaping. **1949** Sea Spray June 28 The yacht Ngairimu recently made a cruise to the Swordfish grounds off Tauranga and landed three "swordies" weighing from 250 to 300lbs. **1950** NZFSG 18: 4. 22 This "swordie"s tactics were fairly normal, but twice we thought he was lost. **1963** Sutherland *Maui and Me* 120 My first run down Whangaroa harbour was exciting in itself, as was the realisation that for the first time in my life I was aboard a swordie-boat, to use the affectionate generic name of the big game charter craft. **1980-1981** Bay of Islands Swordfish Club 14 Lots of orders and suggestions for Pete, who has not caught a swordy yet.

**TACC. n.** abbrev. TOTAL ALLOWABLE COMMERCIAL CATCH.

**1992** AJHR C5: 23 Total Allowable Commercial Catch – undertaking reviews of total allowable commercial catch (TACCs) and other management controls. **1997** AJHR C20: 11 By 30 June 1997, work was well advanced for the Minister to make TACC decisions for the start of the 1997/98 fishing season on 1 October. **2000** Paul New Zealand Fishes 190 The term TACC (Total Allowable Commercial Catch) was also introduced in 1990. **2005** Heberley *Ordinary Women* 17 Expressed as a tonnage, a TACC is the aggregate limit imposed on commercial removals from a fish stock. **2008** Taranaki Daily News August 23. 09 A healthy fishing industry, both financially and environmentally, relies on the TACC being set correctly, as from there everything should flow smoothly.

**tai. n.** high quality SNAPPER exported frozen to Japan. Occasionally in the form *tai pack.* See also ceremonial snapper.

**1969** *AJHR* H15a: 15 A few New Zealand companies have continued to pack the special whole snapper (Tai) for Japan. **1976** AJHR C6: 19 The Japanese market for whole snapper (tai pack) remained depressed and erratic through the 1974-75 season and consequently exports of fin fish to Japan in 1975 were similar to the low levels of 1974. **1990** NZFN 13: 2. 8 The Tai is an important ceremonial dish for which snapper is a ready substitute. **2004** Johnson *Hooked* 189 By 1968 Sanford and several other New Zealand exporters were expanding the market for the small whole frozen ceremonial snapper, known as tai.

**taiapure. n.** [Ma. tāiapure] coastal fishing area of cultural importance to a local iwi or hapu. Also attrib. **1990** NZOYB 477 The Act provides for the establishment of tāiapure- local, coastal or estuarine fisheries - that have customarily been of special significance to any iwi or hapu as a source of food or for special spiritual or cultural reasons. **1996** AJHR C6: 8 In May, 1995, six years after the passing of the Maori Fisheries Act, the Minister of Fisheries announced the establishment of the country's first two tāiapure (local fisheries). **1999** *Hi Ika* July 1 The Minister acknowledged the tāiapure applicant's desire to protect customary fisheries from the effects of fishing outside the tāiapure. **2000** Paul New Zealand Fishes 193 Maori take the lead role in establishing and managing tāiapure. **2008** Rural Bulletin October 4 They allow tangata whenua to become involved in managing commercial and non-commercial fishing in the tāiapure-local fishery.

**tail at sea.** v. to remove and retain the tails from recently caught crayfish while aboard the catching vessel. Occasionally as n., crayfish which has had its tail removed at sea. Also attrib. **1969** Commercial Fishing September 13 The provision that crayfish must be landed live instead of being tailed at sea or frozen whole before landing resulted from the research. **1983** *Catch* February 21 These figures do not appear to support the argument that there is a processing differential between tailed at sea and tailed on shore of around $1.50 and $2.00 per kg to the fisherman's disadvantage. **1984**
the only method of ascertaining the legal size of rock lobsters, except in the "tailing at sea" area was made. 1982 Commercial Fishing August 5 Mr Duncan MacIntyre has recently announced that rock lobster tails caught in the unique "tailing-at-sea" area be frozen until 1 October 1983. 1987 AJHR C6: 30 New tailing knives of a similar design are also being evaluated by fishermen in the tailing-at-sea area.

tailing at sea. vbl n. removing and retaining tails from crayfish while still aboard the catching vessel. Frequently attrib.

1968 Commercial Fishing May 20 If this illegal dealing was not stopped the Government might remove Southland’s exemption from the tailing at sea regulations. 1970 Commercial Fishing October 13 The fisheries section of the Marine Department was pushing for the abolition of southern tailing-at-sea provisions on two main counts… 1970 Commercial Fishing October 13 When Mr Cunningham was questioned on his 'no-tailing-at-sea' recommendation at the federation's conference, practical men were disturbed that, as Director of Fisheries, he had closed his mind to other opinions and openly stated that he held a different view, said Mr Davies. 1972 Watkinson and Smith New Zealand Fisheries 55 With the exception of the remote Fiordland area, tailing at sea is not allowed. 1972 Commercial Fishing November 15 Early in 1972 the Fishing Industry Board requested an investigation of the quality of rock lobster tails, with particular emphasis on the respective merits of tailing-on-land (TOL) versus tailing-at-sea (TAS). 2004 Johnson Hooked 198 Some fishermen, particularly those with experience in Fiordland, called for tailing at sea.

tailing at sea area. n. an area of sea where it is legal to remove and retain the tails from crayfish while still aboard the catching vessel.

1968 Commercial Fishing May 11 The proposed prohibition of factory ships except in the "tailing at sea" area. 1971 Commercial Fishing February 9 In the tailing at sea area the carapace is not mentioned and therefore the use of a carapace length cannot be adopted for universal use throughout the country. 1980 Catch June 7 A call for MAF to immediately adopt the carapace length as the only method of ascertaining the legal

tamure. n. [Ma. tāmure] SNAPPER, Chrysophrys auratus. Also in the form tamuri. See also moocher, panny, and tai.

1843 Dieffenbach Travels in New Zealand ii (1974) 385 Tamuri – the snapper fish. 1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 384 The tamure, (or snapper) and the kahawai, (mackerel,) were taken with a hook attached to a piece of the haliotis shell; being deceived by its resemblance to a fish, they are easily caught. 1870 AJHR D9: 5 Snapper, Tamuri (Dagrus unicolor), - Common fish in summer, caught outside the surf and in the harbour, from 1 lb. to 6 lbs. 1908 Hamilton Fishing and Sea-foods of the Ancient Maori 53 . a large sinker is required to take the baited hook down quickly through the shoals of tamure, of little account in comparison with their fat neighbours of the greater depths. 1933 JPS 42: 167. 153 For example, the larger hooks would be used for dogfish and hapuka fishing, and the medium sizes for catching snapper (tamure), while the smaller sizes were for catching smaller fish, such as gurnard etc. 1981 NZFN 3: 11. 5 The fish is common in American waters but is only a distant relative to our "tamure" or "chrysophrys auratus", as the Maoris and the scientists like to call him.

tanekaha, [Ma. tānekaha] in combination; tanekaha rod, a fishing rod made with a strong and pliable, native timber.

1927 NZFSG 1: 2. 10 Going to the other extreme, give a man a Nottingham reel and Tanekaha rod, with a 400 to deal with- that will test his skill and experience to the limit, and he will require all his resources to outwit the fish and bring it to gaff … 1929 NZFSG 2: 5. 12 Miss Ap. Roger was fishing with the single hook and her rod was a tanekaha one, made from the native tree bearing that same name. 1980 NZFN 2: 2. 14 According to Robert Aukett of Dargaville the two used tanekaha rods and Andreas reels.
1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 19 The fifth was Tawirimatea, the father of the winds; and the last was Tangaroa, the father of all fish, and the great god of the ocean.  1904 Tregear The Maori Race 189 Men carrying the net to the canoe had to be naked for fear that a morsel of cooked food might have touched their garments and so defiled them, and Tangaroa the Sea-god would be angry.  1926 TrRNZIf 56. 597 On the coast, the value of his domain did not cease at high-water mark, but extended to the coast, the value of his domain did not.

\[\text{taniwha.  n.} \]
[Ma. taniwha] a legendary monster inhabiting the water.  
1842 Wade Journey in the Northern Island of New Zealand 34 Hearing us use the word tapu, as we looked towards it, one of our boatmen quickly repeated that the place was tapped for the tanewa, (a water demon.).  1851 New Zealander April 9. 3 If a canoe be upset, it is the Taniwha seeking for victims.  1904 JPS 13: 2. 94 This taniwha, Tutae-poroporo, was originally a fish of the sea, that is, a shark.  1963 Commercial Fishing October 30 As far as I can gather from stories passed on down through the years, the so-called taniwha was really a big swordfish with a shoal of trevally.

tap.  v.  to locate toheroa by tapping the sand with a hollowed out stick and listening for the type of sound which ensues. Also tapping vbl n.  
1979 NZFN 1: 6. 6 Did you know that the Maoris up north "tap" for toheroa with hollow sticks? … Noted North Shore fisherman Colin "Collywobbles" Goodson stumbled on a toheroa-tapping party when he was in the far North last season.  1981 NZFN 3: 12. 3 Don't go tapping for toheroa as the ancient Maori way with a stick.  1983 Hohepa The Best of Bill Hohepa 68 Go toheroaing and he'll tap you to the biggest bed with his hollow stick.

tarakihi.  n.  [Ma. tarakihi] Nemadactylus macropterus, of the Cheilodactylidae family, a silver-grey fish with an opalescent sheen and a distinctive dark band across the neck which occurs throughout New Zealand and is an important commercial and recreational catch. Also in the form teraki and terakihi.  Also attrib.  
1849 Hursthouse An Account of the Settlement of New Plymouth 25 The best are the Hapuka, weighing from 30 to 70 lbs.; the Tarakihi, the Moki, and the Kawai …  1870 AJHR D9: 3 Bream, or Tarakihi (Cheilodactylus aspersus). - This fish does not appear to be common in the harbour, except in the young state, but it is obtained outside, weighing 3 to 4 lbs.  1906 Wanganui Herald December 04. 7
terakihi is very tasty and when properly salted and smoked is even richer in flavour. The smoked terakihi sold at Yarow's is cured in his own smokehouse.

1924 Ayson New Zealand Fish and Fisheries 14 The known terakihi-grounds extend from Foveaux Strait to north of Auckland on the east coast. 1949 AJHR H15: 31 The principal terakihi fisheries are on the east coast south of East Cape, though significant quantities are taken on the Auckland east coast and in Bay of Plenty and a smaller quantity on the west coast of the South Island. 1979 Commercial Fishing September 21 Not long ago some fishermen told me that the Government's fishing policy reminded them of a terakihi washed up on the beach — for the first hour or so it lies there glistening and shining in the sunlight. But the longer it lies there, the more it stinks.

2006 Air New Zealand Magazine January 55 But if the chef's vote is for firm-fleshed snapper, economics has made the longer it lies there, the more it stinks. 2006 Air New Zealand Magazine January 55 But if the chef's vote is for firm-fleshed snapper, economics has made the

The Old-time Maori

1893 TRNZI 26. 429 The taruke is a basket for taking koura, or crayfish. 1902 TRNZI 35. 77 The taruke would appear also to have been used for taking salt-water crayfish. 1919 Poata The Maori as a Fisherman and his Methods 24 There are several ways of catching the crayfish. The most popular ways amongst the Maoris are by diving and using the taruke or pot. 1927 Best Fishing Methods 61 The taruke as used on the East Coast is a wickerwork trap of round or ovoid form, made of slim manuka rods. 1938 Makereti The Old-time Maori 231 The taruke is a lobster pot which the Maori use in taking the sea crayfish (koura), and some of these pots were very large.

Tasman Bay oyster.  n.

BLUFF OYSTERS when they are commercially harvested in Tasman and Golden Bays.

1969 Commercial Fishing July 19 Nelson Fish merchants were "deluged" by New Zealand-wide demands for Tasman Bay oysters following the sudden closing of the Bluff beds in May. 1973 Fisheries Newsletter September 8 This category does not include rock, Foveaux Strait or Tasman Bay oysters. 1975 Catch May 10 Good catches of Tasman Bay oysters have been reported. 1981 NZFN 3: 4. 1 The Tasman Bay rock oyster was another example of an endangered species that needed help...

tate.  n.

[Ma. tātere] a type of dogfish utilised by early Maori for its teeth. Also in the form tatare.

1891 TRNZI 24. 447 You also ask what instrument was used for cutting off the head of the mako. What, indeed! Why, the saw made of the teeth of the tatere shark firmly fixed on to a wooden blade. 1904 Tregear The Maori Race 246 The cutting was done with a knife (mira-tuatini) edged with the sharp triangular teeth of the tatere shark, these teeth being fixed into a wooden blade. 1923 JPS 32: 127. 132 Tatere or tate was an implement of the same type formed from the teeth of the tatere (dog-fish), but was much less prized than the tuatini.

taumaka.  n.


1933 TRNZI 63. 336 Recently I received a similar specimen from Mr A. Blackwell, of Tryphenia, Great Barrier Island, which confirms the specific distinction of these forms from the well-known "taumaka" of the Maoris, hitherto the only species of Acanthoclinus known in New Zealand. 1947 JPS 56: 1. 49 Taumaka, Acanthoclinus quadridactylus (Ngai Tahu). 1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers' Guide 265 ROCKFISH ... Other names: Acanthoclinus quadridactylus; rock cod, butterfish; taumaka (Maori).

tauranga ika.  n.

[Ma. tauranga ika] fishing ground. Also in the form taunga ika.

1922 JPS 31: 121. 55 His [the hapuku] memory was therefore preserved — and
perhaps still is — in the name of the particular fishing ground (taunga-ika) which was known as “Kai-aho.” 1934 Best The Maori As He Was 253 They were assigned special names, and when folk went out a fishing they located the taunga ika, or fishing-ground, by lining objects on land, hill-peaks, promontories, trees, &c. 1995 AJHR C6: 10 Issues have included discussion on the relationship between maitaitai reserves, tauranga ika, taipure and wider fisheries management issues.

tawatawa. n. [Ma. tawatawa] BLUE MACKEREL, Scomber australasicus. See also English mackerel, mackerel, and slimey.

1848 Taylor Leaf from the Natural History of New Zealand 16 Tawatawa, mackerel. 1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 413 As the skin of the tawatawa when caught, so is the skin of the man when slain. 1874 TrNZI 7. 247 Scomber australasicus, C. and V., is caught in large numbers on dark nights in spring between Wangarei and the Auckland. 1908 Hamilton Fishing and Sea-foods of the Ancient Maori 69 Great quantities of mackerel (tawatawa) were caught in the large seine nets: if not required for immediate consumption, they were cleaned, heads and tails cut off, and split into halves. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 213 Tawatawa were trolled and perhaps netted by early Maori.

TCEPR. n. abbrev. Trawl Catch Effort and Processing Return, information recorded by commercial fishers regarding trawl catches and location information.

2005 Heberley Ordinary Women 91 She will carry out a routine inspection on their permits and TCEPR (trawl catch, effort and processing returns). 2007 Weeber Best Fish Guide 07-08, part ii 17 The alternative total catch effort processor return (TCEPR) is filled out by the larger trawlers. 2007 Lydon, Banks and Starr The Design and Evolution of SeaFIC Managed Adaptive Management Logbook Programmes 26 Only a minimal amount of supporting data were collected from the sampled tow .. because the fishermen were asked to attach to the logbook form a copy of the TCEPR form which contained the sample tow.

tieche net. n. a large box net set in bays. Also in the form tieche box net.

1972 Commercial Fishing November 5 Many fish escaped from the tray, he said, but the numbers remaining entrapped had proved tieche nets to be efficient fishing devices. 1974 Catch March 8 First year observations on the Whitianga tieche net point to certain advantages in using this method of fishing in some New Zealand coastal waters. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 175 Elaborate box or tieche nets can be set in bays to trap and hold coastal pelagic fishes, and smaller fyke nets are set in rivers and estuaries to take freshwater eels … 2004 Johnson Hooked 338 A tieche net is a net fence, more or less at right angles to the coastline, with a gap between it and the coast to allow fish to pass through.

Te Ika-a-Maui. n. [Ma.] the fish of Maui, the North Island of New Zealand. See also fish of Maui and Maui’s fish.

1859 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle August 06. 3 I have been to Maketu, on the other coast, to the place where there lies the anchor of “Te Arawa”, there were the canoes in which your ancestors embarked, when they sailed from Hawaiki, and landed upon Te Ika a Maui. 1867 von Hochsetter New Zealand 202 The natives call the Northern Island “te Ika a Maui”, the fish of Maui. 1899 Evening Post February 04. 1 You remember they used to call it “Te Ika a Maui”, and nga tamariki were never tired of hearing how their good Maui had fished it out of the sea. 1907 Wilson The Story of Te Waharoa 126 They named their island Te Ika a Maui (Maui’s fish), or Ehinomai (fished up by Maui). 2004 Johnson Hooked 10 The Polynesian demigod Maui-potiki is credited with many things: great feats of exploration, snaring the suns and setting in rivers and estuaries to take freshwater eels … 2009 Meredith. ‘Te hī ika – Māori fishing’, Te Ara - the Encyclopedia of New Zealand, updated 18-November 2008 www.TeAra.govt.nz/EarthSeaAndSky/HarvestingTheSea/TeHilkaMaoriFishing/en Known as Te Ika-a-Māui (Māui’s great fish), the North Island is shaped like a stingray. 2009 New Zealand Herald April 22 Maori Language Commissioner Erima
Henare said the title Te Ika a Maui was already commonly used, but he welcomed the board's decision to make it official.

Te Ohu Kai Moana. n. [Ma.] a commission established to manage and distribute the fisheries assets of Maori. See also TOMK and Treaty of Waitangi Fisheries Commission.

1996 NZOYB 407 Te Ohu Kai Moana (TOMK), the Treaty of Waitangi Fisheries Commission, was set up in 1992 to replace the Maori Fisheries Commission, established in 1989 to hold fisheries assets returned to Maori by the Crown, and to arrange for their eventual distribution. 1998 AJHR C19: 5 Te Ohu Kai Moana's operating companies suffered along with most others from the effects of the 'Asian Crisis' and the rapid decline in the value of the NZ Dollar against our major trading partners. 2002 NIWA: Fisheries and Aquaculture Update 2. 4 Te Ohu Kai Moana and its subsidiaries have endeavoured for Maori to be at the leading edge of aquaculture and fisheries management in New Zealand and this is bearing fruit. 2003 Tangaroa December 5 The Government expects the Maori Fisheries Bill to be passed by the middle of next year which means Te Ohu Kai Moana is on target to allocate assets and benefits to Iwi in time for the 1st October fishing season. 2004 Johnson Hooked 405 When new fish species were introduced into the QMS, 20 percent of quota would be handed over, free, to Te Ohu Kai Moana.

teraki, see tarakihi.

three corner. n. SAND FLOUNDER, Rhombosolea plebia. See also dab, diamond, patiki, and tinplate.

1893 AJHR H6: 2 The so-called "three-corner" flounders of less length than 8in. are taken by such mesh. 1931 AJHR H15: 16 In summer and autumn good catches of dabs (sand-flounder or "three-cornered flounder" - Rhombosolea plebia) of large size were landed. 1969 Tuatara 17: 3. 120 Rhombosolea plebia is known variously as ‘Flounder’, ‘Sand Flounder’, ‘Dab’, ‘Diamond’, ‘Square’, ‘Tinplate’, ‘Three-corner’, ‘Patiki’.

tikati. n. [Ma. tikati] GEMFISH, Rexea (formerly Jordanidia) solandri. Also in the form tiiaki. See also hake and southern kingfish.

1929 Best Best Fishing Methods 48 Karihi might as well have added the tikati, to his family, it being a seafish resembling the barracouta in form and colour, but is thicker. 1947 JPS 56: 1. 50 This is the species, Jordanidia solandri, called tikati by Wellington Maoris; while the true North Island king-fish is the haku, Seriola grandis. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 214 As tikati, probably caught by early Maori when deep line-fishing.

tinplate. n. SAND FLOUNDER, Rhombosolea plebia. See also dab, diamond, patiki, and three corner.

1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers' Guide 203 Other names: Rhombosolea plebeia; diamond, tinplate, dab, square; patiki (Maori). 1962 AJHR 119: 84 Founder 1. Rhombosolea plebia .. Dab, sand flounder, three corner. Square, white flounder, diamond, diamond-back, tin-plate. 1969 New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer's Guide 9 Three varieties of flounder are caught in New Zealand. The Sand Flounder, or Dab, sometimes called Tinplate or Diamond, is caught on sand and often found in large river estuaries.

tio. n. [Ma. tio] any of various New Zealand oysters. Also in the form teo.

1817 Nicholas Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand ii 340 An oyster Teo. 1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 417 Fam. Ostidae. - Tio, ostrea, the rock oyster, is the cockscomb, and is identical with the Australian. 1938 Makereti The Old-time Maori 238 Tio, oysters of two kinds, were found on the coast. 1954 Beattie Our Southernmost Maoris 63 My friend who knew the oyster law continued: "Sometimes when the tio was pulled up the kaio, or sea spud, was fixed to it". 2007 Wassilieff. 'Shellfish', Te Ara - the Encyclopedia of New Zealand, updated 21-September 2007 www.TeAra.govt.nz/EarthSeaAndSky/Sea Life/Shellfish/en Variousy known in New Zealand as Bluff oyster, dredge oyster and flat oyster, or by its Maori name tio, this much-loved delicacy is really the Chilean oyster – Ostrea chilensis.

titi. n. [Ma. titi] MUTTONBIRD. Also attrib.
1826-1827 Boulthbee Journal of a Rambler (1866) 113 Mutton bird, -tée tée. 1844 Shortland Southern Districts of New Zealand (1851) 225 The "titi" or mutton bird, as it is termed by the whalers, is, I believe, a species of puffin. 1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 382 The titi or muttonbird, is a seabird, which goes inland at night, just as the light wanes. 1871 TrNZI 4. 369 Captain Hutton exhibited a specimen of the Southern Mutton Bird, or Titi of the natives, which he discovered to be Puffinus amaurosomus. 1904 Tregear The Maori Race 177 The mutton-bird called Titi, includes Buona-partes Shearwater (Puffinus tenuirostris) and Cook’s Petrel (Oestrelata cookii). 2005 VicNews June 30. New season ‘free roaming’ titi/muttonbirds. $10 each or $175 per bucket. 2007 Sunday Star Times Magazine May 20. 47. Having said that, I love fish eyes, kina straight from the sea and titi boil-up.

tohemanga. n. [Ma. tohemanga] TOHEROA, Paphies ventricosa [regional, Wellington]. Also in the form tohemunga.

1927 Best Fishing Methods 76 The natives of the Otaki district tell us that the tohemanga … are found in the sand of local beaches in three distinct layers. 1932 AJHR H15: 15 During the last three or four years there has been a noteworthy improvement in the abundance of toheroa (locally called tohemonga) on the beaches of the neighbourhood of Levin, Otaki, and Waikanae, on the west coast of Wellington Province. 1953 NZFSG 21: 2. 20. Less than 40 years ago, one could with ease fill a sack with tohemunga from the Otaki Beach in a very short time. Where are they now?

toheroa. n. [Ma. toheroa] Paphies ventricosa, an endemic species of surf clam which was an important commercial industry, but is now restricted to recreational harvesting. Frequently attrib. Also in the form to-roa. See also tohemonga.

1838 Polack New Zealand i 71 These [painted monuments] had been erected here to prevent native travellers or strangers from grubbing in the sand for a favourite large cockle, called to-roa, which are steamed and dried by the natives, and taken as portable food for a journey. 1908 Hamilton Fishing and Sea-foods of the Ancient Maori 13 An enterprising firm in Auckland has recently started a factory for canning toheroa. 1910 Evening Post August 20. 13 Several correspondents have commented on the fact that the large shellfish popularly known as the toheroa, seems to be confined to the West Coast of the North Island. 1913 AJHR H15: 7. The canning of the toheroa, a shell-fish, which is found in large quantities on the sandy beaches between Kaipara North Head and Mongonui Bluff, is becoming an important industry, and the question of leasing the right to take them on sections of the foreshores and of making a close season for the time the fish are out of condition is being considered. 1933 AJHR H15: 16. As a result of the economic depression no toheroa were packed at the canneries adjacent to the Ninety-mile Beach and the North Kaipara Beach beds this year. 1939 AJHR H15: 24. It is a delusion to suppose that, because they are private persons digging “only for a feed”, their effects on the toheroa population are negligible. 1940 AJHR H15: 17. Before the motor-car era toheroa-conservation took care of itself and was too easy a matter to make any demand on departmental activity. 1975 Catch May 3 Toheroa shells are strong and shaped like an oval wedge- ideal for burrowing animals. 1985 NZFN 8. 8. 13 Incredible plankton blooms off the north of the North Island’s toheroa-breeding grounds indicate the delicious shellfish may be digable next season. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 161 The flesh (foot and viscera) can be minced and prepared as fritters, but toheroa are best known and most delicious as a thick, pale green soup. 2004 Holmes Hook it and Cook it 63 People who hesitate to pick up threepence in the street have crept over the sandhills in the dead of night and stealthily raided the toheroa beds with all the desperate daring of wartime commandos.

toheroa soup. n. a pale soup made from toheroa.

1927 Donne Rod Fishing in New Zealand Waters 158 David, Prince of Wales, acquired a liking for toheroa soup, and when going by train from Rotorua to Auckland, he asked whether there would be any for luncheon. 1929 TrNZI 59. 88 TIKI-TOHEROA MEDICINAL BROTH. This material as its name indicates is a concentrated toheroa soup. 1962 AJHR H19: 49 To meet the demand for what has become a national dish, the canning of toheroa soup be continued so that those...
unable to get to a toheroa beach may also enjoy the toheroa.

**toheroaing.** vb. n.
harvesting toheroa from the beach.

1983 Hohepa *The Best of Bill Hohepa* 68 Go toheroaing and he'll tap you to the biggest bed with his hollow stick.

**tohora.** n.
[Ma. tohorā] RIGHT WHALE, Balaena glacialis. See also black whale and Southern right whale.

1817 Nicholas *Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand ii* 340 A whale Tohora.
1838 Polack *New Zealand* 323 Among the leviathans, who Sport around these shores, the paraparaua, sperm-whale (Physeter macrocephalus); the tohora, or right-whale (Balaena mysticoetus). 1855 Taylor *Te Ika a Maui* 396 The tohora (balaena antipodum) or right whale, was very abundant. 1912 Evening Post August 03. 10 He harpooned that "tohora", but in the resultant excitement [sic] he fell overboard with the bows, with the harpoon line in his hands. 1994 Harris *Tohora: the Story of Fyffe House, Kai Koura* 11 Well before this time, shore whaling had been established, hunting tohorōa, the baleen or right whale (Balaena glacialis, formerly B. australis, called 'right' because it was easy to catch).

**TOKM.** n. abbrev.
TE OHU KAI MOANA. Also attrib. See also Treaty of Waitangi Fisheries Commission.

1996 NZOYB 407 By law TOKM is charged with helping Maori to get into and develop "the business and activity of fishing". 1998 AJHR C19: 9 Prepared Foods Processing, the TOKM-owned processing operation in Palmerston North, supports the success of PFL through its innovative product and process development team ... 1999 Tangaroa October 4 The future of Maori fishing looked to be in good hands when around 60 TOKM trainees gathered at Tapu Te Ranga Marae. 2007 Lock & Leslie *New Zealand's Quota Management System* 20 TOKM is the corporate trustee which manages Maori fishing assets.

tonguer. n.
a person on a whaling ship who assists in cutting in the whale and interpreting as required, who is paid for his services in oil from the whale's tongue and other interior parts.

1836 *The Logbook of the Mary Mitchell* April 28 The ships all employ tonguers and it is a general custom I have acceded on the same terms as others. 1839 Hempleman *The Piraki Log* (1910) April 10. 82 At 2p.m. the Capt'n set off for Wongooloa, when, having seen a sail outside, he put off to meet her, and found it to be James Robinson, the Tonguer from Wongooloa. 1842 Alexander *Amount of Expenses at the Whaling establishment of Alexander Fraser*. Thomas Man "Tonguer" to amount of Slop Bill 15" 3.
1913 McNab *Old Whaling Days* 194 The Americans had, therefore, to rely to a greater extent on Maori labour, and to be indebted to the services of interpreters. These men were locally called "tonguers". A tonguer was a man who interpreted and assisted in cutting up and who was paid with the tongue of the whale. 1933 Ommenney *Whaling in the Dominion of New Zealand* 246 These interpreters were usually Europeans, runaways from ships, and were locally known as "tonguers". Each "tonguer" had a boat and a number of natives attached to him. 1954 Dawbin *Maori Whaling* 6 As they [American whaling vessels] included fewer persons who could speak Maori than did the Australian based ships, they were especially dependent on interpreters to assist in their business, and as a result a group known locally as << Tonguers>> came into existence.

tonguer's oil. n.
the oil boiled down from the tongue and other interior parts of the whale which is considered inferior.

1836 Wright Letter to Hempleman in McNab *Old Whaling Days* (1913) Thomas *Ashwell Evidence* 231 Also you must be more particular in keeping your dark or tonguer's oil separate and branded as such ... 1843 Dieffenbach *Travels in New Zealand* (1974) 109 To this quantity must be added the tonguer's oil, so called from the man who "cuts-in the whale", for which he is allowed the oil of the tongue, of the heart, and of the intestines, for his own benefit. 1844 Shortland *Southern Districts of New Zealand* (1851) 300 Ten tons may be added to each year's produce for tonguers' oil. 1966 Sherrad *Kaikoura: a History of the District* 78 Tonguers oil (obtained by boiling down the tongues of whales) would be accepted but in no
greater proportion than one tun to four tuns of black or humpback.

**toroa.**  *n.*  [Ma. *toroa*] any of various species of albatross found in New Zealand. 1817 Nicholas *Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand* ii 340 An albatross *Tora*. 1859 Thomson *The Story of New Zealand* i 28 Six species of the Procellaridae are found on the sea-coasts. The Titi, or mutton bird, and the Tora, or albatross, are the most celebrated birds of this family. 1920 *TrNZI* 52. 72 Having been so unsuccessful, the other birds decided that the *toroa* was not a fit and proper bird to dwell on land, so in deep disgrace he was banished to the wide oceans and there he is now to be found. 2003 *Tangaroa* December 10 Albatross skimming the surface of the sea have always been a special sight to fishermen and sailors. The *toroa* is also a taonga for some Iwi.

**total allowable commercial catch.**  *n.* the amount of a fish species which can be taken commercially, after recreational and customary amounts have been deducted. See also TACC. 1999 Moon *The Sealdorl Deal 43* In the spirit of privatisation and Government retraction from the economy, the Total Allowable Commercial Catch of a designated Quota Management Area was divided into Individual Transferable Quotas (ITQ’s). 2004 Johnson *Hooked* 413 Henceforth there would be a TAC and a TACC which was the total allowable commercial catch, after allowing for recreational fishing. 2005 Heberley *Ordinary Women* 76 The AMP allows for experimental increases in the total allowable commercial catch (TACC) for fish stocks.

**totara moana.**  *n.*  [Ma. *tōtara* + *moana*] a robust marine plant formerly used to make fish hooks. 1877 *TrNZI* 10. 554 By cutter ‘Leah’ I send you a branch of a marine plant called by the native Totaromoana or Rimumoana. It was brought up from thirty-five fathoms at Whale Island, where it is very abundant on the Hapuka fishing grounds. 1934 Best *The Maori As He Was* 258 A tough-natured marine plant termed *totara moana* was formerly used for making fish-hooks. 1941 Best *The Maori ii* 426 The Bay of Plenty natives tell us of a marine growth, a form of plant called *totara moana*, that grows at a considerable depth. Its branches are soft and pliable when brought up from the depths, and pieces were then bent into the desired form for hooks. On becoming dry they were extremely hard and of great strength. 1987 *Catch* May 15 The seaweed *totara moana* could also be bent into hook shape.

**transferable term quota.**  *n.* quota for crayfish given for a fixed term of 25 years. Also abbreviated to TTQ. 1990 *Commercial Fishing* April 9 The quota issued for rock lobster is called “Transferable Term quota” and it is being issued for a term of 25 years. 1992 Ngai Tahu Sea Fisheries Report www.waitangi-tribunal.govt.nz/reports 8.3 A novel feature of the legislation was the creation of a new form of quota known as “transferable term quota”. This was defined to mean: quota that confers on the holder the right to take rock lobster at any time in the period of 25 years beginning on the 1st day of April 1990. 1994 *Boyle New Zealand Commercial Fisheries* 23 Only spiny rock lobster and packhorse rock lobster are managed as TTQ.

**trawling shed.**  *n.* a building where nets are repaired and made. 1918 *NZOYB* 564 The premises comprise a trawling-shed (where nets are repaired and new nets made), store rooms, receiving and cleaning sheds …
trev.  n.  TREVALLY, Caranx georgianus. See also araara and skipjack.  
1984 NZFN 7: 8. 5 The trev’s [sic] are disgustedly dirty fighters and certainly give 
you a run round in such snag filled locations.  2008 NZFN 31: 7. 99 The 
Tauranga Harbour has slowed, with the numbers of snapper on the decline and 
still a few kahawai and the odd trev, but the kings are long gone now.  2008 NZFN 
31: 10. 108 The storms have brought in some good snapper, which are being 
taken amongst the trevs.

trevally.  n.  1.  [AND 1871] Caranx georgianus of the 
Carangidae family, a greeny blue fish with 
silvery sheen, and a distinctive black spot 
on the gill cover, which has a wide ranging 
habitat and is commercially important. See also araara, skipjack, and trev. 
1870 AJHR D9: 5 Yellow-tail (Caranx georgianus). - This is common in summer 
and is the fish sold under the name trevally and marere, or araara, of the 
natives. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 236 The Trevally is a 
pretty fish with the sides iridescently silvery, belly white, or as in some, faintly 
yellowish, the back a bright iridescent-blue. 1970 Commercial Fishing December 
12 Trevalli had some very promising overseas markets as a table fish, and it 
was hoped to develop economic ways of catching this fish for export.  1979 NZFN 
1: 10. 8 In my opinion probably the most worthy of all fighting fish in New Zealand 
waters is the Trevally, which is ignored by a great number of anglers.  2000 Paul 
New Zealand Fishes 86 Known simply as trevally in New Zealand, being the only 
species present; called white or silver trevally in southern Australia, where there are 
additional species.

2.  small WAREHOU [regional, Otago]. Also in the form trevalli. 
1886 Sherrin Handbook of the Fishes 
of New Zealand 99 The fish known as 
trevalli in the Dunedin market is a different 
fish allied to the warehouse.  1909 Otago 
Witness, January 13. 64 There are no 
whitebait or small fish to be seen, 
doubtless accounting for the absence of the 
trevally, which usually are caught in 
large numbers in the harbour about New 
Year time. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 218 In Otago, commercial 
and sport fishermen, auctioneers, retailers, consumers of fish and readers generally 
have for many years been giving the name 
Trevally (Usacaranx lutecens) to small 
Warehou up to twelve inches in length.  
1986 Catch December 12 "Trevally" This 
name has been used in Otago for small 
warehou …. We hope this confusing usage 
has died out by now.

triggerfish.  n. LEATHERJACKET, Cantherines scaber. See also creamfish, file-fish, and kokiri. 
1938 TrNZI 68. 418 116. Cantherines 
scaber (Forster). Leather-jacket (trigger-
fish, file-fish).  1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 375 The only way to 
bring this spine down is to press the small 
spine at the base of the large one … It is 
from this device that the fish receives the 
name Trigger-fish.  1962 AJHR119: 84 
Creamfish … Cantherines scaber. … 
Leatherjacket, triggerfish, filefish.  1979 
NZFN 1: 13. 14 The Leatherjacket - 
Creamfish and Triggerfish to some people-
comes tops in a survey of health-giving 
fish … 1983 Hohepa The Best of Bill 
Hohepa 40 The name Triggerfish comes 
from another physical characteristic.

trumpeter. n. [AND 1827] Latris lineata of the 
Latrididae family, an olive brown fish with stripes 
from snout to tail which is line caught for 
sport and food. See also bastard 
trumpeter and silver trumpeter. 
1844 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle June 01. 51 This 
[hapuku], with the cod and trumpeter, 
remain on the coast the greater part of the 
summer. 1878 TrNZI 11. 383 Trumpeter 
was in rather short supply during the year, 
very few having been received from the 
southward. 1895 Wohlers Memories of 
the Life of J.F.H. Wohlers 209 Hardy is 
our anchor down, when the irresistible 
boy .. lets his anchor go, and hopefully 
waits until blue cod and trumpeter, the 
daintiest fish in New Zealand waters to my 
taste, reward his labours.  1956 Graham 
Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 258 In 
shape the Trumpeter is like the well known 
Moki but is easily distinguished from Moki 
by the longitudinal bands of colour and by 
the smaller mouth which is more 
powerfully armed than in the Moki.  2008 
NZFN 31: 10. 86 Trumpeter are a common 
by-catch when blue cod fishing, and 
another great table fish.
TT/K. n. abbrev. tangata tiaki / kaitiaki. Also attrib. Also in the form TTK. See also KAITIAKI and authorising officer.

1998 Maori Law Review April www.bennion.co.nz The regulations provide that holders of authorisations from TTK to undertake non-commercial customary fishing, must produce that authorisation, or details to verify it, when "reasonably requested" by a fishery officer. 1999 Hi Ika January 2 All TT/K notifications are published and submissions are called for from authorised representatives of tangata whenua who consider they have manawhenua manamona over the proposed rohe moana. 1999 Ibid. Under the South Island Customary fishing Regulations, tangata whenua can notify Tangata Tiaki/Kaitiaki (TT/K) to manage customary food gathering within their rohe.

tuangi. n. [Ma. tuangi] COCKLE, Austrovenus stutchburyi. Also in the form tuaki, toakki.

1826-1827 Boulbee Journal of a Rambler (1866) 110 cockles-toakki. 1920 TrNZI 52. 75 This style of net (tata) was made in the shape of the cockle-shell called tuaki. 1999 Hi Ika January 2 Species like tuangi, pipi and tuatua can indicate different things about the health of a beach. 2007 New Zealand Aquaculture January /February 15 Southern Clams has unveiled plans for a shellfish operation in Dunedin which it will operate with Ngai Tahu interests. It would see an expansion of commercial harvesting of the native tuaki shellfish into Otago Harbour.

tuatini. n. [Ma. tuatin] sevengilled shark, Notorynchus cepedianus of the Hexanchidae family, a large shark with seven gills which was utilised by early Maori.

1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 412 Tuatini, is a species of shark, often taken ten foot long; it is very savage. 1908 Hamilton Fishing and Sea-foods of the Ancient Maori 71 The head would be cut off with a shark-toothed knife – that is, the teeth of the tatere or tuatini shark set in and tied tightly to a wooden handle. 1923 JPS 32: 127. 131 The teeth, which are those of the tuatini shark, instead of being lashed into position, are firmly cemented into position with some preparation. 2008 Hutching. 'Sharks and rays', Te Ara - the Encyclopedia of New Zealand, updated 1-December 2008 /www.TeAra.govt.nz/EarthSeaAndSky/SeaLife/SharksAndRays/en The teeth of broadnose sevengill sharks, or tuatini, were set in wooden handles and used as knives.

tuatua. n. [Ma. tuatua] either of two species of surf clam P. subtriangulata and P. donacina of the Mesodesmatidae family, bivalves regularly taken from the sand as food. 1937 Powell The Shellfish of New Zealand 23 Allied to the toheroa is a heavier and more triangular species, the tuatua, Amphidesma subtriangulatum, and the common oval pipi of the Maoris, Paphies australis. 1945 AJHR H15: 20 Fortunately the question of depriving the local people of their sea-food, particularly desirable as an alternative to meat rations under present conditions, does not arise, because in the place of the toheroa there are vast quantities of its near relative the tuatua, that will provide them with as much bulk of equally nourishing and, according to many, equally palatable protein food. 1972 Watkinson and Smith New Zealand Fisheries 66 Dense beds of tuatua occur on oceanic beaches throughout New Zealand and are an increasingly sought after commercial shellfish for canning purposes. 1981 NZFN 3: 4. 4 And on the subject of little blokes (or the big ones for that matter) here is Collywobbles recipe for jetage tuatua fritters. 2004 Holmes Hook it and Cook it 57 To my mind, if pipis, cockles and tuatua are not used in soups or sauces they are best eaten off the shell-preferably served on a table covered with newspaper.

tubs-man. n. tuboarsman, the person on a whale boat who ensures the whale line is running freely. 1978 Kerr and Judd (eds) Marlborough Whalers at Campbell Island 24 The man who kept the coils pressed down and the man who cooled the rope were both known as the tubs-men.

tuere. n. [Ma. tuere] BLIND EEL, Eptatretius cirrhatus. Also in the form turi. See also hagfish and snot eel.

1846 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle October 17. 130 The fishing yielded three crayfish, and a tuari
or blind eel; and we proceeded next day heavily laden with mamaku in addition to our potatoes. **1855** Taylor *Te Ika a Maui* 413 Tuere, a kind of lamprey, about two feet long; it has several small feelers attached to the head, and has a broad flat tail; the colour is a dark brown. **1929** Best *Fishing Methods* 72 They are para (frostfish), Ngoiro (conger-eel), Tuna (river-eel), and Tuere (blind eel); these were the offspring of Te Ihorangi who came down to this world. **1982** Grady *The Perano Whalers* 111 Some of the whalers at Fishing Bay; especially the Maoris, enjoyed sea foods and found turi (blind eels or hagfish) a particular delicacy after they had been properly treated.

**turbot.** *n.* *Colistium nudipinnis* of the Pleuronectidae family, an endemic, green flatfish which is taken as food recreationally. Also in early use for BRILL. See also *New Zealand turbot.*

**1872** Hector *Notes on the Edible Fishes* 1: 117 Occasionally a large flat fish, said to resemble the Patiki, has been brought to the market and sold as Turbot. **1885** *AJHR* H15: 9 The only deep-sea species yet known is the so-called turbot (*Amotrites Guntheri*) which is, though a most delicious fish, very unlike turbot.

**1924** Ayson *New Zealand Fish and Fisheries* 9 Soles were particularly plentiful, and flounders and indigenous turbot existed in considerable numbers. **1935** *AJHR* H15: 21 English turbot frequent shallow bays and estuaries, but no records have been published on New Zealand brill or turbot being taken in any other than deep water, hence it is very probable that these are the progeny of those we introduced and released in Tautuku bay. **1979** *NZFN* 1: 7. 8 Some turbot taken in the South Island are as big as doormats and up to four inches thick, which is pretty unflat for a flatfish. **2001** Hawes in *Marshall* (ed.), *New Zealand Writing about Fishing* 55 That’s a turbot, spots on the belly. **2006** *Sunday Star Times Magazine* February 26. 44 I had the $14 turbot, a flat fish that looks like flounder but never tastes like mud.

**walkey wheels.** *n.*

Equipment used to wheel lines of mussels on board a vessel for harvesting.

**2004** Dawber *Lines in the Water* 274

The walkey wheels are often called star wheels, perhaps because of the way they are formed from spikes or perhaps because of the moon pool. **2007** www.marineandgeneral.co.nz *Mussel Products* Walke wheels and star wheels are made for vessels from 40 to 100 feet.

**warehou.** *n.* [Ma. warehou] fish of the family *Centrolophidae*, especially *blue warehou*, *Seriolella brama*, a blue-green snubnosed fish of growing commercial importance. Also in the form *wharehou*. See also BASTARD, SILVER, and WHITE WAREHOU.

**1845** Wakefield *Adventure in New Zealand* 343 When put into the salting tub for about twenty-four hours, and then up the chimney of a wood fire for a week, the wharehou becomes quite an epicure's breakfast. **1885** *AJHR* H15: 7 The flesh of the smaller sized warehou is rich with a very delicate flavour, and they deserve to be preferred to the tarakihi and young moki, along with which they are generally sold. **1945** *AJHR* H15: 16 Wellington has always been the principal centre for the supply of warehou, a fish which swims in shoals and is usually captured in nets when the shoals move, or are driven by predators into shallow bays. **1957** Parrott *Sea Angler's Fishes of New Zealand* 63

The Warehou, which is closely related to the Silverfish, Griffin's Silverfish, and the Bream, belongs to the *Profret* family of fishes (*Stromateidae*), which are a rather curious family of fishes, found in almost all seas, mostly rather small species and the flesh is of excellent quality. **1964** *Commercial Fishing* July 5 Recently we were advised by the Minister of Marine that 22 tons of warehou were dumped by Wellington trawlers because of no market being available. **1980** *NZFN* 2: 11. 14

Warehou is a fish we are going to be seeing a lot more of on the dinner tables of the nation shortly. **1997** Makarios *Nets, Lines and Pots* 51 According to Bert, warehou nets varied slightly in different areas. The system employed by Makara fishermen was to set warehou nets in sections.

**washing machine.** *n.*

A machine specifically designed to clean oysters.

**1932** *AJHR* H15: 16 An oyster-washing machine, designed by Mr Young, has been made use of in the Kaipara with very satisfactory results. **1934** *AJHR* H15: 17 Increased use of washing-
machines was made, two being in operation at the Kaipara and one at the Bay of Islands. 1969 Martin Marine Department Centennial History 120 He designed an oyster washing machine which was used in the Kaipara Harbour with very satisfactory results.

whai. n. [Ma. whai] any of various skates and rays of New Zealand waters. Also in the form wae.

1848 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle November 18. 149 The following is a list of those which would seem to be the most available for the purpose required: ... Skate Whai. 1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 412 Pakaurua, wae, the stingy ray. This remarkable fish is very abundant in shallow waters; it frequently attains a great size, and is often nearly two feet in breadth, has a long tail, and barbed bone beneath, with which it inflicts very dangerous wounds, from the effects of which many have died. (Raia rostrata.) 1870 AJHR D9: 5 Skate, Wae (Raia nasut). - This is a common fish, but though most delicate is not frequently seen in the market. 1927 Best Fishing Methods 49 The whai, or sting-ray, was taken by means of a hardwood spear, while small wheke (octopus) were taken by hand and utilized as food. 1969 New Zealand Seafoods: Buyer’s Guide 36 SKATE (Whai) (Zearaja nasute). 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 217 Known as whai, these fish [skates] were probably used in the same way as shark when taken by early Maori.

whai-repo. n. [Ma. whairepo] STINGAREE, and occasionally the electric ray. Also in the form wairepo.

1848 Taylor Leaf from the Natural History of New Zealand 16 Wairepo, stingaree. 1872 Hector Notes on the Edible Fishes 121 To this family of fishes also belongs the formidable Stingaree, or Wairepo of the Maoris (Trigon thalassia), which is greatly prized as food among the natives, and in some parts of the coast attends to the most enormous size. 1929 Best Fishing Methods 48 The smaller brown sting-ray is called whai kuku in the Otaki district, and the larger black one whai repo. 1983 Hohepa The Best of Bill Hohepa 24 Only the Maoris – and one or two smart restaurateurs – know the true value of the humble "whai-repo" – the Stingray.

whale, see black whale, RIGHT WHALE, and southern right whale.

whale-feed. n. Grimothea gregaria, a small shrimp like crustacean, the young of which occurs in large shoals around New Zealand coasts and is an important food source for many fish.

1869 AJHR D15: 9 There is a small crustacean resembling a shrimp, and usually known as whale-feed, which frequents our coasts in immense quantities in the season. 1903 The New Zealand Fishing Industry 21 Besides the fish... there is what is commonly known as whale feed, a marine creature which could be taken at certain seasons by the thousands of tons, and which would provide a manure of great value. 1914 AJHR H15: 15 An interesting experiment has been conducted during the year with a view to ascertaining the life history of the whale-feed (Grimothea gregaria). 1923 JScT 6:2, 111 Every summer large shoals of a bright-red shrimp are met with in the sea round the coast of New Zealand. This animal popularly known as "whale-feed", is a swimming stage in the life-history of a crustacean technically known as Munidia gregaria. 1924 AJHR H15: 18 Through the summer, whale feed has been very plentiful, and it would appear as though the barracouta are satisfied with this kind of food, as the stomachs of not only the barracouta, but also the groper, kingfish, ling and cod, contain little else but whale-feed. 1929 AJHR H15: 22 The mature animal lives most of its life at the bottom of the sea, and the swimming stage, during which it is known as "whale-feed", is only one phase of its existence. 1954 Sea Spray June 19 A hastily-constructed net of "scrim" soon brought aboard a couple of bucketfuls of this 'whalefeed' and we found it to be a small species of red shrimp.

whaler Maori. n. the speech of SHORE WHALERS, which combined elements of Maori with a great deal of slang. Also in the form whaler’s Maori, whalers’ Maori.

1859 Thomson The Story of New Zealand 294 Whalers, in their intercourse with each other, were guided by well-defined laws and customs; and intercourse between the races was conducted in a
piebald language called Whaler's Maori, which was English embroidered with native words. 1909 Evening Post February 08. 8 Otago is well-known as whaler Maori for Otakou, meaning "red earth", and approved by legislative wisdom, and not even the satire of the Hon Mr. Mantell-O-tag-o, O-rag-o, O-bobtail-o was able to prevent its adoption.

1947 Hodwell Shore Whaling in Early Marlborough 34 In spite of the fact that Barrett had married a native woman and had lived so long among the Maoris, he seems not to have mastered their language but to have spoken whaler Maori, a jargon that bears much the same relation to the real language of Maoris as the pigeon English of the Chinese does to our mother tongue. 1965 Rickard The Whaling Trade in Old New Zealand 88 The whalers were said to communicate with the Maoris in a sort of bastard language known as whalers' Maori, which was probably a good deal more whalers' than Maori and consisted of English larded with Maori words.

whalers' tea. n. brew infused with manuka.

1843 Shortland Southern Districts of New Zealand (1851) 127 .. as Mr. Hughes and his companions had long since drained their last can of grog, a capacious kettle of whalers' tea stood on the hearth, ready for the use of those who liked it. This tea, an infusion of 'manuka' boughs, is a beverage much drunk by the whalers; it is very wholesome, and, although not palatable at first, appears to be agreeable to those who have become accustomed to it. 2006 medsafe.govt.nz Evaluation of a New Class 1 Substance Letospermum scoparium (Manuka) Essential Oil 19 .. the whalers drank so much Manuka tea it was called 'whalers' tea'.

warehou, see WAREHOU.


1855 Taylor Te Ika a Maui 415 Weki, is one with a very small body and five long rays. 1880 TrN Zi 12. 311 They also say that these large "whekes" are very apt to seize a man and tear his inside out. No more sea-bathing for me! 1927 Best Fishing Methods 49 .. small wheke (octopus) were taken by hand and utilized as food. 1938 Makereti The Old-time Maori 234 Should the wheke twine its many legs round the arm of the catcher, he puts his other hand underneath the body. 1981 NZFN 3. 12. 5 The ancient Maori used to dispatch his "wheke" by biting him between the eyes. 1983 Hohepa The Best of Bill Hohepa 12 Cooked properly the "wheke" (octopus) more than lives up to its nickname of "chicken-of-the-sea".

whiptail. n. 1. HOKI, Macruronus novaezelandiae. 1938 TrN Zi 68 404. 30. Macrurorus novae-zelandiae (Hector). Whip-tail. Hoki. 1962 AJHR 119: 84 Whiptail .. Macruronus novae-zelandiae. 1967 Commercial Fishing February 35 Whiptail, or whiting, has fine, soft flesh with few bones, good baked, steamed, and used in fish pie. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 61 [Hoki is] now a major commercial species, although formerly whiptail were discarded as worthless.

2. any of various sharks and rays. 1890 Otago Witness February 13. 32 The monster, which is of the whip-tail species, was first hooked and then harpooned, and after very considerable trouble was brought up to Dunedin. 1907 Otago Witness February 13. 34 The species which frequent the shallow parts of the bay are known to the fishermen as the "shovel-nosed" or ground shark variety; but another variety, locally known as the "whip-tail," also frequents the shores of the harbour. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 36 Long-tailed stingray Dasyatis tetidis ... Alternatively black ray, or whiptail.

white cod. n. RED COD, Pseudophycis bachus [early usage]. 1864 Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle July 14. 4 The white cod has been getting scarce for some time, probably owing to the increase of seining, as this fish comes into the shallow waters to spawn, and is disturbed by the nets, which capture large numbers of the young. 1872 Otago Witness July 13. 8 The white cod also abounds, which, though, from want of firmness does not eat well green, is good dried and smoked. 1872 Otago Witness November 16. 1 It appears that white cod, barracouta, &c., are mere drugs in the market; but then, as everything has a use in this Formosa, they
can be used for manuring the settlers' cabbage gardens.

**white fillets.** *n.*
The flesh of ELEPHANT FISH, DOGFISH and school shark, especially for trade. 1965 Commercial Fishing May 39 Australia always seems to be short of fish and although we mainly send tarakihi, we also send small quantities of gurnard, snapper and white fillets. 1972 AJHR H15a: 17 The classification white fillets in table 15 includes elephant fish, rig and school shark (flake). 1980 Catch October 11 Market names to disguise the true nature of a fish are not new to New Zealand, and there are a number of well-known examples- "lemon fish" (rig), "white fillets" and "silver trumpeter" (elephant fish). 2007 Seafood Industry Council The Guide Book to New Zealand Commercial Fish Species 176 MARKET NAMES: ... Elephant Fish, Silver Trumpeter, White Fillets.

**white warehou.** *n.*
Seriolella caerulea of the Centrolophidae family, a cream, large eyed fish which frequents deeper water that the common family, a cream, large eyed fish which Seriolella caerulea white warehou.

2. **HAKE 2.**
1938 TrNZI 68. 404 Merluccius gayi (Quichenot). Hake (whiting) ... The name whiting, though more properly reserved for Gadus, is firmly rooted in Otago and Canterbury. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 166 Hake is known in Christchurch, and by some in Otago, as Whiting, but it is not a true Whiting ...

**wig.** *n.*
a male seal, usually the FUR SEAL.

**windy buoy.** *n.*
an anchored buoy used in line fishing. Frequently attrib. 1835 AJHR H15: 35 The methods of fishing used in Pelorus Sound are- (1) Set-netting; (2) hand-seining; (3) line-fishing, with "windy buoys" ... 1938 AJHR H15: 59 Prescribing close season for seals and
prohibiting "windy buoy" fishing. 1951 Sorensen The Fishing Industry in New Zealand 118 Dan lines and windy buoy lines .. are very much alike, the names showing only a difference in the kind of float used. 1965 Salt Oxford New Zealand Encyclopaedia 119 Dan-lines and windy buoy lines, much alike except for the kind of float used, are anchored at one end and attached at the other to a buoy or float.

witch. n.
MEGRIM, Arnoglossus scapha.
Occasionally in the form witch-fish. See also cadger's fish and lantern fish.
1912 TrNZI 45. 232 This specific name belongs to the megrim, or witch, a common form, not sold as food fish on account of its lean bony character. 1956 Graham Treasury of New Zealand Fishes 187 Some fishermen, more especially those who were fishing in Britain and are now fishing in this country, will insist on using the name Witch instead of Megrim. 1980 NZFN 2: 3. 21 The Witch-fish, or Megrim, must surely be one of the oddest fish in our waters. 2001 Hawes in Marshall (ed.) New Zealand Writing about Fishing 55 When someone you don't like pests you for flounders .. you give them witches.

works. n.
a land-based plant for processing whales.
1839 Hempleman Piraki Log (1910) May 21. 86 At 10 A.M. pull'd the works down on account of a Pot being split. 1910 Auckland Weekly News July 21. 6 As soon as it is fast the whale is closely followed until an opportunity presents itself of using the deadly lance, when it is usually quickly despatched and towed to the works for cutting up. 1927 Vosseler Journal of his Whaling Experiences June 22 However we got in and then we lost it [a whale] and see the Rival subsequently towing theirs to the works. 1982 Grady The Perano Whalers 155 The [whale] meat was all frozen and bagged at the Fishing Bay works.

wrasse, see BANGED, GIRDLED, SANDAGER'S AND SCARLET WRASSE. See also parrotfish.

yellow-belly flounder. n.
Rhombosolea leporina, a flat, marine fish of greyish colour above and yellow below, predominantly found in harbours and estuaries, and taken recreationally in setnets and by spear. Also elliptically yellow belly.
1873 Otago Witness December 06. 10 "I would, however, just as soon eat a 'yellow belly'." What might that be? said we .. "'tis a sort of cross between a flounder and a sole, and, to my fancy, is better flavoured than either." 1912 TrNZI 45. 232 The yellow-belly is the commonest flounder in the shallow lagoons and estuaries along the coast. 1943 Mannering Eighty Years in New Zealand: Embracing Fifty Years of New Zealand Fishing 160 The Maoris greatly preferred the fish with yellow and speckled underneaths which they called "yellow bellies". 1973 AJHR CS: 114 Data on the biology of the sand flounder and yellow-belly flounder in the Hauraki Gulf collected during 1968-70 are being prepared for publication ... 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 142 Yellowbelly flounder are shallow-water fish, sometimes found along open sandy coasts out to about 50 m, but much more abundant in harbours, estuaries, and muddy bays.

yellow-eyed mullet. n.
[AND 1906] Aldrichetta forsteri, of the Mugilidae family, a small silvery blue fish with yellow eyes which is frequently caught off wharves but not sought commercially. See also aua, herring, makawhiti, and sea mullet.
1927 Phillipps Bibliography of New Zealand Fishes 30 Agonostomus forsteri ... Yellow-eyed mullet, Herring. 1954 NZFSG 21: 5. 9 The yellow-eyed Mullet (Agonostomus forsteri), called Aua or Makawhiti by the Maoris, and wrongly called Herring by others, grows to a little over 12 inches long, will take any small bait, and great quantities of them may be caught in the surf under practically any conditions, they are good sport on light tackle. 1960 Doogue and Moreland New Zealand Sea Anglers' Guide 205 The name herring is widely used in New Zealand for the yelloweye mullet but the true herring is a very different kind of fish. 2008 NZFN 31: 8. 28 Sprats (aka yellow-eyed mullet) of this size are a top whole bait when fishing from the shore.

yellow-footed paua. n.
QUEEN PAUA, Haliotis australis. Also elliptically yellow foot.
1980 NZFN 2: 8. 21 The ordinary paua must be at least 5 inches long. His cousin the "yellow foot" must be not less than
gave it the name of Yellowtail.

yellow, from which the Otago fishermen canned.

more than the yellowtail that used to be that the much-prized kingfish is nothing whitebait are the young of a normal fish, reviewer it was interesting to learn that 1953 the kingfish is well established and unlikely to be discarded, although it is potentially confusing, being applied to a number of related and unrelated species in different countries. Yellowtail kingfish is perhaps a reasonable compromise.

yellowtail kingfish. n. KINGFISH, Seriola lalandi. See also haku and yellowtail.

1972-1973 Bay of Islands Swordfish Club 10 For only $25 EACH, you and three friends can hunt the mighty tackle-busting Yellowtail Kingfish aboard a deep-sea fishing cruiser. 1981 NZFN 3: 9. 15 He is, of course, the Yellowtail Kingfish or Southern Yellowtail as he is known to the International Gamefish Association. 2000 Paul New Zealand Fishes 88 The name kingfish is well established and unlikely to be discarded, although it is potentially confusing, being applied to a number of related and unrelated species in different countries. Yellowtail kingfish is perhaps a reasonable compromise.

YEM. n. abbrev. YELLOW-EYED MULLET, Aldrichetta forsteri.
1983 NZFN 6: 1.18 Several Y.E.M's were also landed. YEM's? Yellow-eye Mullet – or Herrings as they used to be known in the old days.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time period 1</th>
<th>Time period 2</th>
<th>Time Period 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1795-1825</td>
<td>1826-1855</td>
<td>1856-1885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>barracouta</td>
<td>araara</td>
<td>ahuru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bream</td>
<td>aua</td>
<td>Auckland mullet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clapmatch</td>
<td>barracouta hook</td>
<td>bastard trumpeter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cockle 2</td>
<td>bay whale</td>
<td>bay whaler 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crayfish</td>
<td>bay whaler</td>
<td>black cod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dogfish</td>
<td>bay whaling</td>
<td>black oil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flounder</td>
<td>beach comber</td>
<td>blue cod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>herring</td>
<td>beach combing</td>
<td>borer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ika</td>
<td>black whale</td>
<td>brill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kekeno</td>
<td>black whaling</td>
<td>bull kelp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kokiri</td>
<td>blanket</td>
<td>butterfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kupenga</td>
<td>blind eel</td>
<td>Cloudy Bay cod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mango</td>
<td>blubber</td>
<td>country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matakotai</td>
<td>coalfish</td>
<td>couta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muttonbird</td>
<td>cockle 1</td>
<td>crayfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parrotfish</td>
<td>cockle 3</td>
<td>English mackerel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sea bear</td>
<td>codfish</td>
<td>English sole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sea lion</td>
<td>codfish 2</td>
<td>filefish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>snapper</td>
<td>conger eel</td>
<td>Finnan haddock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tio</td>
<td>cooper’s flag</td>
<td>Fish of Maui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tohora</td>
<td>crawfish</td>
<td>flattie 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toroa</td>
<td>cray</td>
<td>frostfishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elephant fish</td>
<td>frostfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>elephant seal</td>
<td>garfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fur seal</td>
<td>greenbone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>groper</td>
<td>guffy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>guardfish</td>
<td>hagfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>gurnard</td>
<td>haurture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hair seal</td>
<td>herring scad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hake</td>
<td>hiku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>haku</td>
<td>hiwihiwi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hapuku</td>
<td>hoki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hoka</td>
<td>Home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>horse mackerel</td>
<td>Jock Stewart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ihe</td>
<td>kelpfish 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kahawai</td>
<td>kelpfish 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kanae</td>
<td>kingfish 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>karengo</td>
<td>koko</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kehe</td>
<td>kupae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kina</td>
<td>leatherjacket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>koheru</td>
<td>leatherjacket 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kohikohi</td>
<td>lemon sole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>korowhawha</td>
<td>life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>koura</td>
<td>makawhiti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kuku</td>
<td>mako shark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kumukumu</td>
<td>mangrove fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kuparu</td>
<td>maomao</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>leopard seal</td>
<td>Maori chief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ling</td>
<td>Marine Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mackerel</td>
<td>matakaitai 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>maka</td>
<td>mutton shell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mako</td>
<td>nanua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mako 2</td>
<td>native salmon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>manga</td>
<td>New Zealand sole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>Te Reo Maori</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>marare</td>
<td>marare</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moki</td>
<td>moki</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mud oyster</td>
<td>mud oyster</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mullet</td>
<td>mullet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mutton fish</td>
<td>mutton fish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muttonbirding</td>
<td>muttonbirding</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand salmon</td>
<td>New Zealand salmon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ngoiro</td>
<td>ngoiro</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>octopus</td>
<td>octopus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pakirikiri</td>
<td>pakirikiri</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pakurakura</td>
<td>pakurakura</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paraoa</td>
<td>paraoa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parengi</td>
<td>parengi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parore</td>
<td>parore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patiki</td>
<td>patiki</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paua</td>
<td>paua</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paua shell</td>
<td>paua shell</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pilchard</td>
<td>pilchard</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pinna mussel</td>
<td>pinna mussel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pipi 1</td>
<td>pipi 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pipi 2</td>
<td>pipi 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pipi 3</td>
<td>pipi 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piropio</td>
<td>piropio</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poha titi</td>
<td>poha titi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>porpouri</td>
<td>porpouri</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pulling hand</td>
<td>pulling hand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pupu</td>
<td>pupu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rahui</td>
<td>rahui</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rari</td>
<td>rari</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rawaru</td>
<td>rawaru</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reperepe</td>
<td>reperepe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>right whaing</td>
<td>right whaing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>right whale</td>
<td>right whale</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rimurapa</td>
<td>rimurapa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rock cod 3</td>
<td>rock cod 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rockfish</td>
<td>rockfish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rock oyster</td>
<td>rock oyster</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scrag</td>
<td>scrag</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shore fishing</td>
<td>shore fishing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shore gang</td>
<td>shore gang</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shore party</td>
<td>shore party</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shore party 2</td>
<td>shore party 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shore station</td>
<td>shore station</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shore whaler</td>
<td>shore whaler</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shore whaling</td>
<td>shore whaling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soldierfish</td>
<td>soldierfish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sole</td>
<td>sole</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sprat</td>
<td>sprat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stingaree</td>
<td>stingaree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tamure</td>
<td>tamure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangaroa</td>
<td>Tangaroa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taniwha</td>
<td>taniwha</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tarakihi</td>
<td>tarakihi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tawatawa</td>
<td>tawatawa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>titi</td>
<td>titi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toheroa</td>
<td>toheroa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tonguer</td>
<td>tonguer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tonguer's oil</td>
<td>tonguer's oil</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trumpeter</td>
<td>trumpeter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tuangi</td>
<td>tuangi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand turbot</td>
<td>New Zealand turbot</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>northern rock oyster</td>
<td>northern rock oyster</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>old identity</td>
<td>old identity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>outside</td>
<td>outside</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa</td>
<td>pa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>para</td>
<td>para</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picton bloater</td>
<td>Picton bloater</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picton herring</td>
<td>Picton herring</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pigfish</td>
<td>pigfish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piper</td>
<td>piper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pohuia karoa</td>
<td>pohuia karoa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>porae</td>
<td>porae</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>red cod</td>
<td>red cod</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>red gurnard</td>
<td>red gurnard</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>red mullet</td>
<td>red mullet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>red perch</td>
<td>red perch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>red rock cod</td>
<td>red rock cod</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>red snapper</td>
<td>red snapper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rock cod 2</td>
<td>rock cod 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rock cod</td>
<td>rock cod</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sand eel</td>
<td>sand eel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sea elephant</td>
<td>sea elephant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sea perch</td>
<td>sea perch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sea trout</td>
<td>sea trout</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sealer class</td>
<td>sealer class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shore sealing</td>
<td>shore sealing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>silverfish</td>
<td>silverfish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skipjack</td>
<td>skipjack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spider crab</td>
<td>spider crab</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spotty</td>
<td>spotty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>square</td>
<td>square</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stewart Island oyster</td>
<td>Stewart Island oyster</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swimming crab</td>
<td>swimming crab</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Te Ika a Maui</td>
<td>Te Ika a Maui</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>totara moana</td>
<td>totara moana</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trevally</td>
<td>trevally</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turbro</td>
<td>turbro</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whale-feed</td>
<td>whale-feed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whaler Maori</td>
<td>whaler Maori</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>white cod</td>
<td>white cod</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wig</td>
<td>wig</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yellow-belly flounder</td>
<td>yellow-belly flounder</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yellowtail</td>
<td>yellowtail</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time period 4 1886-1915</td>
<td>Time period 5 1916-1945</td>
<td>Time period 6 1946-1975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auckland rock oyster</td>
<td>bass</td>
<td>Akaroa cod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>banded parrotfish</td>
<td>blanketing</td>
<td>banded wrasse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bass groper</td>
<td>butterfisher</td>
<td>batten farming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>black bass</td>
<td>butterfishing</td>
<td>big-eye warehou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blocking</td>
<td>capstone</td>
<td>blackfish 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bluff oyster</td>
<td>chaser</td>
<td>blue mackerel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cockabully</td>
<td>culch</td>
<td>blue maomao</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>common sole</td>
<td>Dab Patch</td>
<td>bluenose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>copper moki</td>
<td>dig</td>
<td>brim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crayfish pot</td>
<td>digger</td>
<td>butterfish 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dab</td>
<td>fixing</td>
<td>butterfly perch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dredge oyster</td>
<td>Foveaux Strait oyster</td>
<td>cadger's fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drift oyster</td>
<td>golden snapper</td>
<td>ceremonial snapper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fish supper room</td>
<td>Government oyster depot</td>
<td>cobbler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>floundering</td>
<td>hake 2</td>
<td>couta paw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>freezing works</td>
<td>hake 3</td>
<td>cray boat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girdled parrotfish</td>
<td>haul up</td>
<td>craytail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>green</td>
<td>highlander</td>
<td>crayfisherman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>greenback</td>
<td>kahawai bird</td>
<td>craypot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gunner</td>
<td>kaio</td>
<td>creamfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kapeta</td>
<td>Kaipara oyster</td>
<td>culcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kingfishing</td>
<td>kelpfish 3</td>
<td>culching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kohuwai</td>
<td>kingie</td>
<td>culching benches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koinga</td>
<td>koarea</td>
<td>deep sea mullet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>korohe</td>
<td>marblefish</td>
<td>departmental farm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kutai</td>
<td>matuawhapuku</td>
<td>departmental oyster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lookout</td>
<td>okeoke</td>
<td>diamond</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look out (v)</td>
<td>paea</td>
<td>doggie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mangrove oyster</td>
<td>pawharu</td>
<td>experimental farm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maturau</td>
<td>recap</td>
<td>farmer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maui's fish</td>
<td>red moki</td>
<td>FIB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>megrim</td>
<td>reremai shark</td>
<td>fish the foul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moeone</td>
<td>reti</td>
<td>Fisheries Development Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mohimohi</td>
<td>sand fish</td>
<td>Fishing Industry Advisory Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mullet boat</td>
<td>school snapper</td>
<td>Fishing Industry Board Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muttonbird island</td>
<td>scrodde</td>
<td>go through</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muttonbirder</td>
<td>silver warehou</td>
<td>grandfather hapuku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>net</td>
<td>snodgall</td>
<td>green crayfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>netting</td>
<td>southern pigfish</td>
<td>green-lipped mussel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand fur seal</td>
<td>stargazer</td>
<td>Griffin's silverfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pelorus Jack</td>
<td>swordie</td>
<td>gummy shark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pioke</td>
<td>tanekaha rod</td>
<td>Hector's dolphin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>red crayfish</td>
<td>taruru</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sand flounder</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scarlet parrotfish</td>
<td>taumaka</td>
<td>honorary Fisheries Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sea leopard</td>
<td>tauranga ika</td>
<td>horse mussel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sea mullet</td>
<td>tikati</td>
<td>kai moana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sea salmon</td>
<td>tohemunga</td>
<td>Karitane concession area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>settler</td>
<td>toheroa soup</td>
<td>Karitane rock lobster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shore oyster</td>
<td>trawling shed</td>
<td>Karitane sizes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>silverside</td>
<td>triggerfish</td>
<td>kelpie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slimey</td>
<td>tuatua</td>
<td>kini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>southern kingfish</td>
<td>washing machine</td>
<td>kon-tiki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>southern right whale</td>
<td>whiptail</td>
<td>kopapa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stalling</td>
<td>windy buoy</td>
<td>kourepopoua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taruke</td>
<td>yellow-eyed mullet</td>
<td>lantern fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tate</td>
<td></td>
<td>lemonfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>three corner</td>
<td></td>
<td>MAF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trevally 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Maori chief 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whiptail 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Maori fishing calendar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>witch</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| horse mussel       |                | monkfish                 |
| kai moana          |                | mullery                  |
| Karitane concession area |        | mullock                  |
| Karitane rock lobster |              | muttonbird bag           |
| Karitane sizes     |                | New Zealand Federation of Commercial Fishermen |
| kelpie             |                | New Zealand golden snapper |
| kon-tiki           |                | New Zealand rock lobster |
| kopapa             |                | New Zealand sea lion     |
| kourepopoua        |                | New Zealand whaler       |
| lantern fish       |                | opening factory          |
| lemonfish          |                | packhorse crayfish       |
| MAF                |                | paihau                   |
| Maori chief 2      |                | paketi                   |
| Maori fishing calendar |            | pin fish                 |
| Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries |  | pink maomao            |
| monkfish           |                | red gold                 |
| mullery            |                | red pigfish              |
| mullock            |                | red rock lobster         |
| muttonbird bag     |                | ring pot                 |
| New Zealand Federation of Commercial Fishermen |  | rock groper             |
| New Zealand golden snapper |  | rock lobster            |
| New Zealand rock lobster |  | sandagers parrotfish    |
| New Zealand sea lion |              | scarpee                  |
| New Zealand whaler |                | scorpionfish             |
| opening factory    |                | sea opal                 |
| packhorse crayfish |                | shortie                  |
| paihau             |                | silver trumpeter         |
| paketi             |                | southern hake            |
| pin fish           |                | southern spider crab     |
| pink maomao        |                | spat catching            |
| red gold           |                | spat collector           |
| red pigfish        |                | spat stick               |
| red rock lobster   |                | spotted dogfish          |
| ring pot           |                | spotted stargazer        |
| rock groper        |                | State Loan and Mortgage Guarantee Scheme |
| rock lobster       |                | stick farm               |
| sandagers parrotfish |              | stick oyster             |
| scarpee            |                | stone cultivation        |
| scorpionfish       |                | stripey                  |
| sea opal           |                | tai                      |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tailed at sea</th>
<th>tailed at sea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tailing at sea</td>
<td>tailing at sea area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasman Bay oyster</td>
<td>teiche net</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tinplate</td>
<td>white fillets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whiting 3</td>
<td>whiting 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yellowtail kingfish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Time period 7**  
**1976-2005**

- alert pigfish
- AMA
- Aquaculture Management Area
- authorising officer
- baby blue
- bastard warehou
- beach pick
- beach picked
- beach picking
- big red
- bird baffler
- black gold
- black oreo
- black snapper
- black-footed paua
- blue moki
- blue warehou
- bluey
- boatie
- bronzie
- bycatch trade off scheme
- carrot
- catch/quota trade off
- CELR
- Christmas tree rope
- cloudie
- colossal squid
- continuous rope
- Cook Strait sailfish
- couta feed
- cray boat
- crayfish boom
- craying
- craywell
- customary fishing regulations
- customary fishing rights
- customary take
- Dally fleet
- Deed of Settlement
- deemed value
- deep sea cod
- deep sea dory
- deep sea groper
- deep sea warehou
diarrhoea fish
digging
DoSIP
double-picking
elephant fishery
Fish for a Compliment campaign
fishing related mortality limit
fisho
FishServe
fizz-boat
flattie 2
flattying
FMAC
FRIA
gemfish
giant spider crab
giant stargazer
girdled wrasse
GMITQ
goldie
greenshell mussel
gumboot
HFO
home freight
Hookers sea lion
humpie
ike jime snapper
iki
iki bin
iki killing
iwi fisheries
Jap hook
Jap pack
kahawai killer
Kai Arahi
Kai moana Customary Fishing Regulations
Kai moana Regulations
Kaitaia spat
kaitiaki
kete kai moana
kingfish 2
LFRN
LFRR
MAFFish
mahinga kai moana
mahinga mataitai
MALFIRM
manamoana
Maori fisheries
Maori fishing rights
maramataka
mataitai
MFish
mini marlin
mollyhawk
moocher
Muldoon trough
Muriwhenua claim
Mussel farmer’s waltz
mussock
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NAFMAC</td>
<td>New Zealand littleneck clam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand Recreational Fishing Council</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealandisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealandise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealandised</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIWA</td>
<td>northern kahawai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPOA</td>
<td>Operation Pacman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZEEZ</td>
<td>orange rougy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paddle crab</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>panny</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>papaka</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paua bender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paua bending</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>people's fish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pin fisherman</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMITQ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSA</td>
<td>possie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post-settlement assets</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pou Hononga</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRESA</td>
<td>pre-settlement assets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puka pull</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puka pulling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puka</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QAA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QMA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QMR</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QMS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QRN</td>
<td>queen paua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quota Appeal Authority</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quota management Area</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rasp</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rat kingfish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rattler</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reddie</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rig</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ring potting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rohe moana</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sandagers wrasse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scarlet wrasse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>school fish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>schoolie</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sea perch 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SeaFIC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sealord Deal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>separate fishery</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skinny string</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skippie</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SLED</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMEEF</td>
<td>smooth oreo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>snot eel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>southern blue whiting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish lace</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
spat farm
spiky dogfish
spotted warehou
sub surfacing
surf crab
sweeping the beach
TACC
taiapure
tangata tiaki / kaitiaki
tap
TCEPR
Te Ohu Kai Moana
toheroaing
TOKM
total allowable commercial catch
transferable term quota
Treaty of Waitangi Fisheries Commission	
trev
TT/K
tubs-man
walkey wheels
white warehou
yellow slimy
yellow-footed paua
YEM
APPENDIX F: WORDLIST CATEGORISED ACCORDING TO THE
DEVERSON TYPOLOGY (2000)\(^6\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 1: New word for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 3: Additional meaning for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 5: Substitute meaning for unique referent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ahuru♦</td>
<td>authorising officer</td>
<td>banded parrotfish♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akaroa cod</td>
<td>baby blue♦</td>
<td>bass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alert pigfish</td>
<td>bay whale</td>
<td>big red♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMA</td>
<td>bay whaler 1</td>
<td>black bass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aquaculture Management Area</td>
<td>bay whaler 2</td>
<td>black snapper♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>araara♦</td>
<td>bay whaling</td>
<td>blackfish♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aua♦</td>
<td>beach comber</td>
<td>blackfooter paua♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auckland rock oyster</td>
<td>beach combing</td>
<td>blue cod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>banded wrasse♦</td>
<td>black gold</td>
<td>brill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>barracouta hook</td>
<td>blackfish</td>
<td>butterfish 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bass groper♦</td>
<td>blocking</td>
<td>butterfish 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bastard trumpeter</td>
<td>blubber</td>
<td>butterfisher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bird baffler</td>
<td>bluey</td>
<td>butterfly fishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>black oreo♦</td>
<td>borer</td>
<td>coalfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>black-footed paua</td>
<td>brim♦</td>
<td>codfish 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blue maomao</td>
<td>capstone</td>
<td>codfish 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blue moki</td>
<td>cobbler</td>
<td>common sole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blue warehou♦</td>
<td>cockle 1</td>
<td>cooper’s flag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bluff oyster</td>
<td>cockle 2</td>
<td>crayfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bycatch trade off scheme</td>
<td>cockle 3</td>
<td>dab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cadger's fish</td>
<td>conger eel♦</td>
<td>departmental farm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>catch/quota trade off CELR</td>
<td>crawfish</td>
<td>dredge oyster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ceremonial snapper</td>
<td>customary fishing rights</td>
<td>elephant fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christmas tree rope</td>
<td>Deed of Settlement</td>
<td>elephant fishery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cloudy♦</td>
<td>deemed value</td>
<td>English sole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cloudy Bay cod</td>
<td>diamond</td>
<td>filefish♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cockabully</td>
<td>dig</td>
<td>Finnan haddock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continuous rope</td>
<td>digger</td>
<td>flathead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>copper moki</td>
<td>digging</td>
<td>flounder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>couta feed♦</td>
<td>dogfish</td>
<td>garfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>couta paw</td>
<td>doggie♦</td>
<td>giant spider crab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cray</td>
<td>double-picking</td>
<td>girdled wrasse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crayfish boom</td>
<td>experimental farm</td>
<td>golden snapper♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>craying</td>
<td>farmer</td>
<td>goldic♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>craywell</td>
<td>fur seal</td>
<td>green crayfish♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>creamfish♦</td>
<td>greenback♦</td>
<td>greenbone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>customary fishing regulations</td>
<td>hagfish</td>
<td>groper♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>customary take</td>
<td>highlander♦</td>
<td>guardfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dab Patch</td>
<td>home freight</td>
<td>gummy shark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dally fleet</td>
<td>leatherjacket 1</td>
<td>hair seal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>departmental oyster</td>
<td>leatherjacket 2</td>
<td>hake 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DoSIP</td>
<td>life</td>
<td>hake 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drift oyster</td>
<td>moocher♦</td>
<td>herring scad♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>net</td>
<td>herring♦</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^6\) ♦ fish species which are found in New Zealand and Australia
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FIB</th>
<th>Fish for a Compliment campaign</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fish of Maui</td>
<td>fish supper room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisheries Development Council</td>
<td>Fishing Industry Advisory Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing Industry Board</td>
<td>fishing related mortality limit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FishServe</td>
<td>Fisheries Development Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FMAC</td>
<td>Foveaux Strait oyster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRIA</td>
<td>frostfishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frostfish</td>
<td>giant stargazer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frial</td>
<td>girdled parrotfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GMTIQ</td>
<td>go through</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government oyster depot</td>
<td>Government oyster depot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grandfather hapuku</td>
<td>green-lipped mussel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>greenshell mussel</td>
<td>guffy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>halved whale</td>
<td>hapuku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hector's dolphin</td>
<td>HFO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hiwihiwi</td>
<td>hoka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hoki</td>
<td>honorary fisheries officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hookers sea lion</td>
<td>Hookers sea lion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ihe</td>
<td>ike jime snapper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iki bin</td>
<td>iwi fisheries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jap pack</td>
<td>Jock Stewart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kahawai</td>
<td>kahawai killer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kai Arahi</td>
<td>Kai moana Customary Fishing Regulations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kai moana Regulations</td>
<td>kaio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaipara oyster</td>
<td>Kaitaia spat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaitiai</td>
<td>Karitane concession area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karitane rock lobster</td>
<td>Karitane sizes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karitane sizes</td>
<td>kehe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| netting | octopus |
| pin fish | pin fisherman |
| piper | porpoise |
| rasp | recap |
| red gold | rig |
| sea lion | sealer |
| shore fishing | shore gang |
| shore oyster | shore party 1 |
| shore party 2 | shore sealing |
| shore whaler | shore whaling |
| spat catching | spat collector |
| spat stick | square |
| stalling | stinger |
| tap | tinplate |
| triggerfish | washing machine |
| whaler | white fillets |
| witch | horse mackerel |
| horse mussel | kelpfish 1 |
| kelpfish 2 | kelpfish 3 |
| lantern fish | lemon fish |
| lemon sole | mangrove fish |
| mangrove oyster | Marine Department |
| megrim | Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries |
| monkfish | mud oyster |
| mullet | muttonbird |
| mutton fish | native salmon |
| parrotfish | pigfish |
| pilchard | pinna mussle |
| red cod | red crayfish |
| red mullet | red perch |
| red perch | red rock cod |
| red rock cod | red rock lobster |
| red snapper | red snapper |
| reddie | rock cod |
| rock cod | rock cod |
| rock cod | rock cod |
| rock groper | rock groper |
| rock lobster | rock lobster |
| rock oyster | rockfish |
| sand eel | sand fish |
| sand flounder | scarlet wrasse |
| scarlet wrasse | scroddie |
| scroddie | sea bear |
| sea bear | sea mullet |
| sea mullet | sea opal |
| sea opal | sea perch |
| sea perch | sea salmon |
| sea salmon | sea trout |
| sea trout | silver trumpeter |
| silver trumpeter | silverfish |
| silverfish | silverside |
| silverside | snapper |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Maori</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kokeno</td>
<td>kekeno</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kelpie</td>
<td>kelpie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kete kai moana</td>
<td>kete kai moana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kina</td>
<td>kina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kini</td>
<td>kini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koarea</td>
<td>koarea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koheru</td>
<td>koheru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kohuwai</td>
<td>kohuwai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kokiri</td>
<td>kina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koko</td>
<td>koheru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kon-tiki</td>
<td>mokpa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koupoua</td>
<td>koupoua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuki</td>
<td>kuki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kupaie</td>
<td>kupaie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kutai</td>
<td>kutai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LFRN</td>
<td>LFRN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LFRR</td>
<td>LFRR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAF</td>
<td>MAF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAFFish</td>
<td>mahinga kai moana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mahinga mataitai</td>
<td>mahinga mataitai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>makawhiti</td>
<td>makawhiti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALFIRM</td>
<td>MALFIRM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manamoana</td>
<td>manamoana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mango</td>
<td>mango</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maomao</td>
<td>maomao</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maori chief 1</td>
<td>Maori chief 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maori chief 2</td>
<td>Maori chief 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maori fisheries</td>
<td>Maori fisheries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maori fishing calendar</td>
<td>Maori fishing calendar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maori fishing rights</td>
<td>Maori fishing rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maramataka</td>
<td>maramataka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>marare</td>
<td>marare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>marblefish</td>
<td>marblefish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mataitai</td>
<td>mataitai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matarau</td>
<td>matarau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matuaiwhapuku</td>
<td>matuaiwhapuku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maui's fish</td>
<td>Maui's fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MFish</td>
<td>MFish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mini marlin</td>
<td>mini marlin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moeone</td>
<td>moeone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mohimohi</td>
<td>mohimohi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moki</td>
<td>moki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muldoon trough</td>
<td>Muldoon trough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mullet boat</td>
<td>mullet boat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mullety</td>
<td>mullety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muriwhenua claim</td>
<td>Muriwhenua claim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mussel farmers’ waltz</td>
<td>mussel farmers’ waltz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mussock</td>
<td>mussock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mutton shell</td>
<td>mutton shell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muttonbird bag</td>
<td>muttonbird bag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muttonbird island</td>
<td>muttonbird island</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muttonbirder</td>
<td>muttonbirder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>snot eel</td>
<td>snot eel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soldierfish</td>
<td>soldierfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sole</td>
<td>sole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>southern hake</td>
<td>southern hake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spider crab</td>
<td>spider crab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spotted dogfish</td>
<td>spotted dogfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sprat</td>
<td>spart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stargazer</td>
<td>stargazer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>surf crab</td>
<td>surf crab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swimming crab</td>
<td>swimming crab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trevally</td>
<td>trevally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turbot</td>
<td>turbot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>white cod</td>
<td>white cod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whiptail</td>
<td>whiptail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whiting</td>
<td>whiting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yellowtail</td>
<td>yellowtail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yellowtail 2</td>
<td>yellowtail 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Category</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muttonbirding</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAFMAC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nanua</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand Federation of Commercial Fishermen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand fur seal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand golden snapper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand littleneck clam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand Recreational Fishing Council</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand rock lobster</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand salmon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand sea lion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand sole</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand turbot</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealandisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealandidise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealandised</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ngoiro</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIWA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>northern kahawai</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>northern rock oyster</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPOA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZEEZ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operation Pacman</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>packhorse crayfish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paddle crab</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paihau</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paketi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pakirikiri</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>panny</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>papaka</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>para</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patiki</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paua</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paua bender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paua bending</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paua shell</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pawharu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pelorus Jack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>people's fish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picton bloater</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picton herring</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pink maomao</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piroke</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pipi 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pipi 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pipi 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piropiro</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMITQ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poha titi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pohuiakaroa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Term</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>porae♦</td>
<td>post-settlement assets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSA</td>
<td>Pou Hononga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre-settlement assets</td>
<td>PRESA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puka♦</td>
<td>QAA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puka pull</td>
<td>QMA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puka pulling</td>
<td>QMR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QMR</td>
<td>QRN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>queen paua</td>
<td>Quota Appeal Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quota Management Area</td>
<td>rahui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rawaru</td>
<td>reh moana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>red moki♦</td>
<td>Sandagers parrotfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reperepe</td>
<td>Sandager's wrasse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reti</td>
<td>scarpee♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ring pot</td>
<td>school snapper♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ring potting</td>
<td>schoolie♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rohe moana</td>
<td>SeaFIC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandagers parrotfish</td>
<td>Sealord Deal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandager's wrasse</td>
<td>SLED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spat farm</td>
<td>SMEEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spotted stargazer</td>
<td>snodgall♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spat farm</td>
<td>southern pigfish♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spotted stargazer</td>
<td>southern spider crab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spat farm</td>
<td>Spanish lace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spotted stargazer</td>
<td>spat farm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spotty</td>
<td>spotted stargazer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Loan and Mortgage</td>
<td>spotty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guarantee Scheme</td>
<td>State Loan and Mortgage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stewart Island oyster</td>
<td>Guarantee Scheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stick farm</td>
<td>Stewart Island oyster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub surfacing</td>
<td>stick farm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sweeping the beach</td>
<td>sub surfacing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TACC</td>
<td>sweeping the beach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tai</td>
<td>taiapure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taiapure</td>
<td>tailing at sea area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tailing at sea area</td>
<td>tamure♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tamure♦</td>
<td>tanekaha rod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tanekaha rod</td>
<td>Tangaroa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangaroa</td>
<td>tangata tiaki / kaitiaki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tangata tiaki / kaitiaki</td>
<td>taniwha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 2: New word for shared referent</td>
<td>Type 4: Additional meaning for shared referent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auckland mullet</td>
<td>black oil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bastard warehou</td>
<td>black whale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>batten farming</td>
<td>black whaling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beach pick</td>
<td>blanket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beach picked</td>
<td>blanketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beach picking</td>
<td>carrot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>big-eye warehou</td>
<td>chaser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boatie</td>
<td>clapmatch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bronzie</td>
<td>country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colossal squid</td>
<td>crayfish pot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cook Strait sailfish</td>
<td>crayfisherman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>couta</td>
<td>crayfishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cray tail</td>
<td>culch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cray boat</td>
<td>deep sea code</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>craypot</td>
<td>deep sea groper</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tasman Bay oyster taumaka**

**TCEPR**

**Te Ika-a-Maui**

**Te Ohu Kai Moana**

**three corner tio**

titi

tohemunga

toheroa

toheroa soup

toheroaing

**TOKM**

tonguer

tonguer's oil

total allowable commercial catch
totara moana

transferable term quota

**Treaty of Waitangi Fisheries Commission**

trev ♦

**TT/K**

tuangi

tuatua
tuere

**warehou ♦**

whaler Maori

whalers tea

wheke

windy buoy

yellow slimy

yellow-belly flounder

yellow-eyed mullet ♦
yellow-footed paua

**Auckland mullet**

**bastard warehou**

**batten farming**

**beach pick**

**beach picked**

**beach picking**

**big-eye warehou**

**boatie**

**bronzie**

**colossal squid**

**Cook Strait sailfish**

**couta**

**cray tail**

**cray boat**

**craypot**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>possie</th>
<th>pulling hand</th>
<th>pupu</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rari</td>
<td>rat kingfish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reremai shark</td>
<td>rimurapa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scarlet parrotfish</td>
<td>silver warehou</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>smooth oreo</td>
<td>southern blue whiting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>southern right whale</td>
<td>spiky dogfish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spotted warehou</td>
<td>stick oyster</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stone cultivation</td>
<td>stripey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swordie</td>
<td>tailed at sea</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tailing at sea</td>
<td>tarakihi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taruke</td>
<td>taruru</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tatere</td>
<td>tauranga ika</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tawatawa</td>
<td>teiche net</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tikati</td>
<td>tohora</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toroa</td>
<td>trawling shed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tuatini</td>
<td>tubs-man</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>walkey wheels</td>
<td>whai</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whai-repo</td>
<td>white warehou</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yellowtail kingfish</td>
<td>yellowtail kingfish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YEM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## APPENDIX G: ALLOCATION OF ITEMS TO THE DEVERSON TYPOLOGY (2000) BY TIME PERIOD

### Time period 1: 1796-1825

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 1: New word for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 3: Additional meaning for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 5: Substitute meaning for unique referent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kekeno</td>
<td>cockle 2</td>
<td>crayfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kokiri♦</td>
<td>dogfish</td>
<td>flounder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mango</td>
<td>sea lion</td>
<td>herring♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tio</td>
<td></td>
<td>muttonbird</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>parrotfish♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>sea bear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>snapper</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Time period 2: 1826-1855

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 1: New word for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 3: Additional meaning for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 5: Substitute meaning for unique referent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>araara♦</td>
<td>bay whale</td>
<td>blind eel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aua♦</td>
<td>bay whaler</td>
<td>coalfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>barracouta hook</td>
<td>bay whaling</td>
<td>codfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cray</td>
<td>beach combing</td>
<td>codfish♦ 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hapuku♦</td>
<td>beach combing</td>
<td>co Oper's flag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hoka</td>
<td>blackfish</td>
<td>elephant fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ihe</td>
<td>blubber</td>
<td>groper♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kahawai</td>
<td>cockle 1</td>
<td>guardfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kehe</td>
<td>cockle 3</td>
<td>hair seal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kina</td>
<td>conger eel♦</td>
<td>hak e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koheru</td>
<td>crawfish</td>
<td>horse mackerel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koura</td>
<td>fur seal</td>
<td>mud oyster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuku</td>
<td>octopus</td>
<td>mullet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>marare</td>
<td>porpoise</td>
<td>mutton fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moki</td>
<td>shore fishing</td>
<td>pilchard♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muttonbirding</td>
<td>shore gang</td>
<td>pinna mussel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand salmon♦</td>
<td>shore party 1</td>
<td>rock cod♦ 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ngoiro♦</td>
<td>shore party 2</td>
<td>rockfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pakirikiri</td>
<td>shore whaler</td>
<td>rock oyster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parore♦</td>
<td>shore whaling</td>
<td>soldierfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patiki</td>
<td>stingaree</td>
<td>sole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paua</td>
<td></td>
<td>sprat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paua shell</td>
<td></td>
<td>yellowtail 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pipi 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 2: New word for shared referent</td>
<td>Type 4: Additional meaning for shared referent</td>
<td>Type 6: Substitute meaning for shared referent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>haku</td>
<td>black whale</td>
<td>gurnard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kanae</td>
<td>black whaling</td>
<td>ling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karengo</td>
<td>blanket</td>
<td>mackerel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kohikohi</td>
<td>elephant seal</td>
<td>trumpeter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>korowhawha</td>
<td>leopard seal</td>
<td>whiting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kemukumu</td>
<td>right whale</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuparu</td>
<td>right whale</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maka</td>
<td>scrag</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mako 1</td>
<td>shore station</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mako 2</td>
<td>works</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manga</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pakurakura</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paraoa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parengo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pulling hand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pupu</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rari</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rimurapa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tarakihi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tawatawa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tuatini</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whai</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whai-repo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Time period 3: 1856-1885

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 1: New word for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 3: Additional meaning for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 5: Substitute meaning for unique referent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ahuru♦</td>
<td>bay whaler 2</td>
<td>blue cod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bastard trumpeter</td>
<td>borer</td>
<td>brill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cloudy Bay cod</td>
<td>hagfish</td>
<td>butterfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish of Maui</td>
<td>leatherjacket 1</td>
<td>English sole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frostfishing</td>
<td>leatherjacket 2</td>
<td>filefish♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frostfish♦</td>
<td>life</td>
<td>Finnan haddock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 2: New word for shared referent</td>
<td>Type 4: Additional meaning for shared referent</td>
<td>Type 6: Substitute meaning for shared referent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auckland mullet</td>
<td>black oil</td>
<td>black cod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>couta</td>
<td>country</td>
<td>bull kelp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English mackerel</td>
<td>crayfishing</td>
<td>kingfish 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flattie 1</td>
<td>Home</td>
<td>red gurnard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hauture</td>
<td>outside</td>
<td>whale-feed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hiku</td>
<td>sea elephant</td>
<td>yellowtail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mako shark</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mataitai 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>old identity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Time period 4: 1886-1915**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 1: New word for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 3: Additional meaning for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 5: Substitute meaning for unique referent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Auckland rock oyster</td>
<td>blocking</td>
<td>banded parrotfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bass groper</td>
<td>greenback</td>
<td>black bass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bluff oyster</td>
<td>lookout</td>
<td>common sole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cockabully</td>
<td>net</td>
<td>dab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>copper moki</td>
<td>netting</td>
<td>dredge oyster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drift oyster</td>
<td>shore oyster</td>
<td>mangrove oyster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fish supper room</td>
<td>stalling</td>
<td>megrim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girdled parrotfish</td>
<td>witch</td>
<td>red crayfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kohuwait</td>
<td></td>
<td>sand flounder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kutai</td>
<td></td>
<td>sea mullet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matarau</td>
<td></td>
<td>sea salmon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Maui’s fish
moeone
mohimohi  ♦
mullet boat
muttonbird island
muttonbirder
New Zealand fur seal
Pelorus Jack
pioke
three corner

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 2: New word for shared referent</th>
<th>Type 4: Additional meaning for shared referent</th>
<th>Type 6: Substitute meaning for shared referent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| freezing works
gunner
kapeta
koinga
korohie
scarlet parrotfish
southern right whale
taruke
tatere | crayfish pot
floundering
green
look out (v)
sea leopard
settler
slimey | kingfishing
southern kingfish
whiptail 2 |

Time period 5: 1916-1945

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 1: New word for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 3: Additional meaning for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 5: Substitute meaning for unique referent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Dab Patch
Foveaux Strait oyster
Government oyster depot
halved whale
kaio
Kaipara oyster
koarea
marblefish
matuawahapuku
pawharu  ♦
red moki  ♦
reti
school snapper  ♦
snodgall  ♦
southern pigfish
tanekaha rod
taumaka
tohemungaa
toheroa soup
tuata
windy buoy
yellow-eyed mullet  ♦ | capstone
dig
digger
highlander
recap
triggerfish
washing machine | bass
butterfisher
butterfishing
golden snapper  ♦
hake 2
kelpfish 3
sand fish
scroddie  ♦
stargazer  ♦
whiptail |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 2: New word for shared referent</th>
<th>Type 4: Additional meaning for shared referent</th>
<th>Type 6: Substitute meaning for shared referent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| haul up
kahawai bird | blanketing chaser | hake 3 |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>kingie</th>
<th>okeoke</th>
<th>paea</th>
<th>reremai shark</th>
<th>silver warehou</th>
<th>swordie</th>
<th>taruru</th>
<th>tauranga ika</th>
<th>tikati</th>
<th>trawling shed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>culch</td>
<td>fixing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Time period 6: 1946-1975**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Type 1: New word for unique referent</strong></th>
<th><strong>Type 3: Additional meaning for unique referent</strong></th>
<th><strong>Type 5: Substitute meaning for unique referent</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Akaroa cod</td>
<td>brim♦</td>
<td>blackfish♦ 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>banded wrasse♦</td>
<td>cobbler</td>
<td>butterfly 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blue maomao</td>
<td>diamond</td>
<td>butterfly perch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cadger's fish</td>
<td>experimental farm</td>
<td>departmental farm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ceremonial snapper</td>
<td>farmer</td>
<td>green crayfish♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>couta paw</td>
<td>pin fish</td>
<td>gummy shark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>creamfish♦</td>
<td>red gold</td>
<td>horse mussel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>departmental oyster</td>
<td>spat catching</td>
<td>lantern fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIB</td>
<td>spat collector</td>
<td>lemonfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisheries Development Council</td>
<td>spat stick</td>
<td>Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing Industry Advisory Council</td>
<td>tinplate</td>
<td>monkfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing Industry Board</td>
<td>white fillets</td>
<td>red rock lobster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go through</td>
<td></td>
<td>rock groper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grandfather hapuku</td>
<td></td>
<td>rock lobster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>green-lipped mussel</td>
<td></td>
<td>scorpionfish♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hector's dolphin</td>
<td></td>
<td>sea opal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>honorary Fisheries Officer</td>
<td></td>
<td>silver trumpeter♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karitane concession area</td>
<td></td>
<td>southern hake♦</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karitane rock lobster</td>
<td></td>
<td>spotted dogfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karitane sizes</td>
<td></td>
<td>whiting♦ 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kelpie</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kini</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kon-tiki</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kopapa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kourepoua</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maori chief 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maori fishing calendar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mullety</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muttonbird bag</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand Federation of Commercial Fishermen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand golden snapper♦</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand rock lobster</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand sea lion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>packhorse crayfish♦</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paihau</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paketi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pink maomao♦</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ring pot</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 2: New word for shared referent</td>
<td>Type 4: Additional meaning for shared referent</td>
<td>Type 6: Substitute meaning for shared referent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>batten farming</td>
<td>crayfisherman</td>
<td>blue mackerel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>big-eye warehou</td>
<td>mullock</td>
<td>bluenose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cray tail</td>
<td>shortie</td>
<td>deep sea mullet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cray boat</td>
<td></td>
<td>red pigfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>craypot</td>
<td></td>
<td>whiting 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>culcher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>culching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>culching benches</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fish the foul</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Griffin's silverfish</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kai moana</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand whaler</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opening factory</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stick oyster</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stone cultivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strip ey</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tailed at sea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tailing at sea</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teiche net</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yellowtail kingfish</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Time period 7: 1976-2005**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type 1: New word for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 3: Additional meaning for unique referent</th>
<th>Type 5: Substitute meaning for unique referent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>alert pigfish</td>
<td>authorising officer</td>
<td>big red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AMA</td>
<td>baby blue</td>
<td>black snapper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aquaculture Management Area</td>
<td>black gold</td>
<td>elephant fishery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bird baffler</td>
<td>bluey</td>
<td>giant spider crab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>black oreo</td>
<td>customary fishing rights</td>
<td>girdled wrasse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>black-footed paua</td>
<td>Deed of Settlement</td>
<td>goldie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blue moki</td>
<td>deemed value</td>
<td>redde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blue warehou</td>
<td>digging</td>
<td>scarlet wrasse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bycatch trade off scheme</td>
<td>double-picking</td>
<td>snot eel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>catch/quota trade off CELR</td>
<td>home freight</td>
<td>surf crab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christmas tree rope</td>
<td>moocher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cloudie</td>
<td>pin fisherman</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continuous rope</td>
<td>rasp</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>couta feed</td>
<td>rig</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crayfish boom</td>
<td>tap</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>craying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Definition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>craywell</td>
<td>customarily fishing regulations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>customary fishing regulations</td>
<td>customarily take</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dally fleet</td>
<td>DoSIP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish for a Compliment</td>
<td>campaign</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fishing related mortality limit</td>
<td>FishServe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FMAC</td>
<td>FRIA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>giant stargazer</td>
<td>GMITQ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>greenshell mussel</td>
<td>HFO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hookers sea lion</td>
<td>ike jime snapper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iki bin</td>
<td>iwi fisheries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jap pack</td>
<td>kahawai killer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kai Arahi</td>
<td>Kai moana Customary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kai moana Regulations</td>
<td>Fishing Regulations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaitaia spat</td>
<td>kaitiaki</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kete kai moana</td>
<td>LFRN</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAFFish</td>
<td>LFRR</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mahinga kai moana</td>
<td>malFIRM</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mahinga mataitai</td>
<td>manamoana</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maori fisheries</td>
<td>Maori fishing rights</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maramataki</td>
<td>mataitai</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MFish</td>
<td>mini marlin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muldoon trough</td>
<td>Muriwhenua claim</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mussel farmer’s waltz</td>
<td>mussock</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAFMAC</td>
<td>New Zealand littleneck clam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand Recreational</td>
<td>Fishing Council</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing Council</td>
<td>New Zealandisation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealandise</td>
<td>New Zealandised</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIWA</td>
<td>northern kahawai</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPOA</td>
<td>NZEEZ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operation Pacman</td>
<td>paddle crab</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paddle crab</td>
<td>panny</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>papaka</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 2: New word for shared referent</td>
<td>Type 4: Additional meaning for shared referent</td>
<td>Type 6: Substitute meaning for shared referent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bastard warehou</td>
<td>carrot</td>
<td>gemfish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beach pick</td>
<td>deep sea cod</td>
<td>kingfish 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beach picked</td>
<td>deep sea groper</td>
<td>sea perch 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beach picking</td>
<td>gumboot</td>
<td>separate fishery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boatie</td>
<td>mollyhawk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bronzie</td>
<td>QMS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colossal squid</td>
<td>rattler</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cook Strait sailfish</td>
<td>school fish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deep sea dory</td>
<td>skinny string</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deep sea warehou</td>
<td>skippie</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diarrhoea fish</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fisho</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fizz-boat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flattie ii</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flattying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>humpie</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iki</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iki killing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jap hook</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orange roughy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possie</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rat kingfish</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>smooth oreo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>southern blue whiting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spiky dogfish</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spotted warehou</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tubs-man</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>walkey wheels</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>white warehou</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YEM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## APPENDIX H: BORROWING AND WORD FORMATION PROCESSES

**Maori borrowing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Maori word</th>
<th>English translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ahuru</td>
<td>maka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>araaara</td>
<td>makawhiti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aua</td>
<td>mako 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hapuku</td>
<td>mako 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>haku</td>
<td>mako shark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hapuku</td>
<td>manamoana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hauture</td>
<td>mango</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hiku</td>
<td>maomao</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hiwihiwi</td>
<td>maramataka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hoka</td>
<td>marare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hoki</td>
<td>mataitai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ihe</td>
<td>mataitai 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ika</td>
<td>matarau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iwi</td>
<td>matau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kahawai</td>
<td>matuawhapuku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kai Arahi</td>
<td>moeone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kai moana</td>
<td>mohimohi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaio</td>
<td>moki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaitiaki</td>
<td>Muriwhenua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kanae</td>
<td>nanua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kapeta</td>
<td>ngoiro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>karengo</td>
<td>okeoke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kehe</td>
<td>pa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kekeno</td>
<td>paea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kete kai moana</td>
<td>paihau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kina</td>
<td>paketi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kini</td>
<td>pakirikiri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koarea</td>
<td>pakurakura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koheru</td>
<td>papaka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kohikohi</td>
<td>para</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kohuwai</td>
<td>paraoa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koinga</td>
<td>parengo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kokiri</td>
<td>parore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koko</td>
<td>patiki</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kopapa</td>
<td>paua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koroke</td>
<td>pawharu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>korowhawha</td>
<td>pioke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koura</td>
<td>pipi 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kourepoua</td>
<td>pipi 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuku</td>
<td>pipi 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kumukumu</td>
<td>piropiro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kupae</td>
<td>poha titi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuparu</td>
<td>pohuiakaroa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kupenga</td>
<td>porae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kutai</td>
<td>Pou Hononga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mahinha kai moana</td>
<td>pupu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mahinga mataitai</td>
<td>rahui</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Combining (hybrids*)**

- Akaroa cod
- alert pigfish
- Aquaculture
- Management Area
- Auckland mullet
- Auckland rock oyster
- banded wrasse
barracouta hook
bass groper
bastard trumpeter
bastard warehou*
batten farming
beach pick
big-eye warehou*
bird baffler
black-footed paua*
black oreo
blue maomao*
blue moki*
blue warehou*
Bluff oyster
bycatch trade off scheme
cadger’s fish
catch/quota trade-off
ceremonial snapper
Christmas tree rope
Cloudy Bay cod
colossal squid
continuous rope
Cook Strait sailfish
copper moki*
couta feed
couta paw
crayfish boom
craywell
cray tail
cray boat
craypot
creamfish
culching bench
customary fishing regulations
customary take
Dab Patch
Dally fleet
deep sea dory
deep sea warehou
departmental oyster
diarrhoea fish
drift oyster
English mackerel
Fish for a Compliment campaign
Fish of Maui*
fish supper room
fish the foul
Fisheries Development Council
Fishing Industry Advisory Council
Fishing Industry Board
fishing related mortality limit
FishServe fizz-boat
Foveaux Strait oyster freezing works
frostfish
gofishing
girdled parrotfish
go through
Government oyster depot
grandfather hapuku*
green-lipped mussel
greenshell mussel
Griffin’s silverfish
halved whale
haul up
Hector’s dolphin
honorary fisheries officer
Hookers sea lion
Jap hook
Jap Pack
kahawai bird*
kahawai killer*
Kai moana Customary Fishing Regulations*
Kai moana Regulations*
Kaipara oyster
Kaitaia spat
Karitane concession area
Karitane rock lobster
Karitane sizes
Maori chief 1*
Maori chief 2*
Maori fisheries*
Maori fishing calendar*
Maori fishing rights*
marblefish
Maui’s fish*
mini marlin
Muldoon trough
mullet boat
mussel farmers’ waltz
mutton shell
muttonbird bag
muttonbird island
New Zealand Federation of Commercial Fishermen
New Zealand fur seal
New Zealand golden snapper
New Zealand littleneck clam
New Zealand Recreational Fishing Council
New Zealand rock lobster
New Zealand salmon
New Zealand sea lion
New Zealand sole
New Zealand turbot
New Zealand whaler
northern kahawai*
northern rock oyster
old identity
opening factory
orange roughy
oyster rock
packhorse crayfish
paddle crab
paua bender*
paua bending*
paua shell*
Pelorus Jack
people’s fish
Picton bloater
Picton herring
pink maomao
post-settlement assets
pre-settlement assets
puka pull
puka pulling
pulling hand
queen paua*
Quota Appeal Authority
Quota Management
Area
rat kingfish
red moki*
ring pot
Sandager’s parrotfish
Sandager’s wrasse
scarlet parrotfish
school snapper
sealer class
Sealord Deal
silver warehou*
smooth oreo
southern blue whiting
southern pigfish
southern right whale
southern spider crab
Spanish lace
spat farm
spiky dogfish
spotted stargazer
spotted warehou*
State Loan and Mortgage Guarantee Scheme
Stewart Island oyster
stick farm
stick oyster
stone cultivation
sweeping the beach
tailed at sea
tailing at sea
tailing at sea area
Tasman Bay oyster
three corner
toheroa soup
total allowable
commercial catch
tonguer’s oil
transferable term quota
trawling shed
Treaty of Waitangi
Fisheries Commission
walkey wheels
whaler Maori*
whalers’ tea
white warehou*
windy buoy
yellow slimy
yellow-belly flounder
yellow-eyed mullet
yellow-footed paua*
yellowtail kingfish

Acronyms
AMA
CELR
DoSIP
FIB
FMAC
FRIA
GMITQ
HFO
LFRN
LFRR
MAF
MAFFish
MALFIRM
MFish
NAFMAC
NIWA
NPOA
NZEEZ
PMITQ
POSA
PRESA
QAA
QMA
QMR
QMS
QRN
SeaFIC
SLED
SMEEF
TACC
TCEPR
TOKM
TT/K
YEM

-ie / -y / -o
hypocoristics
boatie
bronzie
cloudie
fishe
flattie 1
flattie 2
humpie
kelpie
kingie
mullethy
panny
possie
schoolie
stripey
swordie

Other abbreviations
couta
cray
puka
trev
tubs-man

Other
beach picking
beach picked
cockabully
guffy
Jock Stewart
craying
culcher
culching
flattying
gunner
ike jime
iki
iki bin
iki killing
kon-tiki
mussock
muttonbirder
muttonbirding
New Zealandisation
New Zealandise
New Zealandised
Operation Pacman
ring potting
scarpee
snodgall
spotty
sub surfacing
tai
teiche
tonguer


Bayard, D. (1990). 'God help us if we all sound like this': attitudes to New Zealand and other English accents. In A. Bell & J. Holmes (Eds.), (pp. 67-96).


Kuiper, K., & Bell, A. (2000). New Zealand and New Zealand English. In A. Bell & K. Kuiper (Eds.), (pp. 11-22).


Trudgill, P. (1998). The meanings of words should not be allowed to vary or change. In L. Bauer & P. Trudgill (Eds.), (pp. 1-8).


PRIMARY SOURCES BIBLIOGRAPHY

Appendices to the Journals of the House of Representatives (AJHRs)

New Zealand Parliament (1858- ). *Appendix to the Journals of the House of Representatives of New Zealand.* Auckland: Printed for the House of Representatives by W.C. Wilson at the Printing Office, 1858-

1869 – 1972  Marine Department Annual Reports  
1973 – 1995  Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries Annual Reports (H15)  
1996 – 2005  Ministry of Fisheries Annual Reports (C20)  
1964 – 2005  Fishing Industry Annual Reports (H15a)  

Unpublished Manuscripts (Alexander Turnbull Library)

Aitcheson, M. *We in our small corner; a brief history of the Lewis-McKain Torr family.* MS-Papers-0017-21.


Fraser, A (1840-1842). *Amount of Expenses at the Whaling Establishment of Alexander Fraser.* qMS-0810.

Harris, E. (1834-1898). *Papers.* qMS-0918.

Journal and Log of Officer Aboard HMSS Conway, Hyacinth and Acteon (1836-1845). qMS-1080.

Log of the Marianne Brig (1845-1846). MS-Papers-894.

Log of the Tuscaloosa (1836-1837). MS-Papers-1593.

Mair, R. (1917). Notebook. 82-417.

McLean, D and Ormond, J. (1851). Whaling at Mahia. MS-Papers-0032-0130A.


Nichols, C. (1858-1861). Correspondence. MS-Papers-8575.


Wade, J. (1842-1846). Letters of John Wade. MSS-2200


Published Sources


---

7 Texts collowed by [C] are core texts from which vocabulary items were identified. Other texts were used for supplementing the citation file.


Best, E. (1929). *Fishing Methods and Devices of the Maori*. Wellington: Dominion Museum. [C]


Graham. (1956). *A Treasury of New Zealand Fishes (2nd ed)*. Wellington: Reed. [C]


Hector, J. (1872). *Notes on the Edible Fishes*. Wellington: James Hughes Printer. [C]

Hempleman, G. (1910). *The Piraki log (e Pirangi ahau koe), or, Diary of Captain Hempleman*: with introduction, glossary, illustrations and map / by the present owner. London: H. Frowde, Oxford University Press. [C]


---

8 Also catalogued as Buck, P.


Hursthouse, C. (1857). *New Zealand or Zealandia, the Britain of the South*. London: Edward Stanford. [C]


Mannering, G. (1943). *Eighty Years in New Zealand: Embracing Fifty Years of New Zealand Fishing.* Christchurch: Simpson and Williams Ltd. [C]


*New Zealand Fishing Industry.* (1903). London: Guy Whitem & Co. [C]


Nicholas, J. (1817). *Narrative of a Voyage to New Zealand; Performed in the Years 1814 and 1815 in Company with Rev. Samuel Marsden.* London: James Black and Son. [C]


Paul, L. (2000). *New Zealand Fishes (2nd ed).* Auckland: Reed. [C]


Polack, J. (1838). *New Zealand.* London: Richard Bentley. [C]


Savage, J. (1807). *Some Account of New Zealand; Particularly the Bay of Islands*. London: W. Wilson, Union Printing Office. [C]


Wakefield, E. (1890). *Catching Frost Fish with a Shotgun*: ATL Pam 1890 WAK 1743.


Watkinson, J., & Smith, R. (1972). *New Zealand Fisheries*. Wellington: Marine Department. [C]


**Newspapers Word-searched through Papers Past**

*Bay Of Plenty Times* (1875-1910)
*Bruce Herald* (1865-1905)
*Bush Advocate* (1888-1909)
*Clutha Leader* (1874-1900)
*Colonist* (1890-1910)
Daily Southern Cross (1843-1876)
Evening Post (1865-1915)
Fair Play (1893-1894)
Feilding Star (1882-1909)
Grey River Argus (1866-1920)
Hawera & Normanby Star (1880-1910)
Hawke’s Bay Herald (1857-1900)
Hawke’s Bay Weekly Times (1867-1868)
Inangahua Times (1877-1900)
Manawatu Herald (1878-1900)
Marlborough Express (1868-1900)
Nelson Evening Mail (1866-1909)
Nelson Examiner and New Zealand Chronicle (1842-1874)
New Zealand Advertiser and Bay of Islands Gazette (1840)
New Zealand Colonist and Port Nicholson Advertiser (1842-1843)
New Zealand Free Lance (1900-1909)
New Zealand Gazette and Wellington Spectator (1839-1844)
New Zealand Illustrated Magazine (1899-1905)
New Zealand Spectator and Cook’s Strait Guardian (1844-1865)
New Zealand Tablet (1873-1909)
New Zealander (1845-1852)
North Otago Times (1864-1900)
Northern Advocate (1887-1906)
Observer (1880-1909)
Otago Witness (1851-1909)
Poverty Bay Herald (1879-1920)
Progress (1905-1910)
Southland Times (1862-1905)
Star (1868-1909)
Taranaki Herald (1852-1909)
Te Aroha News (1883-1889)
Timaru Herald (1864-1900)
Tuapeka Times (1868-1909)
Waikato Times (1873-1886)
Waimate Daily Advertiser (1898-1900)
Wanganui Chronicle (1874-1900)
Wanganui Herald (1876-1909)
Wellington Independent (1860-1874)
West Coast Times (1865-1909)

Periodicals Searched Systematically

Bay of Islands Swordfish and Mako Shark Club, 1948-83
Catch, 1974-1988
Fisheries Newsletter, 1972-1973
Hi Ika, 1998,
Journal of the Polynesian Society, 1892-1976
New Zealand Fishing and Shooting Gazette, 1927-1956
New Zealand Fishing News, 1978-2005
New Zealand Official Yearbook, 1893-2005
Sea Spray, 1946-1960
Tangaroa, 1990-2005
The New Zealand Magazine, 1850-
The Southern Monthly Magazine, 1863-69
Transactions and Proceedings of the New Zealand Institute, 1868-1933

Miscellaneous Periodicals

Albert Times
Air New Zealand Magazine
Aniwaniwa
CenSeam Newsletter
Dominion Post
Freediving New Zealand Newsletter
Journal of Shellfish Research
Linkz
Marine Farming Association Newsletter
Online sources


Medsafe. Evaluation of a New Class 1 Substance Letospermum scoparium (Manuka) Essential Oil 19. www.medsafe.govt.nz


www.scoop.co.nz