THE SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM

A Review of Literature, Policy and Research Implications for New Zealand

Prepared by David G Simmons
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Implications for New Zealand

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New Zealand Tourist & Publicity Department

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PREFACE

This paper has been commissioned by the New Zealand Tourist and Publicity Department. Its objectives are to present a discussion paper on the socio-cultural impacts of tourism and requirements for their monitoring and planning.

To achieve these objectives has required a wider review than simply summarising New Zealand and overseas studies and reports. Firstly, tourism is defined and its role in development discussed. Much of this first section focusses on tourism as a 'product' and an industry. This discussion is supported by a number of sub-themes; why tourist's visit New Zealand, who 'owns' the tourism product, and how does this product evolve over time.

The second major focus is on factors that contribute to socio-cultural impacts. A central theme here is that impact studies merely assist us in determining how well we are meeting our objectives. It is also argued that because the tourism product changes over time and is specific to different destination areas, we will need to develop our own systems of planning and monitoring that suit our own unique position and culture.

The studies reviewed are drawn together in Chapters 5 and 6 to create a monitoring and research framework for social impact assessment in New Zealand's tourism development.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research paper was funded by New Zealand Tourist and Publicity Department. Considerable contributions in searching background material and reviewing drafts were also made by NZTP staff, particularly staff of the research and policy sections of NZTP head office Wellington.

Special mention must be made of the contribution of Dr Pat Devlin of Lincoln College who attended the Manaakitanga Hui in Rotorua and subsequently wrote Chapter 4 'Culture and Tourism'. Dr Devlin also made extensive reviews of early drafts of all chapters of this report.

A number of colleagues also made reviews of a working draft of this paper. Their comments have significantly shaped this final copy. They are Dr Nick Taylor, Mr Colin Goodrich, Dr Doug Pearce (Canterbury University), Dr Rodger Gabb (Lincoln College), Mr Lester Clark (Wellington) and Mrs Therese Garrett (Christchurch).

To all the above I extend my sincere thanks.

David Simmons
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July 1986
A number of attempts have been made to define tourism and its role in a country's or region's development. Generally tourism's potential is seen in terms of its economic contribution. Tourism has often been described as an "invisible export" bringing fresh money into a country or region. This money stimulates further spending in the community both as tourists themselves and the tourist industry purchase local goods and services. Local workers in the tourism industry generate additional economic turnover as they in turn spend their wages and salaries.

Economic models of tourism point out that compared with other industries tourism in New Zealand is well placed, to generate down-stream effects.

Because tourism is a service industry it is also particularly effective at creating employment. In New Zealand it has been argued that every 12 international tourists create one job for one year, somewhere in the economy.

Tourism's third major economic contribution is to be found in the distribution of its economic effects. While other industries tend to draw resources to large centres, tourism, because of the dispersed nature of its attractions and resources tends to distribute income more widely, often to poorly developed regions.

Tourism is, however, structurally different from any other traditional forms of development such as agriculture or
manufacturing. These industries export their products to their consumers. On the contrary, for tourism, tourists (the consumers) travel to local sites to experience the "product", at the places where it is produced. A plan for tourism development must accept as one of its starting points the need to balance the wide economic impacts against the significant opportunities for social and environmental impacts brought about by the physical presence of tourists themselves.

While early attempts to define tourism have been based on economic considerations (MacIntosh 1977:ix), growing concern about tourism's wider effects have seen an increasing number of economists (Bryden 1973, Burkart and Medlik 1981, Archer 1976) beginning to question the 'disbenefits' of tourism. At the same time social scientists particularly sociology (Cohen 1974, MacCannel 1976) anthropology (Smith 1977) and leisure theory (Jafari 1977 and Leiper 1985) have begun to study tourism. Similar concerns led the World Bank and UNESCO to sponsor a major seminar on tourism in 1976. The edited highlights of this seminar (de Kadt, 1979a) signify a renewed interest in defining and managing the social, cultural and environmental consequences of tourism.

In an historical context tourism must be seen as a very recent phenomenon. Indeed its real growth in New Zealand grows from the late 1950's and the introduction of jet airline services. Concern for social and cultural impacts is even more recent as different destinations have reported on their experiences of tourism development. It is necessary that New Zealand learns from these experiences and develops mechanisms to plan for such consequences here.
Tourism and its resource systems

Alongside a broader understanding of tourism's effects has been a focus on the resources and systems that sustain it.

Jafari has written that:

"Tourism is the study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs, and the impacts that both he and the industry have on the host socio-cultural, economic and physical environments" (1977:8)

and identified the following contributing areas:

1. Study of Man the Traveller: Included here would be factors believed to be major determinants of travel, such as income and available leisure time.

2. The Travel Industry: tourism goods and services - including accommodation, transportation, travel agencies, attractions and the like. Leiper (1979) would also include a group of 'incidental' industries - those who serve the public at large, for example retail shops and public services.

3. The Setting: the socio-cultural fabric and physical environment. These are the many factors that contribute to a destination's local atmosphere - friendly people, customs, atmosphere.

The OECD (Travis 1980) groups these as three critical sets of resources, each with their management requirements.

(a) Natural Resources: the maintenance of a high quality air, land and water, along with a favourable climate.
(b) Man-Made Resources: the protection and integrity of the 'built heritage' - historic cities, towns, buildings and landscape.

(c) The Cultural Resources: the protection and enhancement of the identity, associations, values, artistic and cultural character, activities and heritage.

These 'free inherent' resources do not belong to any one industry (per se) but are "... the prime movers in drawing tourists to a destination" (Jafari and Ritchie 1981:17). The fact that these resources are seen to be 'free' or common property belonging to all, provides one of the major challenges for tourism planning.

4. The Encounter: Host-guest relationship. It is noted that this area of study involves not only tourists (guests) and residents (hosts) but involves other relationships including economic and political dimensions. Clearly this theme is central to any discussion on social or cultural impacts.

1.2 Tourism - Service Industries and a Cultural Product

In reviewing the contribution of these resources to tourism one can note, firstly, tourist resources are frequently not the resources of the industry alone. Even specific tourist facilities are dependent for their success on the wider social and natural environments in which they operate.

For these resources planning and management functions are usually the responsibility of Central and Local Government. Often they receive little by way of industry assistance. Clearly
a close partnership between public and private sectors is essential for wise tourism development.

Secondly, it is noted that tourism resources are by their nature geographically diffuse. Thus impacts are spread more than for other development alternatives. Certain parts of a country may be more generously endowed with 'tourism' resources and as a result by particularly attractive to the industry. However, while there may be obvious advantages for economic distribution in 'taking spending to the regions' these areas may not have the infrastructure or community resources to support growth in tourist demand.

Finally, tourism resources constitute a wide mix of natural and socio-cultural resources. While some of these are relatively obvious, e.g. mountain scenery, beaches, wildlife, others are perhaps not so obvious - cultural events, the 'way of life' of the people, and political and economic stability.

The OECD 'Group of Experts on Environment and Tourism' (1980) remind us that environmental changes are characteristically of a long-term nature (while the market usually has a relatively short term view) and that the market place cannot measure the multitude of components that contribute to environmental quality. "It is the responsibility of governments at the appropriate levels, local, national and international, to ensure that the environment is maintained in a condition which corresponds to the needs of the tourists, the local inhabitants and to national objectives" (OECD 1980:8).

1.3 A New Zealand Example

Examples of how we need to focus our planning both on industry and tourist experience (product) requirements are easy to
generate. Take, for example, the question of road sealing. Does sealing roads to make access easier actually improve the tourist's experience? Presumably for rental vehicle companies unsealed roads are a source of frustration, as they directly increase maintenance and cleaning costs. On the contrary some tourists may actually choose unsealed roads primarily because of the quality of the experience it may lead to. Sealing some roads may therefore simply lead tourists to choose alternative unsealed roads as they seek a similar quality of experience.

In this situation we have serious information gaps in New Zealand. We simply do not know how hirers of rental vehicles in general (and campervans in particular) use the tourism "product". Where do they go, stop, walk, shop, park ...? What is the nature of their tourist experience? Such information is seen as essential especially when this sector is growing so fast.

We need to ask ourselves why do visitors come to New Zealand rather than other destinations? What really is the product we are packaging, promoting and selling? And finally, what factors will bring detrimental changes to this product.

In terms of the question what is the tourist product? - one is always reticent to offer simple statements to answer complex issues. The following quote, however, provides a useful summary:

"In essence it is the very life and fabric of a country which forms its tourist resources".

(Mawhinney/Bagnall, ECE Study 1975:164)
1.4 The New Zealand Tourism Product

Considerable support for the above notion of a culturally based tourism product is found in research into tourists' experiences in New Zealand.

A. Visitor Perception

Henshall et al (1981) illustrate visitors' perceptions of New Zealand by way of a pilot "before" and "after" study of visitors and note that visitor impressions are raised for:

* the relaxing pace of life
* the uncrowded country
* friendly people
* safe country
* unpolluted landscape

while increased negative images were reported for a number of servicing functions including entertainment, and the expensive nature of shopping.

Intended Activities

While it is not clear what factors are important in converting intentions into behaviour, visitor preferences for activity are nonetheless important. Henshall (1982) cites a pilot study of domestic and overseas visitors' intentions for their next holiday.
Plimmer (1985) has recently commented on the continued growth of an 'inner directed' tourist segment - those who seek authentic qualitative (as opposed to quantitative) experiences. This is evidenced by the growth of the FIT (Free Independent Traveller) segment in New Zealand.

Information Sources

Studies of international visitors to New Zealand identify "word of mouth" as the most important source of information influencing a decision to visit (e.g. NZTP 1976, 1982). Henshall et al (1981) cited Lim's (1981) more detailed breakdown. These studies may be summarised as:

* 70 per cent  Personal communication
  Comprising 25-45 per cent of people who had visited New Zealand
  20-40 per cent people living in New Zealand, business contacts, New Zealanders travelling abroad.

* 17 per cent  Advertising materials

* 6-10 per cent  Studies and reading
The nature of this information system has a number of implications.

Firstly, the attitudes of those people who have returned home after touring this country, and of New Zealanders overseas, are of paramount importance. Henshall et al conclude that the media message should not contradict the personally conveyed view, as the media message has a very much lower credibility than face to face communication (1981:29).

A second implication is that the level of agreement between visitor’s expectations and what actually happens (or is perceived to happen) is central to their satisfaction. For tourism, if what people hear and read of New Zealand does not match up with what they experience, a satisfaction ‘gap’ appears. This ‘dis’-satisfaction will eventually be passed on to potential new visitors. Mathews (1977) has detailed the disastrous consequences this has had for the Carribean.

As a very simple elaboration of this argument if visitors coming to New Zealand were to perceive that public attitudes (and behaviour) toward them were different from their expectations (e.g. locals were perceived as less friendly, ... more apathetic ...), tourists might become less satisfied with their visit. This in turn would be passed on to prospective tourists, in the longer term affecting industry growth. Because of a time lag in tourist decision making people who had saved, made plans and bookings might still visit hence exacerbating the development of negative attitudes in the short term. The development of such attitudes may be modified by opting for certain styles of tourism ahead of other styles. Getz (1983) has found that the industry response of increasing promotional activity to counteract a decline in visitation ... "Could actually result in exacerbation
of the problems which lead to visitor dissatisfaction" p.249.

Thus Henshall et al (1981) note:

"seeking congruence between overseas visitors' expectations and New Zealanders own desires governing the acceptability of tourist encounters is a crucial issue to be decided by national debate" (p.1).

therefore:

"What the New Zealander wants is surely at least as important as what overseas tourists want". (p.36).

1.5 Who is Responsible?

The type of social impacts we may expect as a result of tourism growth will be different in nature from those arising from the growth of other industries. The major social impact is not a result of the production process but as a consequence of the fact that the consumer is brought to the product. We are thus presented with a whole range of people to people impacts.

The tourism product is essentially the country itself, the landscape, the cities, the weather and of course, the people and their culture. Everybody must therefore accept some responsibility toward generating satisfying tourist experiences. A priority lies in generating a clear public understanding of the importance of tourism to New Zealand. The tourism industry has, in fact, very little direct control over the most important information source - word of mouth.

Those involved in the tourist industry have additional responsibilities. Firstly, tourism must be planned and developed
CHAPTER 2

A CHANGING TOURISM PRODUCT

The previous section has described tourism as a unique industry in that it transports its consumers into the product. The tourism product has been described as the country itself - its natural and social resources - the land and the people.

A second consequence of this process is that the tourism product is always changing and evolving. This happens as we become more familiar in dealing with our guests and visitors more aware of what we have to offer.

Although the general process of how a tourist destination evolves is still poorly understood a number of factors and stages of development are recognised (Wall 1982). These include changing preferences and needs of visitors, changing attitudes among host populations, the change (or even disappearance) of the original natural and cultural attractions and changes in physical layout. These themes are briefly reviewed in this section.

Although some consistency is seen in the evolution of tourist destinations it is emphasised by virtually all writers that not all areas experience the described stages as clearly as others. Specific destinations are influenced by accessibility, Government policies, planning processes, rate and scale of development, as well as the characteristics of their natural and social resources systems. Because few writers have considered an integrated model of tourism development and much of the research reported here is very recent, little attention has yet been given
to the most beneficial stage of development or of how to assess or modify various stages.

Butler (1980) has attempted to provide an integrated model depicting the evolution of a tourist area. It seeks to draw together a number of the above themes and is based on the product-cycle concept. This cycle follows the premise of product sales proceeding slowly at first, then experiencing a rapid rate of growth, stability and slow decline. In other words an S shaped (asymmetric) curve (Figure 3) is followed.

In Butler's terms a resort area passes through a sequence of changes which he has termed:

1. **Exploration**
   Evidenced by small numbers of "exploration oriented" visitors, little infrastructure development, and limited change to the physical or social environments.
2. **Involvement**
Increasing numbers of visitor facilities. Some locals begin to cater specifically for tourists.

3. **Development**
The evolution of a well defined tourist market area. With associated growth in visitor numbers comes larger and more elaborate facilities. Butler notes "... as this stage progresses local involvement and control of development will decline rapidly (1980:8).

The following two stages suggest that the type of tourist attracted changes as a wider market is drawn.

4. **Consolidation**
The rate of increase in visitor numbers begins to decline, although absolute numbers continue to increase. Few new additions are made to the infrastructure. Butler reports that the number of visitors and the facilities provided for them "... can be expected to arouse some opposition and discontent among permanent residents" (1980:8) ... particularly those not directly involved in the tourism industry.

5. **Stagnation Phase**
This stage is associated with environmental, social and economic problems. As the number of visitors decline, surplus capacity is available and the resort slowly loses its fashionable status.

6. **Decline/Rejuvenation**
After stagnation a destination may decline further or innovations may be sought. Key factors suggested here are the adequacy of the protection of resources, the ability to replace obsolete plant, and/or develop secondary attractions.
Butler's findings are similar to those cited elsewhere in this paper; "a change of attitude is required on the part of those who are responsible for planning, developing and managing tourist areas. Tourist attractions are not infinite and timeless but should be viewed and treated as finite as possibly non-renewable resources. They could then be more carefully protected and preserved" (1980:11).

Butler's model suggests continuous changes in all components of the tourist system. These are visitor tastes, perceptions of the hosting population and changes to the physical setting.

2.1 Visitor Tastes

Cycles of development have been described as they apply to the tastes and perceptions of visitors.

Smith (1977) in introducing her studies on the anthropology of tourism, classified tourists according to their adaptations to local norms (customs). As tourism changes in scale, numbers increase and the type of tourist attracted becomes less adaptable and therefore more 'obvious' to local residents (Table 1).
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourist types</th>
<th>Numbers of tourists</th>
<th>Adaptations to local norms</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Explorer</td>
<td>Very limited</td>
<td>Accepts fully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elite</td>
<td>Rarely seen</td>
<td>Adapts fully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Off-beat</td>
<td>Uncommon but seen</td>
<td>Adapts well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unusual</td>
<td>Occasional</td>
<td>Adapts somewhat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incipient mass</td>
<td>Steady flow</td>
<td>Seeks Western amenities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mass</td>
<td>Continuous flow</td>
<td>Expects Western amenities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charter</td>
<td>Massive arrivals</td>
<td>Demands Western amenities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Smith, V (1977), Figure 1, p.9

Her classification of tourist types was built on the earlier work of Cohen (1972) who had used factors such as the degree of institutionalisation (industry support) developed for travellers to construct a four step evolutionary scheme. He suggested tourism interest in a destination evolves from drifters to explorers to individual mass to organised mass as the industry gains in sophistication.

Plog (1973) also had previously developed a psychological basis (motivational disposition) for analysing changes in tourist type. His suggestion was that resorts attract visitors on a continuum from allocentrics to mid centrics to psychocentrics. 'Allocentrics' enjoy a sense of discovery, meeting people from other cultures and activities while 'psychocentrics' prefer familiar destinations and settings and have low activity levels.
Whatever the terminology the suggestion of these models is one of an evolution in which increasing visitor numbers, bring with them changes in orientation such as decreasing willingness to adapt to local custom. Thus visitors become more obvious to locals for reasons other than increases in numbers alone.

In more recent work Cohen has focussed both on different models or styles of tourist behaviour (Cohen 1974) and the manner in which they perceive the host's presentation of their product. This model (Cohen 1979) is organised according to two variables. Firstly, the tourist's impression of the scene or event as 'real, or staged' and secondly the nature of the scene from the host's perspective: real or staged. This 2 x 2 classification gives rise to four possible tourist-environment experiences:

* authentic: events that are recognised and correctly perceived by tourists as authentic.

* staged authenticity: tourist questioning of authenticity when, in fact, it is real.

* denial of authenticity: tourist failure to recognise a contrived space.


In only two of these outcomes (authentic and contrived) are the expectations met for both hosts and guests. Under the pressure of time all options, but particularly staged or denial of authenticity, present many opportunities for misunderstanding between the parties.
When these scenarios are set against a further over-riding dimension - tourists' desire for, or indifference to authenticity - further insights into tourist satisfaction and impacts are gained.

However, the important point of this section is that tourism development is not a linear process. The implied suggestion of Cohen's latest work is that tourist destinations attract certain styles of tourists according to the type of environments created. Thus to some extent they may give shape to their own destiny.

2.2 Host Perceptions

Similar studies to those discussed above have been made of changes in host populations' perceptions of tourists. Two frameworks have emerged which appear to be widely applicable to social impact research.

Doxey (1976) has suggested a framework according to varying degrees of resident irritation. He argues that the level of irritation arising from contacts between the hosts and tourists will be determined by the mutual compatibility of each, with the assumption that with seemingly compatible groups, sheer numbers may ultimately generate tensions. Destination areas will therefore successively pass through five stages of irritation.

* Euphoria - hosts enthusiastic and thrilled by tourist development

* Apathy - tourists seen as a source of profit, individuality is lost
* Annoyance - residents voice misgivings about the tourist industry while policy makers see solutions in increasing infrastructure.
* Antagonism - irritations become transferred to tourists through speech and behaviour.
* The final level residents learn to live with the fact their lifestyles and environment are irreversibly changed.

While Doxey argues that resident response predictably changes through time, the value system of the destination is at the base of his framework. Thus any attempts to measure social impacts must firstly be community based.

In contrast with Doxey's work, which describes the dominant, prevailing attitude at a community level Butler (1974) [drawing on Bjorklund and Philbrick (1972) work on cultural interaction]; attempts to clarify differing attitudes among individuals. He suggests residents might be classified on the basis of their attitudes and behaviour, according to their disposition for, or against, further tourism development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude/behaviour</th>
<th>Favourable: Aggressive promotion and support of tourist activity</th>
<th>Favourable: Slight acceptance of and support for tourist activity</th>
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<td>Positive</td>
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<td>Active</td>
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<tr>
<td>Passive</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>UNFAVOURABLE: Aggressive opposition to tourist activity</td>
<td>UNFAVOURABLE: Silent acceptance but opposition to tourist activity</td>
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Fig. 9 Host attitudinal/behavioural responses to tourist activity (Source: After Bjorklund and Philbrick 1972: 8. Found in Butler 1974: 12)
Butler's framework has the advantage that it recognises that different attitudes may be held toward tourism development, within the same community, at one time. This suggestion has found support in more recent research work (Brougham and Butler 1981). Pizam (1978) and Thomason et al. (1979) developed attitude indices on a range of issues relating to tourism development, and recorded a more favourable assessment from entrepreneurs connected with tourist activity compared with resident reactions. Reactions, it seems, are also likely to vary according to the nature of the issue. If community attitudes are widely different, they are likely to lead to tensions and political pressures between different resident groups, although it is suggested by Mathieson and Wall (1982:139) that the majority of the population will accept or react passively to tourism.

Thus Butler's dynamic interplay of attitude and behaviour, combined with Doxey's more general community analysis, reinforce the suggestions in this paper of the need to provide a community communication system which facilitates planning for and monitoring of tourism induced social change. It also raises the notion of a need for community education and training for understanding the processes of tourism development as well as for practical skills in meeting tourist requirements.

2.3 Physical Development

Yet another cycle identified by tourist researchers describes changes in landscape elements, and resort areas. Here the concern is with the sequence by which a wilderness or low intensity tourism region is used increasingly intensively until the landscape is modified so much that essentially it becomes a built environment with urban characteristics. Pearce, D (1981: Chapters 1 and 2) highlights three major factors that contribute to such development:
2.4 Summary

The emerging concept of a cycle of tourism development has as yet only sparse supporting research (Wall 1982). Nonetheless, it offers the real advantage of providing a framework which integrates a number of separate, yet inter-related, areas of concern. It also accommodates changing perceptions, attitudes and values, throughout a period of tourism development.

In seeking to answer the question what importance do these studies have for the development of tourism in New Zealand? a number of themes emerge:

1. There are factors inherent in tourism development that naturally lead the industry to increase in size and therefore impact. In all studies reported there seems to be an inevitable evolution toward large scale, institutionalised (mass) tourism. These changes it seems are more probable in a system without external controls.

2. As a consequence of the above we can note:

(a) The type of tourist attracted to New Zealand is likely to change over time. A recent example of this is the rapid growth of the FIT Segment.
(b) Local resident (host) reactions are likely to be modified or hardened over time.

3. The health and success of tourism development will ultimately depend on the integrity of the natural and social systems that sustain it. Tourism development does have limits, ultimately imposed by the social system in which it operates. Even with the most efficient of tourist industries subtle changes in the product particularly tourism's acceptance by local residents, will ultimately shape its success.

Attention needs to be focussed on determining longer term sustainable rates of growth, and levels of development appropriate for New Zealand's tourism future. An important step in this work lies in developing Henshall's (1982) call for an integrated social model of tourism development. We need to address ourselves more attentively to questions of the style, and levels of tourists New Zealanders are prepared to "host" in their country and communities.
This chapter focuses more directly on social impacts and their contributing factors. Although the recent past has seen an increasing number of resident surveys and other social impacts studies, on first glance their results seem confusing and at times contradictory. Mathieson and Wall (1982:157) note that many studies have a poorly developed conceptual basis and tend to emphasise only negative social effects. Others are too broad in their application or tend to become readily embroiled in emotive debate concerning the nature of tourism development, rather than providing insights that might usefully direct research or planning mechanisms.

To focus this study on a research framework appropriate to New Zealand a more detailed analysis is required. Three background factors are offered in an attempt to assess the contributions of previous studies. The special nature of the 'tourist encounter' is then considered along with an analysis of the major factors believed to generate negative socio-cultural impacts.

The potential for socio-cultural impacts in New Zealand is then discussed. It is noted that we will need to develop our own research and monitoring programme to suit our unique culture and geographical position. A research and monitoring framework is therefore the focus of the final chapter.

3.1 Definitions

Social impacts are people impacts. The literature which examines the socio-cultural impacts of tourism has usually been
directed separately toward either social or cultural impacts. Using these terms loosely, social studies usually consider interpersonal and community social structures and functions; for example, education, recreation, welfare. Cultural studies consider wider aspects of both material and non-material forms of culture and processes of cultural change. Examples here include language, art, and architecture. There is, however, no clear distinction between social and cultural phenomena but the above dichotomy is useful in categorising studies and impacts.

3.2 Difficulties in Understanding Past Studies

A considerable number of overseas and New Zealand research papers on tourism's social impacts have been reviewed as a contribution to this paper. At first glance these studies seem to offer directly conflicting or confusing results. The previous section has also suggested that changes occurring at the same time as tourism development may be only partially related to tourism, yet much of the blame for negative social changes can be laid at tourism's door. Particular examples here include increases in congestion or crimes such as burglary and prostitution.

In attempting to make some sense of these past studies three important background factors are offered.

1. Most are "one-off", problem-oriented studies. Research tends to be undertaken once significant tourism development has occurred and often in response to immediate problems. A New Zealand example of this trend is the present Queenstown study. There are, for example, virtually no longitudinal, 'before and after' studies. For the New Zealand situation a research framework is recommended to prevent this difficulty.
2. Many studies are specific to both the community and culture in which they occur. As a direct result of this trend, specific results and interpretation will, in all probability, be unable to be transferred to other situations. However, the research indices developed to interpret results may offer useful insights.

3. The studies often occur in locations at vastly different stages of tourism development, or in communities fulfilling different roles in tourism (stop over, gateway, resort destination, etc.).

An understanding of tourism impacts firstly required an appropriate research framework for analysis and a general understanding of tourism development.

The following example demonstrates how social impacts might vary between communities in New Zealand. The generation of additional employment is seen as one of the direct benefits of tourism developments (NZTC 1984). Where and how that employment is generated, or whether it draws workers from other sectors is also important.

In New Zealand for example, Queenstown currently has full employment. Additional employment generation requires the attraction of new workers to the area or the commuting of workers from surrounding areas. This raises the questions of staff housing, employment of 'non-locals' or expatriates and changes in community structure (e.g. influx of young singles).

Conversely tourism growth in Rotorua, a larger community, might create part-time employment, particularly for married women. This would almost certainly be to the benefit of family
incomes. However, it may also have a series of debatable consequences, such as changed levels of 'supervision' of school children after school, or at holiday times.

What may be good in Rotorua may not be beneficial in Queenstown. What is more, continued growth of tourism in Rotorua, may in part require growth in Queenstown as many tourists visit both communities. There are no simple answers to the issues raised by this simple example but what is clear is that they need to be addressed at both a national tourism policy and at a local community level.

We must develop our own planning strategies and longer term monitoring devices to suit our unique culture and geographical situation. This does not suggest that overseas or past studies are inappropriate. Their contribution is essential to understanding of the processes of tourism development and in developing methods and indices for research.

Among the case studies presented to the UNESCO/World Bank Seminar (de Kadt:1979a) two examples in particular highlight how the interests of local communities can be well safeguarded and promoted to provide a well integrated tourism product.1 While such outcomes do not appear easy to achieve major common factors are:

* a broad based public participation in tourism planning

1 These are Senegal (Saffi 1979) and Bermuda (Manning 1979).
a gradual development of tourism to accommodate local investment and changes in lifestyle

active participation by all levels of Government, particularly local authorities in the protection of local interests and resources.

(de Kadt 1979b:42)

The preceding chapter has drawn attention to the unique "people to people" nature of tourism as consumers themselves are brought into the tourism product. To provide more specific insight into potential tourism impacts in New Zealand and to give direction to a suitable research framework additional aspects of the host-guest (tourist) relationship are explored next. Following this a listing is made of specific factors believed to contribute to negative socio-cultural impacts.

3.3 The Nature of Tourist-Host Encounters

UNESCO suggests tourist encounters are unique and are governed by five major features (1976:82ff).

1. The Relationship is Transitory

The temporary nature of the relationship is different for each participating group. Tourists may consider the meeting fascinating and unique. Hosts may view it merely as one in a long chain of superficial encounters.

2. Time Constraints

Tourists often desire to see as much as possible within a short period of time. As a result they may be more willing
to spend money then under more routine circumstances. Hence the tourist might be easily irritated by even slight delays. Hosts may compensate by condensing or modifying experiences. MacCannell (1976) has called this latter aspect "staged authenticity" and notes such arrangements increase opportunities for misunderstanding or conflict.

3. **Space Constraints**

Over time, facilities and services frequently become concentrated into a small number of complexes. Often this trend is aided by planning mechanisms and supported by tour operators (Mathieson and Wall 1982:136). Contact between the majority of tourists and the host population becomes under further pressure to become less frequent and more superficial.

4. **Inequality in Relationships**

There is a tendency for host-guest relationships to be unequal and unbalanced in character. This may exist both in terms of material wellbeing and satisfaction. Guests tend to appear relaxed and free spending. Hosts may compensate for their sense of relative inferiority by a variety of ways which exploit tourist's apparent wealth.

5. **Lack of Spontaneity**

Tourism brings certain traditional and informal human relations into the area of economic activity. What was once spontaneous hospitality becomes a commercial transaction. Thus the convenience and safety of planned events becomes traded for less frequent and spontaneous host contact.
De Kadt (1979a) has noted that the most frequent host guest encounters are by way of purchases. While face to face exchange of ideas or information is less common, it is likely to be the most significant in supporting the claim that tourism increases international understanding. Nettekoven (1979:138) supports this view by suggesting that for many tourists intercultural encounters are less frequent than imagined. Furthermore, he suggests intense encounters are less desired by tourists than is often suggested.

3.4 Specific Factors that Contribute to Socio-Cultural Impacts

Few studies have attempted to categorise the major structural factors that contribute to the development of social impacts. Mathieson and Wall (1982) write of variable 'critical points of tolerance' above which costs begin to exceed benefits. Mitchell (1984) in summarising American literature describes four "potentially dangerous" and three additional factors that "have the potential to cause harmful impacts" (p.14). Such effects are inevitably intangible and therefore cannot be weighted one against the other. In fact they may often be inter-dependent. A review of overseas literature suggests a number of key factors, however, no previous attempts have been made to group them as follows. These works are summarised below under three themes; behavioural, policy and planning, and structural.
A. Behavioural

1. Cultural (and Economic) Distance Between Tourists and Hosts

The greater the divergence of characteristics (race, nationality, appearance, affluence) between the interacting groups the greater the potential for social impacts.

2. Contrasts in Life Styles

This refers to both value orientations (e.g. to work or leisure, or sex roles) and other behavioural aspects.

3. Numbers of Tourists

Large volumes of tourists, especially in large groups can antagonize local inhabitants. Residents frequently resent having to share facilities and often mention congestion as a problem. This factor also suggests small communities are likely to be most affected. Lundberg (1974:85) has developed a "tourism intensity indicator" to measure ratios of visitors to residents.

B. Policy and Planning

1. Rate of Development

"When tourism is introduced gradually .... the waves of impact are usually small". (Mathieson and Wall 1982:141). Virtually all writers present a strong case for gradual tourism development. This allows infrastructure to develop and communities to adapt.
2. **Control and/or Policy Formulation**

The more planning policy and control decisions are vested in local groups the lower the probability of fundamental disagreements. Likewise enterprises controlled from beyond the local region tend to create dissension and opposition.

3. **Comprehensiveness of Planning**

Planning that is broad-based, participatory, involves Local Authorities and considers the values of local cultures will tend to be more compatible and create less antagonism.

4. **Ownership, Profits and Employment**

A tourist industry will be appreciated and viewed as positive if profits are reinvested in the local industry, ancillary facilities and infrastructures. The same may also be said for employing local people at all levels of industry.

C. **Structural**

1. **Level of Economic Development of Tourist Locations**

Regions or locations with high levels of economic development have greater ability to provide for tourist requirements, retain the tourist dollar and generate regional flow-on economic benefits.

2. **Political Stability and Safety**

This is reflected in both tourism investment and tourists' perceptions of their personal safety. This factor could be quite significant for New Zealand tourism.
3. **The Physical Capacity to Absorb Tourism**

This factor is a function of the size of a tourist destination and its geography.

3.5 **The Demonstration Effect**

Taken together the above factors underpin what has been referred to by many as "the demonstration effect". Simply stated, apparent differences in host-guest perceptions, in the longer term, can lead to changes in locals' aspirations and lifestyle. The adoption of raised economic expectations or of changing behaviours particularly in consumption and dress by host populations as they have increasing exposure to tourists have been frequently noted.²

There has however, been some questioning of the usefulness of such a broad definition. Bryden (1973:96) has called it a 'vague unsatisfactory concept' and suggested that on its own it does not explain who is demonstrating what to whom, why, to what extent, or at what speed it is occurring. He has also questioned the notion of a "single direction" demonstration - from tourists to hosts and not vice versa.

3.6 **Tourism as a Scapegoat**

A further concern expressed by a number of authors is that tourism can become a 'scapegoat' for other social change(s).

Tourists and the tourist industry are more visible and identifiable than other agents, or processes, of social change. Tourism can therefore inherit blame for changes of which it was only one part, or which have been occurring at a slower rate, over a longer period of time. Because of these parallel influences there is great difficulty in separating out the impact of other external factors, for example the demonstration effects of mass media (especially television and films), returned migrant workers, immigration, expatriate military or industrial bases, and the like.

There are a number of situations that could potentially lead to the development of similar attitudes here. For example increasing concern has been expressed, particularly in recent times, over the status and integration of Maori and Pakeha in New Zealand. These issues presumably pre-date to the Treaty of Waitangi. Changes in tourism development which are not sensitive to these matters, in either their present day or historical context, could easily see tourism become a new focus for these issues. Such tensions could inevitably be damaging to the tourism industry (Winiata 1985). The authors of this report see this issue as central to the socio-cultural impacts of tourism and have included a separate comment as Chapter 4.

Other examples where tourism could become labelled as the scapegoat for change could include 'user payment' for once 'free' recreation facilities, inflation, congestion and environmental change.
3.7 **Positive Effects Too!**

While virtually all of the literature on the socio-cultural impacts of tourism have focussed on its negative impacts, tourism does have positive impacts too.

Arts, craft, local and regional identity, history, architecture, cuisine, can all be enhanced and developed in response to tourist interest. As simple examples of this four new craft shops have opened between Christchurch and Akaroa in the last two years. Likewise for those who have chosen to become involved, many New Zealanders express very high levels of satisfaction with 'home hosting' arrangements (NTA 1983).

For tourists in particular one also expects positive benefits. Aside from anecdotes, very little has been written. However, benefits might arise from:

* relaxation, recuperation, new recreations
* a change of environment
* social contact and widening of horizons

(After Figuerola (1972) cited in Pearce D (1981:51)

Some of these benefits may not be apparent while tourists are in destination areas, but accrue also the planning (anticipation) and recollection stages of their travel.

3.8 **The Potential for Socio-Cultural Impacts in New Zealand**

This analysis of both background and specific factors contributing to socio-cultural impacts suggests that New Zealand may avoid many of the serious negative social consequences of tourism. Such a view is supported by Garland's (1984) study of
three New Zealand tourist destinations.

At present, there appears to be great similarity between our visitors and ourselves. The fact that we are moving toward a highly socially integrated tourism development may mean, however, that areas of discrepancy may be more subtle and far reaching, if and when they occur. Two factors in particular warrant comment here:

1. The rapid and continued growth of the Japanese and other Asian markets relative to the total market. The fact that these groups intuitively exhibit the greatest "cultural distance" from ourselves suggest that they will be most testing of our maturity.

2. Questions of the rate of growth, and the levels and forms of foreign investment, will require constant attention. While foreign capital may often be required for large developments, local investment, including incentives to New Zealand developments, must warrant consideration, if they contribute to minimizing negative social impacts.

The recognition of tourism's potential as an agent for social change has led a number of agencies concerned with tourism development (e.g. Pata 1983:80) (UNESCO Policy recommendations (de Kadt) 1979:340)) (EIU 1982:197) to point to the need for an on-going social impact assessment to assist planning processes.

New Zealand is fortunate that individuals (Cant 1978, 1980, Pearce 1980, Garland 1984) as well as national associations representing tourism interests (NTA (Survey Research International) 1983, Henshall et al, 1982) have undertaken or commissioned studies on social impact issues. This paper strongly endorses
work of this nature such as the 1985 social impact study in Queenstown. Time will prove these to be most valuable baseline studies, offering important early insights into New Zealand's tourism development.

Garland (1984) for example drew on overseas work to provide a comprehensive study of three North Island locations (Rotorua; Tauranga-Mt Maunganui; Paihia, Kerikeri, Russell in the Bay of Islands). His distillation of indices, and their close parallel to Cant and Pearce's (1981) work in Queenstown provides key insights for future social impact monitoring in the New Zealand context.

Garland firstly notes that many of the serious problems experienced in island communities of the Pacific and Caribbean are not likely to be significant problems here. He points to the high incidence of overseas travel by New Zealanders (72 per cent) and high level of involvement with tourists (NTA 1983). For Maori, he cites the recognised significance of tourism in generally nurturing and conserving certain cultural activities. These he suggests will nullify potentially serious demonstration effects.

After statistical analysis of 29 social indices (Appendix 1) describing perceptions of tourism by host populations, five major factors were presented by Garland. These are:

1. **Provision of certain community facilities**
   
   (positive response)

   These include sporting, cultural and recreational facilities, the range of shops, quality of restaurants, preservation of historic buildings and civic pride.
2. **Economic circumstances** (positive response)

Three variables particularly support this factor: opportunities for jobs, lower numbers of unemployed, and incomes of residents.

3. **Impacts on Certain groups in the community** (mixed response)

Includes the bringing up of children, people with young families, older residents. Presumably these are often disadvantaged by inflationary pressures (item 4).

4. **Price increases** (negative response)

This fact includes variables associated with housing and land costs, purchased and rented, and with the prices of goods and services.

5. **Social effects** (negative response)

Includes increases in crime, litter, noise and traffic congestion. Some respondents were shown to modify their behaviour, e.g. modifying eating out, shopping trip patterns etc. during peaks of tourism.

(Garland 1984: 57 and 117).

Garland cautions that his study has focussed on host-guest relationships and that other factors, such as environmental concerns, may be equally as important as those listed above.

For New Zealanders much contact with tourists is also likely to be in various outdoor recreation settings (e.g. fishing
rivers, ski-fields, walking tracks). Because of the participatory nature of the activities, such settings provide ample opportunity for social exchange of a different kind to that described above. Tourism planners need to develop strong links to land management agencies such as the Department of Lands and Survey, New Zealand Forest Service and recreation advisors such as the Council and Ministry of Recreation and Sport.

A general conclusion of New Zealand studies is that tourism and tourists currently have a high level of acceptance in New Zealand.

However, in spite of differences in study objectives, scale, location or methods one recurring theme is presented. Simply put it is not so much the fact that tourism is growing, or that it currently has very high acceptance by New Zealanders, but rather the issues of community participation and involvement that will determine its success. This message receives support from all major New Zealand community studies. Some examples follow:

Mings 1980:20
"For only through identifying and redressing their (resident populations') objections, will the public continue to be supportive of tourism".

Pearce and Cant 1981:28
"... a general feeling among residents that henceforth Queenstown should develop, not only as a resort but also as a community".

Unfortunately neither overseas nor New Zealand studies take the next step, they do not suggest how this might be done.
3.9 Tourism Styles and Impact

The preceding analysis clearly suggests that different styles of tourism are likely to generate different sets of impacts. For example the package coach tour provides relatively little opportunity for host-visitor contact unless some of the participants are from the host country. They tend to stay as a group travelling, sightseeing and eating together. The fact that they are largely insulated from the host community minimises the opportunity for positive person to person contacts. However, larger groups are more visible and identifiable as "tourists". Therefore if they cause congestion at a restaurant, a queue at a Post Office, or "take over" an historic house, overseas tourism will be the culprit.

Tour groups however, normally keep to the well worn tourism routes. Not too many New Zealanders would feel involved and these tourists are unlikely to interfere greatly with the everyday life of most New Zealanders - except perhaps when New Zealanders wish to take their holidays.

However, the pattern of tourism is becoming more complicated. Increasingly tourists are wishing to package together some, if not all, of their trip. These free and independent travellers wish to sample a broader spectrum of New Zealand landscapes and lifestyles. A consequence is more opportunities for visitors and hosts to interact. These tourists may become much more dependent on the assistance of the local population, and in fact, may seek this as part of their unique experience. The previous review cautions that such exchanges can soon become tiresome, especially if language barriers complicate the process of communication. The "saturation" level for such tourists may also be relatively low should they become competition at the local picnic spot, or the town's favourite fishing
pool. Alternatively where common interest is apparent the encounter may be rewarding to both host and guest alike.

What this chapter suggests is that a style and indeed a level of tourism which does not have the support of the local population is not sustainable. A central issue concerns the process by which the public of New Zealand can understand tourism development and contribute fully to its success.
CHAPTER 4

CULTURE AND TOURISM
(Dr Pat Devlin - Lincoln College)

Introduction

"Recognition of culture as an essential yet delicate component of tourism attractiveness has resulted in a perceived need to merge social and economic objectives/constraints in the formulation of tourism development policies" (Ritchie and Zins: 1978, 254).

The role of culture as described above raises two issues. The first, is the "delicate" nature of tourism's cultural component. Partly this reflects the concern that cultures elsewhere have been manipulated or exploited solely as tools for tourism development. While this must be a concern, it may be also suggested for New Zealand that we are yet in the early stages of distinguishing between those aspects of our New Zealand culture that are resilient to tourism's impact and those which must be cautiously rationed, or even "off-limits".

The second issue is one of objectives in conflict. Any merging of "social and economic objectives/constraints" is unlikely to take place if those who hold the economic objectives are not also in some part linked with the social fabric and context which is providing the cultural attraction. Those who have control over tourism's administration and infrastructure need to be part of the answer to these questions.

There is ample evidence of goodwill to this, but no clear pathways to an easy achievement of either the conceptual
framework or the practical approaches which will enable action.

This section of the review therefore sets out to contribute to a conceptual framework by describing a relationship between "culture" in New Zealand as something uniquely Maori, and a culture which must also be shared. It considers the ways in which Maori operators and academics see themselves, and their views of themselves, vis a vis tourism.

The enthusiasm of Maori tourism representatives to play a significant and substantial part in all facets of tourism development is clear. Less clear, and of concern to the writer, is the extent to which this is shared throughout Maoridom. This and other questions relating to actively shared components of culture are in urgent need of research attention.

4.1 Culture and the Tourism Product

The culture of this country, its people, its architecture, its music, its food, its present as well as its past - these are the truly unique features of New Zealand which the tourist does not find elsewhere. It is similarities with their own culture which enable the tourist to feel a comfortable empathy with New Zealanders; it is the differences from their own cultures which confront and excite tourists, contributing novelty and meaning to their visit. It is the combination of these which give the tourist a lasting impression of our country and which challenge the notion of New Zealand only as a destination of outstanding natural resources.

4.2 "Natural" versus cultural resources

In an important sense, all so-called "resources" are cultural. The mountains, plains, rivers and seas, their as-
sociated spectacular features and the plants and animals which live there are beautiful, spectacular or important because people say this is so.

However, such perceptions are not universal; they are not the same for all cultures. Visitors from Japan for example may see landscapes and items of culture quite differently from we New Zealanders. Even visitors from countries with "Western" cultures looking at New Zealand will have different sets of perceptions. Finally, but of great importance, there is a considerable diversity within New Zealand itself and this is particularly true of Maori and Pakeha where there are cultural differences in belief and value systems. But it is also true of other dichotomies. Urban and rural perceptions often differ in subtle ways. So too do views held by the inhabitants of regions. Hence the South Island's 'West Coastiers' see their natural resources and their history somewhat differently from the views of their Canterbury neighbours. For various reasons then, those who provide the activities and destinations for tourists have the massive challenge of finding a thoroughly acceptable common position from which a view of our combined cultures can be presented. Pakeha New Zealanders in particular must develop a sensitivity and empathy for the Maori "view of the world". As an illustration, take the case of two cars driving past Tongariro National Park in the Central North Island.

The Pakeha driver of one car may see a wisp of volcanic smoke in a landscape as being of geological intrigue and wonderful recreational opportunities. The Maori driver may see the smouldering sacred fires lit by Gods to warm Ngatoroirangi; the mountains are "ancestors" and the landscape is a story board of tribal history and lore.
The example suggests a fundamental cultural dichotomy. Sensitive presentation of New Zealand's landscapes and other natural resources should reflect an appreciation of the value systems associated with them. Scientific and aesthetic features should be enriched by the cultural meanings which inhere in our landscapes.

Clearly this will require a major effort in all quarters. It requires both learners and teachers and a willingness by the Maori to share a part of something which to them is precious. Within the total New Zealand experience there are aspects which properly, can only be imparted in Maori. However, there are abundant additional opportunities for sensitive and informed Pakeha to enrich visitors' experience of the Maori dimension.

4.3 The Maori Role in Tourism

As the September (1985) Manaakitanga (hospitality) Hui held at Rotorua it was abundantly clear that Maori interest in, and enthusiasm for tourism is high; their need for concern to be a part of its growth is seen not as an option but as an imperative. The business interests represented ranged from financing to entertainment and from insurance to activity tourism. But, while enthusiasm was abundant the pervasive concern seemed to be that the Maori slice of tourism cake was small relative to their importance to the industry.

The Honourable Kora Wetere in opening the Hui made several points which were frequently reiterated over the period of the conference. The first of these was that the Maori people have been in the Manaakitanga or hospitality business for over a century and many earn their living in the large field of tourism, travel and recreation. Second, he acknowledged that "... while New Zealand had outstanding scenery, the only completely unique part of New Zealand is the Maori people and their culture".
Several of the Honourable Minister's points concerned Maori lands and the need for these to be developed for and by Maori and to get a good return from their resources. Finally, he pointed out that "strengthening and defending Maori culture is the vital spark in all Maori development, and its linkage with tourism is obvious". This view that tourism has a strengthening role, and has in fact been instrumental in keeping aspects of Maori arts and crafts thriving has been testified by Te Awekotuku (1981). She explains, "I then concluded that there was indeed substance to my people's loud and frequent claim that tourism has not hurt Te Arawa; in many instances, it has helped us" (1981:1).

On the negative side however, is the suspicion that constant exposure to tourism has counter-productive side effects. Te Awekotuku (1981:140) in her description of two Kainga in Rotorua notes: "... especially those (residents) who experience tourist contact continually, live suspended in a state of seeming schizophrenic ambivalence. As tourist traffic increases tourists become more difficult to avoid; the dimension of privacy in either Kainga diminishes." One can only conclude that evidence for or against this ambivalence may be situationally specific. Development of operations in which visitor/host contact is considerable, must be carried out cautiously and thoughtfully.

Maori involvement in tourism has also been reviewed by Garland (1984). His analysis appears to concentrate on current attitudes and practices in the Central and Northern North Island. There is a clear intention to extend beyond the traditional Maori entertainment role in tourism by expanding the use of their lands as well as artistic and other activity skills. Specific mention of Maori International as a company which promotes the involvement of Maori people in the ownership and management of various tourist operations, both in New Zealand and abroad, exemplifies this desire to diversify. The leadership role of the New Zealand
Maori Arts and Crafts Council is cited as an example of National level involvement while individual Maori entrepreneurs run successful small business in these North Island localities.

4.4 **Maori Self-Image**

The development of stereotypes through tourism promotion is a consequence of the industry which is currently of concern to the Maori. Winiata (1985:5) points out the importance of Taha Maori (the Maori dimension) to the self-image Maori hold. It is "... wider than a bikini clad pakeha lass propped up with a carving, or a group of performers in native dress; but does include the words spoken on a coach by a coach driver as well as the normal promotional avenues". The Maori "... no longer wish to be labelled with the projected image of the friendly dusky skinned polynesian in the grass skirt".

The recent overseas success of Te Maori Ekepihana - the art treasures of the Maori World - highlights the current desire by the Maori for a recognition of a proud heritage and cultural excellence. While their further involvement in tourism will no doubt be diverse, the importance associated with self-image is a message of importance to the industry as a whole, and to New Zealand as an entity.

4.5 **A "hidden" culture**

Previous chapters of this review have described the outcomes of host/guest encounters and the evolution of these through time. The question of the ways in which this effect might differentially act on Maori culture has been partly answered by Te Awekotuku (1981) when she discussed the ambivalence of her people to tourism's affect on their privacy. Elsewhere (1981:146-147) she describes the "hidden" culture, those aspects of Maori life
and ceremony which others do not see. Yet at the same time, a key thrust of the Maori approach to tourism - their interpersonal role - may further undermine this. Henare Strongman (1985) described tourism as a "people to people" relationship. To her, "Americans (her adopted country) are wonderful people (who) leave New Zealand with their suitcases bulging. But is that the most important thing they leave with? No, it is what is in their hearts - it is aroha. The unsaleable is AROHA."

Points highlighted at the Manaakitanga conference also included the need to develop Maori resources for more training of young Maori; the strength and resilience of Maori culture; the importance of people (aroha); and the need for a central body (and often imported) souvenirs; and the need for a central body through which Maori opinion, guidance and initiative can be brought together to promote Maori tourism. This end a task force was set up to prepare the way for establishing a Maori Tourism Association which would facilitate that forceful yet sensitive approach.
sitive development of the skills and resources of the Maori.

4.7 Quality for the Masses

The challenge to the tourist industry as a whole is to recognize that "quality" is not the experience "itself", but is a measure of the level of satisfaction of the participant with the experience. There is a clear message in this. A continuum of experience from a "mass" end which caters for thousands, through to the "rationed" end which caters for a few, is not a range of quality. It is purely a range of experiences and those who provide them must ensure that quality for the participant is available throughout. This places the responsibility squarely on the providers. A diagramatic example of involvement with equal quality throughout is shown below.

A Continuum of Cultural Experience Opportunities

Purchasing ? attend a ? visit Art Centre/walk Whakarewarewa ? Live on a souvenir concert a Marae

-------------(decreasing) INVOLVEMENT (increasing)----------------

The complicating influence of the "experience" of those providing opportunities for tourists is discussed in the final chapter of this review but is so important it warrants further mention. As "experienced" New Zealanders the value we place on activities and settings tends to mirror our own backgrounds.

A cultural example of this is displayed in the continuum above. For the first-time visitor an exhilarating Maori concert will be a highlight. Few will need a Marae experience to provide their "quality". We should carefully appraise the extent to which we are viewing others as extensions of ourselves, instead of providing a range of quality options from which they can choose. If the emphasis for provision of quality concentrates on the "mass" end of the continuum, then this will be most
appropriate. The other end, by definition, can look after itself.

4.8 A Wider Cultural Identity

While this section has virtually concentrated entirely on Maori aspects of culture, it is the writer's belief that more than one form of cultural renaissance is occurring in New Zealand. It has been stated (Plimmer; 1985, 10) that for tourists from several countries New Zealand is seen as a beautiful place but with nothing culturally to offer; hence it is tempting to highlight the special identity of the Maori. But perhaps many New Zealanders are sufficiently removed from their forefathers points of origin to feel strongly that they are New Zealanders. They know where their roots are. An emerging nationalistic strength may provide more widespread opportunities for a "New Zealand life-style" to stand alongside those unique features of our culture which only the Maori dimension can provide, and in so-doing, add to our incomparable landscapes as an integrated range of opportunities for tourists.

4.9 Some conclusions

This contribution has covered a number of issues that seem important to this observer. While the concepts of culture and tourism connote Maori aspects in particular, it is essential that all who are involved in the provision of tourist experiences be suitably informed and sensitive to both the Maori dimension and the Pakeha dimension. Each will have its opportunity for eminence but few would argue the pre-eminence of those unique qualities which are clearly Maori.

At the same time the industry must heed the advice of contemporary critics such as Mahuta and Nottingham (1985:6-7). "It
is Maori culture and Maori values they (the tourist) want to find out about, not the spurious pseudo-Polynesians they are dished up in too many other tourist locations ...". Mahuta and Nottingham provide insightful analysis of many of the issues subsequently addressed by the Manaakitanga Hui (1985). In common with others, both writers and speakers, they seek the sale of a quality cultural product which does not bring with it an attrition of intrinsic cultural values. Indeed, they look for a strengthened culture through proliferation of cultural skill-training. The problem of "pseudo-Polynesians - in many other tourist locations" is surely one which can be overcome through displacement or replacement as the industry becomes more fully aware of the concern which the Maori people have for the ways in which their culture is presented.

The establishment of a "task force" to advise on the Maori role in tourism is a useful first step. I believe it must go further than that, and three points stand out. Certainly its first responsibility will be to ensure for its people a just and rightful place within the industry. Second, and of equal importance, is the critical need for the experiences provided to fit comfortably within a range which can be culturally sustaining, as well as sustained by the culture. Third is the need to explore ways in which Pakehas in tourism can share, enrich, and come to better understand each others cultural inheritance. In these ways, not only the tourist will benefit.

The issues raised in this section of the review paper must be read within its overall context. It is therefore stressed that while its treatment is separated, its implications are not. Haphazard developments of tourism involving Maori, are still haphazard tourism. Social impacts from tourism are still impacts and notwithstanding the inherent resistance of Rotorua Maori to these, other parts of the country may not have this resilience.
Finally, developments which have irreversible impact on ecologically sensitive areas are equally irreversible. Indeed, impairment of land resources may take on additional spiritual, as well as ecological significance.

The task force must therefore deal with the spectrum of concerns currently presented to the industry as a whole.

Its challenge is to make the most of what it has, while at the same time it forges mutually better cultural understandings and synthesis for all New Zealanders, as well as the tourist community.

"Ko te pae tata, whakamaua kia tino;
Ko te pae tawhiti, whaia kia tata.

Hold fast to the close horizons (or to what you have; chase after and bring closer distant horizons". (Nikora: 1984).
CHAPTER 5

MEASURING AND PLANNING FOR SOCIAL IMPACTS

Introduction

The initial chapters of this review had as their objective to describe the importance and nature of social and cultural impacts. Attention was firstly focussed on the tourism product/experience and the resource systems that underpin it. It was concluded that the health and success of tourism development will ultimately depend on the integrity of the natural and social resource systems that sustain it. All members of society have a responsibility for this, however, the tourism industry because of its particular use of these resources the tourism industry has a special responsibility.

The tourism product was described as one which evolves over time. Differing patterns of evolution were noted for a number of aspects of the tourism system - visitors (guests) local residents (hosts) and destination areas. Because the tourism product focusses on us as New Zealanders, and because tourism is a 'people to people' industry, tourism is therefore an agent of social and cultural change.

Most of these changes will be seen as part of the general picture of constant change which we experience today. The fact that the impacts of tourism are similar to many other changes occurring in our society suggests that tourism planning needs to first and foremost be well integrated into existing planning processes.
This final chapter presents two themes. The first concerns the development of a framework both of communication and for research to monitor impacts and fine tune our planning. The second concerns the need for, and major issues in tourism planning. These two themes are interrelated in as much as measures of impact of best are measures of evaluation – of how well objectives are being achieved. Without clear directions outlining the nature of New Zealand's involvement in tourism, impact assessment very soon becomes relatively meaningless.

5.1 Social Impact Assessment

In New Zealand, as in other Western Nations, Social Impact Assessment (SIA) is gaining in importance and scope of application (Taylor and Sharp 1983). Following their experiences with using SIA in major projects in New Zealand (e.g. Marsden Point Refinery, Taranaki Energy Projects) the Ministry of Works and Development has recently published a description to guide future applications (MWD n/d, c1985). This is summarised briefly below.

The approach advocated is based on an "integrated community development" which creates a series of horizontal and vertical communications comprising central government, regional government, and regional steering and technical advisory forums, working alongside developers. The principal aim is to enhance communication through consultation.

The roles of these participating groups are:

Central Government. Central Government has the role of co-ordination of the interests as expressed in its various departments. It is suggested that this is an on-going need. It
should foster direct communication and information between regional and central government.

**Developer.** The developer, whether government or a private developer, has a pivotal role in the SIA process. They hold key information about planned projects which needs to be made available to regional and central governmental planners and local people.

**Regional Steering Groups.** These groups are set up under a Regional or United Council. They should include local Members of Parliament, local and regional authority councillors, Crown representatives and development interests. Major functions as listed are:

* to initiate technical advisory groups
* to articulate appropriate regional development needs
* to influence the manner in which development proceeds to meet regional or local needs
* to recommend allocation of development levies.

**Technical Advisory Groups.** These are the "work horses" of SIA. It is suggested they comprise staff from all levels of government (central, regional, local) with developers (the tourism industry) and community groups.

Runyan and Wu (1979) have addressed the specific question of 'assessing tourism's more complex consequences'. They too advocate a wide community involvement in tourism planning. They go further than the approach advocated by MWD and suggest a two stage approach to impact assessment. The local planning authority, with developers or consultants, forecasts relatively specific or quantifiable physical, economic or other changes. These are then put to the community which has three roles:
(a) evaluating and criticising the set of impact forecasts prepared by the professionals.

(b) expanding on these impact forecasts both for themselves and for others who may be affected.

(c) making judgements on the set of identified impacts.

These authors note that although resident input can significantly increase the time and effort required to complete a project the pay off for impact information is increased reliability and usefulness.

However, tourism development poses special challenges in fitting into SIA processes. Three issues are listed below.

1. Tourism development is on-going. It tends to evolve slowly and is made up of a number of smaller developments which may in the short term go unnoticed by local residents.

2. There is most often no single readily identifiable developer.

These above two problems can be addressed by establishing (Regional) Tourism Advisory Groups (TAGs) on a semi-permanent, formalised basis. Recent experiences in Canterbury have seen the establishment of an advisory committee by the Canterbury Promotion Council and the Canterbury United Council.

The structure and function of this forum is recommended as the basis for TAGs in other regions (Recommendation 2). A central government liaison group is also recommended (Recommendation 1).
Scope for the inclusion of SIA is made in the Town and Country Planning Act (1979) which could include tourism developments. Regional groups as outlined above can, for example, be formed as advisory groups (under S8 of the Town and Country Planning Act (1977)) or, as in the Canterbury situation, act more independently, but supported by funding initiated by the United Council.

3. Funding: Major industry developments (over $50m) require the developer to pay a levy (0.5 per cent) to the appropriate Regional or United Council. While major tourism developments (e.g. large first class hotels) would attract such a levy, tourism development, for the most part, would not attract such levies.

This second challenge is more serious. In the final analysis, because of the nature of the tourism product, its many interfaces with local life style and culture, the author is led to conclude with others (UNESCO, OECD, EIU) that this funding responsibility ultimately rests with government agencies.

For the central government liaison group (recommendation 1) this funding responsibility presumably rests with the NZTP. For regional TAGs (recommendation 2) funding would seem to initially rest with regional or United Councils.

The Canterbury experience suggests that this need not be expensive. All industry representatives currently give freely of their time and funding was co-ordinated by the United Council to provide a research/marketing officer and secretarial assistance, which amounted to $65,000 in the first year.
Likewise, it is argued that these proposals do not establish a series of new bodies or further planning delays for developers. Rather they serve primarily to bring a number of disparate interests together into a single forum, to facilitate better, more efficient, planning.

5.2 What and How to Measure

Social Impact Assessment is firstly a communicating and planning framework. In underlining the importance of regional tourism forums this report takes the same view as that implied in SIA; that is, community members are the best judges of changes which are affecting them. Many of tourism's effects are not direct, but rather induced or indirect. One of SIAs strengths lies in its ability to utilise resources and data that already exist (secondary sources). Nonetheless while such approaches may be appropriate to 'one off' developments there is a need for a wider data base to integrate development at a national level.

Cohen has argued that for tourism development "the many different empirical problems can only be tackled by utilising a wide range of concepts and research instruments" (1979b:32).

He therefore advocates research that is:

* aware of the passage of time - aside from such an awareness there is also a need for longitudinal studies (e.g. different stages of tourism development).

* aware of specific circumstances (e.g. community context)

* capable of generalisation (at least research designs and variables should be comparable)
participatory - tourism processes should be studied from 'within' as well as from 'outside' the groups involved.

Pizam (1983) and Duffield and Walker (1984) show how different types of research might fit different data requirements.

Under objective measures Pizam lists:

1. Before-after studies
2. Ex-post-facto - matching communities
   - statistical inferences
3. Case studies
4. Field experiments

and for subjective measures

1. Resident's surveys
2. Impact assessment by experts
   - Delphi
   - Delbecq

Impacts (physical and biological, economic and social) are seen by Duffield and Walker (1984) to arise from three contributing groups of people.

* tourists (staying visitors)
* day visitors from outside the region
* residents

Key indices for social impacts are:

* infrastructure changes
* social attitudes
* changes in land use (rural to urban)
* use of service facilities
* structural changes in population composition
* behavioural effects, e.g. crime

Again this information is seen as an integral part of an overall planning process (Appendix 2).

Although the type of impact assessment advocated in this report is seen as an on-going process the earlier impact grid approach as advocated by Plzam (1984) is also useful in highlighting the broad range of issues that might not be assessed in tourism development. On one axis he has placed 11 social and 10 cultural impacts indicators. On the other are up to 45 elements of tourism development. These include a wide range of accommodation, transport, recreational and infrastructure elements as well as scope for assessing different aspects of tourist behaviour (Appendix 3).

In New Zealand we already have an increasing number of studies, usually community surveys, that are clearly part of social impact assessment techniques. These include such studies:

- Cant and Pearce - Queenstown
- Garland - Central and Northern North Island Communities
- Mings - Public opinion

What the earlier literature review clearly cautions is that it is very easy to become trapped into one-off problem-oriented studies that contribute little to an overall understanding of tourism or little in assisting other communities in predicting or measuring changes. Two key principles stand out from Chapter 3's discussion of the factors that influence negative socio-cultural impacts. These are:
(i) impacts will vary according to community size. 
(ii) impacts will vary according to the stage of tourism development.

A research framework based on these two over-riding factors is included as a recommendation (No. 3) in the next chapter. Prior to this, however, some comment is made on the need for and scope of tourism planning.

5.3 The Need for Planning

"To maximise the probability of success requires the prediction of impacts .... A good strategy therefore, incorporates a process whereby impacts will be evaluated and predicted, and action taken when thresholds are approached. If obstacles cannot be overcome some control (such as limits) must be imposed".

Getz 1983:253

This quotation raises two issues. Because social impact assessments ultimately require judgement decisions a clear tourism policy, with the ability to monitor changing goals and objectives, is essential in their assessment. It will be argued that planning needs to occur at all levels, national through to local.

A second issue raised in the above quotation concerns the question of limits.

This section therefore also examines the notion of a tourism capacity and questions the nature of quality in tourism experiences.
5.4 A Strategic Approach to Tourism Planning

Getz (1983) and Murphy (1983) both present a strong case for a strategic (systems) approach to tourism planning. As such their suggestions differ substantially from comprehensive (master) tourism planning programmes as advocated by Gunn (1979).

A systems approach is seen as an on-going process. It acknowledges changing public attitudes, and keeps abreast of changing stages and rates of growth by constructing and constantly adjusting a model of tourism development. A capacity is seen as part of this dynamic process "aimed at overcoming barriers where possible, but one in which it is possible to exert controls ... when necessary to satisfy objectives" (Getz 1983:252).

Two inter-related activities are proposed. First general research aimed at understanding the "tourism system", how it works, its problems and goals. The "application and evaluation of controls exerted on the system (i.e. specific policies, plans and developments) to achieve goals" is then required (Getz 1983:253).

General systems research includes: describing and modelling the tourism system and its environment and forecasting and choosing alternative futures. These two steps are integrated. As better knowledge becomes available through the evaluation of past experiences, the model (understanding of the tourism system) must continue to be improved.

The planning and evaluation of specific proposals involves six steps.

1. Evaluation of planned developments.
2. Establishing a priority for goals and objectives.

3. Selecting a strategy. This step requires that likely impacts are predicted and evaluated and plans then adapted as appropriate.

4. Initiating incremental development. The value of moving slowly is that given these many uncertainties, cautious development is one device to help minimise risks.

De Kadt (1979b) also advocates for a gradual development, to allow locals time to adjust to, and become involved in tourism, thereby minimising potential shifts in attitude.

5. Review and Evaluation. This information must link back to the overall model so the accuracy of future assessments and decisions is improved.

6. Decisions. Finally, reviews must lead to decisions regarding controls on the system. As suggested earlier these may operate, in a number of ways; access, host's attitude, advertising or promotion, or guest attitude. Unless a planning process specifies how evaluations are to be used it is possible that important implications will be overlooked.

Murphy on the other hand argues for an ecological approach to defining tourism goals, whereby the industry assumes a "stewardship" role for landscape, amenities and community assets. He argues that because tourism is now interwoven into the social, economic and environmental aspects of all communities it "can be integrated into the general planning procedures" (1983:193).
5.5 *Is there a Tourism Capacity?*

A number of planning texts still refer to tourism capacities. More recent work, such as those described above have moved significantly away from such ideas toward a more interactive planning model. This move is also occurring at a time when the notion of carrying capacity is being dropped from recreation planning. Reasons for this departure stem from the inability to fully operationalise capacity measures within either of these two contributing systems socio-psychological or bio-physical.

Chapter 2 has argued that both visitor and host perceptions (the socio-psychological capacity) are likely to change over time. These factors along with an infrastructure combining a variety of public and private facilities suggest a commonly held perception of crowding our point of capacity is highly unlikely.

It can also be argued that biophysical limits may not exist in definite terms. In some situations limits on physical resources can be overcome. A ready example here is the construction of well defined tracks and boardwalks and adequate parking areas in National Parks to lessen impact and allow for greater visitation.

Finally such measures are meaningless without a prior specification of goals. A piece of land designated as a reserve may be expected to support a relatively small number of visitors. The same land developed as a theme park may accommodate thousands. Capacities are therefore better seen as control mechanisms, or threshold, rather than absolute measures. In this light impact assessments are then seen as evaluations of how effectively goals can or are being achieved rather than the absolute measure some would purport them to be.
5.6 The Recreation Opportunity Spectrum

The above ideas have been brought together under the heading of the 'Recreation Opportunity Spectrum' or ROS for short (Clark and Starkey 1979). An application and brief discussion of the same principles are spelt out in the previous chapter on Culture and Tourism.

An individual recreation setting is the combination of the following factors:

- **physical** - especially access
  - walking
  - unsealed road
  - sealed road
  - helicopter

- **biological** - 'naturalness' of settings
  - unmodified
  - man made

- **managerial** - acceptability of impacts and regulations
  - no amenities, few regulations
  - many amenities and regulations

- **social** - amount and type of social interaction
  - no interparty contact
  - extensive interparty contact

For each of these factors a range of criteria are developed that allow the distinction between one opportunity and another. While these criteria are judgemental, their value is seen in stating explicitly the criteria on which decisions are based.

One feature of resource management that is made clear by the ROS, is that remote experiences are of special significance. It is easier to move toward more developed situations than to move
back along the spectrum to re-establish 'remote' situations. With the adoption of the ROS recreation planners have realised no one area need to be 'all things to all people'.

The "experience" of the providers is however a major complicating factor. If we are (or have been competent trampers or mountaineers then wilderness-type experiences or an ascent of Mt Cook may be our idea of "quality". The obverse of this - to see wilderness from a chartered flight, or to see Mt Cook from the Hermitage - is for us potentially low quality. Not so for our visitors. For those who lack the skills to climb Mt Cook or for whom this view is "a first", the experience may be a highlight. If it is accompanied by sensitive interpretation and the opportunity for the visitor to extend and enrich his one-off experience, then it will truly be quality.

5.7 Applications to Tourism

While the ROS has not yet been applied to the study of the tourist industry some potential clearly exists.

As an elaboration of the above ideas it is easy to develop a picture of a high quality recreation experience. For one tourist it might be a limited visit on a package tour, for another a longer, less formalised trip in a camper van. For yet another it might be a 'hitch-hiking' holiday to the remoter parts of the country. Furthermore, these seemingly unrelated experiences might all apply to the same person, their difference being their changing experience, familiarity with the destination area, or the social group with which they choose to travel.

Specific applications of the ROS to tourism might be in assisting in the development of regional tourism plans, or in
reviewing the range of accommodation, attractions, activities or transport opportunities.

This final section has presented two alternative models for tourism planning. The difference between these models lies only in the level of application. They come together in highlighting the need for an on-going planning process. Both adopt a broad view of the industry that places the tourism 'product' within an integrated system. Both emphasise the need to develop a tourism policy and monitor changing goals and objectives. Social impacts assessments are seen as part of this process, rather than ends in themselves. Strong links with community members likely to be affected by developments coupled with early and ongoing communication are seen as the mechanisms to ensure that negative impacts are minimised and positive benefits work for both the community and tourism alike.
CHAPTER 6

RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Recommendations

The first two recommendations are concerned with communication, involvement and planning devices. They arise primarily from the previous discussion on SIA and measurement techniques (Chapter 5). Many of the resources and skills required for social impact assessment already exist. These recommendations do not seek to establish a series of new bodies or further planning delays for developers. Rather they serve to pool resources and co-ordinate action with the objective of facilitating more efficient planning and the minimising of undesirable effects.

Recommendation 1

The establishment of a Social Impact Liaison Group to identify major social impacts of tourism development, advise on matters of national tourism planning and policy and offer guidance to the regional forums.

This group should be able to initiate and monitor research and report to the NZTP and NZTC. Ideally it should build on the existing work and relationships between the NZTIF Research Authority, Tourism Council and Research Division of NZTP. Likewise the Social Policy section of MWD has increasing expertise in this area. This group is seen as a parallel of the Tourism Liaison Group. A list of potential contributors and functions is included as Appendix 4.
Recommendation 2

The establishment of regional Tourism Advisory Groups (TAGs) to assist regional, local and central government in planning for tourism.

Such groups are already being established in a number of regions. The structure of the Canterbury Tourism Advisory Committee provides a substantial starting point. This recommendation simply serves to underline the importance of these groups and advocate for their establishment in all regions affected by tourism development. Clearly monitoring social impacts and community participation in tourism are an additional role to be grappled with in each region. In keeping with SIA recommendations these groups would need to develop strong community links. For example mechanisms of involving community workers and interest groups need to be considered. Appendix 5 details the structure and functions of the Canterbury group and suggests possible additions to answer these concerns. The Canterbury Regional Liaison Officers of the NZTP were central to the establishment of this forum and their role is strongly endorsed.

The final two recommendations are concerned with building up a research data base on tourism impacts. A framework is proposed (Appendix 6) to avoid the 'shot gun' of problem-oriented studies evidenced in other tourism destinations.

This framework is based on two key principles outlined in the literature review.

(1) Impacts will vary according to community size
(2) Impacts will vary according to stage of tourism development.
The framework has been cross-checked to ensure inclusion of a range of resource bases (natural - historical - cultural) and tourists (domestic, international). It serves to build on situations where research has already been undertaken.

**Recommendation 3**

Under the auspices of the Social Impact Liaison Group or policy and research sections of NZTE a tourism research monitoring base be developed to include a range of communities likely to be affected by tourism. Initially these should include the communities listed in Appendix 6 (Franz Josef, Paiaha, Russell, Waitangi, Queenstown, Retoura, Christchurch).

It is acknowledged that for many of these some research already exists.

Central co-ordination of this work is required to:

* ensure that a broad range of communities and stages of tourism development are studied
* that data gathered is able to be cross-compared
* to provide an ongoing research function to link directly to tourism policy.

**Recommendation 4**

A comprehensive review and bibliography of tourism impact studies in New Zealand particularly in the above communities be compiled.

A number of studies have been undertaken on tourist destinations in New Zealand, much by university students and staff. This would seek to highlight major community issues and provide
insights into the key indices and appropriate methods on which to base the wider monitoring programme described above.

6.2 Concluding Comment

This paper presents a number of issues which have not received much attention in the past. Some within and without the industry may still consider that it is not an area of major concern. A number of issues presented suggest that this is not the case.

New Zealand is still in the infancy of its tourism development. As tourism grows it will inevitably impact on New Zealand society - on its people, their lifestyles and attitudes. The degree of acceptance of tourism by host communities will determine the success or failure of the New Zealand hospitality industry. A style, and indeed a level of tourism that does not have the support of the population is not sustainable.

Community values must be allowed to influence the nature and type of tourism developed in this country. Likewise differences in community aspirations must be resolved at a community level. Early and ongoing communication are seen as the mechanisms to ensure that negative impacts are minimised and the many positive benefits that flow from tourism development work for both the community and tourism alike.
## APPENDIX 1

### SOCIAL INDICATORS OF TOURISM IMPACT

New Zealand Hosts and Guests (Garland 1984:55ff.)

Scale -5 to +5 (11 point)

1. **Strong positive effect**
   - Mean
     - Opportunities for meeting interesting people: 2.6
     - Quality of restaurants: 2.2
     - Range of shops: 2.1
     - Feelings of civic pride: 2.1

2. **General positive effect**
   - Cultural facilities: 1.9
   - Variety of entertainment: 1.9
   - Sporting facilities: 1.6
   - Maori culture: 1.5
   - Residents' incomes: 1.5
   - Recreational facilities: 1.4
   - Preservation of historic buildings: 1.3
   - General standard of living: 1.1
   - Opportunities for jobs: 1.1

3. **Minimal effect**
   - Changes in way of life: 0.6
   - Bringing up children: 0.5
   - Families with young children: 0.4
   - Quality of medical services: 0.4
   - Number of unemployed: 0.3
   - Concern for material gain: 0.3
   - Older residents: -0.2

4. **Mildly detrimental**
   - Prices of sections: -0.8
   - Prostitution: -0.9
   - Costs of housing: -0.9

5. **Most harmful**
   - Prices of goods and services: -1.1
   - Noise: -1.2
   - Theft and burglary: -1.5
   - Litter: -1.7
   - Costs of rental housing: 1.8
   - Unfavourable traffic conditions: 2.2
### Appendix 1

#### IMPACTS

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<tr>
<th>TOURISM DEVELOPMENT ELEMENTS</th>
<th>SOCIAL IMPACTS</th>
<th>CULTURAL IMPACTS</th>
<th>Reception of New Cultural Environment</th>
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<td>ceremonies, dance, feast)</td>
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**AVERAGE IMPACT**

Add all values for each row and divide by 21 or add each column and divide by 45. Pizam, A. (1983:40).
Appendix 3

Figure 3: Schema for Determining Tourism Impacts

Objectives

A ASSESSMENT OF CURRENT DEMAND

1. Volume of flows into area
2. Seasonal variations in these flows
3. Volume of flows within area
4. Patterns of flows within area
5. Origins and destinations of tourists
6. Socio-economic profiles
7. Purpose of visit
8. Levels of satisfaction
9. Expenditure
10. Accommodation used (tourists only)
11. Frequency of visit

B ASSESSMENT OF FUTURE DEMAND

1. Projected population changes, including a consideration of such factors as income, vehicle ownership, etc., outside the region, but within its catchment area
2. Projected communications changes within and outside the area
3. Projected changes in supply within and outside the area
4. Expected changes in holiday habits of (a) U.S. residents and (b) foreign visitors
5. Latent demand

Information Required

Research Methods

Tourists (staying visitors)

1. Socio-economic profiles
2. Daily leisure activity patterns
3. Daily non-leisure activity patterns
4. Expenditure on leisure
5. Levels of satisfaction
6. Volume of flows within area
7. Seasonal variations in flows
8. Patterns of flows within area

Traffic Flow Survey and Traffic Mix model

Cordon Surveys

Home Interview Survey

Local Transportation Study

Residents

Day Visitors from Outside the Sub-Region

Tourists (staying visitors)

Day Visitors from Outside the Sub-Region
ASSESSMENT OF THE SUPPLY OF LEISURE FACILITIES AND RESOURCES

1. Inventory of man-made resources and facilities
2. Inventory of natural resources
3. The existing and potential capacity of these resources and facilities

Appendix

TOURISTS (STAYING VISITORS)

D ASSESSMENT OF IMPACT

PHYSICAL AND ECOLOGICAL
1. Destruction or Modification of habitat
2. Destruction or Modification of landscape (including Visual impacts)
3. Destruction or Disturbance of
   a) Flora and Fauna
   b) Geology
   c) Water
4. Pollution Occurring (Air, Water, Noise) e.g. Littering

ECONOMIC
1. Direct and Indirect income from tourists
2. Local authority revenue from tourists
3. Rent of tourist to local authority in terms of services and leisure facilities
4. Direct and indirect employment sustained by tourists
5. Contribution of tourists to economic viability of (a) privately owned leisure facilities, and (b) publicly owned leisure facilities and public services

SOCIAL
1. infrastructural change
2. Social Attitude
3. Changes in use of rural land
4. Use of service facilities
5. Structural change in population composition
6. Behavioral effects, e.g. crime

APPENDIX 4

Social and Cultural Liaison Group

Recommendation 1: The establishment of a social impact liaison group to identify major social impacts of tourism development, advise on matters of national tourism planning and policy and offer guidance to regional forums.

Potential Contributors

* NZTP
* NZTC
* Ministry of Works (Social Policy Section)
* Department of Internal Affairs/Ministry of Recreation and Sport
* New Zealand Police
* New Zealand Maori Tourism Council/Department of Maori and Island Affairs
* Department of Social Welfare
* Housing Commission
* Labour Department
* Tourism Researchers

Functions

(i) To liaise and advise on matters of social and cultural impact of tourism development

(ii) To advise on matters of policy

(iii) To develop research priorities

(iv) To co-ordinate and advise researchers to areas of need
(v) To initiate and sponsor research

(vi) To provide information to and within regional Tourism Advisory Groups.
APPENDIX 5

Regional Tourism Advisory Groups

Recommendation 2: The establishment of regional tourism advisory groups to assist regional local and central government in planning for tourism.

Example: Canterbury Tourism Advisory Committee

Functions

The Canterbury Promotion Council will service the committee through the Executive Officer, and minutes will be taken by their committee secretary.

The committee will receive items for consideration from any quarter and will be charged with discussing and deciding the appropriate action within the following objectives:

1. To co-ordinate the views of Canterbury's tourism interests

2. To communicate between Canterbury's tourism interests

3. To liaise and maintain contact with Local Authorities, Government Ministers and Government Departments

4. To co-ordinate the input into preparation and revision of regional policies for tourism and to lead discussion

5. To consider tourism development needs and opportunities for Canterbury
6. To encourage financial investment in Canterbury tourism development

7. To encourage higher standards and value for money tourism facilities in Canterbury

8. To comment on planning issues relevant to Canterbury's tourism interest.

9. To effect a greater awareness and appreciation of the benefits of tourism

10. To advise the executive of the Canterbury Promotion Council on any tourism matters discussed and make recommendations for any further action.

**Position**

The committee will rank as the senior forum for tourism discussion and comment within and on behalf of the Canterbury United Council region.

The committee will take a position somewhere between the Canterbury United Council with its broad planning functions and desire for advice and comment on tourism matters, and the Canterbury Promotion Council with its wider geographic area and more specific promotional and membership functions.
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80
| Planning | United Council MWD  
|          | Local Bodies  
|          | Public Utilities  

| Outdoor Recreation | Outdoor Recreation Information Centre  
|                    | Skifields  
|                    | Attraction Managers  

| Natural Resource Management | NZ Forest Service  
|                            | Department of Lands and Survey  

| Facilities/Heritage | Attractions - public recreation facility  
|                    | Town Hall  
|                    | Historical places  
|                    | Convention Centres  

**NECESSARY ADDITIONS TO ACCOMMODATE**

**MONITORING OF SOCIAL IMPACTS**

- Department of Social Welfare
- Ministry of Recreation and Sport
- Social Services Rep.
- Community Services (L.A.)
- New Zealand Police
- Labour Department

Maori and Other
Local 'Tribal' affiliations
Polynesian Interests
Cultural facilities (e.g. Marae)
Dept of Maori and Island Affairs
### Appendix 6

#### Recommended Communities for Focussing Social Research

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<td>Regional gateway, natural</td>
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Appendix b

Community Size

Tourism Function

Gateway

Resorts
(i) Full year
(ii) Summer
(iii) Winter

Regional Stopover

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Source: NZ Department of Statistics
NZ Census of Populations and Dwellings (1981)
Vol. 1. Part B. Location and Increase in Population
Tables 5, 7, 11.
Factor II: Resource Base

Community Size

Natural

Cultural

Factor III: Market Orientation

International

Domestic
REFERENCES


de Kadt, E. (1979b) Social Planning for Tourism in the Develop-


NTA (National Travel Association) (1983) *Knowledge and Awareness of Tourism Amongst New Zealanders*. (By Survey Research - Research International Ltd), Auckland.


Pizam, A. (1978) 'Tourism's impacts: the social costs to the destination as perceived by its residents'. *Journal of Travel Research* 16 (4):8-12.


APPENDIX 1

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             Fax (69) 281-462

TOKYO - Tohoo Twin Tower Building, 2F, 1-5-2
        Yuraku-cho, Chiyoda-ku, Phone (3) 5089981,
        Telex No 72-32427, Fax (3) 501-2326
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<td>Sydney</td>
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<td>270 Flinders Street, VIC 3000</td>
<td>(3) 6500133, Telex No 71-34955</td>
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<td>Watkins Place, 288 Edward Street, QLD 4000</td>
<td>(7) 2213722, Telex No 71-4180-3</td>
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<td>16 St George's Terrace, WA 6000</td>
<td>(9) 325-7055, Telex No 71-93700</td>
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<td>26 Flinders Street, Adelaide 5000</td>
<td>(8) 2310700, Telex No 71-186264</td>
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<td>13 Nassim Road, Singapore 1025</td>
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<td>3414 Connaught Centre, Connaught Road, Hong Kong,</td>
<td>(5) 255-044, Telex 802-73932</td>
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<td>Raul C Roca, Marcelo T Alvear 590, 10th Floor, Buenos Aires</td>
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Whangarei " "
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Tauranga " "
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Masterton " "
Wellington " "

Nelson Public Library
Blenheim " "
Christchurch" "
Ashburton " "
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Oamaru " "
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National Library of New Zealand, Wellington
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New Zealand Tourist & Publicity Department
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Wellington
NEW ZEALAND

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