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PREFACE

This investigation has proved to be the most wide ranging one undertaken by my team this year, or in the recent past by my predecessor. It is effectively an overview of one of New Zealand’s most important industries; one that is threaded through the whole fabric of New Zealand society, from North Cape to Stewart Island. The focus has been on the environmental effects of the tourism sector, their nature, the risks they pose to New Zealand’s environmental and cultural integrity, and how effectively they are being managed.

It was initiated by my predecessor, Helen Hughes, following receipt of a range of concerns regarding the environmental effects of tourism on the conservation estate. While the investigation could have been narrowed down to the conservation estate, I decided that to do so would limit the investigation’s potential value, so retained wide terms of reference. This report constitutes the third and main report from the study. Others have covered a summary of submissions on an initial discussion paper and a literature review of the environmental effects of tourism.

The tourism sector is complex, as are many ecological systems. It is seldom possible to improve the management of complex systems, business or ecological, by focusing only on component parts. Really good information is needed on both the parts and the whole. Teasing out the information story, in our quest to understand environmental effects, highlighted some intriguing anomalies. If one looks at a transport business within the tourism industry, such as Air New Zealand, one finds a company with a highly developed business strategy and superb systems for monitoring the health of their key physical asset, their aircraft, and guiding them on their many daily flights within and beyond New Zealand. The business is therefore information rich and has strategic direction.

In contrast the New Zealand tourism sector, as a whole, has an information base more akin to that available to one of the first pakeha visitors to these islands, Captain Cook. When he first visited, he had very little information about the coasts and waters around New Zealand or its inhabitants. However, his expedition invested major effort in gathering data about the seas, land and peoples they encountered. While this analogy may seem far-fetched, it is pertinent to the tourism industry today which, in many ways, is also an explorer venturing into the fickle world of meeting people’s experiential and recreational wants while needing to sustain the communities and ecosystems that service those wants.

The environmental resources available to the industry are potentially rich but the industry is woefully short of information by which to craft a safe, profitable and sustainable passage into the future. The lack of adequate information is a major strategic risk for the tourism sector.

The paucity of data on many facets of the tourism sector posed particular challenges for the study. The case studies which are a foundation of this report revealed that many of the environmental effects of tourism could only be based on people’s perceptions, particularly in relation to social and cultural effects on their immediate
community. While there is no question that most communities in New Zealand welcome the economic benefits of domestic and international tourism, there are constant concerns about the effects on the place they call their home town or district. The level of concern was closely related to the size of visitor numbers relative to the size of the community in which people are living: large towns and cities can clearly absorb higher visitor numbers than small communities.

The investigation revealed strong support for a more sustainable approach to tourism. However, the recent focus on rapidly increasing numbers of international tourists is not necessarily sustainable, either for the industry or for New Zealand. The present economic stresses in parts of the tourism industry are obviously cause for concern, but they do provide an incentive and an opportunity to reposition the industry onto a sustainable pathway. There needs to be greater recognition of the unique environmental qualities that underpin our New Zealand businesses while focusing on increasing the quality of visitor experience. There is clear justification for focusing on quality rather than on quantity in the whole tourism sector, particularly international. Visitors to New Zealand have flights of at least three hours or, for some, over 24 hours to reach our shores. They are effectively at the end of the visitor “pipeline” from America, Europe or Asia. That makes our tourism sector very vulnerable in a world where the real cost of mobility is certain to rise in the coming decades. New Zealand is very well placed to focus on marketing quality experiences, and our environmental uniqueness, in ways that will ensure that the cost of travelling to New Zealand is of lesser importance to tourists in their selection of destination. Perhaps New Zealand should aim to position itself as a global environmental oasis: Aotearoa, an ark of ancient natural treasures, and thus be seen as a boutique tourism destination.

While this report is extensive, it has only one principal recommendation: “facilitate and resource the development of a strategy for sustainable tourism for New Zealand”. The reason for this recommendation, to the Minister of Tourism in partnership with the industry and others, is that it is not possible to resolve many of the complex environmental management issues associated with tourism without taking a step back and crafting a long-term strategic plan for the whole sector. Without a cohesive industry-wide approach, it becomes virtually impossible to deal with component parts such as managing environmental effects. I believe the development of a strategy should be strongly industry-led but that ultimately there has to be partnership with local and central government. Despite the best intentions in the world, it is unlikely that a good strategy, industry codes of practice and the like, will deliver all that’s needed on the environmental front. Ultimately, I believe there will need to be some ‘bottom lines’, through industry-developed regulation. While voluntary approaches to such matters are preferred, the stark reality is that they don’t always deliver, with potentially serious results for whole industries and ecosystems.

While the principal recommendation may seem a simple message, I would urge all to read the report in full because I believe my team has assembled an extensive body of information of potential value to many. While I am highlighting what needs to be done, I do acknowledge that the tourism sector is already addressing some of the issues raised. A dynamic New Zealand Tourist Industry Association is focusing on the need for a strategic approach and, in particular, better research on industry direction and
impacts. My hope is that this overview study will provide a useful basis for advancing such efforts to develop a more sustainable tourism sector in New Zealand – for New Zealanders and for the many international visitors that share our unique land.

Dr J Morgan Williams
Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment
KEY TERMS

There is considerable debate about the meaning and use of terms relating to tourism. Common terms are often used interchangeably but, where different meanings are used for the same terms, inconsistency and misunderstanding can result. There is also debate about the use of some terms, particularly ‘tourism industry’, which some claim refers not to an industry but to a group of businesses with a common focus on providing for visitors or tourists.

This list notes short definitions for key terms used in this report. Definitions of ‘environment’, ‘effects’ and ‘sustainable management’ are from the Resource Management Act 1991. The derivation of other terms is discussed in Appendix 4.

Conservation estate –
those publicly owned lands and reserves administered by the Department of Conservation.

Day visitor (Excursionist) – (see Figure 1)
someone who travels out of their immediate local area for the purposes of recreation or pleasure, but who does not stay away overnight.

Eco-tourism –
nature-based tourism that involves education and interpretation of the natural environment, and is managed so as to be ecologically sustainable.

Effects –
include any effect regardless of the scale, intensity, duration or frequency, which may be positive or adverse, temporary or permanent, past, present or future, cumulative or potential.

Environment –
includes:
• ecosystems and their constituent parts, including people and communities;
• all natural and physical resources;
• amenity values; and
• the social, economic, aesthetic and cultural conditions which affect the environment or which are affected by changes to the environment.

Public authorities –
all central and local government agencies, and all Crown entities.

Recreation – (see Figure 1)
the purposeful use of leisure time for an activity freely chosen for its own intrinsic value.

Recreationist – (see Figure 1)
person carrying out leisure activities.

Sustainable management –
managing the use, development and protection of natural and physical resources in a way, or at a rate, which enables people and communities to provide for their social, economic and cultural well-being and for their health and safety while:
• sustaining the potential of natural and physical resources to meet the reasonably foreseeable needs of future generations;
• safeguarding the life-supporting capacity of air, water, soil and ecosystems; and
• avoiding, remedying or mitigating any adverse effects of activities on the environment.

**Tangata whenua**
people of the land, Maori people with ancestral links to a particular place or region.

**Tourism** – (see Figure 1)
the provision and use of goods and services for and by tourists.

**Tourist** – (see Figure 1)
any person travelling to a place within New Zealand other than their usual place of residence (whether this be in New Zealand or another country) for a period of not less than 24 hours or one night, for purposes of either leisure or business.

**Tourism industry** –
those private sector businesses that provide the goods and services that tourists use.

**Tourism product** –
the wide range of goods and services that are directly relevant to tourism, such as transport, accommodation, and activities and attractions; plus those support industries that provide for tourism as a part of their activity, such as petrol stations, supermarkets, cafes, theatres, retailers, etc.

**Tourism sector** –
the economic sector that provides the goods and services that tourists use, together with those public agencies that have responsibility for or are involved in the management of tourism.

**Types of tourism** –
Tourism can be divided into types by:
• the origin of the tourist (domestic or international);
• the purpose of the travel (eg business, visiting friends and relatives or holiday/leisure ); and
• the focus of the travel (eg education, adventure, special interest, natural environment).

**Visitor** –
anyone who arrives temporarily at a given destination, including tourists and recreationists. The term may be applied to anyone who goes to a site or destination away from their immediate local area, and is often used synonymously with ‘tourist’.

**Figure 1** The Relationship Between Tourism and Recreation
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1 INTRODUCTION

The business of catering for domestic and international visitors is a well-established part of the New Zealand economy and way of life, both at national and regional levels. Tourism is seen by many as a way of generating revenue in non-extractive and sustainable ways. It makes a significant contribution to New Zealand’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and foreign exchange earnings and supports a correspondingly significant number of jobs in a wide range of areas.

However, there have been significant concerns about the effects of tourism on the environment. These concerns have focused largely on the effects of visitors (both domestic and international) on the natural environment, in particular on the conservation estate, and their effects on the experience of other users, although concerns over effects on the built and rural environments have also been expressed. The implications of recent rapid increases in numbers of international visitors to New Zealand have been debated. Recent policy decisions affecting tourism, and a reduction in government involvement in tourism, have also generated debate.

If tourism is to continue to provide wealth to the country and at the same time sustain the environmental, cultural, social and economic values that are the basis of New Zealand’s tourism product, the effects associated with the sector must be identified and understood. Their acceptability to the wider community must be ensured. The mechanisms and systems for managing those effects must be examined to ensure that they are effective in protecting the interests of New Zealanders and their environment.

Such a discussion about tourism in New Zealand comes at a time of strong interest in the concept of sustainability and its application in many sectors. In New Zealand, the concept is most strongly expressed through the Resource Management Act 1991, with its purpose of sustainable management. Internationally, the related concept of sustainable development has been embraced since the 1987 Brundtland Report, and the 1992 Earth Summit and Agenda 21. The last has spawned a strong interest in sustainable tourism development. Sustainable tourism development has been defined as “tourism which is developed and maintained in an area (community, environment) in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (human or physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being of other activities and processes” (Butler 1993). Application of this concept to New Zealand is discussed further in later chapters.
1.2 The development of tourism in New Zealand

Tourism has over a century of history in New Zealand. The first Hermitage Hotel at Mount Cook was built in 1884, and visits to the world-famous Pink and White Terraces were enormously popular before the Tarawera eruption in 1886. By the 1890s, tourists from overseas were being taken on the Milford Track, the Wanganui River and the Fox and Franz Josef Glaciers.

In 1901 the Tourist and Health Resorts Department (THRD, later to become the Tourist and Publicity Department) was established. It had considerable direct interests in tourism, as an operator of hotels and resorts, as a travel agency, and as a promoter of New Zealand tourism. When the First World War curtailed travel from Europe, alternative markets in Australia and the United States were sought. THRD ventured into promotional displays at major international exhibitions, and from 1917 onwards used film in its publicity campaigns. By the 1930s tourist commissioners were operating in Europe and the USA.

The statistics show steady increases in international tourism, from 8050 overseas visitors in 1921/22, to 21 762 in 1938/39. Again, war interrupted tourism activities, but advances in aviation contributed to a post-war travel boom. In 1951 the Pacific Area Travel Association (PATA) was formed to help develop tourism to the Pacific region. Hotels and other facilities were improved to meet increasing demand. In 1963/64 New Zealand received 100 000 overseas visitors, giving net earnings of over 8 million pounds. The increasing importance of tourism as an earner of foreign exchange was recognised. By the mid-1970s the mix of overseas visitors had changed, with fewer Australian and more European and Japanese visitors.

In 1983/84, over 500 000 overseas tourists came to New Zealand, and the following year the New Zealand Tourism Industry Federation was established (later to become the Tourism Industry Association – NZTIA). The 1980s also saw increased emphasis on the domestic tourism market, and huge investment in new facilities and accommodation. This coincided with a phase of significant government restructuring and reform of the systems and statutes for environmental management. Some key components of the restructuring were:

- the establishment of the Department of Conservation (DOC), to manage lands, coastal areas and wildlife previously managed by separate agencies (known now as the conservation estate);
- the introduction of the Resource Management Act 1991 (RMA), which brought an integrated, effects-based approach to decision-making on resource management issues;
- changes to the structure and functions of local and regional government (Local Government Act amendments); and
• the government divesting itself of the role of tourism provider (hotels, trains, ferries, buses and travel agency services).

In 1989 the Tourism 2000 Conference brought together a wide range of industry and government representatives and other stakeholders in New Zealand tourism, to assess future directions for the sector. The conference led to the establishment of the New Zealand Tourism Board (NZTB) and its adoption of a target of three million overseas visitors annually by 2000. This target was widely criticised and there was intense concern at its implications for the country’s conservation resources and values. An inquiry by Parliament’s Commerce Committee in 1994 received submissions on the protection of the conservation estate and continued rights of access for New Zealanders. It concluded that the development of tourism and the management and protection of the conservation estate are compatible aims.

The other most relevant policy initiative concerning the environmental effects associated with tourism is the development of DOC’s Visitor Services Strategy (DOC 1996, see Chapter 3.2).

In the year ending March 1996, international tourism was the country’s biggest earner of foreign exchange, bringing in $4.78 billion (excluding international airfares). This was an increase of 40% from 1994. In the year ending March 1989, of a total estimated tourism expenditure of $6.052 billion, international inbound visitors spent $2.277 billion (38% of the total), domestic business travellers spent $1.56 billion (26%) and domestic private travellers (excluding day trippers) $2.215 billion (37%) (Lim 1991). It has been estimated that the industry is directly and indirectly responsible for more than $1 billion of revenue to the government annually as taxes (NZTB 1996c).

The NZTB assessed the total number of private businesses involved in tourism as 16 437 in 1996, up from 14 506 in 1991 (NZTB unpub). Of these 10 700 are in the accommodation and food sector, 4303 in transport, and 1434 in the activities and attractions sector. At least 3000 of the total are rurally based (CRESA & Taylor Baines 1997).

Investment in New Zealand tourism has been substantial. Between 1991/92 and 1994/95 investment led to an increase of $2.471 billion in total assets.

Most tourism businesses are small, with around 80% employing fewer than five staff, including owner-operators. Only 10% of tourism businesses employ 10 or more staff, and only 71 enterprises (0.4%) employ 100 or more people. The NZTB has estimated total employment in the tourism sector in 1996 at 88 000, up from an
estimated 69,000 in 1991. Other estimates for direct and indirect employment in the industry range as high as 150,000 (Lim 1991).

A large number of tourism businesses use concessions on the conservation estate. At present, the majority (457) of DOC’s concessions are for guiding enterprises. These include rafting, adventure safaris and four-wheel drive treks, hunting and fishing tours, sea kayaking and caving, tramping and wildlife tours, and are mostly in Otago, Canterbury and the West Coast. DOC has issued 21 skifield and 121 accommodation concessions, of which half are ski clubs, tramping clubs and lodges in Tongariro National Park. There are 190 transport concessions, largely for helicopters and boating operations. Eighty concessions for special recreational and sporting events include bungy jumping, iron man challenges, and mountain bike events.

On the world stage, tourism traffic to New Zealand is a tiny portion of the whole. International visitor arrivals here constitute just 0.2% of the total number of people travelling across borders. However, international tourism traffic to New Zealand has grown steadily. Through the 1990s growth has averaged about 10%, twice the world average, although in the last year the rate of increase has fallen sharply. In 1990, 976,000 international visitors arrived in New Zealand, and in 1996, 1.52 million. The median length of visitor stay was nine nights.

The largest share of New Zealand’s international visitors come from Australia. North America, the United Kingdom and central Europe are also significant traditional markets, now being supplemented by rapid increases in Asian visitor numbers. Japan remains significant, with South Korea and Taiwan regarded as key emerging markets.

Travel patterns for visitors to New Zealand have gradually changed over the past two decades. The traditional travel axis between Auckland, Rotorua, Christchurch and Queenstown is still the route followed by many tourists; however, recent years have seen more divergence. Areas such as the West Coast, Fiordland, Northland, Taupo–Ruapehu, Nelson–Marlborough and the Coromandel Peninsula, and cities including Dunedin, Napier and Wellington are becoming established as international visitor destinations.

There have also been changes in the mode of travel of overseas visitors. Package tours remain a significant component, with “approximately half of the visitors to New Zealand [having] prepaid some component or all their travel outside New Zealand” (NZTB 1997a p 43). There are, however, increasing numbers of ‘free and independent travellers’ (FITs). FITs often travel by car, campervan or bicycle, and their patterns of activities and expenditure are thought to be different from those of tourists on package tours. The 20% of international tourists who are primarily visiting friends or relatives also have different patterns of activities and consumption.
New Zealand is marketed overseas as a clean, green destination with spectacular scenery and unique flora and fauna. To a significant extent, this image relies on the country’s farmland and conservation estate. The latter comprises some 30% of New Zealand’s land area, including several of the major tourism ‘icons’ such as Rangitoto Island and Mount Cook National Park. It has been noted that “the importance of the conservation estate and its unique features and benefits in the positioning of New Zealand offshore cannot be underestimated” (NZTB & DOC 1993, p 4). Other marketing drawcards for New Zealand include a unique and rich Maori cultural heritage, and the perception of New Zealanders as open friendly people who interact well with tourists (NZTB 1996c).

International visitors undertake a wide range of activities, the three most popular being shopping, visits to gardens, and visits to museums and art galleries (NZTB 1996a). Strongly or uniquely New Zealand experiences which reflect the ‘clean and green’ image are also very popular, with geothermal attractions, Maori cultural activities, and glow worm caves each attracting at least one third of all overseas visitors. Bush walks of up to half a day and scenic boat cruises were undertaken by 29% and 33% of all international tourists. More adventurous outdoor activities also feature strongly, although these have a narrower appeal. Between 1% and 9% of overseas tourists undertook ‘hard’ adventure tourism activities and overnight tramps (walks), and nearly one in five took jet boat rides.

Much of the emphasis in assessments of tourism is on international visitors, but domestic tourism is extremely important even though knowledge of domestic tourism in New Zealand is very limited. The most recent information relates to 1988/89, when it was estimated that domestic tourism directly contributed $2 billion to total GDP, compared to $1.2 billion for inbound international visitors. At that time it was estimated that New Zealanders made 10.3 million trips, totalling 41.3 million nights, away from home per year, twice the number of visitor nights spent by overseas visitors.

Domestic tourists’ activities and travel are to some extent similar to those of overseas tourists, with the main cities and destinations such as Rotorua, Waitomo Caves and Queenstown being popular. The pattern of domestic tourism is more dispersed, however, with regions such as Northland, Taupo, Wairarapa, Hawke’s Bay and Nelson being significant destinations. Domestic tourists are also more likely to be FITs, visit remote areas, and use private accommodation, whether staying with friends or relatives, camping, or using holiday homes. Experiences in the natural environment are a very important part of the New Zealand tradition, and this is reflected in patterns of recreation and leisure activities.

### 1.3.3 Domestic tourism

![Tourism Contribution to GDP - 1988/89 (%)](source: Statistics New Zealand)
This investigation arose from a scoping exercise on conservation management issues in New Zealand carried out by the previous Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment (PCE). The environmental effects of tourism on conservation values were identified as a significant component in that exercise. In November 1996 a decision was made to investigate the government system for the management of tourism in New Zealand, with particular focus on the government system for management of environmental effects associated with the sector.

In December 1996 the PCE released a discussion document, *A Summary of Critical Issues and Questions*, which incorporated draft Terms of Reference for an investigation. This paper identified some of the more significant issues around the themes of:

- the diverse nature of tourism;
- the environmental effects of visitors;
- research and monitoring for the tourism sector;
- strategies for the tourism sector; and
- involvement of interested parties in planning and environmental management for tourism.

The full text of the discussion document is given in Appendix 2.

### 1.4 Written submissions

Seventy substantive responses were received to the *Critical Issues* paper. The analysis and summary of these submissions was undertaken by independent consultants, and has been published as a separate report (PCE 1997a). The submissions yielded a great diversity of views and values, but there was also significant consensus on the needs and risks for management of the environmental effects associated with tourism. The key concerns and priorities expressed in the submissions have been noted and integrated into the discussion in the following chapters. Comments in the submissions on the draft terms of reference, as well as others from people interviewed, were used to refine the final Terms of Reference (see Chapter 1.4.4).

### 1.4.3 Methodology

Interviews were conducted with a range of interested parties in Rotorua, Queenstown, Thames, Waitomo Caves, Auckland, Dunedin, the northern West Coast, and Christchurch. The parties consulted included tourism operators and developers, local authority staff and politicians, community groups, DOC staff, regional tourism organisation staff, Maori tourism operators, tangata whenua, academics and researchers, and local and national interest groups. Interviews were also held in Wellington, including discussions with government agencies, politicians, tourism organisations, national non-government organisations (NGOs), researchers and consultants.

The interviews covered the interviewees’ perceptions of the effects of tourism, general and specific issues relating to the management of those effects, and the involvement of interested parties (including their own agency or group) in
tourism management issues. Where problems were identified, the interviewees were asked to suggest appropriate solutions.

To complement the information supplied by those consulted, the investigation drew on published material. Additional information was supplied by tourism researchers contracted to review national and international literature on environmental effects associated with the tourism sector (see Chapter 2).

The following terms of reference were finalised for this investigation in May 1997:

1. To identify the principal environmental effects associated with the tourism sector.

2. To review and assess the allocation of functions to public authorities involved in the tourism sector, and the implementation of those functions, with particular reference to the effectiveness of public authority management of environmental effects associated with the tourism sector.

3. To report results to the House of Representatives and provide advice as appropriate.

Definitions were provided for the terms ‘environment’, ‘effects’, ‘tourism sector’ and ‘tourist’ (see Key Terms).

This investigation has been carried out under s 16 (1)(a) of the Environment Act 1986, which, with the objective of maintaining and improving the quality of the environment, enables the Commissioner to review the system of agencies and processes established by the government to manage the allocation, use and preservation of natural and physical resources.

The tourism sector in New Zealand is large and diverse. It has equally diverse and complex effects on the environment, on society and culture, and on the natural and cultural resources on which most tourism activities depend. The views and concerns of different groups and stakeholders are also very wide-ranging, as indicated in the Summary of Submissions (PCE 1997a). In order to avoid an
impossibly indigestible epic, and to provide focus for the investigation, some limitations in the scope of the investigation had to be accepted.
This report provides an overview of a huge and multi-faceted topic. The assessments and discussion that follow are not intended as a fully comprehensive statement on any particular issue, theme or area.

Much of the investigation and the discussion in this report deals with the perceptions of respondents and stakeholders regarding the effects associated with tourism. Often the issues are addressed through anecdote and personal experience rather than solidly researched evidence. Where robust data is available it has been used to develop conclusions, but in many instances such reliable information is simply not available. More research work clearly needs to be done, targeted specifically to meeting some of the information gaps in this sector. Chapter 4 considers current research programmes into tourism and its effects in New Zealand.

Much of the information gathered during the investigation is presented in appendices to this report and in two supplementary volumes (PCE 1997a, b). Summaries of this information are presented in Chapters 2 to 5 of this report.

The geographical and thematic scope of the study was restricted by the resources available, in particular in the selection of the six place profiles in Chapter 5. The two main profiles, of the Rotorua and Queenstown–Lakes districts, both deal with districts where tourism is very significant, but the environmental, social and economic setting of each provides different contexts for tourism management. In both cases tourism-related concerns had been drawn to the attention of the previous Commissioner. The four other areas (Buller, the Coromandel Peninsula, Hauraki Gulf and Waitomo Caves) were chosen for briefer sketches on the basis of significant and different tourism issues which became evident during preliminary work.

While tourism is significant in different ways for all the main centres, no major urban centres are assessed in detail. Several areas such as Northland/Taitokerau, Wanganui and the East Coast/Tairawhiti, where tourism issues are of special significance for tangata whenua, were not visited due to limited time and resources. New Zealand’s sub-Antarctic islands and Antarctic dependency have been excluded, mainly because they pose a different specific set of management issues for tourism from those on the ‘mainland’. Finally, the investigation focuses principally on land-based tourism, although there are increasingly urgent management issues for marine and coastal environments, and wildlife such as whales and dolphins, which are the subjects of marine-mammal watching operations.

To provide a framework for assessing the adequacy of the system for managing the environmental effects associated with tourism, a number of criteria were developed, based on principles of sound environmental management. The
following five key criteria were used in the development of the discussion in subsequent chapters:

1. Management responsibilities are clear, comprehensive, and coordinated.
2. Tourism is planned and managed so as to avoid, remedy or mitigate adverse environmental effects and to be sustainable over the long term.
3. Decision-makers are accountable to, and consult with, key stakeholders.
4. Effects monitoring and other research are undertaken to support sustainable tourism.
5. Costs are shared by the parties that receive the benefits.

The emphasis of the criteria is on public sector effectiveness, in line with the Terms of Reference for this investigation. However, it is acknowledged that private sector performance is a critical determinant of the effects of tourism, an issue discussed further in Chapter 6.

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1 More detailed points were noted under each of these key criteria (see Appendix 3). These are not considered explicitly in this report, but provide a useful context for the evaluation.
2 THE ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS ASSOCIATED WITH THE TOURISM SECTOR

In order to evaluate the management of the environmental effects associated with the tourism sector, it is necessary first to determine what these effects are. In this chapter an attempt is made to identify these effects to provide both a focus and a context for the evaluation carried out in subsequent chapters. This chapter addresses the first term of reference for the investigation.

Two approaches were taken:
- a literature review was commissioned from a tourism research consultant, to summarise the environmental effects associated with tourism identified in research literature both in New Zealand and overseas\(^2\); and
- environmental effects associated with tourism identified in interviews during the investigation were collated and evaluated, together with those noted in written submissions.

In this report the term ‘environmental effect’ includes reference to both positive and negative environmental effects. The term ‘impacts’, used in some work to refer to negative effects (eg DOC 1997) is not used. The phrase ‘environmental effects associated with the tourism sector’ is used throughout this report because a causal relationship between tourism and some of the effects identified by those consulted is not clear. For brevity, the term ‘the tourism sector’ is generally abbreviated to ‘tourism’, but this does not imply that all effects identified are associated with tourism activities per se; they may be associated with any part of the tourism sector as defined at the beginning of this report.

A number of inventories of different environmental effects associated with tourism have been undertaken in New Zealand recently (DOC 1997; Ward and Beanland 1996; TPG 1995a, 1996a; Devlin et al. 1995). However, this investigation is thought to be the most comprehensive attempt to date to broadly identify all environmental effects associated with the tourism sector in New Zealand.

The investigation identified a great range of effects, both environmental and non-environmental, as well as some which may be considered environmental in some contexts. Environmental effects may include social, economic, aesthetic and cultural aspects where those matters are related to effects on the physical

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\(^2\) The consultant’s full report (by Professor Geoff Kearsley and Dr James Higham, Centre for Tourism, University of Otago) is published separately (PCE 1997b).
environment. People and communities are part of the physical environment in the sense that they are parts of ecosystems.

All types of effects associated with tourism in New Zealand identified in this investigation are listed and briefly characterised in Table 2.1. However, those which are not environmental effects will not be discussed in any detail in the body of the report.

The grouping of effects in the table reflects the framework used by the consultant. The ‘effects identified in the literature’ column is summarised from the consultant’s report (PCE 1997b). This report includes more complete references, including overseas work. Here, comments relating to research in the fourth column refer only to key New Zealand references. The amount of relevant New Zealand research is characterised as: none, little (one or two studies), some (several studies, but gaps), or significant (comprehensive work).

Table 2.1 is a checklist rather than an assessment of frequency or importance of listed effects. This approach is appropriate because the context and content of the interviews in which effects were identified differed significantly, precluding a rigorous, quantitative approach to the analysis of the responses. Each effect is listed only once, regardless of how many times it was cited, and no attempt was made to restrict the scope of effects raised by people interviewed. However, the effects are characterised in the ‘type’ column using the values shown in Figure 2.1. This illustrates how specific/localised or how general/dispersed the effect is.

Features of the effects identified in Table 2.1 are discussed in the next section. An assessment of what are considered to be the principal environmental effects is made in Section 2.3.
Figure 2.1  Gradation of the Effects Associated with Tourism

1. Biophysical (usually site specific)
   - Experiential, site-specific effects (often perceptual – eg noise and crowding)

2. Effects on communities (includes community health and character, and community participation) as well as dispersed biophysical effects

3. Economic, cultural and social effects – these may be wider than community and may be regional or national (linked to employment, wealth, social conditions, tangata whenua values, cultural perceptions, etc)

4. Direct/Specific (localised)

General (dispersed)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TITLE</th>
<th>EFFECTS IDENTIFIED BY SUBMITTERS AND INTERVIEWEES</th>
<th>EFFECT IDENTIFIED IN THE LITERATURE</th>
<th>NZ RESEARCH: KEY NZ REFERENCES</th>
<th>TYPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EFFECTS ON THE NATURAL ENVIRONMENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physical Effects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection / enhancement</td>
<td>Increased environmental protection* and habitat enhancement from tourism revenue</td>
<td>Emissions mainly from vehicles, both private and commercial</td>
<td>Little: Cessford &amp; Dingwall (1996); Ward &amp; Beanland (1996)</td>
<td>1, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air pollution</td>
<td>Air pollution from tourist traffic and buses, Greenhouse gas emissions from tourist transport*</td>
<td>Includes spread of waterweed – depends largely on intensity of use</td>
<td>Little: Cessford &amp; Dingwall (1996); Ward &amp; Beanland (1996)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water pollution</td>
<td>Increased pollution of the marine environment from shipping and boating, including ballast water, oily water, sewage, and waste and risk of oil spills. Water pollution (unspecified)</td>
<td>Causes health risk (eg Giardia) with potentially significant effect</td>
<td>Some: Cessford &amp; Dingwall (1996)</td>
<td>1, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water pollution due to human waste and disease pathogens</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Soil (effect on composition and structure)</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soil erosion</td>
<td>Riverbank erosion due to jet boats and other river uses, Soil erosion, compaction and contamination Damage to caves</td>
<td>Due to physical contact and waste/chemicals. Due to trampling, construction and extreme weather – related to level of use and fragility of environment Due to use, including trampling, rock climbing and graffiti. Taking of souvenirs</td>
<td>Little: Booth &amp; Cullen (1995); Devlin et al. (1995) Little: Department of Lands and Survey (1986) None specific</td>
<td>1, 3, 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geological structures – physical damage</td>
<td>Physical effects of construction of new facilities such as marinas and ports including dredging, soil dumping</td>
<td>Effects of facility construction including instability and erosion Loss of visual amenity caused by infrastructure / developments and inappropriate use</td>
<td>Little: DOC (1990); Department of Lands and Survey (1986) None</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geological structures – ‘souveniring’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Geological structures – damage due to construction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual impacts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ecological Effects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Species conservation</td>
<td>Species conservation or protection because of tourism interest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TITLE</td>
<td>EFFECTS IDENTIFIED BY SUBMITTERS AND INTERVIEWEES</td>
<td>EFFECT IDENTIFIED IN THE LITERATURE</td>
<td>NZ RESEARCH: KEY NZ REFERENCES</td>
<td>TYPE</td>
</tr>
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<td>------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wildlife disruption</td>
<td>Disturbance of wildlife from tourist interaction</td>
<td>Disruption by visitors of breeding, feeding, and normal behaviour of wildlife</td>
<td>Significant (site specific): Gordon et al. (1992); Robertson (1994); Higham (1994)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of habitat</td>
<td>Habitat degeneration (unspecified)</td>
<td>Habitat loss and displacement of wildlife</td>
<td>Little: Butler (1991); Clearwater (1993)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunting/collecting</td>
<td>Pressure on sensitive wilderness fisheries Taking of shellfish from local resource base</td>
<td>Effect of hunting and specimen collection is unknown, but potentially very important</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vegetation damage</td>
<td>Vegetation disturbance</td>
<td>Due to trampling and introduced species – includes changes in species composition and age structure</td>
<td>Little: Booth &amp; Cullen (1995); Cessford &amp; Dingwall (1996)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of wilderness</td>
<td>Loss of wilderness areas</td>
<td></td>
<td>1, 3, 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource pressure</td>
<td>Pressure on a finite natural environment</td>
<td></td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spread of effects</td>
<td>Spread of visitors into wider range of sensitive natural areas</td>
<td></td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of species introductions</td>
<td>Increased risk of introducing unwanted pests and disease vectors*</td>
<td></td>
<td>1, 3, 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People in Natural Environments</td>
<td>Crowding Crowing on natural areas, especially on tracks</td>
<td>Negative perception of numbers of people can lead to stress and displacement</td>
<td>Some: Kearsley &amp; O’Neill (1994)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Displacement and reduced satisfaction</td>
<td>Exclusion of locals from places special to them due to displacement by tourists Displacement of local people causes spreading of impacts into other natural areas not previously affected by visitors</td>
<td>Tourists and locals move to other locations to avoid tourists</td>
<td>Little: Higham &amp; Kearsley (1994); Kearsley (1997)</td>
<td>3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User conflict</td>
<td>Conflicts between users of natural area with different goals (eg helicopter anglers vs tramper anglers)</td>
<td></td>
<td>2, 3, 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise</td>
<td>Unacceptable noise from transport</td>
<td>Due to aircraft, boats and motor vehicles</td>
<td>Some: Rogers (1995)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased visitor safety</td>
<td>Due to adventure and outdoor activities</td>
<td></td>
<td>Little: Clapcott (1995); TPG (1996a)</td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Litter</td>
<td>More litter</td>
<td></td>
<td>3, 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changed character</td>
<td>Change in the character of local areas (unspecified)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TITLE</td>
<td>EFFECTS IDENTIFIED BY SUBMITTERS AND INTERVIEWEES</td>
<td>EFFECT IDENTIFIED IN THE LITERATURE</td>
<td>NZ RESEARCH: KEY NZ REFERENCES</td>
<td>TYPE</td>
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<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development 🟢</td>
<td>Increasing amount of development, and pressure to develop facilities (such as hotels and tracks) in pristine areas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capture</td>
<td>Capture of access to valued places by commercial interests (with particular reference to fishing spots)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human waste 🟢</td>
<td>Human waste at camping sites/picnic places due to long distances between settlements and inadequate facilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scenery and Rural Landscapes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenic amenity</td>
<td>Loss of amenity due to developments in scenic places</td>
<td>Due to facilities such as skifields, roads, tramping huts, accommodation.</td>
<td>Little: Boffa Miskell (1997)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Character</td>
<td>Changes the natural character of destinations *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landscape</td>
<td>Loss of rural landscapes because increasing property values makes farming uneconomical Increasing rural subdivision changing the environment and landscape character.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Built Environment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effects on towns and resorts</td>
<td>Money put into the beautification of towns</td>
<td>Can be positive (eg mainstreet development and provision of amenities) or negative (eg motel strips and demolition of traditional townscapes)</td>
<td>Little: Page (1993); Page (1995)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preservation of historic sites 🟢</td>
<td>Preservation of heritage areas* – (tourism can generate revenue to protect sites that would otherwise be neglected)</td>
<td>Money spent on sites leads to preservation and to increased civic pride</td>
<td>Some: Hall &amp; McArthur (1996); Bohlin &amp; Hanefors (1994)</td>
<td>2, 3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise</td>
<td>Unacceptable noise (due to buses, aircraft, construction traffic, etc)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic</td>
<td>Increases in traffic leading to congestion, frustration and safety concerns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Displacement</td>
<td>Locals displaced from town centre – due to crowding / cost</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historic sites and buildings 🟢</td>
<td>Physical pressures on historic heritage buildings and sites from visitors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1, 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Economic Effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Submitters and Interviewees</th>
<th>Literature</th>
<th>NZ Research</th>
<th>Key NZ References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jobs created</td>
<td></td>
<td>Increased job opportunities, both directly and indirectly, due to tourism</td>
<td>Little: Lim (1989), Duncan et al (1992b)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jobs mainly unskilled, temporary and poorly paid; in rural areas, jobs created for a wider range of people (gender, age and skill) than in traditional employment patterns</td>
<td></td>
<td>Much seasonal, unskilled, part-time work – contributes to ‘unstable social conditions’ in some places</td>
<td>Little: Pearce &amp; Cant (1981); Warren &amp; Taylor (1994)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Due to seasonal nature of work</td>
<td>None</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Revenue and Investment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides opportunities for increased trade links*</td>
<td>International tourism is an export and thus earns foreign exchange for the country</td>
<td>Significant: NZTB (1996c); Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade (1996)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic benefits of having people bringing money into an area</td>
<td>From both international and domestic visitors – closely related to employment</td>
<td>Significant: Lim (1991); Booth &amp; Cullen (1995)</td>
<td>3, 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism can prevent economic decline of a community and provide opportunities for diversification.</td>
<td>Taxes from tourism sector activity</td>
<td>Significant: Lawson et al. (1996); Duncan et al. (1992a)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher property values</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of farms because higher property values makes farming uneconomical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corruption in the form of ‘kickbacks’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Infrastructure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of facilities and services that would otherwise not be in an area – including hospital, cafes, more interesting shops</td>
<td>Positive if demand results in good facilities being provided; negative if communities have to pay for infrastructure they don’t need, or tourism results in pressure on the existing infrastructure</td>
<td>Significant: Kearsley and Gray (1994); NZTB (1992)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure on infrastructure, including roads, sewerage, water, toilet facilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1, 3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased and improved road network</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TITLE</td>
<td>EFFECTS IDENTIFIED BY SUBMITTERS AND INTERVIEWEES</td>
<td>EFFECT IDENTIFIED IN THE LITERATURE</td>
<td>NZ RESEARCH: KEY NZ REFERENCES</td>
<td>TYPE</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentive for resource management</td>
<td>Gives the economic justification required to protect, restore and manage resources *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fig 2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure on agencies</td>
<td>Pressure on councils and DOC to provide infrastructure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rates and rents</td>
<td>Increasing rates and rents due to development pressure Higher input of local rates into infrastructure to support tourists</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New facilities</td>
<td>Additional facilities that community doesn’t need or want – including casino, high-rise buildings, marina, charter-boat fleet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Border control</td>
<td>Increased pressure on border control *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure on agencies</td>
<td>Pressure on councils and DOC to provide infrastructure</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rates and rents</td>
<td>Increasing rates and rents due to development pressure Higher input of local rates into infrastructure to support tourists</td>
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<tr>
<td>New facilities</td>
<td>Additional facilities that community doesn’t need or want – including casino, high-rise buildings, marina, charter-boat fleet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Border control</td>
<td>Increased pressure on border control *</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Consumption

| Products availability | Increased availability and diversity of products | | | |
| Inflation | Higher costs of living, eg rates, food prices Higher costs of living for local communities, higher property values | Little: Lawson et al. (1996) | | |

### Social Effects

#### Community Structures

<p>| Recreational opportunities | Tourism gives people new recreation activities (such as bungy jumping, new tracks) Reduced recreational opportunities for locals as commercial operators move into areas* | | | |
| Changes to community profile | Locals feel swamped by tourists* | Demographic structure changes due to tourism – related to size of host community and number of visitors Original inhabitants feel marginalised or threatened by changes due to growing tourism | Little: Gnoth et al. (1996); Lawson et al. (1996) None | |
| Changes to community interactions | Large numbers of transient / seasonal workers putting social pressure on local communities | Due to high migration/flows of people – also transient population and failure to integrate with local population. | None | |
| Reduced community stability | Loss of social cohesion, development of a ‘harsh’ social environment with no ‘heart’ or ‘personal touch’ | | | |
| Social cohesion | Communities less friendly to tourists | Negative attitudes develop as tourism grows, – depends on size, scale, history and importance of tourism to the community and varies between sectors of the community | Significant: Simmons (1986); NZTB (1992); Gnoth et al. (1996) | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TITLE</th>
<th>EFFECTS IDENTIFIED BY SUBMITTERS AND INTERVIEWEES</th>
<th>EFFECT IDENTIFIED IN THE LITERATURE</th>
<th>NZ RESEARCH: KEY NZ REFERENCES</th>
<th>TYPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community Behaviour</td>
<td>Improved community morale and self esteem</td>
<td>Due to successful tourism - includes revival of local festivals and events</td>
<td>Little: Kearsley (1996, 1997)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Environmentalism</td>
<td>Behaviour of people on holiday conflicts with the lifestyle of locals, especially those less well off</td>
<td>Some: Dobson (1994); Deadman (1991)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Changed patterns of social and family role differentiation</td>
<td>Crowding, displacement, pressure on infrastructure, unacceptable behaviour, locals trying to avoid tourists, etc</td>
<td>Little: Lawson et al. (1996)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disruption to daily life</td>
<td>Locals feeling pushed out of own town due to negative perception of foreign language in shops, proliferation of souvenir shops, negative reaction to ‘bus loads’ of visitors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Displacement</td>
<td>Alcohol related behaviour problems caused by school leavers finding work easily in major tourism areas</td>
<td>Tourists can ‘demonstrate’ hedonistic behaviour which is imitated by locals putting strain on locals (particularly parental and family relations)</td>
<td>Little: Herda (1993)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural problems</td>
<td>Alcohol related behaviour problems caused by school leavers finding work easily in major tourism areas</td>
<td>Due to a perception of anonymity and escape, leading to indulgence by tourists in otherwise unacceptable behaviour</td>
<td>Little: Opperman &amp; McKinlay (1996); Hansen (1996)</td>
<td>3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased prostitution</td>
<td>Alcohol related behaviour problems caused by school leavers finding work easily in major tourism areas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased crime</td>
<td>Increased in crime (mainly by New Zealanders) as tourists are seen as easy targets for robbery, mugging etc</td>
<td>Often perceived to be associated with increased tourism</td>
<td>Little: Ryan (1993)</td>
<td>3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased gambling</td>
<td>Alcohol related behaviour problems caused by school leavers finding work easily in major tourism areas</td>
<td>Problems of gambling, addiction and reduced social well-being due to the development and presence of casinos</td>
<td>Little: Kearsley (1996); Opperman (1996)</td>
<td>3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>Stress on locals who feel they are always having to fight some new proposal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polarisation</td>
<td>Polarisation of the community into pro- and anti-tourism factions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of loss of control</td>
<td>Community sense of loss, feeling of being forgotten, sense of loss of control over own future</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TITLE</td>
<td>EFFECTS IDENTIFIED BY SUBMITTERS AND INTERVIEWEES</td>
<td>EFFECT IDENTIFIED IN THE LITERATURE</td>
<td>NZ RESEARCH: KEY NZ REFERENCES</td>
<td>TYPE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frustration at environmental effects</td>
<td>Frustration at negative effects from ‘fly-by-night’ operators</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressure on services</td>
<td>Increased risk of injury due to adventure activities leads to increased stress on search/rescue and medical treatment *</td>
<td></td>
<td>3, 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflicting needs</td>
<td>Conflict between needs of tourists and the needs of locals resulting in interference with everyday living in local communities (eg Whakarewarewa village closed off so buses could turn)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CULTURAL EFFECTS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>Increased awareness by communities of the uniqueness and importance of historic, cultural and natural resources*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural relationships</td>
<td>Fosters relationships with other cultures and communities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preservation and commodification of arts and cultural heritage</td>
<td>Leads to the maintenance and revival of cultural activities *</td>
<td>Positive where tourism pays for cultural performances, values and validates culture; – negative where it trivialises/commodifies images, etc.</td>
<td>Some: Gregory (1993)</td>
<td>3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect on Maori culture</td>
<td>Tourism allows Maori culture to be promoted and valued by locals and visitors</td>
<td>Effects on culture can be both positive and negative</td>
<td>Some: Te Awekotuku (1981); Keelan (1996)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of resources</td>
<td>Loss of control over some resources results in loss of mana for tangata whenua</td>
<td></td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desecration</td>
<td>Desecration of waahi tapu sites</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inappropriate use</td>
<td>Inappropriate translation of culture by tourist operators</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inappropriate use of Maori images</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Erosion and debasement of culture due to the sale of unauthentic products</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feeling of loss of control over culture because other people are selling and using it</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Effects identified in written submissions only (PCE 1997a)

* Effects of particular relevance to Maori, where there are values and significance distinct from the general interest
Table 2.1 shows the wide range of effects associated with tourism. The breadth of the effects identified goes beyond what are generally considered as ‘environmental effects’.

Tourism in New Zealand “is primarily a recreation activity which results in many positive outcomes for the participating individuals, the majority of whom are New Zealanders” (P Winder, NZTB, letter to PCE, August 1997). Most of those positive outcomes for tourists are experiential, in that the quality of the outcome or experience involves intangible and subjective factors. As part of the tourist experience, tourists interact with the host community and environment and have effects on them. As the table shows, many of these effects are also experiential or perceptual, such as crowding or social effects. Perceptions of effects are likely to be related to people’s reaction to the changes brought about by tourism. It is difficult to distinguish between real and perceived effects because of lack of research and because of the subjectivity of many effects. However, because tourism relies so heavily on positive perceptions, and since perceptions affect the way people (both hosts and visitors) feel and behave, perceived effects cannot be discounted as unreal or unimportant.

In the interviews it was evident that different groups of people identified different effects. Many community groups focused on social effects as well as cost of living, infrastructure and lifestyle effects, whereas industry representatives tended to emphasise economic effects. It was frequently impossible to distinguish the effects of domestic from international tourists, or to distinguish effects associated with the tourism sector from those associated with everyday activities and with day trips. Similarly, there is not always a clear distinction between social and environmental effects.

Most people consulted identified positive economic effects from tourism, but some (particularly by those people in the districts where profiles were undertaken) identified more negative than positive effects in the other groupings in Table 2.1. Other surveys have found broad acceptance of tourism among many communities (eg NZTB 1992; NZTB 1997a; Rotorua District Council 1997), suggesting that identification of negative effects does not necessarily equate with rejection of tourism.

Strong positive effects in economic terms were identified throughout, indicating a general appreciation of the contribution that tourism makes to the economy. This dichotomy between negative and positive attitudes suggests that a key issue for tourism management generally is to reconcile the beneficial effects on the economy with any detrimental effects on the environment.
2.3.3 Characterising and assessing environmental effects

It has been noted that in identifying and managing environmental effects associated with tourism, there are both temporal and spatial dimensions which need to be taken into account. Economic effects of tourism tend to be beneficial in the short term, while the natural, physical, and socio-cultural effects tend to become apparent in the longer term and may be both interactive and cumulative.

Although the significance or importance of effects listed in Table 2.1 is not assessed, clearly some of the environmental effects are more significant than others. Factors determining significance include:

- characteristics of the place where the effect occurs;
- carrying capacity or sensitivity of the place;
- mitigation measures in place;
- services required compared to services provided;
- visitor numbers and frequency of visits; and
- reversibility of the effect.

From the point of view of ecological sustainability, the most important characteristic is reversibility. Many of the effects identified are reversible, especially where they are minor in intensity or scale, but reversibility is hard to predict and depends enormously on the environment and the way the effect is managed.

‘Reversible’ should not be confused with ‘temporary’. The cumulative nature of many effects suggests that reversible effects may become irreversible if their cumulative impact reaches a threshold level. Likewise, temporary effects can have permanent implications if they occur in a sensitive environment or occur so frequently as to be quasi-permanent. The gradation from specific to general shown in Figure 2.1 does not imply a parallel gradation of reversibility, as effects in all types 1 to 4 can be either reversible or irreversible.

Some researchers have attempted to assess the reversibility of some of the effects identified (eg Cessford and Dingwall 1996). Most of these assessments are for individual effects, so more work will be needed before that information can be used to rank the significance of a number of recognised and potential effects.

Table 2.1 shows a fairly high degree of consistency between effects identified by people consulted and those identified in the literature. Those consulted were more specific about effects, possibly as a result of personal experience. For example, people gave a number of specific examples of ‘disturbance of wildlife from tourist interactions’ including feeding keas, poking seals and sea lions, disturbing penguins by standing between them and their nests, and changing albatross nesting patterns by the building of lookouts.

People consulted also put a stronger emphasis on community and infrastructural effects than did the literature. In relation to the social
environment, they noted the effects that tourism has on local people and the differences between local and tourist needs. Some consulted felt that more negative effects on local communities occurred from overseas tourists than from domestic tourists. In some other locations, however, domestic visitors are seen to have the greatest and most detrimental effect, notably on the Coromandel Peninsula (see Box 5.3). It seems that the density of various types of tourist relative to the host community affects the perception of their effect on that community. ‘Crowding’ was mentioned by many people as a negative effect, expressed as a social rather than a physical effect.

From both consultation and the literature, effects on infrastructure included both positive and negative aspects, depending on the circumstances of the community and the type and extent of tourism it hosts. The financial commitment required for the infrastructural needs of the tourism sector and the demands this places on local communities were widely noted, and are discussed in later chapters.

Concern was also shown by those consulted about the behaviour of some business operators and the effects their practice can have on the environment. Allegations of ‘fly-by-night’ operators using and sometimes damaging an area for a short time and then leaving show concern about the implications of the operations of some in the tourism sector.

Specific localised environmental effects associated with tourism constituted a significant proportion of the effects noted by those consulted, often reflecting very personal responses to change. The taking of shellfish from a local resource base, mention of specific developments such as a tourism-oriented tram in Christchurch, and people feeling ‘displaced’ from their usual haunts, all reflect the personal and local nature of many of the effects identified. The significance of these effects to individuals largely depends on how they perceive the effect changing the condition and character of the environment.

People consulted noted several positive cultural effects of tourism, which were not identified in the literature, including the fostering of relationships with other cultures and communities, and the maintenance and revival of cultural activities. Many of these positive effects were identified by industry sources, while, in general, most of the social and cultural effects identified by those consulted were negative. The negative effects tended to be cited by environmental and community groups, but not exclusively.

Many cultural issues specific to Maori were identified. These generally confirm the more generic effects identified from the

2.3.4 Cultural effects
literature, including both positive and negative effects for tangata whenua.
Adverse environmental effects where there are also cultural and spiritual dimensions include the desecration of waa hi tapu sites. Differences over the management of specific sites of significance to Maori, where tourism may be incompatible with Maori values, highlight the particular significance of some effects for tangata whenua (see discussion on the Kaituna River, Box R.1 in Appendix 9).

Some people consulted identified positive effects of tourism on the natural environment. There is a relatively common perception that tourism revenue can contribute to natural environment or wildlife protection and that tourism can be a strong argument for protection. While this has been identified in overseas literature, it is not clearly documented in the existing New Zealand literature.

In practice, the relationship between tourism and nature conservation or preservation is not clear. Examples in Chapter 5 and Appendices 9 and 10 show how concessions revenue has been used to further environmental protection (eg Kawerau Bridge, Waimangu Valley). However, where money has been spent on visitor services in natural areas, the expenditure appears, in most cases, to have been for developing the area or mitigating adverse effects rather than for conservation or preservation per se. Penguin Place on the Otago Peninsula is an unusual example. Here, a tourism opportunity arose from a private conservation project to protect yellow-eyed penguins. For Penguin Place, tourism has provided money for further conservation work, but it was the landowner’s conservation initiative, rather than a tourism initiative, that created the tourism opportunity.

It appears that where the environment benefits from tourism, the benefits may be indirect. On the West Coast, tourism revenues have not directly paid for the network of national parks and conservation reserves, but the potential for tourism revenue has no doubt been a factor in its development. Tourism was also part of the argument for reserving more areas for parks and reserves in the West Coast and was a strong consideration in the recent proposals for Kauri National Park in Northland, and for major extensions to Whanganui National Park. Considerably more research is needed to understand the relationship between tourism and environmental protection in New Zealand.

There was limited comment from those interviewed about lack of data on the environmental effects associated with tourism. Some concern was expressed about specific developments being permitted with inadequate information about possible effects, resulting in unforeseen outcomes with no avoidance or mitigation measures in place, but this is a general resource management rather than a tourism issue. Concern about lack of data was much more significant in the written

2.3.5 Effects of tourism on the natural environment

2.3.6 Information on effects
submissions (see Chapter 4). It is clear that there is a need for more tourism research, especially into its effects on the social aspect of the environment (including community structures and culture) where so many effects are based on perceptions and values.

Those consulted often noted that many environmental effects associated with the tourism sector are cumulative, whereby individually small and gradual changes can over time accumulate to erode a resource or undermine a valued aspect of the environment, sometimes irreversibly. Concerns about the lack of knowledge about cumulative effects both in relation to the physical and social aspects of the environment were widely expressed. Many of those consulted were concerned about the inability to determine when the ‘carrying capacity’ of an area has been reached (see Chapter 6.2.3).

2.4 Concluding comments

This chapter identifies a broad range of effects associated with the tourism sector. Tourism, being a diverse sector, has effects on the whole range of environments – urban, rural, natural, and marine – and it affects the social, economic and cultural aspects of life in New Zealand. Based on work undertaken for this investigation, the principal positive effect associated with tourism in New Zealand is identified as:

- revenue generation and contribution to diversified employment and economic development (locally, regionally and nationally).

The principal negative environmental effects include:

- loss of quality of some relatively unspoilt parts of New Zealand’s natural environment (both physical and intrinsic values);
- loss of amenity values from incremental development (in both rural and urban environments);
- pressure on infrastructure, such as sewerage and roads (often seasonal), resulting in significant costs to small communities.

These effects are of particular concern to Maori. In some cases, Maori are more likely to be affected than non-Maori; for instance, where key tourism attractions are based in Maori communities (eg Whakarewarewa), or in places of great significance (eg Tane Mahuta at Waipoua).

Although all of these principal effects are strongly associated with tourism, they can also result from ‘everyday’ activities of New Zealanders. Probably all of them have ‘perceived’ as well as ‘real’ elements. These factors make such effects extremely hard to measure and assess. However, all these negative effects have some documentation to support their significance and all were frequently cited by those interviewed during the investigation. Also, they are cumulative, and at least have the potential to cause irreversible change.
to the natural environment and/or human communities. For these reasons, all are significant in terms of tourism sustainability (see
Chapter 6), as well as for environmental reasons. Thus management action to avoid, remedy or mitigate the negative environmental effects associated with the tourism sector is required if tourism is to be sustained.
3 THE GOVERNMENT SYSTEM FOR MANAGING THE ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS ASSOCIATED WITH THE TOURISM SECTOR

This chapter provides an overview of the current government system for managing the environmental effects associated with tourism. The main focus is on central and local government agencies, although some relevant non-government organisations, including Maori and industry groups, are also noted. The chapter concludes with the identification and discussion of the main issues.

Agencies with a significant role in managing the environmental effects associated with tourism are listed in Tables 3.1 to 3.3. The tables present a sketch of each agency and its functions with fuller material presented in Appendix 5. The appendix also lists some additional agencies with a subsidiary role.

In the tables, column two shows the principal role(s) of the agency with the letter corresponding to one of the following categories:

- M = marketing
- R = regulatory (managing compliance with legislation)
- P = policy and sector development
- O = operational (direct land/asset management and/or service provision)
- I = infrastructure provision
- Info = information and research

Figure 3.1 is a graphical representation of the tourism sector, showing the involvement of the different agencies. The figure is based on a flow diagram and illustrates the movement of visitors, both domestic and international, through the environment and the points at which they come into contact with various agencies. Significant planning and policy documents are noted in brackets. The figure illustrates the important role that local authorities and DOC play in managing the environmental effects associated with tourism through their consent and concession processing, their planning and, in the case of DOC, land management roles.

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Allocation of functions
A wide range of government departments and Crown agencies have a role in managing the environmental effects associated with tourism. Some agencies have an explicit role. Others have functions that impact on the tourism sector, although their primary focus is on a different sector such as economic development, transport, border control or public health.

The three main central government agencies with a major focus on tourism are the Tourism Policy Group of the Ministry of Commerce (TPG), the New Zealand Tourism Board (NZTB) and the Department of Conservation (DOC).

The TPG is the only tourism-focused agency with an umbrella responsibility for tourism policy and advice. It has predominantly a policy role, addressing the wide range of issues that relate to tourism, from aviation policy, to the research and statistical needs of tourism, to the social impacts of tourism.

The NZTB is primarily an overseas marketing agency run by a board appointed by the Minister of Tourism. Its government-funded marketing functions are supplemented by industry contributions towards joint-venture marketing. In addition to marketing, NZTB provides policy advice and undertakes a range of tourism development activities targeted mainly at international tourism. (These policy and development-related activities are currently under review.)

DOC has both policy and operational responsibilities relating to visitors to the land it administers. Of the three agencies, DOC has the most significant role in managing the environmental effects associated with tourism, because it has direct land management responsibilities. DOC’s approach to visitor management is outlined in its Visitor Services Strategy (VSS) (DOC 1996). Based on wide consultation, the VSS aims to:
- protect intrinsic natural and historic values;
- foster public visits through a range of recreational opportunities;
- manage tourism concessions, inform and educate visitors; and
- ensure visitor safety.

Conflict between environmental protection and free access is acknowledged in the VSS, as is the conflict between the needs and wishes of different types of visitor. Importantly, the VSS also commits DOC to consult and work closely with interested groups, including iwi, local authorities and the tourism industry. Work to implement the strategy is ongoing, and linked with implementation of DOC’s new concessions policy.
### Table 3.1 Government departments and agencies with a primary role in tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGENCY</th>
<th>PRINCIPAL ROLES</th>
<th>PRINCIPAL TOURISM-RELATED FUNCTIONS</th>
<th>ENABLING LEGISLATION</th>
<th>MINISTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Policy Group, Ministry of Commerce</td>
<td>P/O</td>
<td>Advice to government on tourism policy development; represents government’s tourism interests internationally and monitors overseas tourism trends to assess their relevance to New Zealand. Manages Crown-owned land for which the Minister of Tourism is responsible.</td>
<td>None, but administers several Acts</td>
<td>Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand Tourism Board (crown agency)</td>
<td>M/P</td>
<td>Ensures that New Zealand is marketed as a visitor destination to maximise long-term benefits to New Zealand; develops, implements and promotes strategies for tourism; and advises government and industry on the development, promotion and implementation of those strategies.</td>
<td>New Zealand Tourism Board Act 1991</td>
<td>Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Conservation</td>
<td>P/O/R</td>
<td>Management of land in the conservation estate to achieve conservation objectives; gives effect to the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi; advocates conservation; education; provision of visitor services and visitor centres; maintains historic and cultural heritage; and liaises with stakeholders.</td>
<td>Conservation Act 1987</td>
<td>Conservation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3.2 Government departments and agencies with a secondary role in tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGENCY</th>
<th>PRINCIPAL ROLES</th>
<th>PRINCIPAL TOURISM-RELATED FUNCTIONS</th>
<th>ENABLING LEGISLATION</th>
<th>MINISTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resource Management and Environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation Boards</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Advise NZCA and regional conservators on policy and concessions</td>
<td>Conservation Act 1987</td>
<td>Conservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand Historic Places Trust</td>
<td>R/O</td>
<td>Protects and manages historic and cultural heritage through advocacy, policy advice and direct management.</td>
<td>Historic Places Act 1993</td>
<td>Conservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish and Game New Zealand</td>
<td>R/O</td>
<td>Coordinates the management, enhancement and maintenance of sports fish and game, through policy, advocacy and active management.</td>
<td>Conservation Act 1987</td>
<td>Conservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment and Business Services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Maori Development – Te Puni Kokiri</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Mainly provides analysis and policy advice to increase Maori achievement within the tourism sector, and monitors other agencies’ delivery of outcomes for Maori.</td>
<td>Ministry of Maori Development Act 1991</td>
<td>Maori Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Function</td>
<td>Department</td>
<td>Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Development Group, Department of Internal Affairs</td>
<td>O/P</td>
<td>Advises and informs community groups and organisations.</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Internal Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Employment Group, Department of Labour</td>
<td>O/P</td>
<td>Funds and administers projects for employment opportunities, including tourism projects</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural Policy Unit, Ministry of Agriculture</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Promotes rural tourism</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Fosters international links involving tourism</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>FA&amp;T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Development Group – Ministry of Commerce</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Provides assistance to businesses, plus programmes and initiatives to promote and sustain international competitiveness of NZ businesses, especially small to medium-sized business.</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Business Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Development Boards</td>
<td>P/O</td>
<td>Stimulates development of small to medium-sized businesses with information and financial assistance</td>
<td>Business Development Boards Act 1991</td>
<td>Commerce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Health Group – Ministry of Health</td>
<td>P/O</td>
<td>Manages and regulates activities including those which may affect public health.</td>
<td>Health Act 1956</td>
<td>Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Safety and Health Service – Dept of Labour</td>
<td>R/P</td>
<td>The prevention of harm to employees at work and visitors to workplaces.</td>
<td>Occupational Safety and Health Act 1992</td>
<td>Labour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand Police</td>
<td>O/R</td>
<td>Protection of the public from criminal activity, traffic safety compliance and search and rescue coordination.</td>
<td>Police</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Transport</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Provides advice and information relating to the promotion of safe, sustainable transport at reasonable cost; sets government framework for the transport sector; is the lead department for government policy on external aviation links.</td>
<td>Transport Act 1962</td>
<td>Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transit New Zealand (Crown agency)</td>
<td>O/P/I</td>
<td>Controls and manages state highways; includes guidelines for roads in national parks and conservation reserves</td>
<td>Transit New Zealand Act 1989</td>
<td>Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Aviation Authority (Crown agency)</td>
<td>P/R</td>
<td>Controls and monitors safety and security in civil aviation; includes provision of safety and security information, and policy advice to government</td>
<td>Civil Aviation Act 1990</td>
<td>Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land Transport Safety Authority (Crown agency)</td>
<td>O/R/P</td>
<td>Promotes land transport safety; includes monitoring safety standards, education programmes, licensing and regulation of passenger services industry.</td>
<td>Land Transport Act 1993; Transport Services Licensing Act 1989</td>
<td>Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Border Security</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>New Zealand</strong></td>
<td><strong>Customs Service</strong></td>
<td><strong>R</strong></td>
<td>Ensures smooth passage of people and products in and out of NZ; controls prohibited or restricted products; acts as an agent for NZ Immigration service at border control points.</td>
<td>Customs and Excise Act 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>New Zealand</strong></td>
<td><strong>Immigration Service – Department of Labour</strong></td>
<td><strong>O/P</strong></td>
<td>Processes visa applications and applications for people wanting to stay for longer than three months in New Zealand.</td>
<td>Immigration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ministry of</strong></td>
<td><strong>Agriculture</strong></td>
<td><strong>P/O</strong></td>
<td>Manages risks associated with introduction of unwanted organisms; includes inspection of aircraft, mail etc in conjunction with NZ Customs.</td>
<td>Biosecurity Act 1993.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recreation Activities</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ministry of Fisheries</strong></td>
<td><strong>P/R</strong></td>
<td>Manages New Zealand’s fisheries, including recreational fishing.</td>
<td>Fisheries Act 1996</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hillary Commission</strong></td>
<td><strong>P/O</strong></td>
<td>Promotes sport, recreation and excellence in high-performance sport. Major initiatives include development of Eventscorp with NZTB to promote events tourism.</td>
<td>Sport, Fitness and Leisure Act 1987</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sports, Fitness and Leisure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Information and Research</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Department of Statistics</strong></td>
<td><strong>Info</strong></td>
<td>Gathers statistical information about New Zealand</td>
<td>Statistics Act 1975</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Foundation for Research, Science and Technology (Crown agency)</strong></td>
<td><strong>Info</strong></td>
<td>Allocates money from the Public Good Science Fund for research, including tourism research.</td>
<td>Foundation for Research, Science and Technology Act 1990</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Research Science and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>General</strong></td>
<td><strong>Department of Internal Affairs</strong></td>
<td><strong>P</strong></td>
<td>Administers the Local Government Act 1974, which empowers local government to provide water and sewerage services. Also administers the Casino Control Act 1990.</td>
<td>Local Government Act 1974</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Outside the conservation estate, territorial authorities and regional councils have the primary role in managing the environmental effects associated with tourism. They have environmental management and regulation responsibilities under the Resource Management Act (RMA) which significantly affect the tourism sector. Local authorities also have regulatory responsibilities under a raft of other legislation (see Appendices 5 and 6).

Under the RMA, the function of local government is to promote the sustainable management of natural and physical resources. Local authorities have a direct role in managing the environmental effects associated with tourism through the preparation of policy and plans, and their decision-making role on resource consent applications for tourism developments. Acting under the RMA, local authorities must: recognise and provide for matters of national importance, such as the preservation of the natural character of the coastal environment; take into account the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi; and have

### 3.2.2 Local government agencies
particular regard to matters including kaitiakitanga. Regional policy statements and plans and district plans, all prepared under the RMA, outline policies, objectives, rules, and the minimum environmental standards and acceptable levels of change, which determine what effects on the environment will be allowed.

Activities related to tourism effects undertaken by territorial authorities include:

- planning for the provision and regulation of tourism-related activities, primarily through effects-based district plans, but also through strategic plans which tend to be more activity focussed;

- regulation of tourism-related activities, mainly through the administration, monitoring and enforcement of regulations and administrative procedures under statutes including the RMA;

- providing infrastructure, most of which is used by visitors as well as the local population, including water reticulation, stormwater collection, sewage collection and treatment, rubbish collection and disposal/recycling, local roads, and street and information signs; and

- providing facilities, including parks, reserves and other amenity areas, sports facilities, libraries, art galleries, heritage buildings and museums, conference venues, toilets, car parking facilities, information facilities, and camping grounds.

In addition to resource management and service provision, some local authorities fund tourism promotion through the regional tourism organisation structure (RTOs). Regional councils generally have little involvement with RTOs, but territorial authorities are frequently active in funding RTOs.

### Table 3.3 Local government agencies with tourism related responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGENCY</th>
<th>ROLE</th>
<th>FUNCTIONS</th>
<th>PRIMARY ACTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Territorial local authorities</td>
<td>O/P/I/R/Info</td>
<td>Integrated management of the effects of the use, development and protection of land and associated natural and physical resources of the district: both a policy and regulatory role and a service provision and operational role.</td>
<td>Local Government Act 1974; Resource Management Act 1991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional councils</td>
<td>P/O/R/I/Info</td>
<td>Integrated management of natural and physical resources: both a policy and regulatory role and a service provision and operational role.</td>
<td>Local Government Act 1974; Resource Management Act 1991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional tourism organisations</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Usually include marketing of particular areas within New Zealand, providing information to operators and to visitors, and overseas marketing with the NZTB.</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Maori involvement in the management of the environmental effects associated with tourism occurs through several different systems.

Iwi and hapu are the principal structures through which tangata whenua values and concerns are expressed. Many iwi have prepared iwi management plans for the natural resources and other taonga in their rohe (regions), which outline iwi and hapu objectives and priorities, and provide a framework for decision-making. Councils must have regard to such plans in preparing and changing regional and district plans. Consultation with iwi and hapu as tangata whenua is also a requirement for many resource consent applications for tourism and other projects.

Further to iwi and hapu systems, a range of other structures have been established. In some places special liaison groups or advisory committees have been set up to facilitate Maori input (see Chapter 5.2). Some of these groups relate specifically to tourism, such as Maori in Tourism in Rotorua, while others have a general role in providing information and advice into councils’ processes.

The Aotearoa Maori Tourism Federation and the eight regional Maori tourism organisations represent Maori tourism industry interests, at the national and regional levels respectively. Direct involvement in the tourism industry gives Maori greater influence over management of the environmental effects associated with tourism, both general effects and those of particular significance to tangata whenua. Maori involvement in the industry is increasing (see Chapter 5).

Industry organisations have a substantial role in managing tourism and its effects on the environment. There are numerous groups which represent and lobby for tourism in all different sectors of the industry (e.g., Maori in tourism, motel and hotel groups, fishing guides). Almost all of these industry groups are members of the New Zealand Tourism Industry Association (NZTIA). The NZTIA is a national voice and advocate for the tourism industry, which aims to provide leadership, guidance and appropriate services for the benefit of its members to contribute to a viable and sustainable tourism industry. It is organised into ten divisions which reflect the breadth of the industry (see Table 1 in Appendix 5).

Many other non-government organisations are active in issues related to tourism and the management of its effects. These include museums, iwi and hapu, environmental NGOs, businesses and business organisations, professional societies, and community groups.
3.3 Legislation

As Tables 3.1 to 3.3 show, there are a large number of statutes that affect the management of the tourism sector. All relevant statutes are briefly described in Appendix 6. There are two especially significant Acts with respect to the management of environmental effects associated with tourism: the Resource Management Act 1991, and the Conservation Act 1987. These statutes give the jurisdiction for the land management activities of the agencies with the most direct role in managing the effects associated with the tourism sector: territorial local authorities\(^3\) and DOC respectively.

3.3.1 The Resource Management Act 1991

The Resource Management Act is administered by the Ministry for the Environment. Its purpose is to promote the sustainable management of New Zealand’s natural and physical resources, and it provides the framework within which the environment is to be managed. One of the features of this Act is that it focuses on the management of the effects of activities rather than on the activities \textit{per se}.

The RMA requires recognition and provision for the traditional relationships of Maori with their ancestral lands, water, special places and other taonga. Particular regard must be given to kaitiakitanga, and the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi must be taken into account.

The Act is relevant to tourism in two key ways:
- it is one of the main statutes governing the management of the environment, including aspects which are of interest to, and used by, the tourism sector; and
- activities such as building hotels and lodges, jetboat operations, upgrading of tracks, etc may require resource consent from the relevant local authority; consent applications are assessed under the RMA in terms of their effects on the environment.

As noted in Table 3.3, territorial authorities and regional councils have specific and sometimes overlapping responsibilities under this Act. These agencies assess the effect of an activity under the RMA, and decide whether to allow the activity to take place.

\(^3\) Another Act of more general significance for local government is the Local Government Act 1974 (see Appendix 6) which sets out the framework and authority for local government’s jurisdiction.
The Conservation Act is administered by DOC. Its purpose is to promote the conservation of New Zealand’s natural and historic resources\(^4\) and it provides for the management of the conservation estate. The Act covers all land held by DOC and all other land whose owner agrees that it should be managed by DOC.

Section 4 of the Conservation Act requires that the Act be interpreted and administered so as to give effect to the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi.

The functions of DOC include:

‘to the extent that the use of any natural or historic resource for recreation or tourism is not inconsistent with its conservation, to foster the use of the natural and historic resources for recreation, and to allow their use for tourism’.

(s 6(e)).

The Act therefore clearly notes a difference between tourism and recreation and expects the Department to handle these in different ways. It is not entirely clear, however, what the difference is, as the terms are not defined in the Act. In implementing the Act, DOC treats ‘tourism’ as constituting those activities for which users are paying a commercial operator. The Conservation Act also empowers DOC to grant concessions, leases etc for people to run commercial operations on the conservation estate.

It is extremely difficult to determine how much is spent on the management of the environmental effects associated with tourism. As noted above, most agencies undertake a range of functions with tourism-related roles being only part of a wider role. Even for local authorities and DOC, which have direct effects management roles, it is hard to identify how much is spent on tourism-related effects.

In this investigation, an attempt was made to ascertain how much the government contributes to the funding of the management of the environmental effects associated with tourism. At central government level, the only tourism-specific information available relates to direct tourism management, principally by the three lead agencies: TPG, NZTB, and DOC. Table 3.4 shows the funding of output classes specifically relating to tourism.

In addition to the funding shown in Table 3.4, there is the money spent

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\(^4\) In the Conservation Act, ‘conservation’ is defined as ‘the preservation and protection of natural and historic resources for the purpose of maintaining their intrinsic values, providing for their appreciation and recreational enjoyment by the public, and safeguarding the options of future generations’.
by the many agencies with a secondary role in managing the environmental effects associated with tourism. An attempt was made to ascertain expenditure by these agencies, calculated to be $2.07 billion (see Appendix 7). Of this total, nearly 90% is in the transport and public health and safety sectors. Half of the total comes under the ‘operational’ activity category, mainly in the public health and safety sectors (ie public health and police operations); a further 37% consists of infrastructure provision, mainly roads. Nearly $80 million is spent on border security. But while all these activities have some
relationship to tourism and the management of its effects, it is not possible to determine how much is being spent on managing the environmental effects associated with tourism.

Table 3.4 Estimate of central government direct expenditure on tourism management, 1996-97 (GST inclusive)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agency</th>
<th>Policy</th>
<th>Regulation</th>
<th>Marketing</th>
<th>Operational</th>
<th>Infrastructure</th>
<th>Info / research</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NZTB</td>
<td>2.760</td>
<td></td>
<td>51.767</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>56.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPG</td>
<td>1.111</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.063</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>2.221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC</td>
<td>2.163*</td>
<td></td>
<td>54.879*</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.124*</td>
<td></td>
<td>57.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Transport</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRST</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.739</td>
<td>0.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>3.871</td>
<td>2.163</td>
<td>51.767</td>
<td>56.542</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>1.910</td>
<td>116.364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Note: These values include outputs on recreation and tourism concessions management (in part), provision of recreational opportunities, and visitor centres and information services. Expenditure relates to all visitors to the conservation estate including day visitors.

The table includes the entire budget of TPG and NZTB, only part of DOC’s vote, as well as small amounts of Ministry of Transport and Foundation for Research, Science and Technology funding directly related to tourism.
At the local level, the only documented indication of specific local authority spending on tourism is the funding of RTOs. Total local authority funding for all RTOs is $10.12 million, ranging from $10 000 to $1.655 million for individual RTOs (NZTIA, unpub).

As with central government, all local authorities manage tourism indirectly through statutory planning processes, compliance with legislation, and general promotion of economic development, as described in 3.2.2, so the same problems are encountered in separating spending on the management of the effects associated with tourism from other management activities.

Many of the issues raised by submitters commenting on the Draft Terms of Reference and the Summary of Critical Issues (PCE 1997a) relate to the system for managing the environmental effects associated with tourism. The matters raised in submissions reflect the views of key stakeholders in the tourism sector.

Central government agency functions
There is considerable concern about what is often perceived as the difficult role of DOC in fulfilling conflicting responsibilities. The issues surrounding concessions for use of the conservation estate, and
the way these are administered and monitored, have attracted a lot of comment. There is criticism of the role and activities of the NZTB, much of which is directed at the emphasis its responsibilities place on targets and earnings at the expense of environmental quality. There is some support for the establishment of a Ministry of Tourism with wide-ranging responsibilities extending beyond the NZTB’s primary purpose.

Local authority functions
Concern is expressed about conflicting regulatory and promotional roles within local authorities. There is also recognition of the difficulties local authorities face in managing and servicing tourism and its effects with inadequate resources.

Legislation
Most submissions comment on the Resource Management Act 1991 (RMA). In general terms, respondents believe that the RMA is the appropriate legislative vehicle for managing the environmental effects associated with tourism. Even where the RMA is criticised for its complexity or its ‘teething problems’, there is general acknowledgment of the desirability of one primary statute for the management of the effects associated with tourism.

Coordination between agencies
Among the few submissions that comment on this issue, there was concern about a lack of coordination between agencies involved in the industry. This is seen to reflect the diverse and fragmented nature of the industry itself.

Funding
The major issues arising are who should pay for dealing with the environmental effects associated with tourism, and the financial impact on small local authorities of providing infrastructure and managing tourism growth. Inadequate resources allocated by central and local government agencies for managing the environmental effects associated with tourism at present was also a concern. Particular concern was expressed about the resourcing of DOC. However, there are different views about appropriate funding mechanisms.

Consultation
Most comments about consultation noted that the existing mechanisms under the RMA are largely adequate. However, there was concern about the costs facing those who wish to participate, and an emphasis on the need to consult with tangata whenua.

National policy and strategies
There is strong interest in and support for the development of a national tourism strategy to provide overall coordination and greater attention to planning within the tourism sector. The current lack of
such a strategy is identified as a major deficiency in the current promotion and management of tourism. There is also comment that, while greater coordination is desirable, there need not be conflict between the promotion of increased visitor numbers and earnings, and their effects on the environment. There are differing perspectives about the capability and desirability of New Zealand to control the number and type of tourists who visit the country. Tourism interests acknowledge a need for national and regional strategies to be better coordinated.

Key conclusions to emerge from the analysis of submissions are:
- communication, understanding, planning and coordination between the groups and agencies involved in tourism need to improve;
- New Zealand needs to take a more strategic approach to tourism, perhaps through the development of a national tourism strategy; and
- there is concern at the pressures on local authorities and DOC in their conflicting roles of both managing and regulating the environmental effects associated with tourism.

The range of agencies described in this chapter, especially those of central government, is very wide and goes beyond those that might normally be envisaged as having a role in tourism.

Many agencies involved in the management of environmental effects associated with tourism are not primarily tourism focused, and in many cases the tourism aspect of their functions is not explicit. This makes the system complex. The complexity is exacerbated by many of these agencies not adequately recognising their secondary role in managing these environmental effects. There appears to be no mechanism or framework to ensure regular coordination or communication between the many agencies with an indirect or secondary role.

The three agencies with a primary focus on tourism have regular, informal, officer-level communication. However, the establishment of a formal framework of consultation and communication between DOC, NZTB and TPG implemented on the recommendation of the 1994 Commerce Committee Inquiry into the NZTB has been allowed to lapse. Lack of communication and coordination at the strategic level has meant that agencies are working at cross purposes at times. The conservation objectives of DOC, compared with the growth-oriented goals set by the NZTB (see Chapter 6.3.1), exemplify this type of tension. More coordinated goal and direction setting would help to ensure that the three main agencies are supporting common goals.

The roles and responsibilities of the main central government agencies
have been the subject of considerable discussion and representation to the Commissioner. TPG has the only overview role. However, this role is not established in statute, and TPG’s position as a small unit at a relatively low level within the large and diverse Ministry of Commerce gives rise to considerable uncertainty as to its future. Its role and resourcing is anomalous when compared with the importance of the industry it covers and to the resources allocated elsewhere in the government system, especially to the NZTB. DOC’s roles have also been an issue. A range of views was expressed during this investigation about the appropriateness and effectiveness of DOC’s current responsibilities and functions, especially in relation to what many see as inadequate funding of the Department. These issues are discussed further in Chapter 6.

Many Crown agencies with a resource management focus have a role in managing the environmental effects associated with tourism. The role of agencies like Fish and Game New Zealand, creates a need for coordination between them and the agencies that generate demand for use of the resource. The Historic Places Trust is likewise in the position of responding to demand for access to historic places it manages, having very little input into the processes that create or control such demand.

### 3.6.2 Local government management system

Local government has a central role in managing the effects of tourism. Local authorities are responsible for a wide range of legislative and regulatory functions, which can place heavy burdens for routine monitoring and compliance work on the smaller authorities. This is exacerbated when at the same time they are dealing with applications for major tourism-related projects with significant environmental effects, or monitoring existing major projects. Some of the examples discussed in Chapter 5 illustrate these difficulties.

Local infrastructure is usually planned and funded to meet local population demand. When visitors are a significant proportion of the population, even if only temporarily, demand for infrastructure and facilities may outstrip that which is usually required by the resident population. Some of the issues about the provision of infrastructure are:

- how accurately can the infrastructure requirements of tourists be predicted?
- are mechanisms needed so that tourism developers and marketers can signal their likely infrastructure requirements to those agencies that manage destinations? and
- who should provide and fund the ‘extra’ infrastructure required by tourists?
The agencies with the most direct role in managing the effects associated with tourism (local authorities and DOC) are required to adhere to the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi and to provide for the values and concerns of iwi and hapu. However despite the requirements of the legislation and the unique role of Maori as the Crown’s Treaty partner, the actual provisions for iwi and hapu participation in the decision-making and planning processes of central and local government are often less than satisfactory. Many Maori feel marginalised in policy setting and decision-making systems about tourism, although in some areas there has been increasing involvement of Maori in the work of various agencies (see Chapter 5).

There are often problems achieving adequate consultation with iwi and hapu by tourism operators and developers. Factors identified by those consulted include:

- the costs involved;
- inconsistency between different agencies and councils;
- often limited resources for iwi and hapu to respond;
- the expectations of iwi and hapu that their input and expertise be appropriately provided for;
- complexities when many iwi and hapu are involved, and failure of those consulting to target the right people; and
- delays for applicants and official agencies if an iwi’s or hapu’s attention is focused on other issues at the time consultation is sought.

It can also be difficult for Maori to participate in managing the environmental effects associated with tourism when there are several agencies of central, regional and local government involved, each working under different statutory and administrative systems, and often with different geographical boundaries for their jurisdictions, which do not correspond to the traditional boundaries of the rohe of iwi and hapu.

These kinds of confusions can be avoided or minimised by:

- improving understanding of the roles, jurisdictions and internal operations of the parties;
- ensuring greater clarity amongst all stakeholders about the responsibilities and limitations of the other groups and agencies; and
- improving coordination of the different component parts of the system.

3.6.3 Systems issues of concern to Maori
3.6.4 Coordinating and integrating tourism planning

There are many agencies and statutes with some influence over the management of the environmental effects associated with the tourism sector. It is therefore not surprising that objectives are not always compatible or consistent and that the relationships between these agencies and statutes are complex. Yet, if effective management is to be undertaken, coordination between the agencies involved is a necessity (see criteria in Chapter 1 and Appendix 3). This means that the links between agencies, in both legislative function and operational areas, are critical. Some coordinated planning has been undertaken. DOC and NZTB have published a joint report on tourism on the conservation estate (NZTB and DOC 1993).

A good example of a specific area relevant to tourism where links are obviously required is the health and safety sector (see Boxes 5.5 and 5.8 in Chapter 5). Here official activity has recently been aimed at coordinating agency responsibilities for safety, especially in relation to adventure tourism. To date, much of this activity has been *ad hoc* and it is not yet clear whether the Health and Safety in Employment Act and the RMA are complementary when implemented, and whether the responsibilities for the safety of tourists are adequately defined.
4 MONITORING AND RESEARCH

One of the critical general issues raised by those consulted in this investigation is the need for sound data about tourism and its effects on the environment. For an industry such as tourism, where the products are largely experiential/sensory, such data is a critical component of the total information base. The accumulation of such data requires rigorous survey methodology and needs to be augmented by quantitative research programmes. The paucity of detailed industry survey data, particularly for New Zealanders in tourist mode, is a serious impediment to managing the environmental effects associated with tourism effectively.

Effective management requires an understanding of the types of effects occurring (see Chapter 2) and how they affect the environmental resource base, including the host community. This in turn requires:
- sound baseline data about tourism trends;
- adequate monitoring of the environmental effects;
- research to understand the environmental effects, their extent, significance, permanence, etc;
- indicators to determine the links between tourism activities and the effects; and
- a focus on measures of the sustainability of tourism resource use (i.e., efficiency of use and capacity to mitigate or reverse effects).

In this chapter, specific details of the current sources of data on tourist activities and effects, and the monitoring and research programmes that are generating the data, are presented. This investigation has identified a number of data/information gaps that require targeted survey or research programmes.

Some data on tourism activities and their effects is collected on a nation-wide basis by centralised agencies. The availability of this information at regional and local levels is variable. Specific sources of data relevant to the tourism sector include:
- existing Statistics New Zealand (SNZ) Collections and Surveys (see Table 1 in Appendix 8);
- the International Visitor Survey (IVS) conducted quarterly by the NZTB. It is the main source of data about overseas visitors to New Zealand and is used by a range of agencies, including DOC; and
- the Tourist Accommodation Survey. SNZ began this survey in July 1996 as a one-year pilot study. TPG and NZTB will decide whether the study should continue.

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Current sources of data on tourism activities and their effects

4.2.1 National surveys
Some data on tourism activities is focused at the local and regional level. In 1994 TPG surveyed the monitoring of visitor impacts on natural areas and natural attractions being carried out by DOC and local authorities. This found a range of monitoring being undertaken.

DOC conservancies undertake a wide range of monitoring activities including user profiles, visitor impacts and perceptions, bird numbers and condition, and number of aircraft landing in certain locations (see Appendix 8). Some conservancies have developed concession monitoring strategies (eg Southland and Canterbury). These identify sites where monitoring should be conducted, the values to be protected, and the data that should be collected.

Regional and district councils also undertake a range of monitoring, including visitor numbers, biological monitoring, water quality and visitor preferences (Table 2, Appendix 8). Most of the monitoring by councils relates to visitor numbers and marketing information, rather than directly measuring the effects visitors have on the environment. However, a recent survey of local authority responses to tourism (Page and Thorn 1997) showed that only 37% of councils surveyed could provide an estimate of the existing volume of domestic tourists in their area, and just 12% an estimate of the likely tourism forecasts for the volume of tourists in their area for the year 2000. Several councils in the survey indicated that they expected visitor numbers to double, but showed no indication of having anticipated what effects that increase may have.

There are some general differences between the type of monitoring undertaken by regional and district councils, reflecting their different statutory responsibilities. Biophysical monitoring, including air and water quality, is primarily undertaken at the regional level, but not exclusively. Monitoring of visitor numbers is undertaken by both regional and district councils. The obligation under the RMA on councils to monitor the state of the environment through specific indicators should assist in determining the effects of tourism activities on the environment. Improvement in the medium term is likely. RTOs monitor some tourism parameters, mainly visitor numbers.

The Foundation for Research, Science and Technology (FRST) has provided a five-year research strategy (1995/96 to 2000/01) for tourism research funded by the Public Good Science Fund (PGSF). The PGSF research is aimed at filling gaps in information about the tourism sector, such as tourism flows within the country, resources, infrastructure, economics and the constraints on the biophysical and social/cultural sustainability of the sector. There are three priority themes:
• **sustainability** – both of the industry and the environment, including assessment of social and physical effects;
• **sustainability issues of concern to Maori** – including physical and social/cultural sustainability; and
• **integration of research** – collaboration between researchers and across different PGSF output areas is encouraged.

There are four research topics within the research strategy.
• **Understanding the tourism sector** – which includes assessing future requirements, identifying problem areas, and assessing the costs and benefits of tourism projects. The focus is on longer-term strategic research rather than data collection, planning or operational research.
• **Physical and ecological effects of tourism** – where the focus is on describing the physical impacts of tourists, possible mitigating measures, and the sustainable ‘carrying capacities’ of different environments.
• **Social and cultural impacts of tourism** – which includes impacts on the values and attitudes of host communities, how changes occur in communities, the needs of Maori communities, and the effects of tourist numbers on the tourists’ own experiences, all with the aim of ensuring that tourism is socially and culturally sustainable.
• **Commercial and other services** – includes research applicable to tourism not covered by the previous three topics.

The following tourism projects have been approved for FRST funding for 1997/98:

• Sustainable Maori Tourism for Tai Tokerau (Advisory Board, James Henare Maori Research Centre). The overall aim of this programme is to develop and test a model of Maori sustainable tourism, specific in the first instance to Maori communities in Tai Tokerau but capable of being generalised for use in other parts of New Zealand.

• Impact of Tourism on the Sustainability of Trout Fisheries (Cawthron Institute). This programme will determine the crowding threshold in relation to present and projected use by both local and tourist anglers, and the potential for the decline of trout stocks and catchability in response to increased fishing pressure.

• Planning for Tourism Development (Lincoln University). The goals of this programme are to improve theories and models of tourism development, to improve tourism planning, and to allow more valid assessment of tourism benefits and costs by precisely measuring tourist (including domestic) movements and flows and their economic, social and environmental effects.
• Rural Tourism for Sustainable Rural Economic Development (Centre for Research Evaluation and Social Assessment). This
project involves developing a database of rural tourism operators in New Zealand, surveying rural tourism operators and carrying out eight case studies of communities involved in rural tourism.

- Sustainable Tourism (University of Otago). This programme will examine critical aspects of social and environmental impact, and industry and government response, and will deliver a major impact assessment for southern New Zealand together with tools for the ongoing analysis, monitoring and fostering of sustainability.

TPG’s work includes identifying the research and statistical needs of the tourism sector. In the 1997/98 year TPG intends to facilitate a series of sector forums on tourism research needs for government and industry. TPG has produced and updated a comprehensive New Zealand tourism research bibliography (TPG 1995a, 1996a) to assist both the tourism sector and the research community to develop a better understanding of the sector.

TPG has also undertaken some research on environmental indicators for tourism. The work focused on the ecological impacts of visitors but emphasised that the development of indicators for social, economic and cultural effects of tourism needs to be integrated with the development of environmental indicators. This work resulted in recommendations that the Ministry of Commerce facilitate the further development of generic indicators and, in conjunction with other central Government agencies, that TPG develop a national policy perspective on the development and monitoring of indicators of visitor impacts. These recommendations have yet to be implemented. There are no other current programmes to develop tourism effect indicators. Possible sources of funding would be the Ministry for the Environment’s Sustainable Management Fund, TPG, or DOC.

The development of environmental indicators of visitors in natural areas is in its very early stages worldwide. The World Tourism Organisation’s Working Group on Environmental Indicators highlights the need to develop indicators at the site-specific level, in relation to identified ‘hot spots’ (Ward and Beanland 1995).

It is significant that an application by TPG in 1997 for funding from the Government’s Green Package for research into the assessment of the environmental effects of tourism was unsuccessful, and a 1997 tourism research package of funding for the next three years has not specified this topic as a priority.
4.3.3 Department of Conservation research

DOC’s research (in contrast to its monitoring) is currently focussed on the physical and ecological effects of tourism. More funding for social and cultural effects may be approved after the national workshop on the social impacts of visitors due to be convened by DOC in 1998. In addition to its own research, DOC contracts research from a variety of Crown Research Institutes, universities and private researchers. In 1995, DOC and Lincoln University jointly published a two-volume review, synthesis and bibliography of outdoor recreation research literature in New Zealand (Devlin et al. 1995).

Projects relating to the environmental effects of tourism which are funded and planned for 1997/98 mostly cover work on physical and ecological impacts. They include:
- impacts of recreation use on caves (including updating old monitoring data and assessing new monitoring needs);
- effects of tourism on marine mammals, eg marine mammal watching (review of current knowledge);
- effects of eco-tourism activities on waterfowl;
- generic vehicle impacts on intertidal sandy shore communities and dunelands; and
- assessing and monitoring the effects of aircraft noise on recreationists in natural areas.

A research action plan for addressing visitor impacts on the environment has been developed by DOC (Cessford 1997). It is based on the outcomes of a 1996 workshop on the physical impacts of visitors on natural and historic resources. The plan proposes a framework for identifying priorities for research and data assessment. The main objectives are to identify places where use may significantly compromise key environmental values and where more research and data assessment is required to assist in this process. The process relies on case studies and a multi-disciplinary approach.

4.3.4 Tourism industry research

The bulk of the tourism industry’s research is in the economic areas of business development, efficiency enhancement, and the collection of basic descriptive statistics and market research. The results of this research are not usually widely available.

4.3.5 Academic research

The main universities doing tourism research are Otago, Lincoln and Massey. Otago University specialises in tourism and the environment, and the economic analysis of tourism. Lincoln University has expertise in tourism in national parks and reserves, the socio-cultural impacts of tourism, and is also designing a domestic tourist flow model. Massey University’s tourism research includes tourism and health, resource use by tourists, national park management, and tourism impacts.
In 1994 the first efforts were made to address the overall research needs of the tourism sector. The Tourism Research Working Group (TRWG) was established by TPG with membership including the NZTIA, TPG, NZTB, MORST, and representatives from business and the research communities. The TRWG was set up to examine the research needs (including tourism data collection) of tourism in New Zealand in order to establish research priorities and strategies and the means of filling any research gaps.

The five main priorities for research identified in 1995 by the TRWG (MOC 1995) are shown in Table 4.1.

### Table 4.1  Tourism Research Working Group Priority Research Areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Priority Area</th>
<th>Possible Project Topics</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Publicly funded facilities</td>
<td>Future infrastructure requirements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The role of publicly funded facilities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Economic impact analysis</td>
<td>Counting the contribution of tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How to improve industry performance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Market research</td>
<td>Consumer expectations and demand</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relationship between market opportunities and New Zealand’s ‘clean green’ image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental issues</td>
<td>Models and mechanisms for sustainable tourism development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Current and future carrying capacities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural and social issues</td>
<td>Models for development of Maori tourism products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How to involve the local community in tourism.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The TRWG was disestablished in 1995 and (as recommended by the TRWG) a Tourism Research Association (TRA) was formed. After a number of meetings in 1995 and 1996, the TRA has been inactive in 1997. The NZTIA is now attempting to revive the TRA (see Chapter 4.3.2).

A Tourism Research Strategy Steering Committee, coordinated by the NZTIA, has this year contracted out the development of an overall research strategy for the tourism sector. The strategy aims to:

- contribute to increased competitiveness and effectiveness within the tourism sector;
- assist the sector to better manage the environmental, social and economic effects of tourism;
- avoid duplication of research effort;
- lead to more effective funding of research through cooperation; and
- help identify what research is more appropriately funded by the public and private sectors.

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4.3.6 Tourism Research Working Group and Tourism Research Association

4.3.7 Tourism research strategy
The strategy report (NZTIA 1997) recommends the establishment of an independent industry research institute to coordinate public and private research and development investment, transfer research and information to users, and provide advisory services. Various options for funding tourism research and development are discussed in the report, such as establishing a Tourism Research Council within NZTIA. The strategy will be taken into account by FRST when considering the strategic relevance of proposals for PGSF-funded research.

Tourism research has only ever received a very minor part of FRST funding, although in an earlier strategy total funds for tourism research were to increase from $98 000 to $310 000 from 1993/94 to 1997/98 (Clarke 1996). However, there was dissatisfaction with the quality of the research applications, so not all available funds were allocated until 1995/96. That year’s funds were allocated to only two tourism programmes: Planning for Tourism Development (Lincoln University, $121 000), and Sustainable Tourism, (Otago University, $256 000). Research on eco-tourism (Warren and Taylor 1994) was funded before 1995/96 by the Institute of Social Research and Development, which was disestablished in 1995.

The 1995 report of the Science Priorities Review Panel (SPiR) saw research in tourism as appropriate for PGSF funding because the industry is fragmented and diffuse and the interests of the public and the industry may be different. The SPiR considered that the funding level for tourism was too low given the high strategic importance of tourism in terms of its contribution to the economy and its environmental and social significance, and recommended an increase of 675% from $400 000 in 1995/96 to $3100 000 in 2000/01. As a proportion of total PGSF funding, this represents an increase for tourism research from 0.15% to 0.94% (SPiR 1995), compared with around 4% for the dairy industry. This is despite tourism reportedly making the same contribution to the national economy as the dairy industry (Ryan and Simmons 1997). This increase in funding was supported in FRST’s Research Strategy for PGSF Funding for Tourism, Commercial and Other Services 1996/97 to 2000/01.

In July 1997 the Minister of Research, Science and Technology released the government’s policies and priorities for Public Good Science and Technology. This brought forward the 2000/01 funding target for Tourism, Commercial and Other Services to 1998/99 (see Table 4.2). Increasing the PGSF funds for tourism research by almost two-and-a-half times between 1997 and 1998 reflects the Minister’s recognition of the importance of tourism research.
From 1996/97, research proposals require the involvement of end-users, as appropriate, before FRST funding is approved. The users are
the tourism industry and also government departments and agencies. FRST encourages this consultation so that research is presented in a form that will encourage end-users to apply it. Research must now contribute to the longer-term goals for the tourism sector as defined by the industry and/or by Government agencies.

4.4.2 Tourism research package

The Minister of Tourism announced a package on August 26 1997, which will contribute to:

- Statistics New Zealand setting up a national tourism account to provide the tourism industry with its own official foreign exchange earning statistics. The account, which has been funded for the next three years, will measure the foreign exchange, economic, and employment contributions of tourism in the same way as for the wool, dairy and meat industries (Minister of Tourism media release 26/8/97).

- A new domestic travel monitor, funded for the next three years, which will contribute data for the national tourism account. The new survey could provide data such as travel, spending and transport patterns and activities undertaken by domestic tourists. It could also highlight the differences between international and domestic visitors. A one-year pilot survey of domestic travel is currently being carried out under FRST funding (see Chapter 4.2.4). National domestic travel studies have not been carried out since 1989.

- Tourism forecasting and the development of techniques for assessing the economic impact of major events.

4.4.3 International Visitor Survey funding

The International Visitor Survey (IVS) is funded by the NZTB. Statistics New Zealand works closely with the NZTB in the formulation of the questionnaire and purchases some data. Copies of the IVS report are sold and the NZTB receives requests for more detailed data that does not appear in the IVS report. Most demand for reports and data is from RTOs, government and, to a lesser extent, individual businesses. The IVS report is sent to public libraries so is available to interested parties without charge.

NZTB presently recovers the full cost of the survey by selling the data to RTOs and local authorities, although purchase of this information by these organisations is not guaranteed. Tourism data is also sold by Statistics New Zealand.
Table 4.2 shows the pattern of funding for tourism research from 1995/96 to 2000/01.

Table 4.2  Funding of Tourism Research ($000s)

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DOC Internal</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOC External</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NZTB</td>
<td>1 000</td>
<td>1 000</td>
<td>1 000</td>
<td>1 000</td>
<td>1 000</td>
<td>1 000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGSF</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>1 301</td>
<td>3 100</td>
<td>3 100</td>
<td>at least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPG, MOC</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1 500</td>
<td>2 500</td>
<td>6 600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1 684</td>
<td>1 910</td>
<td>2 453</td>
<td>5 600</td>
<td>6 600</td>
<td>&gt;7 600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
1. The figures for DOC funding are only indicative of total spending as there was some subjectivity in determining from project titles whether the project is tourism-related.
2. The NZTB expenditure on tourism research is principally for gathering data for the International Visitors Survey and for the international visitor arrival statistics, and market research.
3. The TPG figures are only indicative of TPG’s funding of tourism research.
4. PGSF and TPG figures for 1998–2001 are from Minister of Tourism media release (26 August 1997).

DOC’s Visitor Services Strategy sets out a responsive management programme to be implemented when monitoring indicates that the environment is under significant pressure.

Where the monitoring programme identifies visitor activities, facilities and services as having an unacceptable effect on natural and historic values, the strategy sets out a number of actions DOC may take to rehabilitate the site. These include:

- reducing the use of the site/area by visitors through: restricting the number of visitors, imposing a limit on the length of stay, discouraging potential visitors, or increasing access, facilities and promotion in alternative areas;
- modifying visitor activities/behaviour to minimise visitor effects;
- modifying the timing of visitor activities to lower usage when the environment is most fragile or vulnerable;
- moving the visitor activity/facility/service to more durable sites; and
- increasing the resistance of the site by ‘hardening’ it or shielding it from further effects.

A mix of techniques is used on a case-by-case basis. Making changes to a cause (visitor numbers, activities, behaviour, facilities and

4.5  Use of information for the management of environmental effects of tourism

4.5.1 The Department of Conservation
services) is usually preferred to increasing the resistance or capacity of the site/area.

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**Box 4.1  Waitomo Caves Management: Use of Monitoring Data**

The Waitomo Glow-worm Caves are run as a concession from the Ruapuha Uekaha Hapu Trust and DOC. The management of the Waitomo Glow-worm Caves (see Box 5.4 in Chapter 5) presents some real challenges. In the first instance, the site is very fragile, both physically and biologically. This was highlighted in 1978 when changes to the gates to the caves altered the internal environment, prompting the glow worms to turn off their lights, and removing the tourist attraction within a matter of days.

Currently, monitoring is done on: visitor numbers, visual appearance, water quality, carbon dioxide levels, humidity, rock and air temperatures, flooding and siltation. Increased numbers of visitors raise the level of carbon dioxide in the caves. The carbon dioxide level is monitored with a threshold level set at 2600 parts per million (400 people per hour), although there is no evidence that an increase in carbon dioxide affects the glow worms.

Despite extensive and continuous monitoring at Waitomo Caves for 20 years, the data has not been analysed to determine meaningful thresholds for management. Currently the number of people going through the caves is limited on the basis of preserving the ‘visitor experience’, rather than on research that indicates what are the physical effects of people on the caves.
Some local authorities collect data about visitors. This information, together with that used by RTOs to target marketing, is used in a number of ways, including:

- projecting future growth to help plan for infrastructure demands, such as accommodation and roads; and
- identifying likely future pressures to help plan for, and manage, negative aspects of growth.

Complaints about the effects of visitors (such as sewerage overload and too little water) are another form of monitoring that gives useful data to local authorities. Where there is insufficient monitoring, local authorities will be unaware of the effects of activities. One example is regional council monitoring of waterways which, if inadequate, can mean that problems such as sewage contamination due to visitor influx overloading the system may be missed.

4.5.2 Local authorities and RTOs
4.6 Discussion

4.6.1 Data gaps

As noted in Chapters 2 and 5, many of those consulted feel that there is not enough information on tourism and its effects on the environment to allow for effective management. On the other hand, some in the tourism sector consider that there is little information on how complex situations have been monitored over time and how the data obtained has assisted decision-making. This highlights a lack of modelling expertise in New Zealand – expertise that could enable scenarios of the likely effects of tourism to be developed, complex relationships explored, and decisions made.

Human (1997) found a widespread perception in New Zealand that the standard of monitoring is not ideal. Poor statistics for local areas and domestic tourism are of particular concern. However, as noted above, some resources have been made available for monitoring domestic tourism through the PGSF Tourism Research Programme and under the new tourism research package. DOC conservancies, Conservation Boards and local authorities pointed to a lack of systematic research on trends, carrying capacities and the effects of tourism activities generally (refer to the list of data gaps below).

FRST acknowledges that the lack of nationwide research limits the ability of any agency to demonstrate clearly the generic environmental effects of tourism, let alone how they are, or should be, monitored and managed. The tourism research bibliographies published by TPG detail the research that has been done, but the majority of research is site-specific. Although FRST’s research strategy for tourism identifies environmental issues as priority areas for research, these issues have not been a high priority for research by government agencies or tourism operators – although their importance is certainly recognised.

New Zealand, like other nations, focuses on visitor numbers when monitoring and researching visitor effects (Ward and Beanland 1996). In addition, while the concept of the carrying capacity of tourist sites can be found throughout the literature, the emphasis is on the implementation of this concept in relation to maintaining a ‘quality recreational experience’ (ie visitor satisfaction) as opposed to the environmental carrying capacity. The assumption in much of the literature is that visitor satisfaction will be compromised before any significant ecological or social damage occurs. This assumption has resulted in (ibid.):

- an absence of any ongoing monitoring of visitor impacts on the natural environment; and
- the types of visitors to an area changing in response to environmental changes, with visitors who are seeking pristine environments moving further into wilderness areas.

New Zealand work on the effects of visitors shows a number of characteristics (ibid.; J Ward, Lincoln University pers. comm.).
• Very little continuous monitoring is being done (many studies cover only one season).
• Research into visitor effects is limited in terms of the areas studied, the type of effect studied and the length of study.
• The relationships between baseline conditions, type and level of use, type and degree of effect, and management objectives/responses have not been investigated.
• Most research has focused on effects on vegetation, with relatively little done on the effects on wildlife, soil or air quality.
• Individual studies have focused on only one or two variables and do not provide a comprehensive study of visitor impacts at a particular site.
• The studies reviewed do not provide sufficient information to demonstrate the relationship between sites with similar characteristics.
• Only a limited number of research methods have been used in New Zealand.

The relationship between the numbers, activities and behaviour of visitors and the environmental effects they have needs to be better understood and more research is clearly needed in this area (Ward and Beanland 1996).

In relation to work on the social effects of tourism, Lawson et al. (1996) noted that the current research is fragmented and hence produces many non-comparable results, with many of the findings showing only weak associations between the development of tourism and the effects discussed.

As suggested above, one of the most significant data gaps identified is in domestic tourism. It is hoped that the proposed domestic travel monitor will address this gap.

The following are other gaps recognised by the parties consulted.

**Basic data gaps:**
• Numbers of visitors involved in different types of activities (this may be provided by new IVS interview questions).
• Numbers visiting and staying on the conservation estate.
• Numbers of international visitors staying in non-commercial accommodation.
• Interaction between the rural sector and tourism (the Statistics NZ Tourist Accommodation Survey currently misses out most rural tourism operators).
• Visitor expectations and satisfaction.
• Operating compliance of DOC concessions.
**Social effects knowledge gaps:**
- Residents’ perceptions of tourism effects over time.
- Social effects of tourism (including those on other people using national and regional parks).
- Costs of tourism to the health system.
- Audit procedures to monitor the economic and social performance of tourism destinations.
- Effects of tourism on environmental values and aspects of importance to Maori;
- Identifying community ‘limits of acceptable change’.
- Understanding how increased international tourism to New Zealand has affected the behaviour of New Zealanders as domestic tourists.

**Biophysical effects knowledge gaps:**
- Cumulative environmental effects of tourism developments.
- Transport effects of tourism (eg emissions from tour buses, campervans, jet aircraft).
- Carrying capacity of different environments, including New Zealand as a whole.
- Identifying environmental ‘limits of acceptable change’.
- Resource requirements of visitors compared with local residents.
- Environmental indicators for tourism.
- Understanding of ecosystem contexts on which to base environmental monitoring strategies to use as a framework for tourism planning.
- Environmental effects of individual DOC recreation concession applications.
- Effects of tourism on landscape, visual amenity, and geological features.
- Audit procedures to monitor environmental performance of tourism destinations.
- Understanding of the role of the conservation estate within tourism.

The growth of adventure tourism and eco-tourism will make increasing demands on a number of specialised research areas. Examples relating to marine environments alone include the whale-watching industry, use of the sub-Antarctic islands, maritime parks, and special events such as the America’s Cup (MORST 1996).

An industry executive stated at a tourism research conference that “New Zealand doesn’t have a culture that values research” (Human 1997). It was acknowledged that the industry has carried out only very limited direct market research, and that it will usually only support research if it can see direct benefits. The economic effect of international visitors as a key area of study linked to effective planning for the future growth of tourism was identified.
In the past, there has been relatively little coordination and collaboration between tourism researchers, and between tourism researchers and the tourism industry. However, FRST’s new strategy to encourage research teams to consult and collaborate with research users at an early stage should increase communication between those two sectors. This strategy, currently being developed by the industry, is expected to improve the quality and focus of research.

Reliable and accurate data, and the monitoring of effects is necessary for the environmental effects associated with the tourism sector to be managed effectively. To ensure that this happens, data collection and collation must be coordinated so that all relevant parties have access to information to ensure they share a common understanding of the issues and pressures. This will require consistent definitions of key terms such as ‘tourism’ and ‘environmental effects’.

While use is made of much of the data collected, some information is not available to those who manage the environmental effects associated with tourism. In some instances this is because the data is withheld for reasons of commercial sensitivity, eg visitor numbers at certain locations. Industry plans, which could help management agencies in their planning, are not generally available, and timely distribution of data between national agencies and local operators is not assured.

In other instances, the data simply does not exist. For example, integrated tourism data at the national level or environmental education material for tourists.

Another problem highlighted by those consulted is that the national tourism statistics are out of date by the time they are released, and therefore of limited use for management purposes. Often, also, data is collected but the gatherers do not have the means, time or skills to analyse it (see Box 4.1).

Despite the importance of tourism to New Zealand’s economy, there are significant gaps in the data about tourism in this country. The significance of the environmental effects of tourism cannot confidently be assessed until those effects are monitored properly.

The present lack of specific indicators relevant to the environmental effects associated with tourism appears to be a significant barrier to assessing the effects and sustainability of tourism.

FRST, DOC and the tourism industry are addressing some of the above shortcomings through programmes like the FRST research
strategy, DOC’s tourism research action plan, and NZTIA’s tourism research strategy.
This chapter focuses on a number of places where tourism is a significant activity, and some specific examples of tourism issues that illustrate the matters raised in this report.

Each location is profiled and the key issues for the management of the environmental effects of tourism are noted. The places selected are Rotorua, Queenstown, the Hauraki Gulf, the Coromandel Peninsula, Waitomo Caves, and Buller. By exploring the specific issues for each, the wider priorities and policy concerns emerge. The six profiles give an indication of the range of issues involved in managing tourism’s environmental effects, through examining particular circumstances and situations in different communities. This has revealed similarities and many common issues across New Zealand. For Rotorua and Queenstown, the profiles in this chapter are summaries; more thorough discussion and referencing are given in Appendices 9 and 10.

The information was gathered from a series of interviews with interested parties (see Appendix 1) and from written information provided, or referred to, by them.

5.2 Rotorua District

5.2.1 Background

The Rotorua district has been a popular tourism destination since the mid-19th century, when visitors first traveled there to see the spectacular scenery and geothermal features and to enjoy the curative mineral waters. The community has grown around its tourism activities, and tourism is now ahead of farming and forestry as the district’s major source of income, contributing an estimated $235 million per annum to the local economy. In 1995/96 Rotorua received approximately 1.2 million visitors, and numbers are projected to grow; in 1992/93 almost one-third of all international visitors to New Zealand visited Rotorua.

The tangata whenua, Te Arawa, have always had a central role in tourism, with a strong tradition of guiding and cultural performance. Rotorua’s commitment to tourism is reflected in its energetic promotion to both domestic and international tourism markets; its upgrading of accommodation, key tourist attractions and the central urban areas; and the focus on tourism in its policies and plans.
The Rotorua District Council (RDC) has responsibilities for environmental management under the RMA, and for the provision of infrastructure. The council’s proposed district plan, notified in December 1993, recognises the importance of tourism to the district, and notes that the “council aims to increase Rotorua’s market share [of] both international and domestic tourism”. The plan acknowledges tourism’s reliance on the natural and cultural assets of the district, and the pressure placed on infrastructure and natural resources; its objectives include the maintenance of natural, cultural and amenity values.

The RDC funds the promotional and marketing work of the regional tourism organisation (RTO), Tourism Rotorua, which is given information, advice and specific marketing direction by the Rotorua Tourism Advisory Board (RTAB). The RTAB, which includes representatives from the council, the tourism sector, and Maori, developed the Rotorua Tourism Strategic Plan 1996−2005 to provide a framework for the tourism industry and community activities, and for planning and development to protect and promote the tourism product.

The strategic plan addresses such issues as environmental tourism, financial and funding issues, Maori tourism, education, and community involvement. It identifies the need for resources and the environment to be well managed if sustainable tourism growth is to be achieved. It acknowledges the importance of overseas market perceptions, and of caring for the environment for Rotorua’s citizens as well as for international visitors. The RTO notes, however, that the highly competitive nature of Rotorua’s tourism industry can hinder the acceptance and implementation of environmental strategies, as these are seen as imposing delays and costs that can reduce competitive advantage.

The Rotorua district straddles the jurisdictions of two regional councils. Environment Bay of Plenty (EBOP) covers the lakes area, which is the central focus for tourism, and Environment Waikato covers the southern part of the district, which includes significant geothermal fields. The regional councils play no part in promoting tourism, but manage resource use and hence the effects of tourism through regional policy statements and plans. Plans relevant to tourism effects management include EBOP’s Proposed Rotorua Geothermal Regional Plan, which aims to ensure long-term viability of the geothermal resource on which tourism is heavily reliant.

Maori have both an interest and an active role in tourism promotion and management, and have been involved in tourism in Rotorua from the beginning. As the Crown’s partners under the Treaty of Waitangi, tangata whenua have input through the structures of government including the local and regional councils. Maori involvement is advanced through a number of channels, including independent
tourism operators, the Te Arawa Standing Committee of the RDC, the regional office of Te Puni Kokiri, the New Zealand Maori Arts and Crafts Institute, and the Lake Rotoiti and Lake Okataina Scenic Reserves Boards. The Aotearoa Maori Tourism Board, a national coordinating and advocacy organisation for Maori tourism, is based in Rotorua.

Community and environmental groups are involved in tourism decision-making through statutory processes and general advocacy.

DOC has a conservancy office in Rotorua. It administers a range of popular reserves through the district, and it has been noted that there is heavy reliance in the tourism industry on the conservation estate, both in the district and elsewhere. DOC provides facilities and infrastructure for visitors, and manages concessions for commercial operations, including tours of geothermal areas, rafting trips and fishing trips. The draft Bay of Plenty Conservation Management Strategy (CMS) addresses visitor management issues and concessions. DOC also has an important advocacy role through resource consent and planning processes.

The NZTB has a regional liaison officer based in Rotorua. There are also a number of industry organisations active in Rotorua including the Motel Association of New Zealand and a local hotel managers’ group.

Activities in natural areas
Activities in natural areas, such as tramping, fishing, rafting and adventure tourism, which are a significant component of the tourism industry in Rotorua, are seen by many as increasing pressures on these resources. Effects identified include physical damage to facilities, such as tracks, noise from aircraft, loss of “wilderness feel”, and conflicting expectations of different groups of users.

Lakes management
The 23 lakes in Rotorua form a unique and special part of the district. Many are used for tourism and recreational activities, including fishing, boating and swimming. Although parts of the margins of several lakes are in reserves, there is pressure from a range of sources, including forestry, farming, residential and industrial uses. Tangata whenua say that several of the lakes have seen significant reduction in water quality and loss of fish from the different uses made of the lakes’ margins and waters.

A variety of different agencies have management responsibilities for the lakes or aspects of their use. Many attempts have been made in the past to achieve a coordinated approach, but with little success. A new initiative, the current development of a lakes management strategy by the district and regional councils and Te Arawa Maori Trust Board,
aims for coordination and integrated management. Although this will be a non-statutory document, the councils have indicated their intention to incorporate its provisions into their statutory plans.

Geothermal resources management
Rotorua’s geysers, mud pools, hot mineral pools and steaming craters are unique and very important for tourism, with 45% of overseas visitors to New Zealand visiting a geothermal site. In the 1980s, however, intensive use of the resource for heating and pools led to a sharp reduction in geothermal and geyser activity at Whakarewarewa, a key visitor attraction. Strict controls were imposed on geothermal resource use, which have been controversial with domestic users and accommodation providers, but effective in restoring geothermal activity at Whakarewarewa. Maori have a particular interest in the geothermal resource, with claims to the Waitangi Tribunal for the resource and for the Whakarewarewa geothermal field.

Subdivision and development pressure
The scale of developments for tourism is a significant issue as it affects the natural and rural landscapes and the special character of the area. For example, there has been considerable controversy over the current proposal to develop a large hotel complex at Lake Okareka. The siting of tourism developments, often in scenic natural areas, is considered by some to be a threat to the scenic and environmental qualities of an area. Maori noted, however, that concern for the protection of natural areas from the intrusions of tourism can mean that tangata whenua are prevented from taking up opportunities to develop their land, in many cases among the last remaining natural and bush-covered areas.

Infrastructure
Issues relating to the funding and provision of infrastructure and services such as sewerage, water supply and roads were acknowledged. However, this was not seen to be a particularly problematic or controversial issue.

Maori cultural issues
Maori culture is a major component of tourism in Rotorua, and is used extensively in marketing. Maori tourism operators, both tangata whenua (Te Arawa), and Maori from other areas, provide a range of experiences including tours, concerts and marae visits.

Many Maori acknowledge the economic benefits of tourism, but there is a range of views on the value of tourism to Maori. Some people note that providing experiences and crafts for visitors have helped to promote Maori culture, but others see the use of the culture for tourism as inappropriate, with potential for misinterpretation and offence. Often Maori themselves receive no benefit or return from the
use of their culture. Direct physical effects, including damage to Maori sites and waahi tapu, were also noted.

For many Maori consulted, control of the effects of tourism is just one aspect of the wider control of resources, and the exercising of the mana and kaitiakitanga of tangata whenua. Many noted that they have often found themselves marginalised in tourism decision-making and in planning through the RMA, with a range of factors identified including the lack of resources to pay for Maori expertise, over-complexity of formal documents, and poor relationships between local authorities and iwi and hapu.

**Local government involvement in tourism**
The RDC acknowledges that there needs to be a balance between its active role in promoting and facilitating tourist developments, and its other functions and objectives. There are concerns from some in the community that the council faces a conflict of interest in promoting tourism-related developments while fulfilling its regulatory and consultative functions. Some people consulted expressed reservations about the council’s responsiveness to community concerns about tourism growth and effects.

**Liaison between organisations**
There are numerous agencies and groups, private and public, with an interest or responsibility in tourism management in Rotorua. Their failure to work constructively together is fundamental to many of the issues arising for tourism in the region. Specific cases, such as the controversy with management of rafting on the Kaituna River (see Box R.1 in Appendix 9), illustrate the need for more effective communication and liaison to achieve better environmental outcomes.

**Information, monitoring and education**
There is widespread concern about the lack of information on tourism and its specific effects in the Rotorua district; the limited monitoring of existing activities and their effects; and the need for education of visitors and operators about environmental values and the effects of tourism.

5.3 Queenstown–Lakes District

Like Rotorua, Queenstown and the surrounding district have become one of New Zealand’s principal visitor destinations. Tourism is the major economic activity, with an estimated 90% to 95% of Queenstown people relying on tourism either directly or indirectly. Activities and attractions include skiing, the spectacular mountain landscapes, opportunities for relaxation, rafting and jet boat rides, fishing, golf
courses and resorts. There is a wide range of accommodation from backpackers and home-stay to new developments such as the Millbrook complex.

There has been rapid growth in tourism in the last decade, with approximately 630,000 visitors to Queenstown in 1996. The whole Southern Lakes area, which includes Milford Sound and the Fiordland and Mount Aspiring national parks, received approximately 474,000 international visitors in 1995/96, and approximately 500,000 domestic. The international visitors alone are estimated to have spent some $260 million in the area.

5.3.2 Management systems, agencies and organisations

The Queenstown–Lakes District Council (QLDC) is involved with tourism through statutory planning, regulatory and management roles, provision of services, and support for tourism growth and development. The council and the Mayor have a high and sometimes controversial profile in Queenstown. A significant proportion of the comments and concerns elicited from interviews conducted in Queenstown related to the council, its approach to tourism, and its management of tourism's effects on the environment and the community.

The Queenstown–Lakes District Plan was notified in October 1995, just prior to local body elections. The current proposed plan addresses the effects of tourism through its general provisions for development and environmental management, and includes as objectives:

- maintenance of environmental quality and landscape values;
- assessment of the impact of visitors on the sustainable management of the district’s resources; and
- protection of rural and urban amenity values.

In 1995 the QLDC also produced a strategic plan for future growth and development, primarily in tourism, which emphasises the need to manage increasing visitor numbers and to plan in advance for increasing population and infrastructure demands. It proposed that a growth management strategy be developed by the Council to address this need.

Destination Queenstown, the RTO, is funded partly by the QLDC and partly through joint ventures with member organisations. Its board of directors includes QLDC and industry representatives. Its major function is the promotion of Queenstown, both independently and in conjunction with the NZTB.

The Otago Regional Council has little formal involvement in tourism effects management beyond its statutory responsibility for resource management, in particular for rivers and the lakes, and its responsibility for the Regional Land Transport Strategy, which
includes plans to identify and improve roads of strategic importance to tourism.

DOC has a significant role in tourism in Queenstown and the Southern Lakes region, providing a range of visitor services such as bookings and information, and maintaining visitor infrastructure in addition to its land and concession management responsibilities. Recent efforts have focused on the ‘front country’, the most readily accessible areas where the majority of visitors experience the conservation estate. The draft Otago Conservation Management Strategy (CMS) outlines objectives and policies for concessions and visitor facilities on the conservation estate.

The NZTB recently led the development of a draft tourism strategy for the Southern Lakes region, through a process of consultation with the community and stakeholders including DOC, three district councils, tourism industry interests and the general public. The draft strategy has recently been released for public feedback. Its objectives for tourism development are to:

• ensure environmental quality is safeguarded or enhanced;
• ensure tourism development is supported by local communities;
• enhance the economic benefits of tourism;
• encourage the benefits of tourism to be spread throughout the whole region; and
• ensure the product meets or exceeds visitor expectations.

The draft strategy also considers questions of infrastructure, access and sympathetic management of land uses. The NZTB, which has a liaison officer based in Queenstown, also has input into statutory planning processes, and collects and disseminates information for promoters, developers and tourism operators.

As tangata whenua, Ngai Tahu have provided a comprehensive statement of kaitiakitanga values, perspectives and priorities for the region in the 1995 Kai Tahu ki Otago Natural Resource Management Plan. Tourism options are being explored as part of the wider potential arising from the settlement of the Ngai Tahu claim to the Waitangi Tribunal. The potential includes guided walking tours to historical sites and natural areas, and boat trips up Lake Wakatipu. With its successful involvement in whale-watching at Kaikoura, the iwi is following an eco-tourism kaupapa. Authenticity of the cultural experiences and information provided to visitors is extremely important to tangata whenua, as are environmental sustainability, protection of the natural areas, and tangata whenua control of the enterprise.

Queenstown is the headquarters for several major tourism businesses, including Tourism Holdings, Shotover Jet, Skyline Holdings and Fiordland Travel. Industry organisations such as the Motel
Association of New Zealand are represented in the area. Many community and environmental groups are also active in Queenstown.

5.3.3 Management issues

Although Queenstown is a successful and growing visitor destination, there is widespread concern that it may lose its ability to absorb and attract visitors in the future. Many people consulted identified significant concerns about tourism in the Queenstown area, including:

- physical damage such as trampling and wildlife disturbance, particularly in wilderness areas;
- changing urban amenity values;
- social and economic effects, such as crowding, community changes and increased costs of living;
- the changing character of the rural landscape in the Wakatipu Basin due to residential subdivision; and
- the need to manage growth generally (which in Queenstown is synonymous with tourism growth).

The role of the local authority

Concerns about the role of the district council were much stronger in Queenstown than in the other places visited in this investigation, with a widespread perception in the community that the QLDC is primarily focused on development. Many people believe that this emphasis has been detrimental to the environment and community values and interests, although others feel that it has allowed the town to develop into the tourist destination it now is. There is dissatisfaction with the council’s role, the proposed district plan, and the RMA’s effectiveness and appropriateness as a means of managing the effects of tourism. There is debate about the extent of the QLDC’s encouragement of tourism, about its handling of the proposal for a casino, and the budget allocated to promotional work through Destination Queenstown relative to that for environmental effects management.

The role of the Department of Conservation

There was discussion about DOC’s role and functions in managing the environmental effects associated with tourism. Management of concessions is a major issue, particularly for activities like heli-hiking and heli-skiing, which have potentially very significant effects on fragile alpine environments. The problem of cumulative effects, where individual concessions may have little effect but the impacts of a number of concessions are significant, was also raised. Some of those consulted felt there is insufficient reliable monitoring of the effects of DOC’s concessions. The most commonly noted issue was the widespread concern about the perceived inadequacies of the funding of DOC, and support for the principle that revenue generated from concessions in the Otago conservancy should be directed back to the region.
The need to limit access to certain areas to protect conservation values was an issue for some people. Although DOC must abide by the statutory principle of unrestricted access to the conservation estate, mechanisms other than outright exclusion are being used to manage visitor demand, such as the booking system for the Routeburn Track.

DOC’s active role in advocacy for conservation in the Queenstown–Lakes district, providing a lead in some instances for environmental groups, has at times resulted in conflict with the council and the tourism sector, which highlights differences in approach to the environmental effects associated with tourism.

**Strategic planning and information**

Many people expressed concern about what they perceived as a lack of planning and strategic direction for tourism, and for growth generally, in Queenstown. (It should be noted that this investigation was undertaken before the release of the draft Southern Lakes Tourism Strategy.) There was also concern at the perceived lack of commitment to the QLDC’s strategic plan and its implementation.

Some saw development as *ad hoc* and its pace frenetic, fearing that the area risked losing its attractiveness as a destination. There were concerns that over-development and over-commercialisation might limit the ability of Queenstown to provide relaxing or nature-based experiences. The relationships between Queenstown itself and the surrounding Southern Lakes region need to be considered strategically. There was also concern at Queenstown’s vulnerability to factors outside the control of the council. Factors such as shifts in the wider tourism industry, changes in national and international market demand, and the number of airline seats available have potential for significant impacts on the area.

Some suggested that a lack of information about both residents and visitors and their needs and objectives is a contributing factor in planning difficulties. Studies have been undertaken by the QLDC, but it was felt that these have not played a significant role in planning.

The unease expressed by many people consulted about the direction and pace of tourism development in Queenstown was reflected in the number of people who argued for a national tourism strategy or policy statement to guide tourism throughout the country, give a strategic direction to tourism growth, and ensure that a long-term sustainable approach is taken.

**Infrastructure and services**

Issues identified included the provision and support of infrastructure needed for large numbers of tourists, the cost involved for a relatively small community such as Queenstown, and pressure on some existing infrastructure. Who should pay for facilities (eg the public toilets at
Arrowtown and roads used extensively for tourism, like the Glenorchy, Crown Range and Skippers roads) is also a matter of debate. Initiatives taken by some local hotels in waste and energy management are an encouraging step towards reducing demands on services like waste disposal.

**Transport**

Some of those consulted perceived tourist transport as having significant effects on the environment. Effects identified include
traffic congestion, fumes from buses, parking problems, noise from aircraft and from recreational and commercial power boats, pressure to expand the airport, and accidents on the roads due to drivers unfamiliar with the area, conditions and rules.

Amenity and landscape values
The management of special urban amenity values in Queenstown itself – its unique alpine village character and the surrounding rural and urban landscapes – was identified as an important challenge. The loss of historic sites and buildings to development, such as Archers Cottage near the lake shores, has been controversial. Pressures on the district’s landscapes from forestry and rural subdivision are also of concern to some in the community.

Community involvement
There was widespread concern that Queenstown needs more effective community involvement in decision-making about tourism and the management of its effects. (Again it should be noted that this investigation was undertaken before the release of the draft Southern Lakes Tourism Strategy for public consultation.)

Community groups felt that a number of factors contributed to the difficulties experienced in participating and having their views heard. The problems included:

• the costs of involvement in resource management processes, and changes to funding for community advocacy;
• non-notification of resource consent applications so the public are not given the opportunity to comment;
• council priorities and its general focus on growth and development;
• the pressure of continually reacting to proposals rather than being included in proactive planning;
• polarised relationships within the community; and
• the diverse multi-faceted nature of the community.

One model that was suggested for facilitating community involvement is the charrette process, which has been used in Arrowtown and Arthur’s Point to develop locally focused goals and action plans.

A number of common themes and issues emerge from the studies of tourism and its effects on the environment in Rotorua and Queenstown. Both places have a unique image, are premier tourism destinations, are well-known nationally and internationally, and are energetically promoted. Both are urban centres with activities for tourists within the town and in the surrounding countryside. In each

5.4 Common issues

5 The charrette process is a facilitated, community-driven, workshop-based process used to help communities to identify issues and options for its future.
place tourism is a central component of the community and the local economy, although Queenstown is much more reliant on tourism than Rotorua and this has some bearing on the tensions in the community. Both places are under increasing pressure as visitor numbers rise and development brings change. Tourism is, increasingly, imposing pressure on the natural values and experiences each place can provide. The risk for both Rotorua and Queenstown is that tourism’s effects could be detrimental to the very qualities and resources that attract and sustain the tourism sector.

Common issues for both Rotorua and Queenstown relating to the systems for managing the environmental effects of tourism, and the roles and responsibilities of respective agencies and stakeholders, are:

- the need for more effective coordination of the roles, plans and activities of the various official agencies, tangata whenua and private enterprises in the tourism sector to ensure better management of the effects associated with tourism;
- the need for purposeful strategic planning and direction for tourism management (e.g., QLDC Strategic Plan, and Tourism Rotorua’s Strategic Plan), plus implementation of such planning initiatives;
- the lack of sufficient information about the important values and resources utilised by the tourism sector, and the lack of appropriate monitoring of tourism activities, intensities and effects;
- the continuing need for community participation in decision-making for tourism, and more effective mechanisms for the recognition and integration of community values and aspirations; and
- possible conflicts in the multiple roles of councils, and their need to balance their responsibilities for promotion and for regulation of tourism and management of environmental effects.

Other key issues identified in these districts are:

- the role and ability of DOC to provide for conservation and recreation/tourism given existing structures and funding levels; and
- managing changes to landscape, natural character and amenity values.

In the remainder of this chapter, four geographically based profiles and four issue-based profiles are presented. The geographically based profiles (Boxes 5.1 to 5.4) cover four areas where tourism and its environmental effects raise rather different challenges. Although these profiles – of Buller District, Hauraki Gulf, the Coromandel Peninsula and Waitomo Caves – are the result of less detailed investigations than those undertaken for Rotorua and Queenstown (see Appendices 9 and 10), they provide useful insights into the range of issues relating to tourism and the management of its effects faced in different places around the country.

The four issue-based profiles (Boxes 5.5 to 5.8) illustrate some of the specific challenges and issues facing the system of environmental management as it relates to tourism.
Box 5.1  Buller District

A sparsely populated district with a very small rating base facing growing visitor numbers and pressure on existing services and infrastructure, but looking for alternatives to traditional extractive industries.

Buller District, on the West Coast of the South Island, is an area of 8574 square kilometres with a population of just under 11,000 people. The main centre is Westport, population 4800.

Buller is not on the traditional package tour axis, but is popular with free independent travellers (FITs). Each year, 140,000 to 165,000 people visit. Most pass through the district, stopping at Punakaiki to see the Pancake Rocks in Paparoa National Park on the way. Seventy-six percent of the land in Buller is in the conservation estate and many of its tourist attractions are administered by DOC, including the Pancake Rocks and numerous short walks. The district is also an important transport link between the West Coast and Nelson, and provides access to the Kahurangi National Park.

The following are specific issues relating to the management of the effects of tourism.

Funding infrastructure
With its small population and rating base, and because rates are not paid for conservation estate land (DOC does pay rates on its buildings), Buller District Council (BDC) has a limited budget. The district is not well equipped to handle additional demand for infrastructure, and developers are encouraged to fund their own. Roads are a particular problem. High rainfall means that roads require a lot of maintenance and long stretches are needed to service remote areas. Some roads, such as the one to Karamea, are used mainly by tourist traffic. While maintenance of special-purpose roads is paid for by central government, improvements, required as more vehicles use the roads, must be paid for in part by the territorial authority. The management of waste is also difficult. Landfills and sewerage systems are already strained, and growing tourist numbers add further pressure. Although awareness of the cumulative effects of waste disposal over time is increasing, there is only limited monitoring of the environmental effects of this pressure so that the full extent of the issue is yet to be realised.

The provision of facilities
The provision of public toilet facilities is an ongoing challenge. There is a widespread perception that lack of toilets, the high number of FITs, people using campervans, and freedom camping means that roadside stops are polluted by human waste, either directly or as a result of campervan effluent being emptied at the site. It was widely accepted
that more public toilet facilities are needed but no agreement as to who should pay. Transit New Zealand maintains rest areas on State Highways but does not provide toilets. DOC supplies more public toilets than any other agency on the West Coast, but most were designed for less than the present level of usage. DOC also has limited resources to provide or upgrade public toilets and notes that the provision of public toilets outside the conservation estate is not its responsibility. West Coast geology doesn’t help: impermeable limestone and sandstones makes the use of pit toilets and traditional septic tanks unsatisfactory as seepage can readily pollute groundwater.

**Coordinating management between agencies**
The need for coordination between the agencies involved in tourism in Buller was noted. As in other areas, many agencies have an interest in, or responsibility for, aspects of tourism effects management. In Buller, the Paparoa Liaison Group (PLG) is an example of a constructive and proactive approach to planning, developing and managing a tourist destination. The PLG was set up in 1996 to oversee the redevelopment of Punakaiki. The site is fragile and requires careful management. The PLG includes representatives from DOC, the West Coast Regional Council, Buller District Council, Grey District Council, local iwi, Transit New Zealand, and the local Crown Health Enterprise. It has already been effective in improving relationships between agencies and is active in planning for the future development of Punakaiki.

The PLG has allowed many issues to be resolved, but some difficulties remain. Land tenure is an issue for DOC. Milburn Cement has an interest in land adjacent to the Paparoa National Park for quarrying limestone, but that use is seen by DOC to be incompatible with tourism and conservation activities. Coordination between promotion by the NZTB and management of visitors locally is an issue. The West Coast RTO is seen as an important link for achieving an integrated approach to tourism promotion as it can represent local interests. The RTO is now jointly funded by the Westland, Buller and Grey District Councils, but it has only two-thirds of its previous budget allocated on an annual basis, which makes its future less certain. Lack of knowledge about visitors, and their needs and impacts, is another concern for the PLG. At present, most information comes from the NZTB, but this is geared towards tourism operators. Monitoring of trends in visitor numbers and environmental effects is needed.

**Planning for tourism**
The Buller community has varied views on tourism. Some see demands being placed on the council to provide facilities and some resent the intrusion of visitors. Others see tourism as a mechanism for growth and development. With growth in tourism expected to continue, tourism will have to be planned for and managed. The
proposed district plan does not mention tourism specifically; its effects are addressed through general plan provisions. However, in the rural environment character area, any ‘tourism related activity’ is permitted. In the transitional plan, resort zones allow for hotel/motel developments, and objectives and policies identify and acknowledge tourism potential.

_Buller faces several challenges in managing the effects of tourism. The biggest hurdle is to ensure that parties cooperate and develop constructive working relationships to address local issues and concerns. Provision of infrastructure will be another challenge. Lack of money continues to hinder the monitoring of visitor effects, which in turn makes it harder to plan for tourism. The PLG illustrates the type of innovative approach that can be developed in Buller where small communities make close working relationships both possible and essential._
Box 5.2 The Hauraki Gulf

A mix of coastal, inshore and island environments accessible to some two million residents and visitors for intensive recreational and commercial use.

The Hauraki Gulf, adjacent to New Zealand’s largest city, is probably the most intensively used coastal waterway in New Zealand. The Gulf includes New Zealand’s largest commercial port and many other important harbours and is integral to the lives of more than one million residents who are highly mobile on land and sea. The range of land environments, both coastal and island, is very wide, and the Gulf is increasingly seen as the tourism link between Auckland, Northland and the Coromandel. There were about one million international visitor arrivals to Auckland in 1996 and an estimated total of 800 000 visitors to the Coromandel. Many locals, as well as international and New Zealand tourists, visit the Hauraki Gulf.

The rapidly increasing number of visitors is imposing significant environmental pressures on the following:

- Provision of infrastructure (e.g., sewerage, water, waste disposal, and accommodation).
- Maintaining the significant conservation values (natural and historic/cultural) of Gulf environments, especially islands. There are specific visitor management issues in different island environments (e.g., transport of large numbers of visitors around the highly erodible scoria slopes of Rangitoto Island).
- More remote places without the infrastructure to handle visitors due to the increased capacity of transport facilities (e.g., ferry services, wharves, airfields) for Gulf visitors (e.g., last summer, accommodation on Great Barrier Island was stretched).
- Management of access to areas or resources by different groups of users (e.g., the Hauraki Gulf fishery, where increasing recreational fishing demand has to be accommodated along with the commercial fishing industry, as well as growing demand for no-take marine reserves). Existing marine reserves are very heavily visited. Compliance by both commercial and recreational fishers is also an issue.
- Water quality, which is seen by Aucklanders as a major issue for the Gulf. It can be adversely affected by land uses and marine pollution; some of the latter, such as human waste discharged from boats, is largely recreational in origin.
- Many Gulf activities are highly seasonal and concentrated in the summer holiday period, with big influxes of visitors on single days.

In general, agencies spoken to noted that metropolitan Auckland can generally accommodate visitors’ requirements within the infrastructure of the city, but that in the Hauraki Gulf, the requirements for visitor
management are different and additional to those for the resident population. The Gulf may also be an area where domestic visitor growth may be as high or higher than international visitor growth. Special pressures over the whole region are anticipated from the America’s Cup Challenge in 2000, resulting in greatly increased demand for accommodation, boating facilities, land- and water-based recreation and race viewing opportunities over a six month period. Several island reserves will be prime viewing places for Cup races.

Statutory planning responses
A large number of local and central government agencies have statutory responsibilities for managing the Hauraki Gulf environment, including 10 local authorities, two regional councils and several government departments. Some territorial authority planning documents specifically recognise the uniqueness of the Hauraki Gulf environment. With the number of agencies involved there is considerable potential for inconsistent approaches to planning. The main integrating plans covering the Hauraki Gulf area are the regional policy statements and regional coastal plans prepared by the two regional councils, and conservation management strategies prepared by the two DOC conservancies.

Vision Hauraki Gulf
The Vision Hauraki Gulf project aims to provide a networking, coordinating and educational service for the various stakeholders in the Gulf. It arose out of a realisation that effective management of the Hauraki Gulf requires partnership between the agencies and people with an interest in the area. All the local government and most of the central government agencies are involved in Vision Hauraki Gulf, and, until recently, Auckland City Council has taken a leading role. The project aims to coordinate local authorities’ statutory and non-statutory approaches to Gulf management, and has other specific projects and objectives aimed at the following vision:

*Imagine clean water full of fish*
*Different experiences at different locations*
*And easy ways of getting there*
*Unspoilt landscapes*
*Relaxed informal lifestyles*
*And always keeping it this way*

The project recognises six types of stakeholders in the Hauraki Gulf. One comprises visitors whose use of the Gulf is primarily recreational. A specific initiative for tourism planning has been the development of the Visitor Opportunity Spectrum, a planning tool designed to explore issues around tourism in the Gulf and to foster community participation in decision-making. A business-oriented charitable trust is planned to fund specific projects, encourage good business practices and recognise quality.
Vision Hauraki Gulf appears to be a useful initiative in the multi-agency planning and management environment of the Hauraki Gulf. Given the importance of tourism in Auckland to the international and domestic tourism sector in New Zealand as a whole, and the specific and general concerns about environmental effects from the growing recreational and tourism use of the Gulf, the project may need to have a more specific focus on the tourism sector. It may also need to more actively involve tourism agencies such as the RTOs and the NZTB, as well as major tourism operators. It is also important that the tourism sector recognises its own role and interest in the management of the Gulf, and the opportunities that increased environmental protection could present for tourism.

The relationship between Vision Hauraki Gulf and the proposed Hauraki Gulf Maritime Park concept is still to be clarified. A maritime park existed between 1967 and 1990, covering island reserves administered by the then Department of Lands and Survey, and, since 1987, DOC. There has been pressure for its reinstatement to recognise the Gulf’s special qualities, a concept recently endorsed by the Minister of Conservation. The Hauraki Gulf Forum (a subcommittee of the Auckland Regional Council) has been established recently to provide political leadership, and the Minister has interpreted this move as the first step towards re-establishment of the maritime park.
Box 5.3  The Coromandel Peninsula

*Natural environment close to Auckland and a very popular domestic tourist destination, balancing demands of locals with those of growing numbers of both local and overseas visitors.*

The Coromandel Peninsula (the Coromandel) is a very popular destination for New Zealand and overseas visitors. The district’s population of some 24,000 people is diverse and includes farmers, fishers, foresters, miners, retired people, holiday-home owners, and alternative lifestyleers. In the last decade, the Coromandel has seen rapid growth in visitor numbers. Until recently, farming, mining, and fishing were the main components of the economy; now tourism also plays a vital part.

The Coromandel receives over 700,000 domestic and just under 100,000 overseas visitors each year. Most visitors come from Auckland, which is readily accessible by road and sea, but there have been big increases in overseas visitor numbers, mainly FITs from Europe, Australia and North America. These increases are expected to continue. Visitor numbers are seasonal and fluctuate enormously. Ten-fold increases in the population of some settlements over the Christmas/New Year period are common. A high proportion of houses are holiday homes, occupied only sporadically during the year. Many of the seasonal visitors are actually absentee rate-payers.

Tourism issues in the Coromandel are mainly related to domestic visitors and include the following.

**Funding infrastructure**

Some ratepayers do not want to pay for infrastructure for users from outside the area. The influx of visitors in summer places strain on many of the services, including the roads, sewerage, waste disposal, and water supply. Additional capacity built to meet peak demand is unused for much of the year. In addition, paying for infrastructure which enables further development that many see as reducing their own quality of life is an issue for some residents. A good example is road sealing. The classification of State Highway 25 as a tourist route has led to it being sealed and rebuilt by Transit New Zealand, but some residents fear that this will just lead to even more visitors to the area.

**Tourism and the local community**

As with any community, the Coromandel people have varying needs. A benefit to one may not be seen as such by another, a factor that is complicated when many ratepayers are themselves visitors. For example, the increasing number of shops and restaurants were noted by one resident as being too expensive for locals and not geared to their needs.
The district is mainly marketed by the RTO – Tourism Coromandel – and funded by the Thames–Coromandel and Hauraki District Councils through a commercial rates differential. The RTO acknowledges the potential for conflict between the tourism industry and the community and so is trying to achieve sustainable tourism – “meeting the needs of the visitors and of the host community while protecting and enhancing the attractions and values of the region for future generations”. The RTO’s strategic plan, *Towards 2020*, works towards this. Measures include the encouragement of shoulder and off-season visitor numbers to spread the visitor load more evenly throughout the year and lessen their impact on the environment. In overseas marketing, Tourism Coromandel targets visitors who will be happy with the level of facilities provided on the Coromandel, and who will appreciate and care for the Peninsula.

**Protection of the environment**

The main attraction of the Coromandel as a visitor destination is its beautiful, distinctive natural environment, beaches and warm weather. Some residents are concerned that the nature of the area is being compromised by tourism and its associated development. Specific concerns include the erosion of environmental quality by small incremental changes, inappropriate use of resources by visitors including the taking of shellfish, dumping of litter, dumping of campervan waste, and the proliferation of noisy activities. While many appreciate the economic returns that tourism brings, the seasonal nature of the income, the huge influx of visitors during peak times and the temporary nature of much of the work temper for some the benefits of high visitor numbers.

The district council is anxious to protect the whole Coromandel experience for visitors rather than protecting just isolated outstanding features; these objectives are reflected in the proposed district plan. The plan proposes to make more use of existing accommodation, particularly holiday houses, to absorb some of the anticipated demand. It directs growth into existing villages that are better serviced by roads and service infrastructure, and protects historic and natural heritage and fragile coastal strips from development, in an attempt to preserve the natural character of the peninsula. The council acknowledges the pressure to allow more development, especially 20- to 50-lot subdivisions, and access facilities like jetties, ramps and car parks.

*Hosting many visitors in short seasonal bursts raises significant challenges for the management of tourism and its effects on the Coromandel; these challenges are likely to increase as Auckland grows and better ferry services make the Coromandel even more accessible. It is not at all certain how much of the pressure of tourism is in fact*
residential development, but it is clear that there are concerns within the community about the changes taking place. The district plan is being used as a tool to address some of the effects of tourism, and ongoing effort will be needed. As Tourism Coromandel noted, the protection of the Coromandel will require the district council to rigorously control and protect precious areas.
Box 5.4   Waitomo Caves

A tiny community with huge visitor numbers to one main attraction.

The village of Waitomo Caves is a settlement of about 200 people in Waitomo District, northern King Country. The Waitomo Caves area is known to tourists for its underground limestone caves (particularly Waitomo Glow-worm, Aranui and Ruakuri Caves). The Waitomo Glow-worm Cave is the most famous, although other caves in the area (all in scenic reserves administered by DOC) are now used for tourist activities. Rural activities, including walks, farm and garden visits, and horse trekking, are also available to visitors. The Waitomo Glow-worm Cave is run under concession from the Ruapuha Uekaha Hapu Trust and DOC, assisted by the Caves Management Committee (comprising DOC, the local hapu and cave scientists). In 1995/96, 450 000 people visited the Waitomo Glow-worm Cave, most on package tours. There is a trend, however, towards more FITs, who stay for longer in the area.

Issues facing Waitomo Caves include the following.

Maximising benefits from present tourism
Waitomo Caves village retains a rural feel despite the almost half a million visitors each year. The visitors mainly stay only during the day and much of that time is spent underground, so the social effects of large numbers of people visiting the village are minimised. In the evening, the village is the preserve of the locals and backpackers. Such fleeting visits mean that the character of the village is retained, but they also mean that the hotel is not fully utilised, and there is a missed opportunity for visitors to participate in more activities.

Coordinating the stakeholders to manage and plan for sustainable tourism
Coordinating the future direction of the village and surrounding caves catchment requires the involvement of the tangata whenua, the community generally, DOC, the regional council, the district council, and businesses. As the village is small, there are few operators and tourism is contained at present; there is an opportunity for all the parties to be involved in tourism planning. A recent charrette planning exercise included community workshops designed to identify the values of the area and ways to protect and enhance them. It provided a forum for ideas to be aired and solutions proposed for some of the development issues facing the town. The exercise was prompted by sewage management issues. Other infrastructure issues associated with growth need consideration, including the best use of monies available for roads, who should provide bus parking and turning space, future accommodation growth patterns, who should own infrastructure, zoning for appropriate land use and development, and protection of landscape values and cave resources.
The usefulness of the charette process is largely due to significant community interest in the issues, the charette being initiated by a motivated community group, and the local authority allowing the community to take more control over planning for its future. Its long-term success will depend on the council incorporating such planning into its own statutory planning documents, the ongoing commitment of the community, and good monitoring of effects.

Planning for tourism in the district has been incorporated into the strategic and district planning process. The Waitomo District Council draft strategic plan acknowledges the importance of Waitomo Caves village and the caves; it notes that tourism growth may be constrained by deterioration of the caves and infrastructural limitations and recognises the need to spread the benefits of tourism to the wider community of the district. The strategic plan also incorporates ideas generated through the charette process (Waitomo District Council 1997a). Administrative/management initiatives, road and facility development, and plans for Te Kuiti and Waitomo Caves are included. In the transitional district plan, specific points relating to Waitomo Caves include the recognition that tourism is a resource “only partially tapped” (Waitomo District Council 1986), the character of Waitomo Caves village needs to be protected, and an infrastructure and development plan needed.

The draft district plan also acknowledges the importance of tourism to the district. It uses a tourism policy area overlying the village and surrounding catchments to “manage the potential environmental effects and conflicts arising from intensive tourist use” (Waitomo District Council 1997b). The draft plan recognises the essential role of tangata whenua and the need for liaison between the council and hapu.

**Protecting the caves**
The physical management of the caves has been an ongoing challenge. The environment within the caves needs to be controlled (see Box 4.1 in Chapter 4), but the interrelationship between the caves and their surroundings has meant that a more holistic approach to their management and protection has been needed. In response, landowners in the caves catchment and the regional council have formed a landcare group which takes an active role in managing properties to protect the catchment and the caves. It is generally acknowledged that the management of the caves and catchment has been *ad hoc* in the past, but the landcare group and provisions in regional and district plans should ensure better coordination.

**Handling future growth in tourism**
Maintaining the quality of the experience for visitors is another issue. In 1992 the NZTB noted that the Waitomo Glow-worm Cave had
reached capacity during peak season, something that has been addressed to some extent by extending the hours of the cave tours. At present there is a big surge in numbers in the middle of the day due to tour schedules, creating pressure on the operation and suggesting that management techniques are needed to encourage tour operators to reschedule trips so as to visit either earlier or later in the day. Diversification of the activities available at Waitomo Caves and the promotion of the area as a longer-stay destination may alleviate pressure.

Although there are some challenges for Waitomo Caves in managing the environmental effects of tourism, it is essentially doing so successfully in that tourism interferes little with the lifestyle of the population at present, while providing notable opportunities for development. The biggest challenges will include ensuring that the effects of tourism do not damage the caves, that the caves are protected and enhanced, that the district is developed along with Waitomo Caves village, and that, in any tourism development, the amenity values of the area are protected.
Box 5.5  Recreational fishing and freshwater fisheries management

Fisheries issues are essentially about a finite resource facing increased use. The pressure this creates varies according to the type of fish being taken and the environment they are taken from. In New Zealand there are a range of fishing opportunities, from high-use fisheries, such as short group fishing trips in launches on the lakes, to solo, walk-in fishing at the headwaters of remote wilderness rivers, where anglers can expect to find peace and solitude. These comprise both hatchery and naturally stocked fisheries. The people utilising the fisheries include locals and domestic and international visitors.

Central issues include the following.

The biophysical impacts of increased use
Management of the biophysical aspects of the fisheries by Fish and Game New Zealand has reduced concern about the physical components of the resource to some extent. However, in some wild/unstocked fisheries like Lake Taupo, there is concern that increased use may damage the fishery, especially since, as one person noted, people fishing on lakes generally want to catch fish, whereas those fishing on rivers are often happy with the activity itself.

The social impacts on anglers of increased use
Among those consulted, the social aspects of increased fisheries use seems most pressing, and in some cases constitute a ‘culture clash’ between local and outside anglers. Examples include:

• perceptions of crowding and intrusion, especially among those who prefer a wilderness experience;
• competition for fishing sites as angler numbers increase; and
• the exclusion of local anglers by landowners or lessees who have sold access rights to commercial operators.  

The need to match marketing with the product available
It was noted by some that the use of images of remote, backcountry fisheries in marketing creates an unrealistic expectation among visiting anglers and places unmanageable pressure on fragile aspects of the fisheries resource. Indeed, Fish and Game New Zealand have indicated a desire for such images not to be used because they feel that the management structures and resources in New Zealand are inadequate to protect the fishery or the experience of the angler.

6 Access limitations – whether through land tenure review, the occupational safety and health laws, or changing attitudes of land owners – are a concern for anglers and for fishing guides.
The need to identify and address pressure points
Although there is concern about the pressure of increased fisheries use, there is relatively little information available about fisheries, visitors and impacts. Research into the pressures on remote ‘backcountry’ rivers is now being undertaken (Hayes et al. 1997). This will aid the management of the resource by assisting managers to identify the environmental carrying capacity of various areas and will give some guidance on how numbers and/or usage could be controlled.

Monitoring of fisheries around New Zealand is variable and expensive, with extensive surveys, fish counts, takes, and other data requiring ongoing collection and analysis.

The need for a more integrated management approach
There are different views on the best way of managing fisheries to protect both the physical and the social/experiential components. It is generally agreed that the two broad groups of freshwater anglers – those who prefer remote backcountry locations and the majority who are happy with lakes or river fishing – need to be managed differently.

Stricter management of wilderness fisheries, including restricting access, is seen as a possible requirement in the future and, according to one of those consulted, is the ‘automatic consequence’ of dealing with a finite resource. An allocation model suggested by one person is that used on the Dean River in British Colombia. There a ballot system allocates the ‘angler days’ that the managers deem the river can handle according to an allocation formula which gives precedence to First Nation needs. The rest of the angler days are then allocated in set proportions to unguided residents (most), guided anglers (some), and unguided non-residents (least). In New Zealand, balloting is already used to allocate sole-access hunting rights in many forested areas.

DOC’s recreational opportunity spectrum (ROS) model is an alternative management tool. The process of developing an ROS for fishing could also help increase understanding of angler expectations, and thus provide anglers with a better range of experiences and protect the fisheries.

While Fish and Game New Zealand manages the fisheries resource, it has limited ability to manage the fishery as a whole to control total harvest. The council can restrict bag limits, seasons, and methods of catching, but it is unable to control how many people use a resource, set differential charges to discourage anglers from going into the more vulnerable areas, nor charge more to overseas anglers to reflect the fact that they do not contribute to infrastructure. In addition, the council must maximise fishing opportunities by law, even though, as one council representative noted, this does not reflect the finite nature of the
resource. Although DOC is working to control access on the conservation estate to guides through the concessions regime, access to unguided users is unrestricted. Fish and Game New Zealand has noted that, while DOC ensures that environmental measures are taken to protect the environment, people need to be managed to protect the fishery and the wilderness angling experience.

*Overall, it is clear that the issues relating to visitors and fisheries are mainly those of increased use and resource management, and in this, the origin of the user is only an issue where culture clash occurs between local and outside anglers.*
Box 5.6 Eco-tourism

The term eco-tourism represents sustainable, environmentally sensitive tourism. The term is relatively new and there are a variety of definitions, including that developed by the Australian Commonwealth Department of Tourism which states:

Eco-tourism is nature based tourism that involves education and interpretation of the natural environment and is managed to be sustainable. This definition recognises that 'natural environment' includes cultural components and that 'ecologically sustainable' involves an appropriate return to the local community and long-term conservation of the resource.

This definition is useful because it shows the difference between eco-tourism and nature tourism; the latter relies on the natural environment but does not include host communities, education, or sustainability considerations.

The existence of eco-tourism
With visitors seeking more meaningful and direct encounters with the natural environment and culture of their destination, there is growing demand for eco-tourism in New Zealand. While eco-tourism is widely discussed in the tourism sector, there is debate about its presence in New Zealand. Some of those consulted suggested that there is virtually no eco-tourism here because virtually none of the operations are actually sustainable, let alone beneficial to the environment. However, there are a number of well-known tourism operations in New Zealand usually described as eco-tourism. Whalewatch Kaikoura takes visitors in boats to see whales. Although there is debate about the effect of the activity on the whales, research is ongoing and the activity has not been shown to have a detrimental effect on the environment. Growth in the local economy and employment opportunities have also resulted. Penguin Place near Dunedin is another eco-tourism operation where habitat enhancement, predator control and species protection has enabled a private property owner to run a successful tourist business. Steady growth in visitor numbers has led to employment and research opportunities, and more money being spent on enhancing the environment.

Eco-tourism is held up as a way of making tourism sustainable. It is characterised by smaller local operators, which means that money is put into the local and regional economies. Visitors’ search for meaning provides incentive and opportunities for historic and cultural heritage to be preserved and presented. However, there are challenges in the eco-tourism industry that threaten its ability to continue providing the types of experience that visitors want (Warren and Taylor 1994; Edwards 1996).

The need to protect the environment
It is widely acknowledged that New Zealand tourism relies on the natural environment which is vulnerable to exploitation. Although eco-tourism is more sensitive to environmental limitations, it was highlighted by some that it has its own effects because it takes people into more fragile environments. It was also noted that the growth in nature based tourism has advanced ahead of the infrastructure needed to support it and to prevent it doing damage. For example, toilet facilities in remote areas are uncommon, with the potential for people to pollute the natural environment.

There was widespread acceptance that limits would need to be placed on access and use in some natural areas. Operators generally agreed as long as limits are imposed fairly and then enforced rigorously. One suggestion for setting access limits where there is not precise information is to set limits through a public process such as management planning so there is public consensus.

**Accurate advertising**

Some of those consulted noted that some operations are marketed as eco-tourism which arguably are not. This threatens the eco-tourism concept (Warren and Taylor 1994). One operator noted that tourists who respond to advertising for eco-tourism activities and experiences are often disappointed because the product does not measure up. Such tourists may also react negatively to other aspects of New Zealand life that run counter to the country’s clean green image. Examples cited include some waste management and agricultural practices.

**The need for a standard in the industry**

To protect legitimate eco-tourism operators and ensure more consistent quality in the eco-tourism industry it was suggested that a code of practice be developed. This would require that eco-tourism be defined in terms of operating practices and principles, to limit adverse effects on the natural environment and ensure behaviour consistent with eco-tourism including minimising resource use and “sensitivity” towards the natural and social environment. Another option is the use of a brand to allow quality operations to be identified easily.

Safety standards and controls are also an issue, as the protection of visitors undertaking activities in the natural environment is very important to the success of tourism ventures. Standards and branding both provide the opportunity for safety codes to be implemented.

In all this there is debate about who should be responsible for such controls. Some operators feel that if standards are voluntary the costs of compliance disadvantages those who adhere to the standard. It should be noted though, that government is reluctant to impose regulations, preferring industry control. The Royal Forest and Bird Protection Society favours standards (certification) administered by an independent agency.
Coordinating demand with supply

There is concern among some consulted that any marketing approach based on maximising numbers, which they feel characterises New Zealand’s present approach, is contrary to the concept of eco-tourism which is better suited to longer stay visitors. It was noted that large numbers of visitors may in the longer term undermine the ability of operators to provide eco-tourism experiences as large numbers of visitors change or damage the environment and impact on the quality of the experience that other visitors seek.

The need for coordination between marketing agencies and agencies that manage the effects of tourism has been noted elsewhere in this report. One operator suggested that DOC should promote tourism on the conservation estate to ensure that marketing generated demand matches the visitor experiences available. However, it is more appropriate that DOC should provide information for marketing and that there be a mechanism for DOC, and other management agencies like Fish and Game New Zealand, to have direct and formal input into marketing strategies.
Box 5.7 Toilets for tourists

The provision of public toilets and the casual disposal of sewage from campervans are among the most contentious and most frequently mentioned environmental effect issues for respondents from all parts of New Zealand. The main problems are visual pollution and health risks from faecal contamination in waterways and other public places. Specific concerns about the provision of toilets were raised in relation to several places including Cathedral Cove on the Coromandel Peninsula (see Box 5.3), Punakaiki (see Box 5.1), Arrowtown (see Chapter 5.3), and Knobs Flat, Fiordland.

The disposal of sewage in waterways and the siting of toilet facilities are issues of particular sensitivity for tangata whenua.

Provision of public toilets

There are three principal issues: the number of toilets and whether they are in the right place; the standard of the facilities; and who is responsible for providing and maintaining them. Under the Health Act 1956, responsibility for ensuring the provision of toilets rests with local authorities. The Act imposes a general duty on those authorities to improve, promote and protect public health within their districts, and to undertake monitoring to ensure their districts remain in a sanitary condition. Councils are to be supported by the local Crown public health service providers.

The provision of public toilets varies in different places in New Zealand. In the case of popular tourist routes, the argument is often made that the locals do not generally use them, therefore they should not have to pay. DOC often provides toilets on the conservation estate. Territorial authorities provide some toilets in the vicinity of towns but resource constraints mean they are reluctant to provide toilets on land owned by other agencies, eg at highway rest areas and on Crown land. Transit New Zealand is not currently required or funded to provide toilets on New Zealand’s highways. There is only limited provision of public toilets by the tourist industry, with Knobs Flat on the route to Milford Sound an interesting example. In this case, the area has a very low rating base and the toilets construction was assisted by a tourism facilities grant and a loan from the Southland District Council.

In 1992 the Minister of Tourism established a working group of tourism and government representatives to investigate the provision and maintenance of public toilets. The working group has:

- conducted surveys of local authorities;
- produced a discussion paper on funding options;
- published information material;
- initiated the preparation of a national standard for public toilets (not completed);
made suggestions to public and private agencies to help solve inadequacies in the provision and maintenance of public toilets; and

• encouraged businesses to provide public toilets as part of their marketing strategies.

Retailers, service providers and concessionaires can be encouraged or required to provide toilets, eg as a condition of their operations, or by incentives, such as dispensations from other building requirements.

User-pays toilets are an option on the main traffic routes but not as suitable in remote localities. Various forms and levels of commercialisation are possible, such as tendering public toilet operations, or provision of public toilets by private operators, funded by advertising rights. Transit New Zealand has started a trial on State Highway One, north of Wellington, whereby portable toilets and the site are paid for by the businesses that advertise on them. An estimated 450 people use each toilet weekly and the hygiene standards of the rest areas have improved.

Transit New Zealand also has a campaign to encourage community groups and businesses to ‘adopt-a-highway’, which has keen support from community organisations such as Lions and Rotary. The Minister’s working group suggested that this could be extended to rest areas with the provision and operation of toilets undertaken by local businesses in return for acknowledgment or advertising rights. However, more toilets at scenic spots on tourist routes can lead to problems such as longer-term freedom camping. This can detract from the character of many scenic spots, not only by the presence of many camping vehicles, but also with their associated sink-water waste and rubbish.

Camping prohibitions have worked well at Nelson Lakes National Park, where roadside camping is prohibited and enforced. Enforcement would be the responsibility of councils on council land, of DOC on the conservation estate, and Transit New Zealand at highway rest areas.

Campervan toilet wastes
New Zealand now has 5636 registered (Class 10) ‘motor caravans’ (campervans). The concept of camping wherever you want in a campervan is promoted by campervan hire companies and others marketing New Zealand as part of the free outdoor experience. The majority of campervans are for hire but New Zealanders are buying up ex-rental campervans and it is anticipated that any problems that exist will increase.

In 1986 the Ministry for the Environment set up a working group to examine the problem of campervan wastes. This resulted in a voluntary code of practice being established for all campervans with toilets to
have holding tanks. However, allegations have been made that campervan toilet holding tanks are still being emptied in unsuitable places, resulting in visual pollution and health risks. It is not clear whether there are enough campervan waste dump stations on less populated routes, and a map produced by the TPG identifying campervan waste dump stations in New Zealand is no longer available. Health warnings should be posted in campervans about waste disposal on sites other than those designated.

Crown Public Health consider that the unregulated dumping of human effluent and associated litter into our environment by campervan users is impacting adversely on the environmental health of the countryside and, perhaps, on the health and well-being of the people living in and visiting our various communities.

Some rental companies offer a cheaper campervan which has no bathroom. This exacerbates the problems caused by a lack of public toilets.

Another problem is that the bactericide used in some campervan toilets inhibits biological sewage treatment systems such as septic tanks. This can cause failure of sewage treatment systems for camping grounds and small towns if the campervan toilet waste is a significant proportion of the wastewater. If this is a widespread problem, toilet additives that do not inhibit biological processes could be made mandatory, or promoted by an industry group such as the Rental Vehicle Association or Inbound Tourism Operators.

Campervan rental companies regularly replace their vehicles. It is an encouraging sign that many newer models also have holding tanks for grey-water waste (wash water).

The problems of public toilet provision and campervan sewage disposal indicate a failure in our environmental management systems. It is a matter of some urgency that responsibilities are clarified. Coordinated and focused initiatives to control roadside effluent disposal will have positive health impacts throughout New Zealand.

There appears to be a logical allocation of responsibilities in which:
- councils are responsible for providing toilets on council land;
- DOC or concessionaires are responsible on the conservation estate;
- tourist service providers are responsible at their locations; and
- Transit New Zealand is responsible on highways.

Local government, DOC, the tourism industry and Transit New Zealand should resolve these responsibilities urgently. Action is also required by TPG, as convenors of the working group, to implement their suggestions.
Box 5.8  Airspace Management and Control

The management of tourist air traffic, particularly flights over natural areas, is an issue raised by many of those consulted. The main concern relates to the noise of flights and the effect this has on other users. There are several areas where flights over natural areas have been controversial, such as Mount Cook National Park, the Remarkables, and Mount Tarawera. Flights and landings in these areas are for a number of purposes including ‘flightseeing’, heli-skiing, landings for tourists, and scientific and research work. The effects of air traffic identified by those consulted related almost solely to disruption due to noise, with resulting loss of wilderness experience and amenity.

Booth et al. (1997) found a bigger range of effects. They note that direct effects are both aural and visual, but confirm that noise is the primary effect. Noise causing distraction and setting off avalanches were identified as concerns, while a positive effect from helicopters is a feeling that help is at hand (ibid). Booth et al also found that perception of effects may result in people self-selecting or being displaced from an area, and that people’s expectations of natural areas influence their reaction to aircraft flights over these areas.

At present, there is little management of flight paths in relation to the effect of aircraft on people on the ground. On the conservation estate, a concession is required to land an aircraft. However, DOC has no control over flight paths where aircraft do not land on the conservation estate. Outside the conservation estate, territorial authorities have no say over flight paths, although they are able to exert some control over noise where consent is required for the operation of a landing strip. The ability of territorial authorities to control noise emissions from overflying aircraft is limited to any noise emission controls that they may prescribe in relation to the use of airports (s 9(8) RMA).

The Civil Aviation Authority (CAA) has responsibility for air safety and usually controls flight paths only if safety is an issue. However, s 29A of the Civil Aviation Act 1990 provides that the Minister of Civil Aviation may make ordinary rules in relation to the use of airspace in the interests of safety or security within the civil aviation system, national security, and for any other reason in the public interest. DOC has expressed concern that the ‘public interest’ criterion may not be sufficient authority for the CAA to make rules controlling airspace and flight paths because of noise. The control of noise by the CAA may be inconsistent with the CAA’s statutory role of safety and security, and could possibly be challenged in court.
However, the public interest criterion has been used in the past, notably to control flights over wildlife breeding areas, and was included in the Bill at the select committee stage specifically to address general public interest matters such as noise. It was intended that the purpose of the Civil Aviation Act 1990, namely to promote safety, would not restrict those public interest matters for which rules could be made. It may be seen as a pragmatic extension of the CAA’s responsibilities, given that no other body may regulate air space. Furthermore, the CAA has indicated a willingness to consider the views of local authorities when dealing with aircraft noise that can only be dealt with by air space and flight path controls. This suggests that, in practice, there is opportunity for public concerns and interests to be aired.

There is a feeling among some of those consulted that it is anomalous for DOC to have control over landings on the conservation estate, but no control over flights. However, no property owners have control over aircraft that use their air space.

DOC feels that safety and environmental considerations should be handled in a coordinated way, which suggests, at the very least, that closer liaison between DOC and other environmental managers and CAA is required.

Although there are regulatory mechanisms in place to control flight paths, there is no explicit authority for the CAA to set flight paths for social or environmental reasons. As a consequence it may appear that there is a gap in the system. However, this gap is more apparent than real as the CAA is confident that it has the authority to regulate flight paths for purposes other than safety. It is appropriate that CAA retain control over flight paths, since safety must remain paramount.
6 MANAGEMENT OF THE ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS ASSOCIATED WITH TOURISM

This chapter presents a summary and brief discussion of the issues identified in this investigation. The paragraphs in italics in this chapter are key findings of the investigation.

The first term of reference for this investigation was to identify the principal environmental effects associated with the tourism sector. It was found that there is a very wide range of environmental effects associated with tourism, as well as effects on society, culture and the economy. Many people perceive there to be significant environmental effects associated with tourism. However, many of the effects identified are perceptual, much of the evidence for them is anecdotal, and the actual extent, scale, severity and nature of the effects are much harder to determine than the perceptions.

There is a wide range of environmental effects associated with the tourism sector, some of which have the long-term potential to seriously damage both the environment and the industry itself. Social and cultural effects are widely perceived as being of more concern than biophysical effects at the present time.

There is general acceptance that tourism provides the opportunity for generating revenue and employment at the local, regional and national level. Tourism is seen as a more sustainable alternative to extractive industries (eg mining on the West Coast), and, in the rural sector, as a way of lessening reliance on farming (eg the Coromandel Peninsula and Central Otago).

Tourism contributes substantially to the New Zealand economy and is closely entwined with New Zealand life.

However, there are also many adverse environmental effects associated with tourism. Three of the most significant of the principal effects identified in Chapter 2.4 are briefly discussed below. All of them involve social and cultural as well as biophysical aspects.

Loss of quality of some relatively unspoilt parts of New Zealand’s natural environment (both physical and intrinsic values)

Issues concerning tourism in natural areas are among the most significant and controversial in tourism management. Such issues are
not only confined to the conservation estate. There are a range of effects on different parts of the natural environment which, while not necessarily severe now, have the potential to damage both the environment and the tourism industry in the long term, if not managed appropriately. Such effects are often perceived by the public and particular user groups to be severe, although the extent and intensity of the effect may not be known, or it may be relatively minor and reversible. It is very difficult to quantify the physical effects of tourism reliably and to separate the actual natural values at stake from the perceptual responses of users (see Chapter 6.2 below).

All kinds of visitors to natural areas – domestic or overseas tourists, or day visitors – have environmental effects. Some effects, such as track erosion and trampling of vegetation, were documented long before recent increases in overseas tourist numbers. However, in some areas, particularly South Island regions remote from major population centres, recent significant increases in use are likely to be due substantially to increased international tourism. Tourism activities and facilities, such as aircraft overflights, tracks, shelters, accommodation developments, visitor centres, toilets, car parks, jetties, shops, advertising and other signs, all affect the values and character of natural areas. In some sensitive places (eg wildlife breeding sites) even a small number of visitors can have adverse effects (Higham 1994). The effects of visitors on wildlife behaviour patterns at popular observation sites such as Taiaroa Head show a need for careful control.

New Zealand does not experience ‘mass tourism’ as seen in parts of Europe, America and some tropical resort destinations. However, the scale of tourism in some ‘icon’ destinations like Milford Sound and Waitomo Caves, and some ‘pressure points’ like the Abel Tasman National Park, is such that other visitors’ enjoyment of these places is adversely affected. There is concern about the possibility of either physical degradation or collapse of these areas, loss of appeal to tourists, and the relative intensity of tourism’s effects on host communities, particularly small rural communities.

**The environmental qualities underpinning tourism are at risk in some areas. Visitor pressure on some ‘icon’ attractions (eg Waitomo Caves, Milford Sound) cannot be sustained even in the medium term without major attention being given to reducing adverse visitor effects.**

**Loss of amenity values from incremental development (in both rural and urban environments).**

New Zealand’s landscapes – natural or modified, rural or urban – are an essential part of the tourism experience, whether the primary attraction themselves or a background to other experiences. While many people recognise the importance of outstanding landscapes (the Remarkables behind Queenstown, the profile of Rangitoto, the central North Island
plateau), all landscapes, including the ordinary and unspectacular, are fundamental to local, regional and national identity, and are an important resource for tourism (Boffa Miskell Ltd 1997).

Landscapes inevitably change over time, but change that happens quickly or in directions that are not endorsed by local communities can cause tension. Tourism developments can be very visible in scenic or pristine areas. New hotels and roads in previously unmodified landscapes (see Box R.3 in Appendix 9) can have effects on a scale far greater than in other areas. Gradual erosion of amenity values through the cumulative effects of many small developments can also be significant. This gradual change is much harder for local authorities to control, because measuring the contribution that a particular development will make to landscape change is very difficult.

Tourism can also be a constraint on landscape change. For example, some communities which rely on their scenery to attract visitors are recognising that forestry or farm practices may adversely affect amenity values, including those which are attractive to tourists, and are seeking appropriate provisions in district plans to address such effects.

Many of the communities visited during this investigation expressed concern at the effects that tourism has on their community and their lifestyle. This view tended to be expressed most strongly in small communities with a high number of visitors relative to local residents (see Figure 6.1). Community groups in Queenstown and the Coromandel Peninsula were especially concerned about this aspect of tourism. This concern is not solely related to overseas visitors. In the Coromandel the majority of visitors are from Auckland and many own property on the peninsula. The effects that cause concern are the changes and disruption that occur when visitors arrive. Crowding at shops and beaches, congestion on roads, and increased noise, are all examples of such change.

An exception to such patterns is Waitomo Caves (see Box 5.4). Here, nearly 500 000 tourists pass through the village each year, but the tourists are mostly there only during the day, and are out of sight (being underground) for most of the time. In the evenings, the town is the preserve of locals and the relatively small number of backpackers and FITs who stay overnight.

Most of the people consulted acknowledged that in order to enjoy the benefits of tourism, they would have to accept some changes. But, some feel that the changes are not matched by benefits, and the scale and pace of change is for many too much, too fast.

**Pressure on infrastructure, such as sewerage and roads**

One of the effects associated with tourism identified by many of those consulted is the pressure that visitors place on infrastructure and the
resulting pressure on local authorities to provide facilities for visitors. This pressure is often highly seasonal. Examples cited include: sewerage and water services that are unable to cope for several weeks during peak times; infrastructure that is under-utilised for much of the year; crowding on roads that are not built for heavy use; and significant proportions of local rates going into road maintenance. On the other hand, some people noted that tourism results in upgraded infrastructure. The issues surrounding infrastructure provision are discussed further in Chapter 6.3.3.

Figure 6.1 Perceived significance of effects in relation to the ratio of visitors to resident population

6.1.2 Issues of concern to Maori

For Maori, tourism and its environmental effects pose some unique concerns. Tourism has distinct yet complex implications for:

- the work of kaitiaki in protecting the physical natural resource and its mauri;
- the appropriate protection of information and environmental values of particular sensitivity to tangata whenua;
- the maintenance of cultural integrity and the appropriate interpretation of natural and historical dimensions in the environment; and
- the traditional identity of iwi and hapu, inextricably linked with landscapes and natural resources.

Siting and development issues have the potential for serious effects when tourism facilities and activities are proposed in places of particular importance to Maori. Such effects can include:

- damage or destruction of waahi tapu or waahi taonga;
- damage or destruction of mahinga kai;
- effects on mountains and waterways, especially significant to iwi and hapu;
• pollution of waterways with human waste, particularly offensive to Maori;
• damage or disruption of the mauri of the natural resource or site; and
• intrusion into Maori places, venues, communities and marae.

There is a range of effects associated with tourism of particular importance to tangata whenua. These effects must be recognised and respected, and appropriate provisions for dealing with them integrated into assessment, planning and management for the tourism sector.

Many of the environmental effects listed in Chapter 2 are cumulative. When they adversely affect natural areas, especially on the conservation estate, there is concern that the cumulative impact of these effects may compromise or even destroy the values for which those natural areas were protected. Such cumulative effects range right through the groupings used in Chapter 2, from the biophysical through to the cultural. Although under the RMA, local authorities must consider the cumulative effects of proposals, this has proven to be difficult. Managing such effects can be hard when the effects of individual projects or activities may on their own be minor. This difficulty is inherent to the resource consent process under the RMA, and is not confined to the tourism sector.

The principal inadequacies in our information about tourism and associated effects include the following:

The baseline data is insufficient. This is true both for the tourism sector and its various activities, and for the environment (including landscapes, natural resources and sites) which tourism uses. There are gaps in our knowledge for specific places, species (including vulnerable native wildlife) and ecosystems. There is also more to be known about particular activities and behaviours, and the characteristics and expectations of groups of visitors. Such statistical data as exists is often not readily accessible. There is a particular lack of data about domestic tourism, reflecting the predominant focus on the potential for growth of international tourism, although the new three-year survey into domestic travel will help redress this. Timeliness of the availability of information is another key issue. Some data may not be generally available because of commercial sensitivity.

Monitoring programmes for tourism and its effects on the environment are often too limited in their scope and focus. Monitoring has often focused simply on visitor numbers, or on a narrow aspect of tourism’s effects in a particular place or over a
relatively short time. The usefulness of monitoring being done at particular sites or areas, such as that undertaken by DOC or by concessionaires on the conservation estate, could be enhanced if it were effectively integrated with studies in other places. There is a crucial lack of specific environmental indicators to identify, assess and track the activities and effects of the tourism sector.

There is a need for additional research programmes to help our understanding of tourism and its effects. While there is a wide range of significant projects being undertaken by various agencies and groups, there are a number of particular deficiencies, including:

- lack of understanding of cumulative environmental effects, especially within the context of RMA consents processes for individual activities or projects;
- limited funding available (until the recently announced, substantially increased allocation of an additional $16.8 million for research work over the next three years);
- lack of carefully targeted research into specific and specialised effects and issues, and lack of focus on those aspects of an effect or trend that are attributable to tourism;
- limited amount of robust and comprehensive research into the limits of acceptable change for the biophysical and ecological systems on which tourism depends; and
- little clear understanding of: the perceptions and values of the general public and of specific communities regarding tourism and its effects; attitudes towards the natural and social environments and the landscapes on which tourism depends; and perceptions of the limits of acceptable change, both by local residents and visitors.

There are serious limitations in information about the environmental effects associated with tourism. This is a major constraint on the assessment and management of those effects, and a major risk for the tourism sector. The availability of basic statistics and other relevant information relating to tourism is variable. In particular, there is a significant lack of data about domestic tourism.

6.2.2 Coordination

The investigation found little evidence of effective coordination and collaboration between tourism researchers, and between this group and the tourism industry. Poor communication has been compounded by the diversity of agencies and organisations involved in tourism management, in the management of the natural resources on which tourism depends, and in research and assessment. It appeared that much of the research undertaken is not used in management decision-making, is sometimes not timely, and is sometimes not in a form readily usable by environmental managers. Management of the environmental effects associated with tourism would be improved if
data collection and collation was better coordinated, more consistent, and more timely.

Many of the planning and management tools for the sector (district plans, strategic plans, conservation management strategies, concessions agreements) are only as good as the information on which they are based. There is little effective integration evident between research and monitoring findings and management decision-making. Both the management systems used in the industry and the public agency regulatory systems need to be carefully and purposefully integrated with monitoring systems.

Recent developments intended to address this lack of coordination in research and management include:

- the NZTIA’s tourism research strategy;
- DOC’s tourism research action plan; and
- the FRST research strategy.

Data gathering, research and monitoring programmes are generally not well targeted or integrated with day-to-day and long-term environmental management within the relevant government agencies or the tourism industry.

There are various conceptual frameworks for assessing the effects of tourism on the environment.

**Recreational opportunity spectrum (ROS):** The ROS\(^7\) approach is used within DOC’s Visitor Services Strategy, to assess the patterns of visitor use of the conservation estate. For example to indicate where and for what type of services and activities new or more durable (‘hardened’) facilities are required. ROS requires detailed and accurate data on tourist movements, activities and attitudes. Variations of these techniques are used in the Visitor Opportunity Spectrum used by the Vision Hauraki project (see Box 5.2), and in some charrette planning approaches (see Chapter 5.3 and Box 5.4).

**Carrying capacity:** There was support expressed in many submissions to the investigation for the concept of carrying capacity as a basis on which to manage tourism and its effects on the environment, both for specific sites or for New Zealand as a whole. However, Ward and Beanland’s literature review (1996) found that those managing tourist sites considered ‘carrying capacity’ in terms of maintaining a ‘quality

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\(^7\)The Recreational Opportunities Spectrum (ROS) describes recreational opportunities along a continuum of zones from urban to wilderness (DOC 1996). Associated with these zones are seven groups of visitors. The combinations of ROS zones and visitor groups enable reasonably detailed planning about the provision of facilities for different groups of visitors and activities in different settings.
recreational experience' rather than in ecological terms. It was generally assumed that the threshold of visitor satisfaction would be compromised before any significant ecological damage occurs. There is also the risk that a deteriorating environment may attract different types of visitor; ie, overall numbers remain the same, but significant environmental effects may have already occurred.

While the concept of carrying capacity is relatively easy to grasp, the data requirements for its successful implementation have seldom been met and it has not been effective as a management tool in most situations, overseas or in New Zealand (Kuss et al. 1990; Corbett 1996; Booth and Cullen 1995).

**Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC):** Recently more attention has been given overseas and in New Zealand to the concept of LAC. This concept is now being applied in some DOC programmes and has considerable potential for tourism management. As with carrying capacity, LAC requires good data and monitoring.

Managing according to either carrying capacity or LAC concepts needs to consider the scale and intensity of tourism activities rather than the absolute number of visitors to a site, which is often not easy to research. Limits on tourist numbers are usually based on the capacity of facilities. Managers familiar with sites may be able to estimate carrying capacities or LAC on this basis but require selective ongoing monitoring to assess environmental trends reliably.

### 6.2.4 Effects and perceptions

As noted above, many people perceive there to be significant effects from tourism. However, in the absence of comprehensive data, monitoring and research, it is difficult to determine exactly what those effects are, or what the severity, scale, reversibility or cumulative potential of such effects might be. As discussed above, this investigation has been quite reliant on perceptions and anecdotal information from interested parties. There are three particularly challenging areas in the assessment of the environmental effects of tourism:

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8The Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC) approach differs from the ROS/visitor groups in that it focuses on the effects of use on an area and the conditions desired in an area rather than on how much use by whom is occurring (Kliskey 1992; Booth and Cullen 1995). Because it is based on environmental changes and the effects of use, it fits well within New Zealand’s effects-based resource management framework. The approach can describe either physical or experiential change and can be based either on empirical studies establishing thresholds of change in ecosystem properties, or, in the absence of this kind of information, can be based on consultation to determine perceived limits of acceptable change.
Distinguishing between international and domestic tourism effects

Many of the people consulted in this investigation focused on the effects and perceived effects of overseas visitors. Comments about bus-loads of tourists, foreign-language signs, and poor driving on New Zealand roads, illustrate a general perception that tourists are people who come from overseas. Such comments and perceptions are reinforced by many official New Zealand publications (e.g., NZTB reports, New Zealand Yearbook statistics) which refer to ‘tourism’ without qualification, when in fact they are referring only to international tourism.

However, it is apparent that in most instances the effects of one person are the same as the effects of another, regardless of their origin. This principle is more relevant when considering the physical effects (erosion, car use, crowding, etc.) than the social effects, where cultural differences can result in conflicting behaviour in certain environments. New Zealanders tend not to regard themselves as tourists in their own country, but it must be acknowledged that domestic visitors are very similar to overseas visitors in placing demands on certain services and infrastructure.

New Zealanders’ expectations and traditional recreation

New Zealanders have strong expectations about their rights as citizens to freely access recreational opportunities in natural areas, and tenacious beliefs in the clean green qualities and reputation of this country. These factors have a strong influence on their responses to tourism and its environmental effects. Conflicts between different groups of users of the natural environment, particularly traditional back-country recreational users who feel their experience is compromised or diminished by such encounters, are often based in these deep-rooted cultural values and assumptions.

Distinguishing tourism effects from general effects

It is often very difficult to determine exactly which effects arise from tourism and which are part of wider trends and patterns in everyday life. For example, on the Coromandel Peninsula (see Box 5.3), growing numbers of holiday-home owners are placing increasing and seasonal demands on the infrastructure of the district. It is unclear how much of the pressure felt at peak times is due to tourism and how much to ratepayers. The same applies to other services such as roads, shops, hospitals, and public toilets. The complexity of the relationships between tourism and the host community and the blurred lines between tourism and other activities often make it very hard to make reliable links between causes and effects. This uncertainty needs to be acknowledged in planning for, managing and evaluating tourism and its environmental effects.
6.3 Systems and stakeholders

6.3.1 Government system for management

The present government system for the management of environmental effects associated with the tourism sector is assessed in Table 6.1. This assessment is made against the broad criteria listed in Chapter 1.4.

Management of tourism and its environmental effects is not a straightforward or clear-cut matter, especially in the relationship between the public and private parts of the sector, when the latter plays such a dominant part in tourism management (see Chapter 6.3.2). The sector is characterised by a wide range of different government agencies, each with different roles, responsibilities and mandates, some of which overlap, others of which leave gaps (see Chapter 3.6). Some statutory non-government organisations also have relevant roles for tourism. The multi-faceted nature of the government system can lead to considerable confusion for many operators, tangata whenua and other stakeholders. Making progress, whether with a tourism development proposal, a community consultation programme, or an effort at strategic management, can be cumbersome and slow.

The range of different legislation and statutory frameworks relating to the tourism sector and the management of its environmental effects is another aspect of this fragmentation. There is often considerable variability between the provisions and purposes of different statutes, between different councils’ plans and policies, between iwi resource management plans and Crown policies, between DOC’s different regional CMSs and the many non-statutory programmes and initiatives that apply both for the tourism sector and for environmental management. There is no evidence of major inconsistencies between the RMA and other legislation that affects tourism management, but there are some specific areas of concern about interface issues (eg in the areas of marine pollution, provision of public toilet facilities, legislation for recreational fishing allocation, air space control, and safety and navigation issues along lakes and rivers).

Communication and integration of policy between the different agencies and levels of authority is often less than effective. This is particularly evident with agencies that do not have tourism or environmental management as one of their primary roles. In some of these agencies, the relationship of activities undertaken to tourism is not always clearly identifiable, so those activities are not given appropriate priority or included in strategic planning from a tourism perspective. Agencies may be characterised by strong internal lines of accountability but poor links to other agencies. The wide-ranging nature of tourism activities, with well-established interdependent networks of destinations and attractions over several different regions or areas, also intensifies the need for good communication.
<table>
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<th>Criteria for effective management</th>
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| **Management responsibilities are clear, comprehensive, and coordinated** | • Framework for statutory allocation of responsibilities reasonably clear but some blurring at interface of RMA and sectoral legislation; relationship between statutory/non-statutory approaches needs further development.  
  • Little coordination between different authorities and sectors; *ad hoc* liaison; TPG has valuable potential role but unable to function effectively; public sector dominated by marketing organisation (NZTB).  
  • Some agencies have strategic view of own role but coordinated vision and strategy lacking, sustainability issues not widely debated.  
  • DOC’s role potentially conflicting but prioritised by Conservation Act. Local authorities (LAs) have widely perceived potential for conflict between promotion and regulation. NZTB has had to act as an industry advocate in the past. |
| **Tourism is planned and managed so as to avoid, remedy or mitigate adverse environmental effects and be sustainable over the long term** | • Effectiveness varies greatly. System puts main responsibility on LAs; their ability to cope varies greatly. National and local tourism agencies have few mechanisms to influence quantity of tourism or management of its environmental effects.  
  • Lack of LA tourism-specific environmental policy hampers ability to manage environmental effects.  
  • Ability to recognise and manage social effects is very poor.  
  • DOC’s VSS provides a coherent strategy for conservation estate and some elements can be applied more widely.  
  • Industry market driven (nationally and locally) and still largely cost-driven so precautionary approach to management almost impossible. Some progress on industry standards, codes of practice, etc. |
| **Decision-makers are accountable to and consult with key stakeholders** | • Involvement of stakeholders varies greatly, in line with LA’s general consultation effectiveness, but RMA consultation processes transparent.  
  • Many communities and small businesses feel disempowered; large businesses seen to wield great power with local decision-makers. |
| **Effects monitoring and other research is undertaken to support sustainable tourism** | • Monitoring generally inadequate; poor coordination of monitoring, research, and management. DOC developing some more focused programmes. LA resources and experience generally inadequate for meaningful programmes.  
  • Statistics NZ data insufficient and not cohesive. Lack of knowledge of travel and activity patterns, especially for domestic tourists, limits effective management. Some collation of existing research and establishment of research databases is encouraging.  
  • Lack of environmental indicators for tourism hampers recognition of environmental effects. |
| **Costs are shared by the parties which receive the benefits** | • Significant regional imbalances between costs and benefits, results in infrastructure problems for LAs and DOC which have the main responsibility; LA appraisal of environmental effects assessments is crucial. |
This analysis shows a system that performs well in parts and which is partially succeeding in managing a dynamic economic sector. Overall, however, the government system for management of tourism is fragmented, especially between agencies which promote tourism and those which manage its effects. There are few mechanisms for communication and coordination between different parts of the tourism sector.

Integration between agencies can be improved through:

- improved coordination at Ministerial or senior management level, involving primarily a core group of Tourism, Conservation, Environment, Local Government, Maori Affairs and Transport linked to a further group including Statistics, Health, Internal Affairs, Customs, Biosecurity and Business Development.
- a greater awareness of tourism issues within various government agencies generally. For many of the relevant ministries a tourism adviser, as within Te Puni Kokiri, may be a suitable option. Regular liaison at appropriate working levels of relevant agencies is essential, without necessarily creating new formal structures.

When the different roles and responsibilities relating to tourism and its effects are combined within the one agency, other problems arise. Chapter 3 discussed some of the difficulties for agencies with marketing, policy, and operational roles. This mixture of responsibilities can mean that it is difficult to give adequate consideration to environmental issues. Even when efforts have been made to deal with these issues, there can be distrust or a lack of support from communities and stakeholders, because of their consciousness of the agency’s dual or multiple roles, and the perception that other concerns are outweighing the public or stakeholder interest.

From the perspective of central government decision-making, the tourism sector is characterised by unusual diversity of government policy purchase. This diversity, and the differences in scale and resourcing of the various agencies, has meant that the provision of policy advice has appeared to be dominated by the NZTB.

**The Major National Agencies**

**The New Zealand Tourism Board**: The NZTB has had considerable success in marketing New Zealand internationally as a high-profile tourism destination, despite high travel costs from most other parts of the globe and a fiercely competitive world tourism market. The NZTB’s marketing work has recently been matched by constructive initiatives in other aspects of tourism development, including involvement with standards and brands development, and with regional tourism strategies. The Board’s statutory objective is to ensure that New Zealand is marketed so as to maximise long-term benefits to the country. It has set the following goals for the tourism sector:
1. Continuing growth in the contribution of tourism to the New Zealand economy to achieve targets of $9 billion in foreign exchange earnings and 180,000 full-time jobs (or their part-time equivalents) by the year 2000.

2. Continuing improvements in visitor satisfaction, consistent with the positioning of New Zealand as a distinct, competitive and high-value destination with authentic experiences and a friendly welcome.

3. Encouragement of industry profitability and appropriate returns on investment.

4. Any adverse impacts from tourism on the environmental attractions upon which it depends are avoided, remedied or mitigated.

5. Acceptance by New Zealand host communities of a diverse mix of visitors and tourism activities.

Some people feel that the NZTB’s focus on economic measures and overseas marketing is too narrow and does not allow it to deal fully with the wider aspects of tourism development, such as tourism’s associated environmental effects, or to reconcile the goals it has set.

Since the formation of the NZTB, its effective marketing activities have largely driven the New Zealand tourism sector, to an extent that may have outstripped the capacity of the sector to manage the environmental consequences of tourism growth. This may be related to the setting of NZTB objectives in isolation from more wide-ranging objectives for the sector as a whole.

The role of the NZTB, now and in the future, cannot be considered in isolation from other government agencies, notably the Tourism Policy Group (TPG) of the Ministry of Commerce.

Tourism Policy Group: The TPG has an important role in tourism. It provides among several other functions (see Chapter 3.2) general policy advice to government. The TPG has also undertaken a significant amount of useful research into tourism related matters including bibliographies of tourism research, research on tourism and landscape, toilet facilities, and funding options. The TPG fulfils an essential role but is hampered by:

- its very small size, especially in relation to the size and significance of the tourism sector;
- its location as a small unit in the large and diverse Ministry of Commerce;
- its relative isolation from the tourism industry.

Government requires a strong source of neutral policy advice on the development of the tourism sector, but in recent years has not retained sufficient capacity for such advice. This is a significant
strategic weakness for a sector as important to New Zealand as tourism.

The Department of Conservation: There has been ongoing debate about DOC’s role and directions in tourism management, and calls from some for DOC to have a reduced role or no direct role in visitor management. However DOC has a unique responsibility as the Crown agency charged with administration and management of the conservation estate, which requires the capacity to make decisions, determine strategy, establish controls and allocate resources for visitor services on the estate. At present DOC is distinctive among government agencies in its purposeful integration of conservation objectives with visitor use, through its Visitor Services Strategy and the regionally specific provisions in CMSs and other management plans. Passing responsibilities for tourism and visitor management to a separate agency would only further complicate the assessment and management of environmental effects. It should be noted that any major changes to the system for tourism management on the conservation estate would require revision of the Conservation Act.

There has been debate over the provisions of the Conservation Act s 6(e), which requires DOC to “foster” recreation and “allow” tourism, to the extent that this is not inconsistent with conservation. This distinction between recreation and tourism (which in DOC’s definition is tied to commercial activities) carries implications of relative value, and has been the cause of some dissatisfaction in parts of the industry. In practice, DOC’s strategic approach and on-the-ground management are less focused on whether a visitor to the conservation estate has his or her experience facilitated by a third party in a commercial transaction, than on the effects, activities and quality of experience of their visit.

DOC’s concessions regime (see Chapter 3.2 and Appendix 6) provides a framework for the activities of commercial operators on the conservation estate and for the Department’s oversight of these activities. Concerns about the concessions regime have been expressed by various interested parties. Many tourism industry and business interests complain of inconsistencies in policy, charges, and the consideration of applications. Concession charges are often seen as unrelated to the value of conservation resources being sought. On the other hand, some conservation interests argue that:

- concession fees undervalue conservation resources;

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9Many comments were made on further specific aspects of the concessions regime, relating especially to administration processes and trade-related issues including implications of the Commerce Act. These issues are not covered within the scope of this report.
• applications are not sufficiently well scrutinised;
• consultation is inadequate;
• monitoring is inadequate; and
• DOC is not able to refuse applications which do not adequately protect conservation values.

Most concessionaires consulted in this investigation demonstrated concern for the natural sites and values on which their business depends, and an understandable interest in their maintenance. Many are calling for more rather than less stringent control by DOC, especially in setting total allowable use limits.

Under the Conservation Amendment Act 1996 the concessions regime is an effects-based regime similar to that for assessing resource consent applications under the RMA: the processes for application and assessing environmental effects are also similar. For concession applications, environmental effects are assessed on the basis of conservation values, rather than sustainable management of resources. However, a significant difference is that for concession applications, the assessment of environmental effects is made on the basis of effects on conservation values, not in terms of sustainable management of resources. As under the RMA, it is very difficult to assess cumulative effects on a case by case basis. Monitoring of long-term ecological effects, and determining carrying capacities or acceptable thresholds of use, will be very important.

On balance, the need for DOC to retain a visitor services role as part of its statutory responsibilities also requires its oversight of the concessions process. The concessions regime set up by the Conservation Amendment Act 1996 is still new and being refined. Principles for further improvement of the system include consistency between conservancies, and better communication between concession holders and DOC.

On the conservation estate, DOC has the primary responsibility for managing the environmental effects associated with tourism. It is appropriate that the Department of Conservation should retain responsibility for visitor services, including concessions management, as part of its management responsibilities.

Local Government

While all local authorities contacted during this investigation have welcomed tourism for its economic potential, their performance in the management and monitoring of tourism effects has been variable. This is obviously influenced by the resources available to them, which vary greatly even on a per capita basis. Variability in performance is also related to the conceptual and practical difficulties encountered by
local authorities in addressing tourism as a sector, under the effects-based approach of the RMA. Territorial local authorities all have district plan provisions that significantly affect tourism planning, even though most do not specifically cover tourism as an activity.

There is widespread concern about TLAs’ ability to balance their different roles of tourism promotion, policy regulation and provision of services and infrastructure. These roles are undoubtedly conflicting at times, but the real and potential conflicts of interest involved are not essentially different from those arising in a number of other council management roles. In tourism management, the separation of tourism marketing into semi-autonomous regional tourism organisations (RTOs) helps to reduce conflicts of interest, especially where there is scrupulous transparency in the structures and operation of RTO boards and other council decision-making committees.

The role and scope of RTOs vary considerably and continue to evolve. The roles and structures adopted by the Rotorua RTO are one positive example of an expansion of RTO activity beyond the primary focus on marketing and production to wider strategic considerations and issues of regional tourism development. RTOs also have a valuable role in setting standards for tourism in the region through local codes of practice and product branding schemes, some of which may have a particular environmental emphasis.

Regional Tourism Organisations have a crucial role in tourism management, which should include a strategic approach to tourism development at local and regional levels, as well as marketing. Such an approach should be linked to any national strategies.

Regional councils have little direct involvement in tourism issues, except when management of major biophysical resources of the region is involved (eg the management of the Rotorua Lakes District and the Bay of Plenty geothermal resource, or visitor activities in the Hauraki Gulf). Regional policy statements and plans can have an important impact on the physical and natural environment on which tourism depends, through matters such as soil and water conservation, pest control, pollution and waste management, and coastal activities. This may, at times, involve regional council liaison with RTOs on tourism planning issues.

Outside the conservation estate, local authorities have the primary responsibility for managing the environmental effects associated with tourism. Their performance in this role varies widely.
The tourism industry (i.e., the private sector tourism operators) is a central player in the management of the environmental effects associated with tourism because of the direct effect of management decisions by businesses on the environment.

The tourism industry is marked by extraordinary diversity, with a large proportion of small operators, across a wide spectrum of activities and services. To those enterprises which are principally focused on tourism – notably in accommodation and food, transport, and activities and attractions – can be added an even more diverse range of businesses which provide significant products and services to tourists as part of their work with the general public, such as petrol stations, supermarkets, or entertainment providers.

Such diversity has important implications for the effective management of the environmental effects associated with tourism. It is unrealistic to expect a single consistent viewpoint or policy position from the sector. Some issues will only have relevance for particular groups. Questions of coordination and consultation within the industry will require careful attention.

There is potential for constructive industry input into local authority planning processes at an early stage, as an alternative to participation in, and possible confrontation over, individual resource consent applications. However, the many smaller businesses (over 80% of the industry) do not generally have the capacity of larger operations to deal with wider environmental management and planning matters.

In some sections of the industry, there are few barriers to entry and often relatively minimal establishment costs, leading to very competitive and price-sensitive behaviour and consequently a high turnover of businesses and operators. This has implications for the management of environmental effects through increased difficulties in developing an awareness of environmental aspects and of any industry standards and regulations.

This diversity is accentuated by the highly competitive, market-driven and marginally profitable nature of many parts of the industry. Returns on equity are strongest for the accommodation and food and transport sectors. In 1996, 21% of tourism enterprises made a loss, and a further 74.9% managed returns of less than 4%. Only 1.2% of businesses achieved a return of more than 12% in that year (NZTB unpub). Acute and diverse pressures on profitability in almost all parts of the industry suggest that, despite the desire for a quality product-driven industry, much of the industry depends for its survival on high turnover at low prices. Such vulnerability is not confined to the smaller businesses. For example, Shotover Jet posted a $16 million loss in 1996, and Tourism Holdings’ profit for that year ($6.9
This general economic vulnerability has implications for the management of tourism’s effects on the environment. Some operators have recognised potential adverse environmental effects of their operations and made positive initiatives to manage these effects. A good example is the work of the Environmental Hotels of Auckland (EHOA) group in such areas as energy and water use efficiency. But making the extra effort to accommodate environmental dimensions could seem an expensive luxury to some operators, and there are perceptions that such costs can reduce competitiveness. Some in the industry may be reluctant to support environmentally sustainable practices and standards for these kinds of reasons. This pattern is an indication in itself of the need for a more sustainable and strategic approach. It is in the long-term interests of the industry and certainly the country that longer-term environmental, social and economic viability not be sacrificed for short-term profitability.

The vulnerability of the industry can also be a constraint on tourism operators’ openness with information. Information such as statistics about visitor patterns and behaviours, or details about desirable natural destinations, may give a significant competitive advantage. These factors need to be taken into account when developing more purposeful data gathering, monitoring and research programmes.

**Industry growth and trends**

The NZTB was heavily criticised in the early 1990s when it publicised a target of three million international tourists to New Zealand by the year 2000. This target was subsequently revised to focus more clearly on the contribution of tourism to the New Zealand economy, to achieve targets of $9 billion in foreign exchange earnings and 180,000 full-time equivalent jobs by the year 2000. Although visitor expenditure per trip is growing faster than tourist numbers themselves, these targets still represent substantially increased numbers of tourists coming to New Zealand in the next few years, probably in excess of 2.5 million overseas arrivals yearly (compared with 1.52 million arrivals in 1995).

Most planning relating to tourism assumes continued growth in tourist numbers. While growth has been rapid in the past decade, the past year has seen slowing growth in overseas visitor numbers. This has been a concern for many in the industry. Factors identified as contributing to this trend include a strong New Zealand dollar, faltering emerging economies, and the emergence of other countries (eg South Africa) as fashionable destinations. Changing visitor behaviour, particularly a movement towards shorter holidays, is also affecting the industry.

This slowing of growth emphasises the industry’s dependence on external factors. Some reports attribute the decline to market factors,
but trends affecting the tourism sector may be a consequence of remote events far beyond the control of New Zealand decision-makers, such as fluctuations in Asian or European currencies influencing those peoples’ travel patterns. Some in the industry argue that lower profitability is the result of over-supply of services and accommodation. This has been seen, for example, in Queenstown, where new accommodation developments have resulted in lower occupancy rates and yields.

Whatever the reasons for the recent downturn, there is general agreement that the tourism sector is cyclical and subject to fluctuations and external influences. Nevertheless it must be recognised that the marketing initiatives of the industry itself have enormous influence. The scale and capacity of the larger, better-established operators, and the expertise and management systems at their disposal, mean that their influence on the overall directions of the tourism sector, and on development in particular regions or areas, can be significant. The extent of this influence is important for the management of environmental effects associated with tourism, and for the encouragement and strengthening of environmental awareness in the sector.

*Government agencies have very little ability to influence the direction of the tourism industry and thus its environmental effects.*

**Marketing considerations**

Some discrepancies between the marketing of New Zealand’s tourism product and the ability of the New Zealand system to manage the resulting tourism activities have been found. Examples include:

- the Abel Tasman National Park, intensively promoted despite being one of the most congested of New Zealand’s ‘Great Walks’;
- promotion of alpine adventure tourism activities such as heli-skiing and snow landings, as well as traditional scenic flights, although the adverse effects of these activities on other alpine visitors are still controversial, and are perceived as unacceptable in some areas;
- images of wilderness fisheries used to attract tourists to very fragile areas, although the means of controlling effects on those fisheries and the experiences of other users are inadequate.

Situations where marketing and industry priorities are not sufficiently integrated with environmental requirements can result either from overall growth in tourism numbers intensifying pressure on popular places, or from marketing specific to a particular place. Where the latter occurs, visitors are attracted to places where their adverse effects on the environment cannot be managed adequately, or where their experiences, and the experiences of other users, are diminished. Management agencies may find themselves with little control over the composition, scale and intensity of the visitor influx, or the
expectations, behaviour, expenditure or effects on the environment of those visitors.

A sustainable tourism sector will require closer coordination of tourism marketing (especially internationally) with the requirements of environmental management. DOC’s unique responsibility for managing the effects of visitors on the conservation estate suggests that it should have a more direct role in the development of tourism marketing strategies.

The management of environmental effects in the tourism sector is more difficult because New Zealand’s strategic approach to tourism has been primarily focused on maximising the benefits from increased international visitor numbers.

6.3.3 Infrastructure

Issues related to the provision of infrastructure to cater for tourists’ requirements were a common concern throughout the investigation. Chapter 2 showed that some of the most significant environmental effects of tourism are associated with the provision or lack of infrastructure. Some of the infrastructure issues associated with tourism are very specific (e.g., the lack of public toilets on certain stretches of state highway, and the disposal of wastes from campervans – see Box 5.6). Other issues are much more general and not necessarily tourism-specific (e.g., policy and priority for new roads, disposal and recycling of hotel wastes, seasonal demand in holiday destinations for sewage treatment and water supply).

It is frequently difficult to distinguish tourism infrastructure needs from those of the general public, although the submissions from some local government agencies (especially in more remote areas) noted heavy tourism road use that was different from that of the general population. Most responsibility for infrastructure provision and management now lies with local authorities. Some infrastructure needs have been identified that are specific to the tourism sector, often located only in certain parts of a district (e.g., certain roads or the provision of water and sewerage on the Hauraki Gulf islands – see Box 5.2).

In other areas, overall increases in usage result in a demand for improved infrastructure, but many residents, particularly those unhappy about growth in their neighbourhoods, perceive this demand as being driven only by tourism growth (e.g., road usage on the Coromandel Peninsula). This situation is compounded in areas where there is a large seasonal population of temporary New Zealand residents (holiday-home owners and tourism workers). Local authorities also have to accommodate conflicts between constituencies. Building public toilets or upgrading a scenic route may divert resources from upgrading rural roads or suburban car parking facilities.
As noted, tourism can sometimes have a positive effect in improving infrastructure for residents. However, such improvement can have a ‘ratchet’ effect, attracting still more tourists or residents and thereby creating adverse environmental effects (see Box 5.2).

The discussion of specific infrastructure issues related to human waste disposal (see Box 5.7) indicates some persistent systems failures which result in a number of specific problems. Provision of public toilet facilities should be regarded as a public health and amenity measure and as essential infrastructure, like rest areas and road signs. Joint ventures between local authorities and Transit New Zealand are a practical approach. It may also be appropriate for industry operators or groups of operators to be involved. Regarding campervan wastes, adequate legal, financial and technical incentives to dispose of wastes appropriately are an obvious priority, as is education of campervan users.

Issues related to the provision of roads featured strongly in written submissions to the investigation. The Land Transport Pricing Study, a Ministry of Transport initiative to reform the management and funding of New Zealand’s road network, is due for government decision at the end of 1997. Government has made a commitment that roads will not be privatised. New or upgraded roads primarily for tourism use may have adverse effects, as was claimed to be the case in the Coromandel Peninsula. However, this need not be the case: for example the upgrading of the significant tourist route through the Waipoua forest in Northland was carried out with careful attention to environmental values.

Tourism traffic will continue to be an issue as the greenhouse gas emissions debate continues. The tourism industry is hugely reliant on fossil fuels, both for bringing tourists to New Zealand and for their movement around the country. Longer-term implications for the environment of investment in road infrastructure, and dependence on carbon fuel-driven transport will need to be considered, acknowledging that the greatest share of transport fuel is used by New Zealanders for personal transport purposes.

On the question of costs for tourism infrastructure, some local authorities have commitments additional to those required by the resident population. Instances where local authorities have most trouble providing infrastructure for visitors are where:

- there is a large tourism sector in a district with a small resident population (eg Queenstown–Lakes, Far North, Kaikoura and Buller Districts).
- there is a large Crown estate used for and attracting tourism and a low rating base (eg Buller District);
• tourism is highly seasonal so infrastructure cannot cope with demand in peak times or is under-utilised for much of the year (eg Banks Peninsula, Thames-Coromandel); and
• there is significant tourist traffic passing through a sparsely populated district and requiring basic infrastructure like water, toilet and waste facilities (eg Waitomo Caves, Clutha and Mackenzie Districts).

6.3.4 Access and visitor management issues

Specific issues in visitor management include debate over whether it is environmentally more desirable to concentrate or disperse visitors. There are some areas that do require intensive management input, often the most popular ‘icons’ of New Zealand’s natural areas. It would be unacceptable (and disastrous for the industry) for these areas to become regarded as ‘sacrifice areas’ where visitors are concentrated beyond the capacity of the area, and it may be necessary to divert people away from such places to less popular places, as is done in many national parks in the USA. This approach may not always solve problems in the long term. For example, the Kepler Track in Fiordland was developed, with industry assistance, largely to relieve the pressure on the Milford and Routeburn Tracks. It has absorbed large increases in use and now has overuse problems of its own.

Controlling access to prevent detrimental environmental effects is acknowledged as a significant issue for tourism. However, access issues are controversial (Sowman 1994), and closely related to funding issues (see below). Some people feel that increased tourism on the conservation estate is eroding New Zealanders’ statutory rights of free access to all public conservation land, including marginal strips. Such views are mainly expressed by conservation and recreation groups and concern access for tramping, mountaineering, fishing and hunting. The legitimate desire of New Zealanders for guaranteed access may require closer control over access, for example by quota or booking systems.

There was widespread acceptance expressed during the investigation that limits would need to be placed on access and use in some natural areas. Operators generally concurred, but with the caveat that limits be imposed fairly, and that they be enforced. One suggestion for setting access limits is to use a public process resulting in a management plan so there is public consensus on those limits.
An assessment of government funding for the management of the environmental effects of tourism, such as the broad analysis attempted in Chapter 3, is complicated due to the:

- difficulties in identifying the component targeted for management of tourism-related effects within overall environmental and conservation allocations;
- difficulties in identifying the component targeted for management of environmental effects within overall tourism allocations;
- difficulties in identifying the tourism component in allocations made in related sectors like transport, public health and safety, border control and general business development; and
- significant spending at regional and local levels on both promotion and management.

Private sector investment in tourism effects management, within the context of investment in activities, facilities, promotion and development is another dimension altogether, and equally difficult to quantify with any precision.

The multi-faceted nature of the tourism sector and its various effects result in considerable uncertainty over exactly what direct and indirect government spending is relevant, and what trends may be evolving. The lack of precise data reflects and is closely intertwined with the difficulties of distinguishing tourism activities and their effects on the environment from more general public uses and effects. Such uncertainties can only be resolved through purposeful research and monitoring to track spending, target the tourism component in more general allocations, identify relationships between expenditure, demands and returns, and more clearly determine the full range of contributions that are being made to the tourism sector.

Given this present lack of clarity about details, there are three broad areas where the adequacy of current funding levels are of greatest concern in terms of their implications for the management of environmental effects associated with the tourism sector. They are:

- management of both physical and social effects associated with tourism on the conservation estate;
- provision of infrastructure for tourism, especially in smaller communities; and
- gathering of data for tourism management, especially regarding tourists’ activities, expectations and actual levels of effects.

The investigation found common and consistent perceptions among communities of imbalances between funding for tourism marketing relative to funding for the management of environmental effects associated with tourism. Also widely evident were specific concerns
and perceptions of inadequate overall funding for DOC, the adequacy of DOC’s allocations for management of the effects of visitors on the conservation estate, and the implications of the funding of DOC’s visitor services responsibilities for its other conservation functions.

Since DOC’s inception in 1987, its funding for various visitor-related activities has declined in real terms, while the numbers of international visitors to the conservation estate has at least doubled and domestic use also increased significantly. There was also concern expressed at the level of funding for protection of natural places and values outside the conservation estate, and the resources available for compliance monitoring for tourism developments.

Many of the people consulted felt there is a need for additional money for managing the environmental effects associated with tourism, especially in relation to natural areas and infrastructure. No attempt has been made in this investigation to quantify the funding requirements for effective management of tourism’s environmental effects, to identify specific areas where funding imbalances and other difficulties could be resolved, or to assess the extent of such possible resolutions.

Such an exercise was outside the terms of reference and would need more intensive and comprehensive study than has been possible in this investigation. However, some work was done in the early 1990s on options for funding visitor services and tourism. Reports include those by Ernst and Young (1994), Clough (1993, 1994), Deloitte Touche and Tohmatsu (1994) and a paper on *New Zealand Conservation Estate and International Visitors* (DOC and NZTB 1993). These studies considered, from the perspective of that time, a range of mechanisms for allocating funding to tourism, visitor use of natural areas, and the management of effects on the environment. Some of the options are:

- **User charges.** These already apply to some extent on the conservation estate in the charges made for facilities and services. Fees for huts and campsites are not a charge for access *per se*, which would conflict with governments’ consistent policy and New Zealanders’ strongly defended expectations of free public access to the public estate.

- **Re-prioritising within the present Vote: Tourism.** Specifically from marketing to other management activities.

- **Re-prioritising from other government revenue streams,** especially from the GST revenue arising from the tourism sector. The GST from international tourists’ spending is estimated to yield between $395 and $520 million annually, depending on estimates of tourist expenditure (NZTB unpub).

- **General charges or levies.** These can take a number of forms, including the ‘green tax’ levy on overseas visitors.
Options for more effective funding delivery will need to evolve as part of the development of a wider strategic approach to tourism and management of its effects on the environment.

*In some areas funding issues need attention. The most significant are: the management of tourism effects on the conservation estate; provision of infrastructure at the local level; and the gathering of data for tourism management. Research and analysis are needed to determine accurately the current levels of investment by government agencies in the tourism sector, and appropriate means of targeting resources to ensure effective management of the environmental effects associated with tourism.*

It is widely acknowledged that host community acceptance of tourists and tourism is an essential part of sustainable tourism, but influxes of visitors, and the developments that accompany them, can cause considerable tension. This investigation has established that peoples’ concerns about the social effects of tourism, and their perceptions of the impacts of tourism on their communities and lifestyles, may in many cases be as significant as the actual physical effects (see Chapter 2).

Many communities welcome tourism, seeking its economic and other benefits. Councils and community groups actively encourage the development of tourism opportunities, viewing tourism as a non-consumptive utilisation of their local natural resources. Other communities feel overrun and overwhelmed by tourists and tourism. This investigation has found strong strands of distrust and suspicion of tourism and its practitioners running through a wide range of community groups, recreation and environmental NGOs, iwi and hapu, planners and land managers, and within the tourism industry itself.

The difficulties many groups and individuals encounter taking part in statutory planning and decision-making processes add to their dissatisfaction. Such attitudes are often based in the bitterness of loss or irretrievable degradation of a once-loved natural place, the resentment of exclusion from a favourite place by crowds of visitors, or feelings of helplessness in the face of change. These attitudes could be potential obstacles to the development of a truly sustainable tourism sector in New Zealand. Community support, both at the national and local levels, is vital to the sector. The NZTB’s goal of acceptance by host communities of a diverse mix of visitors and tourism activities, implicitly recognises host community resistance to tourism as a serious potential threat to the country’s tourism industry. An official commented during the investigation that:

> There is a lack of public participation in the tourism industry at present and tourism is essentially an introduction of visitors to
the community. If that community is not involved at the beginning, then tourist developers should not be surprised if the community resists their development proposals (Ministry for the Environment official).

Host communities generally want the benefits of tourism but also want its negative effects minimised. Many communities, iwi and hapu, and interest groups are concerned about their inability to take part in decision-making on tourism issues, and seek better involvement in planning and managing the effects of tourism in their area.

6.3.7 Issues of concern to Maori

Maori have an interest in many of the resources used by the tourism industry, both directly and indirectly. The most obvious resource is land, but geothermal resources, marine mammals, other wildlife, lakes, caves and rivers are all fundamentally important to tangata whenua. Many of these resources are under claim to the Waitangi Tribunal: both in the process of negotiating claims settlements, and through other legal cases, Maori are asserting their interest in these resources and their potential for tourism. Tribunal hearings commenced in September 1997 for the WAI 262 claim for indigenous flora and fauna and matters of intellectual and cultural property. This claim could have significant implications for the conservation and management of indigenous natural resources and cultural heritage and their uses, with consequent implications for tourism management.

These issues need to be considered within the wider contexts of:

- the Treaty claims settlement processes and other political processes;
- the development by Maori of practical mechanisms for the expression of kaitiakitanga within today's environmental management systems; and
- the statutory requirements for formal recognition of the principles of the Treaty in management of natural resources.

There are strong statutory requirements in environmental management law for the principles of the Treaty and Maori interests to be incorporated in decision-making and management of natural resources and places (see Chapter 3). These statutory requirements place a particular onus on the tourism sector, which relies heavily on both the natural environment and Maori culture. However, there is widespread feeling that Maori are still marginalised in the tourism sector, and their involvement in policy and decision-making processes is often less than satisfactory (see Chapter 3.6).

Increasingly, Maori are looking to develop their own tourism opportunities. This is seen as a constructive way to resolve the current pattern of disparities in the tourism industry, where Maori are
frequently confined to service and interpretation roles, jobs which are largely unskilled, poorly paid, part-time and seasonal. The use of cultural images, or images of natural taonga that may be associated with a particular tupuna, iwi or hapu, is also a question of grave concern to Maori. By maintaining control as managers of tourism operations, Maori can also exercise control of the environmental and cultural aspects of their tourism product.

There are various ways in which Maori participation in the tourism sector can be more effective both for Maori and for tourism. Concern for the protection of natural resources by interest groups can run counter to tangata whenua opportunities to develop their lands. Improving understanding of the roles, expectations and values of the respective parties through an ongoing process of dialogue is fundamental. Greater awareness and clarity about the systems and how they operate, and about the issues at stake, whether ecological, cultural or traditional, will help reduce confusion and misunderstandings. Maori must have a leading role in developing ways to improve their participation and recognition of their particular interests in tourism’s utilisation of natural taonga.

There has been insufficient opportunity for tangata whenua to participate in policy and decision-making for the tourism sector. Improved understanding and communication would help in achieving better environmental outcomes, more satisfactory integration of Maori values and priorities, and fulfilment of the requirements of the legislation regarding the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi. Maori must have the primary role in determining appropriate ways to achieve this.

The investigation encountered considerable concern from environmental and community groups about what they perceive as a general culture of permissiveness to development, including tourism developments, without adequate regard to sustainable management.

It is clear from the district profiles (see Chapter 5 and Appendices 9 and 10) that communities, or groups within communities, often believe that the social and cultural effects of proposed tourism developments will be significant and adverse. Naturally they look to local authorities to resolve these issues. One of the greatest difficulties for councils appears to be accommodating these kinds of perceptions within their various statutory processes, while at the same time attracting tourism investment. When a council is unable to do this satisfactorily, this affects community attitudes to development generally and engenders cynicism about local government, scepticism about the provisions and capacities of the legislation (in particular the RMA) and disillusionment about community participation in resource management processes. Councils’ systems and structures, and the political factors involved in
decision-making, are commonly perceived as hostile to community interests and good environmental management. The difficulty that some groups have mentioned dealing with DOC on tourism-related matters is a variation on this theme.

There are also concerns from various sections of the tourism industry about local authorities’ ability to handle tourism issues effectively and to recognise the characteristics and needs of the industry. These concerns are not dissimilar to those expressed by operators in other resource management sectors.

One way of constructively addressing community objectives and concerns is through community participation in tourism planning. However, as the district profiles show, there is great variability in the success of consultation under the RMA. Other statutory processes are not open to public input (eg development of criteria by CAA for airspace exclusions (see Box 5.8)). Factors cited as reasons why communities are constrained from effective participation in the processes that are open to them include lack of resources, the complexity of the process, and inability to access the information and advice needed (PCE 1996).

Although communities are varied and have diverse and sometimes conflicting goals and objectives, they can be involved in tourism planning and are a useful source of knowledge. The challenge for decision-makers involved in managing the effects of tourism and related development is to ensure open dialogue between communities, the tourism industry and themselves, and to be committed to implementing the outcome.

### 6.3.9 A strategic approach

Many agencies and groups within the tourism sector have developed strategic approaches to tourism and its effects on the environment, whether for local communities or for particular areas of activity. Some of these initiatives have been successful, and are outlined here.

Some local authorities have developed or are developing strategic plans and non-statutory tourism management plans, such as:

- Queenstown–Lakes District Strategic Plan;
- Waitomo District Strategic Plan;
- local initiatives using community planning processes such as charettes; and
- Vision Hauraki.

Such approaches are usually a useful way of increasing understanding and acceptance of resource management issues and liaising between different interested agencies, but to be fully effective they need to be
incorporated into statutory planning documents. Vision Hauraki is significant for coordinating the efforts of a large number of agencies.

The main responsibility for coordinating and encouraging strategic development and raised standards across the tourism industry lies with the New Zealand Tourism Industry Association (NZTIA) and its constituent groups. The NZTIA has recently been at the forefront of some significant initiatives for sustainable tourism management, including:

- development of codes of practice and industry standards;
- a 10-year National Tourism Strategic Plan for the industry;
- substantial work towards a research strategy for the tourism sector;
- involvement with a Ministry for the Environment project on sustainable management, in association with the forestry, agribusiness and chemicals industries;
- extending the Environmental Hotels of Auckland (EHOA) project nationally; and
- establishing or revitalising sector groups and sub-groups within the industry.

DOC’s Visitor Service Strategy provides another framework for managing tourists and other visitors to the conservation estate (see Chapter 3.2). The strategy is the result of a lengthy process of public and interest group consultation. DOC is now moving into implementation of the strategy in conjunction with the provisions for visitor services set out in each regional conservancy’s statutory Conservation Management Strategy. Detailed studies of priority sites and pressure points will be mapped to form a comprehensive basis for visitor management and practical business planning.

The NZTB has worked on strategic processes for tourism on Stewart Island and in Northland, and during the course of this investigation released its draft Southern Lakes Tourism Strategy (see Chapter 5 and Appendix 10).

The TPG has identified the following projects in its 1997/98 Purchase Agreement:

- a strategy relating to the sustainable management of tourism growth in natural areas (including the conservation estate);
- a series of tourism sector forums on issues such as research needs, the investment environment, and human resource development;
- tourism infrastructure responsibilities of central, regional and local government; and
- tourism research generally.
Despite these initiatives, a continual concern emerging through this investigation is the lack of a generally agreed strategic direction for the sector as a whole. Many stakeholders hold the perception that New Zealand tourism has little clear direction. Such perceptions are a factor in much of the criticism and resistance to tourism in key communities and community groups discussed above.

There is an almost unanimous desire for tourism in New Zealand to be ‘sustainable’. This is recognised at a number of levels, such as the reference in the Coalition Government agreement to ‘quality, sustainable tourism’, and the policies and published statements of key agencies. There is a general understanding throughout the sector and amongst the public that New Zealand will be marketed as a quality tourism destination using our ‘natural clean-green’ image. However, although there is now a large international literature on the subject of sustainable tourism, so far there have been few contributions to such a debate in New Zealand outside of academic circles (Human 1997; Page and Thorn 1997; Kearsley 1997), except for a 1992 discussion paper from the Ministry of Tourism (see Chapter 7.1.2).

It is widely acknowledged that New Zealand tourism relies on the natural environment, and that this resource is vulnerable to exploitation. Some models, most notably eco-tourism (see Box 5.6) provide a framework for more environmentally sensitive tourism. Recent assessments of the less positive status of much of New Zealand’s environment (in particular the first comprehensive report on the state of New Zealand’s environment (Ministry for the Environment 1997) are seen as potential threats to this image and our capacity to attract international travellers.

There is widespread agreement that tourism in New Zealand should be managed sustainably and marketed on the basis that New Zealand is a high-quality, product-led tourist destination. Tourism’s reliance on the quality of both the natural environment and visitors’ experiences is also generally recognised. However, there are systemic problems which hinder the achievement of this goal.

There has as yet been insufficient discussion on what is meant by ‘sustainable tourism’ in New Zealand, and what it would involve for the tourism sector.

This chapter has explored the principal characteristics of the sector and the industry, the implications of these for effective management of tourism’s effects on the environment, and the various often uneasy relationships of tourism with communities, with Maori, and with particular interest groups.
The nature of the tourism sector and its management systems at present make it very difficult for tourism to achieve its potential and to deliver the sustainable, quality tourism product that is universally desired, without a more generally agreed strategy for sustainable tourism in New Zealand. Such a strategy is a more important priority than any single environmental management issue.

A key priority is thus the development of a vision and strategy for the whole tourism sector both private and public, that would set a future basis for the management of environmental effects associated with tourism.

The general ground-swell of concern discussed in this chapter needs focusing in a single coherent strategy that integrates and further develops the initiatives discussed above. A comprehensive and more carefully integrated approach is necessary to achieve sustainable tourism development and to ensure effective management of tourism’s environmental effects. Key strategic issues that need to be resolved include:

- the vision for sustainable tourism in New Zealand;
- how to implement this vision in a fragmented and deregulated sector; and
- how to coordinate this vision with tourism marketing.

The final chapter discusses issues around the development of a strategy for sustainable tourism.
This chapter outlines the issues that need to be considered when developing a strategy for sustainable tourism. Key findings are highlighted in italics.

A number of basic guiding principles have been identified during this investigation as likely prerequisites for any process of strategic development for the tourism sector. These include principles of sustainability, an understanding of the particular requirements and features of the tourism sector, and mechanisms and principles for the process of strategy development.

The first fundamental requirement is that sustainability be understood and accepted as a mainstream concept. This will mean more than the terminology used in policy statements or the addition of a ‘green’ component to an otherwise unmodified product. Sustainability involves major shifts in thinking, including:

- appreciating the longer-term perspective as well as what may be realistically achievable in the short and medium term;
- acknowledging the collective nature of our effects on the environment, and the need for collective responsibility for dealing with these; and
- recognising the full range of values, returns and benefits of a sustainable natural environment to human society, which extend beyond economic and scientific criteria to include intangible and aesthetic factors, spiritual and cultural dimensions, community identity and well-being, and general quality of life.

The RMA defines sustainability in terms of:

managing the use, development and protection of natural and physical resources in a way, or at a rate, which enables people and communities to provide for their social, economic and cultural well being and for their health and safety while:

- sustaining the potential of natural and physical resources ... to meet the reasonably foreseeable needs of future generations, and
- safeguarding the life-supporting capacity of air, water, soil, and ecosystems, and
- avoiding, remediying or mitigating any adverse effects of activities on the environment.

There is now a large international literature on sustainable tourism (see Chapter 1.1). The World Tourism Organisation has adopted three types of criterion for sustainable tourism development:
• the resources of the environment must be protected;
• local communities must benefit both economically and in quality of life; and
• visitors must be given a quality experience.

In 1992 the Ministry of Tourism proposed the following guiding principles for sustainable tourism in New Zealand (Sowman 1992):
• The environment has an intrinsic value beyond its value as a tourism asset. The process of tourism development should respect this intrinsic quality.
• Sustainable tourism management involves protecting and enhancing a natural attraction for future generations, which means its long term survival must not be prejudiced by short term considerations.
• Tourism sustainability also involves meeting the needs of present visitors and of host communities – which may be identified Maori interests, a rural community, a town, or New Zealand in general. Tourism should encourage a positive relationship between the attraction, the visitor and the host community.
• Tourism activities and developments should respect the scale, nature and character of the place in which they are located.

Other concepts and principles for sustainable tourism will need to be developed, tested and refined in a process of dialogue that will involve the tourism sector, communities, tangata whenua, researchers and academics, and environmentalists.

7.1.3 Other principles

Other key principles, concepts and ideas identified as needing to be accepted and understood by all participants in the development of an effective strategy include:
• the unique character and qualities of New Zealand’s natural environment, its regional and local distinctiveness, and the importance of this for the quality of the tourism product on which the industry relies;
• the values and significance in the landscape for Maori as tangata whenua, including intangible and spiritual dimensions;
• the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi and the requirements under the law for their practical application in environmental and conservation management;
• New Zealanders’ expectations of our natural environment, and traditional patterns of recreational use and access to wild places;
• the differences and relationships between those effects of tourism that are direct physical effects and those that are perceptual, social and experiential effects;
• the range of low-impact alternatives in tourism operation, design and promotion that will enable protection of the environment, minimise negative effects, and maximise the benefits of tourism;
• concepts of carrying capacity and limits of acceptable change which are useful mechanisms for understanding and managing the effects of any activity or development on the environment;
• concepts of eco-tourism and the difference between this, nature tourism and sustainable tourism;
• community participation and input, so that local communities and iwi and hapu do not feel excluded from tourism planning and decision-making, but have active involvement as an integral part of the tourism product;
• effective communication between agencies with an interest in tourism, to address the present fragmented nature of the sector and its effects, and to allow the interests and objectives of all parties to be heard;
• commitment of the industry to the goal of sustainable tourism and industry leadership and full participation in the process for developing a strategy;
• more data, monitoring and research to ensure that optimal decisions are reached, and an acknowledgement that although it will not be possible in the immediate and medium term to fill all the data gaps, the remaining gaps should not become a justification for avoiding making progress;
• better understanding of the effects of tourism, including cumulative effects, reversibility factors, and potential effects;
• the range of options for the right mix of tourism products, based on principles of quality, sustainability, and minimal negative effects;
• the strong interrelationship between marketing and management of tourism, and better coordination between those charged with promoting tourism, and those charged with handling visitors when they arrive at their destination;
• political will and appropriate resourcing for the process;
• the various statutory responsibilities, administrative mandates and ‘corporate cultures’ of the agencies and sector groups involved in the process.

Note that these concepts and principles refer to the sustainability of environmental attributes on which the industry depends. The fundamental need for financially viable tourism businesses as an essential part of sustainable tourism is also acknowledged.

A strategic development process (see Chapter 6.3.9) developed from a starting point with these inputs should aim to achieve a strategy for sustainable tourism which:
• is widely accepted;
• reflects the goals and aspirations of New Zealanders;
• respects and provides appropriately for the values and concerns of tangata whenua;
• helps to achieve environmental sustainability; and
The key outcome of such a process would be a strategic direction for tourism which:

- helps to achieve a better balance between the objectives and needs of the people, businesses and agencies affected by tourism.

- reduces strategic risks to the industry by maintaining high environmental quality;
- focuses on environmental awareness in every part of the sector;
- respects and provides appropriately for the values and concerns of tangata whenua;
- urgently tackles site-specific critical issues;
- recognises the appropriate complementary roles of the private and public components of the tourism sector; and
- promotes an industry–government partnership to incorporate quality in all aspects of environmental management in the New Zealand tourism sector.

7.2 The process for developing a strategy

A number of possible frameworks or mechanisms for the process for developing a new strategy have been put forward during the investigation.

- A National Policy Statement for Tourism under the RMA: this option is not favoured, because an effective strategy for sustainable tourism could not be confined to an RMA framework.
- An industry-led National Tourism Strategic Plan has already been initiated by the NZTIA. This initiative should receive wide participation by the industry, but in order to ensure the kind of broad vision for tourism that is required, participation by a wider range of interested parties will be necessary, including the government sector and non-government sectors other than industry.
- A national tourism conference along the lines of the Tourism 2000 conference in 1989. A single event is unlikely to be able to deliver the outcomes sought from the process.
- A more extensive and consultative process than a single conference, ie a sector-wide strategic development process, perhaps lasting up to a year, with a series of forums, dialogues and analyses of commissioned research. Such a process may result in part in a ‘Tourism 2010’ Strategy, analogous to the Environment 2010 and Research, Science & Technology 2010 strategies which already exist.
- A Tourism Accord between industry and environmental NGOs, similar to the 1991 New Zealand Forest Accord, has also been raised. Many people have commented on the difficulty of getting environmental and industry representatives talking constructively together, but an accord could be a positive initiative.
- Using the opportunity of the special events in the year 2000 to set up Year 2000 milestones relating to the sustainability of the
industry, for example, industry standards, or an integrated monitoring strategy for tourism.

Of these options, the **strategic development process** option is favoured by the Commissioner. The Tourism Accord and Year 2000 milestones would be useful complementary mechanisms.

The development of a strategy for sustainable tourism should be lead by the tourism industry, specifically the NZTIA, in partnership with the Minister of Tourism. However, the strategy will require the commitment of all parts of the tourism sector, and the input of:

- Government Ministers (including primarily the Ministers of Conservation, Environment, Maori Affairs, Local Government, and Transport) and agencies;
- local government;
- tangata whenua; and
- all interested parties.

In the development of a strategy for sustainable tourism, there will need to be close attention given to the relative roles and responsibilities of the two principal government agencies involved in the tourism sector, the TPG and the NZTB, and the relationships between their work, to ensure:

- a fully integrated strategy for sustainable tourism to provide a wider context for tourism marketing and product development;
- better coordination of policy advice from all public agencies concerning tourism to Ministers; and
- that the public sector organisations that work with the industry represent the goals and objectives of New Zealanders generally.

DOC has a central role in managing the environmental effects associated with tourism on the conservation estate. As noted above, DOC should retain responsibility for visitor services and concessions management on the conservation estate, to ensure an integrated approach is taken to conservation management. However, DOC’s visitor management and the development of a sustainable approach to the whole tourism sector should be closely inter-related.

A strategy for sustainable tourism must involve Maori in their role as Treaty partner, and as provided for in the RMA and the Conservation Act. In developing a strategy it must be recognised that the kaitiaki role of tangata whenua is about:

- better environmental management within an overall kaupapa of long-term sustainability for future generations; and
- better protection of those irreplaceable taonga that make all our lives, both residents and visitors, richer and more meaningful.

### 7.2.2 The principal government agencies

### 7.2.3 Participation of Maori
A strategy should ensure that Maori receive appropriate benefit from their participation in tourism at all levels, and in particular have discretion and control over the use of their cultural and environmental heritage and resources, and over the interpretation of natural values, culture history and prehistory. While there are various ways in which more satisfactory Maori participation can be achieved, Maori themselves need to be involved in assessing the impacts and priorities, and determining the most suitable strategic approach and practical mechanisms.

### 7.2.4 Industry standards, codes of practice, and brands

There have been suggestions that a system of standards, codes of practice or specific branding marks within the industry be developed to ensure quality and consistency, and provide an incentive for operators to adhere to environmentally and culturally appropriate practice (see Box 5.6 for further discussion in relation to eco-tourism). There are strong promotional incentives to do this, with the increasing market for genuine experiences in the natural environment and rewarding contacts with indigenous cultures. The existing Qualmark and New Zealand Way schemes are useful precedents for encouraging recognition for quality products and services. Other options include:

- A code of practice or a brandmark for New Zealand eco-tourism, to protect legitimate eco-tourism operators and ensure more consistent quality in the eco-tourism industry. This would require that operating practices and principles be defined to limit adverse effects on the natural environment, minimise resource use and ensure sensitivity towards the natural and social values.
- A brandmark system to authenticate the cultural heritage dimensions of tourism products and services, and guarantee cultural integrity. The Aotearoa Maori Tourism Federation has begun work on developing a quality and authenticity framework for cultural tourism products, including services and souvenirs.
- Safety standards, codes and controls, to ensure protection of visitors undertaking activities in the natural environment.

There is debate in the tourism sector about where responsibility and coordination for such mechanisms should lie. Adequate resourcing would need to be allocated for the development, establishment, promotion and maintenance of standards, codes or brandmarks. Fees or contributions from member operators and/or national agencies could also be considered.

Some operators feel that if standards are voluntary the costs of compliance disadvantage those who adhere to the standard. Generally government is reluctant to impose regulations, preferring industry control. However, it is unlikely that in all cases a totally voluntary approach to these standards would be sufficient. A recent analysis of
regulation mechanisms for the Australian tourism industry has come to a similar conclusion (Huybers and Bennett 1997).

A reasonable compromise may be for legislation for compulsory membership of an industry organisation in at least certain sections of the industry where critical environmental, health, or safety considerations are at stake (eg some types of adventure tourism, some types of DOC concessions), with powers for the industry association to impose minimum standards or codes of practice. At any rate, the strategic development process outlined above must include the development of a framework and timetable for a comprehensive set of industry standards.

Mechanisms such as industry standards, codes of practice and quality brandmark systems can contribute significantly to better environmental outcomes, although in some cases a totally voluntary approach will not be sufficient to achieve those outcomes.

This investigation found many instances where education and training are significant issues in the recognition, assessment and management of the environmental effects associated with tourism. These issues relate to the industry, to school and tertiary programmes and to tourists and the general public.

There are an increasing number of tertiary tourism-related training programmes and studies now available, including some with emphasis on management of environmental effects. A wide range of post-graduate studies are also available, allowing more integration of teaching and research by academic staff. Industry initiatives, notably KiwiHost, provide practical hospitality training for people in the tourism industry. An environmental element should be included in most such training programmes.

There have been calls for more education of international tourists regarding appropriate behaviour towards the environment. However, generally it is felt that international tourists are positively disposed towards the New Zealand environment. Tourists are usually attracted by New Zealand’s environmental qualities and many, especially from the ‘mature’ markets, are used to stringent environmental protection. Indeed sometimes overseas visitors have been reported as being unimpressed with aspects of New Zealanders’ treatment of the environment and lack of control of some activities. Where problems occur with international tourists, they may often flow from decisions made by the providers of tourism facilities and services that are beyond the control of the individual tourist.

Thus, there is a need for more long-term general education and awareness in the New Zealand public – both as domestic tourists and
as citizens – about the various interactions between visitors and the environment. This would be focused on different groups in society, eg sections of the tourism sector for environmental awareness in their planning and operations, school environmental programmes, and awareness programmes and ‘care codes’ for New Zealand tourists and recreationists. The process of developing a strategy for sustainable tourism would offer opportunities for media campaigns and increasing awareness of the key issues.

7.3 Goals and anticipated outcomes

The outcomes of the sustainable tourism strategy should include:
- financially sustainable businesses that are able to continue to capture the benefits of tourism for New Zealand;
- better balance between tourism marketing and effects management;
- better targeting to match demand (visitors) with supply (environmentally sound products);
- the right mix of tourism product to achieve sustainable tourism;
- appropriate funding for research, management and promotion;
- costs being borne where the benefit accrues;
- consideration of legislative review in relation to the objectives and functions of tourism-related agencies, responsibilities of management agencies, clarity of roles and responsibilities, and mechanisms for communication and liaison between agencies;
- clearer agency roles, especially in relation to local government;
- political commitment to sustainable tourism;
- quality systems (brandmarks etc) that ensure a quality tourism product and promote sustainable practices in the tourism industry;
- agency ability to manage their responsibilities, eg empowering management agencies like DOC, Fish and Game New Zealand, and the Historic Places Trust, to limit access and control numbers of visitors to particular areas;
- data, monitoring and research focused for sustainable tourism; and
- consideration and review of present government structures relating to tourism to give clear objectives relating to sustainable tourism for New Zealand.
8 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1 Tourism contributes substantially to the New Zealand economy and is closely entwined with New Zealand life.

2 There is a wide range of environmental effects associated with the tourism sector, some of which have the long-term potential to seriously damage both the environment and the industry itself. Social and cultural effects are widely perceived as being of more concern than biophysical effects at the present time.

3 There is a range of effects associated with tourism of particular importance to tangata whenua. These effects must be recognised and respected, and appropriate provisions for dealing with them integrated into assessment, planning and management for the tourism sector.

4 The environmental qualities underpinning tourism are at risk in some areas. Visitor pressure on some ‘icon’ attractions (eg Waitomo Caves, Milford Sound) cannot be sustained even in the medium term without major attention being given to reducing adverse visitor effects.

5 There are serious limitations in information about the environmental effects associated with tourism. This is a major constraint on the assessment and management of those effects, and a major risk for the tourism sector. The availability of basic statistics and other relevant information relating to tourism is variable. In particular, there is a significant lack of data about domestic tourism.

6 Data gathering, research and monitoring programmes are generally not well targeted or integrated with day-to-day and long-term environmental management within the relevant government agencies or the tourism industry.

7 The system for tourism management, including management of environmental effects, performs well in parts and is partially succeeding in managing this dynamic economic sector. Overall, however, the government system for management of tourism is fragmented, especially between agencies which promote tourism and those which manage its effects. There are few mechanisms for communication and coordination between different parts of the tourism sector.

8.1 Conclusions

Environmental effects
The management of environmental effects in the tourism sector is more difficult because New Zealand’s strategic approach to tourism has been primarily focused on maximising the benefits from increased international visitor numbers.

Government requires a strong source of neutral policy advice on the development of the tourism sector, but in recent years has not retained sufficient capacity for such advice. This is a significant strategic weakness for a sector as important to New Zealand as tourism.

Government agencies have very little ability to influence the direction of the tourism industry and thus its environmental effects.

Since the formation of the New Zealand Tourism Board, its effective marketing activities have largely driven the New Zealand tourism sector, to an extent that may have outstripped the capacity of the sector to manage the environmental consequences of tourism growth. This may be related to the setting of NZTB objectives in isolation from more wide-ranging objectives for the sector as a whole.

On the conservation estate, the Department of Conservation has the primary responsibility for managing the environmental effects associated with tourism. It is appropriate that DOC should retain responsibility for visitor services, including concessions management, as part of its management responsibilities.

Outside the conservation estate, local authorities have the primary responsibility for managing the environmental effects associated with tourism. Their performance in this role varies widely.

Regional Tourism Organisations have a crucial role in tourism management, which should include a strategic approach to tourism development at local and regional levels, as well as marketing. Such an approach should be linked to any national strategies.

In some areas funding issues need attention. The most significant are: the management of tourism effects on the conservation estate; provision of infrastructure at the local level; and the gathering of data for tourism management. Research and analysis are needed to determine accurately the current levels of investment by government agencies in the tourism sector, and appropriate means of targeting resources to ensure effective management of the environmental effects associated with tourism.

Mechanisms such as industry standards, codes of practice and quality brandmark systems can contribute significantly to better
environmental outcomes, although in some cases a totally voluntary approach will not be sufficient to achieve those outcomes.

**Participation**

17 Host communities generally want the benefits of tourism but also want its negative effects minimised. Many communities, iwi and hapu, and interest groups are concerned about their inability to take part in decision-making on tourism issues, and seek better involvement in planning and managing the effects of tourism in their area.

18 There has been insufficient opportunity for tangata whenua to participate in policy and decision-making for the tourism sector. Improved understanding and communication would help in achieving better environmental outcomes, more satisfactory integration of Maori values and priorities, and fulfilment of the requirements of the legislation regarding the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi. Maori must have the primary role in determining appropriate ways to achieve this.

19 There is widespread agreement that tourism in New Zealand should be managed sustainably and marketed on the basis that New Zealand is a high-quality, product-led tourist destination. Tourism’s reliance on the quality of both the natural environment and visitors’ experiences is also generally recognised. However, there are systemic problems which hinder the achievement of this goal.

20 There has as yet been insufficient discussion on what is meant by ‘sustainable tourism’ in New Zealand, and what it would involve for the tourism sector.

21 The nature of the tourism sector and its management systems at present make it very difficult for tourism to achieve its potential and to deliver the sustainable, quality tourism product for New Zealand that is universally desired, without a more generally agreed strategy for sustainable tourism in New Zealand. Such a strategy is a more important priority than any single environmental management issue.

22 A key priority is thus the development of a vision and strategy for the whole tourism sector, both private and public, that would set a future basis for the management of environmental effects associated with tourism.
23 The key outcome of such a process would be a strategic direction for tourism which:
- reduces strategic risks to the industry by maintaining high environmental quality;
- focuses on environmental awareness in every part of the sector;
- respects and provides appropriately for the values and concerns of tangata whenua;
- urgently tackles site-specific critical issues;
- recognises the appropriate complementary roles of the private and public components of the tourism sector; and
- promotes an industry-government partnership to incorporate quality in all aspects of environmental management in the New Zealand tourism sector.

8.2 Recommendations

To the Minister of Tourism

Facilitate and resource the development of a strategy for sustainable tourism for New Zealand, in partnership with the New Zealand Tourism Industry Association and in consultation with the Ministers of Conservation, Local Government, Environment, Maori Affairs, and Transport, and all interested parties. The development of the strategy should be in accordance with the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi, and should provide for the practical expression of kaitiakitanga by iwi and hapu.

Other recommendations

To the Minister of Tourism

1. Facilitate further research into environmental effects associated with the tourism sector, in particular:
   - the development of environmental indicators for tourism effects;
   - the gathering and analysis of data on domestic and international travel and activity patterns; and
   - limits of acceptable change for ecological and biological systems on which tourism depends.

2. Provide for compulsory membership of an industry organisation in sections of the tourism industry where critical environmental, health, or safety considerations are at stake, with powers to impose minimum standards or codes of practice.
To the New Zealand Tourism Industry Association

3. Continue as a priority the development of industry standards, codes of practice and branding mechanisms for the tourism industry, with particular emphasis on the environment. This should occur both independently and in conjunction with the development of a strategy for sustainable tourism.

To the Minister for the Environment

4. Invest in the development of methodologies to help environmental managers to assess and manage cumulative effects on the environment.
APPENDIX 1  PEOPLE AND ORGANISATIONS CONSULTED

This list records substantive interviews held during investigation. Where possible all people spoken to are listed by name, excluding a few larger group meetings. People are listed either as representing an organisation (names in bracket following organisation) or as individuals (listed alphabetically by surname).

Auckland
Auckland City Council staff (Janine Bell, Wayne Donnelly, Penny Pirritt)
Auckland Civic Trust (group including representatives of other community and environmental groups)
Auckland Regional Council (Greg Hill, Alan Moore)
Department of Conservation, Auckland conservancy (Samantha Wells)
Environmental Hotels of Auckland (David Comery, Brian Moore, Warren Smith)
Vision Hauraki (Anna Cassells-Brown)

Christchurch
Adventure Tourism Council (Geoff Gabites)
Boffa Miskell, Christchurch (Robert Greenaway, Kim Morland)
Christchurch Casino (Arthur Pitcher, Patricia Thornton)
Department of Conservation, Canterbury conservancy (Andy Thompson, Alan Wooster)
Fish and Game Nelson-Marlborough Region (Neil Deans)
David Given, consultant
Lincoln University (Kay Booth, Ross Cullen, David Simmons, Jonet Ward)
Lucas Associates (Di Lucas)
Maui Motorhomes (Graham Russell)
Ministry for the Environment, Southern Regional Office (Gus Roxburgh)
New Zealand Professional Fishing Guides Association (Frank Murphy)
Ngai Tahu Group Management, Christchurch (Gabrielle Huria)
Ngai Tahu Property Developments (Tony Sewell)
North Canterbury Conservation Board (Paul McGahan, Barbara Spurr)
Royal Forest and Bird Protection Society of New Zealand, Christchurch Regional Field Office (Eugenie Sage)
Tourism Canterbury (Jeanette Elliott)

Coromandel Peninsula
Combined Coromandel Peninsula Ratepayers Association (representative group)
Thames-Coromandel District Council staff (Graeme Lawrence)
Tourism Coromandel Inc (Jim Archibald)
Dunedin
Department of Conservation, Otago conservancy (Ian Whitwell)
Dunedin City Council staff (Robert Tongue)
Geoff Kearsley, Otago University Centre for Tourism
New Zealand Deerstalkers Association, Dunedin (Chaz Forsyth)
Otago Conservation Board (Jill Hamel)
Otago Peninsula Trust (Alan Gilbert)
Neville Peat, author/researcher, Dunedin
Penguin Place (Scott Clarke, Howard McGrouther)
Royal Forest and Bird Protection Society of New Zealand, Dunedin, Regional Field Office (Sue Maturin)
Tourism Dunedin (Cherry Lucas)

Queenstown – Lakes District
AJ Hackett Bungy (Henry Van Ash)
Arrowtown and District Residents’ Association (representative group)
John Davies, Tourism Milford
Department of Conservation, Queenstown Field Centre (Phil Blakeley, Dawn Palmer)
Destination Queenstown (John MacDonald)
Fish and Game Otago Region (Tom Kroos)
Gardens Parkroyal Hotel, (Robert Coates)
Kai Tahu ki Otago Runanga (Edward Ellison)
Bill Nagle, Lakes District Community Advocate Society
Barry Lawrence
Bill Neilson, South Pacific Hotels
New Zealand Tourism Board, Queenstown Regional Liaison Manager (Sarah McLauchlan)
Philip Phillips, Riverstone Holdings Limited
Queenstown Airport Corporation (Chris Read)
Queenstown Community Network, Q-Net (representative group)
Queenstown-Lakes District Council (Mayor Warren Cooper, Cr Leslie Burton, Cr Peter Rennie, Keith Grantham, Rene Kampman)
Motel Association of New Zealand, Queenstown (Stuart Carter)
Norm Ruru, tourism operator, Queenstown
Skyline Gondola and Restaurant (Peter Coppens)
The Guardians, Queenstown (Neil Clayton)
Tourism Holdings Limited, Queenstown (Tony Hill)
Wakatipu Environmental Society (representative group)
Wilderness Adventures Limited (Steve Hart)

Rotorua – Bay of Plenty
Aotearoa Maori Tourism Federation (Roana Bennett)
Bay of Plenty Conservation Board (Board Members)
Leith Comer, Ngati Rangitikei Trustees
Department of Conservation, Rotorua conservancy (Chris Clark, Dave Field, Broniek Kazmierow)
Environment Bay of Plenty staff (Paul Dell, John Mandemaker, John Whale)
Fish and Game, Eastern Region (Steve Smith)
Harvey James, Waimangu Volcanic Valley concession holder
Kaitiaki Tarawera (Fred Stevens, Kim Young)
Martin Oppermann, Management Development Centre, Waiariki Polytechnic
Ministry of Maori Development, Te Puni Kokiri, Rotorua (Karen Grant, Maria Tini)
Motel Association of New Zealand, Rotorua Branch (Jackie Cates, Colin Driscoll)
New Zealand Tourism Board, Rotorua Regional Liaison Manager (Paul Nixon)
Ngati Pikiao, kaumatua group
Rotorua District Council, (Mayor Grahame Hall, Cr Peter Barry, Mark Dyer, Brian Hughes, John Sholl, Joanne Watts, Mike Vine)
Royal Forest and Bird Protection Society of New Zealand Rotorua Branch (Herb Madgwick, Elizabeth Madgwick)
Te Arawa Maori Trust Board
Te Arawa Standing Committee (Maureen Waaka)
Tourism Rotorua (Tim Cossar)

**Waitomo**
John Ash, Black Water Rafting, Waitomo
Department of Conservation, Te Kuiti Field Centre (Peter Devlin, Ray Scrimgeour, Dave Smith)
Tane Tinorau Opataia Hapu Trust, Waitomo
Waikato Conservation Board (Board Members)
Waitomo Caves Community Committee
Waitomo District Council staff (Paul Davey)

**Wellington**
Air New Zealand (Irene King, Vanessa Moore)
Camille Astbury, consultant
Julie Warren Centre for Research, Evaluation and Social Assessment
Civil Aviation Authority (Owen Batchelor, Peter Black, Terry Knight)
Department of Conservation, Science and Research Division (Gordon Cessford, Paul Dingwall)
Department of Conservation, Head Office (Bev Abbott, Andrew Bignell, Alan Edmonds, Jane McKessar, Harry Maher, Nigel Parrott)
Department of Internal Affairs (Mark McGuire)
Federated Mountain Clubs of New Zealand (Owen Cox)
Fish and Game New Zealand (Bryce Johnson)
Foundation for Research, Science and Technology (Emma Speight)
Michael Hall, Tourism and Services Management, Victoria University of Wellington
Land Transport Safety Authority (Joan Smith)
Local Government New Zealand (John Hutchings, Kathryn Ross)
Barry Lucinsky, Environmental Endeavour Company, Horowhenua
Hon Murray McCully, Minister of Tourism
Maritime Safety Authority (David Crawford)
Ministry for the Environment, Wellington (Terry Smith, Sarah Stewart, Sue Veart)
Ministry of Commerce (Paul Carpinter, Alan Davies, Neil Plimmer)
Ministry of Cultural Affairs (Murray Costello)
Ministry of Maori Development, Wellington (Kumar Bajaj, Takiora Ingram)
New Zealand Conservation Authority (Authority members)
New Zealand Hospitality Association, Wellington (Bruce Robertson)
New Zealand Tourism Board (Board members)
New Zealand Tourism Board, Head Office staff (Bev Abbott, Carol Gunn, Kurt Jansen, Roger Smith, Peter Winder, Paul Winter)
New Zealand Tourism Industry Association (Board)
New Zealand Tourism Industry Association staff (Glenys Coughlan, Tony King)
Damien O’Connor, Opposition Spokesperson on Tourism, Wellington
Carolyn O’Fallon, researcher
Royal Forest and Bird Protection Society of New Zealand Inc, Executive (Mike Harding, Claire Stevens)
Tony Staniford, consultant, Wellington
Statistics New Zealand (Suzy Carson, Frank Nolan)
Tourism Policy Group, Ministry of Commerce (Ted Fraser, Kathe Huse, Robert Sowman, Albert Stafford)
Transit New Zealand (David Young)
World Wildlife Fund, New Zealand (Chris Laidlaw, Kath Short, Simon Towle)

**West Coast**

Buller District Council (Cr Jan Coll, Cr John O’Connor, Lillie Sadler, Sue Thomson)
Department of Conservation, Punakaiki Field Centre (Deborah Cardin)
Department of Conservation, West Coast conservancy (Viv Smith)
Marian van der Goes, Lake Brunner Lodge
Penny Hutchins, Te Anau
Nor’west Tours, Westport (Geoff Schurr)
Paparoa Liaison Group
Bruce Watson, consultant, Hokitika
West Coast Conservation Board (Bruce Hamilton)
West Coast Regional Council staff (Rebecca Inwood)
West Coast Tourism Council, Westport (Pat McManus)
APPENDIX 2 SUMMARY OF CRITICAL ISSUES AND QUESTIONS

The following is reproduced from the December 1996 statement issued by the Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment, Summary of Critical Issues and Questions

The government system for management of environmental effects associated with the tourism sector

In general, what sort of government management system at central and local levels should be in place and is there a coherent system at present? Where does accountability for management lie? There is general agreement that any management system should attempt to balance benefits and costs of tourism, but much less agreement on whether it should:

- regulate use or regulate effects;
- focus on avoidance or mitigation of adverse effects;
- mitigate adverse effects by concentrating and intensively managing them in small areas, or dispersing them over a larger area;
- incorporate management approaches other than regulation (eg economic/market, education, voluntary efforts).

Legislative basis: The lack of agreement on all the above points indicates continuing widespread uncertainty concerning the implementation of the Resource Management Act (RMA), the principal legislative basis for management of environmental effects in the tourism sector. Many interested parties indicate that they have difficulty having an effective input into RMA policies, plans and resource consent matters affecting the sector. On the other hand, much of the tourism sector operates under other legislation which may impinge on the management of environmental effects in the sector, even though such legislation exists for reasons other than environmental management. Examples include civil aviation and land transport regulations, immigration and border controls, and Occupational Safety and Health requirements. Do requirements under these types of legislation conflict with RMA principles?

Central government agencies: Does the Ministry of Commerce (Tourism Policy Group) and New Zealand Tourism Board structure adequately recognise responsibilities for planning or regulating environmental effects in the tourism sector? The Department of Conservation is responsible for managing all visitors to the conservation estate, either directly or through a concessions regime. There has been much debate about this responsibility in relation to other responsibilities of the department. Outside the conservation estate, is there an adequate system for management of tourism
environmental effects by other public agencies (for example in transport and waste management), and for management of social impacts?

**Local authorities and organisations:** Local government has potentially conflicting roles in both promoting and regulating tourism in their areas. There is apprehension in many areas about the adequacy of the local rating base to provide the necessary infrastructure and adequately manage all environmental effects associated with tourism. What is the appropriate role of Regional Tourism Organisations with respect to environmental aspects of the sector?

**Funding:** There is considerable debate about the adequacy and most appropriate source of revenue for managing visitor effects. What is the appropriate balance between funding from the public and private sectors in this area, and between national and local funding? At the local level, tourism often brings economic benefits, but on the other hand visitors do not directly contribute to the rating base of local authorities.

**Coordination:** Is coordination between government management agencies adequate? How should management agencies best liaise with a very diverse industry?

**Diverse nature of tourism**
By its nature, the tourism sector is very diverse and fragmented. In many ways it does not constitute an industry but rather a diverse range of activities and support requirements of diverse groups of people. These activities and support requirements may be similar to those of everyday life (see below). There are a small number of large companies and a large number of small operators serving visitors; many of both categories also provide services outside the tourism sector. How broadly ‘tourism’ is defined is of critical importance in terms of the total level of environmental effects it has, for example whether it includes ‘everyday’ recreation activities of New Zealanders, or business travel.

**Environmental effects of visitors**
Because of the diverse nature of tourism, its environmental effects involve almost every facet of New Zealand life. What are the resource requirements of visitors and how are they reflected in environmental effects? To what extent do these environmental effects vary from those of everyday life in local communities? What kinds of visitors have what kind of environmental effects (both beneficial and adverse), and in what way do they influence sustainable resource management? Are there significant differences in the environmental effects of international and domestic visitors, and casual recreationalists, which need to be recognised in the system for managing these effects? Where there are adverse effects, how are these most appropriately assessed against economic or environmental benefits?
Environmental effects from visitors’ infrastructure needs, eg accommodation, transport: Are they different from those of the general population – if so do they need different management?

Environmental effects from visitors’ activities: There has been considerable debate about the environmental effects of growing visitor numbers on conservation places and values, particularly on the public conservation estate administered by the Department of Conservation. It is recognised that New Zealand’s tourism industry is largely dependent on these places and values, especially for marketing to international visitors. However, the specific level and intensity of use of the conservation estate and other natural areas by various categories of visitors is far from clear. Environmental effects in other areas, eg historic buildings and sites, places of significance to Maori, public places, transport corridors, coastal areas, appear to have received less attention. Eco-tourism, which is rapidly growing, has arisen partly in response to perceived effects of more traditional forms of tourism. Does eco-tourism have its own range of environmental effects which require specific management?

Social and cultural effects of tourism: Tourism can have significant social and cultural effects, especially on smaller communities. It is recognised that sustainable tourism depends on community acceptance. To what extent is this recognised in marketing and development strategies and to what extent can it be managed?

Conflicts over specific places: Controversy about tourism and its environmental effects has usually centred on specific natural areas (eg Milford Sound, Abel Tasman National Park, Waitomo Caves). It may be necessary to distinguish between conflicts over environmental effects and conflicts over land use, for example whether a place should be managed primarily for visitors’ needs or for its intrinsic values. To what extent does, or should, management of environmental effects of visitors reflect such conflict?

Research and monitoring
Concern has been expressed about the lack of some types of information necessary for understanding and managing environmental effects of tourism, and the lack of environmental indicators for tourism. Is there an adequate system for monitoring tourism environmental effects and their sustainability? Is there adequate research in general on environmental effects associated with tourism?

Strategies for the tourism sector
A government Strategic Result Area emphasises the ‘development of policies for the sustainable growth of the tourism sector based upon avoiding, remedying or mitigating adverse effects on the environmental attractions on which the industry depends’. Reconciling the goal of
avoiding, remedying or mitigating adverse impacts with a goal of strong continuing foreign exchange earnings from tourism may be difficult. What are the parameters and determinants of sustainable growth under these circumstances, and how should targets for visitor numbers be set? For example, what relevance does the concept of carrying capacity have? Many regions are now carrying out regional tourism studies and implementing regional tourism strategies. Is coordination required between regional and national strategies?

**Involvement of interested parties**

In a sector as diverse as tourism, the appropriate involvement of interested parties is likely to be difficult. Fundamental issues such as public rights of access and use of natural resources are involved. How do various stakeholders including industry, tangata whenua, environmental groups and local communities participate in planning and environmental management for tourism, and resolving disputes about specific places?
APPENDIX 3 CRITERIA FOR ASSESSMENT

See Chapter 1.4.5 for explanation of use of these criteria.

a. **Management responsibilities are clear, comprehensive and coordinated**
   1. Statutes or other policy instruments clearly define responsibilities for managing infrastructure and promotion to support tourism and the environmental effects from tourism.
   2. Liaison, information sharing, and coordination occurs between national agencies, tourism industry groups, and local authorities in affected areas.
   3. Gaps and overlaps between responsibilities and/or funding are identified and solutions sought.
   4. National and regional overviews of planning for a sustainable tourism industry are regularly prepared and updated.
   5. Where individual agencies have multiple and potentially conflicting roles, transparency and separation mechanisms are in place (eg: RMA consents, infrastructure planning, and tourism promotion by local authorities).

b. **Tourism is planned and managed so as to avoid, remedy or mitigate adverse environmental effects and be sustainable over the long term**
   1. Relevant legislation and other policy instruments are consistent with ss 5 to 8 and 17 of the RMA.
   2. The environmental effects and associated measures to avoid, remedy or mitigate those effects are identified and documented for both preferred options and alternatives before decisions are made.
   3. The final choice of preferred option is chosen so as to minimise adverse effect to resources and communities as well as to maximise benefit to local and national economy.
   4. Where likely effects on natural and physical resources are unknown, a precautionary approach is taken.

c. **Decision-makers are accountable to and consult with key stakeholders**
   1. Objectives/policies/strategies are set with involvement of stakeholders at appropriate scale of interest.
   2. Assessments of environmental effect and proposals to minimise adverse effect are checked for accuracy and acceptability with likely affected parties before final decisions are made (particularly with host communities and tangata whenua for specific tourist destinations).
   3. The consultation process, response to concerns, and setting of objectives/policies/strategies is transparent (eg clearly reported to stakeholders and the public).
d. Effects monitoring and other research is undertaken to support sustainable tourism
   1. Environmental effects of existing tourism facilities and activities are monitored both locally and nationally so as to check predictions, better understand outcomes, and improve planning for minimisation of effects in future.
   2. Resultant databases are compatible, shared between agencies, and available for public scrutiny (except commercially confidential or tribally sensitive information).
   3. Indicators of environmental carrying capacity for tourist destination areas are developed and updated reflecting the results of the monitoring database.

e. Costs are shared by the parties which receive the benefits
   1. Assessment of environmental effects includes analysis of costs and benefits (both financial and intangible) that will be borne by local, regional, national and commercial entities and tourists. Costs include the resources required to avoid, remedy or mitigate adverse effects to host communities or natural and physical resources of the tourist destination.
   2. Statutes or other policy instruments enable the allocation of costs commensurate with benefits.
   3. Tourism management agencies can demonstrate that benefit-cost analysis has been done prior to major decisions, and costs have been allocated fairly.
The following material is based on a contract report for the Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment, prepared by Professor Geoff Kearsley of Otago University Centre for Tourism.

**Tourism**
Tourism can be defined at a variety of levels. In a narrow sense it can be seen as a sector of national and regional economies or it can be defined in terms of an all-inclusive system with very broad boundaries.

Jafari (1977) defines tourism as ‘The study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry that responds to his needs, and of the impacts that both he and the industry have on the host’s socio-cultural, economic and physical environments’. Thus, he defines tourism as the behaviour of markets and of suppliers and the consequences of their activities for host communities.

This view is continued by Pearce (1989) who believes that ‘tourism ... is the relationships and phenomena arising out of the journeys and temporary stays of people travelling primarily for leisure or recreational purposes.’ The essential components of travel and overnight stay are recognised, but Pearce focuses upon recreational tourism and tends to downplay business travel, which is included, together with visiting friends and relatives, in Jafari’s formula. Hamilton-Smith (1987) tends to endorse this viewpoint when he talks of tourism as a form of leisure.

Murphy (1985) has written extensively on community-based tourism and the effects of tourism on host communities. He defines tourism as ‘the sum of ... the travel of non-residents (tourists, including excursionists) to destination areas, so long as their sojourn does not become a permanent residence. It is a combination of recreation and business.’ This is based upon the long-standing definition of Hunziker and Krapf (1951) which was widely adopted within the industry. They say that tourism is ‘the sum of the phenomena and the relationships arising from the travel and stay of non-residents, insofar as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not connected with any earning activity.’

One way of clarifying the situation with regards to business travel is to say that tourism is a leisure oriented sub-set of the larger realm of travel, of which business travel is a subordinate part. Certainly, this allows for a division based upon motivation, but it does not allow for the increasingly common multi-purpose trip and the fact that many
business travellers in fact consume tourist goods, such as restaurants, theatre, cultural displays or even core products such as sightseeing trips or souvenirs.

In recent years, attempts to define tourism in behavioural terms have been made. Simmons (1995), for example, states that ‘tourism is the behaviour of tourists’, while Leiper (1995) suggests that ‘Tourism can be defined as the theories and practices of travelling and visiting places for leisure related purposes.’ He further adds, ‘Tourism comprises the ideas and opinions people hold which shape their decisions about going on trips, about where to go (and where not to go) and what to do or not to do, and how to relate to other tourists, locals and service personnel. And it is all the behavioural manifestations of those ideas and opinions.’ Leiper had previously described tourism as a system in which tourists act within a framework of traveller-generating and tourist destination regions. This, however, is more of a description of an approach to study than it is a definition.

Definitions of tourism are sometimes bounded by the standard definition of tourist which requires that a visitor should be away from home for at least 24 hours to qualify, otherwise she or he is an excursionist. All definitions agree that there is an essential component of travel to outside the tourist’s home region or normal place of residence and that the visit must be short term and not permanent. Most definitions agree that tourism involves a complex set of relationships between people, products, host communities and public goods (such as scenery or cathedrals). There is less agreement over whether tourism should include the concept of business travel, although it is widely accepted that it should within the New Zealand tourist industry.

Most countries differentiate between international and domestic tourists, although the effects of both types can be similar, especially as regards physical and natural environments; socially there is a clearer distinction.

For the purposes of this study, the definition of tourism should be broad enough to cover all visitor and industry behaviour, but should also be capable of subdivision into distinctive parts where those parts (such as business or educational travel) have distinctive effects. Tourism should include domestic and international travellers since both consume tourist products, often similar ones. As well as visitors in New Zealand for recreation and pleasure, the definition should include visiting friends and relatives because a great deal of standard tourist behaviour is included before, during and after the visit to friends and relatives. Business travel should also be included, especially as it relates to conferences and incentive travel because, again, business travellers often consume some tourism products and make significant economic contributions to the industry and host communities.
Tourism should thus be defined in terms of the nature and behaviour of people who travel away from home for a temporary stay, the characteristics of the industries that provide travel, accommodation and other products and services for them, and the impacts of tourists and the tourist industry on the economic, social and biophysical environments that receive them or are influenced by their presence elsewhere.

This definition excludes recreationists and excursionists who may also consume tourist product or impact upon host communities, but, by definition, such people are within their own home area and are thus part of the host community.

**Tourist**

In many ways the definition of ‘tourist’ is intimately bound up with that of tourism. One of the early and more enduring broad definitions of a tourist is that of Cohen (1974), who says that ‘A tourist is a voluntary, temporary traveller, travelling in the expectation of pleasure from the novelty and change experienced on a relatively long and non recurrent round trip.’

Cohen thus asserts that tourists travel for pleasure on a relatively unusual expedition. This, however, is a relatively narrow and loosely defined expression.

Simmons and Leiper (1994) note that there are popular definitions, technical ones and *ad hoc* study specific notions. This is so, but in most circles involved in the business or study of tourism, some quite clear agreements as to definition exist.

There are two quite similar technical expressions that are in wide use. A 1963 United Nations conference on International Travel and Tourism recommended that an international tourist be defined as ‘a temporary visitor staying at least 24 hours in the country visited and the purpose of whose journey can be classified under one of the following headings:

(i) leisure (recreation, holidays, study, religion, sport);
(ii) business, family, friends, mission, meetings.

A quite similar variant that is used for the collection of international statistics in particular is that provided by the World Tourism Organisation (1981) in their Technical Handbook on the Collection and Presentation of Domestic and International Tourism Statistics, namely ‘Any person residing within a country, irrespective of nationality, travelling to a place within this country other than his usual place of residence for a period of not less than 24 hours or one night for a purpose other than the exercise of a remunerated activity in the place visited. The motives for such travel may be:

(i) leisure (recreation, holidays, health, studies, religion, sports);
(ii) *business, family, mission, meeting.*

In the WTO definition, tourists are paralleled by excursionists who are simply day visitors and who include cruise ship passengers who stay on shore for less than 24 hours. Taken together, both groups comprise the set of visitors, themselves a subset of travellers. Business travellers are counted as tourists, but they are accorded a clearly separate category. This definition is that which accords with the NZ Tourism Board’s use of the word ‘tourist’.

Simmons and Leiper (1994) point out that tourists may be differentiated by more than simply duration and distance of visit, and make the point that the tourist experience usually involves moving out of the daily world into a changed place where patterns of behaviour and expectations may well be different, so that tourists not only travel spatially, but mentally and behaviourally as well. The tourist experience is said to be of longer duration than most leisure experiences; it is infrequent, provides more than usual opportunities for socialisation, is costly, exclusive and discrete. In this sense, tourism is a different experience to a local excursion and may therefore have distinctive social and behavioural effects.

The definition of a tourist is so firmly rooted in industry and academic perceptions that it would require compelling reasons to depart from the WTO approach and it is recommended that this be retained, but that the clear distinctions between domestic and international and leisure and business tourists be retained.

**Visitor**

The term ‘visitor’ has a common definition that includes tourists, excursionists and anyone else who arrives temporarily at a given destination: literally, visitors are people who visit. The term may be used in this sense to refer to anyone who goes to a site or destination; sometimes it is used synonymously with ‘tourist’, as in the phrase ‘international visitors’. It has been suggested as having less derogatory implications than the word ‘tourist’, although the notion that tourists are shepherded, gullible masses has begun to disappear with the advent of sophisticated Free Independent Travellers (FITs).

Technically, the WTO defines visitors as the category that includes all tourists and excursionists but which excludes such travellers as migrants, armed services, nomads, refugees and transit passengers. The NZ Tourism Board often uses the expression interchangeably with the word ‘tourist’, as in the *International Visitor Survey*, for example.

The expression is a useful catch - all for all types of non-local recreationists, travellers and tourists and is probably best used in this sense, since tourists in their various forms and excursionists are already strictly defined. The Department of Conservation tends to use ‘visitor’
as a general category for everyone who makes use of the conservation estate, and does not normally distinguish between types of visitors.

**Recreation/recreationist**
In order to define recreation, it is first necessary to define leisure; for many people recreation is a subset of leisure, although the terms are loosely used interchangeably. Leisure has sometimes been thought of as residual time when all essential commitments of work, family and religious obligations and bodily maintenance have been completed. Certainly, this is the time when leisure is taken, but most current definitions require a more positive foundation.

One of the essential requirements of leisure is that it should be freely chosen and free of obligation to others (Aristotle; DeGrazia 1964; Neulinger 1974; Csikszentmihaly 1975; Kelly 1982). A typical definition is that offered by Roberts (1978), that leisure is ‘relatively self-determined non-work activity’. A second characteristic is that it should be chosen for its own sake, the notion of intrinsic motivation. Thus, Kelly declares ‘leisure is activity chosen primarily for its own sake.’

Broadly, definitions of leisure fall into those that emphasise the unobligated character of leisure time and those that focus upon leisure activity. In a tourism context, Smith and Godbey (1991) suggest that ‘In general, though, most scholars define recreation as either “activity” or “experience” and leisure as “free time” or a “state of mind”’.

If leisure is thought of as discretionary time, then recreation is easily defined as the purposive use of leisure time. Definitions such as Kelly’s tend to make recreation and leisure largely synonymous and Roberts talks of leisure activities, but these simply blur the recreation/leisure boundary. Recreation as the use of leisure time defines recreation as an activity freely chosen for its own intrinsic value, and this is the definition recommended here.

As a consequence, many recreational activities are tourist activities, but one need not be a tourist to undertake recreation, just as one need not be a tourist to be a visitor. Recreationists are all of the people carrying out leisure activities, and tourism is thus seen as a special case of leisure, at least as far as non-business tourism is concerned. Thus, a group of recreationists, such as skiers, may include international tourists, domestic holiday makers, regional excursionists and local residents. In physical terms, their impacts upon the environment, such as vehicle exhaust emissions, demands for water or for trail grooming may be identical; in cultural and economic terms their impacts may vary widely.
Excursionist/day visitor
An excursionist is simply someone who travels out of their immediate local area, for the purposes of recreation or pleasure, but who does not stay away overnight in accommodation other than the home. In effect, an excursionist is away for less than 24 hours; more than that and they become domestic tourists. Effectively, excursionists are day visitors to sites and attractions who are not locals and whose overall trip is too short to count as tourism, either domestic or international.

The tourist industry
The tourist industry may be defined as that economic sector that provides the product that tourists consume, no matter how loosely. The tourist product is equally broad, comprising a wide range of goods and services, such as accommodation and transportation, that are of direct relevance to tourism as well as those support industries that provide for tourism as a minor part of their activity, including such services as petrol stations, supermarkets, furniture manufacturers, electricity meter readers and even undertakers.

Some argue that there is an identifiable tourist industry. Smith (1988) defines it as ‘the aggregate of all businesses that directly provide goods or services to facilitate business, pleasure, and leisure activities away from the home environment.’ This encompasses a broad industry indeed and some would argue that it is so broad as to be meaningless. Collier (1994) similarly defines the tourism product as ‘everything that the tourist purchases, sees, experiences and feels from the time that he/she leaves home until the time that he/she returns.’ Again, under this definition, almost everything that a destination has to offer becomes part of the tourist experience and hence the product, for which a diffuse industry is possible. By this definition, such things as community attitudes, the nature of rural scenery, the daily lives of residents and the behaviour of traffic are as much a part of the tourist product as are hotels, trips, attractions and airlines. Indeed, Leiper goes so far as to say that ‘...there is sense in referring to the tourism industry of that region or country to mean the total economic impacts flowing from tourism.’

Ideally, this is true, but it is equally true that this is a very difficult definition to treat operationally, and Collier (1994), for example, distinguishes between a core tourist industry with a clearly defined product and a support structure that is less directly involved. The core services are made up of:

- tourist product purchasing facilities;
- transportation to, from and within a destination;
- accommodation and catering;
- sightseeing, entertainment and recreation;
- shopping; and
- financial services.
Collier sees support services as comprising wholesalers, retailers, the printing industry and so on, but virtually every activity that supports the home community, such as police, religious services, farming and power generation impinges upon the tourist industry.

There is an ongoing debate about whether a tourist industry exists at all, or whether it is simply a series of sectors united by a common focus on providing for the visitor or tourist. For the purposes of this investigation, the broader definition, while undoubtedly true in theory, is hard to utilise in a practical sense. Instead, it is recommended that the phrase ‘the tourist industry’ should apply to the provision of the core tourist product, but that the wider involvement of most sectors of the economy be acknowledged. In effect, the line is drawn between the direct tourist spend and the induced income and activity that comes from the operation of various downstream multipliers.

**Types of tourism**

There are various types of tourism; and the overall activity has been subdivided in a number of ways. One common division, widely employed by the NZ Tourism Board, is between Business Tourism, Visiting Friends and relatives (VFR) and Holiday or Leisure Tourism. This is an important distinction, because, on the surface, each of these broad groups has different needs, different patterns of seasonality and different behaviour patterns. However, the boundaries are not always clear cut. Incentive tourism is an example of this. It is a form of tourism in which the traveller has been rewarded for outstanding business performance in, say, exceeding sales targets, with a tour or holiday package, or a largely recreational conference at a premier resort. The origins of the travel are clearly in and through business, but holiday behaviour may closely parallel recreational tourism. Formal conferences often include recreational sessions and before and after travel options, while delegates may opt to use tourist facilities and attractions while in the conference venue. Similarly, they use the tourist infrastructure of travel and accommodation facilities, among others. VFR tourists may not purchase commercial accommodation, but they may well visit attractions, restaurants and the like, and use travel facilities.

Another classification of tourism is by the particular focus that it may have. So, for example, Educational Tourism may well be geared to semi-formal classes, to a language course or even to a formal degree qualification; semi-formal educational tours, such as the Elderhostel movement, are particularly attractive to the retired and semi-retired, the so-called silver market. By contrast, Adventure Tourism is geared towards excitement and thrills, ranging from bungy jumping and blackwater rafting to climbing, parapenting or ocean sailing. Many authorities, such as Weiler and Hall (1992) for example, speak of Special Interest Tourism (SIT), which is tourism geared to a particular
set of activities or fields of interest rather than simply a general holiday experience. The forms of SIT may be narrowly defined, such as art tours or bird-watching holidays, which generates literally scores of categories; or it may be more generally subdivided into broader groups, such as Adventure Tourism or Eco-tourism (see below).

In recent times it has become popular for a distinction to be made between Old or Mass Tourism and an emerging New or Soft Tourism (Poon 1993). Old Tourism is characterised by a standardised product, a focus on large destination resorts with cheap seaside holidays, inexperienced tourists and a rigid and old-fashioned industrial structure. Scheduled tours, visiting a standard set of familiar tourist icons and using standardised mid-range hotels are the epitome of Old Tourism in this country. This kind of travel is unlikely to disappear; new and inexperienced markets and individuals will always seek the security of group travel in the first instance, but it is likely to become less dominant than in the past.

New Tourism is much more customised: the product is individually tailored to suit the consumer and experiences sought are likely to be much more diverse, with a focus on quality environmental and heritage experiences. It is less passive, more educationally oriented and deliberately seeks authentic settings and societies, preferring a wider range of options. So, for example, New Tourists will not seek standard hotels; they will patronise boutique lodges, backpacker hostels, farmstays and B and Bs as well as marae accommodation and country pub rooms. New Tourists deliberately seek locations off the beaten track and prize novelty and personal interaction with local people. In many ways it is a much more pervasive tourism.

**Eco-tourism and nature tourism**

In recent years, eco-tourism and nature tourism have converged and have come to be defined as much the same thing; indeed, the phrase ‘nature tourism’ has tended to disappear in favour of ‘eco-tourism’. Orams (1995) notes that eco-tourism has risen in popularity because ‘It is a new term which has arrived because nature-based recreation and tourism has become increasingly frequent and, to a lesser degree, as a reaction against more traditional forms of mass tourism.’

Nature tourism, which might be defined as tourism activity focused upon the natural world need not be eco-tourism, which is characterised by responsible and conservation oriented perspectives; it is quite possible to imagine that nature tourism might be exploitative, short term and damaging, albeit unintentionally, but, in practice, current regulations and consumer demand would soon require that damaging practices cease, at least in New Zealand.

Ceballos-Lascurain (1991) defines eco-tourism quite widely as ‘travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated areas with the
specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in those areas’. This definition includes cultural as well as natural phenomena, and thus typifies nature tourism as a sub-set of eco-tourism. This is echoed by the United States Eco-tourism Society’s definition of ‘responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and sustains the wellbeing of local people.’ They explicitly include culture. Boo (1991), on the other hand, describes eco-tourism as ‘nature tourism that contributes to conservation’ and thus excludes culture and makes eco-tourism a subset of nature tourism.

Boo’s perspective is echoed by a recent formulation by Dowling (1997), who attempts to classify all types of tourism. For Dowling, Special Interest or Alternative Tourism falls into four categories: natural, cultural, event and other. Natural tourism may be either Nature-based Tourism or Adventure travel; the former is described as ‘tourism in which viewing nature is the primary objective.’ He goes on to say that ‘Eco-tourism is another subset of natural area tourism and may combine elements of both nature based tourism and adventure travel. However, it is also characterised by ... an element of education and its practice of supporting conservation.’ The Australian Department of Tourism concurs with this, but adds that ‘The definition recognises that ‘natural environment’ includes cultural components’.

Probably the best definition of eco-tourism for the purposes of this study is that developed by Warren and Taylor (1994). It lists a series of characteristics that best separate specific eco-tourism from the wider natural and cultural heritage product. It positions eco-tourism as an approach rather than a content, describing it as having the following attributes:

- caters to tourists who have an interest in the natural environment and local culture, and who want to interact with it;
- relies upon relatively undisturbed natural environments;
- has a positive environmental impact;
- has low social and cultural impact;
- promotes tourist interaction with, and appreciation of, nature;
- includes environmental education; and
- comprises mainly small, independent and locally controlled businesses.

References


Central Government Agencies

A wide range of government departments and crown agencies have a role in the management of tourism and its effects. This appendix divides these agencies into two groups. The first group comprises three agencies which have a primary role in the management of tourism as an activity. The second group, while not primarily involved in tourism management, have other regulatory or management functions which may impact on the tourism sector. Most of the latter group are involved in specific sectors of the economy such as transport, border control, and public health, but some have general resource management or economic development roles.

The following notes on tourism-related responsibilities are derived from current Departmental Forecast Reports, Estimates of Appropriations, and 1996 Post-Election Briefing Papers, as well as interview notes and written material supplied during the investigation.

Agencies with a Primary Role in Tourism Management

Tourism Policy Group, Ministry of Commerce (TPG)

Principal Acts

TPG has no specific statutory basis, but administers a number of Acts including several for which the Minister of Tourism is responsible.

Functions and principal work areas

The TPG advises the government on the development of tourism policy, represents the government’s tourism interests internationally, and monitors overseas tourism trends to assess their relevance to New Zealand.

Functions include:

- providing policy advice to the government and the Minister of Tourism on tourism matters of national and international significance;
- providing advice to the Minister of Tourism on the purchase of outputs from the New Zealand Tourism Board;
- providing ministerial servicing;
- managing and reviewing the government’s interests in Crown-owned land for which the Minister of Tourism is responsible; and
- administration of Acts of Parliament for which the Minister of Tourism is responsible.
Work areas are:
- sustainability issues for tourism;
- aviation policy, including air services and facilitation, relating to tourism;
- education and training policies relating to tourism;
- health and safety policies relating to tourism;
- liaison with international tourism organisations;
- research and statistical needs of the tourism sector;
- resource management and tourism use of natural areas;
- social impacts of tourism;
- tourism policies for Antarctica;
- tourism infrastructure;
- coordination of APEC Tourism Working Group projects;
- management of reserve land in Rotorua and the Wairakei Tourist Park;
- management of Vote Tourism; and
- administration of the New Zealand Maori Arts and Craft Institute Act, the New Zealand Tourism Board Act and the Tourist and Health Resorts Control Act.

**Structure**
The TPG is part of the Business Policies and Programmes Division of the Ministry of Commerce. It presently has eight policy advisers and one park manager in Wairakei.

The present structure of the TPG is the latest stage in the evolution of New Zealand government tourism offices since they were first established in 1902. Between 1954 and 1990 the Tourist and Publicity Department incorporated an Information and Press Service, the National Publicity Studio, National Film Unit and the Government Tourist Bureau as well as policy functions. In 1990 a major restructuring focused the activities of the Tourist and Publicity Department solely on developing and marketing New Zealand as an international tourist destination, and its commercial operations were corporatised and sold. In 1991 the marketing activities were given to the New Zealand Tourism Board (see below). Government policy became the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Tourism (which became the TPG in July 1994).

**The New Zealand Tourism Board**

*Principal Act*
The New Zealand Tourism Board Act 1991

*Functions and principal work areas*
The Board’s statutory objective is ‘to ensure that New Zealand is so marketed as a visitor destination as to maximise long term benefits to New Zealand’ (s 6). Its functions are:
• to develop, implement and promote strategies for tourism; and
• to advise the government and the New Zealand tourism industry on matters relating to the development, implementation and promotion of those strategies.

The NZTB has a stated objective of obtaining $9 billion in foreign exchange from tourism and 180,000 equivalent full-time jobs by 2000. It impacts on the tourism sector through marketing and can influence the industry through its information provision and advisory roles, but unlike DOC and TPG, NZTB has no management or regulatory role.

NZTB’s principal work areas are grouped as follows into three output areas:

(i) Marketing of New Zealand as a Visitor Destination:
The NZTB develops and implements marketing strategies in selected overseas markets. The Board has 16 overseas offices in seven major regions: Australia, North America, United Kingdom and Nordic, Central Europe, North Asia, Japan and South East Asia.

(ii) Joint Venture Tourism Marketing:
NZTB joint venture projects are undertaken in partnership with the private sector, to complement the Tourism Board’s core marketing activities.

(iii) Policy, Product Development and Investment Services:
The Board develops initiatives to enhance the quality and range of tourism products; advises government and the tourism industry on tourism policy issues and issues relating to NZTB strategies, and advises local government and the industry on resource management and the sustainable growth of the tourism sector. Initiatives include: partnership with the New Zealand Automobile Association in ‘Qualmark New Zealand’ to design and implement a national tourism sector classification and grading system; the management of the KiwiHost training programme relating to service quality; the administration of the Tourism Facilities Development Grant programme; and the promotion of Brand New Zealand, a national umbrella brand (‘The New Zealand Way’) for exporters of products and services. This last activity is undertaken in association with the New Zealand Trade Development Board (Tradenz). A further recent joint venture is that of EventsCorp, which was set up to ensure New Zealand attracts cultural and sporting events. It is a joint venture with the Hillary Commission. The NZTB is also involved with the development of Regional Tourism Strategies in association with local authorities and regional tourism organisations which focus on marketing and product development at the regional level.

Structure
Board members are appointed by the Minister, after consultation with the New Zealand Tourist Industry Association (NZTIA) and other interested parties. The NZTB may co-opt further members who are not able to vote. There are currently nine members. The NZTB employs 172 staff of whom 94 are based overseas. Of the 78 people based in New Zealand, most are in Wellington, with small regional offices in Auckland, Rotorua, Christchurch and Queenstown. Head office divisions focus on marketing operations, marketing services, planning and resources, public affairs, human resources, and finance and administration. As at October 1997, the NZTB is undergoing restructuring to put more emphasis on its overseas marketing role.

The Department of Conservation

Principal Act

The Department of Conservation (DOC) was established by the Conservation Act 1987. The principal statutes under which it manages tourism-related activities are the Conservation Act 1987, the National Parks Act 1980, the Marine Reserves Act 1971, the Reserves Act 1977 and the Wildlife Act 1953 (all as amended 1996).

Functions and principal work areas

DOC’s stated mission is ‘to conserve the natural and historic heritage of New Zealand for the benefit of present and future New Zealanders’

DOC’s legislative functions are stated in section 6 of the Conservation Act. Its specific aims, which reflect its statutory functions,\(^\text{10}\) are:

- conservation of New Zealand’s natural and historic resources;
- sensible and sustainable use of these resources by the public;
- public awareness of, support for and enhancement of a conservation ethic, both within New Zealand and internationally.

Principal work areas that support the aims are:

- provision of visitor services and visitor centres;
- general facilities maintenance;
- management of historic resources on conservation land;
- administration of concessions on conservation lands;
- conservation advocacy;
- policy advice to the Minister of Conservation;
- provision of information; and
- liaison with governmental and non-governmental agencies.

Of all central government agencies described in this chapter DOC is the only one with significant land management responsibilities. DOC also administers several historic buildings and sites that are popular tourist attractions. It also manages protected species, many of which are important national icons.

Structure

DOC’s recent restructuring has meant changes in the way tourism issues and policy are handled. The administrative structures and

\(^{10}\) DOC’s legislative functions are stated in section 6 of the Conservation Act.
locations of staff have changed, although some fundamental aspects, such as the consideration of tourism within the wider context of visitor issues, remain.

In the previous structure, 12 staff in the Visitor Services Division of head office worked on a range of visitor-related issues, including policy and strategy, operational management, concessions management and interpretation of natural, heritage and cultural features. In the new structure,\textsuperscript{11} this work is spread out through several different divisions, including the policy and external relations divisions at head office and the three new regional offices where the technical services managers and their staff work with tourism and other recreational and visitor issues for the conservancies in their third of the country. There is now also a ‘concessions task force’ (operating out of Christchurch but part of the National Business Management Division) which gives advice and guidance to conservancies about concessions. In the conservancies, where the restructuring has yet to be completed, external relations managers and other specialist staff, such as recreation planners, will address visitor issues. The restructuring has separated the policy and operational roles of the department.

\textbf{Agencies with a Secondary Role in Tourism Management}

\textbf{1 ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT}

\textbf{Ministry for the Environment}

The Ministry for the Environment was established by the Environment Act 1986. It has responsibilities under a number of statutes including the Resource Management Act.

The overall purpose of the Ministry is to achieve sustainable management of the environment. The Ministry has two primary roles:

- to provide policy advice to the Minister and the Government that promotes sustainable management of the environment;
- to enable the implementation of sustainable management through the administration of environmental statutes, advocacy, education and advice.

The Ministry, in accordance with the purpose of the RMA, is concerned with the effects of tourism activities, among others, on the environment, but has no specific interest in the tourism sector itself.

Activities related to the tourism sector mainly come under the Ministry’s programme for administering of the RMA. Under this programme, the Ministry monitors the effect and implementation of the RMA. This includes involvement in processes under the Act, such as representing the Minister in statutory submissions, attending hearings

\textsuperscript{11} DOC’s new structure came into effect in May 1997.
and appeals on policy statements and plans, appearing before the Environment Court, and monitoring resource consents for matters of national importance. The Ministry also conducts an annual survey of local authorities and will be carrying out in-depth research to determine the effect of particular aspects of the Act, as well as investigating practice and performance under the RMA.

Other activities which may at times have a bearing on tourism include work on transport and the environment, biodiversity, development of a National Agenda for Sustainable Water Management and Sustainable Land Management Strategy, and work on environmental indicators under the Ministry’s State of the Environment Reporting Programme.

New Zealand Conservation Authority
The NZCA was established under the Conservation Act 1987 to advise the Minister of Conservation on DOC’s policy and activities at national level. NZCA has an important role in tourism-related decision-making, including:

- approving conservation management strategies and conservation management plans;
- advising the Minister on general policy relating to legislation including the National Parks Act, New Zealand Walkways Act, and the Conservation Act.

The Authority’s decisions on conservation management strategies and plans are important as documents approved by the NZCA have a central role in defining policy for the management of tourism and recreation on the conservation estate.

The Conservation Tourism Liaison Group (CTLG) is an informal subcommittee of the NZCA. It is a forum to discuss tourism and conservation issues. Membership includes NZCA members, and DOC, NZTB, concessionaire, environmental group, recreation group and Ministry of Commerce representatives. Activities of the group had lapsed but it is presently being revived.

Conservation Boards were also established under the Conservation Act 1987. There are 17 boards set up to make recommendations to and advise the NZCA on matters including conservation management strategies and plans, and proposals for new walkways. Conservation Boards also advise DOC regional conservators on concession applications.

New Zealand Historic Places Trust
The Trust is a body corporate operating under the Historic Places Act 1993 to carry out various functions relating to the protection and management of historic and cultural heritage in New Zealand. It owns or manages some 58 historic properties (almost all buildings) in order
to ensure their protection, preservation and conservation. These include a number of very popular tourist destinations, especially in the Bay of Islands.

**Fish and Game New Zealand**
The NZ Fish and Game Council represents nationally the interests of anglers and hunters and provides coordination of the management, enhancement, and maintenance of sports fish and game (s 26(b) Conservation Act). Its roles include policy, advice and advocacy. It operates a network of 12 regional Fish and Game Councils which have a more active management-oriented role in respect of the sports fish and game resource. Councils act under Sports Fish and Game Management Plans approved by the Minister of Conservation. The councils consist of elected representatives, reporting to the Minister of Conservation.

2 EMPLOYMENT AND BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT

**Business Development Group, Ministry of Commerce**
A significant number of tourism businesses have received assistance from various business development programmes, especially those aimed at small to medium-sized enterprises. These programmes and initiatives are mainly managed by the Business Development Group of the Ministry of Commerce, part of the Ministry’s Business Policy and Programmes Division, reporting to the Minister of Business Development. Other programmes are managed through the Departments of Internal Affairs and Labour (see below).

The Division’s general purpose is to promote and sustain the international competitiveness of New Zealand businesses. Aside from policy advice and liaison, the major part of the Group’s activities is to administer the Business Development Programme of assistance to small and medium-sized enterprises. This is done through 32 regional Business Development Boards.

**Ministry of Maori Development (Te Puni Kokiri)**
The Ministry is the Crown’s principal adviser on the Treaty of Waitangi. Its role in tourism focuses on Maori involvement in tourism and tourism as an opportunity for Maori economic development.

Activities of the Ministry in this area are primarily policy advice and analysis on increasing Maori achievement in employment and business opportunities within the tourism sector, and on the links between Maori economic development outcomes and other outcomes for Maori. It is also responsible for monitoring the performance of government entities in tourism in developing and administering policies that have an impact on Maori in tourism. The Ministry communicates and informs Maori
of government policies aimed at assisting tourism development, and focuses on assisting the removal of disparities between Maori and non-Maori in the tourism sector. Another key role is to facilitate consultation, where required, between Maori tourism organisations and the Crown.

Specific activities of the Ministry include:
- development of strategies to improve the skills of Maori asset managers;
- identification of opportunities for access to finance;
- reporting on the performance of Business Development Boards in respect of their performance targets and programme effectiveness for Maori;
- establishment of a database of Maori tourism operators;
- research and analysis of tourism flows and their implications for Maori; and
- a five-year development plan for a Ministry strategy for Maori tourism leading to a Ministry tourism policy.

The Ministry has a special adviser on tourism, within its Economic Development Branch. Other policy divisions and several district offices become involved in tourism issues as they arise.

**Community Development Unit, Department of Internal Affairs**
The Unit is involved in various community development projects, principally through the Community Organisations Development Scheme. A number of their projects have a tourism development focus and some are undertaken in association with the Community Employment Group of the Department of Labour (see below).

**Community Employment Group, Department of Labour**
The Community Employment Group administers Community Employment Projects for employment or self-sufficiency opportunities. A number of these projects are tourism-related. The Group also administers the National Mainstreet Trust Board and the Town Centre Management Trust. These boards provide advice and support to local authorities undertaking Mainstreet redevelopment or town centre management projects, many of which enhance towns' tourism potential. Specific services include:
- consultancy on benchmarking/evaluation, initiating Mainstreet and town centre programmes, and coordinating public consultation;
- facilitating access to national and international contacts;
- provision of survey results; and
- objective support to project managers.

**Rural Policy Unit, Ministry of Agriculture**
The Ministry of Agriculture also has a rural social and economic development role; in this role the Unit has recently been active in
promoting rural tourism and providing advice about rural tourism and its opportunities for the agricultural sector.

**Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade**
Some of the bilateral and multi-lateral agreements and linkages which the Ministry administers have a specific tourism component. For example, a recent Memorandum of Understanding signed with China establishes New Zealand as one of a small number of countries to which Chinese residents are permitted to travel as tourists. Various divisions of the Ministry are involved with these agreements.

### 3  PUBLIC HEALTH AND PUBLIC SAFETY SECTOR

**Ministry of Health (Public Health Group)**
The Ministry has a wide range of functions in the health sector, operating primarily under the Health Act 1956. Roles which relate to the tourism sector relate to the management and regulation of activities associated with tourism which may affect public health. These include:

- international travel and trade, carrying a risk of importation or spread of communicable diseases;
- food risks and safety from a great range of foods and restaurants;
- adventure tourism;
- public health risks from increased loads on infrastructure; and
- public health effects of increased noise, energy use, etc.


**Occupational Safety and Health Service, Department of Labour**
The Service administers the Occupational Health and Safety Act 1992 to provide for the prevention of harm to employees at work by promoting excellence in health and safety management by employers. The Act imposes duties on employers and others towards employees or any other person in relation to the action/inaction of an employee and people in or in the vicinity of a place of work. The Act relates to tourism management to the extent that accidents involving tourists impose extra costs on health and rescue facilities.
The health and safety of people affected by work activities is considered by OSH to be complementary to public health and safety issues for people and communities as covered under s 5(2) of the RMA (L. Leamy, OSH, letter to PCE, 14 February 1997).

New Zealand Police
The police are responsible for public and visitor safety from criminal activity. They are also responsible for traffic safety compliance and (along with the Armed Forces and Coastguard authorities) have a major role in search and rescue activities.

Local Government and Policy Section, Department of Internal Affairs
The department provides central government oversight of the Local Government Act 1974 which authorises local government functions and empowers local government for water and sewerage supply.

4 TRANSPORT AND TRANSPORT SAFETY SECTOR

Ministry of Transport
The Ministry’s relevant functions include the supply of policy advice to the Minister of Transport to promote a safe, sustainable transport at reasonable cost. Such advice includes environmental aspects of the country’s transport infrastructure, although in general not in relation to any particular use of that infrastructure, such as tourism (J. Cook, Ministry of Transport, letter to PCE, 17 February 1997). Many of the Ministry’s objectives are implemented by board-directed Crown agencies in the transport sector (see below); the Ministry is concerned with setting the framework in which the Crown entities and transport sector operate. A major current component of transport policy is the Land Transport Pricing Study, released for public comment in May 1996, which includes a report on the environmental externalities. The Ministry has recently been involved in coordination of policy for adventure aviation and for safety aspects of adventure tourism. It also manages the Milford Sound Airport.

Policy responsibilities include strengthening of external transport linkages, especially air services. It advises the Crown on external aviation policy and is responsible for the conduct of Air Services Agreement negotiations. It convenes a Government Aviation Committee of which the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Trade and the Tourism Policy Group are also members.

Transit New Zealand (Crown Agency)
Transit New Zealand’s purpose is to operate a safe and efficient state highway system. It is responsible for a number of functions relating to the passage of tourists over the country’s state highway network. For example, its State Highway Control Manual (Transit NZ 1994) includes
guidelines for roads in national parks and conservation reserves. Since mid-1996 allocation of government resources to the land transport system has been handled by a separate agency, Transfund New Zealand.

Transit NZ was the joint convenor (along with the Ministry of Commerce) of the task force report on Long Term Tourism Roading Requirements (Transit NZ and Ministry of Commerce 1994).

Transit New Zealand’s road network management policies and practices have significant impact on tourism activities and on the environment, affecting retail, recreational and accommodation environments and tourist/scenic attractions along state highways. It also controls signs on state highways, which brings the agency into direct contact with tourism operators.

**Civil Aviation Authority (Crown Agency)**

The principal function of the Civil Aviation Authority (CAA) is to undertake activities which promote safety in civil aviation. Under the Civil Aviation Act 1990, specific statutory functions include:

- establishing safety and security standards for the civil aviation system, and monitoring adherence to these standards;
- promoting aviation safety and security in the civil aviation system by providing civil aviation safety and security information and advice;
- performing entry and exit control over participants in the civil aviation system;
- measuring and reviewing the performance of the system from a safety point of view, including investigating incidents and some accidents; and
- providing advice to the Minister of Transport.

Functions relevant to tourism management are undertaken principally within the Government and International Affairs Group and the Rules and Standards Group. The CAA administers a set of Civil Aviation Rules establishing safety standards in accordance with the provisions of the Civil Aviation Act 1990. A new set of rules is currently being implemented, replacing the Civil Aviation Regulations 1953. The CAA is also involved in various issues relevant to tourism air transport, such as control of air space for all types of aviation (including adventure aviation), approval of aerodromes, heliports and air routes from a safety perspective.

**Land Transport Safety Authority (LTSA) (Crown Agency)**

The purpose of the Land Transport Safety Authority (LTSA), as established by the Land Transport Act 1993, is to promote land transport safety. Activities of the LTSA towards this end include:

- establishing and monitoring safety standards within the land transport system;
• ensuring regular reviews to promote the improvement and development of its safety;
• investigating and reviewing land transport accidents and incidents;
• maintaining the land transport licensing register;
• providing information and advice; and
• fostering education programmes.

Examples of activities which relate to the tourism sector include: regulation of the passenger service industry through a licensing regime and rules relating to safe operations; and collection and analysis of data on road crashes, including those involving drivers with foreign passports. Additional activities include traffic engineering, crash data analysis, traffic engineering, education, planning the Safety Administration Programme and implementing community projects. The LTSA has a regional structure with regional officers for planning and compliance. The LTSA, along with Transit NZ, contributes to Regional Land Transport Strategies.

Maritime Safety Authority (Crown Agency)
The Maritime Safety Authority (MSA) operates under the Maritime Transport Act 1994. Its Safety Division has a broadly similar role in marine areas to that of the LTSA, while its Marine Environment Protection Division has responsibility for protecting the marine environment. For marine oil spills, the MSA or the regional councils have the role of responding, depending on size. The risks associated with tourism are considered significant, as most oil spills in New Zealand are sourced from small ships and boats (D. Crawford, MSA, letter to PCE, 1 July 1997). In other matters, the MSA’s jurisdiction relates mainly to the marine area outside the 12–nautical–mile limit, although it also has some responsibilities for pollution control in ports and for safety issues in harbour areas, including some inland waters. Many of the provisions of the Maritime Transport Act are not yet operational and much of the MSA’s regulatory framework is in a transitional state. The MSA is responsible for issuing permits for dumping of wastes, including dredge spoil, at sea.

5 BORDER SECURITY

New Zealand Customs Service
The New Zealand Customs Service is the primary border management agency, operating under the Customs and Excise Act 1996. The Service has a responsibility for ensuring the smooth passage of all international tourists in and out of New Zealand, and must balance this with ensuring that prohibited or restricted materials do not enter the country.

Ministry of Agriculture
Activities of the Ministry of Agriculture under the Biosecurity Act 1993 include management of risks (principally to the country’s agricultural industries) associated with the importation or introduction of unwanted organisms. In relation to tourism, the Ministry’s work on biosecurity consists principally of inspection clearance and monitoring of incoming passengers, aircraft, vessels, cargo and mail for unwanted organisms at designated points of entry, in conjunction with the Customs Service. Related activities include the development and administration of agricultural security standards at points of entry. Some work in border security for timber products is undertaken by the Ministry of Forestry. The Ministry administers the Trade in Endangered Species Act, which has sometimes involved tourists.

Immigration Service, Department of Labour
The Immigration Department controls the inward flow of all arrivals to New Zealand, and the easing or tightening of entry requirements. The department has direct contact with people from countries needing visas for entry to New Zealand and people who want to stay for more than three months in New Zealand. Immigration controls at the border for the majority of visitors is handled by the New Zealand Customs Service, which acts as the Immigration Department’s agent.

6 RECREATION ACTIVITIES

Ministry of Fisheries
Under the Fisheries Act 1996, the Ministry of Fisheries is building a framework for managing the long-term future of New Zealand’s fisheries. This includes recreational marine fishing, and recreational fishers are included among the Ministry’s stakeholders. The Ministry undertakes enforcement and compliance in recreational fisheries.

Hillary Commission (Crown agency)
The Hillary Commission is funded by government to promote excellence in sport and to promote recreation and sport in New Zealand. The Commission has recently been involved with the NZTB in the establishment of ‘Eventscorp’, an initiative aimed at smoothing the process of attracting and holding large sporting events and promoting events tourism.

Department of Internal Affairs
The Department of Internal Affairs administers the Casino Control Act 1990, which sets up the Casino Control Authority (CCA). The CCA deals with applications for casino licences, and also advises the Minister, determines policy, and approves particular games and licences to operate gaming machines. The Department has some responsibilities (through the Minister of Local Government) for regulation, public safety and facilities maintenance for boating services on Lake Taupo.
7 INFORMATION AND RESEARCH

Department of Statistics
The Department is a key provider of data relevant to the management of tourism. It currently undertakes a variety of surveys covering employment, buildings and accommodation, visitor arrivals and departures, retail sales, and business and price indicators (see Chapter 4 for further detail).

Foundation for Research, Science and Technology (Crown Agency)
The Foundation allocates resources from the Public Good Science Fund for the funding of much Crown-sponsored research. The present programme includes a portfolio of research on tourism (see Chapter 4). This research excludes ‘operational research’ on tourism conducted or contracted by agencies such as DOC and TPG.

Local Government Agencies
Local government’s jurisdiction is laid out in the Local Government Act 1974. Much of the management of environmental effects of tourism by local government relates to resource management undertaken under the Resource Management Act. However, local government can undertake a number of other functions relating to tourism under other legislation, including its promotion. Local government also administers, or has involvement with, numerous other statutes, including the Biosecurity Act, Building Act, Civil Aviation Act, Health Act, Food Hygiene Regulations, Historic Places Act, and the Sale of Liquor Act.

The roles of territorial authorities and regional councils in tourism management are quite different, although neither is able to treat tourism as a pre-eminent tourism resource management issue. In accordance with the RMA, the treatment of tourism, like other activities such as forestry, agriculture, or residential development, emphasises management of effects of activities, rather than the activity itself.

Territorial authorities
Principal Acts
Territorial authorities have functions, duties and powers conferred on them by the Local Government Act 1974, the Resource Management Act 1991, and other Acts. Individual territorial authorities can also have additional functions, duties or powers conferred on them by local Acts (s 37(T) LGA), and territorial authorities have a general power to undertake the planning, implementation, and maintenance of any work that is necessary or beneficial to the district (s 247(B) LGA).

Functions and Principal work areas
In relation to the management of the effects of tourism, territorial authorities have a policy–setting and regulatory role and an asset/service provider and manager role.

Activities undertaken by territorial authorities related to tourism effects include:

(i) Planning for the provision and regulation of tourism-related activities
Such planning is mainly undertaken through district plans established under the RMA. Under s 31 of the RMA, one of the functions of territorial authorities is the control of any actual or potential effects of the use, development or protection of land. Most district plans developed under the RMA do not single out tourism but plan generically for the effects of activities on the environment. This represents a fundamental shift from plans prepared under the previous legislation, the Town and Country Planning Act 1977, which often contained sections on tourism. District Strategic Plans, Annual Plans and Financial Plans, on the other hand focus on activities and priorities for the district and frequently address tourism activities and issues, especially in districts where tourism is economically important. While most district plans do not mention tourism specifically, they should represent the framework for dealing with individual resource consent applications in a way that allows meaningful consideration of cumulative effects and overall strategies for any development, including tourism.

(ii) Regulation of tourism-related activities
Such regulation is mainly undertaken through the administration of regulations and administrative procedures under numerous statutes, including the RMA (notably the processing of resource consent applications). Complementary functions include monitoring and enforcement of regulations and rules.

(iii) Infrastructure provision
Most infrastructure provided by local government is used by visitors to the district as well as the local population. Such infrastructure includes water reticulation, storm-water collection, sewage collection and treatment, rubbish collection and disposal or recycling, local roads, and street and information signs. Local authorities may also have a direct or indirect involvement in airport and/or port facilities.

(iv) Facility provision
Facilities commonly provided by councils include parks, reserves and other amenity areas; sports facilities; libraries; art galleries; heritage buildings and museums; conference venues; toilets; car parking facilities; information facilities; and camping grounds. As with infrastructure, many facilities are used by visitors as well as resident
populations, sometimes exclusively (e.g. camping grounds) and are often promoted as visitor attractions.

Many territorial authorities also fund local or regional tourism organisations which promote the district or region and often include visitor information centres (see below).

**Regional Councils**

*Principal Acts*

Functions of Regional Councils are carried out under several statutes, including the Local Government Act 1989, Resource Management Act 1991, Transport Act and Reserves Act.

*Functions and principal work areas*

Regional councils have little direct role in tourism management, but have significant indirect input into tourism through its resource management functions, including:

- the monitoring and management of water quality in recreation lakes and rivers;
- pest eradication and management to enhance the visitor experience in forests; and
- wilderness areas, and management and monitoring of geothermal resource development.

The 1992 amendment to the Local Government Act limited regional councils’ role in tourism promotion unless specifically permitted by all territorial authorities within a region. In most cases regional councils are no longer involved in tourism promotion. Tourism issues may be addressed in regional policy statements and plans but, as in district plans, most regional councils have chosen to focus on first-order resource management issues like air, water and ecosystem protection, rather than specific activities. Regional councils’ regulatory functions commonly involve major individual tourism developments where those developments require resource consents such as discharges to water or land, or coastal permits.

Auckland and Wellington Regional Councils maintain significant regional park networks. These are primarily for local recreational and water catchment purposes. Some regional parks attract many non-resident visitors (e.g. the Waitakere Ranges Park in West Auckland).

Regional Councils are the leading agency in Regional Land Transport Strategies, which are intended to provide a regional framework for land

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12Specifically, s 593(B) LGA provides that a regional council may find and coordinate the promotion of tourism within the region, with the consent of the territorial authorities wholly or partly in the region.
transport planning. These strategies are enabling documents which may include specific reference to road issues relevant to the tourism sector, although this is not done in all the completed strategies.

**Regional and Local Tourism Organisations**

*Principal Acts*

No statutory basis.

*Functions and primary work areas*

Regional and local tourism organisations (RTOs and LTOs) are the primary marketing and development agencies inside New Zealand.

The functions and work areas of RTOs vary, but include:

- promotion and marketing (both domestic and international);
- developing industry skills and tourism products locally;
- local advocacy and liaison;
- provision of information to local operators; and
- monitoring visitor numbers.

There are 24 RTOs which, between them, cover most of the country. Some RTOs reflect regional government areas, (eg Tourism Northland), while others are focused on specific tourist destinations like Destination Queenstown and Wanaka Promotional Association. They vary greatly in size from one to more than 30 staff, and correspondingly vary in the activities undertaken.

Most RTOs have a close relationship with local authorities in their area and receive much, and in some cases all, of their direct funding from them. Local authority funding is often supplemented by industry funding or membership subscription, although most industry support is given for specific marketing activities (eg joint venture marketing by RTO and local operators). Some RTOs are organised directly as local authority departments (or part of local/regional development departments). Others are more autonomous, being controlled by a board or trust, sometimes with community and industry as well as local authority members. All RTOs are members of the NZTIA (see below). Through this membership, RTOs form a network which liaises regularly. RTOs undertake most of their overseas marketing jointly with the NZTB.

LTOs have a greater range of structures than RTOs, but their roles tend to be more oriented towards domestic marketing, provision of information to tourists and, in some cases, handling domestic tourism transactions as agents. (The last role was formerly undertaken by the Government Tourist Bureau.) LTOs are generally not involved in international marketing or tourism development activities.

Many LTOs operate as Visitor Information Network (VIN) outlets coordinated by the NZTB. VIN outlets provide information to the
public. Most also supply advice to industry on commercial trading practices and standards and presentation. There are 136 registered information centres, some of which are part of an RTO and managed by it.

**Local Government New Zealand**
Local Government New Zealand (LGNZ) is a body representing its local government members. Its mission is to promote the national interests of local government, which it achieves by focusing on the policy and governance interests of its members. LGNZ has no role in tourism or effects management.

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**Industry Organisations**

**New Zealand Tourism Industry Association (NZTIA)**
The NZTIA is the most wide-ranging industry organisation associated with the tourism sector in New Zealand, and is recognised as the main national voice and advocate for the industry. Its mission is to provide ‘leadership, guidance and appropriate services for the benefit of its members and so contributes to a viable and sustainable tourism industry’. It is funded by joint venture programmes and its members who come from a ‘broad spectrum of individuals, businesses and agencies involved in the tourism industry’ (NZTIA profile). The NZTIA is an umbrella organisation with a large number of sector groupings and affiliated member organisations grouped into 10 divisions which include tourism research, regional tourism and adventure tourism and outdoor activities divisions, (see Table A.1).

NZTIA has 12 specific goals, which include:

- assisting in strengthening the financial performance of operators;
- driving improvements in industry competitiveness through research and development;
- enhancing the environmental sustainability of the tourism industry;
- attracting high calibre people to work in the industry; and
- improving the standard of visitor products and services and the quality of the visitor experience.

**Aotearoa Maori Tourism Federation**
The Federation acts as a national voice for Maori to speak and act on Maori tourism issues. It was established in 1988. The Federation maintains a strong mandate from iwi by having a large board (15 members), with all elected members having a specific iwi
accountability, and by having a special membership category for iwi, hapu, whanau or marae-based organisations.

The majority of its members are Maori tourism operators, with other members including iwi authorities, training providers, RTOs, and people investigating business opportunities in Maori tourism.

The Federation’s primary role is to facilitate the business success of Maori tourism operators. Specific activities include:
- advocacy to government and to the rest of the tourism industry;
- marketing operations;
- maintaining a database of Maori tourism operators;
- researching and developing policy on cultural tourism;
- the protection of Maori cultural and intellectual property (eg through development of a standard of Maori authenticity for Maori tourism products); and
- assistance to members (eg through business plans and feasibility studies).

Regional Maori Tourism Organisations
Regional Maori Tourism Organisations are:
- Tai Tokerau Maori Tourism Association (Northland Region)
- Maori Tourism Development Board (Auckland Region)
- Maori in Tourism Forum, Rotorua
- Waikato Maori Tourism Committee
- Western Bay of Plenty Maori Tourism Board
- Wanganui Maori Tourism Council
- Ngati Tumapahia Trust (Wairarapa)
- Nga Tukemata-o-Kahungunu (Hastings)

Other Organisations
A large number and variety of NGOs are actively interested in various issues related to tourism and actively participate in these issues as interested parties. Such organisations include:

- museums,
- iwi and hapu,
- environmental and recreation NGOs,
- professional societies, and
- community groups.

Some businesses (including State-Owned Enterprises) and business organisations have major resource management responsibilities and effects which may affect tourism management significantly. For example, ECNZ controls levels of some lakes and manages some river
levels and flow. The variation in these have potentially significant environmental effects on:

- accessibility and viability of boat berths and moorings;
- quality of shore and beaches for swimming and other recreational activities;
- erosion; and
- the nature and quality of fishing environments.
## Table A.1 Divisions of the New Zealand Tourism Industry Association

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Hospitality</th>
<th>Air Transport</th>
<th>Surface Transport</th>
<th>Attractions &amp; Shopping</th>
<th>Adventure Tourism and Outdoor Activities</th>
<th>Distribution</th>
<th>Tourism Services</th>
<th>Regional Tourism</th>
<th>Human Resource Development</th>
<th>Tourism Research Association</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sector Group</td>
<td>Hotels</td>
<td>International airlines. Domestic airlines. Flightseeing Airports</td>
<td>Coach operators Rental car operators Campervan operators Railways Ferries</td>
<td>Museums Attractions Adventure providers Recreation providers Retailers, Shops &amp; Conference Organisers</td>
<td>Travel agents Reservation services Tour wholesalers Inbound operators Principals Local booking offices</td>
<td>Credit card companies Banks Publishers Consultants Developers Advertising agencies Government departments</td>
<td>RTOs Promotions boards Visitor info centres Maori tourism Local bodies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliated Members</td>
<td>Major accom providers Backpacker accom Council of NZ Bed &amp; Breakfast</td>
<td>NZ Vehicle rental &amp; leasing assn</td>
<td>Adventure tourism council. NZ Prof Fishing guides assn NZ Prof hunting guides assn</td>
<td>Travel Assn of NZ Inbound tour operators' council Outbound tour operators' council</td>
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</table>


### Resource Management Act 1991

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Administered by</th>
<th>Ministry for the Environment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Purpose</strong></td>
<td>To promote the sustainable management of natural and physical resources as defined in s 5(2), that is managing the use, development, and protection of natural and physical resources in a way ... which enables people and communities to provide for their social, economic, and cultural well-being and for their health and safety subject to the 3 environmental bottom lines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Focus</strong></td>
<td>On the control of the effects of activities rather than the activities themselves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relevance to tourism</strong></td>
<td>As an environmental statute, the RMA should protect the aspects of the environment which are of interest to the tourist industry and which that industry exploits. Activities such as building hotels and lodges, jet boating operations, and making or upgrading tracks through bush require resource consents. Activities are assessed in terms of their impacts on the environment, especially those aspects which are included as matters of national importance (s 6), and other matters (s 7). Also relevant is the requirement to take into account the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi (s 8).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### New Zealand Tourism Board Act 1991

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Administered by</th>
<th>Ministry of Commerce</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| **Purpose**     | To establish the NZ Tourism Board, and define its object, functions, and powers.  

  To abolish the NZ Tourism Department. |
| **Object of the Board** | To ensure that New Zealand is so marketed as a visitor destination as to maximise long-term benefits. |
| **Functions**    | To develop, implement, and promote strategies for tourism.  

  To advise the government and the New Zealand tourism industry on matters relating to the development, implementation, and promotion of those strategies. |
<p>| <strong>Membership of the Board</strong> | Members are appointed by the Minister, who will have consulted with the NZ Tourist Industry Federation Inc, and other organisations and people who have a substantial interest in the Board’s operations. The Board may co-opt further members who are not able to vote. |
| <strong>Summary</strong>      | The Board is required to have regard to government policy in relation to tourism as stated by the Minister and to comply with any policy directions by the Minister. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourist and Health Resorts Control Act 1908</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administered by</td>
<td>• Ministry of Commerce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>• To provide for the administration and control of tourist and health resorts and reserves.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Summary                                  | • Reserves specified in the 2nd Schedule are administered under this Act and other reserves may be brought under it by Order in Council.  
• The Minister responsible may grant exclusive use of reserves for up to 10 days per year to clubs etc. Reserves covered include Waikaremoana Forest Reserve, Hanmer Thermal Springs, Whakarewarewa Thermal Springs Reserve. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourist Hotel Corporation of New Zealand Act 1989</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administered by</td>
<td>• The Treasury</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Purpose                                          | • To enable the Tourist Hotel Corporation of New Zealand to dispose of any of its property or business.  
• To enable the Corporation to be constituted as a company under the Companies Act 1955. |
| Notes                                            | • Provides for the shares in the corporation to be held by Ministers of the Crown, viz. the Minister of Finance and the Minister for State-Owned Enterprises.  
• Act is of no continuing effect as all the shares were sold following corporatisation of the THC. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conservation Act 1987 *</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administered by</td>
<td>• Department of Conservation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Purpose                                      | • An Act to promote the conservation of New Zealand’s natural and historic resources (long title).  
• ‘Conservation’ means the preservation and protection of natural and historic resources for the purpose of maintaining their intrinsic values, providing for their appreciation and recreational enjoyment by the public, and safeguarding the options of future generations. |
| Scope                                        | • Covers all land held under the Act and all other land whose owner agrees that it should be managed by DOC (s 6(a)).  
• The functions of the Department of Conservation are to administer the Conservation Act 1987 and the enactments specified in the First Schedule to that Act, and: |
|                                               | 6(e) To the extent that the use of any natural or historic resource for recreation or tourism is not inconsistent with its conservation, to foster the use of natural and historic resources for recreation, and to allow their use for tourism. |
| Concessions Policy                           | • The Minister of Conservation may grant concessions over conservation areas. Concessions enable commercial enterprises (other than mining and activities specifically allowed in relevant legislation) to operate on the conservation estate.  
• Applicants for concessions are responsible for identifying the possible effects of their proposal, and what may be done to avoid or reduce any adverse effects.  
• Provisions of the Act set out matters to be considered in processing |
applications, and reasons for declining an application.

- Concessions may be granted by way of lease, permit or easement, and may involve the payment of royalties or fees to the Minister.
- The Minister has powers to impose such conditions on concessions as considered appropriate.
- Activities carried out under a concession must not be inconsistent with the conservation of the resources the subject of the operations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reserves Act 1977 *</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administered by</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| Purpose             | • To provide for the preservation and management for the benefit and enjoyment of the public, areas possessing natural, scenic, historic, cultural, archaeological, biological, geological, scientific, educational, community, or other special features or value (s 3(1)(a)(v)).
|                     | • To ensure the survival of all indigenous species of flora and fauna in their natural habitats, and to preserve representative samples of all classes of natural ecosystems and landscape.
|                     | • To ensure the preservation of public access to the sea coast, off-shore islands, lake shores and riverbanks and to promote the preservation of the natural character of the coastal environment. |
| Summary             | • The Act provides for the acquisition, control, management, maintenance, preservation, development, and use of public reserves. Reserves may be acquired for various purposes and they may be vested in the Crown, a local authority, or some other administering body. Reserves are classified according to their primary purpose. Section 17 provides for recreation reserves as areas for recreation, sporting activities, and the physical welfare and enjoyment of the public, and for the protection of the natural environment and the beauty of the countryside. There is general freedom of entry on to reserves subject to any restrictions imposed by the administering body for the protection of the reserve or the public using it.
|                     | • Reserves may also be classified as historic, scenic, nature, scientific, government purpose, and local purpose.
|                     | • The administering body of a reserve may lease a recreation reserve or part of it to any person for recreation facilities |

* See note on page A41

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National Parks Act 1980 *</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administered by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Principles of the Act
- Parks are to be preserved in their natural state.
- Subject to the provisions of the Act, and to the imposition of such conditions and restrictions as may be necessary for the preservation of the native plants and animals or for the welfare in general of the parks, the public shall have freedom of entry and access to the parks, so that they may receive in full measure the inspiration, enjoyment, recreation, and other benefits that may be derived from mountains, forests, sounds, seacoasts, lakes, rivers, and other natural features.

### Summary
- The Act establishes a number of national parks and provides for further national parks to be established by Order in Council. The Crown may acquire land for national parks by purchase or take it under the Public Works Act. Parts of a national park may be set aside as specially protected areas, wilderness areas, or amenities areas. People wanting to enter specially protected areas require a permit from the Minister.
- DOC administers and manages the national parks in accordance with the statements of policy adopted by the New Zealand Conservation Authority and any management plan. The Minister may provide accommodation in parks for the public or for rangers.

### Concessions
- The Minister may grant concessions in respect of any park and Part IIIB of the Conservation Act will apply. A concession may only be granted if it would not be inconsistent with the principle that parks be maintained in their natural state and that the public have a right of entry.

* See note on page A41

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### Queen Elizabeth the Second National Trust Act 1977 *

**Administered by**
- Department of Conservation

**Purpose**
- *(Inter alia)* to encourage and promote the provision, protection and enhancement of open space for the benefit and enjoyment of the people of New Zealand.

**Queen Elizabeth II Trust**
- Has all the powers that are reasonably necessary or expedient to enable it to carry out its functions under the Act (s 21).
- May acquire by purchase or other means any interest in land, dispose of property, engage persons or organisations to do repairs on Trust property, impose charges for admission to Trust property, pay the rates for any owner of land who has executed an open space covenant in favour of the Trust or has allowed the Trust to use the land, publish reports, recommendations and other information relating to any functions of the Trust (s 21(2)).
- May negotiate and agree with land owners for owners to execute open space covenant (s 22).

* See note on page A41
New Zealand Walkways Act 1990 *

Administered by

- Department of Conservation.

Purpose

- To establish walking tracks over public and private land so that people shall have safe unimpeded foot access to the countryside for the benefit of physical recreation as well as for the enjoyment of the outdoor environment and the natural and pastoral beauty and historical and cultural qualities of the areas they pass through.

Rider on purpose

- Walkways are to be established and administered in a way which fully respects the rights of property owners, and the rights of public access created by the Act shall be for walking purposes only, unless specifically provided otherwise.

Powers of Director-General

- To establish camping grounds, huts etc, make arrangements for making the walkways accessible, approve charges for the use of facilities.

* See note on page A41

* Note re: Conservation, National Parks, QE II, Walkways and Reserves Acts

Powers of the Minister of Conservation or administering body in respect of national parks and reserves – the provisions may differ in detail depending on the type of reserve and for a national park. These are to:

- grant leases or licences for the business purposes on sites in the park or reserve for purposes connected with the purpose of the relevant Acts, viz the National Parks Act 1980, the Reserves Act 1977;
- enclose and close reserves if necessary to improve or allow regeneration of the reserves;
- construct footpaths and roadways;
- erect bridges, divert watercourse etc;
- enclose part of a reserve to allow grazing; and
- set apart any area for gardens, baths, picnic grounds, camping grounds, parking places or mooring places or for facilities and amenities necessary for the public using the reserve.

Other Acts

Wildlife Act 1953 (DOC)

To provide for the protection and control of wild animals and birds, the regulation of game shooting seasons, and the constitution and powers of acclimatisation societies.

Wild Animals Control Act 1977 (DOC)

To provide for the control of harmful species of introduced wild animals and the means of regulating the operations of recreational and commercial hunters, including wild animal recovery hunting using aircraft, so as to achieve concerted action and effective wild animal control.

Historic Places Act 1993 (DOC)

To promote the identification, protection, preservation and conservation of the historical and cultural heritage of New Zealand.
Trade in Endangered Species Act 1989 (DOC)
To further the protection and conservation of endangered species of wild fauna and flora by regulating the export and import of such species and any product derived from those species thus enabling New Zealand to fulfil its obligations under the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora.

Biosecurity Act 1993 (Ministry of Agriculture)
To provide for the exclusion, eradication and effective management of pests and unwanted organisms, particularly the management of risks associated with the importation or introduction of unwanted organisms etc through border control and pest management strategies.

Marine Pollution Act 1974 (MSA)
To provide for preventing and dealing with pollution of the sea, and to enable effect to be given to certain International Conventions (International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution of the Sea by Oil 1954 or its replacement convention, Convention on the Prevention of Marine Pollution by Dumping of Wastes and Other Matter 1972).

Maritime Transport Act 1994 (MSA)
Some parts of this Act are not yet in force, especially those dealing with the protection of the marine environment from pollution.
Inter alia, to enable the implementation of New Zealand’s obligations under international maritime agreements (MARPOL); to ensure that participants in the maritime transport system are responsible for their actions; to protect the marine environment; and to continue or enable the implementation of obligations on New Zealand under various international conventions relating to pollution of the marine environment.

Land Transport Act 1993 (MOT)
Creates the Land Transport Safety Authority. Authorises the making of rules relating to land transport. Rules may be made relating to safety and licensing.

Civil Aviation Act 1990 (CAA)
To establish rules of operation and divisions of responsibility within New Zealand civil aviation system in order to promote aviation safety, and to ensure that New Zealand’s obligations under international aviation agreements are implemented. Focuses on participants in the system, ie licensing of operators, safety standards for aircraft.

Health and Safety in Employment Act 1992 (Department of Labour)
To prevent harm to employees at work, and also, other people at work or affected by the work of other people. To promote excellence in health and safety management by employers, to prescribe and impose on employers and others duties in relation to the prevention of harm, to provide for the making of regulations and codes of practice relating to hazards to employees.

Health Act 1956 (Ministry of Health)
Assigns to the Ministry of Health the function of improving, promoting and protecting public health. The Director of Public Health advises the Director-General on matters including personal health, public health and regulation. Under this Act, regulations may be made
concerning camping grounds. Local authorities are required to provide sanitary works. Jurisdiction is held over water supply, waste disposal, and toilets.

**Local Government Act 1974 (Department of Internal Affairs)**
Establishes the system of local government comprising regional councils, territorial authorities, and unitary authorities. Provides for the functions and powers of local authorities. In particular, regional councils are empowered to engage in public relations and public information activities (s 593A) and, with the consent of the relevant territorial authorities, fund and coordinate the promotion of tourism within its region (s 593B).

**Building Act 1991 (Department of Internal Affairs)**
Concerned with safety standards for buildings, through Building Code. ‘Building’ is extremely widely defined.

**Earthquake Commission Act 1993 (Earthquake Commission)**
This Act does not apply to non-residential buildings, ie such buildings are not insured against natural disaster. Short-term accommodation is outside the definition of residential building.

**Hotel Association of New Zealand Act 1969 (Ministry of Justice)**
The purposes of the Association include:
to promote in any manner the Association thinks fit the general advancement of the hotel industry; to encourage improvements and developments in the hotel industry and in the provision of facilities and services for the public and overseas visitors in licensed hotels, tourist houses, and taverns in NZ.

**Legislation involving local authorities**

Of the Acts referred to in this Appendix, apart from the Local Government Act 1974, regional councils have functions and powers under:


Territorial authorities have functions and powers under:


**Other legislation which may impact on the tourism sector includes:**

- Harbours Act 1950 (especially regulations made under this Act);
- Transit New Zealand Act 1989 and the Transport Services Licensing Act 1989; and
# Appendix 7 Summary of Indirect Central Government Tourism-Related Expenditure, 1996-97 (GST Inclusive)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Department / Agency</th>
<th>Spending Categories</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>Regulatory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation and Environmental Management</td>
<td>DOC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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### APPENDIX 8  SURVEYS WITH RELEVANCE TO TOURISM

**TABLE 1: Statistics New Zealand collections and surveys with relevance to the tourism sector**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey/data source</th>
<th>Relevance to tourism sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour and employment statistics (Labour Force Survey, Quarterly Employment Survey)</td>
<td>Employment in the tourism sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Household Economic Survey</td>
<td>Expenditure on recreation and travel (also available at a regional level).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Census of Population and Dwellings (5-yearly)</td>
<td>Background information on the total New Zealand population. It also collects information on the characteristics of overseas and domestic visitors, including their age, gender, usual residence, ethnic group and location.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building activity data</td>
<td>Information on the building of tourist-associated infrastructure, including building consent data, which also provides an economic indicator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External migration statistics (from arrival and departure cards)</td>
<td>Collects information on the number and characteristics of persons travelling to New Zealand, including their age, sex, nationality, trip purpose and length of stay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural statistics</td>
<td>Statistics New Zealand is currently reviewing agricultural statistics, including information on the tourism/farming interaction. This is complementary to FRST-funded work on rural tourism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail sales and stock surveys</td>
<td>Provides some information on sales and stocks of tourism associated activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance of payments</td>
<td>Receipts generated by inbound tourism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business demographic data</td>
<td>Provides information on the numbers, location, structure and employment of some tourism-related activities (only if GST-registered).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business economic data (AES) and business census</td>
<td>Provides some economic measures (such as income and expenditure or balance sheet information) for business enterprises.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Price Index, Producer Price Index and Labour Cost Index</td>
<td>May provide some measures of the relationship of prices of tourism-related commodities to other commodities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
International Visitor Survey (NZTB)
Variables covered in the survey include:
• arrival date
• airport of arrival
• main reason for visit
• places stayed
• main transport type
• accommodation type
• number of nights at each place
• activities visited, eg museums
• length of stay
• expenditure questions
• country of last permanent residence
• personal details
• household income
• departure date

Tourist Accommodation Survey (SNZ)
Variables measured include:
• number of establishments
• capacity
• guest nights
• guest arrivals
• occupancy rate
• average length of stay
• employment (every third month)
• turnover (every third month)
• origin of guest (every third month)

DOC Conservancy Surveys
The following list indicates the type of monitoring activities undertaken by DOC conservancies in 1994 (Ward and Beanland 1995):
• visitor numbers and activities
• user profiles
• type of environment sought
• number of visitors to huts, tracks, field trips
• number of aircraft landings
• community perceptions
• water quality
• in caves: CO₂, humidity, rock and air temperature, siltation, flooding
• visual appearance
• visitor impacts and perceptions, eg overcrowding, rubbish, fishing pressure, campsite impacts, mountainbike impact, facilities, aircraft noise
• track condition using photo points
• visitor and facility impacts on birds
• attitudes to DOC
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Local authority</th>
<th>Area monitored</th>
<th>Parameters used</th>
<th>Other agencies involved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Auckland City Council</td>
<td>Airport visitor number, info bureaux and number to Gulf Island</td>
<td>• Visitor numbers</td>
<td>Tourism Auckland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rotorua District Council</td>
<td>Visitors to district</td>
<td>• Visitor numbers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taupo District Council</td>
<td>Lake Taupo and Waikato River</td>
<td>• Water quality</td>
<td>Waikato Regional Council, DOC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visitors to district</td>
<td>• Visitor numbers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Huka Falls</td>
<td>• Visitor numbers</td>
<td>NZTB, DOC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wellington Regional Council</td>
<td>Routine monitoring of regional parks and principal recreation areas</td>
<td>• Visitor numbers, Visual assessment of visitor impacts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regional surveys of outdoor recreation and use, 1988 and 1993</td>
<td>• Visitor preferences: setting &amp; facilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasman District Council</td>
<td>Maitai River</td>
<td>• Visitor numbers, activities</td>
<td>Fish and Game Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Waimea catchment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motueka and Riwaka Rivers and tributaries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christchurch City Council</td>
<td>Port Hills Survey 1993/94</td>
<td>• Tussock densities</td>
<td>DOC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mount Cavendish vegetation survey</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queenstown–Lake District Council</td>
<td>Monthly visitor monitoring – Queenstown and Wanaka</td>
<td>• Visitor numbers, Accommodation, Repeat visit intentions, Recommendation s to friends, Value for money, Means of transport</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southland District Council</td>
<td>Milford area monitoring</td>
<td>• Biological</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Big River, Stewart Island</td>
<td>• Effects of taxi boat wash on river banks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stewart Island monitoring</td>
<td>• Visitor information</td>
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</table>
The central features of the Rotorua district, on the northern side of the central plateau of the North Island, are the lakes and the geothermal and volcanic areas. The surrounding landscape includes native bush, mountains, and some rolling farmland in the south of the district. The 1996 census recorded a population of 67,000 people with approximately 85% living in Rotorua city. Other smaller centres of settlement include Ngongotaha, Kaingaroa, Mamaku and Reporoa. The population is younger than the national average and around one-third have some Maori ethnicity (Rotorua District Council 1994).

Tourism, farming, some horticulture, and forestry are the major sectors of the district’s economy. Farming has improved after a soil cobalt deficiency was addressed in the 1930s; exotic forestry, particularly *Pinus radiata*, has become enormously significant since the first plantings, also during the 1930s. However, tourism is now the biggest earner for the district, employing around 4,500 people and, in 1992, contributing $235 million to the local economy (Rotorua District Council 1994).

Rotorua developed as a visitor destination a result of its dramatic natural scenery, especially the world-famous Pink and White Terraces, destroyed by the Tarawera eruption in 1886. The district’s geothermal features include areas of spectacular activity such as Whakarewarewa, Waimangu and Tikitere, and the hot mineral waters which were the basis, from the late 1880s onwards, for Rotorua’s development as a spa town. Maori cultural experiences were also, from the outset, a particular attraction for tourists. This long history of hosting visitors has shaped and influenced Rotorua district in distinctive ways.

Tourism has, however, fluctuated over the years. In the 1980s the town was seen by many to be stagnating due to changing visitor patterns and demands, and a perceived shortage of quality accommodation. Since then civic works, construction of new accommodation and upgrading of key tourist attractions, including the Polynesian Spa, renewed marketing efforts, and growth in the total New Zealand market, have all helped Rotorua re-establish itself as one of New Zealand’s most visited destinations for both local and international tourists. In the 1995/96 year there were around 1.2 million visitors to Rotorua, with 1.3 million visitors expected for the 1996/97 year. The numbers are projected to continue growing.

**Domestic market:**
Over 600,000 of the visitors to Rotorua (55% of the total) are New Zealanders. The domestic market is significant, but has changed over time, with an increasing proportion of business and conference visitors...
and relatively fewer holidaying New Zealanders. Recent growth has been facilitated by more advertising to the domestic market and an increasing number of attractions in the area. Despite the fluctuations, the domestic tourist industry is calculated to have contributed $116.6 million to the local economy in 1992/93 (Rotorua District Council 1994).

**International market:**
The international market component is growing and changing. In 1992/93, almost one-third (32%) of all international visitors to New Zealand visited Rotorua. The origin and type of these visitors have varied due to growth in the European market, increasing numbers of Asian visitors, including Koreans and Taiwanese, increasing numbers of FITs and growth in the ‘adventure’ tourism market. These changes in the number and type of people visiting Rotorua will almost certainly influence the effects of the visitor industry on the environment.

### 2 Existing management systems and roles of various organisations

Numerous organisations and groups have an interest in the tourism sector and/or a role in managing the effects of that sector.

#### 2.1 Territorial local authority: the Rotorua District Council (RDC)

The RDC’s primary role in relation to the management of the effects of tourism is through planning and regulation under the RMA and the provision of the infrastructure required by tourists.

The council’s proposed district plan, notified in December 1993, identifies the importance of tourism to the district, noting that “council aims to increase Rotorua’s market share where both international and domestic tourism is concerned”. It also acknowledges tourism’s reliance on Rotorua’s natural and cultural assets, the pressure tourism places on existing infrastructure and natural resources, and the adverse effects that tourist activities can have on amenity values. Three key objectives are:

- maintenance of natural and cultural values which are not adversely affected by tourism activities;
- maintenance and enhancement of amenity values in tourist-oriented areas which reinforce the tourist resort atmosphere of the district; and
- maintenance of amenity values in areas neighbouring tourist-related activities, and protection of those values from adverse effects of the tourism sector.

In addition to general requirements to meet the objectives of the plan and protect elements of natural or cultural value, the RDC proposes to introduce a system of Standards and Criteria, according to the zone where the activity occurs, to which all activities will be expected to conform.
The RDC is responsible for the provision of much of the infrastructure on which tourism, and most functions of everyday living, depend (e.g., road maintenance, waste disposal, water supply, urban amenity and parking). It also has a role in controlling the provision of other infrastructure and services through its statutory planning functions. For example, the RDC identified a need for additional infrastructure, including hotel accommodation, in its district plan. These services are now specifically allowed for through zone provisions which facilitate such development in certain areas.

2.2 Regional Tourism Organisation (RTO)
The main mechanism for achieving tourism growth is the promotion and marketing of Rotorua by the RTO, ‘Tourism Rotorua’. Although industry organisations often contribute to specific marketing efforts by way of joint ventures, Tourism Rotorua’s administration is solely funded by the RDC. Tourism Rotorua has seven staff involved in marketing and an annual budget from the RDC of approximately $1 million.

Although RDC funds Tourism Rotorua, it is the Rotorua Tourism Advisory Board (RTAB) that gives it specific marketing direction, providing information and advice from a range of interested parties. The RTAB includes representatives from the district council (councillors, staff and mayor), NZTB and a group of local Maori tourism operators. They have identified the following key issues for tourism marketing in the area:
- domestic marketing;
- international marketing;
- seasonal trade issues and events marketing;
- financing/funding;
- Maori tourism; and
- special projects.

In 1996 the RTAB produced the Rotorua Tourism Strategic Plan 1996–2005 (RTAB, 1996), a broad-ranging strategy which:
- provides a framework for tourism industry and community activities;
- raises awareness of the importance of tourism to Rotorua; and
- provides a mechanism to plan for the future, to anticipate opportunities and threats, and to instigate programmes for improving Rotorua’s tourism industry.

The Strategic Plan identifies environmental tourism as one of Rotorua’s strategic directions; this issue is handled by the special projects portfolio of the RTAB. The plan identifies the importance of “the environmental integrity of New Zealand’s tourism operators” and the need for resources and the environment to be well managed if sustainable tourism growth is to be achieved. It notes:
- the importance of overseas market perceptions of New Zealand;
- discrimination by green consumers based on environmental health factors;
• the opportunity to improve business performance through ‘eco-efficiency’;
• the importance of managing development carefully under the RMA to prevent the legislation from hindering Rotorua’s development as a tourist destination; and
• the importance of caring for the environment for Rotorua’s citizens and for global tourism customers.

The RTO advises that there is a need to ensure the right balance between environment and business. The business environment in Rotorua is highly competitive; delays in utilising an opportunity can mean its “death knell”. This environment, the RTO suggests, makes it difficult for companies to plan strategically and difficult for companies to be persuaded to “think environment”.

2.3 The regional councils: Environment Bay of Plenty and Environment Waikato
The Rotorua District covers the areas administered by two regional councils. These councils are responsible for the regulation of the use of natural resources including water and geothermal resources. Harbour management, including some inland waterways, is also within their jurisdiction.

Unlike the RDC, the regional councils play no part in promoting tourism. However, managing resource use through regional policy statements, plans and regulations means that they have some influence over tourism through the control of its effects. One relevant plan is the Proposed Rotorua Geothermal Regional Plan prepared by Environment Bay of Plenty (EBOP). This plan places limits on the extent and methods of use of the geothermal resource to:
• ensure long-term availability of the resource;
• protect the surface features; and
• preserve both the baths and geysers on which tourism in Rotorua is so reliant.

EBOP’s regional policy statement makes no mention of tourism, although it is noted by council staff that all the aspects discussed in the statement are impacted on by tourism. Environment Waikato covers the southern part of the district. This area is mainly flatter land used predominantly for farming, but includes some significant geothermal fields. In some instances, coordination between the two regional councils is required.

2.4 Tangata whenua
Maori have an interest and an active role in tourism management, and a long history of involvement in tourism in Rotorua. As the Crown’s partners under the Treaty of Waitangi, tangata whenua have input through the structures of government including the local and regional councils.
Maori in Tourism, Rotorua is an independent group of Maori tourism operators who address issues and pursue joint interests. Maori in Tourism are represented on the RTAB and, as such, have input into the activities of Tourism Rotorua. This Maori representation was generally viewed positively by those consulted.

The Te Arawa Standing Committee of the RDC provides advice and input about generic policy issues relating to tangata whenua and the council. The committee has an advisory role. Some Maori consulted for this investigation questioned the committee’s representation and mandate, although recent changes to the process of electing members may lessen such concerns. One Maori tourism operator noted that the present structure gives “a door in” to the decision and policy making process.

The Aotearoa Maori Tourism Federation is a national organisation based in Rotorua. It operates principally at the national level, providing information and support to Maori in the tourism industry.

The Ministry of Maori Development (Te Puni Kokiri) is proactive towards tourism in Rotorua. The office encourages and assists the involvement of Maori in tourism. It also provides advice to local authorities and liaises between various Maori groups and other agencies.

The New Zealand Maori Arts and Crafts Institute (NZMACI) was set up by statute in 1963; its members are appointed by the Governor General on the recommendation of the Minister. Its functions are to encourage, foster and promote all types of Maori culture and the practice and appreciation of Maori arts and crafts. The NZMACI provides a centre for people to learn, watch and participate in aspects of Maori culture. The involvement of the NZMACI in tourism is based at Whakarewarewa, where the Institute runs tours for visitors through the reserve.

The Lake Rotoiti and Lake Okataina Scenic Reserves Boards administer, under s 30 of the Reserves Act, land gifted to the Crown in 1922 under the Scenic Protection Act. Their role has changed over the years, but Board members, with direct kinship with the original owners, have ongoing kaitiaki responsibilities for the land and its management. The Rotoiti and Okataina Lakes, surrounding land, and the Kaituna River are all used for tourism purposes (see Box R.1).

2.5 Community Groups

In Rotorua there are several ratepayer, community and environmental groups which do not have a formal relationship with local authorities, but involve themselves in tourism decision-making through statutory processes and general advocacy. Representatives of one group did indicate that they have had difficulty being involved in statutory
processes due to limited time and resources and were frustrated with the decision-making process for both tourism and general developments.

2.6 Industry organisations
A number of industry organisations are active in Rotorua. Many of these, including the Motel Association of New Zealand (MANZ) and Motel Marketing Rotorua, provide information to their members and have a role in advocating for the tourism sector. The local hotel general managers’ group is a strong lobby group which has significant input into Tourism Rotorua.

2.7 The Department of Conservation (DOC)
DOC has a strong presence in Rotorua, which is the headquarters for the Bay of Plenty regional conservancy. DOC plays a part in managing the effects of tourism in Rotorua by processing concessions for commercial operations on the conservation estate and providing facilities and infrastructure for visitors. The importance of DOC’s role in tourism was emphasised by one district council source noting that there is “heavy reliance” by the industry on the conservation estate. Concessions for tourism-related activities on the conservation estate in the Bay of Plenty conservancy include concessions to provide visitor services and tours around geothermal sites, run rafting trips through conservation land, and take guided fishing tours into remote areas.

The Draft Bay of Plenty Conservation Management Strategy addresses visitor management and facility provision as well as the processing of concession applications. Providing facilities and infrastructure has a significant impact on the effects of visitors. By providing facilities, DOC can increase visitor numbers to an area and, by provision of services and management of visitors, limit both the physical and social effects.

In addition to the direct land and visitor management responsibilities of the department, DOC also has an important advocacy role. District plan reviews and resource consent processes are used by DOC to advocate positively and proactively for conservation on private land. The aim of advocacy is to achieve balance between different objectives, including conservation, tourism and development.

2.8 New Zealand Tourism Board (NZTB)
The NZTB has a regional office in Rotorua staffed by one regional liaison manager. This officer covers the Rotorua area as well as Waikato, Hawkes Bay, Eastland, Taupo and Taranaki, maintaining a liaison role with the industry, and assisting tourism operators by providing information. He is also on the RTAB and has a strong working relationship with Tourism Rotorua.
Box R.1 Kaituna River Rafting

The Kaituna River drains Lake Rotorua and flows northwards via Lake Rotoiti to the sea at Maketu. In 1984 the Waitangi Tribunal ruled against the disposal of treated effluent from Rotorua city into the Kaituna, acknowledging the significance of the river to Ngati Pikiao, their role as kaitiaki of the river and their mana over it.

The river is significant for tourism in that it is a highly regarded trout fishing river, flows through the popular Okere Falls near Lake Rotoiti, and has many other attractive rapids and waterfalls, some of which are used by commercial operators for rafting. The lower reaches of the river are used by commercial jet boat operators, and the river is popular for non-commercial recreation including canoeing, rafting and fishing.

Rafting on the Kaituna has created deep controversy over the river and its management. Effects from the activity include:

- cultural offence;
- interference with waahi tapu sites (including burial caves on the river banks);
- social effects (eg people changing by the side of the road);
- noise;
- erosion due to people climbing banks;
- litter; and
- crowding on the river.

Safety concerns have also been noted, including the inability of some foreign visitors to understand instructions, the height of some of the waterfalls, and the steep nature of the gorge.

The river and its surrounding land are managed by a number of different agencies. Most of the part of the river used by commercial rafting companies runs through a DOC reserve. This land is administered by two boards: the Lake Rotoiti Scenic Reserves Board and the Lake Okataina Scenic Reserves Board. The land used by rafters to enter the river is owned by Transit New Zealand, and the land used to exit the river is a district council reserve. Responsibility for activities on the river itself has been taken by different agencies over the past five years. When rafting was first noted as a problem, the RDC moved to take responsibility, but found that because of the drawing of harbour limits by the regional council, the river was actually under EBOP’s jurisdiction under the Harbours Act. When control remained a problem, some members of Ngati Pikiao applied to the Minister for the Environment to become a Heritage Protection Authority under the Historic Places Act with a view to protecting the river, among other taonga. RDC then imposed a heritage protection order under their own authority to protect the river, limit rafting and avoid the situation whereby an iwi authority was a Heritage Protection Authority. The heritage order was lifted recently.
Presently, DOC is working with the regional council to find ways to control rafting on the Kaituna River. DOC had initiated an arrangement, under s 59 of the Reserves Act, with six of the eight operators to apply for concessions, which would allow the Department to control the number of rafts using the river and the way they operate. However, not all of the operators were clearly identified, nor were they all in negotiation with DOC.

This arrangement has not been finalised and DOC is also considering alternative management mechanisms. Options include the passing of bylaws by the Reserves Board to control rafting, and the use of a cooperative management agreement between the Board and the rafting operators. The competitive nature of the rafting business means that operational or environmental short-cuts are one way to underprice the competition. It has been suggested that self policing, or adoption of Codes of Ethics, could be of limited effect. In such situations, regulation is difficult and often requires some peer review to ensure compliance.

Ngati Pikiao are not unanimous about whether there should be rafting on the river at all. Some members support the use of the river for tourist activities because it provides opportunities for employment for their people, while others are adamantly opposed to any use of the river for commercial and recreation activities. In relation to the protection of waahi tapu sites, the RDC noted that the District Plan process will allow for the protection of the sites, but that the process is too slow for immediate control. There is general dissatisfaction in Ngati Pikiao with the lack of control over the uses of the river, tied in to frustration that more general control of the river has not been handed over to tangata whenua in the light of the Waitangi Tribunal report. Ngati Pikiao’s claim to become a Heritage Protection Authority is still before the High Court. Furthermore, the Resource Management Amendment Bill (No 3) proposes significant changes to the processes for obtaining heritage orders, proposing:

- to exclude water bodies from the range of places that a heritage order can be placed over;
- changes to the decision-making role of territorial authorities with regard to heritage orders; and
- a new definition of kaitiakitanga.

It appears that some of the confusion about the management of the Kaituna River is the result of a delay in the completion of reforms of the Harbours Act, reforms which were initiated at the time of the resource management law reform. In the meantime, the lack of control over rafting continues.
Effects noted and issues raised by those interviewed in the course of this investigation cover a broad range, including social, physical and cultural effects. It is interesting to note that although there were more specific negative effects noted than positive, most of those spoken to were positive about the overall contribution tourism has made to the district. This impression is confirmed by consultation undertaken by RDC for the strategic plan preparation in 1997, which indicated that Rotorua residents are generally happy with tourism, although they value the relative size of the town and the natural and rural environment of the district and want to protect these qualities.

The issues arising for the management of the environmental effects of tourism in the Rotorua District are wide ranging, but there are many recurring themes and areas of concern and debate. The main issues identified are noted in the following sections.

3.1 Management of activities in natural areas
Activities in natural areas are an increasingly significant component of the tourism industry in Rotorua. The growth in numbers of FITs, along with the advent of adventure tourism and eco-tourism, have spawned both demand for, and supply of, a wide range of outdoor activities such as tramping, fishing and flying. This burgeoning component of the tourism sector is seen by many as a significant threat to the natural environment. As one person noted, eco-tourism is supposed to be environmentally sensitive, but there are many mis-claims to the name. The same source noted that in adventure tourism there are many operators who take advantage of natural areas but do not protect or respect them. It was also noted that the low entry costs for certain kinds of tourism result in many, often marginally profitable, operators who then argue they cannot afford to be environmentally sensitive. One frequently cited example is the large number of rafting companies operating on the Kaituna River (see Box R.1).

A wide range of effects was identified by those consulted. These included loss of ‘wilderness feel’, disruption due to aeroplane and helicopter noise, and physical damage to facilities, including tracks.

It was acknowledged that there is conflict between different groups of users of natural areas. One of those consulted noted that where tourist ventures seek out new and often remote places, conflict can occur with local users as well as with other activities such as forestry. DOC noted that in some areas the locals don’t want tourists at all due to the threats they perceive to their lifestyle. Several people noted that some locals no longer go to natural areas where they feel there are too many other people, or are displaced to more remote areas.

According to some of those consulted, the ability of DOC to control the effects of visitors on conservation land, both directly and through the management of concessions, is constrained through lack of funding.
Some issues relating to the management of concessions by DOC are illustrated in the Waimangu Volcanic Valley example given in Box R.2.

### 3.2 Lakes management

The Rotorua Lakes, a group of 23 lakes of various sizes, are universally recognised as one of the major natural taonga of the Rotorua district. The local tourism sector relies on them for a multitude of activities, including fishing, boating, swimming and launch trips. Lake margins are heavily used for a wide variety of purposes including nature reserves, camping, hotels, marae, and roads. The margins are also under heavy pressure from other uses such as forestry and residential development.

The protection and management of the lakes are important for tourism. There have been decades of ongoing debate about lakes management, although some people feel that little has been achieved. At present a new approach to lakes management is being defined through the development of the Lakes Management Strategy (LMS) by RDC, EBOP and the Te Arawa Maori Trust Board. The LMS is due to be completed in 1998. It is hoped that the joint approach will lead to more integrated and coordinated management.

Because the activities and jurisdictions of many different agencies impact on the lakes, management requires considerable coordination. The regional council is responsible for water quality. The RDC manages use of the surface of the lake. Land use around the lakes is mainly the jurisdiction of the RDC, although DOC and the regional councils have responsibilities for the management of reserves and the conservation estate. DOC also has an advocacy role. Reserves boards manage parts of the shores. Fourteen of the lakes including Lake Rotorua are administered by the Te Arawa Trust Board. The Crown pays a small rental to the Board in return for control of the bed of the lakes.

It is evident that the large number of parties involved or interested in the lakes makes their management complicated, particularly with the split between district and regional council responsibilities. Regardless of who manages the lakes, balancing conflicting uses and demands is difficult.

For tourism, management needs to address the safety of lakes users, the quality of their experience, and conflicting demands. The need for access and facilities for boaties, water skiers and jet skiers, can conflict with access and use by swimmers, walkers, fishers, and tangata whenua. On the land surrounding the lakes conflicts also arise. The proposed Crater Lake Hotel development discussed in Box R.3 highlights these kinds of conflicts.

Local Maori advise that, due to increased lakes usage for various activities and increased use of margins and catchments, several of the lakes including Lake Rotorua have seen significant reduction in water quality and loss of fish and other kai moana. Until the early 1990s,
treated sewage from the city was discharged into Lake Rotorua, further reducing its quality, and offending tangata whenua.

There has been some debate, and an appeal to the Environment Court, over the way the RDC handled the management of the lakes in its notified District Plan. There is also concern over the status and effectiveness of the Lakes Management Strategy, which will be a non-statutory document, and its eventual incorporation into planning documents. One environmental group is seeking interim controls in the plan, and others are concerned that there could be a rush to develop lake margins before tighter controls anticipated under the LMS are in place.

Box R.2  Waimangu Volcanic Valley

Waimangu Volcanic Valley is a popular tourist attraction, visited by some 60,000 visitors in 1996. The attraction, featuring geothermal features, hot springs and native bush in a lakes setting, is run under a lease from DOC. The part of the Waimangu Valley used under lease from DOC is a scenic reserve. A further area of land for which the operator has a land crossing concession is a communication reserve. The communications reserve is subject to Treaty claim.

Since the present lease holder purchased the lease in 1990, negotiations with DOC have been underway to allow improvements and developments to the attraction. DOC has required the lessee to draw up a development plan with environmental impact assessments, and appropriate measures were taken to ensure the mitigation of any adverse effects. DOC anticipates that the lease, when it is finalised, will be read in conjunction with the development plan and will be flexible enough to allow the development while still outlining clear responsibilities.

The lease holder indicated that the process of developing Waimangu has been a learning experience for all parties, including DOC. The following specific issues were identified.

- The need to work with interested parties, such as Friends of Waimangu, a group that opposed the original development suggestions. Planning through consensus with interested parties had paid off, even though it “took ages”, with the present plan to develop further tracks and a viewing platform having been agreed to by all parties.

- The fee charged for entry into the reserve. Fees are set each year by the regional conservator acting under delegation from the Minister of Conservation, based on factors including estimated market price and comparisons with similar operations. There was some concern expressed by the lease holder that the price is controlled by the Department. He noted that Waimangu Volcanic Valley is a ‘boutique’ attraction which attracts a good class of visitor and
provides a top-class experience. However, the New Zealand public’s expectation that such features should be readily accessible means that DOC has an interest in controlling the charges.

• The ability of controlled attractions like Waimangu to limit the damage done by visitors. Controlled access, use of clearly marked paths and viewing platforms, and the presence of employees all mean that visitors have less chance to stray from the ‘hardened’ areas into sensitive or dangerous ones. It was also noted that managed access provides the opportunity for visitors to be informed and educated during their visit.

• The monitoring of the effects of visitors in the reserve. DOC had hoped to monitor the effects of visitors, but this has not been achieved as the parties have been unable to agree on baseline information. Another stumbling block was DOC’s desire for the lease holder to ensure that no damage was done by visitors, something that he claimed simply cannot be guaranteed.

• The number of laws and regulations that govern the operation of such ventures and which impose notable costs on the lease holder, including the Occupational Health and Safety Act, ACC, Employment Act, RMA, and Conservation Act. These, together with the requirements imposed through the lease agreement, led him to fear that the lease may become too rigid to be economic or workable.

Although there have been challenges in making the lease work and in the relationship between the parties, the Waimangu Volcanic Valley is a successful tourist venture providing an informative and interesting experience. The development of good personal relationships between the parties, including the lease holder and DOC staff, is seen to be one of the key factors to the successful operation of the tourist venture under the concessions regime. DOC staff noted that the lease negotiated must ensure the protection of conservation interests but also acknowledge and balance the business objectives of the lessee.

3.3 The management of geothermal resources
The Rotorua District’s geothermal resources are as important a taonga as the lakes. Geysers, mud pools, hot mineral pools and steaming craters are immensely popular with tourists. Geothermal attractions are the top natural attraction for overseas visitors with 45% visiting a geothermal site (NZTB 1995/96 IVS).

The use of this resource is controversial. Using the geothermal resource to provide relatively inexpensive hot water has been an attraction for both domestic and commercial users, but, according to
many of those consulted, has resulted in very wasteful and inefficient use of the geothermal resource. The extensive use of geothermal water from bores has been implicated in a reduction in geothermal and geyser activity at Whakarewarewa and elsewhere, which is seen as a threat to the resource that attracts so many visitors.

In the mid-1980s, bores in a 1.5-kilometre radius of the Whakarewarewa Village were closed to protect the geothermal field. The closures were controversial, particularly with domestic users and operators in the very competitive motel and hotel industry. There are also now limits to the depth to which bores can be drilled.

As with the lakes, a number of different agencies have management responsibilities. The regional council has primary responsibility for managing the geothermal resource. Its proposed Rotorua Geothermal Regional Plan, which has been appealed to the Environment Court, aims to protect the unique surface features of the field (including sinter cones, mud pools, and geysers), and to achieve a sustainable balance between use and protection. The RDC manages the surface features. DOC, as landowner, has responsibilities for some of the geothermal areas. The TPG administers three Crown reserves in Rotorua under the Tourist and Health Resort Control Act, 1908: Whakarewarewa geothermal field; Roto-a-tamaheki (Boiling Lake); and the golf course geothermal area. The TPG does little active management. Two of the reserves are leased with long-term renewable leases; the third reserve is looked after by the people of Whakarewarewa Village, although the TPG and Rahui Trust are presently in the process of preparing a joint safety management plan for the reserve.

Tangata whenua have a strong interest in the geothermal resource. There are competing Treaty of Waitangi claims for the Whakarewarewa geothermal field, and a claim by Te Arawa for the geothermal resource itself.

The management issues arising for geothermal resources are an interesting example of how the use of natural resources for purposes other than tourism can impact on the tourism sector.

### 3.4 Subdivision and development pressure on natural and rural areas

The pressure created by tourism to expand specific developments such as semi-urban subdivision, lodge/hotel developments and roads was noted by many of those consulted. Such pressure was seen to be a threat to the environment. One resident noted that tourist developments are usually located in the most beautiful, pristine natural places.

A range of concerns were raised. According to one environmental group, developments tend to exclude locals psychologically rather than legally or physically. RDC claims, however, that “almost all hotels seeks local use aggressively as a business decision”. Fear of gradual
erosion of the special character of the area is felt by several of those consulted. It was noted that once one hotel is established it is hard to keep others out. In addition, one group commented that big developments and “creeping commercialism” diminish the value of a natural area to all parties, visitors as well as locals.

While most of those consulted expressed concern about the intrusion of tourist developments and activities into natural areas, it was observed by one Maori representative that tangata whenua are being prevented from developing their land (often the last remaining natural and bush areas) by conservationists and recreationists opposing developments through the statutory planning processes. It was felt that legal constraints and the objectives of well-to-do non-Maori who enjoy or even rely on the pristine remnants were inhibiting Maori development opportunities (see 3.6 below).

Some additional points were raised in relation to the pressure tourism places on the natural and rural environment. The lack of long-term planning for tourism was seen by some to be a major problem and a factor in the loss of special and wilderness areas. One group felt that the present rate of growth and lack of control over development means that the district is losing its clean, green environment. Concern was also raised about the level of commitment by the industry to the environment and sustainable management of the resources which underpin tourism. There was widespread apprehension among those consulted that pressure by developers, operators and visitors would destroy the unique value of the natural environment.

**Box R.3 Crater Lake Hotel**

Arbridge Developments Limited developed a proposal for a resort, based around a 480-bed hotel and golf course, on land between Lakes Tarawera and Okareka, overlooking those two lakes and Lake Okataina. In addition to the hotel, tennis courts, horse trekking, a heliport, conference centre, restaurant and bar were proposed.

The application for the development was lodged with the RDC in July 1995 and notified in October 1995 allowing for submissions from the public. Of the 78 submissions received, 61 were totally opposed to the development. Matters of concern included:

- the scale and intensity of the development;
- traffic effects, including noise, safety and community impacts;
- water quality;
- landscape and visual impacts;
- effects on indigenous vegetation;
- cumulative effects of developments in a pristine area;
- loss of privacy for local people; and
- the proposal being contrary to the rural character of the area.
Consultation with iwi was undertaken and support for the proposal was obtained from some Maori landowners and kaumatua, although other Maori lodged submissions opposing the development.

By the time the application was considered by the RDC, EBOP had granted consent for the discharge of treated sewage and for taking water from two bores on the site. This consent was processed without being notified, which angered those opposed to the development since it denied them the opportunity to scrutinise the effluent disposal system.

The application was considered under the transitional and proposed district plans. Both plans had to be considered as the rural zoning of the proposed plan is the subject of an outstanding appeal.

Although concerns of the community were wide ranging, the RDC’s report focused primarily on the effects of the increased traffic on the road to the site and helicopter traffic. At present, the road leading to the site is a gravel, rural road which passes through part of the Lake Okareka settlement, with an average of 214 vehicles per day and no coaches. It was estimated that the new hotel would bring 916 vehicles and 46 coaches per day.

The RDC recommended that the application be declined on the grounds that the effects of the proposal were not minor and the proposal itself was contrary to policies and objectives of the district plan. The primary factors underpinning this recommendation were the effects of increased traffic, together with the noise and visual impacts of the helicopter flights. However the council granted the consent in October 1996. The consent included 42 conditions which the council considered addressed all the concerns raised by submitters.

Concerns about the granting of the consent remain widespread in the community. One group felt that the decision to grant the consent was political, showing “scant regard for the provisions of the Resource Management Act”. There are also fears that the hotel would open the area of Lake Okareka, Tarawera and Okataina up for further development, making the Crater Lake Hotel “the thin edge of the wedge”.

The consent was appealed to the Environment Court by an environmental group jointly with two ratepayers’ groups. On October 8 1997, Arbridge announced that the development would no longer go ahead and that the property had been sold.

3.5 Paying for the provision of infrastructure
In Rotorua, questions arise about who provides and pays for the infrastructure serving tourists. According to RDC policy, where
infrastructure is inadequate to handle extra demand resulting from a new development, the developer pays directly for the required upgrade, or a portion of it, depending on benefits to other parties. In greenfield developments, the developer pays for the infrastructure required.

The RDC has recently installed a new sewerage system for the city, largely paid for by government subsidy. The new system has a high capacity, and at present sewage disposal is not seen to be a limiting factor on developments. However, concerns have been raised about the safety of the new system. Cultural sensitivity to human waste contamination of waterways may also restrict any expansion of the scheme.

Water supply in Rotorua is from several springs around the district. There are no retention dams or need for treatment because the water is abundant and of extremely high quality. RDC advise that monitoring is in place to identify any future problems in quantity or quality. New developments pay for connection to the reticulation system and all commercial/industrial and rural properties have water meters. Supply of water is not seen to be a threat for, or from, the tourism sector.

Roads are another infrastructure investment crucial to tourism. In the Rotorua district, there is some concern over the cost imposed on ratepayers for the maintenance of roads. There is no separate works and services charge in Rotorua and road maintenance, other than for state highways, is paid for from the general rate. The Crater Lakes Hotel proposal featured in Box R.3 highlights some of the concerns of the community.

The RDC has been active in beautifying the central city over the last five years. When the council had to undertake major street works to replace underground reticulation in the centre of the city, they saw this as a good opportunity to take an urban design approach to putting the streets back together. The result has generally been seen as a benefit to the city and to the tourism sector, although the work was aimed at local citizens’ rather than tourists’ needs. Not all of those consulted support the approach taken. One community group felt that the redevelopment had missed the opportunity to “do something uniquely Maori”, and had instead fallen prey to a drive to internationalise towns to make them acceptable to tourists. It was noted that visitor needs and expectations are not always the same as for local citizens.
3.6 Maori cultural issues
Maori culture is a very significant component of tourism in Rotorua. The district’s cultural heritage is one of the drawcards of tourism and is used extensively in marketing. Maori tourism operators are active, providing a range of products including tours, concerts, and marae visits. In 1995/96, 36% of overseas visitors attended a Maori cultural performance while in New Zealand (NZTB IVS).

Tangata whenua of the area are Te Arawa, a grouping which includes a number of iwi and hapu, some of which have competing Treaty of Waitangi claims. In addition to Te Arawa, many Maori from other rohe are active in tourism in Rotorua. One of the best-known and most successful of these operators is Tamaki Tours. This company takes visitors to a marae complex that was specially constructed for the tourism business because the group did not have ancestral marae in the area.

Many Maori in Rotorua are promoting ventures of various types, such as the proposed development of a rack-railway and associated visitor services on Mount Tarawera, or the proposal by Ngati Whakaue, in association with the American First Nation group Dreamcatchers, for a casino development. There is some tension between such groups and some in the community who seek to protect the environment from what they see to be inappropriate development. It was noted that Maori land, which has often not yet been heavily developed or modified, is now seen as significant for its conservation or scenic values. Taking up development opportunities can put Maori in direct conflict with those who rely on the natural, unspoiled character of an area for their income (eg tourist operators), and with those conservationists and recreationists who are committed to protecting the natural environment.

When those consulted were asked about the effects of tourism on Maori, the responses were marked by ambivalence. The economic benefits of tourism to Maori were widely acknowledged, but it was also claimed that the jobs generated by tourism are often unskilled, poorly paid, part time and seasonal. Employment opportunities for Maori are seen by many to be limited unless Maori initiate and control their own involvement in tourism.

Another benefit mentioned was that tourism provides opportunities for Maori to promote culture, but others see the use of the culture for tourism as inappropriate. Failure to interpret cultural heritage correctly for visitors was seen as degrading and offensive, as a trivialisation, or as a loss of control by tangata whenua over their own cultural identity.

There is also concern that Maori do not always benefit from the use of the culture, one example being Maori-style carvings sold in souvenir shops but produced by non-Maori. GST is collected by the government from the sale of these products, but the people on whose culture the product is based often gain nothing.
Direct physical effects, specifically desecration of waahi tapu by either uninformed or vindictive visitors, and damage to Maori sites, were also noted. Many of the key tourism icons, such as Whakarewarewa, are based in Maori communities. Increased use of these features by visitors leads to crowding, increased noise, litter, vandalism and competition for parking.

For Maori, the effects of tourism extend beyond the obvious cultural components of tourist attractions. In Rotorua, control of resources has a significant impact on the cultural effects of tourism. According to several Maori consulted, loss of control of resources over the past century has gradually eroded the mana of tangata whenua as well as their ability to benefit from the resources in their area. Many of the resources with which Maori have strong traditional, spiritual and cultural connections, including the lakes and rivers, are now being degraded. The reduction in quality of the lakes over the past decades has, some people report, resulted in loss of traditional food resources. The uses of land and other resources, therefore, are a significant determinant of the effect of tourism on local cultural and economic well-being.

It is apparent from those consulted that tourism provides both opportunities and problems for Maori. Involvement in decision-making is seen by the Ministry of Maori Development as an important way of protecting the culture and its interests, but, as one person involved in Maori tourism noted, Maori are in fact “still marginalised” in the tourism industry. Several respondents noted reasons why it is hard for Maori to be involved in tourism planning through the RMA. These included:

- poor relationships between local authorities and iwi and hapu;
- lack of resources or payment by councils for Maori expertise;
- lack of clarity about local authority roles, responsibilities and processes;
- lack of education of non-Maori, essential if Maori and non-Maori are to work together; and
- over-complexity of formal documents.

Given that Maori have often found themselves marginalised in the tourism sector, it was stated by one of those consulted that “in tourism, Maori found it better to work alongside tourism operators than to try to bash on doors”. The overriding view is that Maori should:

- be more involved in management of tourism;
- have more say over the ways their culture and places of traditional significance are used, and
- receive direct benefits from that use.

### 3.7 Involvement of local government in tourism
In Rotorua, the RDC plays an active role in promoting and facilitating tourist developments. The council acknowledges the role that it plays
in encouraging tourism and notes the need for a balance between that
and other functions and objectives.

Through its Economic Development Unit, the RDC has actively
pursued growth in the district. One tourism-related example of the
approach used is the development of new hotels in the town. A
perception of a lack of top-quality hotels in the early 1990s was seen to
be a constraint to growth. Accordingly, the district council put a resort
zone for hotel development into the proposed district plan, and the
council’s Economic Development Unit actively pursued new projects
by approaching developers and undertaking a feasibility study on the
economics of a new facility.

Some of those consulted were concerned about the role the RDC plays
in promoting development. It was suggested that the council faces a
conflict of interest in promoting tourist-related developments while
fulfilling its regulatory functions and responding to community
concerns. In addition, many of those consulted, particularly community
and Maori representatives, expressed concern about a perceived lack of
planning for tourism development. There was from some a feeling that
the community is powerless to control or prevent developments which
are perceived to have an adverse effect on their environment, and that
the council is too focused on promoting tourism growth and
development generally to ensure that the long-term effects and interests
of the community are considered. As advocates for nature
conservation, DOC expressed concern about the attitude of the RDC
and Tourism Rotorua to tourism. It was suggested that the key element
of sustainability has been overlooked.

The RDC notes that there have also been some complaints from the
public about the amount spent on tourism development and promotion.
The primary focus of Tourism Rotorua is on promotion, but it also has
a wider role, including product development and visitor information
services, which differentiates it from many other RTOs.

The inclusion in the RTAB’s Rotorua Tourism Strategic Plan of
environmental tourism recognises the need to protect the environment
for tourism, and acknowledges the role of the RTO in encouraging
“environmentally sustainable practices” and informing the industry
about their responsibilities.

3.8 Liaison between organisations

Liaison between the agencies responsible for managing resources is a
critical issue in the management of the effects of tourism in Rotorua.
As outlined above, many of the issues arising relate to resources for
which a number of agencies have some responsibility.

There were various reasons given by those consulted for the failure of
organisations to work constructively together, including:
• the fact that the statutory documents governing much resource
management in the area, the Regional Policy Statements and the
District Plan, were prepared at different times;
• the perceived limitations of the RPS in relation to tourism planning,
possibly because the effects-based plan does not deal with specific
activities in terms of policy requirements;
• law changes which can result in changes in the empowering
authority, making it hard for people to know which agency to
approach;
• difficulties for non-Maori to identify and liaise with the appropriate
iwi or hapu, or other Maori agency or contacts;
• some of the smaller tourism operators’ poor understanding of the
respective roles and responsibilities of the different agencies in the
tourism sector; and
• personalities, which it was noted in some instances had a strong
influence on the ability of agencies to work together.

While there were many examples given of agencies not coordinating
their approaches, there were also some where structures and
relationships are helping build closer working relationships. In one
example, DOC staff noted that they are now liaising more closely with
Tourism Rotorua, which has provided the opportunity for contact with
the tourism hierarchy. In another example, the proposed Mount
Tarawera development is seen by the Ministry of Maori Development
as something of a test case in that it constitutes a “huge interplay of
authorities” requiring a coordinated and cooperative approach.

3.9 Lack of information and monitoring
While many of those consulted expressed views on specific
management issues relating to the effects of tourism, there was
widespread concern and comment about the lack of information about
those effects, and general consensus about the need for more research.

As noted by the RDC, there is “not enough research into tourism and its
sustainability” in an environmental sense. Council staff also indicated
that there is a fundamental need to know “what we’ve got and how to
measure it”, although it was acknowledged that many of the values of
amenity and character are very hard to measure because of their
subjectivity. One Maori tourism operator noted that there must be a
saturation point, but that no one knows where that point is. Another
expressed the view that there are close to too many people tramping
through native bush. DOC staff felt that monitoring is the weakest area
of their activities. They noted a shortage of visitor monitoring
information in the conservancy and the need for a more integrated
approach between agencies, including the development of a national
approach and an infrastructure to collect and interpret data. The Bay of
Plenty Conservation Board expressed serious reservations about the
monitoring of effects of visitors to natural areas. In particular, the
Board noted with concern the enthusiasm with which tourism is promoted as a panacea for economic pressures in the absence of a system for monitoring its effects.

Existing activities are subject to some monitoring. DOC monitors the concessions that it grants, but limited resources mean that this is not done as often as desired and survey monitoring of tracks and other open-access locations is extremely limited. In addition, there is little in the way of reliable data about locations to indicate changes over time. Waimangu (see Box R.2) illustrates some of the uncertainties in developing appropriate monitoring programmes.

The RDC monitors the resource consents it grants for developments. This involves checking the consent conditions, but does not generally include an assessment of the cumulative effects of the development. Lack of consensus about which indicators of environmental effects should be monitored is a hindering factor. The RDC has in the past undertaken surveys on the public’s views on tourism. In addition, specific information is gathered by the RDC about the number of tourists, their origins, accommodation etc, based on the NZTB accommodation survey.

3.10 The need for education

When asked how effects could be managed, there were varied responses. A common suggestion was to use education to modify the behaviour of visitors and minimise effects. There is an acknowledged need for tangata whenua to have role in interpreting culture, history and prehistory, and their significance.

Education of visitors was seen as potentially constructive in a number of ways:

- tourists should be educated about their environment to make them more aware of its sensitivity and to advise on appropriate behaviour;
- there is a need for information for tourists about dangers, the need to dispose of waste carefully, and the rules relating to camping and other practical matters; and
- such education should be done for overseas visitors before they arrive in the country, and for New Zealand tourists also, to help modify their behaviour and minimise the effects they have on the environment.

While the focus of most comments was on educating visitors, some raised the matter of educating other sectors. The RDC noted that it was necessary to educate councillors and the public to achieve tourism sustainability. Another person indicated that guiding licences would be a useful mechanism to control and manage people giving information to tourists to ensure that information was of an appropriate quality. It has also been noted that raising awareness in the tourism sector and in local planning agencies is important to increase recognition of environmental
effects and potential effects, and to be able to avoid, remedy or mitigate those effects.

This summary of the issues raised by those consulted in relation to the management of the environmental effects of tourism identified a number of recurring issues, including:

- the need for strategic direction and more coordinated planning for tourism-related activities at both the national and local level;
- the role of the district council in tourism;
- the challenge presented by the presence of numerous agencies with responsibility for, or interest in, the management of resources;
- the provision of infrastructure;
- the lack of, and need for, information about tourism and its effects, and the need to monitor the impacts of tourism;
- pressure on the natural and rural environment from tourism developments, and the ability of the present system to protect the environment, including the interests of local communities;
- protecting the environment and community and social values may come into direct conflict with economic objectives;
- special issues for Rotorua including lakes management, the management of the geothermal resources, and the role and place of Maori in tourism; and
- the use of education to inform visitors and operators about the environment and their effects on the environment.
Hapu – family of district groups, communities.
Iwi – Maori tribal groups.
Kaitiakitanga/kaitiaki – the exercise of guardianship; and in relation to a resource, includes the ethic of stewardship based on the nature of the resource itself (RMA s 2).
Kaupapa – plan, strategy, approach, fundamental principles.
Mahinga kai – traditional places for food-gathering and other resources.
Mana – respect, dignity, status, influence, power.
Marae – local community and its meeting-place and buildings.
Mauri – essential life force, the spiritual power and distinctiveness that enables each thing to exist as itself.
Rohe – geographical territory of an iwi or hapu.
Tangata whenua – in relation to a particular area, means the iwi, or hapu, that holds mana over that area (RMA s 2)
Taonga – valued resources, assets, prized possessions, both material and non-material.
Tupuna – ancestors
Waahi taonga – places of historical and traditional significance
Waahi tapu – special and sacred places.

BDC – Buller District Council
CAA – Civil Aviation Authority
CCA – Casino Control Authority
CMS – Conservation Management Strategy
CPS – Coastal Policy Statement
CRESA – Centre for Research Evaluation and Social Assessment
DOC – Department of Conservation
EBOP – Environment Bay of Plenty (Bay of Plenty Regional Council)
FITs – Free and independent travellers
FRST – Foundation of Research Science and Technology
HPT – Historic Places Trust
IVS – International visitor survey
LTO – local tourism organisation
MfE – Ministry for the Environment
MOC – Ministry of Commerce
MOF – Ministry of Fisheries
MRST – Ministry of Research Science and Technology
MSA – Maritime Safety Authority
NZCA – New Zealand Conservation Authority
NZTB – New Zealand Tourism Board
NZTIA – New Zealand Tourism Industry Association
ORC – Otago Regional Council
OSH – Occupational Safety and Health Service
PCE – Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment
PGDip Tour – Post-graduate Diploma in Tourism
PGSF – Public Good Science Fund
PLG – Paparoa Liaison Group
QLDC – Queenstown-Lakes District Council
RCs – Regional Councils
RDC – Rotorua District Council
RPS – Regional Policy Statement
RTAB – Rotorua Tourism Advisory Board
RTO – regional tourism organisation
SNZ – Statistics New Zealand
SPiR – Science Priorities Review Panel
TAs – Territorial Authorities
TNZ – Transit New Zealand
TPG – Tourism Policy Group of the Ministry of Commerce
TPK – Te Puni Kokiri, the Ministry of Maori Development
TRA – Tourism Research Association
TRWG – Tourism Research Working Group
VSS – DOC’s Visitor Services Strategy
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