



1 **Māori oral histories and the recurring impact of tsunamis in Aotearoa-New**

2 **Zealand**

3 Darren N King^{1,2}, Wendy S Shaw², Peter N Meihana³, James R Goff²

4

5 1. Māori Environmental Research Centre – Te Kūwaha o Taihoro Nukurangi, National Institute of
6 Water and Atmospheric Research Ltd (NIWA), Aotearoa-New Zealand.

7 2. PANGEA Research Centre, School of Biological, Earth and Environmental Sciences, University
8 of New South Wales (UNSW), Australia

9 3. School of Humanities, Massey University, Aotearoa-New Zealand.

10

11 Author correspondence

12 Phone: +64 9 3752086

13 Email: darren.king@niwa.co.nz

14 Address: Māori Environmental Research Centre – Te Kūwaha o Taihoro Nukurangi, National Institute
15 of Water and Atmospheric Research Ltd, Private Bag 99940, Auckland, Aotearoa-New Zealand.

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23 Key words: Tsunami, Palaeotsunami, Oral history, Māori, Aotearoa, New Zealand

24



25 **ABSTRACT**

26 Māori oral histories from the northern South Island of Aotearoa-New Zealand provide details of
27 ancestral experience with tsunamis. Exchanges with key informants from the Māori kin groups of
28 Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia reveal that these histories, recorded in a narrative form, are not merely
29 another source of information about past catastrophic saltwater inundations but, rather, reference
30 multiple layers of experience and meaning, from memorials to ancestral figures and their
31 accomplishments, to claims about place, authority and knowledge. Notwithstanding these
32 confirmations, to engage as insider-outsiders with Māori oral histories (and the people who
33 genealogically link to such stories) requires close attention to a politics of representation as well as
34 sensitivities to the production of 'new' and 'plural' knowledge itself. Individuals and families from
35 Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia permitted us to record some of *their* histories. They share the view that
36 there are multiple benefits to be gained by learning from differences in knowledge, practice and
37 belief. This paper makes these narratives available to a new audience (including those families who no
38 longer have access) and recites these in ways that might encourage those more intimately connected
39 to know and transmit these histories differently.

40 **WHAKARĀPOPOTOTANGA**

41 Ko ngā kōrero tuku Māori o Te Taihū o te Waka a Māui e whakaahua nei i tā ngā tūpuna rongō i te
42 aituā nui o te parawhenua waitai. Nā runga i ētahi whakawhitinga kōrero ki ētahi māngai matua o
43 Ngāti Koata me Ngāti Kuia, i mārama ai ko ēnei kōrero tuku, he mea mau ā-pakiwaitara nei, ehara noa
44 i te puna kōrero mō te tai āniwhaniwha o nehe, engari kē, he mea whai tikanga maha, mai i te
45 whakamaumahara i ētahi tūpuna o nehe me ngā mahi i oti i a rātou, tae atu ki ngā kōrero mō te rohe,
46 mō te mana, mō te mātauranga anō. Hāunga ēnei whakaūnga, e whai kiko ai te whai wāhi atu hei
47 'rāwaho-whai-hononga' ki ngā kōrero tuku Māori (me te hau kāinga e hono ā-whakapapa ana ki ngā
48 kōrero), me aro pū ki te taha tōrangapū o te tū hei māngai mō iwi kē, ā, me ngā kaupapa mana nui me
49 mātua whakaaro i te whakaritenga o te mātauranga 'hōu', o te mātauranga 'mātāpuna-tini' anō. I
50 whakaae mai ētahi māngai takitahi me ētahi whānau anō o Ngāti Koata me Ngāti Kuia kia hopukina



- 51 ētahi o ā rātou kōrero tuku. E whakaae ana rātou he hua nui ka puta i te whai māramatanga ki ngā
52 rerekētanga ā-mātauranga, ā-tikanga, ā-whakapono anō. Ko tā ngā kōrero i tēnei tuhinga he
53 whakawātea i ngā pakiwaitara tuku nei ki tētahi whakaminenga hōu (tae atu ki ngā whānau kāore i
54 whai wāhi ki ngā kōrero nei i mua), ā, ko te āhua e takoto nei ēnei kōrero hei akiaki pea i ērā e whai
55 hononga ana kia mātau ka tahi, ka rua, kia tuku hoki i ngā kōrero mā ara kē atu anō.



56 **1. INTRODUCTION**

57 "What is all this?" he asked. "These are the fish I have caught," replied Titipa. "This is the
58 result of my power as a *tōhunga* [priest; expert in traditional lore; person skilled in
59 specific activity; healer]." "But didn't I tell you I should expect the pick of the catch?" cried
60 Te Pou. "If you want fish, catch them yourself," retorted Titipa. "You don't get the pick of
61 my haul." "Indeed," said Te Pou, and he walked along the beach and inspected the fish
62 that were drying in the sun. "We shall see whose catch this is presently." Walking to the
63 water's edge and stretching out his arms towards the sea, he repeated mighty spells
64 before the people. Everyone wondered what would happen, but it was not long before Te
65 Pou came running up the beach. "Get back!" he cried. "Get back to the high ground, or
66 you will be drowned," and running past his people he climbed the high cliff, where he
67 took his stand, and repeated more spells. The people, thoroughly terrified, followed
68 helter-skelter, and left Titipa alone upon the beach. Soon the sea grew dark and troubled
69 and angry, and presently a great wave, which gathered strength as it came, swept
70 towards the shore. It advanced over the sandy beach, sweeping Titipa and all his fish
71 before it, till with the noise of thunder it struck the cliff on which the people stood. "That
72 is one," said Te Pou. "That is for the first fish. There will be two more." The great wave
73 receded, sucking with it innumerable boulders and the helpless, struggling Titipa. Then
74 another wave, greater than the previous one, came with tremendous force and,
75 sweeping the shore, struck the cliff with a thunderous roar. This was followed by a third
76 which, when it receded, left the beach scoured and bare. Titipa and all his fish had
77 disappeared. "I have finished," said Te Pou. "That is all. There will be no more trouble..."

78 [The Rival Wizards: Grace, 1907a]



79 In 1907, Alfred Grace (1867-1942) published a series of Māori “folk stories”, imparted by the Ngāti
80 Koata¹ elder Karepa Te Whetu. Within the extensive narrative of one of these stories, ‘The Rival
81 Wizards’ the “wizard-chief”, Te Pou, summoned three great waves to exact retribution upon the rival
82 Titipa for openly defying his instructions. Descriptive details of the impact of great waves striking and
83 scouring the beach were narrated, including many contextual details about the relationships and
84 connections between people, place and the metaphysical world. The reciting of this narrative in print,
85 however, did not occur again until King et al. (2007) and McFadgen (2007) cited the story, among
86 other traditional stories, and made a case for the scientific value of Māori oral histories in
87 understanding catastrophic saltwater inundations or tsunamis in pre-colonial Aotearoa-New Zealand
88 (A-NZ). King and Goff (2010) surmised that the descriptive nature of the language in the story
89 resembled those of modern-day tsunami survivors and argued that it might represent an historical
90 narrative recording direct experience with one (or multiple) tsunami inundations, prior to the arrival
91 of the first Europeans to A-NZ in the late eighteenth century. However, they also acknowledged that
92 the interpretation of Māori stories by ‘outsiders’ is fraught with the potential for misrepresentation
93 and concluded the need to engage with Māori who share ancestral and kinship linkages with specific
94 oral histories to tell our/their own stories.

¹ Ngāti Koata is one of several Māori kin-groups [*iwi*] who hold territorial rights, power and authority associated with possession and occupation of *iwi*-land over the northern South Island (Mitchell and Mitchell, 2004). They date their occupation in the area from the late 1800's, and recognise the successive movements of earlier peoples migrating to and through the area. Details surrounding occupational patterns are provided in: Keyes (1960), Mitchell and Mitchell (2004).



95 This study builds upon these collective contributions by working alongside key informants from the
96 Māori kin groups of Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia² from the northern coast of the South Island of A-NZ
97 (Figure 1). These informants share linkages not only with Karepa Te Whetu but also the places and
98 ancestral figures named in the ‘The Rival Wizards’ story. The paper begins by providing an overview of
99 past work in the geosciences to have benefitted from the insights provided by indigenous oral
100 histories. This necessarily includes a brief review of complementary lessons in political,
101 epistemological and methodological theory. The research framing for this work and the methods of
102 analysis are next outlined, before providing detailed accounts of the key elements of the story
103 supported by examples of contemporary dialogue, discussion and conversation. Finally, consideration
104 is given to the lessons, challenges and opportunities that can come from bringing the knowledge-
105 practice-belief complex of Māori Knowledge [Mātauranga Māori] together with the earth system
106 sciences.

107 2. INDIGENOUS ORAL HISTORIES AND TSUNAMIS

108 Consideration of Indigenous oral histories as tsunami narratives is not new. Vitaliano (1973) discussed
109 the scientific benefits to be gained by considering “myths and legends” as transmission devices for
110 knowledge about (and experience with) tsunamis, among other geologic phenomena. Her work
111 detailed examples of coastal deluge attributed to tsunamis (and their likely sources) from classical
112 Greek history through to more recent times from the Pacific coasts of the Americas to islands across
113 the Pacific Ocean. Accordingly, Vitaliano (1973) argued that such insights provide invaluable
114 information about extreme environmental disturbances in the pre-written past. A series of scientific
115 contributions have since emerged from the Pacific Northwest coast of North America detailing ‘Indian
116 myths’ and the transmission of knowledge about great sea level disturbances (Heaton and Snavelly,

² Ngāti Kuia is one of several Māori kin-groups (*iwi*) who hold territorial rights, power and authority associated with possession and occupation of *iwi*-land over the northern South Island. They are often referred to as one of the ancestral *iwi* of the region (Mitchell and Mitchell, 2004).



117 1985; Clague, 1995; Hutchinson and McMillan, 1997; McMillan and Hutchinson, 2002; Ludwin et al.,
118 2005; Ludwin and Smits, 2007; Thrush and Ludwin, 2007; Vitaliano, 2007).

119 Heaton and Snavely (1985) and Clague (1995) concluded that many details within indigenous oral
120 histories are consistent with tsunami inundation processes (e.g. the sudden receding of coastal
121 waters). Recognising this experience with earthquakes and tsunamis along the northern Washington
122 and southern British Columbia coasts McMillan and Hutchinson (2002) argued that oral histories can
123 provide independent sources of information which can complement geological and archaeological
124 knowledge about the role of infrequent yet catastrophic events in landscape evolution and social-
125 cultural transformation. They also made explicit that such histories may have other independent
126 meanings. Advancing this scholarship, Ludwin et al. (2005) considered 40 stories from 32 independent
127 sources about coastal earthquakes and marine flooding; and with help from Japanese historical
128 records determined that the most recent large-scale event captured in multiple stories along the
129 Cascadia coast occurred on 26 January 1700. Importantly, Thrush and Ludwin (2007) recognised that,
130 Native American and First Nations oral histories not only include rich and explicit accounts of seismic
131 events, but also that scientific inquiry is grounded in the historical relationships between indigenous
132 and settler societies, and that this has resulted in the privileging and production of certain kinds of
133 knowledge about the region's seismic past. Likely informed by transformative and decolonising
134 research theories, this corollary point raised important questions about geology's relationship with
135 colonialism, intellectual and cultural property, as well as the complex and fractious relationships
136 between researchers and the researched. Thrush and Ludwin (2007) highlighted the tremendous
137 potential for benefitting from differences in knowledge, practice and belief about some of the largest
138 seismic events known to human-kind.

139 Considerable scholarship has outlined the scientific value of indigenous expertise and information
140 about tsunamis referenced in oral histories from the Pacific Islands (Nunn, 2001; Lum-Ho and Lum-
141 Ho, 2005; Nunn and Pastorizo, 2007; Goff et al., 2008; Stewart, 2009; Goff et al., 2011; Johnston and
142 Dudley, 2009) and in A-NZ (Goff et al., 2003; King et al., 2007; McFadgen, 2007; McFadgen and Goff,



143 2007; King et al., 2010; Pearce and Pearce, 2010; Goff et al., 2012; Goff and Chagué-Goff, 2015; King,
144 2015; King et al., 2017). Further, there are likely to be contributions from other non-English science
145 communities about the potential value of indigenous histories enriching the geo-archaeological
146 sciences, but such references were not identified in the sweep of English language scholarship
147 conducted here. Notable contributions from the Pacific include Nunn (2001), who identified
148 ethnographic narratives of probable experiences with tsunami inundation, including a story from
149 Pukapuka Atoll in the northern Cook Islands where time is divided into before and after a huge wave
150 swept over the island. Nunn and Pastorizo (2007) also identified that Pacific Islander ‘myths’ might
151 inform the chronology and social impacts of such hazards. Similarly, Hawaiian scholars are also re-
152 examining their own oral histories that relate an extended history of exposure to tectonic and
153 geologic hazards – including tsunamis (Lum-Ho and Lum-Ho, 2005; Stewart, 2009). This work is as
154 much about adding to the scientific pool of scholarship surrounding Hawaii’s tsunami risk-scape as it
155 is about cultural revitalisation and connecting with the ancestors.

156 Meanwhile in A-NZ, Goff et al. (2003) emphasised the limited time frame of the historical record for
157 understanding tsunami risk in A-NZ and thereby pointed to the Māori oral record as a potentially rich
158 source of information about tsunamis occurring prior to European arrival. Succeeding this work, there
159 have been varying attempts to link geo-archaeological evidence and modelling output with historical
160 events inferred from Māori tsunami narratives (Walters et al., 2006; McFadgen and Goff, 2007; King
161 and Goff, 2010). King et al. (2007) argued that Mātauranga Māori is a neglected area of expertise in
162 scientific assessment and declared that greater Māori involvement is required in natural hazards
163 science to make the most of all the knowledge and skills that Māori possess. After this, King and Goff
164 (2010) mapped selected Māori oral histories that potentially related experience with tsunamis around
165 the A-NZ coast. These narratives were compared with contemporary scientific data and the
166 implications of this ‘new’ information for tsunami science were considered. Importantly, this work
167 signalled the need for new research approaches that openly and respectfully engage with Māori who
168 hold ancestral and kinship linkages to oral histories to tell our/their own stories. Such perspectives



169 have the potential to amend (and perhaps replace) accepted scientific views about pre-colonial
170 tsunami disturbance and risk in A-NZ.

171 3. DEVELOPMENTS IN POLITICAL, EPISTEMOLOGICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL THEORY

172 Developments in political, epistemological and methodological theory from a range of disciplines are
173 relevant to research that explores the potential of indigenous narratives to inform about
174 environmental histories and extreme disturbances such as tsunamis. A key debate relates to how
175 knowledge is constructed and legitimised, including whether a meaningful transfer of knowledge
176 between different knowledge histories can occur (or alternatively do harm) when removed from its
177 cultural context. As Mikaere (1995) argued, the outcomes of early 'research on' Māori (or rather the
178 inaccurate recordings and imaginary portrayals of narratives) rendered oral histories as "fantasy" and
179 resulted in "epistemological disarray". Bishop and Glynn (1999) contend that this reflected the
180 inadequacy of non-Māori to understand and accept the nature of Mātauranga Māori. Whatever the
181 case may be an ongoing challenge is to understand that narratives embedded within indigenous
182 knowledge systems provide more than alternative sources of information or even alternative
183 perspectives (Binney, 1987; Smith, 1999; Mead, 2003). Rather they have their own purposes, which
184 may include devices that help to establish meaning for discrete and repeated events through time
185 (Masse et al., 2007).

186 According to Cruickshank (1994), debates or understandings about knowledge construction are as
187 much about "epistemology" as they are about "authorship". She explains that for many Indigenous
188 peoples there is a reluctance to analyse and publicly explain the meanings of oral histories as this
189 takes away from the value and different messages that come from listening to repeated tellings from
190 family and extended kin, in place. This contrasts with a scholarly approach which encourages the
191 scrutiny of texts, and contends that by openly addressing conflicting interpretations, meanings can be
192 determined to enrich understanding. Many Indigenous commentators are thereby challenging
193 researchers within the academy of science to reframe how they construct and use knowledge. This
194 includes the treatment of Indigenous experience and knowledge as archaic and unchanging which



195 can, without consequence, be used by science to produce “authoritative” and “universal” insights
196 (Howitt and Suchet-Pearson, 2003; Shaw et al. 2006; Coombes et al. 2010). In response, Johnson et al.
197 (2016: 3) argue “scientists have to learn to see our own privilege, our own context, our own deep
198 colonizing. We have to learn to think anew - to think in ways that take seriously and actually respond
199 to information, understanding and knowledges as if difference confronts us with the possibility of
200 thinking differently”.

201 The production of knowledge is deeply entwined with power relationships and who holds control and
202 authority over knowledge and its applications (Stephenson and Moller, 2009). This challenge is based
203 on the premise that power underpins the place of science in contemporary society, and that the
204 narrators of science (and history) ultimately hold power, whether knowingly or not (Johnson et al,
205 2016). Indigenous commentators (and others) have discussed legacies of extractive research practice,
206 whereby non-Indigenous researchers have treated the holders of Indigenous knowledge as if they
207 have no moral or legal rights to decide how it will be represented or used within the wider world.
208 Such practices have often resulted in leaving those studied disenfranchised from the knowledge they
209 have shared (Kovach, 2009). Indigenous scholars have thereby mounted a critique of the way history
210 has been told from the perspective of the colonisers – and this has resulted in debates over who gets
211 to frame and legitimise knowledge, whose voices are prominent in these discussions, and for whom
212 the writing is being done (Smith, 1999). A number of scholars have also challenged the notion of
213 including 'voices' in projects that aim to speak (or write) on behalf of 'others' (Howett and Suchet-
214 Pearson, 2003). For example, Coombes et al. (2014, 849) argue that “research that took the once-
215 radical step of ‘giving voice’ now patronizes and silences those whose voice is quite capable of self-
216 expression”. While we recognise as researchers and authors the contradiction in the work completed
217 here, we acknowledge at the same time the collaborative basis of the research and the contribution
218 such grounded histories provide to scholarship.

219 In response to these histories and ethical challenges, all of which are taking place against a broader
220 background of indigenous self-determination and cultural affirmation, there is increasing recognition



221 of ‘decolonising’ and ‘counter-colonial’ research methodologies that seek to reframe and transform
222 the way research and knowledge is produced (Smith, 1999; Mead, 2003; Kovach, 2007). Key elements
223 of this discourse (although not limited to) include (i) valuing not only specific forms of Indigenous
224 knowledge but also the values underpinning such systems, (ii) recognising the authority of Indigenous
225 peoples to determine the rules for producing new knowledge, (iii) safeguarding the authenticity of
226 indigenous narratives, (iv) supporting research that enriches everyone who is connected with the
227 research project, and (v) promoting the benefits that come from learning from different ways of being
228 and knowing. Howitt and Suchet-Pearson (2003: 559) remind us also that “choosing whom to include
229 and how to include them, the choices other people have made in representing themselves to the
230 author and other authors, the ways the readers interpret the words and the ulterior motive for the
231 usage of the ‘voices’, all involve relationships of power”.

232 **4. RESEARCH FRAMING**

233 **4.1 Methodological approaches**

234 This research applies an inductive-based methodological approach informed by ‘collaborative
235 storytelling’ to consider the meaning and memorials presented in the ‘Rival Wizards’ narrative. The
236 methodology does not fit neatly into any category, but draws on decolonising research approaches
237 (Smith, 1999; Kovach, 2009) and grounded theoretical principles (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Pidgeon,
238 1996), while simultaneously seeking plural spaces of learning (Howitt and Suchet-Pearson, 2003;
239 Zanotti and Palomino-Schalsha, 2006; Johnson et al., 2016). This theoretical framing was underpinned
240 by Kaupapa Māori research principles (Smith, 1990; Te Awekotuku, 1991; Smith, 1999; Mead, 2003).
241 All informants were assured of their right to maintain authority over their contributions by reviewing,
242 editing and approving the ‘new’ narrative produced through this work. The National Institute of
243 Water and Atmospheric Research (HREC2017-005) and the University of New South Wales (HREC-
244 17085) provided human research ethics approvals.

245 **4.2 Methods, analysis and interpretation**



246 Semi-directive individual and paired interviews with 20 key informants from Ngāti Koata and Ngāti
247 Kuia were used to discuss the construction, key elements and purposes of ‘The Rival Wizards’
248 narrative. In advance of all interviews a copy of the ‘Rival Wizards’ story (Grace, 1907a) was provided
249 to all informants from Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia. Interview participants self-selected and/or were
250 recommended by participants and extended family members. Each session lasted between 0.5-2
251 hours and was attended by a research facilitator. All interviews were electronically recorded. Analysis
252 of interview material was inductive and consisted of (i) ‘content analysis’ whereby ideas or words
253 were identified along with the frequency of their use, (ii) ‘thematic analysis’ whereby the principal
254 elements emerging from the data were examined and sorted, and (iii) cross-checking the integrity of
255 emergent ideas and interpretations through follow-up discussions with key informants with
256 adjustments made where necessary. Central to these analyses was an emphasis on participant views
257 about the narrative (rather than the meaning the researchers brought to the research). Secondary
258 sources of information provided supplemental support. In following such methods, we sought to
259 avoid subjecting the story to external judgements, or in other words, risk turning the story into
260 something it is not.

261 5. THE RIVAL WIZARDS (ABRIDGED)

262 An abridged version of the Rival Wizards story is outlined below to provide context for the
263 summarised commentaries that follow. Importantly, in abridging the story, we are mindful that where
264 one chooses to begin and end a story can alter its shape and meaning, and so we encourage a reading
265 of the full story as published by Grace (1907a).

266 5.1 Synopsis of the story

267 The story begins with Rongomai, a “wizard-chief” renowned for being able to shape-shift from
268 monstrous to human form. One day, with his revered greenstone fish-hook (named Huakai after one
269 of his most famous ancestors) Rongomai paddled from his island settlement of Motiti to the shore of
270 the mainland opposite the settlement of Motu to fish for *hapuku* [wreckfish] and *kahawai* [A-NZ



271 salmon]. Boastful of his prowess as a fisherman Rongomai soon lost Huakai to a large fish, leaving him
272 miserable and despairing. Te Pou, the rival “wizard-chief” from Motu, watched these proceedings
273 from the shore. Famed also for his shapeshifting capabilities, Te Pou waited until after dark and then
274 stepped into the water turning himself into a shark and searched for the coveted hook. However,
275 Rongomai initiated an immense fishing haul, and relocated ‘Huakai’; although there was
276 consternation at a large hole in one of his nets presumably caused by a shark. Te Pou was furious at
277 Rongomai for having found ‘Huakai’, and for almost having been caught in his fishing nets. Vowing
278 revenge, Te Pou later swam to the village of Motiti and in the middle of night he thrust a burning stick
279 into the thatch of Rongomai’s house. Rongomai’s human form was burnt and he was thereafter
280 confined to an aquatic existence as a voracious and malevolent salmon. The fish from the coast near
281 Motu were soon thereafter driven away by Rongomai, and then while swimming, Te Pou’s son,
282 Kopara, was eaten by Rongomai. The mourning Te Pou subsequently planned a great farewell for his
283 son, but realising the scarcity of fish he transformed himself into a porpoise and travelled to have an
284 audience with Tangaroa, the supreme ruler of the sea. Here Te Pou requested that all the salmon
285 over whom Tangaroa held sway to come to Motu, be summoned to the mouth of the river, to weep
286 for his son. Tangaroa agreed to the request, but also indicated his interest in joining the occasion. In
287 reply Te Pou acknowledged the great pleasure this would bring, but he cautioned that the water at
288 Motu is hardly deep enough, with extensive mudflats and the river so shallow that it would be a most
289 inconvenient place for Tangaroa. Returning home Te Pou advised his people to prepare their nets for
290 the fish that would come, advising that he expected the pick of three fish for his own use. Standing on
291 the shore Te Pou proceeded to say incantations while Titipa, the next chief in command and secret
292 rival, ignored Te Pou’s requests. When the great haul of fish was pulled ashore, Te Pou returned to
293 inspect the catch only to find Titipa claiming it. Te Pou therein warned all to stand back from the
294 beach as three great waves were called forth, advancing and receding from the beach, eventually
295 taking Titipa with them. The story ends with Te Pou selecting the three largest fish from the collective



296 haul, gifting the first to his son and the sea, the second to his wife, and the third for himself, ending
297 Rongomai's existence.

298 **6. STORY-TELLING THROUGH WHAKAPAPA³**

299 **6.1 Narrative sources**

300 The published version of the 'Rival Wizards' story (Grace, 1907a) was "not known" by the informants
301 from Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia prior to the formal discussions carried out for this study. There were,
302 however, many repeated qualifications about parts of the narrative being very familiar. Independent
303 of one another, informants from both kin groups initially expressed "I am not familiar with the story",
304 "the story does not ring a bell for me", "I've never heard our people talk about it" and, among others
305 "the first time you gave me the story is the first time I had come across this". There was, however,
306 widespread awareness of Karepa Te Whetu (the informant of the story), first by the research
307 participants from Ngāti Koata who hold direct genealogical connections, and second by those from
308 Ngāti Kuia who recognised his name from pan-tribal history. From these collective voices, we know
309 that Karepa Te Whetu lived on D'Urville Island (Rangitoto) and that he was the elder son of Te Whetu,
310 a respected Ngāti Koata leader who migrated with other Ngāti Koata descendants from the North
311 Island in the 1820s to settle on Rangitoto and other areas across the northern South Island (Figure 1).
312 Te Whetu had a settlement at Te Marua (north-eastern side of Rangitoto), which is known for its
313 swampy ground and cliffs. An informant suggested that Karepa Te Whetu most likely grew up at Te
314 Marua alongside kin from Ngāti Koata and the already occupying people of Ngāti Kuia. For example,
315 an informant from Ngāti Koata reflected: "Ngāti Koata moved down here in the 1820s. And there was
316 a whole big history on that island [Rangitoto] before we moved in so I wonder how much of that
317 history, those stories, that he [Karepa Te Whetu] heard". In his later years, it was widely understood
318 that Karepa moved to Croiselles Harbour where he spent his final days (although one informant

³ Ancestral and kinship linkages to people and place, genealogy, literally means 'to place in layers'.



319 suggested that he may also have lived at Taranaki for a while). According to Grace (1907b) it was
320 during this period that he got to know Karepa Te Whetu, leading eventually to the sharing of
321 numerous stories, until Karepa's death in 1903.

322 Reflecting further upon the 'Rival Wizards' story shared by Karepa Te Whetu with Alfred Grace, many
323 informants from Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia noted that knowledge holders had probably passed on
324 and/or moved away from the Island, thereby taking many of their stories with them. One informant
325 also remarked that, "Some of our old people were cautious about who they told things to, so they
326 never told them". Other explanations for not knowing the 'Rival Wizards' story included reference to
327 changes in the resident population of Rangitoto following the arrival of the first Ngāti Koata peoples
328 and thereafter the broader social-cultural changes stemming from the arrival of the first missionaries.
329 Statements from both Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia informants included: "What happened prior to the
330 *heke* [migration] ... there are a lot that probably won't know what those stories were ... so yeah it is
331 probably a Ngāti Kuia story", and "These events [in the story] are before Ngāti Koata. It's probably a
332 Ngāti Kuia story eh?" and "Ngāti Kuia lived on the Island, right up until the 1870s, early 1880s. My
333 great grandfather was born on the island [Rangitoto] but he was straight Kuia... And then all the Kuia
334 left... so lots of those *korero* [stories] about Rangitoto were not spoken about anymore. Ngāti Kuia lost
335 a lot of those *korero* whereas our Ngāti Koata-Kuia relations who stayed on the island retained their
336 knowledge of the place". Whatever the case might be, two informants (one from Ngāti Koata and the
337 other who recognised their links to both Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia) also affirmed that they had no
338 reason to doubt the story from Karepa Te Whetu: "If it [the story] came from Karepa, I have no reason
339 to doubt it". Finally, upon questioning the informants about the role of Alfred Grace in the telling of
340 the story there was no mention of misgiving or distrust, as is common for other Māori when reflecting
341 on the work of other ethnographers of the time (Mikaere, 1995; Smith, 1999; Haami, 2012).

342 **6.2 Key elements and story-telling devices**

343 Many of the informants expressed familiarity with the places and contextual details described in
344 Grace's account. The most common reflections included reference to the two settlements named in



345 the story, Motiti and Motu. Initial discussions suggested informants were unaware of such settlement
346 names on, or surrounding, Rangitoto. However, several informants from Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia
347 (in conversations independent of one another) were quick to point out that there is a Motuiti Island,
348 also known as Moutiti, Motiti and Victory Island, just off the northern coast of Rangitoto (Figure 1).
349 For example, one Ngāti Kuia informant stated: “In the old books, it is referred to as Motiti and
350 Moutiti. Motiti - that could be just a misspelling if it has been orally translated. That kind of thing was
351 prevalent when they [ethnographers] were transcribing as they heard it and I would expect it would
352 have been the same kind of situation here...Motiti, Moutiti, Motuiti”. However, one Ngāti Koata
353 informant questioned these possible linkages, drawing specific attention to there being no beaches
354 on Motuiti and no visible signs of having been occupied (i.e. pits or middens). Notwithstanding these
355 literal inconsistencies, the same informant described the island as an important site for ongoing
356 traditional harvesting of wild-foods.

357 With reference to the settlement of Motu, one Ngāti Kuia informant noted the proximity of Motuiti
358 Island to the historical settlement at Otu Bay at the northern end of Rangitoto, and questioned
359 whether Otu Bay might be a misspelling of Motu (Figure 1). Another Ngāti Kuia informant questioned
360 whether Motu might be a shortening of a longer name such as Motungararara (now formally named
361 Titi Island) which was not only the site of a settlement held by Te Pou Whakarewarewa [an historical
362 figure understood to have lived during the late 18th century] but also a position where he had control
363 of all the area. It was surmised by another informant from Ngāti Koata that by using the name Motu
364 (translates as Island) Karepa Te Whetu may have been ‘generically’ referring to all the islands in the
365 area, not just a specific place. Alternatively, another informant from Ngāti Koata offered that “just
366 because people don’t know this name ‘motu’ it doesn’t mean that there wasn’t a place called motu,
367 but the name may have been buried or usurped by new peoples coming in...”. Given these initial
368 commentaries, there was general agreement that the story was derived from (and/or around)
369 Rangitoto but it was not possible to confirm any specific location.



370 The description of extensive mudflats and a shallow river at the settlement of Motu, also led some
371 informants to specifically reflect on several locations on Rangitoto and its surrounds with similar
372 physical characteristics. For example, a Ngāti Koata informant stated “When I think about that, I think
373 about Whangarae on the Nelson mainland, just before Okiwi Bay. It was closer than other places on
374 the Island. My recollection is going there as a child for a *tangi* [funeral] and we anchored our boat out
375 there and on the low tide it was stranded. We just waited for the tide to come back in again. And
376 there was a big settlement in that place...at Whangarae... That area is still owned by Ngāti Koata. Not
377 many people live there now but there are a lot of owners...you could class that as part of D’Urville
378 Island [Rangitoto]” (Figure 1). The same informant emphasised that these places were not regarded
379 as separate by the people living in these areas and that any attempts to locate places referred to in
380 the story need to understand that the sea connected all the islands and the mainland as well as the
381 settlements situated along their coasts. The informant added “there is another place on D’Urville
382 Island which is in the Manuhakapakapa Bay. The water there and particularly Opitiki Bay was heavily
383 populated pre-Ngāti Koata and probably even Ngāti Kuia...and the water there is shallow”. In addition,
384 specific reference to the “river” at Motu led some informants to contemplate the absence of rivers on
385 the Island as well as the neighbouring mainland. While this was inexplicable for some, informants
386 from both Ngāti Koata and Kuia recounted that the extensive use of geomorphic names such as
387 ‘sounds’ and ‘arms’ across the northern South Island today refer to locations that were traditionally
388 referred to as *awa* [river]. For example, “Te Hoiere – is a good example of that. Today we talk about
389 the Pelorus River and Pelorus Sound, as opposed to Te Hoiere being one big entity into the Cook
390 Strait. Even some of the place names through the sounds Awaiti and Awanui, they were calling arms
391 at the time also, so even if we were thinking about D’Urville Island and Port Hardy and Greville
392 Harbour and all of those places, there are lots and lots of little arms all over the place [that would
393 have had names]” (Figure 1). Such contextual nomenclature may thereby explain the use of the term
394 ‘river’ in the story.



395 Ancestral protagonists were another common element discussed by all informants. However, it is
396 important to qualify that most key informants from Ngāti Koata either declared no knowledge of the
397 names or that the names (or at least some) pre-dated the arrival of Ngāti Koata people to the region.
398 In contrast, most of the key informants from Ngāti Kuia recognised the names of the central
399 protagonists, and quickly confirmed linkages, citing genealogical books and historical transcripts (e.g.
400 Meihana Whakapapa Book, no date; Hemi Whakapapa Book, no date), and the ongoing use of such
401 names today. As one respondent declared, “Rongomai, Te Pou and Titipa - I know all those names”
402 and another stated “Te Pou - yep that’s my father’s middle name. Te Pou is a very common name for
403 Ngāti Kuia. Every Peter is a Pou ... so that name’s a common one”. Another said, “Te Pou and
404 Rongomai have been commemorated down to the present day by the repeated use of their names in
405 the lines of Ngāti Kuia *whānau* [families]”. The sacred fishing hook ‘Huakai’ used by Rongomai was
406 recognised by another Ngāti Kuia informant as a term used by recent generations of Ngāti Kuia. It was
407 also noted that the ancestors named in the story also derived from quite different periods of time.
408 Thereby, any attempts to historicise elements within the story based on genealogy would more likely
409 than not result in looking for detail that is not there. Two commentaries summarise these sentiments:
410 “Such stories were not necessary told in a linear fashion” and “The stories don’t follow linear ways of
411 telling a story and that is important because you can have different ancestors from different times to
412 celebrate those people, to remember them, to remember a lesson... so they are not forgotten”. In
413 this way, it is the protagonists rather than chronological dimensions of time that are of most
414 relevance.

415 Other contextual aspects in the story considered highly relevant to locating the narrative included
416 familiarity with large sharks and *kahawai* (salmon) in the area, particularly at Manuhakapakapa
417 Harbour (Figure 1). For example, multiple references to *kahawai* were made by Ngāti Koata
418 informants who grew up on Rangitoto Island: “*Kahawai* is everywhere [around Motuiti Island] ...we
419 catch *kahawai*, we get it quite easy...”, “*Kahawai* were plentiful around the Island [Rangitoto]... like at
420 Kape [Manuhakapakapa Bay] ... there was a big *kāinga* [settlement] here”. And, “I can tell you a story.



421 We had my dad’s uncle, and he was Ngāti Kuia. He was brought to live with us on the Island
422 [Rangitoto], and he didn’t like the people he was staying with. This was at Ohana. So, he left for two
423 or three days and there was no sign of him. So, they sent back to his people in Okoha (in the Pelorus
424 Sound), and they asked are any fish there? Our people responded yes there is a lot of *kahawai* on the
425 Puna (Te Puna Bay) side of Ohana. They said that’s where you will find him. What he used to do is dive
426 under the water and put his thumb and fingers into the gills of the *kahawai* and that’s what he lived
427 on until they found him”. Upon querying informants about which bay might represent the traditional
428 settlement of Motu named in the story, some considered the Manuhakapakapa Harbour as a possible
429 analogue, while others pointed out that Whangarae, Otu Bay as well as Skull Bay in Port Hardy are
430 equally possible given the significant settlements at all of these neighbouring places in the past.
431 Notwithstanding these reflections, many informants considered these contextual aspects in the story
432 highly relevant for connecting the story to the area. For example, one of the informants from Ngāti
433 Kuia stated: “It is not only the descriptive language of catastrophic waves being called ashore, but the
434 other details, that make us believe we are in the place”.

435 References to the power of prayer and incantation [*karakia*] as well as shapeshifting [*turehu*] in the
436 story were also identified as highly relevant to any claims of the narrative coming from the northern
437 South Island. Ngāti Kuia informants emphasised not only this power, but also the reputation held by
438 the “*tōhunga*” [priest; expert in traditional lore; person skilled in specific activity; healer] of Ngāti Kuia
439 to modify the elements. For example, “We were known as *te iwi karakia* [the necromancing people]
440 ...but not the kind that do *makutu* [dark incantations]. Our *karakia* were very much a demand, that
441 was the *mana* [authority, control, influence, prestige] and power of the *tōhunga* [priest; expert in
442 traditional lore; person skilled in specific activity; healer]. We are connected to all of our *Atua* [Gods,
443 deity] and we are made of our *Atua*”. These discussions also led one of the informants from Ngāti Kuia
444 to reflect specifically on the significance of the incantation used in the story and whether the
445 description of destructive waves was due to a tsunami or a phenomenon manifest through
446 metaphysical forces. In response, the informant answered: “what I do know is that our people were



447 recognised as very strong *kaikarakia* [necromancers]”. Mitchell and Mitchell (2004) have also pointed
448 out that Ngāti Kuia have long been recognised for their powers in this regard and historical transcripts
449 are known to contain *karakia* about how to control the sea and the waves, with many references to
450 Rangitoto (Smith, 1889). The story also incorporates multiple references to Te Pou and Rongomai
451 ‘shapeshifting’ or transforming themselves into various life-forms from the sea, from whale and shark,
452 to porpoise and kahawai. Again, several informants from Ngāti Kuia affirmed a deep familiarity with
453 such details, including acceptance of the supernatural and the metaphysical world. For example,
454 “Shapeshifting, that is acceptable to me. I grew up with that *korero* [story]” and “Kaikaiawaro is our
455 *kaitiaki* [person, group, being that acts as a carer, guardian, protector and conserver] and he takes the
456 form of a dolphin”. Further still, the familiarity with these elements in the story extended to
457 recognition among many of the Ngāti Kuia informants that they were descendants of Kaikaiawaro,
458 and that he is present in their genealogy as an ancestor rather than an Atua. As an informant
459 declared, “Yes...when I was reading this Te Pou goes to visit Tangaroa and when he transforms himself
460 it was like we know that because Kaikaiawaro who is in our *whakapapa* as a person who could
461 manifest himself as a dolphin... We are the descendants of Kaikaiawaro”.

462 **6.3 Memorials and analogue stories**

463 Reflecting upon the specific narrative of Te Pou [the principal protagonist in the Rival Wizards story]
464 calling forth catastrophic waves, many informants from Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia regarded this
465 account as most likely referencing direct experience with past tsunami inundation. Although, almost
466 all of these informants were quick to point out that they did not know where this story occurred
467 and/or when it happened, and that the narrative was being told within a framework of deities and
468 super-natural humans with influence over the elements. Consideration of the narrative as a tsunami
469 tradition also led several of the informants to note similarities with the destructive waves described in
470 another story from Moawhitu [Greville Harbour] on the western side of Rangitoto (Figure 1).
471 According to these commentaries a tsunami, possibly occurring in the 1400s or 1500s, drowned
472 nearly all people living around Greville Harbour, and their bodies now lie in the surrounding sand



473 dunes. For example, “Yes, there was a great big tidal wave. I heard it when I was a kid. My
474 grandmother told me when I was a child. This story is *tuturu tika* [genuinely truthful]. I don’t question
475 it”. The story of Moawhitu was also recounted by Karepa Te Whetu to Elsdon Best and published in
476 the Journal of the Polynesian Society in 1893 (Te Whetu, 1893). It describes the people of Ngai-
477 Tarapounamu who settled Rangitoto Island and a breach of *tapu* [sacrosanct, forbidden, inviolable] by
478 a local woman which led to the gods stirring up the deep ocean and causing great waves to sweep
479 away people where the woman was living. Phillipson (1995) purports that the “tidal wave” occurred
480 some-time in the sixteenth century, while Cope (2011), Chagué-Goff and Goff (2012a, 2012b) and
481 Cope et al., (2012) indicate the previous century as more likely based upon the inferred timing of a
482 Māori occupation layer beneath marine gravels at Moawhitu as well as palaeotsunami evidence from
483 neighbouring sites across region. Meanwhile, Mitchell and Mitchell (2004) referred to the “tidal
484 wave” as *Tapu-arero-utuutu* [vengeance for the breaking of strict food preparation practice] and
485 postulated that the people already living on the Island prior to the arrival of the kin-group Ngai-
486 Tarapounamu may have been from the ancient Waitaha peoples and/or early Ngāti Kuia lines. It is
487 also noteworthy that one informant familiar with the name *Tapu-arero-utuutu* identified a stand of
488 offshore rocks to the south west of Rangitoto by the same name (Figure 1). The association of this
489 name with tsunamis and its close location to Rangitoto however were not mentioned.

490 More than one informant questioned whether the Rival Wizards narrative might be a retelling of the
491 Moawhitu tradition. One informant questioned where knowledge of the Moawhitu tradition had
492 actually come from. For example, “I have heard the *korero* about Moawhitu and the tsunami there,
493 but I was told by my uncle (and he is passed away now) that the people were labouring men but also
494 avid readers so I cannot say whether that story was one that we had or what he had read and then
495 became ours”. Meanwhile another informant reflected that the [Rival Wizards] story might not
496 necessarily be referring to Moawhitu, but rather the Manuhakapakapa area due to the strong
497 references to kahawai and the abundance of people in the area: “This certainly could have been a
498 place where that *korero* might have been had”. In contrast, Otu Bay and Skull Bay were also identified



499 by other informants as equally likely sites referenced in the story. As noted earlier, one Ngāti Koata
500 informant reflected that the name motu might have not only been used in a general sense but also to
501 reflect that there are many places here that were likely affected by the extraordinary waves described
502 in the story and so a generic settlement name was used to capture this. Whatever the case may be, in
503 considering the specific sites and sources for the Rival Wizards story there was widespread agreement
504 (although not total) that the story and its elements derived from Rangitoto and the connected places
505 and peoples that surround the northern South Island. As one respondent noted, “It’s definitely got
506 the feel that it comes from this place”.

507 7. MAORI ORAL HISTORIES AND NATURAL HAZARDS SCIENCE

508 7.1 Lessons and opportunities

509 By engaging directly with informants from Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia it is evident that there is a deep
510 familiarity with the different elements contained in the Rival Wizards story. This includes knowledge
511 of past tsunami impacts on, and surrounding, the island of Rangitoto. Dialogue may not have included
512 familiarity with the specific story itself, but ancestral relationships were confirmed between
513 informants of Ngāti Koata descent and the original informant of the story Karepa Te Whetu as well as
514 those informants of Ngāti Kuia descent and the leading protagonists in the story. Many other aspects
515 of the story are also deeply rooted in the enduring knowledge of Māori histories across the northern
516 South Island. And, while the exact location of catastrophic waves could not be confirmed, most of the
517 informants (from both Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia) regarded the story as incorporating direct
518 experience with past tsunami inundation(s) on Rangitoto Island and the neighbouring coastal
519 surrounds.

520 More broadly, this work confirms that Māori oral histories are dynamic, even when committed to
521 writing in an ethnographical text. The Rival Wizards story holds multiple purposes comprising
522 elements of culture, place, identity, lineage, history and in this case, environmental risk. It is also clear
523 that ancestral and kinship linkages to people and place (i.e. *whakapapa*) are central to the



524 construction and ongoing retelling of Māori histories. Royal (1992: 21) affirmed this notion stating
525 that *whakapapa* is “the fabric upon which tribal histories sit” generating meaning for human
526 behaviours and understanding in the Māori tribal world. Further, Roberts (2012) explained that
527 *whakapapa* is used in story-telling as a construct for mapping the natural world and its phenomena;
528 thereby acting as a “mental map” of place. And most recently, Kelly (2016) has reflected that Māori
529 knowledge was stored layer by layer, referencing places, ancestors and the actions of protagonists
530 as ‘memory cues’ to retain vitally important information. The specific layering of contextual detail
531 in the Rival Wizards story affirms these connections and relationships between the natural and
532 metaphysical worlds, including the narrative structures critical to cultural endurance and memory.

533 Our working with informants from Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia also highlights that Māori oral histories
534 can complicate scientific definitions of what constitutes events. That is, the earth sciences typically
535 treat events as discrete and bounded but in the case of the Rival Wizards a different paradigm with
536 non-linear contextual details is used to establish layers of meaning with ancestral protagonists from
537 different epochs of genealogical time. Tau (1999) reflects that events in the Māori world are often
538 recalled relative to known ancestors rather than fixed at some objective point in time. Further he
539 points out that trying to apply chronology to genealogical time is akin to historicising a past that was
540 not intended to constitute a linear history. In short, Mātauranga Māori orders itself differently, and
541 thereby the risk of misinterpretation is high when stories and their elements are not understood
542 within the context of ancestry and cultural experience (Roberts et al., 1995; Berkes, 1998; King and
543 Goff, 2010).

544 The methodology underpinning this research provides an example of how the earth system sciences
545 as well as the knowledge-practice-belief complex of Mātauranga Māori can benefit from engaging
546 collaboratively with one another. Confirmation of deep connections to the Rival Wizards story and
547 subsequent affirmation of ancestral experience with past tsunami(s) across the northern South Island,
548 casts off earlier assumptions that the story might derive from the eastern Bay of Plenty (King and
549 Goff, 2010). Further, this study emphasizes the value of such engagements, particularly for scientific



550 researchers who seek to learn from the historical experience captured in Māori oral histories. From
551 this epistemological position, we agree with Styres (2008) who argued that the challenge for
552 researchers from the academy of science is to go beyond traditional methodological approaches and
553 assumptions about research which select and frame stories from the point of view of the dominant
554 culture. Further, we concur with Johnson et al. (2016: 3) that a reframing of science is needed
555 whereby “one is drawn to the wider value of a dialogue across knowledge systems that is humble,
556 respectful and hopeful; which recognizes not only the need to acquire knowledge, but also the need
557 to transform and respond to different knowledges, understandings, meanings, and opportunity”.

558 Although, we simultaneously acknowledge that this is deeply challenging because the research
559 structures around us constantly push and pull us to neglect and compromise these values, ethics and
560 practices. Further, we recognise that research framing will not solve all the problems associated with
561 the hierarchies of power and knowledge production (Mustonen, 2014).

562 Notwithstanding these ongoing tensions, engaging in this work can help to promote “plural spaces” of
563 learning that contribute to the reclaiming of stories and culture as well as the development of new
564 knowledge and new questions (Howitt and Suchet-Pearson, 2003; Zanotti and Palomino-Schalsha,
565 2006). For example, the work undertaken in this study contributes to a number of projects currently
566 being undertaken by Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia by adding to their existing stores of knowledge. This
567 research space also provides an opportunity for the knowledge-practice-belief complex of
568 Mātauranga Māori to engage with the academy of science about tsunami disturbance, recurrence
569 and risk. And, as already articulated, there remain many unrealised opportunities for Mātauranga
570 Māori to inform the earth system sciences about extreme hazard episodes and risk along the A/NZ
571 coastline over the past 1000 years (King and Goff, 2010; King, 2015; King et al., 2017). Such work
572 however will require greater attentiveness to relationships among people involved in the research,
573 including the need to be aware of contemporary developments political, epistemological and
574 methodological practice.

575 **8. CONCLUSIONS**



576 This work confirms northern South Island Māori links to ‘The Rival Wizards’ narrative, including
577 knowledge of ancestral experience with a past tsunami, possibly even multiple events, on, and
578 surrounding, Rangitoto (D’Urville Island). While we cannot confirm the exact location of the story, it is
579 evident from the multiple exchanges with key informants from Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia, that the
580 narrative comprises multiple layers of history and meaning. However, notwithstanding these
581 confirmations, to engage with oral histories (and the people who link genealogically to such stories)
582 requires close attention to a politics of representation, which includes considerations about how
583 knowledge is constructed, applied and legitimised. It also demands sensitivities to the production of
584 ‘new’ and ‘plural’ knowledge itself. Individuals and families from Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia have
585 permitted us to record some of their history, because they share the view that there are multiple
586 benefits to be gained by learning from differences in knowledge, practice and belief. Further still, the
587 ‘retelling’ of this narrative offers an opportunity to relive ancestral experience across different epochs
588 of genealogical time. The account offered in this paper makes these narratives available to a new
589 audience (including those families who no longer have access) and recites these in ways that might
590 encourage those more intimately connected to know and transmit these oral histories differently.



591 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

592 The authors acknowledge the key informants from Ngāti Koata and Ngāti Kuia without whom this
593 work could not have been undertaken. The research was funded by the Resilience National Science
594 Challenge - Vision Mātauranga (Grant Agreement. 28378) and the NIWA Strategic Science Investment
595 Fund - Hazards, Climate and Māori Society (Grant Agreement. C01X1702). Dr Mere Roberts and Dr
596 Bruce McFadgen are thanked for their constructive review comments. Stephanie Huriana Martin is
597 thanked for her assistance with Te Reo Māori.



598 **REFERENCES**

- 599 Binney, J. 1987. Maori oral narratives Pakeha written texts: two forms of telling history, New Zealand
600 Journal of History, 21 (2), 16–28.
- 601 Bishop, R. and Glynn, T. 1999. Culture counts: Changing power relations in education. Dunmore Press,
602 Palmerston North, New Zealand, 233 pp.
- 603 Carter, L., Lewis, K.B., Davey, F. 1988. Faults in Cook Strait and their bearing on the structure of
604 central New Zealand. New Zealand Journal of Geology and Geophysics, 31, 431-446.
- 605 Chagué-Goff, C., Cope, J., Goff, J., McFadgen, B., Mooney, S., Kilroy, C., Zawadzki, A., Wong, H.,
606 Jacobsen, G. 2012. Return of the Sea Monster – a tale from D’Urville Island, New Zealand. Abstract,
607 Proceedings of the third Joint IGCP588/INQUA 1001 Meeting “Preparing for Coastal Change”, Kiel,
608 Germany, 4-10 September 2012, p. 47.
- 609 Chagué-Goff, C. and Goff, J. 2012. A record of short- and long-term environmental changes at
610 Moawhitu Wetland, Rangitoto ki te Tonga (D’Urville Island) – What we know so far. Moawhitu
611 Newsletter (D’Urville Island) DOC permit NM-22329-GEO, 27 February 2012.
- 612 Clague, J. 1995. Early Historical and Ethnographical Accounts of Large Earthquakes and Tsunamis on
613 Western Vancouver Island, British Columbia. In: Cordillera and Pacific Margin / Cordillère et marge du
614 Pacifique; Geological Survey of Canada. Current Research no. 1995-A, pp. 47-50.
- 615 Coombes, B., Gombay, N., Johnson, J.T., Shaw, W.S. 2010. The Challenges of and from indigenous
616 geographies: Implications for openly transcultural research. In: Del Casino, V.J., Thomas, M., Cloke, P.,
617 Panelli, R. (Eds.) *A Companion to Social Geography*. Oxford: Blackwell. 472-489.
- 618 Coombes, B., Johnson, J., Howitt, R. 2014. Indigenous geographies III: Methodological innovation and
619 the unsettling of participatory research. Progress in Human Geography, 38 (6) 845–854.



- 620 Cope, J. 2011. Holocene sedimentary record of gradual, catastrophic and human influenced
621 environmental changes at Moawhitu Wetland, D'Urville Island, New Zealand. Unpublished Honours
622 Thesis, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia.
- 623 Cope, J., Chagué-Goff, C., Mooney, S., Goff, J., Zawadzki, A., Wong, H., Kilroy, C., Jacobsen, G.,
624 Dominey-Howes, D. 2012. Holocene record of gradual, catastrophic and human influenced
625 environmental change at Moawhitu wetland, D'Urville Island, New Zealand. Proceedings of the AMOS
626 Annual Conference 2012: Connections in the Climate System, Sydney, Australia, 31 January-3
627 February, Abstract, p. 226.
- 628 Cruickshank, J. 1994. Oral Tradition and Oral History: Reviewing Some Issues, Canadian History
629 Review, 75 (3), 403–18.
- 630 Glaser, B.G., and Strauss, A.L. 1967. The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative
631 research. Aldine Press, Chicago, USA, 271 pp.
- 632 Goff, J., Hulme, K., McFadgen, B.G. 2003. Mystic Fires of Tamaatea: Attempts to creatively rewrite
633 New Zealand's cultural and tectonic past. Journal of the Royal Society of New Zealand, 33 (4), 1-15.
- 634 Goff, J., Charley, D., Haruel, C., Bonté-Grapentin, M., 2008. Preliminary Findings of the Geological
635 Evidence and Oral History of Tsunamis in Vanuatu. SOPAC Technical Report No.416, Suva, Fiji.
- 636 Goff, J., Chagué-Goff, C., Dominey-Howes, D., McAdoo, B., Cronin, S., Bonté-Grapentin, M., Nichol, S.,
637 Horrocks, M., Cisternas, M., Lamarche, G., Pelletier, B., Jaffe, B., Dudley, W., 2011. Palaeotsunamis in
638 the Pacific. Earth-Science Reviews, 107, 141–146.
- 639 Goff, J., Chagué-Goff, C., Nichol, S.L., Jaffe, B., Dominey-Howes, D., 2012. Progress in palaeotsunami
640 research. Sedimentary Geology, 243–244, 70–88.
- 641 Goff, J., Chagué-Goff, C. 2015. Three large tsunamis on the non-subduction, western side of New
642 Zealand over the past 700 years. Marine Geology, 363, 243–260.
- 643 Grace, A. 1907a. Folktales of the Maori. Gordon & Gotch, Wellington.



- 644 Grace, 1907b. News item: Folk tales of the Maori. Grace describes Karepa Te Whetu. Marlborough
645 Express, Volume XLI, Issue 279, Tuesday 26 November 1907.
- 646 Haami, B. 2012. Ta te ao Maori: writing the Maori world. In: Keenan, D. (Ed) Huia histories of Māori:
647 Ngā Tāhuhu Kōrero, Huia Publishing, Wellington.
- 648 Heaton, T.H. and Snavely Jr., P.D. 1985. Possible Tsunami along the North-western Coast of the United
649 States Inferred from Indian Traditions, Bulletin of the Seismological Society of America, 75 (5), 1445-
650 60.
- 651 Hemi Whakapapa Book, no date. Copies held in Ngati Kuia Archives, Te Rūnanga O Ngāti Kuia, Nelson,
652 New Zealand.
- 653 Howitt, R. and Suchet-Pearson, S. 2003. Ontological pluralism in contested cultural landscapes. In:
654 Anderson, K., Domosh, M., Pile, S., Thrift, N. (Eds) Handbook of cultural geography. SAGE Publisher,
655 London, 557-569.
- 656 Hutchinson, I. and McMillian, A. D. 1997. Archaeological Evidence for Village Abandonment
657 Associated with Late Holocene Earthquakes at the Northern Cascadia Subduction Zone. Quaternary
658 Research, 48, 79 -87.
- 659 Johnson, J., Howitt, R., Cajete, G., Berkes, F., Louis, R.P., Kliskey, A. 2016. Weaving Indigenous and
660 sustainability sciences to diversify our methods. Sustainability Science, 11, 1-11.
- 661 Johnston, J., and Dudley, W. 2009. Pacific Island Tsunami Resilience Planning Guide. National Oceanic
662 and Atmospheric Administration, Pacific Services Center, Honolulu, Hawai'i.
- 663 Kelly, L. 2016. The Memory Code. Allen and Unwin, Australia. 336 pp.
- 664 Keyes, I.W. 1960. The cultural succession and ethnographic features of D'Urville Island. Journal of the
665 Polynesian Society, 69 (3), 239-265.
- 666 King, D.N., Goff, J., Skipper, A., 2007. Māori Environmental Knowledge and natural hazards in
667 Aotearoa - New Zealand. Journal of the Royal Society of New Zealand, 37 (2), 59-73.



- 668 King, D.N. and Goff, J. 2010. Benefitting from differences in knowledge, practice and belief: Māori oral
669 traditions and natural hazards science. *Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences*, 10, 1927-1940.
- 670 King, D.N. 2015. Tsunami hazard, assessment and risk in Aotearoa-New Zealand: A systematic review.
671 *Earth Science Reviews*. 145, 25-42.
- 672 King, D.N., Goff, J., Chague-Goff, C., McFadgen, B., Jacobson, G., Gadd, P., Horrocks, M. 2017. Reciting
673 the layers: Evidence of past tsunamis at Mataora - Wairau Lagoon, Aotearoa-New Zealand. *Marine*
674 *Geology*, 389, 1-16.
- 675 Kovach, M. 2009. *Indigenous Methodologies: Characteristics, conversations and contexts*. University
676 of Toronto Press, Toronto, Canada, 201 pp.
- 677 Ludwin, R.S., Dennis, R., Carver, D., McMillan, A.D., Losey, R., Clague, J., Jonientz-Trisler, D.,
678 Bowe chop, J., Wray, J., James, K. 2005. Dating the 1700 Cascadia Earthquake: Great Coastal
679 Earthquakes in Native Stories. *Seismological Research Letters* 76 (2), 140–48.
- 680 Ludwin, R.S. and Smits, G.J. 2007. Folklore and earthquakes: Native American oral tradition from
681 Cascadia compared with written folklore from Japan. In: Piccardi, L. and Masse, W.B. (Eds): *Myths and*
682 *Geology*. Geological Society of London, Special Publication 273, pp 67–94.
- 683 Lum-Ho, W.K and Lum-Ho, K. 2005. *Tsunamis in Hawaiian and Pacific Folklore and Ancient History*.
684 Pacific Tsunami Museum, 18 pp.
- 685 Masse, W.B., Wayland Barber, E., Piccardi, L., Barber, P.T. 2007. Exploring the nature of myth and its
686 role in science. In: Piccardi, L. and Masse, W.B. (Eds): *Myth and Geology*. Geological Society of
687 London, Special Publications 273, pp 1-7.
- 688 McFadgen, B.G. 2007. *Hostile Shores: Catastrophic events in pre-historic New Zealand and their*
689 *impact on Maori coastal communities*. Auckland University Press, Auckland, 298 pp.
- 690 McFadgen, B.G. and Goff, J.R. 2007. Tsunamis in the New Zealand archaeological record. *Sedimentary*
691 *Geology*, 200 (3-4), 263-274.



- 692 McMillan, A.D. and Hutchinson, I.H. 2002. When the Mountain Dwarfs Danced: Aboriginal Traditions
693 of Paleoseismic Events along the Cascadia Subduction Zone of Western North America, *Ethnohistory*,
694 49, 41–68.
- 695 Mead, H. 2003. *Tikanga Māori: Living by Māori values*. Huia Publishers, Wellington, 398 pp.
- 696 Meihana Whakapapa Book, no date. Copies held in Ngati Kuia Archives, Te Rūnanga O Ngāti Kuia,
697 Nelson, New Zealand.
- 698 Mikaere, A. 1995. *The balance destroyed: The consequences for Māori women of the colonisation of*
699 *tikanga Māori*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.
- 700 Mustonen, T. 2014. *Window in the skies: indigenous memory, resistance and experience of Eurasia*
701 *and the onslaught of resource extraction in the Arctic*. *Nordia Geographical Publications*, 43 (1), 67–
702 73.
- 703 Nunn, P.D. 2001. *On the convergence of myth and reality: examples from the Pacific Islands*. *The*
704 *Geographical Journal*, 167, 125-138.
- 705 Nunn, P.D. and Pastorizo, M.A.R. 2007. *Geological histories and geohazard potential of Pacific Islands*
706 *illuminated by myths*. In: Piccardi, L. and Masse, W.B. (Eds): *Myths and Geology*. Geological Society of
707 London, Special Publication 273, pp 143-163.
- 708 Pearce, E.M. and Pearce, F.M. 2010. *The Context of Oral Traditions: The Oral Transmission of History*
709 *and Maui the Navigators Visit to New Zealand*. In: Pearce, E.M. and Pearce, F.M. (Eds). *Oceanic*
710 *Migration: Paths, Sequence, Timing and Range of Prehistoric Migration in the Pacific and Indian*
711 *Oceans*. Springer, Dordrecht, pp 263-283.
- 712 Pidgeon, N. 1996. *Grounded theory: theoretical background*. In: Richardson, J. E. (ed.) *Handbook of*
713 *Qualitative Research methods for Psychology and the Social Sciences*, British Psychological Society,
714 Leicester, 240 pp.



- 715 Roberts, M., Haami, B., Benton, R., Satterfield, T., Finucane, M., Henare, M. 2004. Whakapapa as a
716 Māori mental construct: some implications for the debate over genetic modification of organisms.
717 *The Contemporary Pacific*, 16, 1–28.
- 718 Roberts, M. 2012. Mind maps of the Maori. *Geo-Journal*, 77 (6), 741-751.
- 719 Royal, T.A.C. 1992. Whakapapa. In: GRINZ Year Book, 1992. pp 21-25. Genealogical Research Institute
720 of New Zealand, Lower Hutt, New Zealand.
- 721 Shaw, W.S., Herman, R.D.K., Dobbs, G.R. 2006. Encountering indigeneity: reimagining and
722 decolonizing geography. *Geografiska Annaler Series B* 88B (3), 267-276.
- 723 Smith, S.P. 1889. Polynesian notes Volume 1. MS-Papers-1187-162. From: Polynesian society records
724 (MS-Group-0677), Alexander Turnbull Library, Wellington, New Zealand.
- 725 Smith, G.H. 1990. Research Issues Related to Māori: The Issue of Research and Māori, In: Smith, G.H.
726 and Hohepa, M. (Eds.) Research Unit for Māori Education, Monograph 9, University of Auckland, 47-
727 69.
- 728 Smith, L.T. 1999. Decolonising Methodologies – Research and Indigenous Peoples. Zed Books, London,
729 208 pp.
- 730 Phillipson, G.A. 1995. Rangahau District 13: The Northern South Island. Working Paper: First Release,
731 Waitangi Tribunal, Rangahau Whanui Series, 258 pp.
- 732 Stephenson, J. and Moller, H. 2009. Forum: foreword and analysis. Cross-cultural environmental
733 research and management: challenges and progress. *Journal of the Royal Society of New Zealand*, 39
734 (4), 139–149.
- 735 Stewart, R.K. 2009. Final Report – Hawaiian Indigenous Knowledge of Natural Hazards. Pacific Tsunami
736 Museum, 5 pp.
- 737 Styres, S. 2008. The silent monologue: The voice within the space. *Alternative* 4 (2), 89-101.



- 738 Te Awekotuku, N. 1991. He Tikanga Whakaaro. Research Ethics in the Māori Community, Manutu
739 Māori, Wellington, New Zealand, 29 pp.
- 740 Te Maire Tau, 1999. Matauranga Maori as epistemology. Te Pouhere Korero Journal, 1(1), 10-23.
- 741 Thrush, C.P. and Ludwin, R.S. 2007. Finding Fault: Indigenous Seismology, Colonial Science, and the
742 Rediscovery of Earthquakes and Tsunamis of Cascadia. American Indian Culture and Research Journal.
743 31 (4), 1 – 24.
- 744 Vitaliano, D. 1973. Legends of the Earth; their Geologic Origins. Indiana University Press, Bloomington,
745 USA, 305 pp.
- 746 Vitaliano, D.B. 2007. Geomythology: geological origins of myths and legends. In: Piccardi, L. and
747 Masse, W.B. (Eds): Myth and Geology. Geological Society of London, Special Publications 273, pp 1-7.
- 748 Walters, R.A., Barnes, P., Goff, J.R. 2006. Locally generated tsunami along the Kaikoura coastal margin:
749 Part 1. Fault ruptures. New Zealand Journal of Marine and Freshwater Research, 40 (1), 1-16.
- 750 Zanotti, L., Palomino-Schalsha, M. 2006. Taking different ways of knowing seriously: cross-cultural
751 work as translations and multiplicity. Weaving Indigenous and sustainability sciences to diversify our
752 methods. Sustainability Science, 11, 139–152.

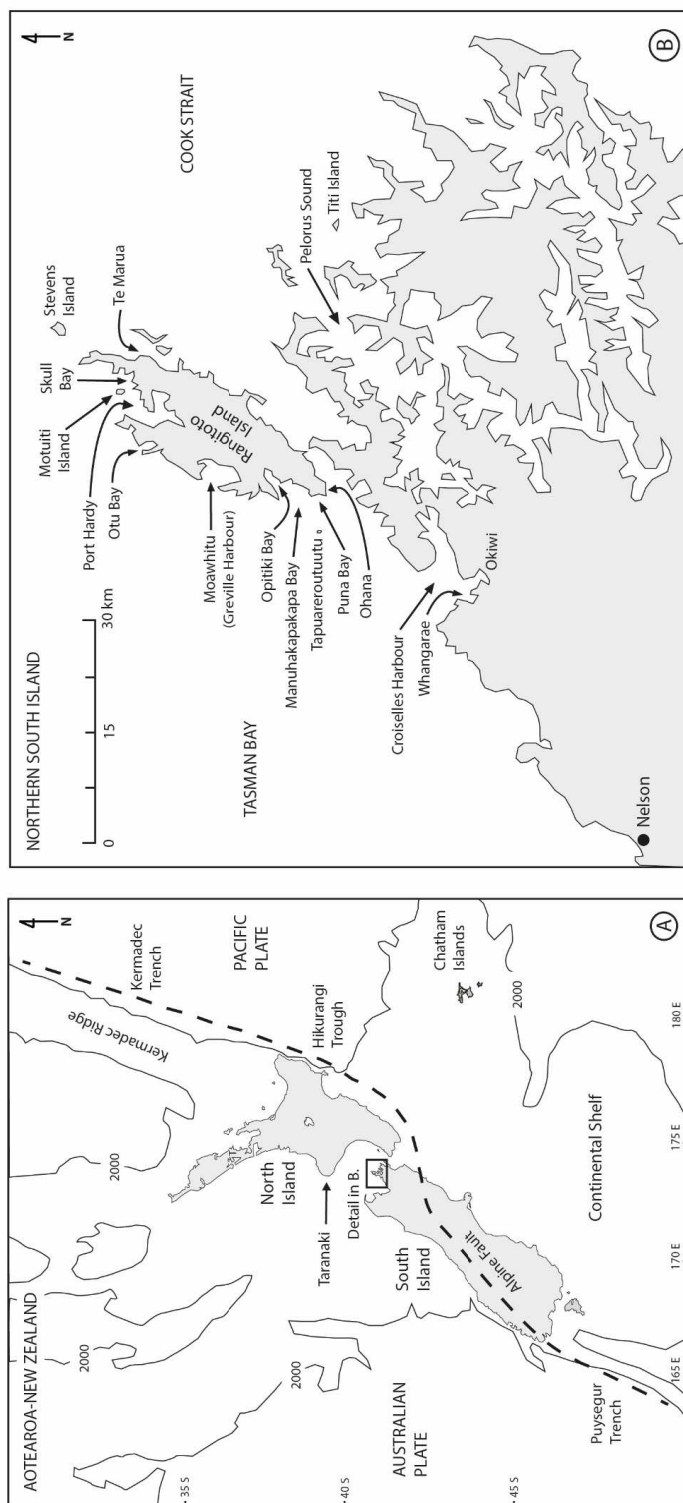


Figure 1: (A) Aotearoa-New Zealand's tectonic location in the South Pacific showing the Australian-Pacific plate boundary as a dashed line. The submerged continental shelf boundary is loosely defined by the 2000 m isobaths (adapted from Carter et al. (1988)). (B) Rangitoto Island (D'Urville Island) and surrounding locations mentioned in the text.