

Copyright is owned by the Author of the thesis. Permission is given for a copy to be downloaded by an individual for the purpose of research and private study only. The thesis may not be reproduced elsewhere without the permission of the Author.

# **An Analysis of the Environmental Planning Framework for Coastal Developments in Fiji's Coral Coast Tourist Region**

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements of a Degree  
in Masters of Philosophy in Resource and Environmental Planning,  
at Massey University.

By Suliasi Wavu Tuvuki

February 1995

MASSEY UNIVERSITY LIBRARY



1062108070

## Abstract

This thesis examines Fiji's environmental planning framework with particular reference to tourism development along the coast. This focus is an acknowledgement of the coastal ecosystems upon which the tourism industry depends. However, despite this emphasis, the findings in this thesis could be relevant to all types of development in Fiji. Firstly, the shortcomings of the present planning framework are identified, with particular attention being paid to the sectoral nature of the existing institutional and legal arrangements. The important role of EIA is also discussed and is applied to the situation in Fiji's. Particular attention is placed upon the way the present system does not sufficiently recognise the important role the indigenous Fijian plays in the development planning process. This seems unjust since the indigenous rural dweller is the most affected by tourism developments along the coast and so the case study area, Korolevu, was chosen to provide a typical example of how such large scale, unsustainable, coastal developments have in the past, because of flaws in the present system, were often established with little appreciation for the traditions, protocols and more sustainable environmental management practices of the traditional local people.

Now that the international community is beginning to recognise the importance of providing sustainable development which preserves the environment in the fullest sense, including the cultural environment into which development is placed, the Government of Fiji is starting to recognise the importance of applying such strategies as *Caring for the Earth* (IUCN/UNEP/WWF 1991) and *Agenda 21* (Sitarz 1993) to the situation in Fiji. The findings of this thesis result in various reforms which have the

achievement of sustainable development practices in the Fijian cultural context as the underlying focus. These reforms emphasise the need to recognise and implement indigenous rights into the environmental planning framework at policy, institutional and legal levels. The incorporation of the indigenous Fijian's interests in this framework is an essential component to providing sustainable practices in Fiji. This inclusion can only be achieved by providing meaningful public participation opportunities for such communities. Ultimately, the IUCN/UNEP/WWF (1991) and Sitarz (1993) documents and, in addition, New Zealand's Resource Management Act (1992) collectively provide a useful model out of which the Fiji Government could develop its own environmental management regime which promotes sustainable development through the identification, avoidance, mitigation, and remedying of the many environmental problems encountered in Fiji's coastal environment.

## Acknowledgements

Thank you to my supervisor Mr Peter Horsely, Senior Lecturer in Planning Law, Department of Planning, Massey University, for his academic guidance and for his encouragement.

To the local people of Korolevu who provided invaluable information concerning the area, I also give my thanks.

The Department of Environment and the Department of Town and Country Planning are appreciated for providing me with information during my visit to Fiji.

Thank you to those individuals listed in Chapter Two and in the Bibliography of this thesis who provided me with technical and academic guidance.

Lastly, my appreciation goes out to my family, both here and in Fiji, for their support and prayers.

# Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Acknowledgements	iv
List of Figures and Tables	ix
List of Abbreviations	x
Chapter One - Introduction	1
Background Information	1
Physical Description	1
Social Background of the Indigenous Rural Dweller	3
Thesis Overview	6
Chapter Two - Methodology	11
Introduction	11
Literature	11
Personal Comments	13
Case Study Area and Study	15
Structure	16
Conclusion	16
Chapter Three - Overview of the Fiji Government's Administrative Agencies	18
Background	18
Categories of Land	21
State Land	21
Freehold Land	23
Native Land	24
Current State of Environmental Planning in Fiji	25
Overview	25
National Policies	25
Statutory Framework of Government Relating to Tourism	27
Central Planning Background	27
Department of Town and Country Planning	28
Department of Environment	29
Department of Tourism	29
Native Land Trust Board	31
Department of Lands and Survey	32
Ministry of Fijian Affairs and Regional Development	32
Fiji Trade and Investment Board	32
Department of Fisheries	33
Environmental Management Committee	33
Mangrove Management Committee	34
Land Conservation Board	37
The National Trust for Fiji	37
Non-Government Organisations	37

South Pacific Action Committee on Human Ecology and the Environment	37
The Fiji Council of Social Sciences	38
The Current Planning Process	38
Planning Schemes in General	38
Planning Schemes in Fiji	38
Scheme Preparation	38
Provisional Powers	41
Applications for Development	41
Land Use Control	43
Public Involvement	43
General Provisions	44
Conclusions	44
Chapter Four - An Overview of Tourism Related Environmental Laws in Fiji	46
Introduction	46
Policies for Environmental Legislation	47
Description of Fiji's Environmental Laws	48
The Town Planning Act	48
State Lands Act	49
The Public Health Act (Public Nuisance Provisions)	50
Fisheries Act	50
The Native Land Act (Native Land Trust Act)	51
The National Trust for Fiji Act	52
The Water Supply Act	52
The Current Legislation which Enforce Development Control	55
General Provisions	55
Approvals or Consents	56
Tourism Leases	57
Conclusion	59
Chapter Five - Environmental Impact Assessment and its Importance to the Planning Process in Fiji	60
Introduction	60
History	62
Environmental Impact Assessment	66
Why do an EIA	69
EIA and Sustainable Development	71
An Overview of the Agencies Responsible for EIA	73
Conclusion	79
Chapter Six - Korolevu	82
Introduction	82
Korolevu	83
Overview	83
Description of the Area	88
Villages and Settlements	91

Key Players	92
Consents and Permits	93
The Proposed Plan	93
Issues	93
Marine Pollution	95
Sewage Disposal	97
Solid Waste Disposal	98
Public Nuisance	99
Water Supply	100
Vegetative Cover	101
Extent and Quality of Natural Attractions	102
Soil Erosion	104
Beach Erosion	104
Marina Development	106
Land Tenure	107
Nature Tourism and its Opportunities	107
Conclusion	109
Chapter Seven - An Analysis of Fiji's Present Tourism Development	
Planning Framework	110
Introduction	110
Policies	110
Land Use Planning	113
Native Land Trust Board	114
Administration of Environmental Functions within Government	116
Department of Town and Country Planning	118
Fisheries	119
Overview	120
Environmental Law in Fiji	120
Policy Statements	120
The Acts	123
Overview	125
Environmental Impact Assessment in Fiji	127
Concerns for a Successful EIA system in Fiji	127
Timing	128
Personnel	129
Scoping	130
Monitoring	131
Overview	131
Korolevu	132
Conclusion	135
Chapter Eight - Recommendations	137
Introduction	137
Fijian Environmental Values	138
Suggested Reforms for Fiji's Present Coastal Environmental Planning Framework	140

Developing a Participative Process	140
Incorporation of Fijian Values	142
Integrated Law	144
A Working Model which uses EIA as a Major Tool for Planning	146
National Coastal Policy Statement	148
Summary of Reforms	149
Glossary of Fijian Words and Phrases	151
Appendices	153
Bibliography	209

## List of Figures and Tables

Figure 1.1	The Fiji Islands	2
Figure 2.1	Chapter Summary of Thesis	17
Figure 3.1	The Fijian Social Structure	20
Figure 3.2	The Function of the Department of Environment within Government	30
Figure 3.3	Environmental Management Committee	35
Figure 3.4	Mangrove Management Committee	36
Figure 3.5	Process of Forming a Town Planning Scheme	40
Figure 3.6	Development Proposal Procedures	42
Figure 3.7	Role of Government Agencies Involved in Tourism	45
Table 4.1	Environmental Laws Relating to Tourism Development Guidelines when Assessing Applications for Interim Development Control	54
Figure 5.1	Integrated Impact Assessment	68
Figure 5.2	Integrating EIA into the Project Cycle	80
Figure 6.1	The Coral Coast	84
Figure 6.2	History of Korolevu Beach Hotel	86
Figure 6.3	Land Tenure Boundaries	89
Table 6.1	Coliform Levels	96
Figure 6.5	Mangrove Distribution	103
Figure 7.1	The Host/Guest/Resource Base Relationship	134
Figure 8.1	Fijian Environmental Values	141
Figure 8.2	Development as a Dynamic Environment Society Process	143
Figure 8.3	Strategies for Sustainable Development	147
Figure 8.4	Institutional Arrangements for Organisations which are Responsible for the Coastal Environment	151

## List of Abbreviations

AEE	Assessment of Environmental Effects
AMSL	Above Mean Sea Level
CPO	Central Planning Office
DTCP	Department of Town and Country Planning
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
EIS	Environmental Impact Statement
EMC	Environment Management Committee
EMU	Environment Management Unit
EPS	Environmental Policy Statement
FAO	The Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations
IPDG	International Pacific Development Group
IUCN	The World Conservation Union
MMC	Mangrove Management Committee
NES	National Environment Strategy
NLTB	Native Land Trust Board
NSER	The National State of the Environment Report
NEWG	National Environmental Working Group
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PEC	Primary Environmental Care
PSC	Public Service Commission
RMA	Resource Management Act
RMLR	Resource Management Law Reform
SEA	Strategic Environmental Assessment
SPREP	South Pacific Regional Environment Programme
TPA	Town Planning Area
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USP	University of the South Pacific
WCED	The World Commission on Environment and Development
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature

# Chapter One

## Introduction

### Overview

#### **Physical Description**

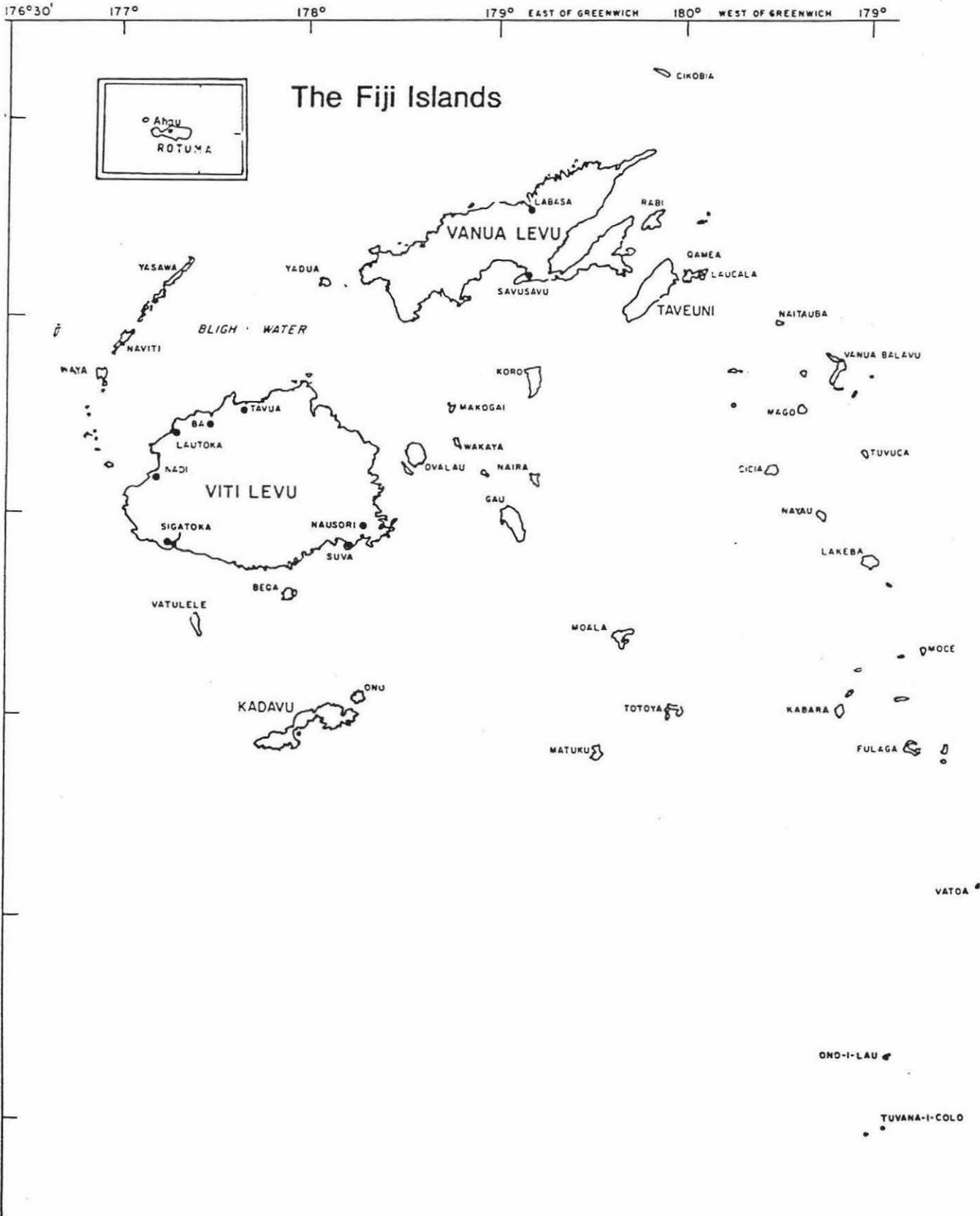
Fiji is an archipelagic nation consisting of over 300 islands extending from 10 degrees to 25 degrees south latitude and between 76 degrees east and 173 degrees west longitude (refer to Figure 1.1). The total land area of approximately 18,000 km<sup>2</sup> is composed of large, high volcanic islands such as Viti Levu and Vanua Levu, where the bulk of the population resides, and numerous small volcanic islands, low lying atolls, and elevated reefs. The largest islands have a diverse range of terrestrial ecosystems, including extensive areas of indigenous forests. Coastal ecosystems include beaches, mangroves, algae and sea grass beds in shallow reef and lagoon areas, and various reef types such as barrier, fringing, platform and atoll reefs.<sup>1</sup>

Clearly, tourism is completely dependent upon this physical resource base that is collectively known as Fiji and therefore the nation's physical land use planning process should provide a platform for the wise use of this resource. However, it is not enough that the tourism industry merely preserves the physical aspects of the environment. Tourism in Fiji should also contribute to the quality of life of the local indigenous people who are affected by the industry.

---

<sup>1</sup> Fiji has the second largest reef complex, after the Great Barrier Reef in Australia, in the world (Inskeep 1991).

Figure 1.1  
The Fiji Islands



Source: Watling and Chape (1992).

### Social Background of the Indigenous Rural Dweller

A description of the socio-cultural structure of indigenous Fijian communities, more specifically rural dwellers, is vital to any overview of the coastal environmental planning process since some land and water development applications are put through a statutory system in Fiji which at least attempts to take into account the cultural gap between post-colonial Western influences and *vaka i taukei* or *vaka vanua* (the Fijian way). It is this gap that has meant the development planning process has in the past failed to adequately meet the environmental needs and demands of the indigenous rural dwellers.

The following historical account of native rural dwellers of Fiji is based on literature by Ravuvu (1983), Bole (1992), Roth (1953) and Tippett (1968). Ravuvu and Bole describe certain aspects of the traditional social hierarchies which determined, what would now loosely be described as, environmental planning. Planning, before the West brought in their own system which was fashioned more to suit British rather than Fijian concepts of land ownership and management, was focused not only on military strategy, but also on sustainable<sup>2</sup> resource utilisation, and protection of ancestral sites and therefore ties with the land.

Each social unit<sup>3</sup> such as the various *i tokatoka* (sub-clan or extended family) and *mataqali* (sub-clan or lineage), had well defined roles to play in order to function as an effective whole. The *mataqali bete* (priestly unit) of the *yavusa* (clan) was the central planning 'bureau' and with the help of the *Turaga ni yavusa* (the chief), the *mataqali bati* (the warriors), the *mataqali*

---

<sup>2</sup> For the purposes of this thesis, 'sustainability' is defined according to The World Conservation Union (IUCN)/ United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP/ World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) (1991) *Caring for the Earth* document. Refer to Appendix 1.1.

<sup>3</sup> Refer to Chapter Three for a description of the Fijian social hierarchy.

*mataisau* (the artisans or builders) and the *mataqali gonedau ni wai* (the sea stewards) organised the rational utilisation of specific resources such as building materials, marine life, and other food sources. The women would perform the gardening duties, such as gathering and cleaning while the men would decide where and when to plant and harvest the various crops people used.

Fijian society was, and to a certain extent still is, dependent on people performing clearly defined roles. For instance, when the *Turaga ni yavusa* wanted to eat fish he would invariably send for the *gonedaus ni wai* to catch what he desired. Everyone had a role to perform.

Therefore, despite the prevalence of tribal war, the native Fijian lived in harmony with his or her natural surroundings, always careful to not strain carrying capacities and to have respect for Nature, the provider. Fiji's traditional society on the whole managed resources in a sustainable fashion. Wenzel (1989) argues that management in terms of Fiji's environmental planning history which had existed for more than 2000 years had a deep spiritual and socio-cultural basis which used an economic system of bartering dependent upon a self-sustaining ethos which was intrinsically connected to the seasonal variations and limitations of land and water resources.

However, this 'holistic' approach, often found in traditional societies, was disrupted with the coming of the 'white man'. Suddenly the resource base was threatened by the advent of 'civilisation' and a totally different environmental planning and management system evolved based on the

exploitation of resources and outright alienation of the land.<sup>4</sup>

An example of how the colonial administration, through the work of missionaries, disrupted the certain *tabus* (forbidden acts) of the traditional planning system which served as conservation methods is detailed by Tippet (1968). The destruction of certain turtle fishing *tabus* by the missionaries was backed by the colonial administration. Traditionally these *tabus* which allowed only certain people to catch and eat turtles, actually protected the latter from extinction. True to the individualism of the West, the missionaries announced that anyone could catch turtles and as a result they are now so scarce that they have to be protected under law as an endangered species. Tippet suggests that turtle fishing cannot be restored until "the sacredness of the net and the monopoly" (178) are restored.<sup>5</sup>

The Native Land Commission sittings, from 1913–1929 (refer to Chapter Three), marked the British attempt to carve up native land into segments, to be possessed by the various native peoples who could prove 'ownership'. Many conflicts over land ownership today can be traced back to this attempt to put onto paper a concept which the British little understood. However, this at least prevented the remaining native land being taken over by non-natives.

On the whole, this new system of planning was and still is centred at a national level with inadequate emphasis on regional, district, and more importantly, local level planning. Also, environmental concerns, which had

---

<sup>4</sup> Refer to Chapter Three for a clearer explanation of what is meant here by 'alienation'.

<sup>5</sup> The net had a certain *mana* (spiritual sacredness) that was only to be effectively used by a certain *gonedau ni wai* during certain times or seasons of the year. The turtle tabu is central to contemporary writer Akanisi Sobusobu's (1980) short story "The Taboo" which examines the power and importance of *tabus* in traditional Fijian society.

been a central feature of the old system, were given little attention, often with disastrous results. The taking of soil for land fill and reclamation as part of the current Denarau project,<sup>6</sup> without proper consideration of the ecological, economic and social aspects of Dratabu, is a recent example of not only a lack of environmental evaluation on behalf of the Government but it also clearly shows the lack of importance the present system places on public participation and on the spiritual attachment the native people have to the land.

More recently, moves have been made to redress this imbalance, and a new focus on sustainable practices is being ushered in, not only by the international community, but also by the Fiji Government in recognition of the fragility of the country's coastal ecosystems upon which the tourism industry is heavily reliant. This thesis attempts to examine the present changes, offering concrete suggestions on how to include the perceptions of native rural dwellers in Fiji's tourism development planning process, since these people are key players in this industry and their interests must be taken into account and must be protected.

### **Thesis Overview**

Inskeep (1991) emphasises that an unspoilt natural, cultural and human environment is the fundamental condition for the development of tourism. This thesis, therefore, investigates the state of environmental planning in Fiji in the light of the recent international documents *Caring for the Earth* (IUCN/UNEP/WWF 1991), and *Agenda 21* (Sitarz 1993) which, like Inskeep, highlight the need for governments to shift industries such as tourism away

---

<sup>6</sup> The Denarau resort development consists of a series of resort, cultural, convention, residential, commercial, marina and golf course developments situated on the southern tip of Nadi Bay.

from being largely economically driven towards being environmentally sustainable, the assumption being that far from acting as a foil to development this approach is vital in order to sustain development. This means that if Fiji is to achieve sustainable tourism development then dramatic changes to the present fragmented environmental planning framework will have to be made.

The emphasis of this thesis on the rural Fijian and how he or she fits into the whole development process reveals how in the past the socio-cultural needs of the local indigenous people have often been overlooked usually to their detriment despite the obvious economic benefits generated by the tourist industry. The role of environmental planning and management thus exposes the degree of inter-relatedness between the various sectors of the economy, both public and private, and the implications of this on the physical/human environment.

Environmental management could be said to be all activities that human beings engage in to better their relationship with the physical, social, cultural and economic aspects of life in order to meet the needs of present and future generations. Development plans should be created, therefore, in ways that minimise negative effects on the environment, provide for social and cultural well-being, and where appropriate, rehabilitate landscapes to a higher environmental quality. Environmental planning could thus be aligned with the concept of sustainability.

Although tourism planning in Fiji has made definite steps towards providing a more sustainable development process, more needs to be done to take cognisance of traditional sustainable methods of resource utilisation. To

effect this environmentally and culturally sensitive approach, a more accountable planning process is needed whereby broad policies are implemented and carried through all levels of society, with feedback being encouraged from the affected public.

Furthermore, for the purposes of this thesis, my concept of environment allies with that of my people who call it *Vanua*. Zann (1992) limits *Vanua* to: land, sea, and air; plants, animals and communities; the people; and the ecosystem while Ravuvu (1983) more correctly emphasises not only the physical but also the social and cultural dimensions which are interrelated, interwoven. *Vanua* is therefore living, dynamic and complex, and from the native Fijian's point of view it represents an extension of the individual, the individual being but a small part of a greater whole; a whole which also incorporates the past, present, and future.

What this thesis attempts to do is to integrate the traditional concepts of sustainability with the new push by the international planning community towards the evaluation of ecosystems according to the physical, economic, social and cultural contexts of the area concerned.

This thesis begins by explaining, in Chapters One and Two, how the author has approached the topic. Chapter Two outlines the methodological approach taken to reviewing the literature, utilising personal comments and implementing the case study survey questionnaire.

Chapter Three identifies those administrative bodies that are part of the general planning process in Fiji and then discusses their roles. This discussion uncovers the sectoral nature of the regulatory and advisory

mechanisms that exist in the present inadequate environmental planning and management framework.

A brief synopsis of the legislative framework that reflects the Fiji Government's attempt to enforce environmental protection and to provide statutory planning as a filtering instrument in the environmental planning and management process is then provided in Chapter Four.

Following this, Chapter Five reviews the role of environmental impact assessment (EIA) in the environmental planning process, noting its effectiveness when properly integrated into this process. This highlights the importance of EIA in the promotion of environmentally sound decision making in that it provides an effective system of monitoring the environmental impacts of developments. Describing how EIA is presently used in Fiji is central to this chapter.

The issues surrounding the Korolevu Beach Hotel and the surrounding area are then identified and discussed in Chapter Six. This chapter provides a case in point of where the general planning process has failed the rural indigenous dwellers, both past and present. The fact that the hotel now stand derelict points to the need for a new environmental planning regime which not only preserves but also restores the environment for the sake of a sustainable outcome.

Chapter Seven then provides a systematic analysis of the environmental planning system in Fiji, using the requirements of the IUCN/UNEP/WWF (1991) and Sitarz (1993) documents for effecting sustainable tourism development as a template to identify the deficiencies of the present system.

These documents emphasise the importance of public participation and preservation of the local environment in the fullest sense. This is compatible with the emphasis this thesis has on the perceptions of the rural indigenous dweller and it is at this point in the thesis that the survey results are discussed.

Lastly, to complete this analysis Chapter Eight follows with several recommendations which are derived from the broad principles which underpin the strategies for effecting sustainability. Other authors have been used to translate these broad objectives into the Fijian context. Particular attention was paid to New Zealand's Resource Management Act (RMA) (New Zealand Government 1991) and the way it provides for Maori and their culture and traditions.

## **Chapter Two**

### **Methodology**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter summarises the approaches taken to collect and analyse information used to formulate this thesis. The research began with a three day visit to the case study area, Korolevu, followed by a two month literature search based at the Department of Environment (then known as the Environment Management Unit (EMU)) in Fiji, which at the time was being run by Minister Joeli Kalou, and also at the Department of Town and Country Planning (DTCP). This visit and literature search provided the thesis' focus of indigenous rural perceptions of tourist developments in Fiji.

#### **Literature**

Firstly, information was gleaned from various Governmental technical reports and papers on environmental management planning issues related to the case study area. These reports and papers came from a variety of departments such as the DTCP, the Department of Environment, the Native Land Trust Board (NLTB) and the Office of Commerce, Industry and Tourism.

Concerning Fiji's administrative system, which is described in Chapter Three, reports by NLTB (1985), NLTB (1990), Haskoning (1990), Weaver (1991a), Watling and Chape (1992), and Zann (1992), were the main sources of information. Also, the description of Fiji's social context not only in Chapter Three but also in Chapter One was based on information found in Tippet (1968), Roth (1973), Nayacakalou (1975), Ravuvu (1983), and again Weaver (1991a).

Pulea's report (1992) provided the basis for the description of Fiji's Environmental Law (Chapter Four). McBride's (1992) supplementary report was also used but less extensively, as was Chape and Watling (n.d.). The various Development Plans (DPs) (6–9) and the 1991 Economic Summit were also sourced not only for this chapter but also for the previous one.

The section on EIAs (Chapter Five) was based on Green and Odense (1993) who provide a comprehensive translation of the EIA process into the context of Fiji. In addition, McClymont (1982), Tortell et al (1992) who also discuss EIA in this context, and who suggest guidelines for the Fiji Government to implement, were also used. Literature not related to Fiji included Westman (1985), Ebisemiju (1991), and Olokesusi (1992).

When researching the Korolevu area, discussed in Chapter Six, the main literature that was sourced included Wenzel (1989), Belt Collins and Associates et al. (1973), NLTB (1982), Coopers and Lybrand (1989), DTCP (1991), McIntyre (1991), plus a variety of Government files including letters and a detailed description of the area, and also various newspaper and magazine articles which recounted the history of the hotel.

The section which analyses the present system of environmental management planning in Fiji (Chapter Seven) and also Chapter Eight which provides recommendations have as their basis the IUCN/UNEP/WWF (1991) and Sitarz (1993) documents, the former of which forms the basis of Fiji's *National Environment Strategy* (NES) (Government of Fiji 1992).

Specific to the analysis section, Wenzel (1989), Chape (1990), Weaver (1991a), Watling and Chape (1992), Chape and Watling (n.d.), Pulea

(1992), McBride (1992), and Green and Odense (1993) all provide comprehensive suggestions about where the Fiji Government is lacking in its environmental management regime. Policy statements are also discussed in this chapter in an attempt to gauge the past Governmental intentions related to this area.

New Zealand's RMA and *Draft Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous People* (Ministry of Maori Development 1993) provide a comparative example of how the New Zealand Government has attempted to reform the environmental management regime, emphasising the importance of the role indigenous people play in this process. Although the New Zealand example is not without flaws, it does at least attempt to promote the means of achieving sustainable management through one integrated Act. Sadler and Jacobs (1990), Sadler (1994), Baines (1989a) and (1989b), and Dixon (1994) were also sourced.

### **Personal Comments**

The following is a list of those individuals who were personally approached because of their expertise in certain areas covered by this thesis:

- a) Mr Joeli Kalou (1992), former Minister for State and the Environment. Provided comments on the environmental regime as it was in 1992.
- b) Mr Neil Price (1992), Tourism Planner, NLTB. Discussed the situation at Korolevu.
- c) Mr Stuart Chape (1993), former Principle Environmental Planner with the DTCP. Described the constraints and flaws of EIA in Fiji and other issues

related to environmental management planning.

d) Dr David Green (1993), Lecturer at the University of the South Pacific, Institute of Applied Sciences. Commissioned to write a report with Odense for the South Pacific Environment Programme (SPREP) in 1993. Provided personal information on a unified environmental impact analysis assessment for the South Pacific region.

e) Dr Robin Smith (1993), Senior Lecturer at Massey University. Expert on tourism planning management in the Fiji context and knows the Korolevu Beach Hotel case and also specific developments in the Yasawas and Mamanucas.

f) Ratu Kitione Vesikula (1993). Acting Director for Estates, NLTB. Spoke about the dilemmas of developing native land.

g) Mr Stephen Cabaniuk (1994). Tourism Planner with the Estates Department, NLTB. Provided up-to-date information on the case study area and on the NLTB's involvement in projects which have a prime emphasis on integrating conservation with development.

h) Mr Tim McBride (1994), Barrister of the High Court of New Zealand and Senior Lecturer in Law, Auckland University. Provided information regarding the Korolevu area and the local indigenous people.

i) Dr Sean Weaver (1994). School of Forestry, Canterbury University. Provided up-to-date information on the social dilemmas faced in Fiji when marrying conservation and development.

j) Dr Rao Bhamidimarri (1994). Associate Professor, Department of Process and Environmental Technology, Massey University. Expert on sewage disposal.

k) Mrs K Clark (1994). Daughter of Sir Hugh Ragg (Northern Hotels Ltd). Provided accurate information on the history of the Korolevu Beach Hotel and on the reasons for its demise. Mr and Mrs Clark were the main operators of the hotel.

### **Case Study Area and Survey**

During the visit in 1993 to the case study area, Korolevu, a general observation of the Korolevu Beach Hotel, now derelict, was conducted and the local people of Biausevu, Votua, Komave and Jafau were met with. Following this, a convenience sampling survey was formulated. Then in February 1994 the people from these groups were randomly surveyed and the insight gained from this exercise is utilised in Chapter Seven. A copy of the survey is included in the appendices section (refer to Appendix 7.1) along with various case study photographs (refer to Appendix 6.1 ).

While not being a comprehensive sampling exercise, the survey provided essential information about the way indigenous rural villagers affected by the hotel view the situation. Without this, the emphasis in Chapter Eight on the need for public participation would be undermined.

Overall, the information gained from researching the case study area, highlights the issues discussed in Chapters Seven and Eight and provides a focal point from which broader suggestions can be made.

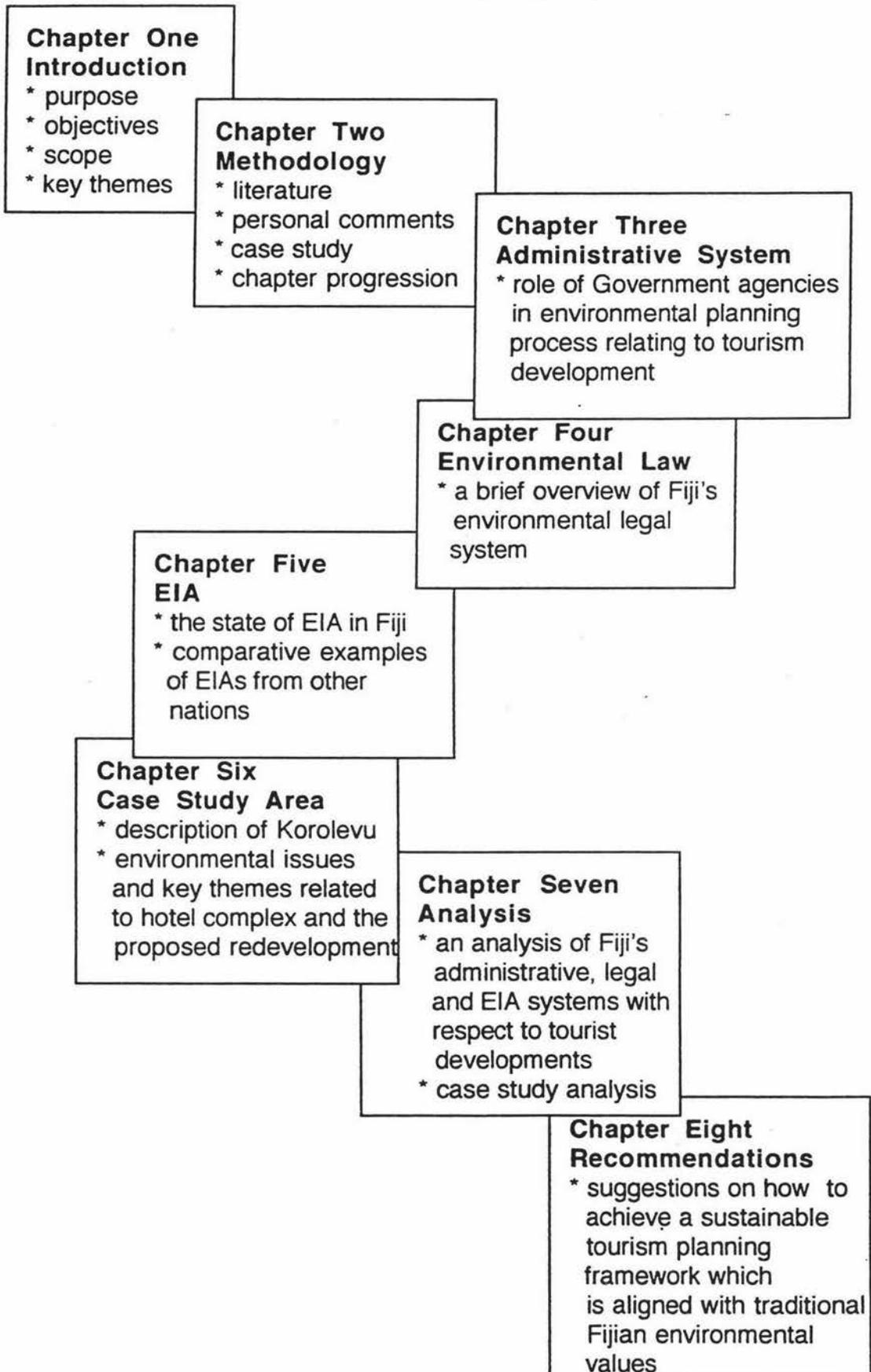
## **Structure**

The thesis is structured so that the reader can firstly discover, in brief, the way Fiji's environmental management system, specific to tourism developments, functions. Then following this is a section specific to EIA which is deemed by many in the international environmental forum as being a vital feature of any system which keeps human activities in harmony with the universal laws of nature. The section on the case study area then provides a case in point where the system has failed to comply with the existing policy promises made by the Government. The analysis and recommendation sections discuss weaknesses in the present environmental planning framework and suggest some solutions which will hopefully solve some of the problems highlighted by Korolevu and other tourist development areas. Figure 2.1 sets out a chapter summary of the thesis.

## **Conclusion**

The overriding impression gained when sourcing and analysing information for this thesis has been that the situation in Fiji is highly complex with many social, cultural, economic, political, technical and ecological issues to consider. Although the recommendations seem to focus mainly on the need for environmental regulations and effective enforcement coupled with appropriate public participation, the Government needs to move beyond the existing structures and needs to focus on the *Caring for the Earth* and *Agenda 21* Strategies which both call for a firm and practical commitment to the principles of sustainability.

Figure 2.1

Chapter Summary of Thesis

## Chapter Three

# Overview of the Fiji Government's Administrative Agencies Central to the Environmental Management Process

### Background Information

Over 50% of indigenous Fijians are rural dwellers and the majority of villages are located on the coast or along the valleys of the principal rivers of the two main islands, Viti Levu and Vanua Levu. Only a few are situated inland or on the outer islands. In general each village consists of several households, normally between 10 and 30, and has an average population of around 180 people. The village is a grouping of social units based on kinship with the traditional chief of the village holding the highest rank and it is upon this hierarchical system of leadership that organisation of village affairs such as land allocation, produce distribution, and labour delegation is based.

The activities of such village communities centre around subsistence agriculture, cash cropping, obedience to communal duties and "customs and ceremonies as they relate to their kinship and affilial relations inside or outside the village boundary" (Martel and Whyte n.d., 4).

Administration of native land is overseen by the NLTB, described in more detail later in this chapter, which aims to ensure that the 83% of native owned land remains under the jurisdiction of the Native Land Trust Act (1940). It ensures that all such land is administered by the Board for the benefit of the *taukei ni vanua* (native land owners) and that all development

needs are met with regard for the interests of these owners (NLTB 1985).

Under the NLTB, land management is based on neo-traditional Fijian custom, usage and tradition and thus directly relates to the structure of Fijian descent. According to Nayacakalou (1975), there is some confusion over how the various levels of Fijian social structure, decided by the Native Land Commission,<sup>7</sup> fits with the actual composition at the local level. This conflict of ideologies is also at issue when discussing the Fijian development planning system. As already mentioned in Chapter One, traditional planning was commonly based upon collective values and beliefs, and on the common ways of doing things. Thus public participation, as it is now termed, was deemed a vital aspect of this system. However, without sufficient fostering of such communal involvement in the neo-traditional planning framework,<sup>8</sup> the voice of the public has, on the whole, not been heard.

Figure 3.1 illustrates the social hierarchy that is generally found in Fiji at present. At the head is the *vanua* (in this context *vanua* means tribe), below which is the *yavusa*, then *mataqali* and *i tokatoka*.<sup>9</sup> Refer also the Chapter One.

Generally, every villager of an *i tokatoka* shares communal rights over a fixed area of land registered as a lot number by the NLTB, on which he or she has individual gardening rights for familial subsistence. Traditional

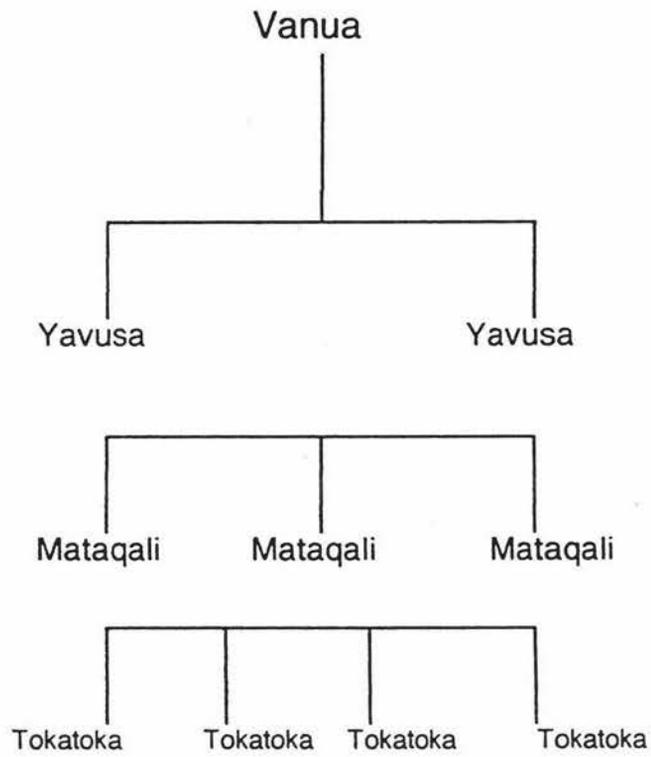
---

<sup>7</sup> The Native Land Commission investigated Fijian land titles and confirmed the Fijian owners in possession, under customary law, of the lands they were using (Nayacakalou 1975). Various sittings were held by the Commission from 1913 to 1929 (Ravuvu 1983).

<sup>8</sup> The phrase 'neo-traditional planning framework' refers to the modern planning system which has evolved since the advent of colonialism and reflects the Government's attempt to retain at least a degree of traditional decision making and administrative structures and techniques (Weaver 1991a).

<sup>9</sup> See further explanations of the Fijian social structure in Belshaw (1964), Nayacakalou (1975), Ravuvu (1983) and Roth (1973).

Figure 3.1  
The Fijian Social Structure



Source: Adapted from Ravuvu (1983).

leadership is mostly based on seniority of descent along the male line. Work on village or district projects is communal and is given essentially as a social service and is normally mobilised and directed through kinship affiliation (Martel and Whyte n.d.; Ravuvu 1983). This illustrates the typical inter-relationships between land and socio-cultural structure.

### **Categories of Land**

There are three categories of land tenure in Fiji: state land, freehold land and native land.

#### **State Land**

Since Fiji became a Republic after the 1987 Coup, a decree was issued on the 13th December 1989 to amend the Interpretation Act. It makes the following provision: "where in any written law, instrument, document or legal proceeding in force made or proceeding on the 7 October, 1987, the word 'Crown' is used or appears, it shall be replaced by the word 'State'" and "state land is defined by the State Lands Act 1946 as 'all public lands in Fiji including foreshore and the soil under the waters of Fiji, which are for the time being subject to the control of the State by virtue of any treaty, cession or agreement, and all lands which have been or maybe hereafter acquired, by or on behalf of the State for any public purpose'" (Pulea 1992, 16).

While freehold land comprises 147,448 ha representing 8.06% of the land area in Fiji (1986), state land, which is administered by the Department of Lands and Survey, totals approximately 153,884 ha (1986) and makes up about 8.41% of the land area in Fiji and the remaining 83% of land holdings are held by the NLTB.

The three main classes of State land include firstly State Freehold (State land with Title) which is freehold land purchased by the State. After the Deed of Cession<sup>10</sup> (known simply as Cession) there were 31,096.8 ha in this category. State Land without Title is a sub-category of State Freehold Land and refers to freehold land bought by the State where the previous title is cancelled under Section 46 of the Land Transfer Act 1971, as amended. After Cession there were 38,153.5 ha in this category and in 1986 the total acreage for State Freehold with Title and State Freehold without Title was 67,068 ha.

Secondly, State Schedule 'A', (the 'A' denoting after Cession), is land which has reverted to Government as *ultimums haeres* when a *mataqali* who owns land becomes extinct, but does not include this type of land which has not yet transferred to Government ownership. After Cession, 60,500.5 ha were classified as such and in this category and in 1986 60,501 ha remained in this category.

Lastly, State Schedule 'B', (the 'B' denoting before Cession), refers to land which was deemed by the Native Land Commission to be unoccupied and traditionally unclaimed at the date of the Deed of Cession and up to the time of the sittings of the Commission. There were 30,480.9 ha in this category after Cession and in 1986 26,315 ha remained in this category.<sup>11</sup>

However, according to Pulea (1992), these figures are not completely accurate since "state land recommended to be set aside as native reserve for Fijian land claiming units, the occasional transfer of freehold land to

---

<sup>10</sup> The Deed of Cession was signed on Saturday 10th October, 1874, to indicate that Fiji had officially become part of Britain (Derrick 1950).

<sup>11</sup> See Appendix 3.1 for State land statistics.

Government by way of dedication, land acquired by Government by enactment of law, and land ownership rights acquired by Government under sale and purchase agreements since coming into force of the Fiji (Constitution) Order 1966" (17) are not included.

Lastly, in the October 1991 meeting of the Great Council of Chiefs, the proposal from the NLTB that land classified as State Schedule 'A' and 'B' be handed over to the Board to be administered as native land, was endorsed. It was reported in *The Fiji Times* (3/10/91) that "the handover to the NLTB means that the Board will make this land available to Fijians and non-Fijians alike" and that "Crown (State) leases currently held on land handed over to the NLTB would become native leases" (in Pulea 1992, 17).

### **Freehold Land**

Before Cession the majority of the land that is now known as freehold was sold, traded or given for personal service to Europeans who utilised land primarily for plantation purposes. Since the sale of land was foreign to the Fijian system of land holding, it was assumed, mistakenly, that the land would eventually revert to the Fijian land tenure system. Thus the native people found the concept of outright alienation of the land difficult to grasp.<sup>12</sup>

A small number of native grants made between 1905 and 1909 when alienation of native land was permitted also comes under the banner of freehold land.

---

<sup>12</sup> According to personal comments made by Ratu Kitione Vesikula (1993), Acting Estates Manager, NLTB, indigenous Fijians found it hard to understand that when land was sold to the colonists traditional links were then severed, thus alienating the local people from the land and threatening their cultural integrity. Similar perceptions and problems are apparent with the indigenous Maori people of New Zealand.

Nowadays, much of the valuable freehold land in Fiji is used for agriculture, tourist resort development, other commercial developments and some residential land.

### **Native Land**

Prior to Cession customary land tenure principles could not be universally applied because of the nature of English law that applied at that time. Thus the present system of native land tenure was not outlined until Cession. Although wide variation in tenure and continuous changes in boundaries were apparent at the time, the four main types of land and water use (water being an extension of the land)<sup>13</sup> rights which seemed to exist are documented by Ravuvu (1983) as involving *qeleva ni teitei* (gardening land), the *veikau* (forest land), the *yavutu* (founding ancestors' house sites) and the *vanua ni qoli qoli* (fishing areas).

In the neo-traditional planning framework there has been an obvious attempt to recognise the traditional systems by specific legal recognition. The prime focus of the legislature for native land is in the 1880 Native Land Ordinance No. XXI which states that all native land derived from Fijian ancestors is to be utilised within the innate traditional context.

Customary Tenure is further defined in Section 3 of the Native Land Act 1905. Both these statutory provisions express the British Crown's commitment to preserve native Fijian land. However, there has been no significant input from native land owners concerning stewardship and guardianship of land and water resources in the event of developments such

---

<sup>13</sup> Pulea (1992) uses Eaton's (1985) more limited definition of land since she is writing from a legal perspective. However traditionally the boundary between land and water is not so clearly divided; fishing areas becoming an extension of the land in terms of ownership rights.

as tourist resorts taking place.

All leases of native land and covenants which also include environment related provisions (for example special purpose leases such as tourism leases) are additional provisions to the Native Land Act.<sup>14</sup>

## **Current Status of Environmental Planning in Fiji**

### **Overview**

Environmental planning management in Fiji is vitally important if themes relating to sustainable development (discussed at past international conventions which Fiji has been affiliated with) are to be fully endorsed. Although attempts to reform the administrative, legal, economic, and social dimensions of the environmental planning management framework have been made by the Government, large gaps still exist such as the lack of a clearly defined legal structure and clear lines of accountability and responsibility between the national, regional, district, and local village planning levels. Environmental planning and management for tourism development needs a comprehensive, integrated, environmental, community orientated process in order to achieve sustainable development for the industry. This will need changes to be made to the existing planning process.

### **National Policies**

The Fijian Government's DPs were its first attempt to create economic and social development programmes and projects which reflected local political objectives and policies. Various strategic plans from Government ministries

---

<sup>14</sup> While the NLTB's major role is as custodian of native land, due to its institutional position, it is "mindful of the strategic role it has to play in the development of the Fijian Tourism Industry as a whole via the planned release of land" (NLTB 1985, 6).

were formulated through the Central Planning Office (CPO) and then were submitted to Cabinet for endorsements for a national development plan.<sup>15</sup>

These past development programmes have addressed a variety of conservation issues. Firstly, in DP6 conservation policies were broken up into separate categories such as agriculture, forestry and fisheries. Then in DP7 (1976–1980) provision was made to protect important natural heritage sites while DP8 (1981–1985) called for a development process which was not in conflict with the maintenance of a healthy environment. Furthermore, in DP9 (1986–1990) the conditions needed to integrate conservation with the sustainable development of Fiji's natural resource base were outlined.

More specifically, regarding tourism, a paper was produced by the Tourism Council of the South Pacific (1990) which had as its primary objective the maximisation of economic and financial benefits derived from tourism development in the Pacific area, while at the same time minimising and, where possible, eliminating adverse environmental effects. Fiji was one of the countries that was considered in the paper.

The Environment Management Committee (EMC) was established in 1982 to act as an interagency advisory body. The Committee, which still exists, consists of representatives from a number of Governmental agencies and non-Governmental institutions. The EMC will be further described later on in this chapter.

The Government then established a National Environment Working Group funded by the Asian Development Bank which was focused on Environmental Management Planning Projects for the formulation of *The*

---

<sup>15</sup> This process is still used although the DPs have since been replaced by more detailed sectoral development plans and strategies, known as Economic Summits.

*National State of the Environment Report (NSER)* (Watling and Chape 1992).

Then the 1991 Fiji National Tourism Convention had the protection of the environment as its main theme. This coincided with an increasing emphasis that international aid organisations were putting on tourism developments that were considered to be sustainable (Weaver and King 1992).

Also, in 1989 the National Environmental Working Group (NEWG) worked under the Environment Unit of the DTCP and was given the brief to draw up the NES which was completed in 1992. This strategy includes five objectives considered necessary to achieve sustainable development and also the means of achieving these objectives (see Appendix 3.2).

### **Statutory Framework of Government Relating to Tourism**

#### **Central Planning Background**

Following the unstable political situation of 1987, DP9 was re-written and then lapsed in 1991. Now the main platform for development planning in Fiji is the National Economic Summit (refer to Footnote 9), which is held yearly to review the state of the economy and to formulate future economic policies and strategies. At these summits general development plans are generated.

According to James (1992), deregulation, corporatisation, and control over the size of the public sector are the vehicles through which the current emphasis of economic policy, (namely the promotion of growth through exports and expansion of the private sector), will be met. Financial and service sectors are already experiencing reforms which will eventually be extended to the labour market while agricultural subsidies, trade restrictions

and tariffs will be phased out.

The role of the public sector will be "to provide the infrastructure to support expansion of the private sector, consult with the private sector through a series of Consultative Groups, and create macroeconomic conditions that promote internal and external financial stability" (1).

The CPO, which has macroeconomists and economists concentrating on sectoral development, is positioned within the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning and is charged with governing general economic policies and strategies. A description of the central planning process, the institutions and their interactions, is presented in Appendix 3.3.

Due to a lack of ecological expertise, the CPO does not yet have the ability to provide sound ecological advice for tourist developments. In fact there is no specific strategy relating to tourist developments. Instead, it provides recommendations which focus more heavily on economic rather than environmental considerations.

### **Department of Town and Country Planning**

Firstly this Department forms part of the Ministry of Housing, Urban Development and Environment and is involved in environmental management in Fiji in a number of areas. The DTCP acts as the secretariat of the EMC and prepares land use plans and consults with relevant bodies such as town councils, local authorities and other Government departments.

The Director of DTCP is an officer appointed with that title by the Public Service Commission who is responsible to the Minister of Housing, Urban

Development and Environment. Most of the Director's duties are set out in the Town Planning Act (cap 139 Ed 1978).

### **Department of Environment**

The EMU within the DTCP was approved by Cabinet in 1982 although it did not become fully operational until 1989 when a Principal Environmental Specialist was finally appointed. Then in 1993 the EMU became the Department of Environment. Figure 3.2 illustrates how this Department operates within Government.

Chape (1990) summarises the responsibilities of the EMU as: "providing a secretariat to the EMC; providing project management to a National Environment Strategy project; acting as the national focus point for SPREP; developing national environment policy; undertaking environmental impact assessments of development projects; [and] undertaking a national environmental education and awareness programme" (11). These responsibilities were taken over by the Department of Environment when it was established in 1993.

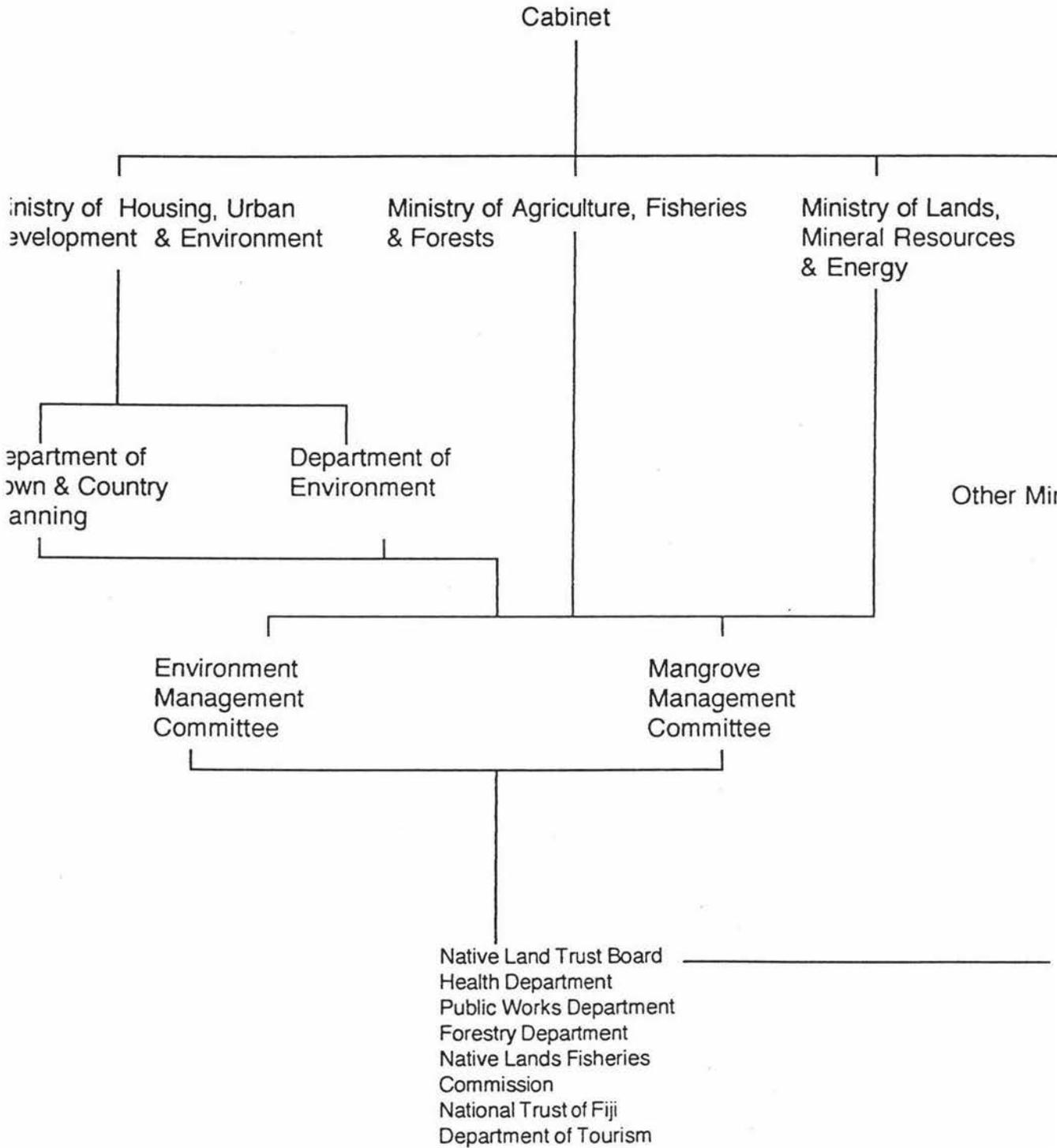
### **Department of Tourism**

This department, which is within the Office of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, concentrates on marketing and promotions with the NLTB. According to Cabaniuk (1994),<sup>16</sup> even though the Ministry set up an Eco-tourism Department in 1993, they still lack expertise in physical or land use planning. Cabaniuk also pointed out that the Tourism Council of the South Pacific is the main agency involved with the Department of Tourism and this Council is going to produce a physical plan, or even an eco-tourism

---

<sup>16</sup> Telephone interview with Steffan Cabaniuk, Senior Tourism Planner, NLTB, February 1994.

**Figure 3.2**  
**The Function of the Department of Environment within**  
**Government**



Source: Adapted from Haskoning (1990).

strategy for Fiji, in the near future. Lastly, this department is aided by the Fiji Visitors' Bureau and most of the development planning aspects of projects are dealt with by the Department of Lands and Survey, the DTCP and the Native Land Department.

### **Native Land Trust Board**

In 1940, as part of the inevitable modernisation of traditional Fijian society into a neo-traditional structure of Government and development planning, the NLTB was established. At this time native owned land, which made up 83% of the total Fijian land surface, was recognised as land to be used by indigenous Fijians for their present and future needs. Surplus lands were made available for leasing by non-Fijians under the onus of the NLTB.

Following on from the legislation provided for in the Native Land Trust Act (1940), the NLTB is now entrusted to look after the interests of indigenous Fijians. The main functions of the board are: "to make available for development, undeveloped native land, having due regard for the interests of the native owners required by the Native Land Trust Act, and also having regard for the development needs of the Republic of Fiji as a whole; efficiently to administer such land as has been made available, and in particular to ensure that all due rents or fees are paid, that all rents due for reassessment are so reassessed, and that all tenants fulfil the covenants of their leases; to pay to the native owners of land which has so been made available such monies as may be due to them, promptly, accurately and efficiently; and to fulfil its duties as stated in the Native Lands Trust Act with regard to the reservation and de-reservation of native land" (Weaver 1991a).

This permits the NLTB to become involved in advocacy/negotiation/public participation roles on behalf of owners but this rarely happens in terms of the modern concept of what environmental public participation actually entails. Providing sufficient preparation and lead-in time, sufficient time for debate, opportunity to participate for all those with an interest, and providing a 'genuine' consultation are issues which are at present not dealt with by the NLTB sufficiently enough.

### **Department of Lands and Survey**

The Department of Lands and Survey, under the Ministry of Lands, Mineral Resources and Energy, is primarily responsible for administering state land and it issues licences and approvals to developers for the use of foreshores or soil under Fiji. See Lal (1992) for an illustration of the institutional mechanism for processing foreshore development applications. Since the Director of Lands, under the Ministry of Lands and Mineral Resources, is appointed by the Public Service Commission, his duties are subject to the sections stated in the State Lands Act (1946).

### **Ministry of Fijian Affairs and Regional Development**

Since most tourist resort attractions for development are located in rural designated tourist zones, the other major body involved in processing development proposals is the Ministry of Fijian Affairs and Regional Development. The primary aim of this Ministry is to assist development for indigenous Fijians who in many cases are rural dwellers.

### **Fiji Trade and Investment Board**

All major private sector development proposals are considered and must be approved by the Fiji Trade and Investment Board which is located within the

Office of Commerce, Industry and Tourism. James (1992) describes the approval process as having the advantage of being a "one stop shop" for development proponents. All private sector development proposals are considered and must be approved by the Board. However, he points out that in the standard Project Appraisal Information Form there are no specific requirements to indicate the potential environmental impacts of proposals" (9).

### **Department of Fisheries**

This department, under the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forests, has a legislative responsibility to manage the coastal and the marine environment. More specifically, this division is a key player in managing sea tenure; enforcing the laws associated with Fijian customary fishing rights.

### **Environmental Management Committee**

In 1982 an EMC was instituted just prior to DP8. The EMC now functions mainly in an advisory capacity to the Director of DTCP concerning the environmental implications of development proposals. Thus one of the major tasks of the EMC is the assessment of environmental impact of development projects. Haskoning (1990) points out that this Committee is also involved in policy making and implementation in areas which have environmental implications .

Although not all EIAs (refer to Chapter Five), are referred to the EMC (given the growing number of such reports finding their way to the Department of Environment) significant issues are in most cases referred to the EMC for advice. Notable examples include, the Saweni Beach Resort, the Denarau Island tourism development, and the Korotogo bypass.

At present the senior technical representatives of the following bodies comprise the EMC: Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forests (Land Use, Drainage and Irrigation, Fisheries, Forests), Ministry of Lands, Mineral Resources and Energy, Ministry of Health, NLTB, University of the South Pacific (USP), Department of Meteorology, National Trust for Fiji and the Fiji Museum (refer to Figure 3.3).

### **Mangrove Management Committee**

Formed in 1983 by the Department of Lands, the Mangrove Management Committee (MMC) is an interministerial body which meets when needed to consider those proposals which affect Fiji's mangrove resources (refer to Figure 3.4).

The MMC consists of non-Governmental organisations and Government development agencies including those that assess and approve development such as the DTCP which controls physical developments, the Department of Lands and Survey which has jurisdiction over littoral zones and foreshore leases, which issues licences for foreshore land and soils, and lastly the Department of Fisheries which regulates fishing activities. Ultimately, the Department of Lands and Survey is responsible for the management of mangrove areas.

According to Lal (1992), at present, development proposals which affect mangrove areas are usually referred to the Ministry of Primary Industries (now the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forests) and the Department of Lands and Survey for comments in order to assess environmental implications even though the Department of Environment formally requires an EIA for foreshore development applications.

Figure 3.3

Environmental Management Committee

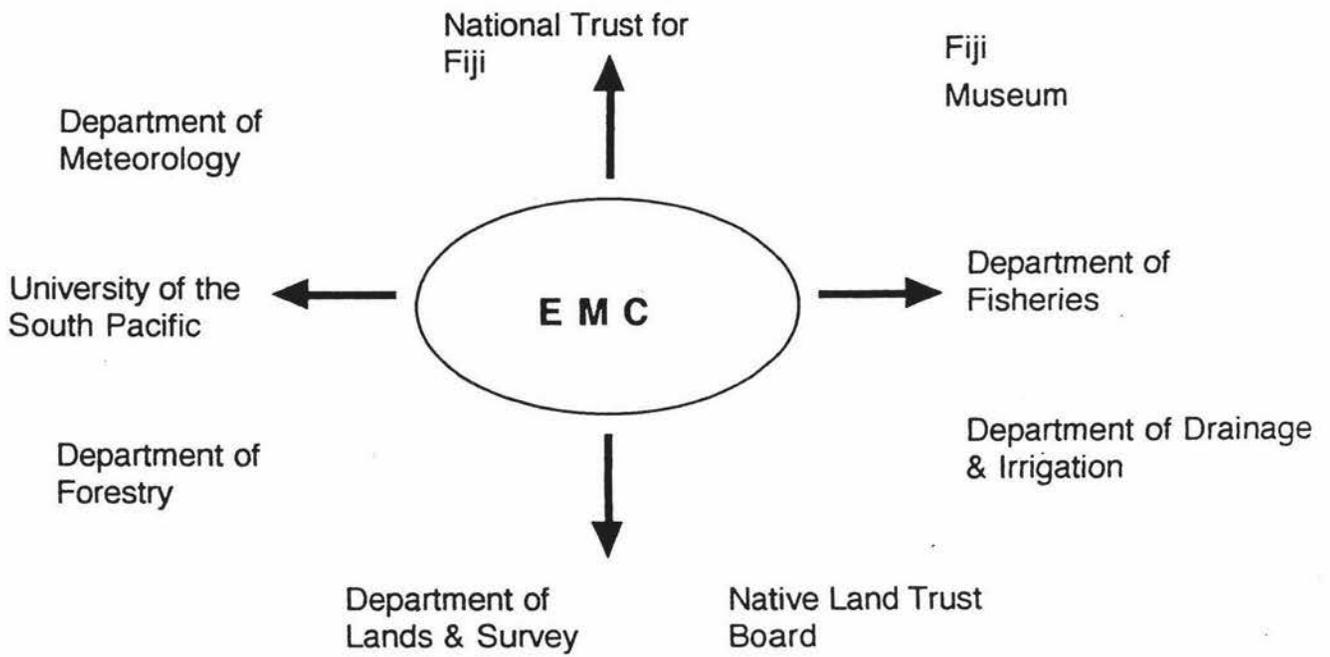
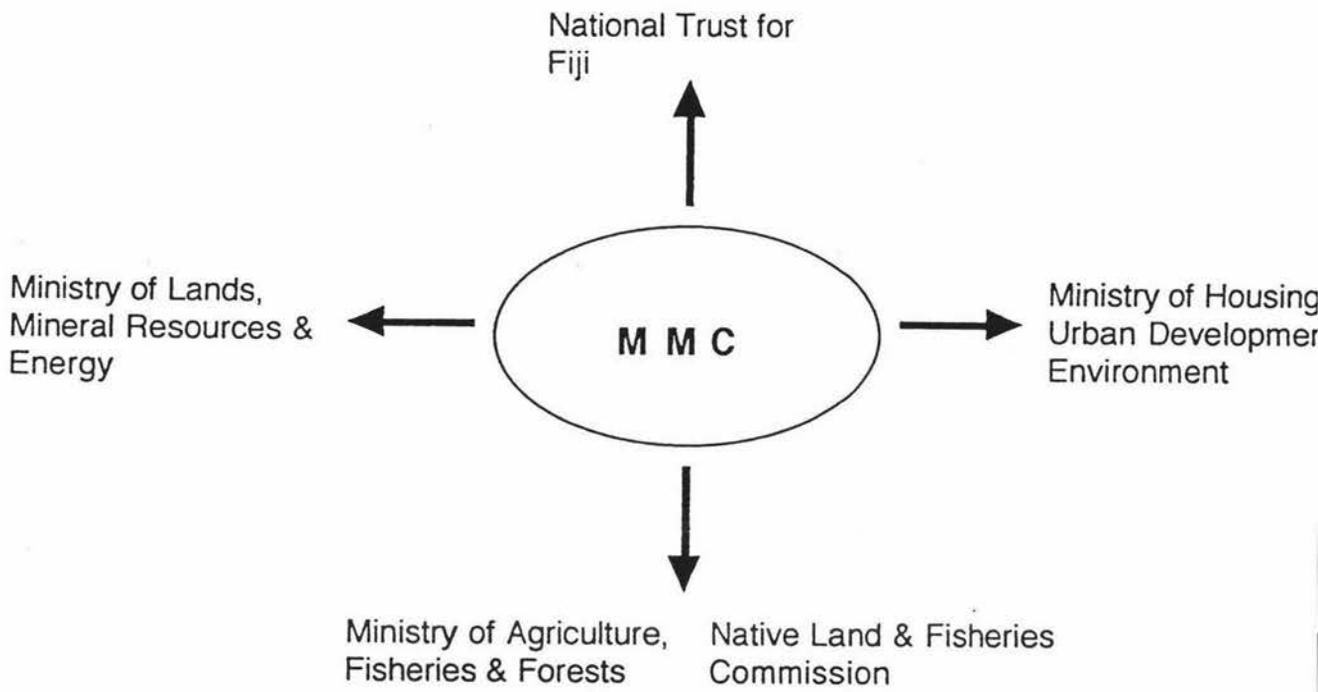


Figure 3.4  
Mangrove Management Committee



### **Land Conservation Board**

This particular Board acts as a steering committee which looks at improper husbandry practices which leaves soil exposed, thus causing major environmental problems such as soil erosion and land slips. For example the Land Conservation Board has the right to enable land owners to terminate leases which are operational on native land. Although the Board's primary focus is on agricultural practices, it does take part in providing advice on actual or potential soil erosion problems for other types of developments, such as tourism, when these developments are set in a rural framework.

### **The National Trust for Fiji**

Set up by Ordinance in 1970, the National Trust for Fiji is a semi-autonomous body, its primary focus being to promote conservation in Fiji. However, it failed to win sufficient Government support and also failed to initiate any form of successful fund raising in an international environment where such support is readily obtainable. Despite these shortcomings, this body is still in existence.

### **Non-Government Organisations**

#### **South Pacific Action Committee on Human Ecology and the Environment**

Otherwise known as SPACHEE, this non-Government body is a USP based organisation which, despite its academic approach to issues, is the only active organisation of its type in Fiji and has a very wide resource base of expertise.

### **The Fiji Council of Social Services**

This Council has initiated various environmental education programmes in recent years but has yet to become fully established and active in the environmental arena.

### **The Current Planning Process**

#### **Planning Schemes in General**

Two important principles are generally included in planning law to effectively implement the planning process. Firstly, restrictions should be imposed on land use and development for community benefit and secondly, an explicit Plan or Scheme should be prepared to direct such control.

Planning systems are usually a combination of an administrative system and a judicial system whereby "the former generally controls the day-to-day implementation, processing and management of the system, while the latter sets its overall framework, integrity, and is particularly relevant in the appeal process" (Ministry of Housing and Urban Development<sup>17</sup> n.d., 5:1).

Thus a safety net is provided to avoid inconsistencies, and to ensure effective enforcement of policies across the board. The three main elements usually found within such a system include policy making (making a plan), administration of policy (controlling development) and protection of citizen/group rights.

#### **Planning Schemes in Fiji**

The direction of control of land in Fiji is focused primarily on "the preparation and administration of Town Planning Schemes for a designated Town

---

<sup>17</sup> Now the Ministry of Housing, Urban Development and Environment.

Planning Area (TPA) under the Town Planning Act. Figure 3.5 illustrates the Town Planning Scheme preparation process. For the 25 territorial local authority districts (2 cities, 8 towns, 15 rural land authorities) declared TPAs by statutory orders to-date, only the cities of Suva and Lautoka and the towns of Ra, Labasa, Levuka, Nadi and Nausori have approved Schemes" (5:1).

When Schemes are approved the councils are responsible to determine development applications. A number of applications are of course referred to the Director by the councils for planning consent particularly when variations in requirements and conditions are apparent.

### **Scheme Preparation**

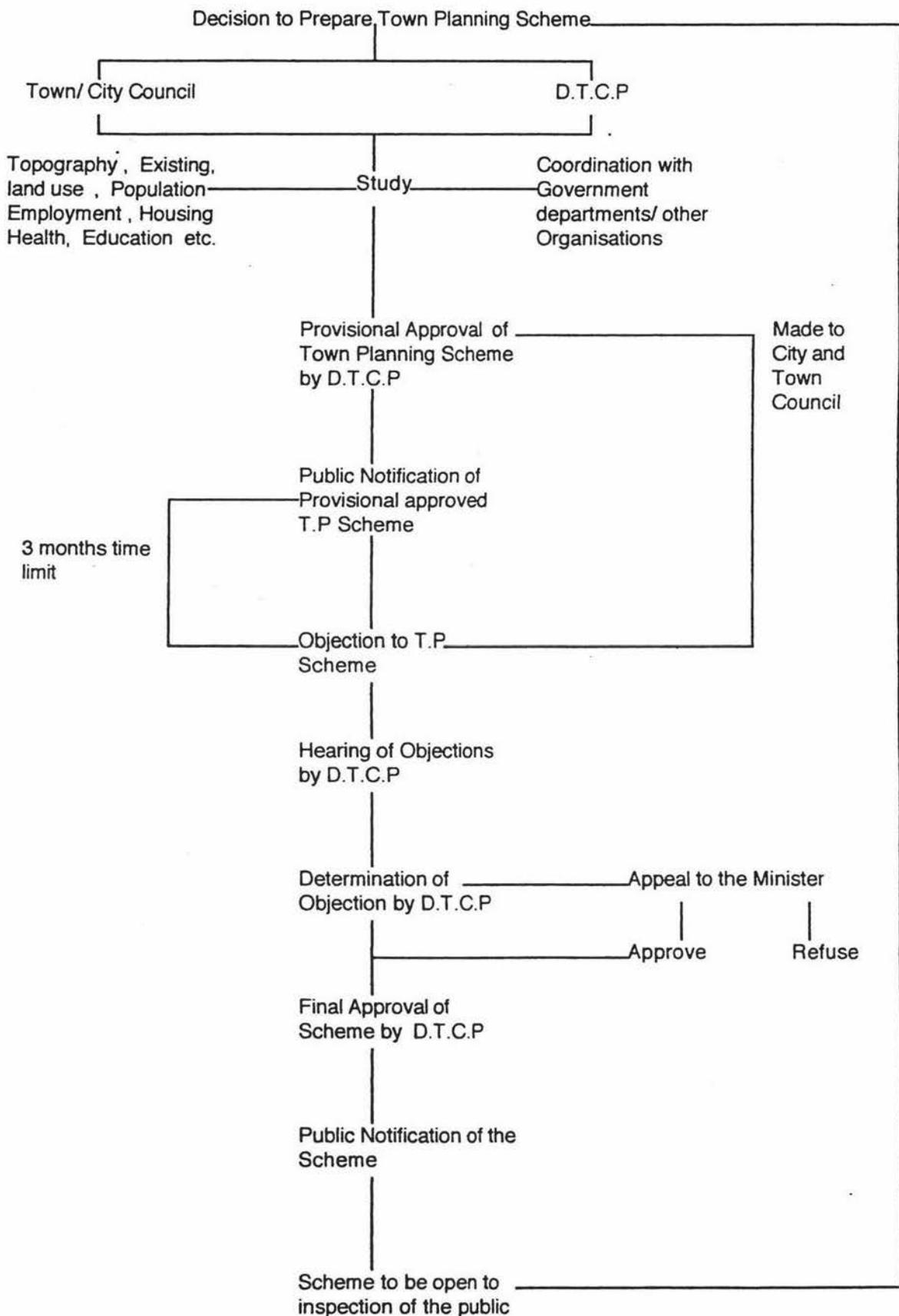
Scheme preparation is based on the standard SURVEY- ANALYSIS- PLAN approach, which is characteristic of early 20th century planning.

Problems and issues for Fijian towns and rural areas are investigated from studies of the topography, climate, and land use patterns, and tourism trends are also taken into account. The issues raised from such studies and from the National DPs provide an input into Fijian planning to produce a Planning Proposal which is then translated into a Draft Town Planning Scheme. This comprises a Scheme Report, a Scheme Statement, and General Provisions.

The findings of the study are summarised in the Scheme Report while the Scheme Statement is the official declaration of the Planning Proposal. In most cases, "the general provisions follow closely the standards and guidelines from the Director's General Provisions for subdivision, lot sizes,

Figure 3.5

Process of Forming a Town Planning Scheme



building lines and similar ordinances in order to control physical development of land within the TPA concerned. Hence, there is a high degree of standardisation throughout the country" (5:2).

### **Provisional Powers**

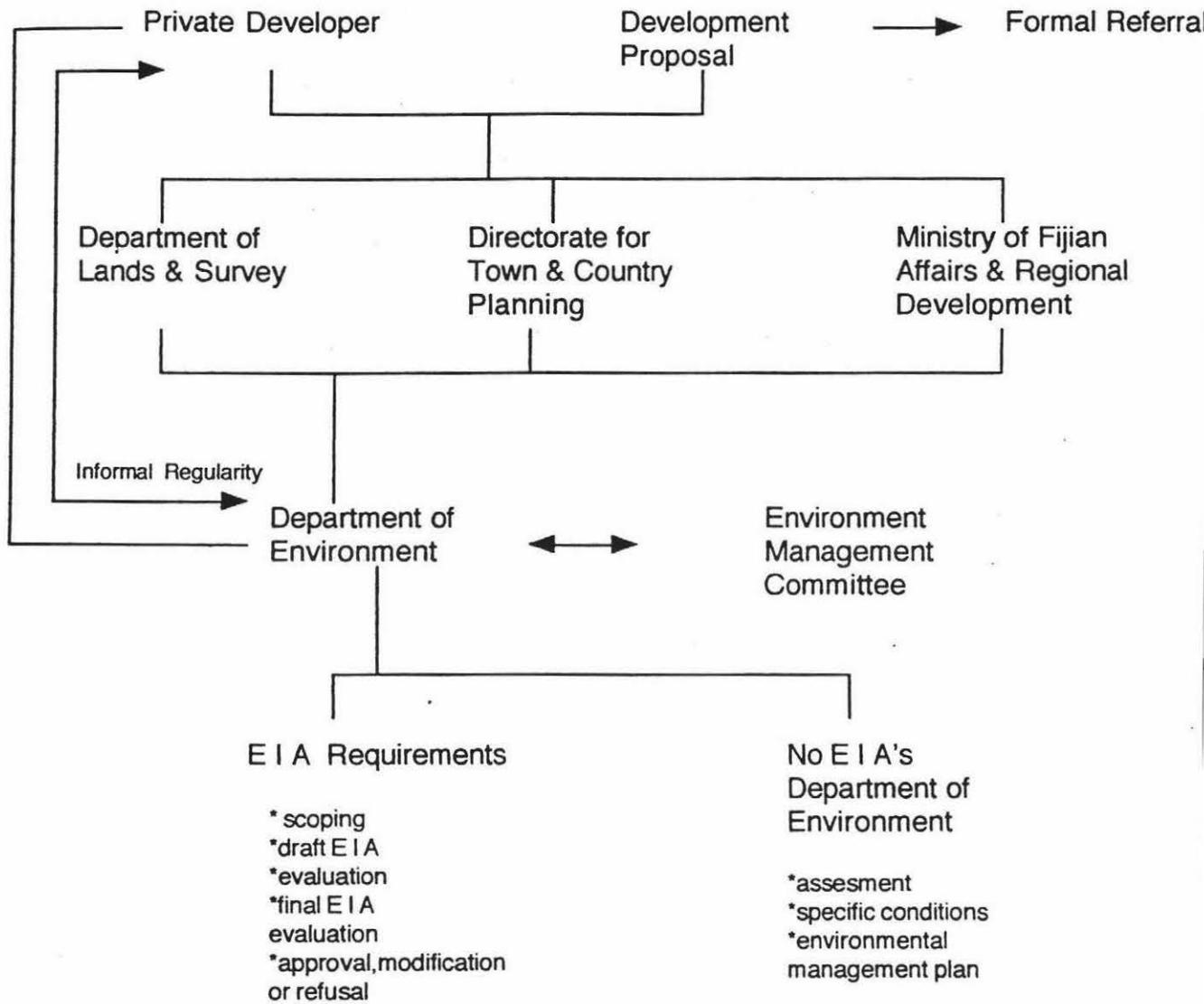
The lengthy time period between declaration of a TPA and approval of a Town Planning Scheme for that TPA by the Director means developments can take several years to be realised. Thus many applications are re-directed from local authorities to the DTCP with much duplication of vetting and inevitable delays in processing.

### **Applications for Development**

Figure 3.6 explains the formal channels used in Fiji for lodging a development proposal. Because it is not yet a fully integrated planning system, it is still deficient in areas such as coastal related development projects which will be elaborated on later. But overall this framework provides at least some comprehensible structure through which physical land use developments may be channelled.

Before a planning Scheme can be approved the consent of planning authorities and the Director is needed. Thus the processing of applications for such developments becomes a frequent and important procedure. According to the Annual Report for the Year 1990 (Ref 28), "a total of 897 development applications were received by the DTCP and decisions were reached on 819 of those during that year. A further 43 applications from the previous year were processed making a total of 862. This was a similar number to the previous year. Of those processed in 1990, 642 (or 75%) were approved, 59 (7%) were refused and 161 (or 19%) were deferred"

**Figure 3.6**  
**Development Proposal Procedures**



(5.5).

### **Land Use Control**

As is the case in most countries, Fiji exercises geographical control of development mainly by control of land. By controlling land use under the TPA, statutory town and country planning can be an effective tool for the control of development, and therefore, for both short and long term environmental management for the longer term, this land use control, "if translated into modern processes of strategic, regional and district planning, can be the basis for comprehensive and effective machinery for development control, guidance and support. This is especially true if wetlands and marine lands/seabed are included in the system" (5:5).

Even though the institutional organisation exists, the institutional arrangements for operating are *ad hoc*. Also, development control of "dry" land is given more weighting and is subject to most of the statutory and administrative planning mechanisms.

### **Public Involvement**

Provisional approval of a Scheme by the Director must be followed by public notification of the decision, with a copy of all maps, plans, and statements that comprise the scheme being deposited for public inspection in the office of the local authority concerned. Most publicity used to notify the public about prospective developments to obtain final approvals is advertised in two consecutive weeks usually through *The PSC<sup>18</sup> Gazette* and in *The Fiji Times*.

---

<sup>18</sup> Public Service Commission.

### **General Provisions**

These provide planning guidelines aimed to achieve styles of development that compliment the surrounding Fijian environment and culture, or at least do not exist in conflict with the surrounding people and environment (refer to Appendix 3.4). However, the Director of DTCP and also the architect may both be subjected to pressure from the investor to use more economical materials and building styles which may not fulfil the above aims set out in the planning guidelines. But, despite this conflict, the General Provisions (DTCP 1980) clearly stipulate those standards required and permitted in different areas in relation to tourism development.

### **Conclusion**

This snapshot of the present administrative system (refer to Figure 3.7 for a summary of roles of Government agencies involved in tourism) which forms the basis of environmental management planning in Fiji reveals a need for a more comprehensive and integrated process in order to promote and effect more sustainable tourism development. The present system's most obvious weaknesses lie in the fact that the Government is too slow in formulating effective and efficient environmental policies. Now there is a desperate need to restructure tourism planning into an integrated three tiered system (Baines 1989b) (refer to Chapter Eight) which provides the means to achieve an effective environmental policy structure.

Figure 3.7

Role of Government Agencies Involved in Tourism

Regularity	Advisory	Promotional / Educational
Ministry of Finance & Economic Planning	EMC, MMC	SPACHEE
Ministry of Housing, Urban Development & Environment	Public Works Department	NTOF
	Office of the Commerce, Industry & Tourism	
Fiji Trade & Investments Board	Tourism Department	Fiji Visitors Bureau
	Ministry of Fijian Affairs & Regional Development	
Ministry of Health	NLTB (Department of Tourism)	The Fiji Council of Social Services
Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries Forests	Fiji Posts & Telecommunications Ltd	

## Chapter Four

# An Overview of Tourism Related Environmental Laws in Fiji

### Introduction

Approximately 14 different ministries, statutory bodies or other agencies administer or address at least 25 Acts which have some important role in the area of environmental management. By detailing those Acts which are directly related to tourism developments, this chapter provides a brief overview of how the Fijian planning system attempts to direct and enforce environmental management.

Even though the environmental laws which relate to tourist developments are fragmented through a number of Acts such as Public Health, Land Conservation and Improvement, Fisheries, Forests, and so on, at least they provide part of a framework upon which a more comprehensive and effective regulatory system could be established. This chapter also focuses on the legal scope of development control.

This legal structure has been reviewed in detail and evaluated in Pulea's (1992) analysis of Fiji's environmental laws, and in McBride's (1992) supplementary report on specific legal issues.

What must be kept in mind when discussing the following environmental legal framework is the IUCN/UNEP/WWF's (1991) call for the establishment of a comprehensive system of environmental law and the review of administrative controls, enforcement and its implementation (Actions 8.5 and

8.6). Also it is stated in *Agenda 21* that "it is essential to develop enforceable and effective laws and regulations that are based upon social, ecological, economic and scientific principles" (Sitarz 1993, 248). Furthermore, it is equally critical to develop workable programmes to enforce compliance with the laws, regulations and standards that are adopted.

Although environmental legislation exists in Fiji, it seems to lack specific laws to answer specific environmental problems, and what laws do exist are often difficult to interpret and enforce. In order to achieve sustainable development "governments must be made to accept their mandates and assert their political will. Behavioural guidelines must be translated into enforceable laws" (Canadian Bar Association 1990, 284). Achieving compliance to laws requires an efficient and innovative system of monitoring and enforcement.

### **Policies for Environmental Legislation**

An active participant in international conventions and treaties related to the environment, Fiji is legally committed to adhere to and apply their various articles at both international and national levels (Watling and Chape 1992).

Prior to this, the Government's recognition of the importance of setting up appropriate environmental laws was already reflected in DP7 (1976–1980) which stated that: "the administration of existing environmental legislation is unco-ordinated. During the Plan period a thorough review of this legislation, its strengths, weakness and omissions, will be undertaken"; Also, "a key provision in new legislation will be for environmental impact studies of all development projects and this will apply both to Governmental and to non-Governmental schemes. Furthermore, the public will be given

improved opportunities to make their opinions on the social and environmental impact of development projects known and felt" (60).

These statements illustrated the Government's commitment to bring together a comprehensive national environmental policy which would form the basis for administrative and legislative developments.

Furthermore, DP9 (1986–1990) recognised that: "Legislation in Fiji concerning conservation of the environment and protection of the heritage are inadequate or obsolete. Some important areas like the environmental assessment of development projects and control of pollution are currently not covered under any legislation. During DP9, laws which have hitherto not been co-ordinated will be brought together and new laws enacted to cover all aspects of environmental management" (157).<sup>19</sup>

### **Description of Fiji's Environmental Laws**

#### **The Town Planning Act**

The Town Planning Act (1946) is the main statute through which land, buildings and other developments are controlled.<sup>20</sup> According to Chape and Watling (n.d.), at present the Act facilitates the mechanism for environmental impact procedures. The Act provides for the Director of DTCP to impose such (pre)conditions on proposed developments as he believes appropriate or necessary under the circumstances.

Requirements for EIAs are applied to private (such as the Denarau Resort)

---

<sup>19</sup> It is evident that with the stipulated policies which suggest the law should assist in resource conservation, the Government is attempting to form a common platform on which economic and conservation objectives can co-exist on par with one another.

<sup>20</sup> Although there are a range of activities in Fiji that require planning permission, others remain unchecked. Rural sprawl, especially on native land, is a common example, as is unapproved building extensions.

and some large public sector development approvals.<sup>21</sup> On the whole, tourism development proposals comprise the majority of EIA conditions applied under the Act. For further reading concerning the criteria for application of EIAs see Pulea (1992), McBride (1992), and the *Review of Urban Planning in Fiji* (draft) prepared by the Ministry of Housing and Urban Development<sup>22</sup> (n.d.).

A model scheme text or guidelines for developers in the General Provisions is given some legal standing in section 17 of the Act.

### **State Lands Act**

The State Lands Act (1946) provides legislation for the foreshore land and soils beneath the waters. Under this Act, the State Land (Leases and Licenses) Regulations provides for nine classes of leases (class A to I) issued by the Director of Lands. The State Lands Act provides for development leases for the foreshore to be issued by the Department of Lands and Survey. According to the Act, no grant or lease, unless expressly provided, is to confer any right to the foreshore or littoral zones.

Under section 22 of the Act "every lease of any part of the foreshore and the soil under the water must specify the purposes for which the foreshore or soil is required" (Pulea 1992, 37).

The vetting process in granting leases starts with the applicant lodging an application with the Department of Lands and Survey. Then the application is referred to the MMC and if the land in question adjoins traditional fishing

---

<sup>21</sup> The application of the EIA process for public sector developments is at the discretion of the Director of DTCP.

<sup>22</sup> Now the Ministry of Housing, Urban Development and Environment.

sites and/or reclaimed mangrove areas then the application goes through arbitration proceedings. The arbitrator determines the amount of recompensation to be given to the traditional fishing rights owners. Once the recompense award is assessed and then paid by the developer, public input is then required. If the Department of Lands and Survey determines that the proposed development does not impinge substantially on public rights then the foreshore development lease is finally granted (Lal 1992). Also see Pulea (1992).

### **The Public Health Act (Public Nuisances Provisions)**

Administered under the Ministry of Health, the Public Health Act (1936) provides some scope for dealing with environmental problems under the law of public nuisance, pinpointing a number of situations that are deemed nuisances.

Under the Act, areas outside the town boundaries are defined as rural, sanitary districts. Pulea (1992) lists public health, sanitary services, refuse collection, the abatement of nuisances, and building control as the main concerns of the rural authorities.

The onus falls on the local authority in each district to take action on such nuisances.<sup>23</sup> On complaint to a local authority of the existence of a nuisance, the local authority is empowered to serve a notice on the person or organisation involved.

### **Fisheries Act**

The Fisheries Act (1942) is administered by the Fisheries division of the

---

<sup>23</sup> This highlights the need for an institution to effectively enforce these laws. McBride (1992) makes just such a judgement with respect to the enactment of the Litter Decree (1991).

Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forests. Primarily it has legislative responsibilities for the management of the marine environment, providing for the prohibition of destructive fishing methods, the protection of certain areas, and the imposition of minimum sizes on certain species. Stipulated in its Ordinances are provisions such as fishing regulations.<sup>24</sup> It should be noted that regulations 7, 8 and 13 detail certain conservation methods such as the banning of destructive fishing methods which indicate an attempt by the Government to protect traditional fish resources.

However Zann (1992) raises concern over the uncertainty left after Cession as to the ownership of reefs and fishing grounds which local people require for use and sustenance. This confusion over ownership is also discussed by Lal (1992) who emphasises that the clarification of the nature and extent of fishing rights is needed to effectively determine recompense awards. At present "the current recompensation system and the mechanism used to process foreshore and physical development applications is ... not adequate to encourage efficient use of the resources" (11). Part of this includes the present regulatory system's lack of provision for compensation for "the cumulative and synergistic effects within an ecosystem" (26). Without acknowledging these effects, the present law does not sufficiently encourage conservation of these resources.

### **The Native Land Act (Native Land Trust Act)**

The Native Land Act (1940), sets up the NLTB that acts as a trustee for native land. Since all Fijian land is vested under the NLTB, the exercising of indigenous customary rights is restricted and the leasing of communal land

---

<sup>24</sup> This is an important feature, especially for snorkling and scuba diving operators associated with the tourist industry. Although clear rules and guidelines related to specific activities which may be detrimental to the marine environment are described in the regulations, these rules and guidelines need to be monitored and enforced more effectively.

has to be consented to by the trustee. Under the Act provisional guidelines are made in the Native Land Trust (leases and licenses) Regulations.

According to Price (1990)<sup>25</sup> the NLTB has been criticised by the Tourism Board for being at times over concerned with environmental protection: "the real concern is that any endeavour outside of the conventional model of foreign investors and big resorts, can be dismissed as sentimental" (2). He concludes by urging the NLTB to promote more appropriate forms of tourism development.

### **The National Trust for Fiji Act**

The National Trust Act for Fiji (1970) is administered under the Ministry of Housing, Urban Development and Environment provides a mandate for the preservation of lands and reefs of every description having natural or historic significance. Section 3's broad scope embraces both Fiji's cultural and natural heritage with the natural environment embracing both the terrestrial and marine sectors.

The Trust has statutory links with the DCTP. One of its objectives is to plan for terrestrial and marine parks and reserves funded by the WWF and UNEP such as the establishment of the Iguana sanctuary on Yadua Island and the Sigatoka sand dunes<sup>26</sup>.

### **The Water Supply Act**

The primary law regulating water supplies in Fiji is the Water Supply Act

---

<sup>25</sup> Personal comments from Neil Price who is currently a land use planner with the NLTB.

<sup>26</sup> The sand dunes provide an ideal platform as an ecologically sensitive area due to its ecological, geomorphical, historical and archeological attributes (eg native trees such as *Casuarina* and *Pandanus*, titanite magnetic sands, and archeological material dating back to 500 BC).

(1955), as amended. Maintenance of high water quality is one of the central objectives of the Act.

In 1976 a new comprehensive Water and Land Resources Management Bill for Fiji was drafted. The Bill provides for "the establishment of Water Districts for the purpose of promoting the better investigation, use, control, protection, management or administration of water and related land resources" (Pulea 1992, 101).

Under the 1976 Bill provision was made for Water Districts to be formed: "to facilitate and co-ordinate detailed planning for the investigation, use control, protection, management and administration of water and related land resources and for the co-ordinated execution of approved plans and projects by public authorities; to facilitate adequate drainage, the safe disposal of sewage, effluent and water-borne wastes and the control and prevention of pollution and disease; to facilitate the control or prevention of flooding, soil erosion or of damage to the bed or banks of the surface water sources or to water-shed areas; to facilitate the reclamation of land or the protection of inland fisheries, flora and fauna; to facilitate the registration of existing users of water or existing hydraulic structures; to facilitate the issuing of licences, for investigation or the use of water, or for the construction, maintenance or operation of any hydraulic works or for the discharge of any waste, sewage, effluent or water-borne waste" (Pulea 1992, 102). However this Bill did not gain wide spread acceptance despite the many beneficial changes to the original Act it offered.

Refer to Table 4.1 which sets out the above Acts in table form.

Table 4.1

**Environmental Laws Relating to Tourism Development****Guidelines when Assessing Applications for Interim****Development Control**

<u>LEGISLATION</u>	<u>OUTLINE OF PROVISIONS</u>	<u>AUTHORITY RESPONSIBLE</u>
Town Planning Act (Cap 139) 1978	Minister may order area to be a TPA: permission of Local Authority and Director required for development. Preservation of historic buildings and objects of historic or scientific interest	Ministry of Housing Urban Development & Environment
State Land Act (1946)	Control over the littoral zone, foreshore and submerged land	Ministry of Lands Mineral Resources & Energy
Public Health Act (Cap 111) (1955)	Board may cause inquiries to be made. Person authorised in writing may enter premises. Power to inspect water and sewerage works. Various powers to abate nuisances: inspection of district to ascertain nuisances (Litter Decree Act)	(Ministry of Health) or Local Authorities
Fisheries Act (Cap 158) (1978)	Fishing licenses. Also fishing regulations. Fisheries Regulations (1965)	Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries & Forests
Native Land Trust Act (Cap 134) (1940)	Can lease native land (which is not native reserve land) with restrictions regarding land use	Native Land Trust Board
National Trust for Fiji Act (1971)	Power to purchase land having historic natural interest	Ministry for Urban of Housing, Urban Development & Environment
Water Supply Act (Cap 144) (1955)	Offence to pollute water if in water works (ie sluice pipe, pump, etc). Used for water supply or in declared catchment area	Commissioner of Water; PS- Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries & Forests

Source: Adapted from Watling and Chape (1992).

## **The Current Legislation which Enforce Development Control**

### **General Provisions**

In cases where a Planning Scheme is inadequate regarding any proposed development, the General Provisions act as a useful guideline. Provision 1 of the states that "an approved scheme must consist of the General Provisions and the Scheme Plan and that they must be read together one with the other. No development will be permitted except in accordance with the requirements in the Scheme Plan, the General Provisions and its related schedule (Provision 2)" (Pulea 1992, 27).

Ultimately, the inclusion of the Provisions is at the discretion of the Director, and can be used as guidelines when assessing developments for interim development control. General Provisions are divided into nine parts dealing with "approved planning scheme; compliance with planning scheme; interpretation of planning scheme; non-conforming building and uses; temporary permissions, relaxation from General Provisions; and notification of relaxations" (27).

Zoning is a means of controlling land uses thus ensuring that communities develop in an orderly and effective manner. Provision 9 includes a zoning table and other related standards (see Appendix 3.2).

Provision 9 also sets out the particular requirements applicable to planning such as advertising development, the preservation of buildings of historic or architectural significance, the conservation of sites, objects and other areas of natural beauty, and tree preservation (DTCP 1980).

More specifically, Schedule G of Provision 9 provides for dispensations. In

most cases local authorities or the Director in consultation with other agencies, such as the Natural Trust for Fiji, provide special requirements and considerations prior to the approval of various developments.

### **Approvals or Consents**

The developer, when seeking planning permission, must submit an application form accompanied by a plan describing the proposal to the local authority [r.4(1)]. The general trend is that local authorities provide a cursory consideration of many plans with most of the power resting on the Director.

Approval in principal is valid for 2 years. Reserved matter, which is matter left out of the original application must be approved within 2 years. Once approval lapses, a fresh application needs to be made.

After the 'in principal' approval is granted, the Government's power to control development decreases since "the developer may have proceeded with development and any conditions later imposed could only be designed to mitigate the environmental impacts of development" (Pulea 1992, 29).

At this stage any of the conditions in the Schedule to the Act or the General Provisions may be included. Application approval may be granted with or without conditions.

Development in relation to any land is defined by the Town Planning Act as: "a) any operation which changes the physical characteristic of the land or building such as: any building operations involving external alterations; the formation, laying out or widening of a street or providing for vehicle access, and b) where any land use or any building is materially different from the

purpose for which the land or building was last being used" (30–31).

Enforcement of the Act is controlled by section 27 of the Town and Country Planning Act: "to ensure conformity with the provision of the scheme, the local authority can at any time: remove, pull down or alter any buildings or works; prohibit the use of land which contravenes the provision of the scheme" (31).

Both these provisions are broadly expressed and more specific requirements (as set out in New Zealand's RMA for example) would be advisable.

### **Tourism Leases**

Since most tourism leases fall within the coastal environment, a number of covenants such as those found in the State Lands Act provide a regulatory framework for developments. This Act requires on the approval of the Director of Lands and Survey to pay compensation for any infringement of rights and in the event of a dispute, compensation will be determined by the State Acquisition Act. For further reading, refer to Pulea (1992) on customary rights.

In the State Lands Act, tourism foreshore leases contain a number of covenants, one being that the lessee: "shall take all reasonable precautions to abate or alleviate to the satisfaction of the lessor any form of pollution or other detrimental environmental effects arising from its activities on the demised land (i.e. leased land) as may be advised from time to time by the lessor" (in Pulea 1992, 37).

Another requirement is that the lessee shall: "keep the demised land clear of all noxious weeds, shrubs, unsightly undergrowth, refuse and rubbish to the satisfaction of the lessor and shall keep neatly trimmed all lawns and grassed areas" (37). The foreshore lessee is required to provide adequate public access to the foreshore.

It should be noted that no sound environmental protective measures are provided for in the standard licences issued by the Department of Lands and Survey for sand removal. Generally, however, environmental implications of the project are usually discussed in a meeting between the Department of Environment and the developer. This is followed by an exchange of letters stipulating terms and the agreed conditions to be adopted. These conditions are expected to be included in the lease or license that is to be issued.

It is also important to note that ownership of mangrove land and plants (if on state land) lies with the State. However indigenous Fijians have customary access to mangrove land as part of their traditional fishing rights. Consultation then occurs with the traditional fishing right holders, other departments and bodies and the Native Fisheries Commission by the Lands Department once the development proposal has been received. An independent arbitrator determines the cost of the potential loss of fishing rights as a result of the development.

After the developer has paid this compensatory sum the lease is issued. If the proposed sum does not adequately reflect the willingness to accept compensation by the *mataqali*, however, the traditional owners have the option to petition the Minister for Lands, Mineral Resources and Energy to stop any development if the suggested compensatory amount does not

seem reasonable. For further reading refer to Lal (1992).

### **Conclusion**

With the growing awareness of environmental concerns related to development projects it is imperative that a well defined, comprehensive legislative system be developed to effectively facilitate the tourism development process in an environmentally enhancing, and yet efficient way. As mentioned by Watling and Chape (1992), Pulea (1992), Lal (1992), Zann (1992), the NES (Government of Fiji 1992), McBride (1992) and James (1992), appropriate environmental legislation is necessary to provide a sound planning basis for the current planning approval system. Present legislation in Fiji is classified by the above authors as being a piecemeal or sectoral affair.

Writing about the New Zealand system, McBride (1985) comments that "gone are the days when laws were essentially reactive. To-day the focus is much more on preventative measures" (9). He points towards the type of system Fiji is struggling to attain, namely the establishment of laws which effectively safeguard the resources available to the indigenous Fijian and the wider public, so that development is sustainable.

## Chapter Five

# Environmental Impact Assessment and its Importance to the Planning Process in Fiji

### Introduction

Pacific island nations traditionally lived in balance with nature through long-term, trial-and-error processes. To re-establish this type of settled relationship that the people of the Fiji seemed to have with their environment is an appropriate goal of sustainable development for Fiji.

The notion of sustainable development is, for Fijians, largely revealed in the concept of the *mana* of the land and in the practical applications of the concept of *tabu*, both of which have already been alluded to in Chapter One. This system signifies the people's kinship links and reveals the land's role as provider and punisher.<sup>27</sup> *Na sau ni vanua* (the intrinsic life of the land) signifies a social, physical and spiritual dimension which is a sacred obligation by the people to increase and maintain their *mana* both from the ecosystem (the whole) and *Kalou Vu* (gods).<sup>28</sup>

The Maori concept of *Kaitiakitanga* which is featured in the New Zealand RMA (Part II, s6(e) and s7) similarly centres on the obligations surrounding guardianship and stewardship of the land which is seen as sacred.

---

<sup>27</sup> This concept of the land as provider and punisher is similar to the ancient Greek concept of *Gaia* or Mother Earth. This view saw the Earth as having her own natural law which is deeper than human enactments and beyond repeal. People who treat the Earth well receive blessings while those who mistreat the Earth suffer deprivation.

<sup>28</sup> The whole land ethic is sourced in the concept of land being a sacred gift from the *Kalou vu*. These gods traditionally gave certain responsibilities to anointed participants (clans) who in turn became the stewards and guardians of the land. The concept of *i sevu* (offering first fruits) which is related to the land ethic reflects a reverence for the total creation as a whole, tying in economic reciprocity and the safeguarding of natural resources for present and future *kawa* (generations).

The coming of Western 'civilisation' to traditional societies such as Fiji and New Zealand unfortunately brought with it a less sustainable approach to life and now the inescapable presence of modern development is posing a serious threat to the environment in such island nations.

Fiji is now in the position where environmental crises (such as the issues highlighted in Chapter Six) may force the Government to introduce EIA as a mandatory requirement of all development proposals. Since the tourism industry is a growing force in the Fijian economy, along with other types of investments, it threatens to further disrupt the fragile coastal environments that exist there (Watling and Chape 1992; Green and Odense 1993).

Currently, however, Fiji's EIA provision of guidelines with audit containing non-mandatory recommendations has no firm legal base. Therefore even though there are some environmental safeguards in projects (as stipulated in the EIA procedures – refer to Appendix 5.1) it is difficult to enforce sustainable tourism development without an adequate institutional and legal framework.

EIA, is becoming a vital component in aiding the provision of sustainable tourism development throughout the world. Although this assessment process may at first seem an extra administrative and financial hurdle, when compared with the overall cost of the development and the cost of potential environmental damage to the local environment, it is a relatively cheap, money saving exercise. The Fiji Government has seen a number of environmental disasters such as the hydro-electric dam in Nadrau, the Seqaqa sugar cane farming scheme in Macuata and the Deuba tourism facility. In each of these cases, there was no effective comprehensive EIA

format and these cases are indicative of the lack of effective legislation and policing of EIAs in Fiji.

Since environmental management planning is multidisciplinary, EIA should be an integral part of the planning process, offering institutional and physical solutions and options which minimise long term impact on the environment. Fiji must therefore adopt a planning framework which effectively and formally integrates EIA into the tourism development process, particularly in relation to coastal areas such as Korolevu. Thus the tourism industry in Fiji, if managed in a sustainable fashion, will be encouraged to enhance rather than exploit the local environment.

### **History**

EIA was formally introduced in the USA in 1970 to examine the environmental implications of federally-funded projects. Then in late 1979 the National Environment Policy Act came into law (Olokesusi 1992). This enforced the inclusion of EIA on proposals which had significant effect on the quality of the environment. The EIA procedure has since spread around the world, in various versions and adaptations.

Initially EIA was largely used in a limited form, merely predicting the potential physical and biological changes likely to occur if a proposed project went ahead. Therefore in many developing countries efforts to include EIA in tourism development proposals have been limited to an analysis of the present physical and biological environment, not taking into account further impact changes over the course of the development and beyond.

More recently, EIA has expanded in scope to include the social effects of a

development. The human environment now matters when considering the impact of a development upon a certain area. Public meetings or other consultative processes, and reports on the opinions of the affected people are therefore utilised more often.

Most recently the scope of EIA has expanded again to address the burning issue of the 1990s, namely, how to encourage and enforce sustainable development. This is in line with the IUCN/UNEP/WWF's (1991) call to provide effective EIA policies and laws as described in Action 8.3.

In relation to Fiji, in July 1981, the EMC, which has been described in Chapter Three, advised the Government to use EIA techniques in order to assess whether or not the economic benefits of projects were outweighed by longer-term environmental costs. Assistance came via SPREP and consisted of a consultant who was sent from New Zealand. This was at the request of the Fiji Government. The EMC stated that the objective of the consultancy was to prepare an impact assessment technique that could be later used in a planning sense to ensure that development plans and projects were environmentally sound.

Then in 1982 Mr Bob McClymont, of the Office of the Commission for the Environment in New Zealand, prepared a report describing procedures derived from experience in New Zealand. It was recognised that in certain respects, methods used in New Zealand, such as public participation techniques, would not be suitable for Fiji. In the report McClymont (1982) states that "the design of procedures relating to such matters is a task appropriately carried out by persons familiar with both local custom and the

planning processes of the Fijian Government" (1).<sup>29</sup>

At present, countries which are involved in SPREP and which systematically apply EIA procedures include Australia, Papua–New Guinea and New Zealand.

According to Green and Odense (1993) much is happening in the South Pacific Region without formal legislation. In Fiji, for example, over the three years from 1989, approximately twenty five EIAs have been completed on development projects – mostly resorts and marinas. Green and Odense claim that this informal state of affairs has been surprisingly effective.

Their opinion here is however open to dispute. In the case of Fiji relatively few EIAs have actually been performed and their effectiveness has often been questionable. Refer to Table 5.1 for a list of those tourist developments approved since 1989 which did not have an EIA performed. Also, even though an EIA was completed for Denarau, it was by no means sufficient enough to assess the impact of the development phases on the extensive mangrove ecosystem on the mouth of the Nadi River. EIA in this case was merely a form of 'blueprint planning'<sup>30</sup> with usually little or no provision for monitoring performance or altering project management in the light of experience.

---

<sup>29</sup> Unfortunately, McClymont's suggestions were not taken seriously at the time, and were merely shelved; even though EIAs were possible under the Town and Country Planning Act very little significance was given to their importance to land use developments.

<sup>30</sup> See Hollick's (1981) definition later in this chapter. He implies that 'blue print planning' involves making plans which are rigid.

Table 5.1

**Some of the Tourist Developments Approved since 1989 in Fiji**  
**which did not have EIAs Performed**

PROPONENT	DEVELOPMENT
Paradise Point Ltd	The Point Resort
Naisali Island Ltd	Naisali Island
Saweni Beach	Saweni Resorts
Beqa Island	Gemini Pacific Corp
Taveuni Island	Jay Johnson
Vatulele	Lagoon Investment Ltd
Yasawa	Yasawa Paradise Ltd

Source: Government File (n.d.).

## Environmental Impact Assessment

EIA is recognised for its suitability for analysing the impact of specific human activities on natural and human systems and is specific to project and place.

'Environment' has already been defined in Chapter One. In brief, this term will be used in the fullest sense of the word. To validate the broadness of this definition, I refer to the New Zealand RMA which defines 'environment' as: "a) Ecosystems and their constituent parts, including people and communities; and b) All natural and physical resources; and c) Amenity values; and d) The social, economic, aesthetic, and cultural conditions which affect the matters stated in paragraphs a) to c) of this definition of which are affected by those matters" (Government of New Zealand 1991, 11).

According to Westman (1985) a number of authors (Andrews et al. 1977; Dooley 1979; Lee 1982) have noted that the term 'impact' has sometimes referred to a human-induced action, or activity, and to its effect on ecosystems, as well as to the potential effect on ecosystems, and its significance to future human societies. Therefore, action, effect, and significance are three distinct concepts in 'impact assessment' and all three will be considered when using the term 'impact'.

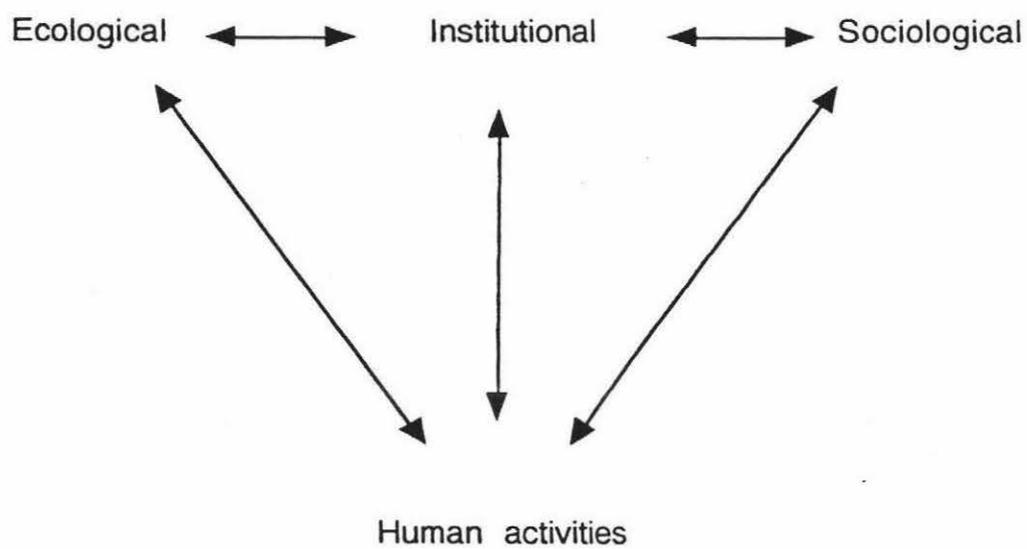
Generally, the term 'assessment' refers to analysing and evaluating impacts on the environment. Westman (1985) defines 'analysis' as "the objective task of identifying actions, taking measurements of baseline conditions, and predicting the changes to these baseline conditions that are likely to occur as a result of the actions. Evaluation is a subjective or normative task which depends on the application of human values. It involves determining the significance of the effects to the affected parties. In the case of effects on

objects rather than people, the owners of those objects generally are taken to represent them" (5). Refer to Figure 5.1 for a diagrammatic representation of the above.

The fullness of these definitions reflects the need for a holistic approach to EIA since an examination of the effects on natural and social systems separately will not reveal the full scope of interactive effects. Also, the subjective nature of evaluating the information gathered by the EIA process creates an immediate problem since human values are often diverse and the decision making process can sometimes invite conflicts when the diverse range of opinions that exist are not considered. Public participation is therefore a vital component of any EIA process.

Cleave (1988) emphasises that EIA goes beyond the scrutiny of an impact on the environment of specific development projects and requires: "an examination of all the forces that influence how natural resources are used by millions of individuals in the course of their domestic and economic activities; an identification of how such use affects the sustainability of the resources and how its management or mismanagement affects resources and other people, and, because the importance of these problems is only appreciated if the cost to society is clearly demonstrated; the quantification of these impacts. It therefore requires an understanding of how physical phenomena work and interact, how underlying economic forces and institutional arrangements influence resource management, and how the costs and benefits of such influences can be assessed. Clearly, action calls for multi-disciplinary cooperation" (44). Thus a comprehensive assessment of tourism development impacts would have to consider both ecological and social effects and the high order cumulative effects that result from their

Figure 5.1  
Integrated Impact Assessment



Source: Adapted from Westman (1985).

interaction.

Relating this to Fiji, Cleave's comments highlight the importance of paying particular attention to the socio-cultural aspects of the local people affected by the tourist resorts since land and identity are so closely linked.

### **Why do an EIA?**

Increasing the scope of information available to decision-makers is the principal advantage of the EIA process. A whole range of possible integrated environmental impacts can be considered rather than just single isolated factors such as beach erosion or water discolouration. This assessment process should begin from the inception of the proposal and continue throughout the design stages, thus permitting the environmental impacts to be taken into account before resources are committed. As already established, ideally the process should be as holistic as possible and policies, laws and planning procedures should facilitate and require this.

In New Zealand, for instance, EIA forms a central part of the RMA's role in providing a framework for integrated resource management (Dixon 1993). In the case of Fiji, when considering the role of EIA in assessing specific coastal tourism projects, and also when applying it broadly to policy and plan preparation, implementation and evaluation, it becomes clear that EIA is not used comprehensively enough. It is usually only used to assess site specific projects without being effectively integrated into a national and regional tourism planning framework.

EIAs also need to be performed because of international requirements. As

already mentioned, the Fiji Government has a commitment to international environmental agreements.

According to Green and Odense (1993), "after decades of experience with projects that produce unwanted environmental and social consequences, most international loan and aid funding organisations now require EIAs for projects which they fund. This includes the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank, British aid, Australian aid, New Zealand aid, EEC aid, and US aid" (2).

In addition, EIAs can prevent development failures. This is particularly important in South Pacific countries such as Fiji where land is scarce. The case study area is an example of a development going wrong with subsequent wastage of both resources and land. If an EIA had been carried out prior to development this may have avoided the Korolevu Beach Hotel from becoming and from being left derelict for so long (refer to Chapter Six).

Environmental considerations must of course always be weighed against other factors such as economic benefits to the area. However, while EIA should not be considered merely as a means of introducing an environmental 'veto' power into the administrative decision-making process the view that EIA should not be perceived as anti-development if it is to gain widespread acceptance (Ward 1994) could be considered too compromising. It is arguable that there needs to be more of an emphasis on conserving the environment even if it is at the expense of further development.

This needs to be considered in the case of Korolevu whereby the

developers have proposed that the hotel complex be restored to a useable state (refer to Chapter Six). At present, the Coral Coast zone has nineteen mainland based hotels with a collective accommodation capacity of 1,119 (McIntyre 1991). The Korolevu case offers the Government and the developers an opportunity to move away from providing yet another large beach resort complex, moving instead towards a more sustainable nature tourism development which has a primary objective of providing lasting and secure livelihoods which minimise resource depletion, environmental degradation, cultural disruption and social instability.

The role of EIA as facilitator of alternative development opportunities is a shift away from the traditional use of EIA merely as an assessment and mitigating tool; instead going beyond this to the "assessment of alternatives, including that of not proceeding with the project" (IUCN/UNEP/WWF 1991, 67).

### **EIA and Sustainable Development**

The term 'sustainable development' has recently become a central concept in the planning process in many national economies around the world. According to Hall (1991) the primary aim of sustainable development is to curb the present trend of resource depletion, environmental degradation, cultural disruption and social instability and to provide livelihoods which are secure.

The Globe '90 Report (Tourism Stream Action Strategy Committee 1990) emphasises that sustainable tourist development must avoid all actions that

are irreversible. Furthermore, the World Conservation Strategy<sup>31</sup> describes conservation as "the management of human use of the biosphere so that it may yield the greatest sustainable benefit to present generations while maintaining its potential to meet the needs and aspirations of future generations" (IUCN, WWF and UNEP 1980, s.1.6).

In Fiji, because the provision of guidelines for EIA (refer to Appendix 5.1) are non-mandatory, a number of weaknesses and shortcomings are apparent. There is presently an international shift towards adopting a more sophisticated system which facilitates the use of more advanced EIA methodologies. However, this shift has not really altered the trend in Fiji to target only very large projects in an inconsistent manner. Dixon (1993) refers to the New Zealand example, showing that the process of EIA has changed as has the context in which it is applied; thus reflecting "international shifts in the extension of EIA from site-specific assessments of single projects towards a more comprehensive and strategic approach which encompasses policy and plan preparation" (240).

For Fiji to keep up with these international trends, firstly specific environmental policies have to be reviewed. According to Sadler (1994), most conventional project oriented EIAs provide "a self-limiting and ineffective response to current scales and rates of ecological deterioration. More proactive, integrated approaches are required – in effect, a second-generation EIA process that moves beyond the 'impact fixation' to address the causes of unsustainable development" (3). Such a strategic approach at policy level would take into account the identification and

---

<sup>31</sup> The World Conservation Strategy was prepared by the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources with the advice, co-operation and financial assistance of UNEP, WWF, the Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations (FAO) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) (Hall 1991).

mitigation of potential consequences of proposed decisions. In Fiji, therefore, a more integrated approach for assessing and evaluating the sustainability of development policies is needed.

### **An Overview of the Agencies Responsible for EIA**

An EIA procedure is a method or the means by which the process is applied in the practical situation. The existence of procedures ensures uniformity and guarantees that all relevant projects are examined for their environmental consequences in a clearly-defined structured manner so that the assessment is thoroughly executed and the results are effectively utilised. It also eliminates inconsistencies in the assessment of similar proposals, as well as the personal prejudices, whims and caprices of environmental agency or lead agency officials. The absence of a defined assessment procedure can ultimately create uncertainties in the minds of project proponents as to what actions they are expected to take, or what is in fact required of them.

In the United States, the lead agency decides whether a proposed action is to be assessed, but the decision is subject to legal challenge, while in Canada the decision to perform an impact assessment is made by the federal agency and Environment Canada, or by a province-level environmental department. The federal minister in charge of environmental matters decides on the necessity of an EIA in the Australian context, though 12 fairly specific criteria guide this determination. In Great Britain assessments are compulsory through which a resource consent is obtained whether it be an EIA for a large or small project development. This would be a favourable case for Fiji to adopt.

In New Zealand the RMA stipulates that every resource application be accompanied by an Assessment of Environmental Effects (AEE)<sup>32</sup> (s.88) and it should consider which of the matters specified in the Fourth Schedule are relevant and need to be assessed. Consents are granted by regional and local authorities.

Lastly, in Fiji the Director of DTCP, under the amended Town and Country Planning Act (1946), has the discretionary power to order that an EIA be performed. Generally, the referral process as illustrated by Figure 3.5 shows the Department of Environment acting as the lead agency for the implementation of EIAs. More recently, however, a comprehensive methodology for dredging and river improvement in Fiji as set out by the United Nations in September 1992 provides clear environmental criteria for the assessment and approval of initiatives and provides an effective system for monitoring (see Appendix 5.2).<sup>33</sup>

However, this methodology is not directed by any legislative requirement and although it is a commendable move, it illustrates the problems that occur when EIA is not part of an integrated process. A lack of the appropriate socio-cultural, political and administrative infrastructure in Fiji needed to implement and enforce various foreign EIA procedural models will of course therefore render them unworkable. Consequently EIA procedures should be adapted to suit the particular socio-cultural and political environments, indigenous resources and the long-established planning process and development control mechanisms that already exist in a nation such as Fiji.

---

<sup>32</sup> In New Zealand EIA is known as AEE.

<sup>33</sup> Stephen Cabaniuk's (1994) personal opinion is that these guidelines which are normally used by the Ministry of Primary Industries (now the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forests) may be used for a variety of developments by a various ministries.

Several elements are suggested by Ebisemiju (1991) as being basic to the EIA procedure. He advocates the incorporation of environmental values at the earliest stage of planning and decision making, including policy and programme formulation, and the disclosure of environmental consequences of planned actions and increased public scrutiny and involvement.

He suggests that the assessment should be conducted in 2 stages, as it is in the Philippines and Thailand, to save time and cost. Preliminary or initial screening is needed using simple methods such as the Leopold matrix (Leopold et al. 1971) to determine whether or not they are likely to have serious environmental impacts and whether or not a detailed environmental assessment is required. Scoping should be mandatory, with adequate public participation, in order to identify key issues relating to a proposed development or course of action (remembering that inaccurate predictions are inevitable when EIAs evade socio-cultural predictions).

Also, terms of reference, detailing specific EIA requirements, should be prepared by the project proponent in consultation with the Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) review committee, thus guaranteeing that the EIA will be suitable for review and evaluation; environmental assessment should be conducted by the project proponent to ensure that the proponent is knowledgeable about project activities. The EIA should be circulated to all concerned government agencies, ensuring all relevant environmental issues are addressed and it should also be made available to the public with provision for a public hearing (the appropriate machinery is needed to ensure the effective public participation in the EIA process).

The distinction is made by Ebisemiju between environmental effects and

impacts. Effects, or changes resulting from a proposed action, can be objectively predicted while impacts, or the desirability of such changes, can be valued differently by various interest groups. He argues that those who experience the effects both directly and indirectly, should have a say in evaluating them. Limits should be set for EIA review to ensure that project implementation is not unduly delayed and lastly, concerned agencies should be involved in the monitoring and auditing processes to ensure that development proposals are carried out in line with EIA measures.

EIA must therefore not merely be a technical exercise which has no relevance to the process of project design and implementation. Instead it must be used as a tool for environmental, social and economic analysis, and also, more importantly, its findings must have bearing on tourism policies, plans and investment decisions.

However, there is no point having any sort of procedure if it is not comprehensive in its initial analysis, and if the findings and decisions cannot be effectively enforced. For instance, no scientific analysis and testing were carried out in a sensitive mangrove area (Area (C)) of the Denarau resort in Fiji (see Appendix 5.3). The reclamation which was built in this area caused the subsequent destruction of mangroves which were linked to the mouth of the Nadi River. These resort extensions have therefore had a destructive effect on the local habitat.<sup>34</sup>

The effectiveness of EIA as a tool for shaping policies, and project decisions depends not so much on the strength of methodologies and techniques of environmental assessment but rather on the method of its introduction and

---

<sup>34</sup> An additional EIA completed before extension work went ahead could have saved this valuable habitat.

implementation into the planning framework. Effective EIA's, according to Hollick (1981), must have a comprehensive land use planning system. For instance, in New Zealand, AEEs are integrated right through the statutory planning process. Dixon (1993), also commenting on the New Zealand situation, states that the development of an integrated framework in regional and district plans which places as much attention on monitoring environmental outcomes as it does on assessing both policies and resource consents, will make progress towards the sustainable management agenda.

Thus the lead agency responsible for EIA in Fiji, presently the Department of Environment, should see EIA not only in the light of development proposals and projects and permits, but also in the assessment of plans at the regional, district and local levels. EIAs should also be viewed as an integrated planning activity rather than merely a static, technical exercise, divorced from the whole planning process. Through providing an EIA process which is rational, systematic and integrated, this process should become a more effective tool in the evaluation and mitigation of potential consequences of proposed actions.

If EIA is a fully internalised aspect of the planning process then it can be effectively incorporated into the project cycle, meaning that the environmental assessment should be carried out at the inception of a proposed action when alternative courses of action, such as alternative sites, designs, feasible strategies of action, technologies for aspects of the project, as well as the alternative to do nothing, are still viable options. EIA guidelines should also clearly specify the stage in the project cycle at which each EIA activity is to be performed and how the results are to be used in project planning, design, implementation and operation.

In many developing countries such as Fiji EIA is often conducted at the latter stages of the project plan and is seen more or less as a separate technical exercise detached from other aspects of the project planning and design. Hollick (1981) uses the phrase 'blue print planning' which implies a plan is made with reasonable certainty and is not expected to change during its implementation. Conversely, Faludi (1973) uses the phrase 'process planning' which implies a more dynamic approach.

As for the case in Fiji, once the proposal has been accepted by the DTCP it is implemented more or less as approved. The difficulty here is that monitoring is almost non-existent. This means that the vital data that monitoring provides to help improve the management of future environmental impacts is often non-existent.

Evans (1983 in Ebisemiju 1991) observes that a general misconception prevails in South-East Asia, that, once the EIA study is completed, the environmental effects of the project are duly managed.

Also Roque (1985 in Ebisemiju 1991) describes EIAs produced in Thailand and The Philippines, two countries with the most elaborate EIA systems, as "nothing but a collection of unsynthesised biophysical data irrelevant to the choice among real alternatives" (268).

According to Ebisemiju (1991) it seems that only in Brazil, Malaysia and Mexico do adequate arrangements exist for the integration of EIA in the project cycle. In Malaysia, for example, EIA guidelines make it mandatory for project proponents to take a review panel's recommendations into consideration, incorporating them into the final design of the proposed

project. Final project design incorporating these recommendations must also be submitted to the Department of Environment before construction of the project. The proponent is expected to meanwhile provide proof that any conditions attached to the report are being complied with. In Mexico, also, before a project's final design is produced, the EIA must be approved. Meanwhile EIA is incorporated into Brazil's long-existing three-stage licensing system and there is a built-in mechanism for continuous monitoring at every stage of project implementation for compliance with recommendations contained in previous licences.

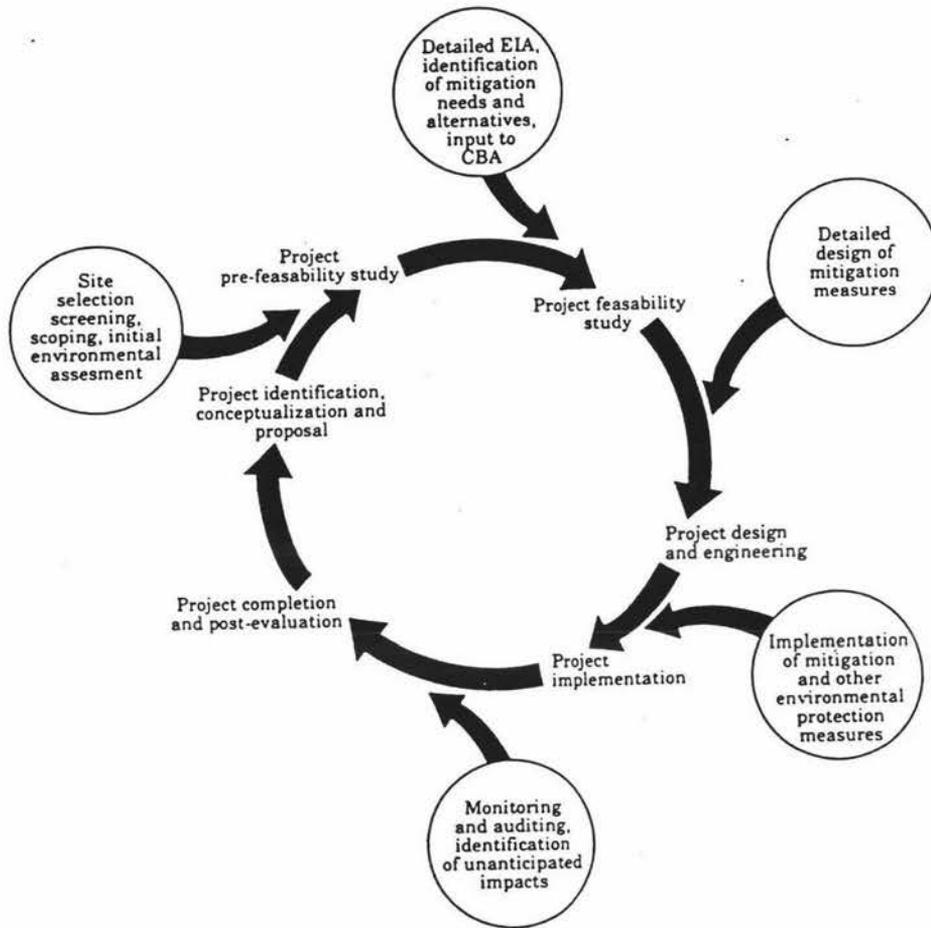
Figure 5.2 depicts the preferred dynamic, project based EIA system suggested by Ebisemiju.

### **Conclusion**

If a tourist development causes environmental damage then the resort not only loses its attraction, meaning a loss of net tourism earnings, but also a positive force for sustaining and developing the community. It is therefore in the interests of all sectors to develop a mutually beneficial, positive relationship, using EIA as a vital tool for effective process planning. A sustainable approach to tourism development in Fiji is therefore regarded as fundamental to the future of the industry.

There are many reasons why people select particular travel destinations including climate, distance, cost. However, one of the most compelling motivations for travel is the desire to experience unique environments. While Chapter Seven details the importance of introducing anticipatory environmental policies and the means of achieving them in Fiji in order to protect its unique environment, Chapter Eight then suggests some practical

**Figure 5.2**  
**Integrating EIA into the Project Cycle**



Source: Ebisemiju (1991).

means of solving some of the prevalent weaknesses in the present environmental planning regime. This includes the recommendations made by McBride (1992) concerning the EIA process in Fiji. In short he emphasises the need for a legal framework that effectively recognises the key principles and processes of EIA, and he recommends that the legislation should either take the form of a "stand alone" EIA law, or as part of "an integrated resource management law" (25).

Since the majority of tourist developments occur in rural areas where high populations of indigenous Fijians exist and since most of these rural developments utilise land which is native owned, the NLTB should play a major role in orchestrating EIAs for native investments. Even where tourist developments are on freehold land, the local people are still affected by these developments and so the NLTB is still the appropriate tool through which affected indigenous communities can have their say.

Lastly, EIA should be integrated into the planning framework, as suggested by the IUCN/UNEP/WWF (1991), Hollick (1981), Dixon (1993) and Sadler (1994), and as seen in the New Zealand example. EIA can therefore become an effective means through which the tourism development process in Fiji can move towards the sustainability agenda.

## Chapter Six

### Case Study: Korolevu

#### Introduction

Now a vital element in the Fijian economy, the tourism industry has attracted investment both locally and overseas, and has become a major employer of local labour. In order to remain competitive in a world where tourism is one of the fastest growing industries, the Fijian component must develop and maximise the country's rich cultural and natural elements in a sustainable manner, meaning that the coastal environment should be protected from inappropriate tourist development and its related activities.

In this regard, the Coral Coast area plays an important role in the continued development of the Fiji tourism industry since this area features a dry sunny climate, excellent beaches, and an interesting cultural and social backdrop, thus providing a major destination drawcard for tourists visiting Fiji.<sup>35</sup> Also the existing infrastructure is well developed with one class one hotel in operation in the area, The Warwick Fiji. Thus the Korolevu Beach Hotel could have remained a key player in providing high class accommodation in the area, had the development succeeded.

The potential for further development exists not only in resort complexes, but in other forms of tourist attractions including cultural centres, walking trails, passive viewing areas and handicraft centres. Due to the nature of tourism

---

<sup>35</sup> In McIntyre's (1991) report on Fiji's tourist accommodation structure and room constraints 1991–1996, the Coral Coast, ie Korolevu, Korotoga, Sigatoka, Yanuca Island, is zoned area 5 of the tourism designated region for Fiji. This area is comprised of 19 mainland based resort properties, providing 1119 rooms of accommodation in primarily larger establishments with above average tariffs. This area has the capability of getting 68% of all room–nights obtained from 'short haul' markets of Australia and New Zealand and 30% of all room–nights obtained from 'long haul' markets, primarily from Europe.

in Fiji, opportunities may also exist for the establishment of allied developments including increased recognition of the local people as interpreters of Fiji's rich cultural heritage.

To facilitate an environment which promotes such alternatives, both the private and public sectors must be provided with a policy framework that facilitates informed and responsible decision-making and which reflects the important tourism aspects of areas such as the Coral Coast.

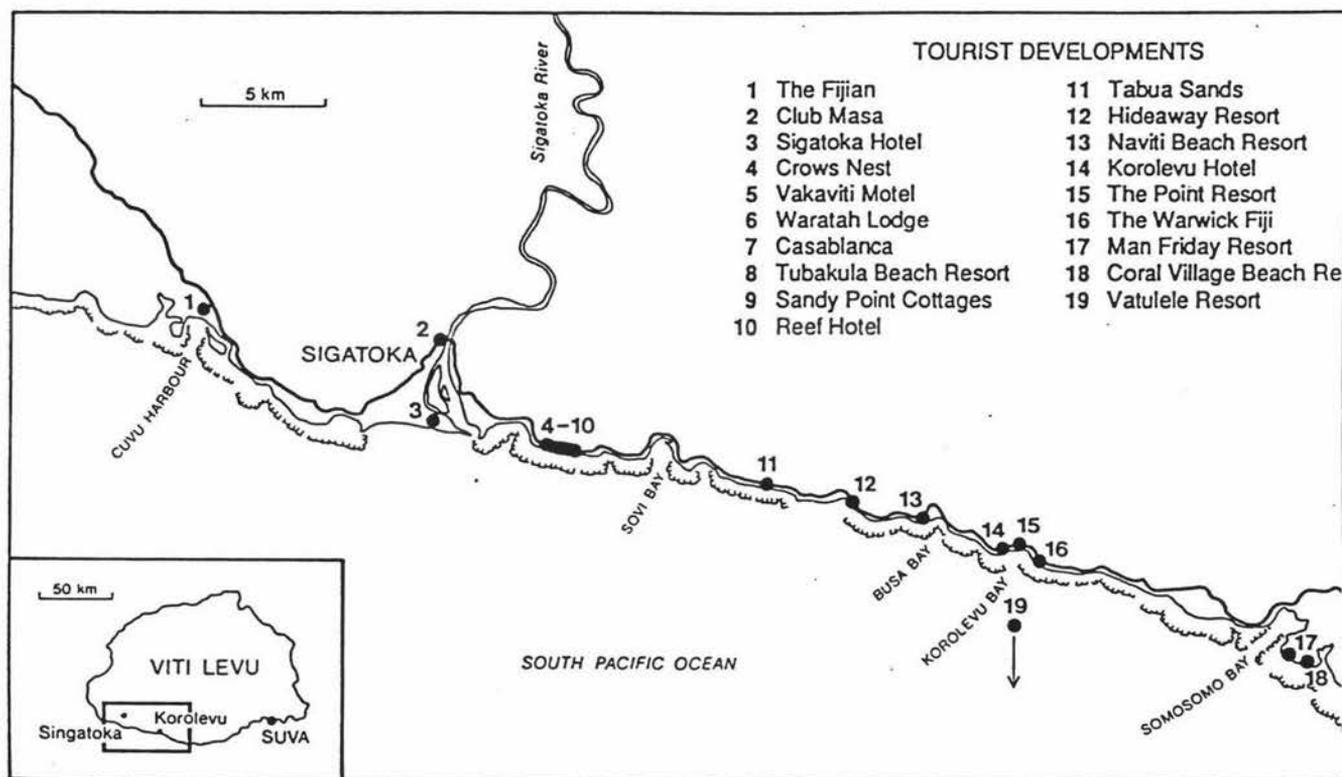
### **Korolevu**

#### **Overview**

The Coral Coast, extends some 56 kilometres from Natadola Harbour to Somosomo Bay. As Figure 6.1 illustrates, the Korolevu Beach Hotel is located on the eastern portion of this coast, approximately two hours by road from the capital Suva, and another two hours from Nadi which contains the international airport.

Apart from its obvious potential attractiveness to tourists visiting Fiji, this resort provided an interesting case to study for a variety of reasons: firstly, the Korolevu Beach Hotel (formally owned by Northern Hotels Ltd.) was the first to be established in the area, thus paving the way for further development to occur along the Coral Coast; secondly, investment, development and planning decisions failed in its case and the hotel complex now stands derelict, resulting in negative economic and environmental impacts on the local people. Overall the case study brought into relief issues relating to the tourist development process in Fiji as it once existed and as it exists today, providing both an historical and also a present day view of the way such developments were and are often implemented.

Figure 6.1  
The Coral Coast



Source: DTCP (n.d.)

According to Cabaniuk (1985) the Korolevu Bay area has a considerable amount of freehold land which is currently zoned for tourist related development.<sup>36</sup> Furthermore, the NLTB (1982), in its land use study of Korolevu and Busa, identified a number of sites suitable for tourism or tourist related development, including residential areas to support resort workers, thus establishing the definite potential of the area to sustain tourist related activities.

However, because the hotel is derelict, the Korolevu Bay area at the current time does not present a very attractive appearance to tourists and the overall impression of the area is that it is very run down; the once magnificent hotel gardens are now overgrown, and many of the buildings are in a state of disrepair (refer to Appendix 6.1). The neighbouring Point Resort, formally the Paradise Point Resort, is also derelict.

Historically, the 62 roomed hotel was the first resort area and tourist destination to develop outside Suva early in 1952 (DTCP 1986).<sup>37</sup> Refer to Figure 6.2 for a brief history of the hotel development. According to Smith (1994),<sup>38</sup> the Korolevu Beach Hotel initially became derelict because of lack of reinvestment, and land tenure conflicts.

More recently, the new owners, the Inter Pacific Development Group of Companies (IPDG), have stalled their plans to re-develop the complex partly because of the recession in the United States of America (they have offices

---

<sup>36</sup> Letter from Cabaniuk to Henry Davis York, Solicitors, 8 October, 1985.

<sup>37</sup> *Korolevu/Busa Bay Area Advisory Plan Update*, Government draft paper (DTCP 1986). This followed from the DTCP (1979) Advisory Plan aimed at helping to guide development in the area.

<sup>38</sup> Personal comments made by Dr Robin Smith, Senior Lecturer, Management Systems, Massey University.

Figure 6.2

History of Korolevu Beach Hotel

- 1938 The Korolevu property was acquired by Sir Hugh Ragg (Northern Hotels).
- 1949 Mr and Mrs Clark arrived to farm the estate (Mrs Clark is Sir Hugh Ragg's daughter), and they took over running the guest house which existed on the property. This building later became the hotel's staff quarters when further development proceeded.
- 1950 The first three bures were built.
- 1951 Two more bures were built.
- 1952 Korolevu Beach Hotel became part of the Northern Hotels chain.
- by 1954 Twenty more bures were built.
- by 1958 Twelve more bures were built.
- 1960 Eighteen rooms in the main building were established.
- 1965 Twenty six bures were destroyed by an arson attack by staff over an in-house dispute.
- 1970 The accommodation capacity was almost doubled when operation of the neighbouring the Paradise Point Resort, which had initially been set up as a time share arrangement, was taken over by Northern Hotel's under a management agreement.
- 1974 Operation of Paradise Point ended.
- 1977 Korolevu Beach Hotel was placed into the hands of various lessees.
- 1983 Due to the board of directors not being able to agree over certain issues, the hotel closed, and gradually became derelict.
- 1991 The Inter Pacific Development Group of Companies bought the Korolevu Beach Hotel (now 62 rooms) and Paradise Point (The Point Resort).
- 1995 Development has still not proceeded and the hotel area is still derelict.

in San Francisco and Bermuda). Also the local Biausevu people are presently contesting the ownership of the remaining 600 acres of land owned by Mr and Mrs Clark, part of which the Clarks wish to sell to the Inter Pacific Development Group for the establishment of a golf course. According to the local people, there is also some contention over the various ancestral sites which exist within the hotel complex.

If the existing proposals concerning Korolevu, detailed in the *Coral Coast Tourism Development Study* (DTCP n.d.), were to be implemented, they would have to be reviewed in great detail particularly due to the changing social environment of Korolevu and due to the growing environmental awareness of the people. For instance the developer may need to provide some sort of compensation for maintaining important historical sites and/or for the interference of fishing rights and traditional access routes.

Overall a comprehensive EIA needs to be completed, backed up by appropriate legislation, before any further development occurs at Korolevu. Even though EIAs have been included in the amended Town and Country Planning Act (1981) (part II sect (5)) this is only in the form of guidelines and lacks enforcement, the visioning of alternatives and monitoring.

Also, since the NES was formulated, environmental policies have been updated thus in theory providing a strategy for more effective environmental management of Fiji's coastal region. Thus past approaches, which have largely been unsustainable, should now come under review with this new direction.

The proposed new system aims to provide "a holistic coastal zone

management plan" (Government of Fiji 1992, 67). This would mean a development such as the Korolevu Beach Hotel could be required to, in the broad sense, meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Thus tourist development must not be seen as merely an economic activity but instead the tourist development planning process must find a way to incorporate the often conflicting parameters of the economic, biological and socio-cultural systems involved.

### **Description of the Area**

The land in question situated at Korolevu (refer to Figure 6.3) is primarily freehold (24.5ha: no.s 1–7)<sup>39</sup> but also includes three parcels of native lease land (4.5ha: no.s 8–10) and a foreshore Crown lease (0.43ha: no. 11). All lands are located on the western side of the Korolevu Bay, that is, west of Muanidale Creek and bordering the ocean.

With the exception of the area described as Lot 1, which comprises moderate to steeply sloping land and attains heights of over 200 metres AMSL,<sup>40</sup> the land is predominantly flat. This flat land is formed of alluvium and has good internal drainage. Consequently, it is classified as Grade 1 agricultural land and is considered suitable for arable use. The land bordering Muanidale Creek is, however, subject to occasional flooding, particularly during the month of March when the average rainfall is three hundred millimetres over an average period of 16 rainy days.

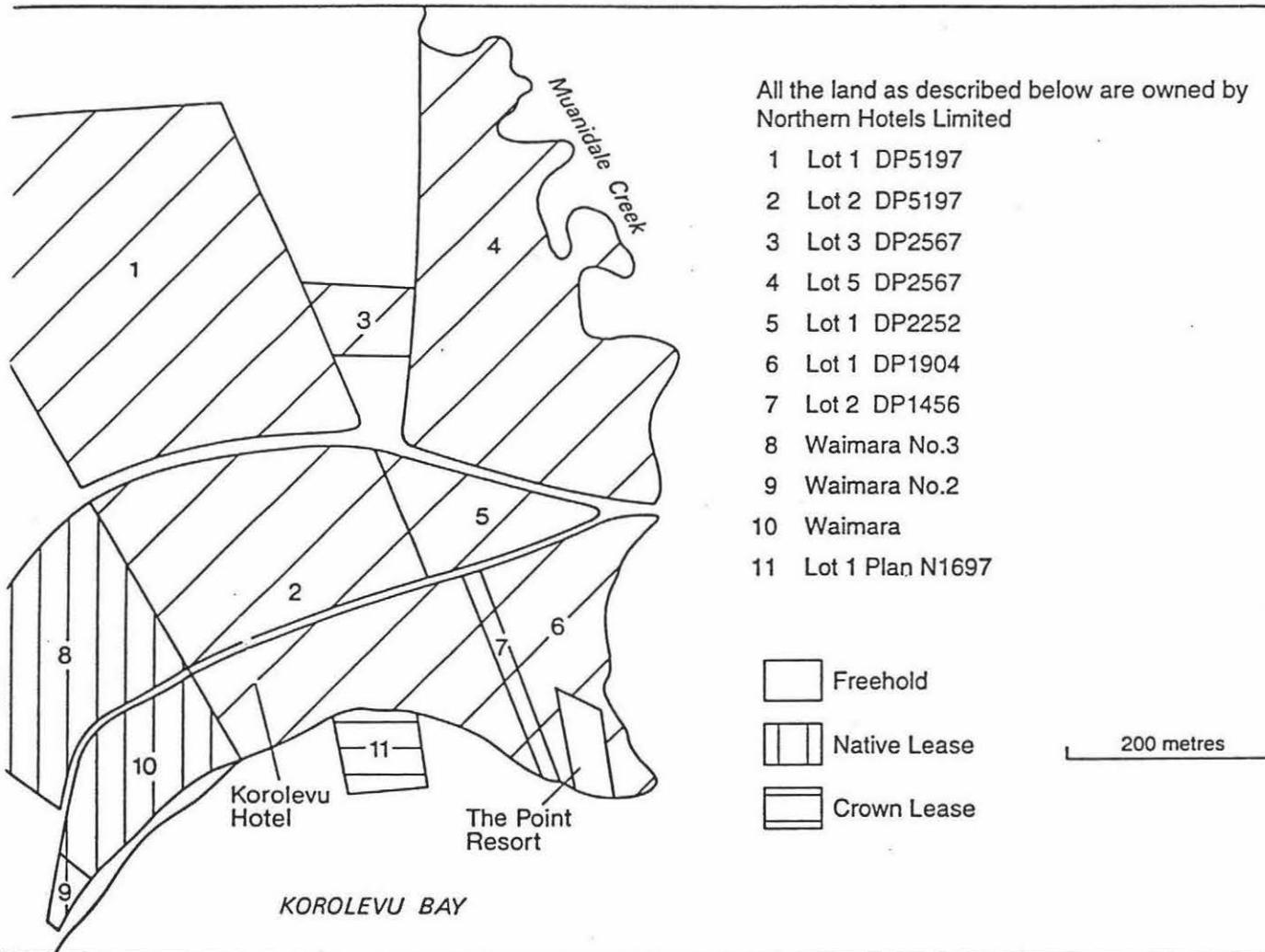
The upper portion of the lease for hotel development which is part of the

---

<sup>39</sup> This portion of freehold land upon which the main hotel complex is situated is the land bought by the IPDG

<sup>40</sup> Above Mean Sea Level.

Figure 6.3

Land Tenure Boundaries

Source: Cabaniuk (1985).

moderate to steeply sloping land North from the highway contains soils of moderate to low and very low fertility. Classified as Grade 2 agricultural land it was considered unsuitable for arable cultivation but suitable for tree crops or grazing, as suggested by the Ministry of Forests and the Department of Agriculture (now the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forests) in 1979. These slopes were also considered by the same as suitable for afforestation and for catchment purposes. Due to these recommendations it was decided that the location was not suitable for further tourism development.

Most of the original coastal vegetation has been cleared in connection with resort and road developments. At present grassland and isolated trees of the flat lands have generally given way to mixed shrubs and reeds on the higher elevations.

In terms of land use most of what was Northern Hotels Ltd land lying to the south of the Suva–Nadi Highway is currently under utilised. The area comprises part of the Korolevu Beach Hotel complex. Land formerly comprising the resort's playing fields and mini golf course is currently used for animal grazing purposes by the local population. Animals can also be seen grazing on the land under native lease which is also part of the tourist development. There is one access road from the highway to the resort.

North of the Korolevu road, which gives access to the hotel development, and adjacent to the coastal highway, is a small commercial centre. Behind the commercial centre is an unused building which was the former slaughter house for the hotel. Behind this commercial complex is the old runway for the Korolevu airport. This runway is no longer functional and instead is being used as a site for dumping rubbish and for cattle grazing. After the

runway crosses over the Muanidale Creek and adjacent to its northern end is the original water pump which was used by the hotel to access water. Lastly, a narrow track from the adjoining coastal highway leads to a hill climb to the Korolevu Hill radio station.

### **Villages and Settlements**

A traditional village is primarily a unit of local organisation which has "a certain mode of internal organisation by which it achieves an unitary authority structure, the principal authority of this is the senior chief of the dominant lineage" (Nayacakalou 1975, 14). Settlements are made up of those from the village residing outside the main village site. The people of a settlement are still under customary land tenure laws. A government settlement is made up of those serving the surrounding area such as medical personnel, post and telecommunications staff, teaching staff, police and also agricultural advisors. If these people are not specifically from the local village then the customary land tenure laws do not apply.

Situated approximately 1.5 miles west from the resort is Votua with a population of 95.<sup>41</sup> Biausevu, which is approximately 4 kilometres up the Tui Vusu road, north of the complex, has a population of 141. Approximately 2 miles away lies Komave with a population of 129. Lastly, Votualailai, which is situated further west, has a population of 108. These villages are of the *Tikina*<sup>42</sup> of Baravi of the *Vanua* of Nadroga Navosa.

Nasi is the government settlement which houses doctors, health officers, agricultural officers, the school and the post office. Bila, Vadraya, Uciwai,

---

<sup>41</sup> All population statistics are sourced from the *Coral Coast Tourism Development Study* (DTCP n.d.).

<sup>42</sup> *Tikina* is an administrative division of a province.

Korolevu and Jafau are other settlements surrounding the resort development. The populations of these communities were recorded as 94 for Nasi, 244 for Bila, 36 for Vadraya, 51 for Uciwai, 122 for Korolevu, 94 for Nasi and 87 for Jafau respectively.<sup>43</sup> Settlements outside the village areas may be described as indiscriminant (in a land use planning sense), sprawling and unchecked. This situation has evolved over four decades of squatting and sporadic settlement (under the customary Fijian land rights system).

It should also be noted that the people of Jafau are involved in producing wood crafts for tourists and traditionally they were the *mataisaus* (wood carvers or carpenters) of Fulaga in Lau. These people were actually imported into the area by tourism developers to serve the industry. Refer to Chapter Seven for more details.

However, apart from the Jafau clan, the Biausevu people (refer to Appendix 6.1) are the main group of locals who have been affected by the Korolevu development. The latter are at the centre of the before mentioned present land tenure conflicts.

### **Key Players**

Apart from the local indigenous people groups listed above, Sir Hugh Ragg (the late proprietor of the Northern Hotels Limited), the Clarks and other directors, the Nadroga Rural Local Authority, the DTCP, the NLTB, the Ministry of Agriculture (Land Use Section), the Ministry of Forests, the Department of Lands the Fiji Visitors Bureau and the Fiji Trade and

---

<sup>43</sup> All settlement statistics, excluding Korolevu which was quoted from the previous source, were taken from the *Korolevu/Busa Bay Area: Population/Household Statistics 1946–1984* (in DTCP n.d.).

Investment Board were the key players in the hotel development.

In addition, the following were responsible for the development and design standards for the creation of public utilities: Fiji Electrical Authority, Post and Telecommunication, Public Works Department, Health Department, Ministry of Tourism. Refer to Figure 6.4 for an illustration of the above.

### **Consents and Permits**

Presently, all development permits are still represented by an overall proposal. In the case for continuing development of the Korolevu Beach Hotel, a development permit would have to go through the Nadroga Local Rural Authority which would then refer it to the DTCP. The latter would then refer the various proposals to the relevant *ad hoc* bodies concerned with the development.

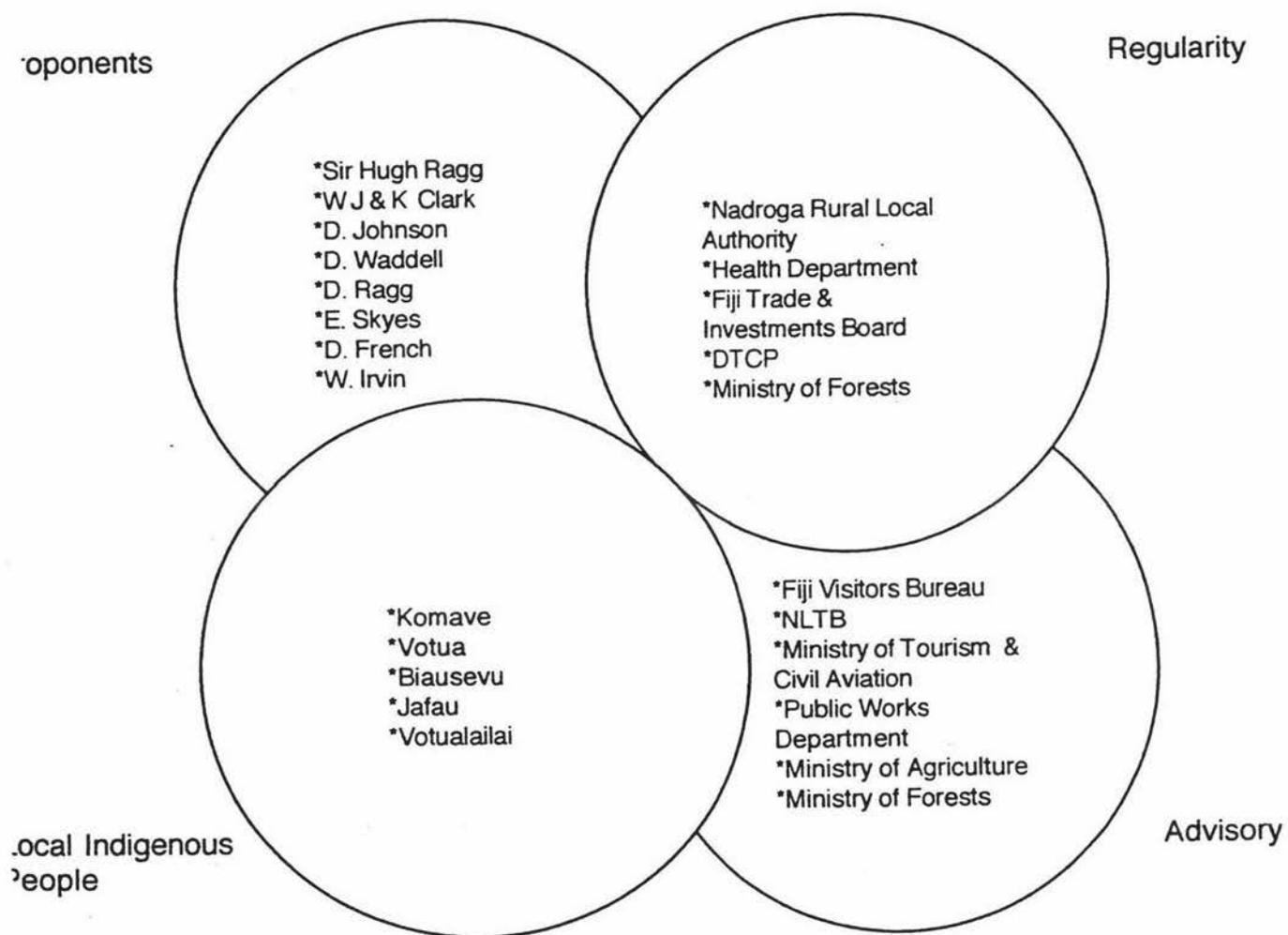
### **The Proposed Plan**

In the proposed Coral Coast Tourism Development Study certain issues were highlighted and were subjected for further investigation. They include the following: "1. An examination regarding the provision of a marina development; 2. The revision of the Korolevu advisory plan; 3. The examination of the existing dis-used hotel complexes at Korolevu and the potential uses not only as tourist facilities, but alternative uses involving worker accommodation; 4. The provision of service uses and facilities to service the area" (DTCP n.d., 97).

### **Issues**

There are a number of key issues that will need to be addressed if the Korolevu Beach Hotel is to re-established. These issues should be part of

Figure 6.4

Key Players - Korolevu Beach Hotel

an integrated planning process that involves an EIA, resource consents and meaningful public participation with the local villagers.

### **Marine Pollution**

Pollution is on the increase in Pacific Island states. However, data on the amounts discharged or the impacts of these wastes on the marine environment is not readily available. Brodie et al (1988 in Wenzel 1989) emphasises the almost complete lack of effective environmental legislation and monitoring which exacerbates the pollution problem. This is compounded by the heavy reliance of the local people on coastal resources such as fish and shell fish (Zann 1992).<sup>44</sup> There are currently no reports on the extent of the marine pollution in the sea area surrounding Korolevu. However it is likely that problems could exist, particularly as studies measuring coliform levels in fish and shellfish taken from coastal areas in the Pacific islands have shown levels surpassing international health standard (refer to Table 6.1).

Sewage harms reefs by reducing the amount of sunlight these ecosystems receive, thus inhibiting growth. The extra algal growth encouraged by sewage can further disturb the ecological balance of the reef, creating conditions that favor phytoplankton-feeding animals, such as sponges, over reef-building coral. Also the crown-of-thorns starfish, which has already destroyed extensive reef areas in the Pacific, is encouraged by the excess nutrient in the reef waters (Brodie et al 1988 in Wenzel 1989).

Thus the need to provide proactive, effective sewage disposal which does not harm the coastal ecosystems, upon which the local people so heavily

---

<sup>44</sup> On larger island groups such as Fiji, it is estimated that an average of 120-246 grams is eaten every day per head of population (Wenzel 1989).

Table 6.1  
Coliform Levels

: Bacterial Levels in Coastal Waters Used  
for Shellfish Growing and Bathing

<u>Location</u>	<u>Faecal Streptococci (Organisms/ 100 ml)</u>	<u>Faecal Coliforms (Organisms/ 100 ml)</u>
New Caledonia Noumea	0-15,000	0-18,800
Kiribati Tarawa		0-2,400
Fiji Suva		0-7,700
French Polynesia Papeete	0-720	0-220
Vanuatu Vila		0-16,600

International Standards (average)  
Bathing beaches 200 fc/100 ml  
Shellfish growing waters 14 fc/100 ml

Source: Wenzel (1989).

rely is one of the most pressing issues relating to run-offs and sewage produced by resorts situated along the Coral Coast.

### **Sewage Disposal**

Since the existing septic tank, which is derelict, is the only form of waste disposal available, it would need either to be upgraded to an oxidation ditch method or the existing package plant system will need upgrading if redevelopment were to proceed.

According to Dr Rao Bhamidimarri (1994),<sup>45</sup> waste disposal specialist, sewage treatment should not be visible to the hotel and should instead be dealt with at a separate location. Despite the land constraints it would be possible to have an additional appliance for filtering carbon, nitrogen and phosphate before discharging the outflow.

The above options would both avoid increased water extraction from the river and high effluent eutrophication discharge into Korolevu Bay. The discharge of carbon, nitrogen, and phosphates are seen to be the most inevitable threats to the ecology. However this could be alleviated or avoided if appropriate measures are taken. A filtering system could be installed to trap these pollutants since the soil is moderately silty and therefore is unable to filter these elements effectively.

The existing septic tank could be upgraded by using a recirculatory sand filter for septic effluent, or the Ruck system which operates at a low reaction rate, and thus does not require a very extensive area. This could replace the idea of conventional sewage development (Laak 1986).

---

<sup>45</sup> Personal comment made by Dr Rao Bhamidimarri (1994), Associate Professor, Process and Environmental Technology, Massey University.

Effective disposal of sewage is essential in tourism areas in order to avoid pollution of underground and surface waters and to avoid unpleasant odors. Inskip (1991) points out that before people took issue with such environmental problems, in many places beach hotels would discharge their sewage effluent into the immediate offshore water often polluting water used for swimming by guests. He highlights the importance of establishing and predicting the capacities of service area capacities, and the quality of centralised sewage collection and treatment systems, if they exist in the tourism areas.

The polluting of a resource such as the sea not only causes obvious ecological and recreational problems but it also disturbs the cultural, spiritual and traditional ideologies of the local indigenous people. Such a resource is generally treated with respect (this being central to the concept of stewardship) and the idea of pouring human excrement and other wastes into the foreshore waters is on the whole deeply insulting to Fijians. Any contamination of fishing grounds in this way therefore demeans those who traditionally utilise the sea's resources by interfering with traditional roles and rights.<sup>46</sup>

### **Solid Waste Disposal**

In order to prevent environmental problems, proper solid waste disposal must always be considered in the planning of tourist facilities. At present no adequate regional based dump site exists for the Korolevu area.<sup>47</sup> Thus

---

<sup>46</sup> This issue is causing conflict between the Suva Regional Waste Treatment Works and the local fisherman of Vutia and Laucala. The latter claim that not only does the outflow of sewage from the Kinoya outflow disrupt their ability to fish but it also attracts large sharks that could prove dangerous to swimmers and the like.

<sup>47</sup> Generally in Fiji there is no effective method for waste management such as a sanitary landfill or a transfer station. The prevalent method used to date has been and still is the 'burn and bury' method.

pests and vermin such as cockroaches, rats, and mosquitos are a problem in the area because of the numerous individual unsupervised dump sites which exist. This is exactly what is happening along the old runway which used to service the Korolevu Beach Hotel. Also, rubbish from The Warwick Fiji is normally dumped and burned. If the new owners of the Korolevu Beach Hotel and The Point Resort do eventually develop the area then a more effective, cleaner system of solid waste disposal will definitely be needed.

Various techniques of solid waste disposal can be utilised depending on the local situation (for example, sanitary land fill if sites are available, and incineration or compaction, which still require, however, some place for disposal of the remaining material). Burning of solid waste is used as a source of heating and energy in some places, and recycling of at least some of the solid waste, which obviates the need for disposal and provides raw materials for a variety of uses, is becoming common practice. Often a combination of techniques is the most practical" (Inskeep 1991, 123).

Ultimately, a centralised system will have to be established due to the ever increasing amounts of solid waste produced as a result of the increasing demand for the tourist product in the area coupled with the growing number of local settlements.

### **Public Nuisance**

The most immediate problem facing the new owners of the hotel site is the need to clean up the area so that it no longer exists as a public nuisance to the local people and to the wider public including those tourists who visit the area. This will have to occur either through demolition of the degraded

structures and transportation of waste products away from the area, or through restoration of the site and the establishment of proper dump sites and recycling systems.

That this task has been left undone for over a decade points towards definite weaknesses in the enforcement of the Public Health Act (1936) which states that local authorities in each district are vested with the power to take action when a situation is deemed a public nuisance, including situations that interfere with a public right and which could potentially be a health hazard. In the case of Korolevu the overgrown, derelict structures are a public eye sore and in addition the site proves an ideal breeding ground for pests and vermin. Even stray dogs can be seen wandering around the complex. In addition, the state of the hotel corrupts the cultural integrity of the area since various ancestral sites are said to exist there.

### **Water Supply**

The only reliable water supply available to the hotel site is the Muanidale Creek. Those using the water supply from the lower reaches of the creek will inevitably have problems during floods due to siltation and water discolouration effects caused by seasonal weather fluctuations and vegetative clearing from the higher reaches through logging by the Biausevu people.

In addition, a potential concern for both the locals and the developments in the region is water scarcity. Many small islands or dry areas rely on rain water, an uncertain and fluctuating water supply. This would certainly be the case for the water abstraction from the Muanidale creek which serves the case study area if the hotel was restored. Since tourist resorts on the whole

use large amounts of water, the present system, which already serves The Warwick Fiji and the local villages and settlements, could become over taxed. Thus funding would be required from the Government to establish the proposed Votualevu Regional Water Supply Scheme which has the capacity to meet the growing water demand that is being placed on the east coast region.

### **Vegetative Cover**

The vegetative cover at the river mouth would be detrimentally effected if developers started dredging for a marina and also if reclamation went ahead to modify the coastline in order to accommodate facility development. The existing remnants of Mangrove and Casurina trees at the river mouth need preserving rather than destroying. Most of the original vegetative cover was cleared to make way for resort developments, roading, and agriculture.

Other examples whereby this type of conventional tourist development has destroyed valuable local vegetative cover include the Pacific Harbour, Vulani and Denarau developments which are situated in similar coastal zones. In all three cases large areas of mangrove ecosystems have been destroyed through development.

Overall, in Fiji the original mangrove areas which covered a total of 41,000 hectares have been reduced by approximately 7 percent to 38,000 hectares and tourist developments are noted as one of the major causes of mangrove destruction (Wenzel 1989).

Mangroves in particular are important since over 60 percent of commercially important fish species rely on mangroves during some part of their life cycle

(Watling 1985; Wenzel 1989). The effect of mangrove extraction on local fish species is even more noticeable in the Coral Coast region since mangrove stands are more limited in numbers compared the more densely populated Vuda region as seen in Figure 6.5.

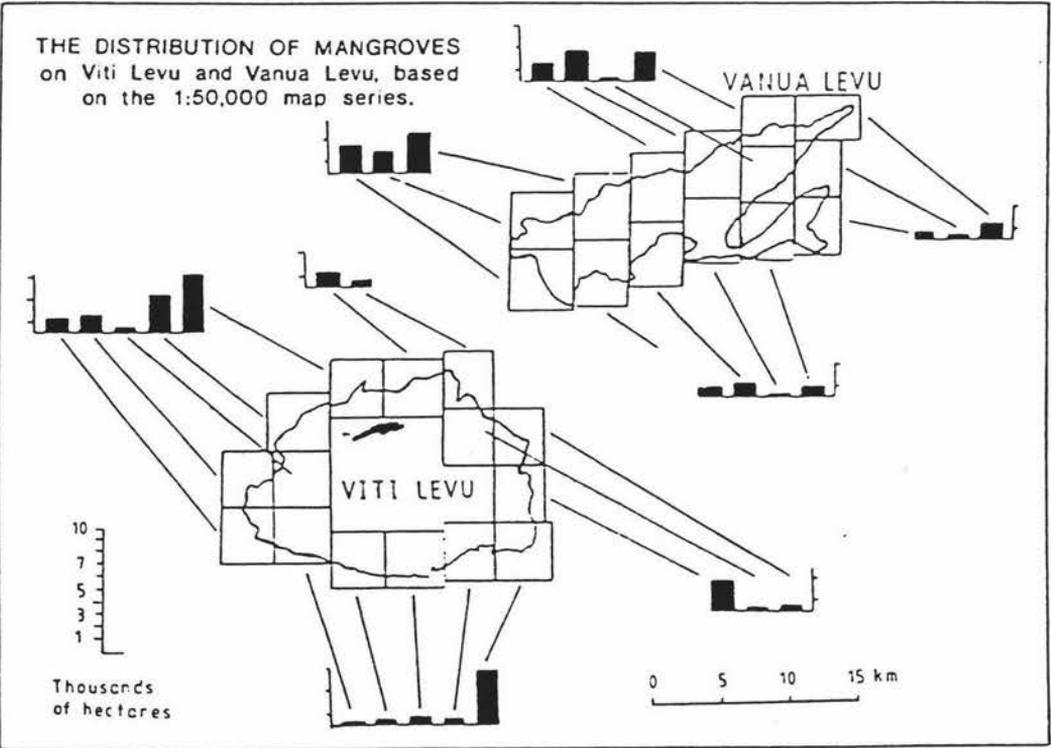
Zann (1992) states that "in the sea most fishing occurs in mangroves, on soft shores, lagoon reef patches, and on the fringing and coral reefs" (28). Thus the inevitable reduction of fish numbers resulting from the destruction of mangroves has a negative economic and therefore social effect on the many villagers rely on fishing as an occupation.

Lastly, mangrove forests in Fiji not only serve as breeding grounds for coastal fish, but also for shell fish. They also serve as storm buffers, as a source of firewood, they act as filters for land based run off and pollution, and they are used as a medicinal plant..

### **Extent and Quality of Natural Attractions**

Concerning the environmental features specific to Korolevu, the area boasts one of the best fringing coral reefs and the best beach in the Coral Coast area. In addition to the above mentioned ancestral sites, Korolevu also has a number of other important historical features such as a ringditch fortification site located 1/8th mile west of Korolevu Beach Hotel and an old burial site known to have existed at Nasi at the bridging point of the Muanidale Creek and the Biausevu waterfall. The waterfall presently proves a popular attraction to tourists and the excursion to this feature is known as The Trip to the Falls (refer to Appendix 6.1). In addition to these officially recognised features, the before mentioned ancestral sites which are said to exist on the freehold land also need to be recognised and preserved.

Figure 6.5  
Mangrove Distribution



Source: Watling and Chape (1992).

These sites are important because they reflect the history and cultural identity of the indigenous people of the area. They also could provide the tourist with an opportunity to re-live or imagine the experiences of those who helped form the local culture (Hall 1991).

The importance of such areas is recognised in the *Coral Coast Tourism Development Study* which recommends that "a number of the region's archaeological/historic sites be developed for tourism/outdoor purposes" (DTCP n.d., 88). This implies that these areas will be preserved in accordance with the recent moves by the Government to officially recognise such areas as being historically and culturally significant to the local people and to the nation as a whole. Management of these sites should ideally be left up to the local people, however, provided initial assistance is given to recognise the importance of such features.

Pulea (1992) stresses the need for a National Heritage Register and for comprehensive legislation to be enacted for the protection of places of cultural significance such as those listed above. Pulea's comments and the situation at Korolevu reveal how Fiji's cultural heritage has in the past often been underplayed. This has resulted in many important features being lost to development.

### **Soil Erosion**

Soil erosion along the coast, a problem often caused by land clearing for buildings, roads and airstrips, is both a land and sea issue. Firstly, soil washed from the land reduces fertility of the remaining soil, thus damaging land productivity. Furthermore, soil swept into coastal waters can kill reefs by muddying the water and inhibiting growth, or by smothering coral polyps

through oxygen depletion. The construction of the Pacific Harbor development in Fiji caused the death of many coral communities immediately west of the Qaraniqio River (Baines 1975 in Wenzel 1989).

This can be considered a potential problem if the hotel is redeveloped, particularly if past land use development practices are followed that can accelerate soil run off. Mitigation and ongoing monitoring measures would need to be put in place to assess the adverse effects created by such a development.

### **Beach Erosion**

Beach erosion can also be caused by coastal construction. Seawalls, groins and jetties interrupt beach system processes. Erosion puts coastal structures themselves at risk, removing the buffer zone that absorbs most wave and wind energy. The rapid shoreline erosion evident on Denarau Island is a clear example of this buffer zone removal. Over 1.5 meters of sand has been washed away from the back side of the groin built to protect the beach in bordering the Sheraton Hotel. Directly in front of the Sheraton, much of the beach has vanished altogether, eroded by waves hitting a seawall built below the high tide mark. These impacts endanger the development itself, and pose expensive management problems (Wenzel 1989).

Any further development at Korolevu which involves tampering with the beach front could result in this type of erosion and also needs to be monitored carefully.

### **Marina Development**

The dredging and subsequent modification of the coastline needed to bring the proposed marina into existence would certainly be an example of the kind of development which could have this sort of negative environmental effect. Therefore, before this sort of development could go ahead, an in depth ecological baseline study would have to be conducted.

The .43ha portion which is Crown Lease Land is designated for salt water bathing and a marina development. There is a 99 year lease, issued on the 1st of February 1966, for use of a suggested marina and bathing facilities. The developer would have to apply for a new development permit before any further development could proceed.

As far as the .43 parcel of land is concerned the DTCP advised the developer that any form of development that occurred on the coast would have detrimental effects on coastal amenities. The suggestion was made by the Director of DTCP to provide the marina development around the mouth of the Muanidale Creek (Cabaniuk 1985).

Lot 6 which is unused at present would support a marina development. In the early 1980s this area was suggested by the planner then working for the DTCP because according to him it is sheltered and building a marina there would not alter much of the coastline. This would however disrupt mooring and access to and from the village, settlements and other users to and along the coast. Concerning the land bordering the Muanidale Creek, there is some concern about the inundation effect after flooding and how the dredging which is associated with the construction of a marina would effect this process.

## Land Tenure

The area described as Native land has been an area of frequent discussions for several reasons: developers are interested in the land, but its categorisation as agricultural Class 2 land was effected because the landowners do not want it to become categorised as land appropriate for tourism development. This does not mean however that Class 2 agricultural land is of prime importance in the physical land use planning sense for tourism developments because the region is covered with under utilised land of this type.

Whether or not the whole resort area would be better utilised as an agricultural base for the local people needs to be discussed since any redevelopment would be at the expense of prime agricultural land. There is a common concern that the hotel site has been left idle for so long, creating a situation whereby the land is underutilised, thus taking a valuable resource from the local *mataqalis*, Korobasilele, Kawabu, Naculava, Korosakai and Kalukalu, as well as the tourist public. If the inclusion of the *mataqali* concerns are to be treated seriously a Land Use Capability Study should be undertaken so that such dilemmas do not re-occur within the coastal environment.<sup>48</sup>

## Nature Tourism and its Opportunities

Providing a way to a sustainable and equitable future without sacrificing the advantages of modern day technology, nature tourism, also known as green or eco-tourism, has become a probable alternative to the more conventional methods of procuring the tourist dollar. This option has to be exercised, however, with the greatest caution; the focus being from the view point of the

---

<sup>48</sup> What was prevalent here previously was that the value of land was determined more on the basis of its market potential thus creating no room to recognise its spiritual and cultural value.

traditional indigenous Fijian.

Given that this focus is maintained, nature tourism in Fiji has the potential to become an agent for bringing together conservation and development in a mutually beneficial partnership. Already certain areas of Fiji are heading towards establishing a nature based tourism industry. The Sigatoka sand dunes and the Waikatakata falls are two such areas in the Coral Coast region.

These types of tourism ventures not only have economic benefits which may be realised at a local level, but the entire Fiji landscape, if systematically organised into a range of protected areas, could be marketed for nature tourism purposes. It is important to note that this type of tourism can be utilised to not only aid the preservation of the environment but also the cultural and historical context into which it is placed.

More specifically, in the case of the Korolevu area, the main environmental features which need preserving are the Biausevu falls, the Muanidale and Qara creek, and the various historical/ancestral sites that are important to the area. If development was to proceed in the direction of eco-tourism several suggestions could be considered: bush walks could be established up the creeks which run to the headwaters beyond the Biausevu falls; the sites which have cultural and historical significance could be restored and maintained; an esplanade could be established along the river banks to provide access for locals, to halt any erosion, and to provide a water catchment; and lastly representatives from the various *mataqalis* and *tokatokas* could be used as tour guides, thus protecting the cultural integrity of the area by utilising their expertise in conservation and planning.

Assistance from national agencies and departments would be necessary if such a venture was to be successful. Interpretation and promotion material, sound business planning and co-ordination with other tourist ventures would all be required. Eco-tourism can still corrupt the social, cultural and environmental assets upon which it rests. According to Lindberg (1991), "the outcome depends on how it is managed" (7). Before such suggested operations become widespread the Government needs to establish whether or not Fiji has sufficient environmental laws operating effectively within an efficient planning framework which has the means to carry out the required monitoring and regulating processes.

### **Conclusion**

The Korolevu case study has highlighted many of the environmental problems, actual or potential, associated with unsustainable tourism developments. Since tourism products are dependent on the local natural and cultural resources it is important that tourist developers undertake activities which enhance rather than degrade the local environment. The lesson that should be learnt from this case study is that the neo-traditional planning system has in the past failed to properly respect the human and natural heritage of the Votua, Biausevu, Jafau and Komave people. It is hoped that any future restorative or redevelopment work on the hotel will include a detailed assessment of how the development will effect the geographical, historical, customary and current concerns of the indigenous local rural dwellers.

## Chapter Seven

# An Analysis of Fiji's Present Tourism Development Planning Framework

### Introduction

Due to the almost non-existent environmental planning framework present in Fiji, the following analysis concerning the current planning system is more a criticism of what has not been done rather than of what has. Also, the analysis is not so much from a technical viewpoint but rather from a sustainable development perspective.

This chapter highlights the problems faced by the present system which consists of a fragmented range of environmental laws and administrative bodies which need to be integrated into a workable framework for the management of coastal tourist developments (Wenzel 1989; Chape 1990).

### Policies

*The Fiji Times* Supplement to the National Environment Strategy acknowledges that "Policies are an essential first step for management and are a prerequisite if Government is to be transparent with regard of its intentions for environmental management to both the national and international community" (Fiji at the Threshold 1992, 21).

The Fiji Government's comprehensive review of the state of the environment, based on the IUCN/UNEP/WWF (1991) Strategy's broad principles for sustainable living, culminated in the NES, the broad goal of which is "to provide a framework which will enable Government to assume management

of the various emerging environmental issues from a policy and legal base and administrative structure which provides a firm foundation for immediate and future action" (Government of Fiji 1992, 1). The NSER also shares this common theme that there should be an integrated approach to conservation and development, suggesting that both conservation and development aspects should be taken into account at an early stage (Watling and Chape 1992).

However, as stated in the NES, "acceptance of sustainable development as a national policy will be more easily incorporated in rhetoric than effected in practice" (35). What remains to be seen is whether or not the recommendations listed in the NES are implemented. Indeed, environmental policies designed in isolation of other sectoral and national goals are difficult to implement and frequently fail. This is highlighted in the way past DPs, despite their positive environmental intentions, were often in conflict with specific departmental policies and therefore remained largely ineffective.

The NES points towards a need for a comprehensive, consistent, and therefore effective statement summarising the Government's attitude towards the environment, and also a set of guidelines which if followed will achieve the stated objectives. In terms of effective environmental planning and management, the existing national and sectoral environmental policies cannot succeed unless the Government of Fiji accepts a policy that adopts a cross-sectoral approach concerning the environment. The NES illustrates the institutional mechanisms and the social and ethical basis of producing a National Environmental Policy Statement (EPS) which would be a practical step towards policy reform.

As mentioned in Chapter Three the NES lists five objectives deemed vitally important for an EPS in an operational sense. According to the New Zealand experience an EPS: "will provide a basis for the counterbalancing of environmental concerns against other factors such as economic, social, cultural, scientific and technical policies. As a follow-up to this it will provide a basis upon which other objectives might be evaluated so as to ensure that they are consistent with environmental objectives"; ... will "enable dialogue between groups and a foundation for negotiations and compromise"; and will provide both "international and national implications of accountability" associated with having a visible stance towards the environment (Gough et al. 1988, 4).

Fiji's version of an EPS could be gleaned from the New Zealand, Australian and British examples; tailored of course to fit the specific environmental problems/needs which characterise Fiji. The role of the Government is ultimately to integrate a number of disciplinary view points, to forge a synthesis between the understanding of the ecologically, socially, culturally and economically sustainable principles which underpin strategies such as the IUCN/UNEP/WWF (1991) and Sitarz (1993) documents, and the role of institutional arrangements in the management of natural and physical resources.

Implementing such integration would require a number of administrative and political frameworks as well as mechanisms and devices enabling environmental concerns to be included in the decision-making process. This would include recommendations in the NES which focus firstly on laws and regulatory mechanisms such as national land use plans, coastal zone management plans, EIAs and environmental quality objectives. Economic

mechanisms and incentives should also be utilised to encourage sustainable land resource use.

This highlights how the deficient Government ministries mentioned below could engage in a programme of reform that re-organises and re-distributes central Government's administrative responsibilities amongst different levels of Government.

### **Land Use Planning**

In order to translate this broad policy goal into specific policy objectives of various Government agencies, there would need to be a massive restructuring of agency responsibilities so that a central body could carry out implementing sustainable development. At present, Fiji's planning system does not adequately fulfil the environmental, social and cultural aspects suggested by the IUCN/UNEP/WWF (1991) and Sitarz (1993) recommendations which point towards an emphasis on empowering local communities to participate in the land use planning framework, with traditional methods and knowledge being encouraged. In particular, wherever possible, policy making should be delegated to the most localised level. Issues such as the rights of indigenous people, private property rights, spiritual attachments and personal identity should be considered.

The scope of control the DTCP has over new development is limited with much development in Fiji being caught up in the discretionary control system. It is therefore important that an effective land use planning system has a firm legal basis which establishes necessary limits which discourage inappropriate land use practices. Any discretion needs to be exercised within clear legal and policy guidelines so that base environmental, social

and cultural standards are not breached or ignored.

### **Native Land Trust Board**

Pulea (1992) states that although leasing native land is a major source of revenue, the leased land must be protected from environmental damage: "there is not enough information available on the extent to which land is being degraded as well as on the mandates imposed in leases and licences and the practices of the lessee and licensee to comply with the mandates. The inclusion of environmental conditions in leases needs assessment in practical terms as a matter of simple accounting to evaluate actual and potential environmental consequences on the resources involved" (46).

Weaver (1991b) highlights the NLTB's ideal position as landlord and lists a number of pilot projects co-ordinated by the NLTB that combine community development with nature conservation. However, whether or not the NLTB does in fact live up to this ideal needs close scrutiny, especially when considering environmental policing. According to Pulea (1992), despite the holistic approach the NLTB displays on paper, few protected natural areas have actually been established in Fiji. This is supported by Cabaniuk's (1994) personal comment that only two areas in the Western Division have been created focusing on tourism development with a primary emphasis on conservation.

Thus, even though the NLTB does have statutory means to act as sole 'custodians' of native land within the environmental context, it often fails to live up to this potential. More specifically, since most tourist developments exist on native lease hold land which also adjourn *vanua ni qoli qoli*, the NLTB could more effectively facilitate local indigenous people participating

more actively in the tourism development process through procedures determined by the people themselves.

The NLTB (1989) is of the opinion, that the present lack "does not necessarily arise from any serious deficiencies in institutional or legislative structures but is more likely the result of a lack of innovation by those departments that are charged with the responsibility of managing the country's natural resources" (31–32). Inadequate staffing levels and lack of expertise are therefore two major factors in curbing the NLTB's effectiveness. In the past, people were often hired on the basis of chiefly ties to the land, rather than their expertise in resource conservation. This may have been the culturally correct action to take but there is now a need to redress the balance and to bring in more trained staff. Also the NLTB has perhaps been too pro-development in the past.

Overall, the NLTB, with its lack of land capability data-base studies and effective mitigating and monitoring of environmental damage, needs to gain a wider understanding of environmental planning techniques, policies and principles in order to make the transition from establishing conservation in conjunction with development to sustainability. The NES goes as far to say that the NLTB should be Fiji's leader in sustainable resource management. In terms of public involvement in the EIA management process the NLTB could be an effective vehicle for conducting this process. This type of management would involve taking into account the following factors: the overall ability of a local community to adapt to the development; timely and effective involvement of local communities; local social and cultural conditions; changes in employment patterns and skills; and the breakdown of traditional methods of social control and discipline. It would also be

important to have clear and unequivocal environmental policies spelt out in the NLTB's parent statute. The need to link such policies back to traditional cultural values and empowering strategies is particularly important to preserve the rights and way of life of the indigenous Fijian.

### **Administration of Environmental Functions within Government**

The formation of environmental committees originated out of a need to deal with specific environmental issues. However, this approach to such problems indicates the sectoral nature of environmental responsibilities as it exists in Fiji. Indeed, the requirement for these types of committees should not outweigh the country's present need for proper overall co-ordination of environmental management.

According to Chape and Watling (n.d.), although the EMC originally had this task it has not proved effective, although it has operated well as a technical advisory committee on environmental management and development issues. The inadequacies of the present legislative and administrative systems are thus highlighted by the EMC's inability to control existing environmental problems.

The National Environment Steering Committee was established to provide this co-ordinating, role for the national and international environment initiatives of the National Environment Management Project, SPREP (since 1983), and the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in 1992.

However, the NSER highlights indications that this most recently formed co-ordinating committee will be viewed "as yet another *ad hoc* Ministry of

Housing and Urban Development<sup>50</sup> (and therefore largely sectoral) committee by other line ministries, which will tend to provide representation at senior technical level rather than policy/decision making level" (Watling and Chape 1992, 111).

According to the NES the Fiji Government's current institutional and administrative structure for environmental management has only embryonic capability, needing extensive restructuring and upgrading. The report states that if institutionalised as an isolated, 'stand alone' sector without large scale legislative and institutional reform the environment sector will more likely develop into an irritating bureaucratic hurdle in planning, development and progress.

A significant gap in current legislation allows Government agencies to avoid compliance with the statutory development approval process. However, the recent voluntary undertaking of EIAs and environmental reviews by the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forests for some of its projects is an encouraging exception. This could be used for tourist developments since dredging is often involved in the establishment of marinas, ports and waterways.

The Directorate's shortage of qualified staff, coupled with the central nature of the planning approvals system, makes the Directorate's task of mitigating and monitoring and reacting to all levels of development activity very difficult. Also there is little opportunity to generate a strategic land use planning framework.

---

<sup>50</sup> Now the Ministry of Housing, Urban Development and Environment.

The present planning system in Fiji suits the larger scale tourist developments (thus perpetuating the flaws of these types of developments) but not the smaller nature tourist ventures which are envisaged to become more common. It will be necessary for coastal communities such as Korolevu to become well acquainted with the tourist facility quality standards and with the overall tourist development process. The Government will have to make changes to the presently confusing and expensive centralised system to facilitate sustainable local community tourist developments.

### **Department of Town and Country Planning**

Pulea (1992) highlights the confusion associated with the present arrangements of the Town Planning Act, the Scheme Plan, the General Provisions and its related schedules, and the schedule to the Act. However, the Scheme Plan's restrictions relating to land use and the coastal environment, promotes sustainability as a common theme.

Also, obtaining an approval in principle has sometimes caused confusion for developers as it is assumed that approval of the details once submitted would be automatic. In addition, the application stage needs more information concerning the full extent of the development plans and the extent of the environmental effects associated with the proposed development.

The above is particularly true for tourist developments that were carried out in an unsustainable manner prior to 1990. However, the current review of the Denarau project exemplifies a slight shift of attitude towards sustainability principles.

## **Fisheries**

As established in Chapter One, the concept of *vanua* encompasses not only the land but also the sea. More specifically, the issue of fishing areas or *vanua ni qoli qoli* is on a par with the issue of land rights.

*Agenda 21* gives guidelines to governments on how to sustainably manage marine resources. One such guideline which seems particularly relevant to Fiji, since Fijians have one of the highest average estimates of fish consumption in the world (Zann 1992), is the need for Government to have as its aim the meeting of "human nutritional and other development needs" through the implementation of "national strategies for the sustainable use of marine living resources ...taking into account the special needs and interests of small-scale fisheries, local communities and indigenous people" (159).

Pulea (1992) states that: "there was some uncertainty after Cession as to the ownership of reefs and fishing grounds as these areas were traditionally recognised as the property of Fijian communities and like land were required for their use and subsistence. The acknowledgement of Fijian rights through the enactment of laws relating to these resources was a gradual process" (83). These laws should be strengthened and used as a major tool to achieve sustainable management of marine resources through the protection of indigenous rights to have access to these resources.

The fact that at present development control of dry land takes up most of the control resources and is subject to most of the statutory and administrative planning machinery seems unbalanced since marine/maritime environments are critical to the social and economic life of the community and it is along the coastal zones that modern environmental pressures are

most intense.

### **Overview**

Provided that administrative bodies have sufficient statutory backing, administrative institutions should have a clearly structured framework of responsibility from which to interpret 'sustainability policy' into actions, as suggested throughout the regularly discussed international documents (e.g. Annex 8 in *Caring for the Earth* (IUCN/UNEP/WWF 1991). Ultimately, administrative bodies should be devolved to a localised level. Given the appropriate strategies and action plans for achieving sustainability, agencies can then derive the means to achieving sustainable development.

### **Environmental Law in Fiji**

#### **Policy Statements**

Concerning environmental provisions within the Government's various development plans, Pulea (1992), Weaver (1991a), Kalou<sup>51</sup> (1992), and Watling and Chape (1992) agree that the institutional and legal framework for environmental assessment and planning in Fiji needs upgrading to answer the present demand that developments utilise resources in a sustainable manner. This need to upgrade environmental law is also called for by the IUCN/UNEP/WWF (1991) Strategy (Action 8.5).

Early on, the Government stated in DP7 (1976-1980) that: "the administration of existing environmental legislation is unco-ordinated. During the Plan period a thorough review of this legislation, its strengths, weaknesses and omissions, will be undertaken" (60). This review did not transform the environmental legislation in any significant way, is also

---

<sup>51</sup> Personal comments of the former Minister for State and the Environment.

notable that this Plan (DP7) contained a specific chapter on 'Development and the Environment' which stated that: "Economic development which is undertaken in accordance with ecological principles, paying due respect to the need to plan resource exploitation carefully and to limit the dispersal of wastes in the environment, is better development. In some cases, in simple economic terms, it may initially cost more. In the long term the economic, social, cultural and environmental benefits will far outweigh these initial costs. Only an ecological approach to development now will enable us to hand on to future generations a carefully managed, relatively unpolluted land with adequate and comparatively undamaged natural resources" (55). This too was a promising step in policy progression but was merely reflecting an attitude of keeping "resource exploitation" to a reasonable level; the ideology of balance, rather than of sustainable development.

Then DP8 (1981–1985) singled out the Government's objective to enact a National Parks and Reserves Act during the plan period. The Plan stated that criteria for priority projects to be identified will include "the distance from large concentrations of population, the threat of destruction or despoliation of the environment, extent of present usage and the pressure of development from other sources" (289–290). It is a wise ideal to establish protective measures for mangrove ecosystems through the creation of coastal parks and marine reserves. However, in an area such as Korolevu, the situation is difficult since it has a sizeable coastal population thus contradicting the Government's statement that such parks and reserves will be established away from large groups of people. It is difficult to define what large concentrations of people actually implies here. The need to spell out detailed policy guidelines is crucial if such contradictions are to be resolved.

Also, according to the NSER the role of the environment in national development planning was down-graded by the Government in this eighth DP which placed it in the category of Leisure, Recreation and the Environment. Resource conservation was however recognised in various sectors of the economy.

More recently, DP9 (1986-90) acknowledged that legislation concerning conservation of the environment and the protection of the heritage was inadequate and obsolete. However, again no significant changes were made to rectify these legislative weaknesses.

The dangers of resource depletion were recognised by The National Economic Summit of 1991. The Report's objective was to incorporate a framework of project design, approval and monitoring in order to improve the rational use of resources, both renewable and non-renewable.

In addition, Ratu Penaia Ganilau, the late Governor General of Fiji, suggested in the NES that aspects of the Nation's environmental laws would be reviewed with a view to introducing laws which are consistent with international environment law agreements (Government of Fiji 1992, i).

Despite the general lack of practical expression of the above policy statements, these statements at least reflect a slow change towards an integrated, sustainable management approach which could eventually be translated down through the various levels of Government given the right institutional arrangements for organisation and implementation. The major obstacles that prevent such integration could be a lack of knowledge of environmental issues, a lack of effective environmental legislation, a lack of

resources (e.g. financial; trained, skilled and knowledgeable personnel; facilities such as testing laboratories) and an inadequacy of enforcement of environmental provisions found in the range of existing statutes.

Prior to 1982, Fiji's environmental laws had insufficient emphases placed upon them. Since then, a number of environment sector studies conducted by various organisations have been produced.<sup>52</sup> However, environmental law reforms are still in their infancy and need more refinement.

### **The Acts**

Concerning the Acts controlling the land and marine environments, the socio-cultural/historical background provided in Chapters One and Three highlights the need for the Government, developers and planners to gain an appropriate understanding of the complex nature of the Fijian land and marine tenure systems.

The most problematic task faced by the Government is to properly identify and control the activities of non-native, and native Fijians, and also other entrepreneurs who are utilising or who wish to utilise land and water resources on a commercial basis; more specifically in relation to tourist developments in rural areas with a high indigenous population. While initiative and free enterprise should be encouraged, it should not supersede environmental considerations. Ultimately, traditional Fijian conservation and preservation measures which are intrinsic to the protocols which make up village community should be given preference. More specifically, Pulea (1992) notes that "traditional fisheries management practised by coastal and river side Fijian societies cannot be ignored as they have considerable

---

<sup>52</sup> The National Environment Management Project (IUCN 1990) is one such study.

knowledge of marine resources, the environment, the life cycle and habitat of named species" (88).

In the past traditional conservation practices have been under threat from commercial practices and many coastal communities have had to adapt their traditional management systems with the result that some customs have been lost. In order to strengthen weakened customary practices or even to re-establish lost traditions, legal support will be needed. The survey of the local Jafau people of Korolevu (refer to Appendix 7.1) revealed their concerns that legislative and administrative measures should support the local Fijian culture and traditions.

In relation to the preservation of the resources upon which the traditional Fijian way of life depends, it is notable that Chape and Watling (n.d.) consider the laws dealing with pollution the least effective of all the environmental legislation. Prosecution of anyone causing pollution is very difficult because of a lack of specific laws and a lack of enforcement options.

In addition, there is no clear policy on protected areas in Fiji. DP9 provides for the establishment of a legal framework designed to conserve unique features. But on the whole this legislation is, according to Pulea (1992), inadequate and obsolete.

Concerning archaeological sites, these features are regularly being lost to development through a lack of appreciation for their significance. This is not helped by the absence of a National Register of historic and archaeological sites.<sup>53</sup> The danger of not having well established laws that prevent

---

<sup>53</sup> According to the Fiji Museum, a national site survey was initiated in 1964 which contains records of 632 sites, but the site survey has not been kept up to date (Pulea 1992).

unauthorised damage or destruction of these sites is that adequate monitoring of these sites and their preservation is near impossible. Sustainable tourist developments could in this sense become a support mechanism because well planned developments could encourage the protection of such sites for their tourist appeal.

Fiji cannot afford to be complacent about safeguarding her cultural heritage whether it is living, fixed or portable. Firstly, local policies need to be tidied up and enforcement of these policies needs strengthening before international commitments can be seriously adopted. Pulea (1992) agrees that there is an urgent need to preserve areas of cultural significance.

Furthermore, because of the proliferation of tourism developments (particularly on the western side of Fiji and also along the Coral Coast where the weather tends to be finer) competition for water resources between developments and the traditional rural villages is a prevalent problem. It is essential that competing needs are balanced.

The most inexpensive approach which could be legislated is to make existing supplies go further by conserving water. This should become an integral part of water management. Pulea (1992) highlights the deficiencies in the present Water Supply Act. The Act needs to be expanded to incorporate those aspects of water protection that are currently inadequately protected or not protected at all.

### **Overview**

Watling and Chape (1992) consider Fiji's environmental laws as "a relic of the colonial period when environmental problems were limited and clearly

sectoral" (105). Pulea (1992), McBride (1992) and Ward (1994) are also of the opinion that many of the laws are ineffective, lacking the modern environmental management focus of the 1990's. Pulea's comments concerning fines and convictions in relation to environment related 'crimes', reveal that the present system is not punitive enough and harsher penalties are needed. This would aid the implementation of sustainable development without having to solely rely on the good will of developers. Generally the enforcement of regulations is inadequate due to weaknesses in the institutional framework, and an absence of firm policy planning.

However, the Government needs to go beyond mere punitive measures and needs to find more innovative means to encourage the various codes of behaviour required of developers to achieve a sustainable tourism industry.

Wright (1988 in Hall 1991) is of the view that regulation "must be supportive rather than prohibitive" (29) implying the need to deregulate the tourism industry. At present, the tourism industry in Fiji is far too regulated. The reasoning behind deregulating the industry while still maintaining and streamlining those environmental laws which are necessary to empower local authorities to maintain codes of behaviour is that deregulation would put the power back into the hands of local communities; those most affected by the tourism industry. Deregulation in this sense means deregulating central Government control in favour of district and local planning, subject of course to legal guidelines and procedures.

Overall, serious consideration needs to be given to reviewing all environment related laws; bringing the appropriate pieces of legislation into effect that would accommodate the changing phases that are taking place

with respect to tourism developments. However, this will only be effective if there is also improved environmental education for the public, including providing information on traditional environmental values. This then needs to be coupled with a firm commitment from the Government to improve law enforcement (McBride 1992).

### **Environmental Impact Assessment in Fiji**

A variety of authors writing from a variety of perspectives will be utilised in the following analysis of Fiji's presently inadequate EIA system. This wide perspective of EIA administration is useful for deciding a comprehensive EIA format for Fiji.

### **Concerns for a Successful EIA System in Fiji**

The two key concepts behind the phrase Environmental Impact Assessment are firstly, environmental analysis and secondly, public participation. At this stage, Fiji lacks a planning framework to facilitate the effective and efficient outworking of these two concepts, even though on paper the opposite seems to be the case.

Furthermore, the Fiji Government should be aware of certain negative side effects of having an EIA process that is not comprehensive enough to take into account certain social and political factors. It is not always wise, for instance, for politically weak communities to be saddled with large scale developments thereby perpetuating the inequalities within and between communities (Olokesusi 1992). The Government should avoid raising excessive community expectations, with possible disillusionment and subsequent abandonment of the project, as was the case at Korolevu. Furthermore, it is important that the EIA process guards against the biases of

politicians and entrepreneurs who may present issues to suit their own political or economic objectives.

Below are some suggestions of what is required to conduct a successful EIA. It is difficult to analyse this in the Fijian context because of a distinct lack of coherence in the environmental planning and management framework that exists there. This is not a problem only in Fiji but also in many Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries.

There are four key factors for a successful, project specific EIA which seem to have relevance wherever EIA is applied. These relate to timing, personnel, scoping, and monitoring.

### **Timing**

Firstly, based on several European case studies, Kennedy (1973) emphasises the need to integrate EIA at an early stage of project planning. When integrated early it can result in projects with built-in mitigation which is designed to minimise negative effects. In the case of Fiji, many projects avoid EIA altogether and if an EIA is completed it is usually the end product to obtain permission rather than a step in the environmental assessment and management process. Comparing Fiji's EIA system with that of New Zealand's, the former does not adequately facilitate the ability of those involved in the planning process to properly evaluate changes to time and spatial boundaries. This often leads to the making of unwise decisions at both the national and project levels concerning the guiding of proponent activities. Thus, in the operational sense, EIA's in Fiji, when used, do not accurately identify the most likely impacts that may significantly effect the surrounding people and their environment.

Also, according to Chape (1990) there is an unhealthy reliance on Governmental goodwill in Fiji and also on aid donor or lending agency arm twisting, also by the Government. He also points out that no environmental assessment criteria in the CPO's *Pro Forma* for Government project submissions exists. Green and Odense (1993) suggest that in the case of Fiji the best solution is to require that all projects need EIAs, but to expect only small EIAs for small projects. Such a distinction is followed with the AEE's prepared under New Zealand's RMA.

### **Personnel**

Kennedy (1973) emphasises that the success of an environmental assessment is very much dependent on the individual, or team, responsible for preparing it. Different approaches are needed in different circumstances. In those situations it is necessary that terms of reference be prepared in such a way as to ensure that the individual or group brings sound environmental knowledge and experience to the job. In Fiji the present lack of staff and resources has created an inevitable backlog of development applications. Furthermore, a lack of meaningful predictions made by experts and planners has had a major bearing on why EIAs have been deficient in Fiji in the past. This has caused many tourist developments to slip through the planning approval process and this is having undesirable effects on the environment. There is also a reliance on short term expatriate expertise since local knowledge is limited in terms of environmental management (Chape 1990). Green and Odense (1993) suggest that since Fiji lacks expert EIA officers, perhaps a handbook of check-lists of environmental concerns could be a starting point.

## Scoping

A crucial task in carrying out environmental assessment is to identify, early in project planning, the most significant, serious, environmental impacts associated with a project and the reasonable alternatives available for constructing the project in an environmentally sound manner. Scoping is a procedure for accomplishing these tasks. In the case of Fiji there is a need to translate scoping techniques into the unique socio-cultural environment found in Fiji. Green and Odense (1993) suggest that once an EIA officer has gained knowledge of the project the next step would be to get to know the opinions of the local people and this may involve sitting with local villagers around the *tanoa* (*yaqona* bowl).<sup>54</sup> At present no such in-built participatory mechanisms exist for the community at large or the community affected and there is no effective communication with traditional resource owners and users.

As well as public participation, there is also a need for reliable data and information. Where an adequate data base is missing, as in the case of many projects in Fiji, predicting environmental impacts for future developers proves difficult. The Denarau EIA (Harrison Grierson Consultants 1989), for instance, in its discussion of the Nadi River (upstream transect) did not include some ecological relationships at various trophic levels, indicating that planners lack the ability to properly assess EIA documents. In addition to this, there is also a lack of alternatives offered when considering dredging in Area C (refer to Appendix 5.1). It should be stressed that EIA needs to become a vehicle for suggesting alternative actions including, sometimes, no action.

---

<sup>54</sup> *Yaqona* is a traditional drink that was once reserved for chiefs but is now drunk by the wider Fijian populace. In the village setting this ceremony is integral to the public participation process.

## **Monitoring**

As seen in Sadler (1994), monitoring is an important process for providing sustainable policies and also sustainable developments at project level. Kennedy (1973) suggests that EIA needs to be seen as a comprehensive process integrated with results being reflected in the implementation of the activity, followed up by a monitoring and a post-development audit. As for Fiji, the answer is not easy for EIAs are not perfect at making predictions and sometimes they are inaccurate. The challenge is not to make mere predictions but to make accurate predictions which implies that they can be tested (Beanlands and Duinker 1981). Post-development monitoring is also needed to account for the fact that the reliability of predictions will never be absolute. This is also lacking in Fiji.

Green and Odense (1993) suggest, as part of the monitoring process, that an EIA consultant for the Department of Environment should visit project sites from time to time; this activity could be sponsored by the developer. In Fiji since no adequate national resource planning exists, there is no national, regional, district land use planning and no coastal zone management planning (Chape 1990).

## **Overview**

The static, as opposed to dynamic, nature of the EIA process in Fiji has led to its reactive rather than proactive nature. The reason for this probably lies in the absence of effective procedural guidelines laid down by the Government as to the form and content of EIA in Fiji which in turn has led to: poor identification and description of possible environmental impacts; poor prediction and evaluation of impacts; ineffective methods of communication; the view that an EIA report is merely an end product to obtain permission,

rather than a step in the environmental assessment and management process; and lack of effective public participation.

It is vital that the Government identify the goals that EIA serves and the way in which EIA influences the relative inputs of different interests to decision-making. Unless EIA is incorporated early enough in the project cycle to influence planning and design, and unless the outputs of EIA play a part in the decision-making process, the entire effort becomes irrelevant (Olokesusi 1992).

### **Korolevu**

There is at present no adequate policy framework detailing how to achieve sustainable development in the Coral Coast region. Rectifying this must surely be a first step in obtaining the types of developments that are sensitive to the local people and their environments. Korolevu could then be a pioneer of change, mirroring the way the Korolevu Beach Hotel was the first of its kind in Fiji in the 1950s. This time, however, the two derelict hotels could be developed to meet the growing need for eco-tourism rather than conventional tourism. This would mean having to remove the two existing buildings. Whether or not the site is developed into a marine park, as or into some other reserve, or whether it is merely restored to its original condition before development with no future development taking place, this first step is needed and the question remains why this not happen over a decade ago when it became obvious that the Korolevu Beach Hotel was no longer economically viable?

Victims of this economic failure include the Jafau people who live opposite the derelict site and who were imported into the area by developers to work

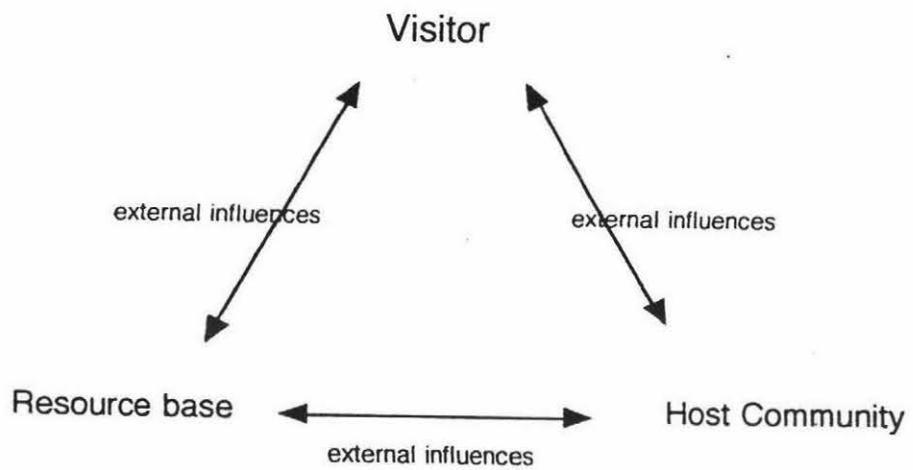
for the hotel. These people are primarily *mataisau* (wood carvers), and they expected to make their living carving for the tourists who came to Korolevu. Instead they have had to diversify and carve for some of the other hotels in the area and also for other reasons not associated with the tourism industry. The economic expectations of these people were not fulfilled in the way developers originally suggested they would be. The Jafau people's need to diversify into other economic ventures to survive contradicts the modern idea that the relationship between host, guest and resource base must be economically, ecologically, and socially sustainable (Sowman, 1992). Refer to Figure 7.1 for an illustration of this concept.

Colonisation, in whatever form, has a habit of alienating people from their roots and this type of exploitation has happened elsewhere in Fiji with little fore thought as to how this will ultimately affect the people involved. Overall, some form of compensation should perhaps be considered in recognition of the raised economic and social expectations of the Jafau people.

In addition the Fijian land owners of the surrounding villages listed in Chapter Six who have had to suffer living next to a derelict site for longer than should have been necessary should also be compensated. Whatever the decision concerning future development or restoration and compensation, the local Fijian people affected should be consulted extensively.

From information gleaned from the survey that was conducted (refer to Appendix 7.1) the main issues worrying the local people of, Biausevu, Votua, Komave and Jafau include: the violation of fishing rights and the need to uphold traditional fishing protocols and practices, the lack of

Figure 7.1

The Host/Guest/Resource Base Relationship

Source: Sowman (1993).

public participation using traditional protocols, the die off of coral reefs and subsequent loss of marine life (particularly smaller inshore fish), land ownership issues (particularly between the Biausevu people and the previous hotel owners), loss of certain plant species such as *Dogo* and *Tiri*, the scarcity of shellfish, and the state of the hotel area. Obviously these concerns are not all related to the Korolevu Beach Hotel site but by surveying some of the effects neighbouring hotels are having on the local people and their environment, the dangers of merely converting the Korolevu Beach Hotel back into a conventional hotel complex were highlighted.

In addition there needs to be a firm decision from Government and developers to treat such people as the Jafau clan as more than merely a cheap tourist lure. Overall, it needs to be acknowledged that the local indigenous people in general have a wealth of knowledge to bring to the task of managing the resource base, including the archeological and historical sites in the area. The issue of access is therefore also raised. Again the indigenous landowners who are the traditional stewards of such sites should decide what type of access, if any, should be given to tourists to these features. Inskip (1991) argues for restriction of access in some cases where features may become endangered by tourist movements.

### **Conclusion**

Like anywhere else around the world, environmental issues have been given little consideration in economic planning and other areas of development in the past, but this trend is slowly changing as governments realise the need to balance development, conservation and the maintenance of environmental matters in economic development planning.

In Fiji, sustainable tourism development planning will only come about when the sectoral nature of Fiji's present planning system is fully integrated into a sequence, hence the notion of integrated planning. Overall, the nation's socio-cultural, economic, environmental and political policies need to be effectively integrated into the natural and human-made environment, into the socio-cultural traditions of native Fijian's, into the many related sectors of the economy, and lastly, into the international tourism market.

## Chapter Eight

# Recommendations

### Introduction

Even though Fiji is at a stage where major reforms are deemed vital for the nation's environmental, social, political and economic survival, there is still a sense that despite the positive moves the Government of Fiji has made towards providing a development planning process that is underpinned by the principle of sustainability, there is still a way to go before the rhetoric of effective environmental management is made a reality. The present environmental planning and management system in Fiji still has economic efficiency as its primary focus; the secondary focus being sustainable development. From a planning perspective it must be realised that sustainability is about community choice and the bringing together of socio-cultural, biophysical and economic aspects of people's lives. All these elements need to be mutually beneficial. Appropriate development can meet all these needs in a positive way.

The suggested reforms urge the Government to oust the ideology of compartmentalism which it inherited from the post-colonial administration that existed prior to independence in 1970. Such reforms would facilitate the closure of the gap that exists between the Western approach of resource exploitation and profit maximisation, and traditional methods of guardianship or stewardship; thus providing an effective form of control for the governance of the local people's resource base.

Firstly, as suggested in the NES, there is a need to establish a new and

vigorous criteria for assessing the resource management regime which aims to solve the inherently complex environmental issues associated with the development of the tourism industry in Fiji today.

For tourist developments to measure up to the economic expectations of the overseas markets, there should be a measure of self-direction to sustain the potential of natural and physical resources to meet the reasonably foreseeable needs of future generations. Establishing this focus involves the avoidance, remedying and mitigation of adverse environmental effects; thus ensuring that ecological bottom lines are not crossed. Development planning cannot be developed in isolation. Indeed, integration of the planning process with this focus is vital to achieving the goals of sustainability. Therefore environmental planning and management should function as an effective filter for both local and overseas development investments on and along the coast.

### **Fijian Environmental Values**

Social values are arranged into hierarchies which are built up by trial and error over decades and centuries and they constitute the fundamental cohesiveness or social glue that makes a society work. This human experience is often expressed as folk wisdom, custom and tradition.

Historically, most Fijian values flowed to the people from traditional societal and religious authorities. Even though these values were stable psychological structures, with the coming of the 'white man' a new set of beliefs and emphases was established, supported by the church, the schools, and the Government. Over this last century or so, during which this new set of values were introduced, priority was given to economic growth

and development.

Fijian society must now re-examine this priority and the values that are associated with using the free market for making many societal decisions since these values tend to emphasise selfishness, competition and maximisation of material wealth. Throughout the world, many people are now questioning whether such a society is sustainable and are proposing a new yet old value structure that gives greater emphasis to co-operation, justice, compassion, empathy and environmental responsibility. Earlier societies all tended to live (in varying degrees) in harmony with nature and traditional Fijian society was no exception. Modern society is now facing the stark reality that ultimately our lives can only be sustained within a viable ecosystem that supports other life; our well being cannot be separated from the well being of our biocommunity.

Thus, the ethical foundation supporting an improved planning regime in Fiji, should be aligned with the revitalising of Fijian traditional values which focus on environmental care and on the provision of participatory mechanisms that fully involve the local indigenous people in the decision making process when decisions directly or indirectly affect their resource base.

The broad goal of "sustainability", when applied to tourist developments in Fiji, should be underpinned by a focus on how the traditional Fijian perceives the means of achieving such a goal. This means that those institutions that would carry out these sustainable goals would have to incorporate the indigenous Fijian community in the planning framework. As Jacobs and Sadler (1990) state, "we must begin to rethink and restructure the process and procedures of decision-making, including and underlying

ideas and methods that shape our definition of problems and predetermine approaches to dealing with them" (3).

This suggested focus on the Fijian community aligns with the *Caring for the Earth* strategy's emphasis on Primary Environmental Care (PEC) which stresses full community participation in a consultative process and recognition of local people's rights in the utilisation and management of their lands and their resources (refer to Appendix 8.1). It also aligns with the emphasis *Agenda 21* has on the importance of the role indigenous people in looking after the environment, using the indigenous scientific knowledge they have developed (refer to Appendix 8.2). And lastly it aligns with the *Draft Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples* which recognises the importance of including indigenous people in the participation process to participate fully (refer to Appendix 8.3).

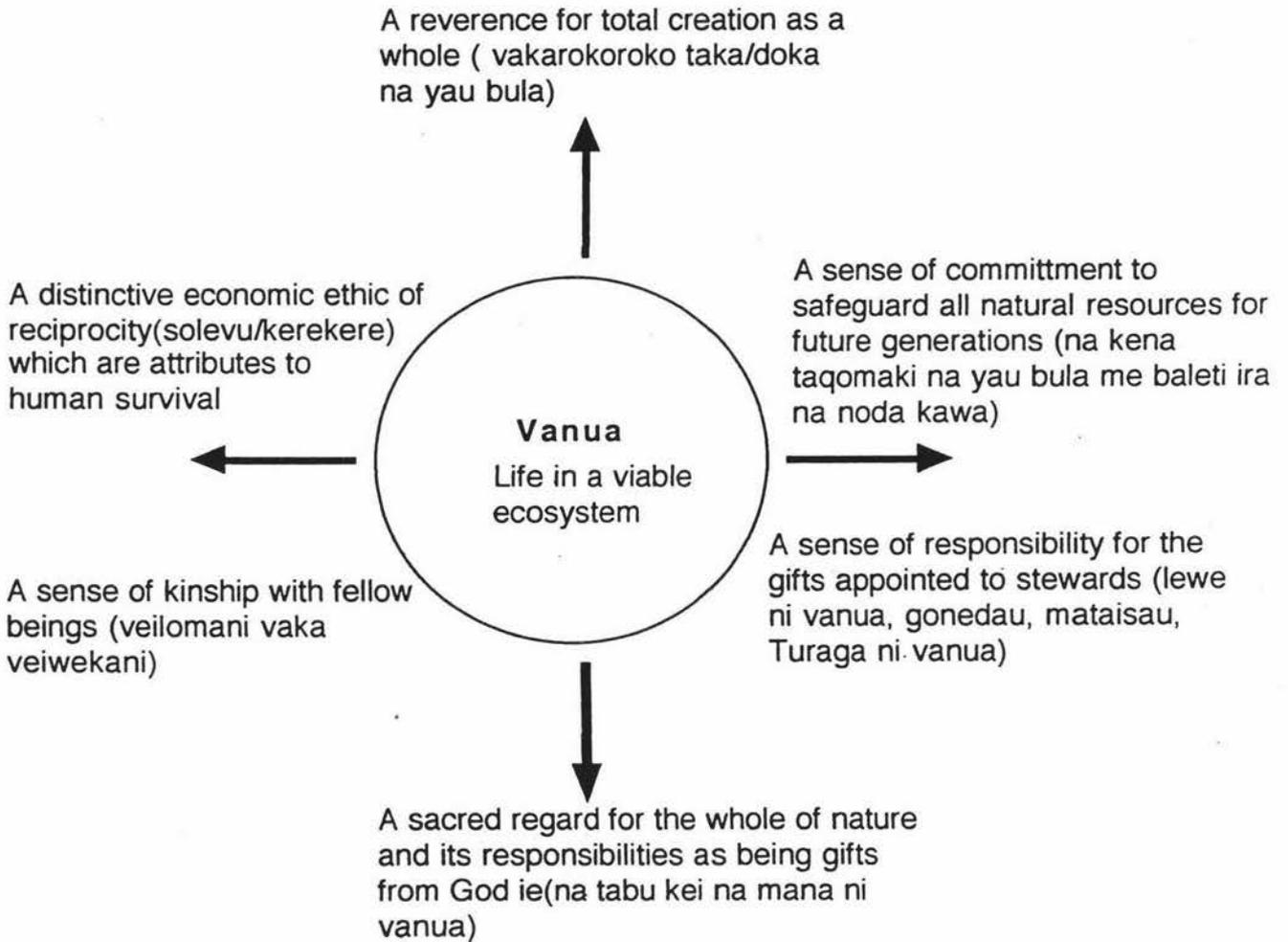
Refer to Figure 8.1 for an illustration of Fijian environmental values.

### **Suggested Reforms for Fiji's Present Coastal Environmental Planning Framework**

#### **Developing a Participative Process**

Despite the potential problems associated with involving the public in the environmental decision-making process, participation need not act as a foil to efficiency. However, while limits must sometimes be drawn, procedural fairness should be the main focus (Robinson 1993). Increasing attention is now being paid in many countries to the form and extent of participatory processes. It is being recognised that public acceptance must be secured to effect a truly successful development. This can be more of a test when the process involves more than one cultural perspective.

Figure 8.1

Fijian Environmental Values

The Government of Fiji should develop a participative process through deregulation to eliminate the ambiguities caused by over regulation and other interventions involved in processing coastal development proposal applications and permits. This reform process should be based on an analysis of the public and private sectors and, in particular, interest group consultations. From this a developed broad base of consensus could be attained.

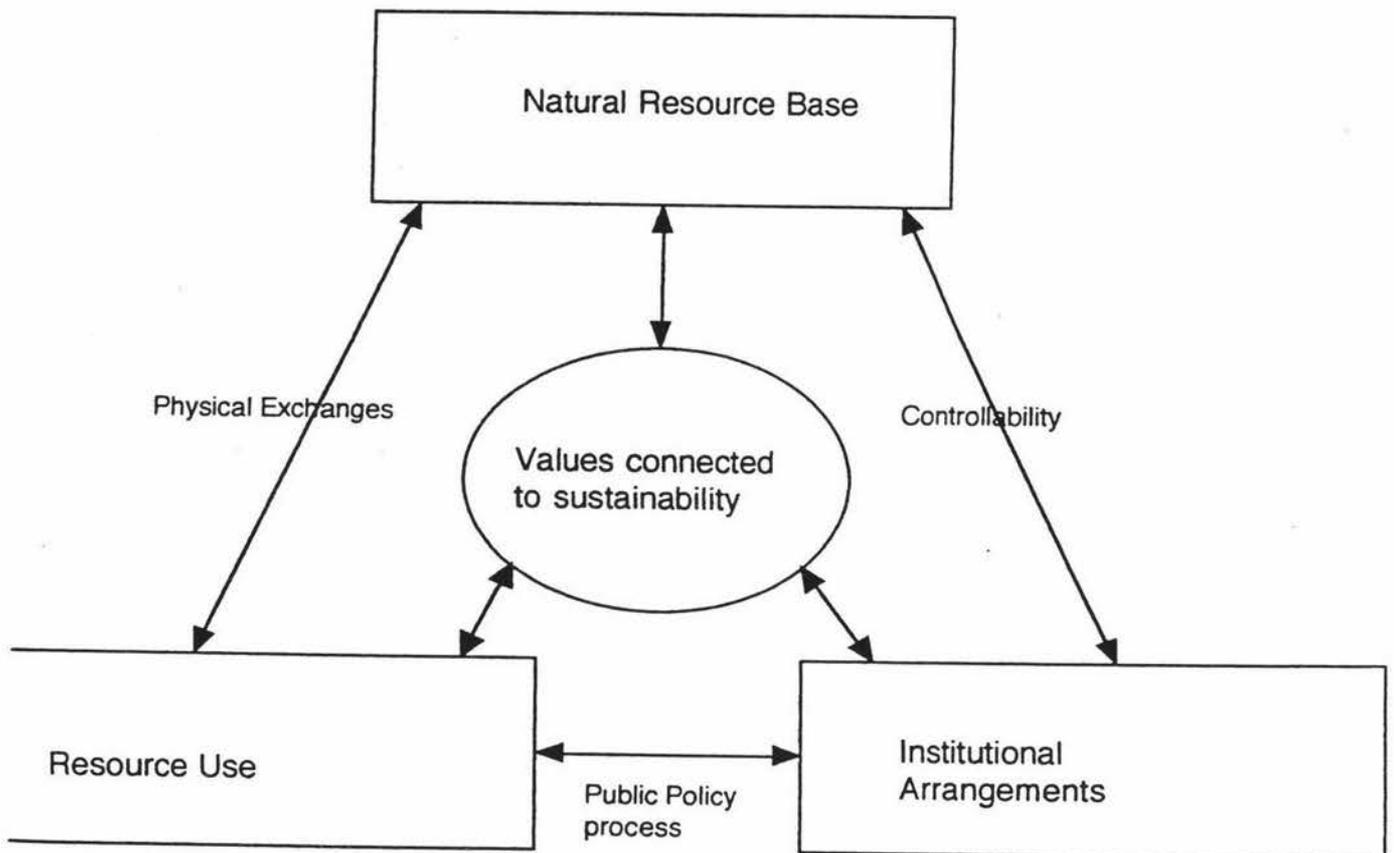
The main focus should be based on the direction and control of development of a *yasana* (region), *tikina* (district) or *koro* (village); the emphasis being on the promotion and safeguarding of the health, safety, legal protection, participation, education, and economic well being of the local indigenous people. The NLTB and the Department of Environment should play a vital role in establishing a planning process which provides a neo-traditional working mechanism for promoting and establishing the correct means for ensuring that future and existing tourist developments along the coastal regions of Fiji are sustainable.

As seen in Figure 8.2, in order to incorporate the concepts and principles of sustainable development in the main decision making process, an adaptive, and integrated system could be adopted for identifying and outworking the economic, social and environmental goals which are integral to effecting sustainable development along the coast.

### **Incorporation of Fijian Values**

Firstly, the Government needs to recognise the necessity of including environmental considerations in development planning. The Government still has an insubstantial organisational context for a proper environmental

Figure 8.2

Development as a Dynamic Environment Society Process

Source: Adapted from Baines (1989a).

management regime, and the major components below have been identified to remedy this. Based on what is seen as a coherent dynamic process it provides for a framework based on the three organising factors, underpinned by values generated by the indigenous Fijian society as a whole. Furthermore, it describes environment and economic development in conjunction with the management of parts of the environment as a basis for discussing sustainable development as a concept, policy and practice (Baines 1989b). Again refer to Figure 8.2.

The Government should see sustainable development as a comprehensive environmental policy which provides for the following: i) directing a course of action which is accountable to the more specific policy objectives; ii) providing a cross-sectoral approach through various Government ministries; iii) fostering certain principles such as property rights, ethical principles and cultural conventions; iv) providing an incentive to act (eg providing clearly specified entitlements and conditions on resource use so that users know what costs and constraints, and what benefits are possible (Baines 1989b).

### **Integrated Law**

The rule of law approach recommended by the Canadian Law Association (1990) has as its premise that those standards or measures deemed most critical for conserving our diminishing resources must be enshrined in law. To achieve any real progress, the Government of Fiji must be made to accept their own mandates and assert their political will.

The impetus behind the ongoing reforms of New Zealand's public sector and economy which was initiated in 1984 and which eventually produced the RMA was deregulation. New Zealand's Resource Management Law Reform

(RMLR) identified two key issues: to promote sustainable management and to integrate institutions and systems so that the environment could be dealt with as a whole. Following from this there was a need for and subsequent development of a single, coherent and consistent law dealing with natural and physical resources.

The RMA is an attempt to provide a workable environmental planning and management framework which recognises that indigenous people must participate fully in what is rightfully theirs; thus traditional scientific knowledge is included in the planning regime to meet the requirements of sustainable management. The Government of Fiji should similarly integrate environmental laws under one central Act which focuses on sustainable development and which fully recognises the exercising of indigenous property rights. Overall, the core values identified above need to be recognised in law, in terms that give them a clear legal status. Part II of New Zealand's RMA is the obvious model for setting out such principles (refer to Appendix 8.4a).

However, as suggested by Green and Odense (1993), it is important that any system or law borrowed from overseas is adapted to suit the cultural and political environment of Fiji if it is to have any real effect in terms of enforcement.

This suggested integrated law which covers all environmental issues should be administered by a central Government agency such as the Department of Environment and it should cover the following: land use planning laws which provide consents to development activities; definition of responsibilities of authorities and their functions and also the institutional and geographical

boundaries that should exist; laws providing for environmental protection and prevention goals such as preservation of Fiji's natural heritage; an EIA law which is proactive and enforceable and which has a major focus on effects, monitoring and alternatives, thus providing strategic environmental assessment (SEA) and project specific assessment; recognition of traditional land use rights as part of the resource management regime; recognition of the necessity and importance of public participation and provision for effective facilitation of this feature by law.

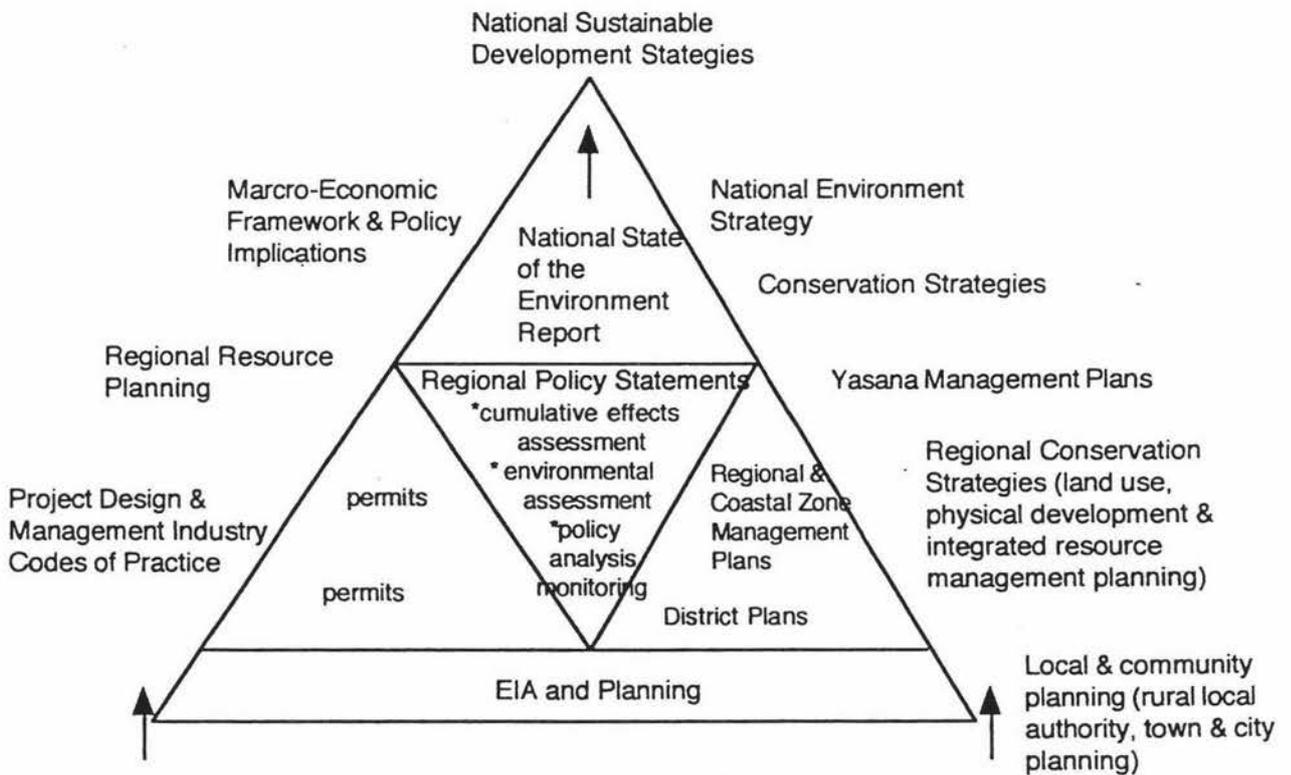
### **A Working Model which uses EIA as a Major Tool for Planning**

The following model (refer to Figure 8.3), adapted from both Saddler (1994) and Dixon (1994), shows a suggested SEA which provides an example of the importance of EIA being incorporated into the planning regime in Fiji.

This approach to introducing an integrated planning process into the environmental planning management cycle could be applied broadly at a national, regional and more specifically, project level. This aids in the formulation or reinforcement of sustainable tourism development policies and the avoidance and mitigation of environmental degradation such as coastal erosion and loss of plant and fish life. EIA integrated into the planning regime should highlight such adverse effects before irreversible decisions are made in the permit process.

This will provide a pro-active platform which focuses on cumulative effects and on the monitoring of permit compliances and policies. This should ensure the preservation of Fiji's natural and cultural heritage through the protection of property rights, and through the provision of mediation and development permits and preparation of plans. The integration of planning

**Figure 8.3**  
**Strategies for Sustainable Development**



Source: Adapted from Sadler (1994) and Dixon (1994).

and development permits and preparation of plans. The integration of planning and EIA at both the consent and plan levels should be the foundation to achieving sustainable development.

### **National Coastal Policy Statement**

To establish a new coastal environmental planning and management regime a consultative process should be put in place to determine the exact nature of the above mentioned reforms at policy, institutional and legal levels. Given the right political climate a National Coastal Policy Statement (NCPS) could be formulated along lines similar to those suggested in the RMA (Part V) (refer to Appendix 8.4b). This NCPS should promote sustainable development and should recognise the relationships rural indigenous Fijians have with the coastal environment.

In order to facilitate the goals of the NCPS to filter down to the local level, the NLTB should be given more statutory powers that in turn enable the various *Turaga ni Vanua* (chiefs) to have authority over the management of natural resources, according to traditional protocols. This could be however accomplished efficiently and effectively by allowing the various *yasanas* (provincial areas) to collectively express their environmental values and these views could then be compiled into a planning document which would act as an indication of indigenous Fijian planning requirements; thus serving as a valuable information base in the consultative process and solving some of the problems intrinsic to having a largely mono-cultural coastal planning framework. Financial assistance should be provided for this process through the NLTB in conjunction with local authorities.

In addition, as suggested in the NES, the institutional framework, which is at

present too sectoral could be improved by setting up an EMU in all Government agencies which deal with development and resource utilisation. These units would in turn all be linked to a central Department of Environment.

From a coastal planning perspective the outcome of the reforms should suggest distinctive administrative roles so that the planning framework does not become cumbersome and obsolete. Fiji could provide a close arrangement between the agencies concerned, the NLTB, and the regional/local regional authorities to be entrusted with responsibility to take care of the coastal environment (refer to Figure 8.4).

### **Summary of Reforms**

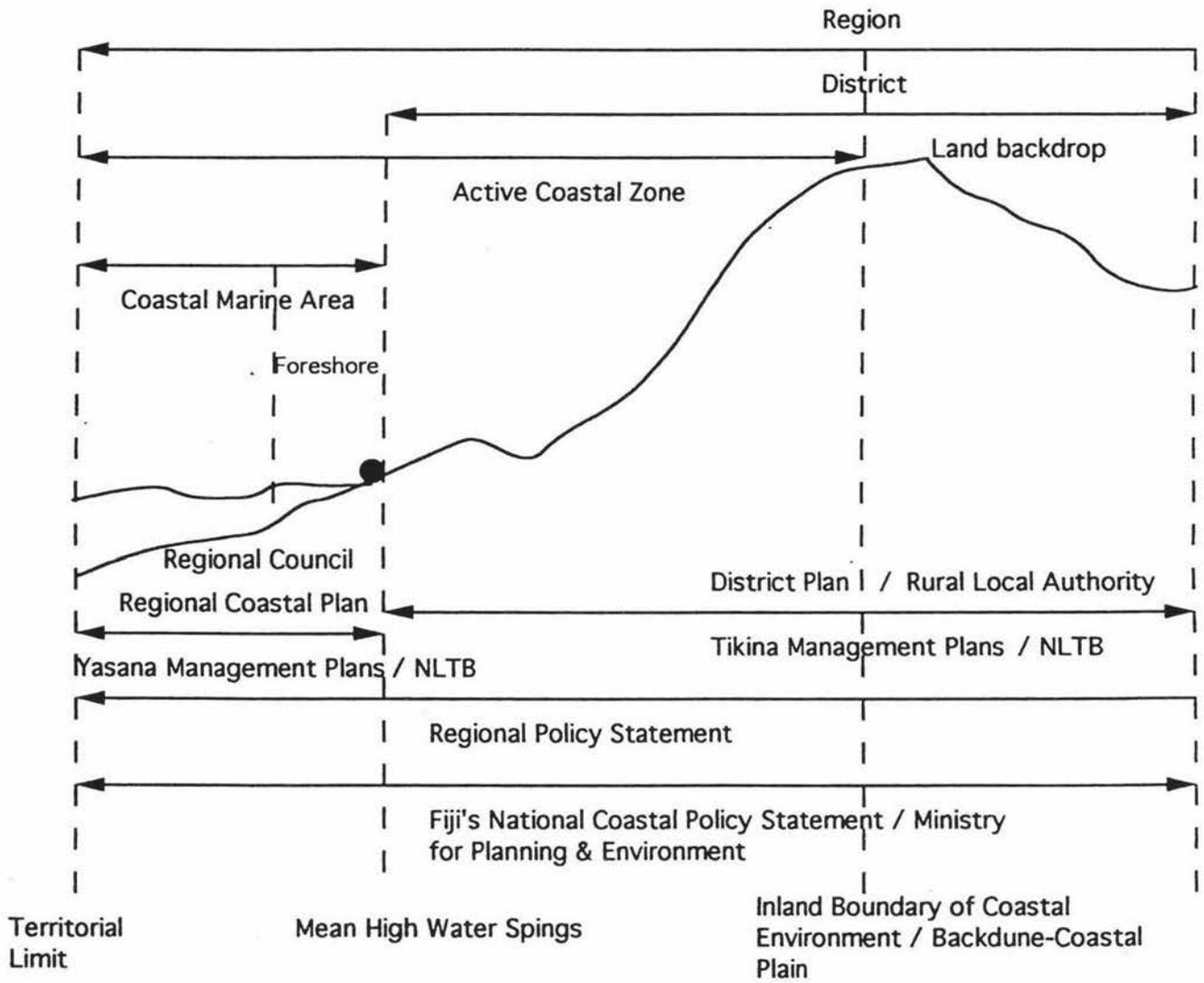
1. Policy should be focussed on sustainable development.
2. Institutions should have defined responsibilities and should be made accountable to resource management in the Fijian context.
3. Integrated land and water resource management legislation should be made effective in the modern environmental context.
4. The environmental planning and management framework has to become an important filter of tourist investors and developments along the coast.
5. SEA should become a vital tool for the assessment of policies and plans at national and regional levels.
6. EIA should be integrated into the planning framework.
7. There is a need for an effective coastal zone planning framework which incorporates traditional Fijian values.

Overall, these reforms should shift the focus of the present environmental planning regime towards a recognition of the link between traditional Fijian

environmental management which is based on the concept of *Vanua*, and the practice of sustainable development. The focus this thesis has on the coastal environment is recognition of the importance of this environment to not only the traditional land owners but to the tourist industry and to the nation as a whole.

Figure 8.4

**Institutional Arrangements for Organisations which are Responsible for the Coastal Environment**



Source: Adapted from Department of Conservation (1992).

## Glossary of Fijian Words and Phrases

<i>i sevu</i>	offering first fruits
<i>taukei or vaka vanua</i>	the Fijian way
<i>i tokatoka</i>	sub-clan or extended family
<i>kalou vu</i>	gods
<i>kawa</i>	generations
<i>koro</i>	village, mana, spiritual sacredness
<i>lewe ni vanua, gonedau, mataisau</i>	a sense of responsibility for the gifts
<i>Turaga ni vanua</i>	appointed to stewards
<i>mataqali</i>	sub-clan or extended family
<i>mataqali bati</i>	warriors
<i>mataqali bete</i>	prestly unit
<i>mataqali gonedau ni wai</i>	sea stewards
<i>mataqali mataisau</i>	artisans or builders
<i>na kena taqomaki na yau bula me</i>	a sense of commitment to
<i>baleti ira na noda kawa</i>	safeguard all natural resources
	for future generations
<i>na sau ni vanua</i>	the intrinsic life of the land
<i>qele ni teitei</i>	gardening land
<i>solevu/kerekere</i>	economic ethic of reciprocity
<i>tabus</i>	forbidden acts
<i>na tabu kei na mana ni vanua</i>	a sacred regard for the whole of
	nature and its responsibilities as
	being gifts from God
<i>tanoa</i>	yagona bowl
<i>taukei ni vanua</i>	native land owners
<i>tikina</i>	district
<i>turaga ni yavusa</i>	the chief
<i>vanua</i>	environment in the fullest sense/ also used to mean tribe
<i>vakarokoroko taka/doka na yau bula</i>	a reverence for total creation as a
	whole
<i>vanua ni qoli qoli</i>	fishing areas
<i>veikau</i>	forest land
<i>veilomani vaka veiwekani</i>	a sense of kinship with fellow
	beings
<i>yagona</i>	a traditional drink
<i>yasana</i>	region
<i>yavusa</i>	clan
<i>yavutu</i>	founding ancestors' house sites

## **Appendices**

## Appendix 1.1

### Definition of Sustainability from *Caring for the Earth*

#### *BOX 1 Sustainability: a Question of Definition*

*Caring for the Earth* uses the word "sustainable" in several combinations, such as "sustainable development", "sustainable economy", "sustainable society", and sustainable use". It is important for an understanding of the Strategy to know what we mean by these terms.

If an activity is sustainable, for all practical purposes it can continue forever.

When people define an activity as sustainable, however, it is on the basis of what they know at the time. There can be no long-term guarantee of sustainability, because many factors remain unknown or unpredictable. The moral we draw from this is: be conservative in actions that could affect the environment, study the effects of such actions carefully, and learn from your mistakes quickly.

The World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) defined "sustainable development" as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs".

The term has been criticised as ambiguous and open to a wide range of interpretations, many of which are contradictory. The confusion has been caused because "sustainable development", "sustainable growth" and "sustainable use" have been used interchangeably, as if their meanings were the same. They are not. "Sustainable growth" is a contradiction in terms: nothing physical can grow indefinitely. "Sustainable use" is applicable only to renewable resources: it means using them at rates within their capacity for renewal.

"Sustainable development" is used in this Strategy to mean: improving the quality of human life while living within the carrying capacity of supporting ecosystems.

A "sustainable economy" is the product of sustainable development. It maintains its natural resource base. It can continue to develop by adapting, and through improvements in knowledge, organisation, technical efficiency, and wisdom.

A "sustainable society" lives by the nine principles outlined in this chapter.

Source: IUCN/UNEP/WWF (1991).

STATE LAND STATISTICS

Type of Crown Land	Total Acreage After Cession (In hectares)	Total No of Reserve Claims	Acreage Approved for Reserve to Fijians to Date (In hectares)	Areas Recommended for Reserve but yet To be Finalised (In hectares)	Areas used by Government (In hectares)	Total Rent Collected in 1988	Amount paid to FAB in 1988
a) Crown Freehold							
(i) Crown Land with Title	31,096.8 ha	6	670 ha	697.2 ha	Unavailable	///A	///A
(ii) Crown Land without Title	30,153.5 ha	None				///A	///A
b) Crown Schedule A	60,500.5 ha	206	165.2 ha	13,254.4 ha	10,210.8 ha	\$146,581.07	\$131,923.69
c) Crown Schedule B	30,480.9 ha	38	6168.0 ha	1,039.2 ha		\$ 28,004.07	\$ 25,204.40
<b>TOTAL:</b>	<b>160,231.7 ha</b>	<b>330</b>	<b>7004.0 ha</b>	<b>15,090.0 ha</b>	<b>10,210.8 ha</b>	<b>\$174,586.74</b>	<b>\$157,128.09</b>

State Land Statistics

Appendix 3.1

2. Total Number of Crown Leases in Fiji - 14,688.
3. Breakdown on types of leases i.e. Residential, Industrial, Commercial, Agricultural, etc - Figures not available.
4. Breakdown of lessees by Ethnic Groups - Figures not available.
5. Legal Provision for reservation of State Lands for Fijians:
  - (a) Native Land Trust Act - Section 18 (See Appendix A).
  - (b) Cabinet Decision CP(75) Item 19 of 9th July, 1975 (See Appendix B).

## STATE LAND STATISTICS

## 1. Total Acreage of Crown Lands after Cession:

Type of Crown Land	Total Acreage after Cession	Acreage reverted to Fijians to date
(a) Crown Freehold		
(i) Crown Land with Title	31,096.8 ha	670 ha
(ii) Crown Land without Title	38,153.5 ha	--
(b) Crown Schedule A	60,600.5 ha	165.2 ha
(c) Crown Schedule B	10,480.9 ha	6168.3 ha
<b>Total:</b>	<b>160,231.7 ha</b>	<b>7004 ha</b>

## 2. Total Number of Crown Lands Recommended for Reserve but certain Statutory procedures still yet to be completed to revert lands to the Fijians:

(a) Crown Schedule A	- 13,254.4 ha
(b) Crown Schedule B	- 1,339.2 ha
(c) Crown land with Title	- 697.2 ha
<b>Total:</b>	<b>16,390.8 ha</b>

## 3. Native Reserve Claims over Crown Schedule A and B Lands: (inclusive of those already reverted to Fijians)

(a) Crown Schedule A	- 286 claims
(b) Crown Schedule B	- 39 claims
(c) Crown Land with Title	- 6 claims
<b>Total:</b>	<b>- 530 claims</b>

## 4. Areas of Crown Schedule A and B occupied by Government: 10,210 ha

## 5. Total Number of Crown Leases in Fiji: 14,688

## 6. Rent on Crown Schedule A and B paid to the Fijian Affairs Board Annually: (Amount shown is for 1988)

Type of Crown Land	Total Rent Collected	Amount Paid to FAB
(a) Crown Schedule A	\$146,581.87	\$131,923.69
(b) Crown Schedule B	\$ 29,004.37	\$ 25,204.40

## 7. Legal provision for reservation of State Lands for Fijians:

- (a) Native Land Trust Act - Section 18 (See Appendix A)
- (b) Cabinet Decision C?(75) Item 19 of 9th July, 1975 (See Appendix B)

TYPE OF LAND	SUB TOTAL		TOTAL		PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL LAND AREA
	AREAS IN HECTARES	AREAS IN ACRES	AREAS IN HECTARES	AREAS IN ACRES	
<u>NATIVE LAND</u> Communally owned land Extinct mataqali lands	1507568 16556	3725283 40910	1524124	3766193	83.29
<u>CROWN LAND</u> xx Crown freehold land xxx Crown Schedule 'A' xxxx Crown Schedule 'B'	67068 60501 26315	165729 149500 65027	153884	380256	8.41
<u>FREEHOLD LAND</u> Crown and Native grants (other than Crown freehold)	147448	364351	147448	364351	8.06
<u>ROMANIAN LAND</u> Communally owned	4452	11000	4452	11000	.24%
GRAND TOTAL		4521800	4521800	4521800	100.00%

- x Lands of Mataqali reported extinct but not yet transferred to Government.
- xx Includes C.S.R. Co Ltd freehold lands purchased by Government
- xxx Crown Schedule 'A' Land is land which has reverted to the Government as Ultimate Ngqoro on extinction of the Fijian land owning unit but does not include land of Mataqali reported extinct but not yet transferred to Government.
- xxxx Crown Schedule 'B' Land is land which was decreed by the Native Lands Commission to be unoccupied at the date of Cession of the Fiji Islands to the British Crown and to have remained unoccupied up to the time of the sittings of the Commission and to which no title has been created by the operation of any native custom which was in force before Cession.

- These figures do not account for:
- (i) land resumed or acquired by Government since the issue of the original Crown Grants and Native Grants and where the resumptions and acquisitions are not registered against the titles.
  - (ii) occasional transfers of freehold lands by way of dedication accepted by Government
  - (iii) landownership rights acquired by Government under sale and purchase agreements since coming into force of the Fiji (Constitution) Order 1966.
  - (iv) land acquired by Government by enactment of law.
  - (v) Crown land recommended to be allotted to or set aside as native reserve in favour of, Fijian land claiming unit.

Source: Pulea (1992).

## Appendix 3.2

### Excerpt from the NES

#### 5 Achieving Sustainable Development

##### 5.1 Objectives of the National Environment Strategy

In the process of achieving sustainable development, the National Environment Strategy adopts the following major objectives:

- \* to protect ecological processes and life-support systems (such as freshwater and coastal systems, soil, forest, urban and agroecosystems) on which human survival and development depend;
- \* to provide for cultural, spiritual and other non-material needs of society by protection of, and development of diversity in the use of, natural resources;
- \* to preserve genetic diversity (the range of genetic material found in organisms) on which depends the functioning of many life-support systems and actual and potential commercial, medical and scientific uses.
- \* to ensure the sustainable use of renewable resources (especially fish, forests, freshwater and arable lands) on which the Fiji economy is overwhelmingly based;
- \* to ensure that non-renewable resources are depleted at a rate that enables transition to the use of more abundant materials and ultimate sustainable use of renewable resources.

In achieving these objectives the National Environment Strategy distinguishes three components which the Government will need to develop. They are:

- \* an effective environmental management capability;
- \* effective heritage protection;
- \* meaningful public involvement.

Source: Government of Fiji (1992).

## Appendix 3.3

### THE NATIONAL PLANNING PROCESS

#### DEVELOPMENT PLANNING AT A NATIONAL LEVEL

Two principle documents in Fiji form the basic guidelines for development policy and planning. They include the national Development Plans (the last being DP9 1985 - 1990) which are now being replaced by more detailed Sectoral Development Plans and strategies, and the Budget Manual.

Although the Development Plans are ostensibly designed to direct development in Fiji, in reality they are very often tend to be used *ex post* as a means of justifying development proposals that have already been initiated within Government Departments, private developers, or NGOs. Environmental policies within the Development Plans themselves are rarely fully implemented. Chape (1990) summarised the implementation rate of environmental proposals within the Development Plans over the last 14 years, showing that the rate of implementation is relatively low.

Thus the correspondence between development policies within these national plans and the implementation of these policies as development programmes or projects is limited. This is likely to be a function of a lack of political will to implement certain aspects of the Development Plans as they do not necessarily maintain a high priority status within Central Government development ranking. This may also be attributable to such plans not presenting projects or programmes that can easily be grafted onto specific management projects within existing institutions, particularly in light of likely resource deficiencies for environmental programmes. As will be shown below the ability of environmental protection projects and programmes to attract budget finance is limited due to the way in which development is assessed and appraised at a national level in Fiji.

The budgetary procedures relating to project implementation involve a combination of internal budgetary resources and that provided as aid. Aid, being a large component of development planning finance in Fiji, forms an important part of the development process. In 1984, 30% of the capital budget for development was provided by aid donors (Central Planning Office 1984).

#### NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNING INSTITUTIONS

A central institutional component of development planning in Fiji consists of the Budget Coordinating Committee (BCC) which was established in 1980. The BCC is responsible for reconciling yearly budget estimates with Development Plan priorities. This body is comprised of three people - the Permanent Secretary for Finance (Chair), the Secretary of the Public Service Commission, and the Director of Economic Planning. The Ministry of Finance is responsible within the BCC for examining expenditure linked with existing Government programmes, arranging finance to cover internal budget deficits, monitoring and controlling annual budget spending, and revenue collection. The Public Service Commission is responsible for managing the staffing of the Public Service, while the

Central Planning Office (headed by the Director of Economic Planning) must appraise new expenditure proposals by Ministries, and manage the allocation of development resources.

Within Government two development planning sub-committees exist with specific functions relating to the management of the development planning and budgeting on a national scale. These include the Development Sub-Committee (DSC) and the Macroeconomic Sub-Committee.

The DSC lies between the BCC and the Cabinet and consists of Permanent Secretaries and Department heads who represent Government Ministers. Its role is to receive and discuss proposals arising from the BCC concerning the budget. The DSC provides Permanent Secretaries with a means of expressing concerns relating to budgetary estimates. Following such dialogue the DSC is able to brief their Minister prior to the presentation of the budget to Cabinet.

The main role of the Macroeconomic Sub-Committee is to coordinate monetary, fiscal, and general economic policy, in addition to preparing projections for the main budget and macroeconomic variables. As a result of these undertakings it is able to advise the BCC on Cabinet spending. Any development proposals that involve a macroeconomic valuation for justification for receiving budget resources, such as establishing protected natural areas as a national macroeconomic resource for nature tourism development, would need to be channelled through the Macroeconomic Sub-Committee to get a hearing in Cabinet.

Each spending authority, with the assistance of the Central Planning Office, is required to prepare an "Indicative List" which identifies major economic project that are intended for inclusion in the budget. This list is submitted to the BCC which uses it in the preparation of the "Design List". The Design List comprises an initial stage in the project planning which documents an assessment of projects submitted for funding in the coming budget. A priority ranking is assigned to projects by the BCC with regard to available Government funding. The Design List thus gives Cabinet a "preview" of the coming budget.

General personnel arrangements associated with aid development projects (as with other Government development programmes) are administered by the Public Service Commission, which reviews and approves staffing appointments including those that are only partially funded through aid.

The Central Planning Office (CPO) has 5 main areas of responsibility with regard to aid development assistance which includes project identification, formulation and programming, appraisal and analysis, documentation, monitoring and performance analysis. In addition to this the CPO provides advice on policy matters through its links with various Ministries/Departments that may be requesting aid assistance. The CPO must also assess the appropriateness of aid requests with regard to their relevance to national development objectives. It is also necessary for the CPO to ensure that the implementation of aid funded projects is to the satisfaction of the donor with regard to the specific objectives of the project.

The CPO's primary function, whether it be for aid development or development financed from within the national budget, is that of a

development planning advisory body although its activities are not supported by statutory decree. It operates through approved procedures and not legally binding regulations.

#### AID AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In general Government development projects are financed through a combination of budget resources within Fiji, borrowing, and aid. Aid itself tends to fall into two main types. One consist of budgetary grants, and the other is aid-in-kind which remains outside the budget. Negotiations on aid development assistance tend to operate on the basis of the financial requirements for items that feature in rank on the Design List. Externally funded aid projects are rarely fully self contained as they often involve local costs through the requirement of local staffing resources to assist in the implementation of the projects. For this reason aid project must compete with the overall allocation of development planning resources within Fiji.

The administration of the aid programme is carried out through the Aid Unit, which attempts to use aid resources to fund activities contained within the budget. The Aid Unit also liaises with representatives of aid donors, Government Ministries/Departments, and the Central Planning Office for project appraisal and documentation. Other Aid Unit activities include financial monitoring of aid projects, and advising Government institutions on aid issues.

Because aid financed development forms an integral link with Fijis external relations with donor countries the Department of Foreign Affairs maintains an involvement in aid development. This is carried out through the screening of all formal communications between aid donors and recipient Ministries or Departments. In addition to this the Department of Foreign Affairs requires that it be kept informed of any informal communication as well. Foreign donors are instructed by the Government that only aid requests that have been channelled through the Department of Foreign Affairs are to be regarded as official Government aid requests.

The Aid Co-ordination Committee (ACC) is responsible for directing aid resources into the various sectors, and has the Aid Unit as its secretariat. The DSC also maintains a central involvement with aid through its role in approving any major aid proposals and making recommendations to Cabinet on aid financed proposals. The effectiveness of this role of the DSC very much depends on the awareness of members of the DSC on things like the state of the economy and the comprehensiveness of any other relevant information channelled through the DSC.

#### Aid Project Planning Procedures

Project aid is separated into 3 broad categories depending largely on scale. They include normal projects, minor projects and small projects. As of 1984 normal project aid tended to involve costs in the order of FJ\$10,000 to FJ\$10,000,000, whereas minor projects tended to involve

costs of around FJ\$15,000. Small projects are generally covered through a block allocation of funds each amounting to FJ\$10,000 or less. The small projects programme is generally designed for rural community development projects. Such projects are initiated at the District level or lower and are screened at the monthly meetings of District Commissioners which is chaired by the Minister of Rural Development. The definition of minor projects is less definite, although they tend to involve aid assistance grants for equipment, cash grants or the undertaking of feasibility studies. They are also administered slightly differently to normal projects in a less rigid fashion via the Aid Unit.

Aid projects that do not fall into the minor or small project categories are screened by the Government which must consider a number of issues which include:-

- The likelihood of the project affecting local cost components including future costs to the national budget,
- Its impact on national development objectives
- Its priority in relation to other projects
- Its cost/benefit implications to the country
- The availability of local budget support
- The effect it will have on local personnel resources

In order to be able to assess the above considerations the Government has established a specific procedure for dealing with project aid. The procedure is as follows:-

1. A Ministry makes its submission to the Public Service Commission (PSC).
2. The PSC screens the request and, if it is satisfied that there is a case for overseas recruitment it, advises the Ministry to refer the submission to the Development Subcommittee (DSC) through the Aid Unit.
3. The Aid Unit identifies a suitable donor and recommends a source of funding.
4. If the project is approved by the DSC it is passed onto the Prime Minister via the PSC for their consent.
5. The requesting Ministry asks the Secretary of Foreign Affairs to issue a formal request to the donor, also via the PSC.

#### THE PROJECT PLANNING CYCLE

The main planning procedures relating to development projects in Fiji, irrespective of whether they are to be funded through aid or from within the national budget are as follows:-

- Project identification
- Project design
- Project submission
- Project appraisal, priority listing, and approval
- Implementation

Monitoring and evaluation  
Feedback and policy readjustment

The responsibility for project identification and design rests with the particular Ministry or Department. Project submission is dictated to some extent by the timetabling of the planning cycle as it relates to annual budgetary planning. Submission closing date is in March although preliminary submissions should be forwarded to the Central Planning Office or the Public Service Commission prior to the submission date. In 1983 the Budget Coordinating Committee approved a procedure to require Department or Ministries to submit projects in order of priority. Following the formal submission of projects they become subject to scrutiny by the component members of the BCC - the Ministry of Finance, the Public Service Commission, and the Central Planning Office.

In general this process is carried out to allow the Ministry of Finance to appraise the financial aspects of projects, enable the CPO to reconcile project design and objectives with national development plans, and allow the Public Service Commission to evaluate the various personnel arrangements associated with the project.

A Design List is prepared for all project submissions based on their priority listing by the Ministry or Department that submitted the proposal, which is followed by priority setting from within the component members of the BCC. Upon the completion of this section of the planning cycle the projects are placed into one of 4 categories depending on their status with regard to implementation and funding. The categories include:-

- A These are projects that are able to be implemented immediately pursuant to their relevance to national development plans and the degree of their preparation.
- A2 These projects are of similar merit to A1 projects but require further information to be presented before they can be implemented.
- B These projects are deferred to a subsequent year.
- C This category includes projects that have been rejected by the Government, or projects that are able to be funded from their own resources.

The speed at which project proposals can get through the planning system depends very much on the level of compliance with development plan priorities, and the degree of pre-submission screening they have had.

The implementation of projects is largely the responsibility of the Ministry or Department that presented the proposal. Monitoring and evaluation as indicated earlier is carried out by the relevant Ministry or Department in liaison with the CPO. A project plan timetable is presented in appendix 8.

The CPO supports three sub-agencies that deal with specific aspects of development planning. They include the Sectoral Unit, the Macro Unit, and

the Regional Unit.

The Sectoral Unit monitor sectoral performance, coordinates the implementation of sectoral development projects, prepares sectoral policy studies, and engages in the planning and evaluation of sectoral projects in order that they comply with national development plans.

The Macro Unit has a role in the economic forecasting for budget planning, which also helps in the setting of national planning targets. This Unit can also provide alternative public investment scenarios based on possible directions of the national economy. Their forecasting inputs are influenced by import and foreign exchange components of the national economy.

The Regional Unit is responsible for project planning through the preparation of Regional Development Plans and is able to operate in an inter-sectoral fashion. This can provide a basis for cooperation between Ministries and Departments, and coordinate development projects at a regional level. It is also responsible for ensuring that development projects comply with regional development plans.

A separate yet important Unit of the CPO is the Project Planning and Evaluation Unit (PPU) which has the principle role of facilitating the functioning of the project planning system.

## Appendix 3.4

### Excerpts from the General Provisions

PROVISION 9: The schedules, referred to in Provision 2(1), which shall apply to any Development within the Planning Scheme area, are:-

Schedule 'A': Developments within Zones

Schedule 'B': Site Dimensional Requirements and

Schedule 'C': Hotels, Tourist Apartments, Private Hotels, Boarding Houses and Guest Houses.

Schedule 'D': Advertising Development

Schedule 'E': Parking Area, Layout of

Schedule 'F': Special Requirements in Respective Zones

Schedule 'G': General Requirements in all Zones

Schedule 'H': Subdivisions, requirements

166

The relevant ZONES in which a DEVELOPMENT may be carried out, indicated in accordance with the classification of:- Permitted Development denoted by 'P', Conditional Development denoted by 'C' and Non-permissible Development denoted by '-', are as tabulated hereunder:-  
 \* Note 1 - Warehouse and wholesaling establishment to be the only industry allowed as conditional use

CATEGORY OF DEVELOPMENT ZONES	ACCESSORY BUILDING ADVERTISING (Schedule D)			BOARDING HOUSE, PRIVATE HOTEL ETC. (Schedule C)	CIVIC	COMMERCIAL GENERAL	COMMERCIAL LOCAL	COMMUNITY	HOTEL (Schedule C)	INDUSTRY GENERAL	INDUSTRY HEAVY	INDUSTRY LIGHT 'A'	INDUSTRY LIGHT 'B'	INDUSTRY NOXIOUS	MULTI-UNIT RESIDENTIAL	PUBLIC NOTICE	RECREATION SPACE	RESIDENTIAL	SERVICE STATION	SPECIAL AGRICULTURAL	TOURIST APARTMENT
	P/C	P/C	-																		
RESIDENTIAL 'A'	P/C	P/C	-	-	C	-	-	C	-	-	-	C	-	-	P/C	P	P	P	-	-	-
RESIDENTIAL 'B'	P/C	P/C	-	C	C	-	-	C	C	-	-	C	-	-	P	P	P	P	C	-	C
RESIDENTIAL 'C'	P/C	P/C	-	C	C	-	-	C	-	-	-	C	-	-	P	P	P	P	C	-	C
RESIDENTIAL 'D'	P/C	P/C	-	C	C	-	-	C	-	-	-	C	-	-	P	P	P	P	C	-	C
COMMERCIAL 'A'	P	P/C	C	-	C	P	P	C	C	C*	-	P	P	-	C	P	P	P	C	-	C
COMMERCIAL 'B'	P	P/C	C	C	C	P	P	C	C	C*	-	P	P	-	P	P	P	P	C	-	C
COMMERCIAL 'C'	P	P/C	C	-	C	-	P	C	C	-	-	P	P	-	P	P	P	P	C	-	C
GENERAL INDUSTRY	P	P/C	-	-	C	-	C	C	-	P	-	P	P	-	-	P	P	-	C	-	-
HEAVY INDUSTRY	P	P/C	-	-	C	-	C	C	-	P	P	-	P	-	-	P	P	-	C	-	-
NOXIOUS INDUSTRY	P	C	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	C	-	-	P	-	P	P	-	C	-	-
NOISE HAZARD	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	P	P	C	-	P	P	C	C	P	C
CIVIC	C	C	C	-	P	C	C	C	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	P	P	C	C	-	-
RURAL	C	C	-	C	C	-	C	C	C	-	C	P	P	C	C	P	P	C	C	C	C
SPECIAL USES ZONE	C	C	C	C	C	C	-	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	C	P	C	C	C	C	C

Provision 9: continued

This Schedule C specifies the Maximum Density and Carparking requirements for :-

Hotel and Tourist Apartment Developments; and Boarding House, Guest House and Private Hotel Developments.

All Developments in the above categories shall comply with the following requirements in addition to other requirements in the particular zone in which these are permitted.

(a) Hotels and Tourist Apartments - Maximum Density

In sewerred Commercial 'A' and Commercial 'B' Zones, the maximum permitted densities for hotels and tourist apartments shall be determined by the relevant plot ratio given in Provision 9 Schedule B.

For unsewerred Commercial 'B' Zones, and all other zones where hotels or tourist apartments may be permitted the maximum permitted densities shall be in accordance with the following categories :-

- (i) Type A being cottage or burre styles of low density development.

Maximum density 12 bedroom units per hectare. (see note below)

Maximum building height one storey.

Minimum site area 2.0 hectares.

- (ii) Type B being resort type of hotels and tourist apartments in rural areas.

Maximum density 37 bedroom units per hectare. (see note below).

Maximum building height:  
three storeys.

Minimum Site Area

Schedule C(iii) Type C

Urban type hotels and Tourist Apartment Development outside of the central business districts, and in unsewered Commercial 'B' areas.

Maximum Density 100 bedroom units per hectare.

(see note below).

Maximum building height 3 storeys.

Minimum Site Area

4000 sq. metres.

NOTE: In special cases, such as a site with an outlook over a scenic expanse water, or substantial open space the Director may permit the maximum density to be increased to the following :-

Type A Hotels/Tourist Apartments 25 bedroom units per hectare.

Type B Hotels/Tourist Apartments 75 bedroom units per hectare.

Type C Hotels/Tourist Apartments 125 bedroom units per hectare.

In all cases approval of schemes at maximum densities in unsewered areas will not be granted if, in the opinion of the Director the land does not lend itself to, or the applicant has not made adequate provision for sullage and sewerage disposal and effluent filtration within the confines of the site.

For the purpose of calculating densities in respect of tourist apartments and condominiums, each bedroom shall be counted as one bedroom unit.

(b) Boarding Houses, Guest Houses & Private Hotels :

The maximum permitted building density shall not exceed a plot ratio of 0.2:1 in unsewered areas and 1:1 in sewerred areas.

(2) Car Parking

Hotels and Tourist Apartments:

- (a) 1 car space per three bedrooms; or 1 car space per 7.5 m<sup>2</sup> of publicly usable floor area which ever is the greater, excluding access and service areas provided that only in special circumstances parking and driveway areas may be permitted to exceed 50% of the open area of the site. With the prior approval of the Director the Local Authority may reduce this ratio if in any instance it is satisfied that other satisfactory off-site car parking facilities are or will be available in the vicinity.

(b) Boarding Houses, Guest Houses & Private Hotels :

1 car space per bedroom provided that only in special circumstances parking and driveway areas may be permitted to exceed 50% of the open area of the site, provided that with the prior approval of the Director the Local Authority may reduce this ratio if in any instance it is satisfied that other satisfactory off-site car parking facilities are or will be available in the vicinity.

Schedule F

way limiting the discretion of the  
Director:-

<u>Type of Development</u>	<u>Minimum Area</u>
<u>Residential development</u>	
a multi-unit residential dev.	at least 2000m <sup>2</sup>
a boarding house, guest house or private hotel	at least 2000m <sup>2</sup>
a hotel or tourist apartment	at least 1 hectare
a low cost housing estate	on its merits
a single residential lot	at least 1000m <sup>2</sup>
<u>Commercial development</u>	
a local shop with attached resi. unit	at least 1000m <sup>2</sup>
a tourism hotel complex	at least 1 hectare
a single industrial development	at least 2000m <sup>2</sup>
an economic agricultural holding	at least 1.2 hectare
School	at least 1.5 hectare
Government and Civic	on its merits.

provided that in all cases provision shall be made for the following requirements where applicable or appropriate :- road widening, connections to public roads, frontages to public roads, access denial strips, reserves for public open space, foreshore reserves, foreshore yards, building lines, access to the sea, reserves for water supply, sewage disposal and drainage, etc.

- (45) All Development applications, will be required to comply with the requirements of the Central Board of Health with respect to :- water supply, sewage treatment and disposal, and the disposal of household and trade wastes; these requirements will be paramount factors when the Director determines

Schedule F

the application with respect to :- location, access, use, size of lot, plot ratio, density, off street parking and other appropriate factors. The overall effect to be attained will be more open development than that prevailing in urban areas.

(46) Sewage Disposal

When considering the method of sewage treatment submitted the Director will take into consideration (1) the ultimate size and/or density of the proposal and (2) the development potential of the whole locality; the Director may require an upgrading of the method of sewage treatment proposed.

For general guidance, the following methods of sewage treatment in respect of the type of development may be submitted for consideration in localities where local conditions are suitable.

Methods of sewage treatment (grading upwards from

(a) to (d) :-

- (a) approved water-seal latrine.
- (b) approved individual septic tank and effluent disposal.
- (c) approved sewage treatment plant and effluent disposal.
- (d) connection to an approved water-borne sewerage system.

For general guidance, the following Types of Development and the relevant minimum grade method of sewage treatment which will be considered in respect of each type are as follows :-

Schedule GProvision 9 Continued.

The GENERAL REQUIREMENTS & DISPENSATIONS  
in all Zones are :-

(1) PUBLIC UTILITIES :-  
 Government or the Local Authority public utility service structures i.e. water, electricity, drainage, sewerage and tele-communications, not greater than 9.0 metres in height have Permitted Development rights in all Zones; all other such service developments are "Conditional Developments" and require the prior approval of the Director.

(2) BUILDING DESIGN AND LAYOUT :-

Where the Local Authority or the Director considers that building design or layout in a development application requires special consideration it may seek the advice of a Panel of Architects nominated by the Fiji Association of Architects and the Local Authority or the Director may specify the modifications it requires.

(3) PRESERVATION OF BUILDINGS OF HISTORIC OR ARCHITECTURAL MERIT :-

Where the Local Authority or the Director in consultation with the National Trust for Fiji considers that a building is of historic interest or of architectural merit, it may order the preservation of the building.

CONSERVATION OF SITES, OBJECTS AND AREAS OF NATURAL BEAUTY :-

The Local Authority or the Director in consultation with the National Trust for

Fiji may order the conservation of a site, object or area of natural beauty.

(5) LIGHT AND VENTILATION FOR HABITABLE ROOMS:-

In Zones other than Residential Zones every habitable room shall have a minimum of 2.0m<sup>2</sup> of unobstructed window opening facing directly onto a yard or street as required for multi-unit residential development in a Residential 'C' Zone or onto a court of minimum dimensions 4.5 metres by 4.5 metres provided that in every portion of a building erected for residential use in a zone other than a Residential Zone where it is proposed to provide a window opening on a side wall, that wall shall be setback in accordance with the above Residential 'C' Zone requirements throughout the entire length of that section of such building which is intended to be used for residential purposes.

(6) ACCESSORY BUILDINGS :-

In any zone where an Accessory Building Development is a 'Conditional Development' the total floor area of such Building Development shall not exceed 37m<sup>2</sup>.

(7) EXTENSIONS:-

All extensions to existing buildings shall form an architectural entity therewith.

(8) VIEW PROTECTION AREAS :-

In any Zone, any area especially designated on the Scheme Plan as a View Protection Area, all Development shall be "Conditional" in respect of site coverage and disposition of yard space.

## Appendix 5.1

### Format of an Environmental Impact Assessment

- 1 Name of Proposal: (To include name or relevant part of larger proposal).  
  
State of Commitment: State whether at the concept planning or design stage.
- 2 **Objectives and Options:**
  - (a) State the purpose(s) of the action proposed.
  - (b) State the options open to achieve the purpose defined; and the advantages and disadvantages of each option in terms of the objectives.
- 3 **Description of Proposal**
  - (a) Describe the proposed action and include the necessary technical data, photographs, maps and other information relevant to an assessment of the environmental impact of the proposal.
  - (b) Give reasons (environmental, social, economic etc) for following the action proposed, including where relevant explanations for site selection and the choice of locality.
- 4 **Description of Existing Environment**
  - (a) Give a general description of the characteristics and condition, in qualitative and quantitative terms, of the physical, biological and human environment prior to the implementation of the project. This should include a definition for the purposes of the report of the spatial boundaries within the environment which is expected to be affected by the proposal.
  - (b) To the extent relevant, to the assessment of the environmental impacts of the proposal, describe the geology, soils, flora and fauna, water quality, climate, hydrology. The functioning of the eco-system of other aspects of the physical or biological environment. Any environmentally sensitive areas of special or unique scientific, socio-economic or cultural value, including any endangered species or important habitat types should be fully described.
  - (c) Describe the relevant aspects of the existing human environment including land use, community patterns, man-made facilities and activities etc.

## 5 **Impact of the Environment**

In considering the possible environmental impacts of the proposal, the following aspects should be fully assessed.

- (i) Adverse and/or beneficial effects;
- (ii) Primary and secondary effects;
- (iii) Unavoidable effects;
- (iv) Immediate short-term effects;
- (v) The probability of an effect occurring;
- (vi) and whether or not any changes are irreversible or will offer or consume any irreplaceable resources.

In each case the magnitude, intensity and significance of the effect is to be assessed and areas of uncertainty identified.

The new amenities, if any, created by the proposal should be identified.

## 6 **Safeguards:**

- (a) Identify the safeguards incorporated in the proposal to prevent or minimise adverse environmental effects.
- (b) The possibility of remedial measures being taken later in the life of the project should be examined.
- (c) The environmental effects of the safeguards should themselves be evaluated.
- (d) Any additional safeguards which have been considered but which are not recommended and the reasons for this should be stated.

## 7 **Summary and Conclusions**

- (a) Appropriate conclusions should be drawn in each section of the EIA report. Summarise the environmental impact of the proposal and the steps that would be taken to minimise adverse environmental effects.
- (b) State the recommendation(s) which the project proposers wish to make to the decision-making authority.

## 8 **Monitoring**

State any monitoring activities that will be undertaken during the operation of the project.

## 9 **Consultation**

Individuals and agencies that have been consulted for their expert views and advice or opinion should be listed, and wherever possible,

their written views and/or recommendations attached to the report.

10 **References**

Any reference work or scientific/technical papers used in the environmental study should be listed.

11 **Responsibility for the Report**

The report should be dated and signed by the representative of the proposer who is to take full responsibility for the content.

12 **Introduction Remark on EIA Format**

The format provided is not meant to be rigid but open to modification of content and detail according to the type of statement being prepared, and to the nature and scope of the proposal being examined.

[Concerning] the content and coverage of an impact statement care should be taken to ensure that advice is sought from appropriately qualified experts. EIA often requires a multidisciplinary approach which calls for organised efforts by experts by both natural and social sciences in order to make an integrated and comprehensive assessment of environmental impacts of the projects in the area concerned.

## Appendix 5.2

### Environmental Guidelines for Dredging

#### **2.4 Environmental procedures**

The Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) Process is a conscious effort to determine the potential consequences on the environment of proposed actions by both the private and the public sectors, much in the same way as the economic considerations of such actions are evaluated.

An EIA Process as illustrated in Figure 10, with minor adjustments to allow for local situations, is now a well-established and accepted approach to the evaluation of the environmental consequences of decision-making in many countries.

Such an EIA Process is therefore recommended for Fiji to provide a new and additional perspective into the decision-making process, with the aim of avoiding costly environmental mistakes, managing and minimizing impacts and grasping opportunities for environmental enhancement. Ideally, the EIA Process should precede all proposals to dredge. In fact it should be mandatory for :

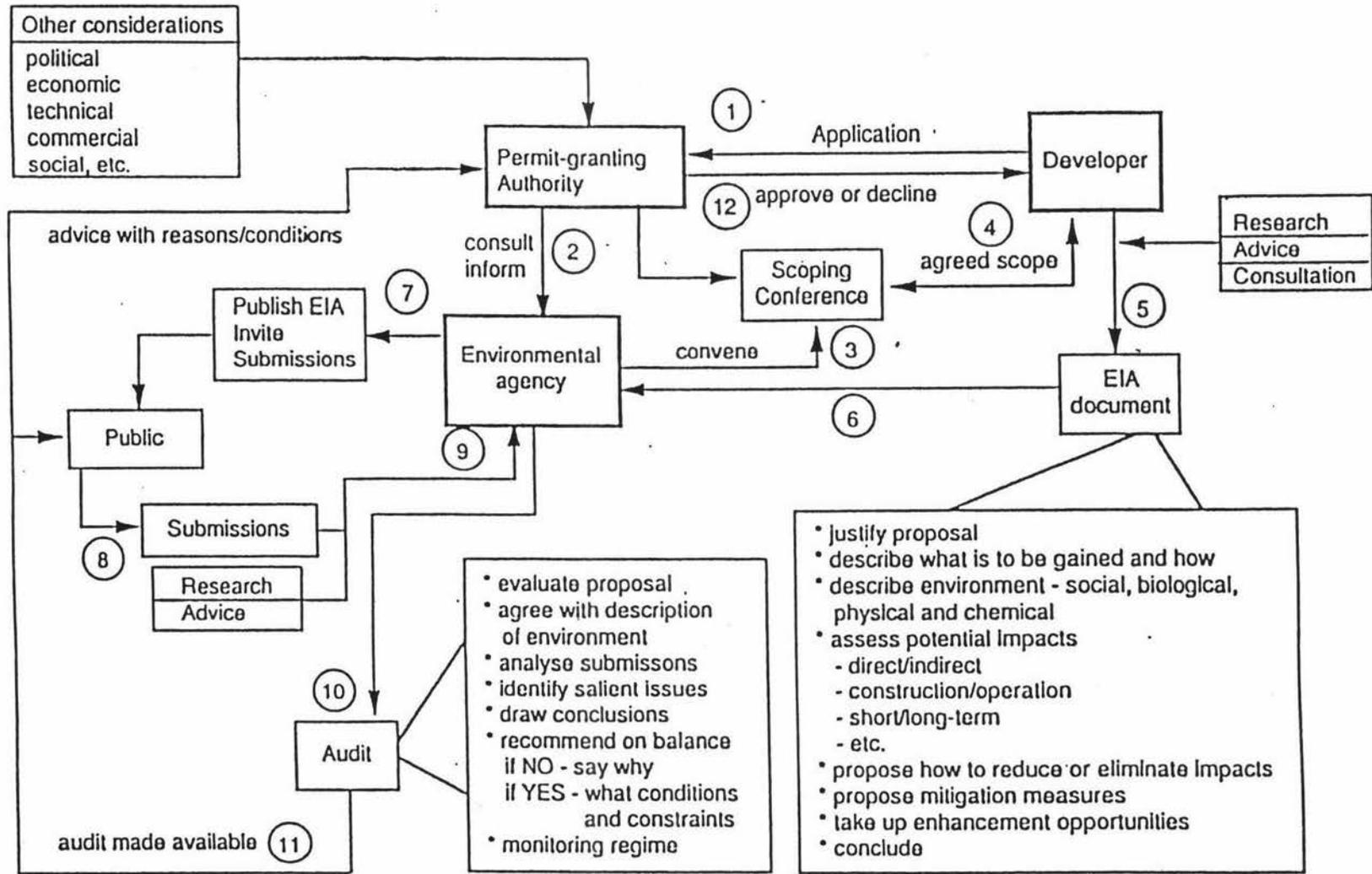
- all works by a Government ministry or department
- all works by a state-owned enterprise
- all works requiring a Government permit, approval, etc
- all licences/leases issued by NLTB
- all policies and strategies for resource use

The main 'players' in the EIA Process usually are :

- the **applicant/proposer** (who can also be a Government Ministry or Department)
- the **Permit-Granting Authority**, who is either a Government Ministry, or a body such as a Planning Tribunal, or Cabinet in the case of major national projects
- the **Environmental Agency**, who is a separate advisory body without any potential conflicts of interest, reporting to Government through a Minister without potential conflicts of interest
- professional and other organizations, community representative groups, and the **public at large**

The mandatory application of the EIA Process to a proposal, involves initially a simple check-list approach and consultation, an announcement of the preliminary findings, and a joint statement (by the Permit-Granting Authority and the Environmental Agency) on how it is proposed to address the matter further. This could range from a simple assessment that the proposal is a minor one with insignificant impacts and therefore no further action is required; to, a decision for a full application of the EIA Process. There could be a number of other intermediary options.

---



Actions are numbered sequentially

Figure 10. Environmental impact assessment (EIA) process.

If the Process is to proceed further than the initial mandatory assessment, there should be a Scoping Conference called by the Environmental Agency and attended by the Permit-Granting Authority and the Proposer, as well as any identified experts. The conference must reach agreement on the scope of the investigation. Early public consultation is usually undertaken by the Environmental Agency to determine public interest, before the Scoping Conference.

The Proposer and his/her consultants, etc, should then proceed with the investigation leading to the production of the EIA Document. A typical table of contents for an EIA Document is given in Checklist 4.3. Further public consultation by the Proposer is encouraged at this stage too.

The EIA Document should be formally delivered to the Environmental Agency who verify that its scope is as agreed, release it for formal public involvement and invite submissions. This stage usually provides the most extensive and direct involvement by the general public and submissions can be in writing, or they can be orally delivered at special community hearings.

The submissions are received or heard by a Review Team set up for the purpose, usually by the Environmental Agency. The Review Team can be composed of any number of persons each of whom will either be an expert in a relevant discipline, or expected to assist the Environmental Review/Audit in other ways.

The task of the Review Team is to review and evaluate the proposal as described in the EIA document, in the light of the public submissions and in the light of the Team's own research and investigations.

The Review Team, through the Environmental Agency, should forward its conclusions and recommendations to the Permit-Granting Authority, in a published, public document. Typical contents of an Environmental Review/Audit are given in Checklist 4.4.

Where the Permit-Granting Authority is a body such as a Planning Tribunal, the aim is to hold one unified hearing to consider all aspects of an application namely, environmental, planning, discharge rights, etc.

The Permit-Granting Authority makes its decision, taking into account other factors apart from environment. It is at liberty to not concur with the recommendations of the Environmental Agency but it holds its hearings in public and it should be obliged to elaborate on its decision and give reasons for its decision which could range from economic considerations, to national security, to the "greater public good", to the "national interest", etc.

Most permits and other approvals are usually granted with conditions. These conditions normally aim to reduce impacts and retain them within pre-determined, tolerable limits. It is therefore essential that all approvals are subject to a continuing monitoring regime to ensure that pre-determined limits are not in danger of being exceeded.

However, it must be stressed that what is referred to here as the EIA Process is not merely the document known as the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA), or the Environmental Impact Report (EIR), or the Environmental Impact Statement (EIS). Such a document represents but one phase within the EIA Process which commences with an application being lodged and remains open (as the monitoring function) for the duration of the life of the project.

Checklist 4.5 gives a summary of environmental screening guidelines to establish the scale of environmental significance and what environmental factors should be considered in project design.

## 2.5 Public participation

Public participation is an integral and essential part of environmental procedures. Without it, a whole perspective is missing and the decision-maker will not have the benefit of opinions other than those that were specifically sought. Once the public are used to the system, an invitation for public comment results in a wide spectrum of input ranging from the sincere but subjective to the more objective and sometimes technical and down-to-earth.

Regardless of the quality of the public submissions, public participation is not public decision-making unless this is so desired. Public participation is more for the benefit of the decision-maker than for the public.

As can be seen from Figure 10, public participation can take place at a number of points in the EIA

Process. These can include :

- an initial survey of public opinion by the project proposer to determine the degree of public support/concern in general;
- a similar gauging of public opinion often undertaken at this early stage by the environmental agency;
- involvement of representatives of major recognized public groups at the scoping conference level;
- collating of public input after the official publication of the EIA document;
- the publication of the review/audit by the environmental agency which contains its advice and serves to indicate to the public how their input has been used;
- further participation in the formal and legal process of the granting of permits and approvals by statutory tribunals, planning authorities or such like.

With public participation, the principle should be, that whenever and wherever it is possible to involve the general public, this will be facilitated.

Public participation can take a number of forms. These can range from direct to indirect, formal to informal. Table 8 gives some examples of the manner in which the public can participate in the EIA Process

*Table 8. Examples of ways in which the general public can participate in the EIA Process.*

- citizens' task forces
- open public meetings
- written submissions
- questionnaires
- specialized public meetings for affected areas
- radio talkback programmes
- special hearings for communities and cultural groups
- site visits and investigations
- social surveys
- joint groups (especially for review)
- professional groups
- targetted invitations to comment

Having given the public the opportunity to participate, it is essential that this is not merely a window-dressing exercise by the decision-makers; neither must it be seen to be such a sop. In order for public participation to be meaningful and genuine, the public input must be taken into account and this is done through a thorough review of public input and the synthesising of the main issues raised, the concerns and reservations expressed, and the advice that may be tendered. These are then assessed objectively and a genuine effort must be made to take them into account in reaching the final conclusions and developing recommendations.

In recognition of the positive light in which public input should be held by decision-makers, there needs to be a tangible feedback to the public who made the effort to participate. This can start with the formal, written acknowledgement of any written submissions received and, where possible, the distribution of copies of the Environmental Review/Audit document to all who participated.

In conclusion it must be emphasised that among the 'general public' there are a lot of persons who are professionally as qualified as those who are making the decisions. There are also those who although not experts in the academic meaning of the word, have an intimate knowledge of local situations and conditions. In addition, there is also that element who are neither expert nor knowledgeable, but who are sincerely concerned at the repercussions of the proposal on themselves, their lives and their families. This last group is probably the largest and forms the constituency of the decision-makers. It is in the interest of the decision-makers to be fully aware and informed of the feelings and aspirations of their constituency.

The input from the general public obtained through meaningful public participation, is therefore a very valuable and essential component of the decision-making process in a democratic system.

## Checklist of contents for EIA Document

TABLE OF CONTENTS	DATA SOURCES	DONE
<b>1. INTRODUCTION:</b> Identify problem, need for dredging Historical background, flooding Role, responsibility of D&I Process so far		
<b>2. THE PROPOSAL:</b> Location, maps - dredging, spoil dump, Areas to be involved, magnitude Time scale, phasing What is to be gained Benefit/cost justification		
<b>3. THE ENVIRONMENT:</b> Exact location, catchment, coast Baseline studies done, research Social environment, people, livelihood Economic activities, resources Quality of life Ecological environment, food webs Rare, threatened species Physical environment, geomorphology Hydrology, climatology, oceanography Seasonal variations		
<b>4. POTENTIAL IMPACTS:</b> Direct impacts of dredging Impacts on people, residents Indirect through sediment, toxicity Impact on fisheries, food supply Impact on market, livelihood Direct impact of spoil dump Smothering, sediment, toxicity Indirect on fisheries productivity Direct and indirect on ecosystems Immediate and downstream Short-term, long-term (chronic)		
<b>5. MITIGATION MEASURES:</b> Wide consultation, public involvement Set agreed priority resources Set tolerance limits for impacts Careful planning of all phases Effective management of project Implementation even if at some cost		
<b>6. CONCLUSION:</b> Proposal justified by benefit/cost Impacts reduced to minimum		

#### 4.4 Checklist of contents for Environmental Review/Audit

LIST OF CONTENTS	EXPERTISE NEEDED	DONE
1. INTRODUCTION Some historical background National environmental policies Process to date, and adequacy Adequacy of the EIA Document		
2. THE PROPOSAL Brief description of proposal Implications for the environment		
3. THE SUBMISSIONS Statistical breakdown Concerns raised most often Most significant issues		
4. EVALUATION Handling of project thus far? Impacts adequately identified? Alternatives adequately considered? Mitigation measures reasonable? Public concerns satisfied? Project plans acceptable? Project management trustworthy?		
5. CONCLUSIONS Project should/should not go ahead? Further research, more data needed? More public consultation needed? Conditions to be attached to permit Short-term monitoring Long-term Monitoring Review provisions		

## 4.5 Environmental screening checklist

These questions seek to establish the scale of environmental significance and what environmental factors should be considered in a dredging project design. If the answer to any particular question is in the affirmative, it is an indication that the impact needs to be addressed.

QUESTIONS ???	YES	NO
<b>ADJACENT LAND MANAGEMENT</b>		
Is the surrounding land fertile, productive land? And, is it likely that the project will have a negative impact in the short-term or long-term?		
Could the project increase land degradation in the general region by facilitating access to resources?		
Will the project involve the use of agricultural chemicals, herbicides, pesticides?		
Will the spoil dump be sited in mangrove forest, seagrass meadow, or other natural wetland?		
Will the project involve quarrying rock for armouring?		
Will construction activities require new access roads?		
If topsoil is to be buried are there plans for stockpiling and returning topsoil?		
<b>WATER MANAGEMENT</b>		
Are downstream or nearby estuaries used for, or provide water for domestic water supply (stream or bore) horticulture, market garden irrigation watering of livestock subsistence, artisanal, commercial fishing aquaculture navigation, access, ports and harbours recreation, tourism activities industrial water intake or discharge nature reserves, protected species and habitats		
Any risk that any of the above can be affected by silt, effluent, or water flow changes from the project?		
Any risk that groundwater could be affected through effluent, salt water intrusion, level of water table?		

## 4.5 continued

<b>ECOLOGICAL MANAGEMENT</b>		
Any areas (large or small) of natural habitat of preservation value, <i>eg</i> coastal forest, sand dunes, islands, mangroves, swamps, wetlands, coral reefs, etc?		
Any plant or animal species that are considered rare, endangered or of conservation significance?		
Could the project lead to introduction of plant or animal species currently not in the region?		
Does the region's natural habitat have social, cultural or religious significance?		
Does the natural habitat have actual or potential value as a tourism resource?		
Do the areas that might be opened up by the project, have relatively low population at present?		
Do the local population hunt or gather in the natural habitat and is the project likely to affect this?		
Will the project open natural areas to possible future degradation ( <i>eg</i> access roads)?		
<b>AIR, NOISE AND VISUAL IMPACT MANAGEMENT</b>		
Any likelihood of air or noise pollution?		
Any adjacent populations who could suffer health and/or comfort problems through air and noise pollution?		
Will the project produce unsightly views?		
Will the project create visually intrusive structures?		
<b>WASTE MANAGEMENT &amp; POLLUTION CONTROL</b>		
Are any solid or liquid wastes likely to be generated?		
Is any of the sediment likely to be high in industrial contaminants or agricultural chemicals?		
Are contingency plans needed for handling spills, fire, leaks, and system failures?		

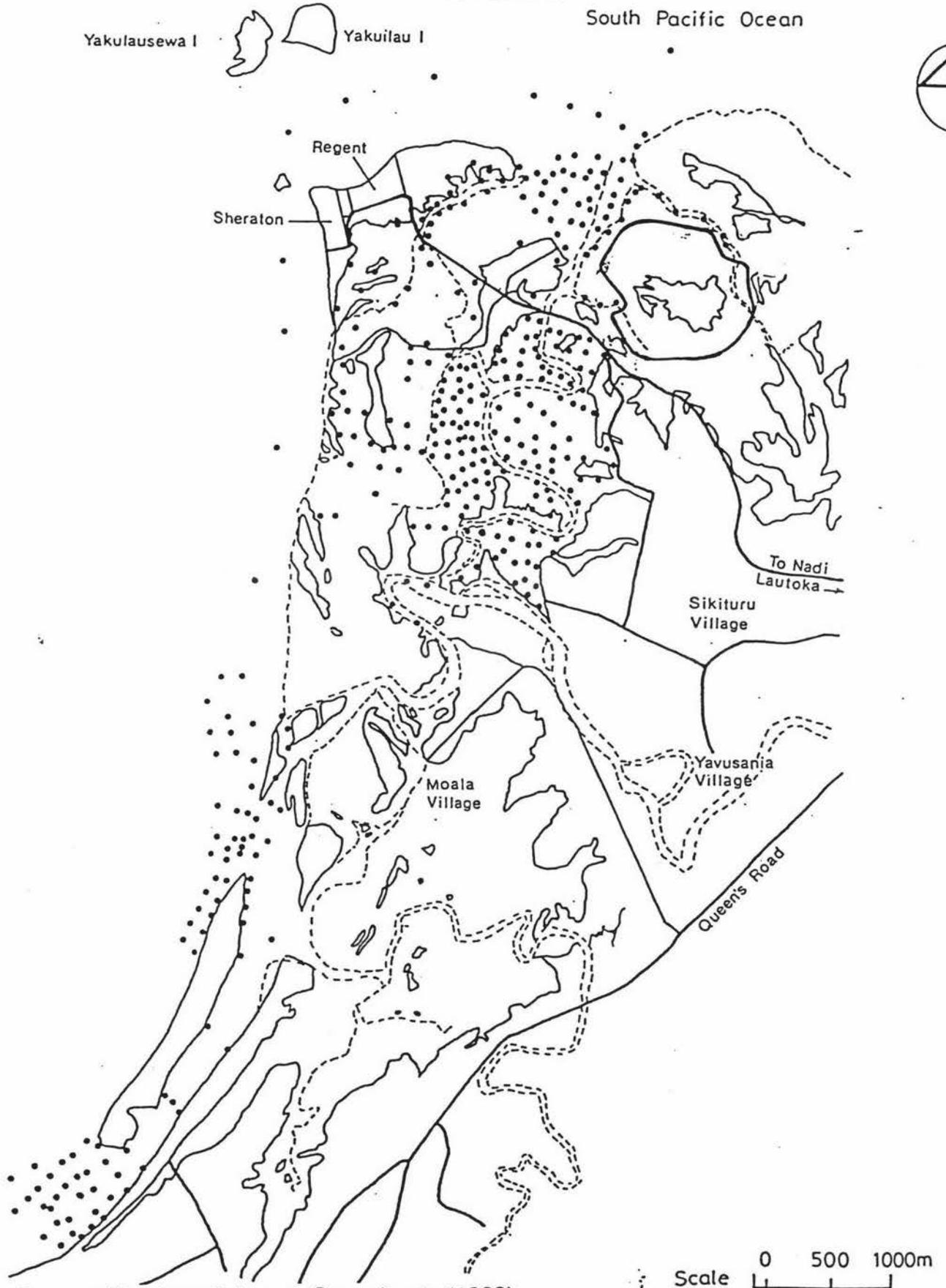
## 4.5 continued

<b>RISK &amp; HAZARD MANAGEMENT</b>		
Is the project in an area susceptible to disaster (eg flood, seismic zone, volcanic activity, cyclonic winds, wild fire)? Are contingency plans needed?		
Are any project mishaps predictable? And, could the local population be affected?		
Should there be plans for emergency evacuation?		
Should the design include consideration of a disaster?		
<b>SOCIAL ISSUES</b>		
Is the population living a relatively traditional lifestyle?		
Is there dependence on the natural environment for subsistence, income, fuel?		
Could the project upset the political and/or social structure of the region's communities?		
Will the project directly or indirectly affect land tenure?		
Will the project directly or indirectly affect traditional fishing rights?		
Are there any archaeological, cultural, or historic sites in the vicinity?		
<b>ECONOMIC ISSUES</b>		
Have the costs of environmental protection measures and safeguards been taken into account in project costs?		
Have the costs of potential environmental damage or loss been identified and included in the analysis?		
Could the project generate environmental benefits?		
Have the opportunity costs of natural resources to be used in the project been taken into account?		

Source: Tortell et al (1992).

### Appendix 5.3

#### Denarau Island



Source: Harrison Grierson Consultants (1989).

## Appendix 6.1

### Case Study Photographs - Korolevu



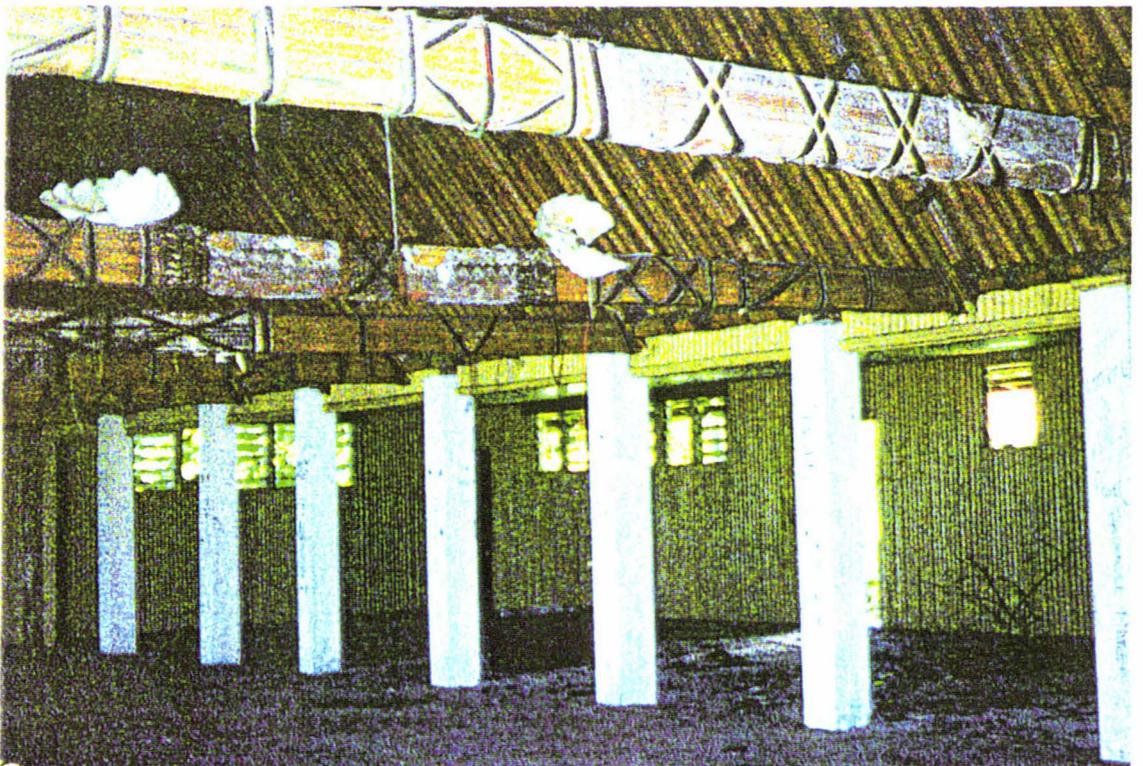
The derelict carport and entrance way to the reception area



The once magnificent gardens and turfed lawns are now overgrown



Swimming pool full of stagnant water



Remnants of the lounge ceiling, unusual peg-board finishing and degraded lino tile floors



Southern end of the hotel complex showing the guest apartments. Used by boaters as an access.



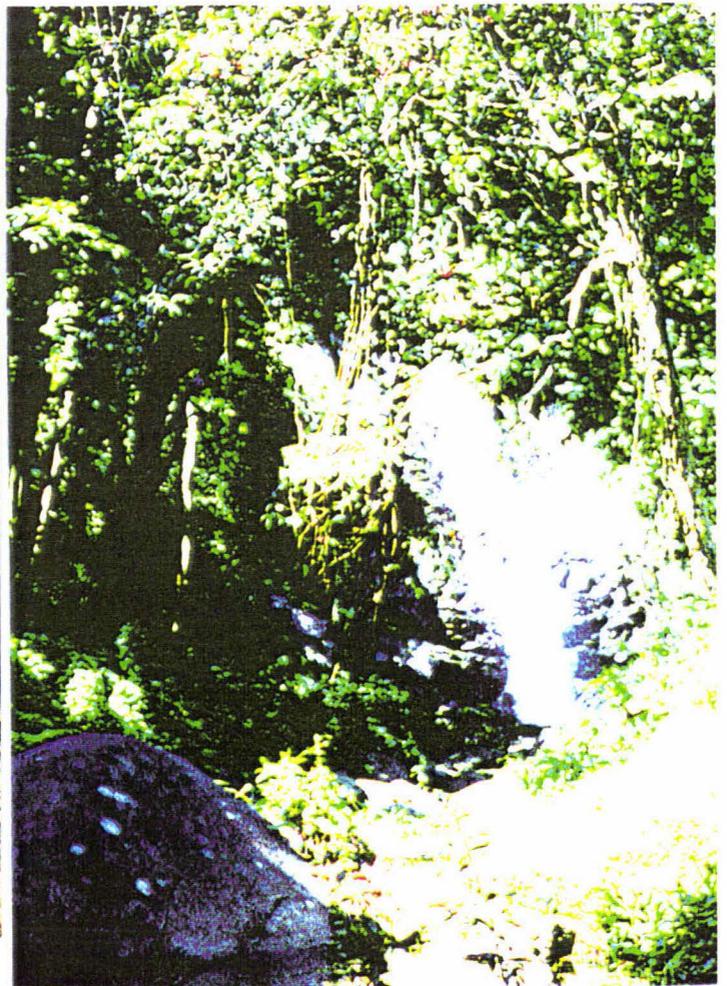
Snapshot of Korolevu Bay showing the hotel site and remnants of the marina.



Biausevu village view from the hill top



The upper reaches of the Muanidale Creek



Biausevu Falls - scenic attraction for tourists in the a

## Appendix 7.1

### Survey Questionnaire

[Anticipated time to complete  
this questionnaire: 30 minutes]

---

---

---

#### Department of Planning, Massey University

### CONFIDENTIAL SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE CONCERNING RURAL FIJIAN VILLAGE PERCEPTIONS OF AN APPROPRIATE ENVIRONMENTAL PLANNING FRAMEWORK AND THE ASSESSMENT OF TOURIST DEVELOPMENTS ON COASTAL AREAS.

#### Note:

All of the answers you provide will be treated confidentially.

A code number, not your name, will be used to identify the completed questionnaire. The master list, linking names to code numbers, will be available only to myself, as the principal researcher, and if necessary, my supervisor.

---

This survey is divided into **SIX SECTIONS**.

**SECTION 1:** refers to some general information about the interviewee.

**SECTION 2:** explores some environmental vocabulary and concepts.

**SECTION 3:** enquires about the state of the local environment.

**SECTION 4:** investigates the various administrative bodies responsible for the regulation and enforcement of environmental issues.

**SECTION 5:** assesses the customary fisheries management and traditional land use practices.

**SECTION 6:** explores the positive and negative socio-economic effects of the development on the community.

---

**Section 1: GENERAL INFORMATION**


---

Number:

Number in the Household:

Village/Location:

Interviewer:

Date of Birth:

Age in Years:

Sex:

Number of Years Resident in the Area:

Current Occupation:

Part-time or Full-time (if paid employment):

---

**Section 2: ENVIRONMENTAL VOCABULARY AND CONCEPTS**


---

Please read the statement below and indicate whether you agree or not by circling yes or no.

---

1. Have you been affected by any type of human caused or natural environmental problem?

yes      no

---

Rank the following from 1 to 4, where 1 = low environmental impact and 4 = very high environmental impact.

PLEASE CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT.

---

NATURAL AND HUMAN CAUSED ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

	low	medium	high	very high
1. Cyclones	1	2	3	4
2. Sedimentation in the river	1	2	3	4
3. Sedimentation in the estuary	1	2	3	4
4. Sewage disposal	1	2	3	4

	low	medium	high	very high
5. Flooding	1	2	3	4
6. Excavating of mangroves	1	2	3	4
7. Reef destruction	1	2	3	4
8. Soil erosion	1	2	3	4
9. Degree of water discolouration	1	2	3	4
10. Destruction of mudflats	1	2	3	4

### Section 3: THE CURRENT STATE OF THE LOCAL ENVIRONMENT

Please read the statements below and indicate your level of agreement. Use a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = Strongly Disagree 5 = Strongly Agree.

PLEASE CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The large tourist resort has had negative environmental effects on the local area.	1	2	3	4	5
2. There are noticeable environmental problems in our area.	1	2	3	4	5
3. There were no serious environmental problems prior to 1960 when the existing development was built.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The resort in our area has worsened existing environmental problems.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The resort had a negative impact on the environment.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
6. Beach erosion is a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Soil erosion caused by villagers clearing vegetation is evident in the river catchment area.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Sedimentation has been caused when excavation has been carried out along the shore lines and estuaries rather than from heavy rainfall storms and variations in the sea level	1	2	3	4	5
9. The following may have caused coral reefs to die:					
a. dredging	1	2	3	4	5
b. speed boating	1	2	3	4	5
c. excavation	1	2	3	4	5
10. The following plant species have decreased in number due to recent developments:					
a. <i>Dabi</i>	1	2	3	4	5
b. <i>Dogo</i>	1	2	3	4	5
c. <i>Tiri</i>	1	2	3	4	5
d. <i>Vadra</i>	1	2	3	4	5
11. The destruction of the shorelines and the reef systems has made it difficult to catch smaller fish around the inshore areas.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
12. The following seafoods have become scarcer and smaller in size in recent years:					
a. shellfish	1	2	3	4	5
b. clams	1	2	3	4	5
c. coconut crabs	1	2	3	4	5
d. sea weeds	1	2	3	4	5
13. The tourist resort development has caused water pollution and water discolouration profiles which are current problems.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The following types of refuse originate from the village:					
a. food scraps	1	2	3	4	5
b. plastic	1	2	3	4	5
c. glass	1	2	3	4	5
d. paper	1	2	3	4	5
15. Most raw sewage going into the river catchment originates from the local resort development.	1	2	3	4	5
16. The following fishing methods have caused fish numbers to decline in your area:					
a. gillnet fishing	1	2	3	4	5
b. dynamiting	1	2	3	4	5
c. fish poisoning ( <i>duva</i> )	1	2	3	4	5
d. spear fishing at night	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
12. The following seafoods have become scarcer and smaller in size in recent years:					
a. shellfish	1	2	3	4	5
b. clams	1	2	3	4	5
c. coconut crabs	1	2	3	4	5
d. sea weeds	1	2	3	4	5
13. The tourist resort development has caused water pollution and water discolouration profiles which are current problems.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The following types of refuse originate from the village:					
a. food scraps	1	2	3	4	5
b. plastic	1	2	3	4	5
c. glass	1	2	3	4	5
d. paper	1	2	3	4	5
15. Most raw sewage going into the river catchment originates from the local resort development.	1	2	3	4	5
16. The following fishing methods have caused fish numbers to decline in your area:					
a. gillnet fishing	1	2	3	4	5
b. dynamiting	1	2	3	4	5
c. fish poisoning	1	2	3	4	5
d. spear fishing at night	1	2	3	4	5

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 17. Regular night snorkling or reef tours are causing fish numbers to decline.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Traditional land use practices should incorporate riparian strips along the river bank that run towards the sea , thus helping to prevent transport of high sedimentation loads. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Clearcut felling, by villagers, has contributed to the river having high sedimentation loads.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. Clearcut felling, by villagers, has caused water discolouration.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

---

**Section 4: THE ADMINISTRATIVE AND REGULATORY BODIES  
CONCERNED WITH ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS**

---

Please read the statements below and indicate your level of agreement. Use a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = Strongly Disagree 5 = Strongly Agree.

PLEASE CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT.

- |   | Strongly<br>Disagree | Disagree | No<br>Opinion | Agree | Strongly<br>Agree |
|---|----------------------|----------|---------------|-------|-------------------|
| 1. Having a National Mangrove Management plan would help conserve the coastal environment in your area.   | 1                    | 2        | 3             | 4     | 5                 |
| 2. Most advice given on environmental issues such as soil or beach erosion is provided by the Environmental Management Unit in the Ministry of Urban and Housing Development. | 1                    | 2        | 3             | 4     | 5                 |

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
3. More practical advice should be provided to solve existing environmental problems.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The government should legislate for regular monitoring to assess the state of the environment in the area.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Before any development occurs it would be wise to carry out environmental, social and cultural surveys.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The following Government bodies have not adequately addressed the environmental problems in your area:					
a. Environmental Management Unit	1	2	3	4	5
b. The Department of Forestry	1	2	3	4	5
c. The Fisheries Department	1	2	3	4	5
d. The Ministry for Agriculture	1	2	3	4	5
7. The following Non-Governmental Organisations have not adequately addressed the environmental problems in your area:					
a. SPACHEE	1	2	3	4	5
b. The Maruia Society	1	2	3	4	5
c. The Forest and Bird Society	1	2	3	4	5
d. Greenpeace	1	2	3	4	5
e. USP	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
8. The following media programmes are regular advocates of environmental issues:					
a. The Fiji Times	1	2	3	4	5
b. <i>Na Lalakai</i>	1	2	3	4	5
c. Radio Fiji (English)	1	2	3	4	5
d. Radio Fiji (Fijian)	1	2	3	4	5
9. When the beach or shoreline becomes overloaded with debris or rubbish the Rural Council/PPWD should provide some sort of input in the addressing the problem.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Weak laws enforced for environmental offenders means that more environmental programmes are needed at an individual, village, provincial, and national level.	1	2	3	4	5

### Section 5: CUSTOMARY FISHING MANAGEMENT AND TRADITIONAL LAND USE PRACTICES

Please read the statements below and indicate your level of agreement. Use a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = Strongly Disagree 5 = Strongly Agree.

PLEASE CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Your <i>mataqali's vanua ni qoli qoli</i> has been adversely effected by the development.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
3. The traditional <i>vanua ni qoli qoli</i> should be administered by the <i>Turaga ni yavusa</i> .	1	2	3	4	5
4. The <i>Turaga ni mataqali</i> , rather than the <i>Turaga ni yavusa</i> , should have more weighting in the decision making process of the administration of the <i>vanua ni qoli qoli</i> .	1	2	3	4	5
5. Fishing licensing permits should be administered by the <i>Turaga ni mataqali</i> , with close consultations with the <i>gonedau ni wai</i> .	1	2	3	4	5
6. The <i>vanua ni qoli qoli</i> have been awarded adequate compensation by the development.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Vitaly important <i>vanua ni qoli qoli</i> have been lost to development which has made many subsistence villagers resort to fishing authorised by fishing permits issued by the Fisheries Commission.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The present permit fees are high enough to compensate for the fish catches lost to commercial operators.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No Opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
9. The <i>gonedau</i> practices should be encouraged and enforced through legislation so that specific areas of <i>vanua ni qoli qoli</i> are not over fished.	1	2	3	4	5
10. All fishermen issued with Fisheries Commission permits should have special conditions relating to <i>gonedau ni wai</i> fishing practices.	1	2	3	4	5

**Section 6: THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC EFFECTS OF THE  
DEVELOPMENT ON THE LOCAL COMMUNITY**

Please read the following statements and indicate your level of agreement or disagreement where 1 = disagree 2 = not sure and 3 = agree.

PLEASE CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH STATEMENT.

	disagree	not sure	agree
1. The development has provided increased job opportunities for the village as a whole.	1	2	3
2. Housing standards have improved since the development.	1	2	3
3. Medical facilities have improved since the development.	1	2	3
4. Schooling facilities have improved since the development.	1	2	3
5. Roads have improved since the development.	1	2	3

## Appendix 8.1

### Excerpts from *Caring for the Earth*

#### BOX 10 Community Participation

Community participation helps ensure that decisions are sound and all parties will support them. It is facilitated by:

- \* conducting consultation where the people are;
- \* working with traditional leaders, and the full range of community groups and organisations;
- \* ensuring that the scope of consultation is appropriate to the decision being made;
- \* limiting the number of management and consultative bodies to which communities have to relate;
- \* giving communities and other interested parties adequate, readily intelligible information and enough time to consider it, contribute to proposals themselves and respond to invitations to consult;
- \* ensuring that consultations are in a culturally acceptable form. For example, indigenous people with a tradition of decision making by communal discussion should not be expected to respond with a written submission from one representative. If indigenous consultation mechanisms exist, they should be used;
- \* ensuring that the timing of consultations is right. Consultation must not take place so early that no useful information is available, or so late that all people can do is react or object to detailed proposals.

#### BOX 11 Indigenous Peoples

Some 200 million indigenous people (4% of the world's population) live in environments ranging from polar ice to tropical deserts and rain forests. The lands where they still live are usually marginal for sustainable high-energy agriculture or industrial resource production, but they are distinct cultural communities with land and other rights based on historical use and occupancy. Their cultures, economies and identities are inextricably tied to their traditional lands and resources.

The subsistence component of indigenous economies remains at least as important as the cash component. Hunting, fishing, trapping, gathering or herding continue to be major sources of food, raw materials and income. Moreover, they provide native communities with a perception of themselves as distinct, confirming continuity with their past and unity with the natural

world. Such activities reinforce spiritual values, an ethic of sharing, and a commitment to stewardship of the land, based on a perspective of many generations.

It is often assumed that indigenous peoples have only two options for the future: to return to their ancient way of life; or to abandon subsistence and become assimilated into the dominant society. They should also have a third option: to modify their subsistence way of life, combining the old and the new in ways that maintain and enhance their identity while allowing their society and economy to evolve.

The main needs are to:

- \* Recognise the aboriginal rights of indigenous peoples to their lands resources, including the rights to harvest the animals and plants on which their ways of life depend, to obtain water for their stock, to manage their resources, and to participate effectively in decisions affecting their lands and resource.
- \* Ensure that the timing, pace and manner of development minimises harmful environmental, social and cultural impacts on indigenous peoples; and that indigenous peoples have an equitable share of the proceeds.
- \* Ensure that policy makers, development planners, conservation scientists and managers cooperate with indigenous peoples in a common approach to resource management and economic development.

## Appendix 8.2

### Excerpts from Agenda 21

#### The Role of Indigenous People

Indigenous people have an historical relationship with their lands and are generally the descendants of the original inhabitants of such lands. Indigenous people represent a significant percentage of the global population. Over many generations, they have developed a holistic traditional scientific knowledge of their lands, natural resources and environment. Indigenous people must enjoy the full measure of human rights and fundamental freedoms without hindrance or discrimination. As a result of economic, social and historical factors, their ability to participate fully in sustainable development practices on their own lands has tended to be limited. Some of the goals of this program area are already contained in such international legal instruments as the Indigenous and Tribal Peoples Convention and are being incorporated into the Universal Declaration on Indigenous Rights which is being prepared by the United Nations. 1993 is the International Year for the World's Indigenous People and this presents a timely opportunity to mobilise further international technical and financial cooperation.

There must be global recognition that the lands of indigenous people should be protected from activities that are environmentally unsound and actions that the indigenous people concerned consider to be socially and culturally inappropriate. In this regard, there must also be recognition that traditional dependence on renewable resources and ecosystems, including sustainable harvesting, continues to be essential to the cultural, economic and physical well-being of indigenous people. Some indigenous people may require greater control over their lands and more opportunity for the self-management of their resources, including participation in the establishment and management of protected areas.

#### **Programs and Activities**

- \* Policies should be adopted that will protect indigenous intellectual and cultural property and protect the right to preserve customary practices and administrative systems.
- \* Efforts must be made to incorporate the values, views and knowledge of indigenous people into resource management and other programs that may affect them.
- \* Indigenous people should be informed, consulted and allowed to participate in national decision-making.
- \* Technical and financial assistance should be provided for programs that support the sustainable self-development of indigenous people and their communities.

- \* Research and education programs must be developed for the purpose of achieving a better understanding of indigenous people's environmental knowledge and experiences and applying this information to contemporary development challenges.
- \* Efforts should be made to increase the efficiency of indigenous people's resource management systems, for example, by promoting the use of suitable technological innovations.
- \* National arrangements to consult with indigenous people should be increased in order to incorporate their values and traditional practices into national policies in the field of natural resource management and conservation.
- \* Governments should incorporate the rights and responsibilities of indigenous people into the legislation of each country.
- \* International development agencies and governments should commit financial and other resources to education and training for indigenous people to develop their capacities to achieve sustainable self-development. Particular attention should be given to strengthening the role of indigenous women.

## Appendix 8.3

### Excerpts from *Draft Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples 1993*

#### **Part V**

##### Article 19

Indigenous peoples have the right to participate fully, if they so choose, at all levels of decision-making in matters which may affect their rights, lives and destinies through representatives chosen by themselves in accordance with their own procedures, as well as to maintain and develop their own indigenous decision-making institutions.

##### Article 20

Indigenous peoples have the right to participate fully, if they so choose, through procedures determined by them, in devising legislative or administrative measures that may affect them.

States shall obtain the free and informed consent of the people concerned before adopting and implementing such measures.

##### Article 24

Indigenous peoples have the right to their traditional medicines and health practices, including the right to the protection of vital medicinal plants, animals and minerals.

They also have the right to access, without any discrimination, to all medical institutions, health services and medical care.

#### **Part VI**

##### Article 25

Indigenous peoples have the right to maintain and strengthen their distinctive spiritual and material relationship with the lands, territories, waters and coastal seas and other resources which they have traditionally owned or otherwise occupied or used, and to uphold their responsibilities to future generations in this regard.

##### Article 26

Indigenous peoples have the right to own, develop, control and use lands and territories, including the total environment of the lands, air, waters, coastal seas, sea-ice, flora and fauna and other resources which they have traditionally owned or otherwise occupied or used. This includes the right to the full recognition of their laws, traditions and customs, land-tenure systems and institutions for the development and management of resources, and the right to effective measures by States to prevent any interference with, alienation of or encroachment upon these rights.

Article 27

Indigenous peoples have the right to the restitution of lands, territories and resources which they have traditionally owned or otherwise occupied, used or damaged without their free and informed consent. Where this is not possible, they have the right to just and fair compensation. Unless otherwise freely agreed upon by the peoples concerned, compensation shall take the form of lands, territories and resources equal in quality, size and legal status.

## Appendix 8.4

### References in the RMA which relate to the Maori People and to the Coastal Environment

#### A

##### **Part II**

##### Section 5

- 1 Promote sustainable development.
- 2(a) sustain potential of natural and physical resources.
- 2(b) safeguard life-supporting capacity of air, water, soil, and ecosystems.
- 2(c) avoiding, remedy or mitigating adverse effects.

##### Section 6

Provides for the -

- (a) preservation of the natural character of the coastal environment.
- (d) maintenance and enhancement of public access.
- (e) the relationship of Maori and their culture and traditions with their ancestral lands, water, sites, waahi tapu, and other taonga.

##### Section 7

Reference is made to Kaitiakitanga.

##### Section 8

Recognises a duty to the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi.

#### B

##### **Part V**

##### Section 58(b) - coastal policy statements

The Act recognises that Maori have a special relationship with the coast that encompasses both spiritual and physical needs. Section 58(b) makes provision for Maori values concerning the coast in the national coastal policy statement issued by the Minister of Conservation.

##### Section 61 2(a)(ii); 66(2)(c)(ii) and Section 74 2 (b)(ii) - iwi management plans

The Act provides for statutory recognition of an instrument or document, if Maori choose to produce such, which would indicate Maori planning requirements.

Therefore, in preparing or amending regional policy statements and district plans, local authorities are required to have regard to any relevant planning document recognised by an iwi authority affected by the plans. These planning documents are known as "iwi management plans".

Source: Summarised from New Zealand Government (1991).

## Bibliography

Andrews, R. N. L., Cromwell, P., Enk, G. A., Farnworth, E. G. (1978). Substantive Guidance for Environmental Impact Assessment. In R. K. Jain and B. L. Hutchings (Eds.), *Environmental Impact Analysis: Emerging Issues in Planning* (37-42). Urbana: University of Illinois.#54

Baines, J. T. (1989a). *An Integrated Framework for Interpreting Sustainable Development*. Unpublished report for the Ministry for the Environment, Centre for Research Management.

----- (1989b). *Possible Roles for the Ministry for the Environment in Implementing Sustainable Development Policy*. Unpublished report for the Ministry for the Environment, Centre for Resource Management.

Barrett Fuller and Partners and Environmental Consultants (Fiji). (1990). *Vulani Island Resort: Environmental Impact Assessment*. Draft report prepared for Cobweb Pty Co. Ltd.

Beanlands, G. E., & Duinker, P. N. (1981). *Project on the Ecological Basis for Environmental Impact Assessment in Canada: Progress Report*. Halifax: Dalhousie University Institute for Resource and Environmental Studies.

Belshaw, C. S. (1964). *Under the Ivi Tree: Society and Economic Growth in Rural Fiji*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.#

Belt, Collins and Associates Ltd. (1973). *Tourism Development Programme*

---

55 #Not referred to but provided useful background material.

for Fiji. Prepared for United Nations Development Programme, International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, and Government of Fiji.

Blackford, C., & Matunga, H. (1991). *Maori Participation in Environmental Mediation* (Information Paper No. 30). Centre for Resource Management.#

Bole, F. N. (1992). Fiji's Chiefly System and its Pattern of Political Self-reliance. In R. Crocombe, U. Neemia, A. Ravuvu, & W. V. Busch (Eds.), *Culture and Democracy in the South Pacific* (67-80). Suva: Institute of Pacific Studies, University of the South Pacific.

Cabaniuk, S. (1985). Northern Hotels Limited – Land at Korolevu. Letter to Henry Davis York, Solicitors. For the Director, Town and Country Planning. Suva, Fiji.

Canadian Bar Association Committee. (1990). *Sustainable Development in Canada: Options for Law Reform*. Ottawa, Ontario: Canadian Bar Association.

Chape, S. (1990). *Coastal Tourism and Environmental Management in Fiji*. Unpublished report, Fiji: Department of Town and Country Planning, Proceedings of the Coastal and Marine Tourism Congress.

Chape, S., & Watling, D. (Ed.s). (n.d.).<sup>55</sup> *United Nations Conference on Environment and Development: Republic of Fiji National Report*.

Cleave, J. (1988). Environmental Assessment. *Finance and Development*.

---

<sup>55</sup> Date unknown.

25(1), 44-47.

Coaldrake, J. E. (n.d.). *The Objectives for an Effective EIA System*. Unpublished report.#

Collier, A. (1991) *Principles of Tourism: A New Zealand Perspective*. 2nd Ed. Auckland, New Zealand: Pitman Publishing.#

Coopers and Lybrand Associates. (1989). *Government of Fiji Tourism Masterplan – Volume I: Strategies*. Unpublished report.

Department of Conservation. (1992). *Draft New Zealand Coastal Policy Statement*. Wellington, New Zealand.

Department of Conservation. (1994). *New Zealand Coastal Policy Statement*. Wellington, New Zealand.#

Department of Town and Country Planning. (n.d.) *Coral Coast Development Study*. Unpublished report. Suva, Fiji.

----- (1986). *Korolevu/Busa Bay Area Advisory Plan Update (Draft)*. Suva, Fiji.

----- (1991). *Natadola Harbour Development Plan (Provisionally approved)*. Suva, Fiji.#

----- (1980). *Town Planning Act: General Provisions*. Suva, Fiji.

Derrick, R. A. (1950). *A History of Fiji* (Vol. 1) Suva, Fiji: Printing and Stationery Department.

Dixon, J. E. (1994). *Strategic Environmental Assessment in New Zealand: a Progress Report*. Paper presented at the Fourteenth Annual meeting of the International Association for Impact Assessment, Quebec City, Canada.

----- (1993). The Integration of EIA and Planning in New Zealand: Changing Process and Practice: *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 36(2), 239–251.

Eaton, P. (1985). *Land Tenure and Conservation*. Noumea, New Caledonia: South Pacific Commission.

Ebisemiju, F. S. (1991). Environmental Impact Assessment: Making it Work in Developing Countries: *Journal of Environmental Management*, 38(4), 247–273.

Faludi, A. (1987). *A Decision-centred View of Environmental Planning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Fiji at the Threshold: Need for a Strategy. (1992, September). *Fiji Times*, 21–22.

Government File. (n.d.). *Research on Tourist Development Applications Approved (1989–90)*. Suva, Fiji.

----- (1970). *Fiji's Sixth Development Plan 1971–1975*. Suva, Fiji: Central

Planning Office.

----- (1975). *Fiji's Seventh Development Plan 1976-1980*. Suva, Fiji: Central Planning Office.

----- (1980). *Fiji's Eighth Development Plan 1981-1985*. Suva, Fiji: Central Planning Office.

----- (1985). *Fiji's Ninth Development Plan 1986-1990*. Suva, Fiji: Central Planning Office.

----- (1990). *Constitution of the Sovereign Democratic Republic (Vol. 4)*. Suva, Fiji: Authority of the Government of the Republic of Fiji.

----- (1992). *Fiji National Environment Strategy*. Suva, Fiji.

Gough, J., Williams, T., Dalziell, J., & Sheldon, J. (1988). *Report on the Review of Environmental Policy Statements in Other Countries*. Unpublished report, Ministry for the Environment, Centre for Resource Management.

Green, D., & Odense, R. (1993). *A Guide to the Practice of Environmental Impact Assessment in the South Pacific Region*. Report prepared for South Pacific Regional Environmental Programme.

Grierson, R. M. (1978). *Denarau Resort: Nadi - Fiji. Master Plan and Report*.

Hall, C. M. (1991). *Introduction to Tourism in Australia: Impacts, Planning and Development*. Melbourne, Australia: Longman Cheshire Pty. Ltd.

Harrison Grierson Consultants Ltd. (1989). *Denarau Island Resort Development: Supplementary Environmental Impact Assessment*. Summary Report prepared for EIE International Corporation.

----- (1990). *Denarau Island Resort Development: Water Supply*. Report prepared for EIE International Corporation.#

Haskoning Royal Dutch Consulting Engineers and Architects in collaboration with Institute of Natural Resources, The University of the South Pacific. (1990). *Environmental Management Planning Fiji: Towards a National Environment Strategy*. Technical Proposal.

Hollick, M. (1981). Environmental Impact Assessment as a Planning Tool: *Journal of Environmental Management*, 12(1): 65–78.

Inskeep, E. (1991). *Tourism Planning: an Integrated and Sustainable Development Approach*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

IUCN (1990). *Inception Report: National Environmental Management Project*. Technical Assistance of the Asian Development Bank to the Department of Town and Country Planning. Suva, Fiji: Ministry of Housing and Urban Development.

IUCN/UNEP/WWF. (1991). *Caring for the Earth: A Strategy for Sustainable Living*. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN/UNEP/WWF.

IUCN, WWF & UNEP. (1980). *World Conservation Strategy*. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN, WWF, UNEP.

James, D. (1992). *Achieving Sustainable Development in Fiji: Integration of Economics and Environment*. National Environmental Management Project, TA No. 1926. Suva, Fiji.

Kennedy, W. V. (n.d.). *Environmental Impact Assessment and Bilateral Development Aid: an Overview*. Unpublished manuscript.#

----- (1973) *Highways and Environment, in how Effective are Environmental Impact Statements?* Corvallis: Oregon State University, Water Resources Research Institute.#

Korolevu Beach Hotel Supplement. (1960, December). *The Fiji Times*, 1-12.#

Lal, P. N. (1984). Environmental Implications of Coastal Development in Fiji. *Ambio*, 13(5-6), 316-321.#

----- (1992). *Foreshore Development, Customary Fishing Rights and the Recompensation System* (National Environmental Management Project, TA No. 1206). Suva, Fiji.

Laak, R. (1986). *Waste Water: Engineering Design for Unsewered Areas* (2nd ed.). Pennsylvania, USA: Technomic Publishing Company Inc.

Lang, R. (1977). Environmental Assessment Changes Planning. *Plan*

*Canada*, 17(1): 59–69.

Leopold, L. B., Clark, F. E., Hanshaw, B. B., & Balsely, J. R. (1971). *A Procedure for Evaluating Environmental Impact*. Washington: United States Department of the Interior, Geological Survey.

Lindberg, K. (1991). *Nature Tourism as an Agent for Sustainable Development*. Report for the World Resources Institute. Washington, D.C.

Manuel, C. (1990). *Environmental Law in Fiji*. Paper to be Delivered to Environmental Awareness Seminar: Grand Pacific Hotel. Suva, Fiji.

Martel, F., & Whyte, A. G. D. (n.d.). *Community Forestry Programmes in Fiji*. Christchurch, New Zealand: School of Forestry, University of Canterbury.

McBride, T. (1992). *Report and Recommendations on Specific Legal Issues*. National Environmental Management Project, TA No. 1206. Suva, Fiji.

----- (1986). The Role of Lao in Protecting the Environment. *Planning Quarterly*, 81, 7–12.

McClymont, R. B. (1991). *Environmental Assessment Procedures for Fiji*. Suva, Fiji: South Pacific Regional Environment Programme.

McIntyre, A. (1991). *An Analysis of Fiji's Tourist Accommodation Structure and Room Constraints 1991–1996*. Report prepared for Fiji Visitors Bureau. Auckland, New Zealand.

Memon, P. A., & Perkins, H. C. (Eds.). (1993). *Environmental Planning in New Zealand*. Palmerston North, New Zealand: The Dunmore Press Ltd.

Ministry of Housing and Urban Development. (n.d.) *A Review of Urban Planning in Fiji*. Unpublished draft. Suva, Fiji.

Ministry of Maori Development. (1994). *Draft Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples 1993: Background and Discussion on Key Issues*. Wellington, New Zealand.

Native Lands Trust Board. (1985). *A Policy Towards Tourism Oriented Development on Native Land 1985–1989*. Suva, Fiji.

----- (1990). *A Policy for Tourism Development on Native Lands 1990–1995*. (Paper No. 18/19). Unpublished paper. Suva, Fiji.

----- (1990). *Tourism Planning in Fiji: a Suggested Approach Based on Informed Community Consultation*. Unpublished paper. Suva, Fiji.

Nayacakalou, R. R. (1975). *Leadership in Fiji*. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

New Resort Could Rise From Ashes of the Old. (1990, May). *Travel Digest Fiji Supplement*, 14-16.

New Zealand Government. (1991). *Resource Management Act*. Wellington, New Zealand: New Zealand Government.

Olokesusi, F. (1992). Environmental Impact Assessment in Nigeria: Current Situation and Directions for the Future. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 35,163–171.

Pearce, D., Barbier, E., & Markandya, A. (1990). *Sustainable Development: Economics and Environment in the Third World*. London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.#

Price, N. (1990). *Economic Development – Different Philosophies on the Tourism Industry in Fiji*. Unpublished paper, Native Land Trust Board. Suva, Fiji.

Pulea, M. (1992). *Environmental Law in Fiji: a Description and Evaluation*. National Environmental Management Project, TA No. 1206. Suva, Fiji.

Qarikau, M. (1982). *Korolevu and Busa Tourist Accommodation Area: a Land Use Study*. Suva, Fiji: Native Lands Trust Board.

Raj, U. and Seeto, J. (1984). *An Environmental Study of a Proposed Development at Vulani Islands, Nadi*. Suva, Fiji: The University of the South Pacific, Institute of Marine Resources.

Ravuvu, A. (1983). *The Fijian Way of Life*. Suva, Fiji: Institute of Pacific Studies of the University of the South Pacific.

Robinson, D. (1993). Public Participation in Environmental Decision-Making. *Environmental Planning Law Journal*, October., 320-336.

Roth, G. K. (1973). *Fijian Way of Life* (2nd ed.). Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Sadler, B. (1994). Environmental Assessment and Development Policymaking. In Goodland, R., & Edmundson, V. (Eds.), *An IAIA-World Bank Symposium*. Washington, United States of America: The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/ The World Bank.

Sadler, B., & Jacobs, P. (1990). A Key to Tomorrow: on the Relationship of Environmental Assessment and Sustainable Development. In P. Jacobs, & B. Sadler (Eds.), *Sustainable Development and Environmental Assessment: Perspectives on Planning for a Common Future* (3-31). Canadian Environmental Assessment Research Council.

Sitarz, D. (Ed.). (1993). *Agenda 21: the Earth Summit Strategy to Save Our Planet*. Boulder Colorado, United States of America.

Sobusobu, Akanisi. (1980). The Taboo. In A. Wendt (Ed.), *Lali: a Pacific Anthology* (23-37). Auckland, New Zealand: Longman Paul Ltd.

Sowman, R. (1992). *Tourism Sustainability*. Wellington, New Zealand: Ministry of Tourism.

Taylor, N. (n.d.). *Environmental Education in Fiji*. National Environmental Management Project TA No. 1206. Suva, Fiji.#

Tippett, A. R. (1968). *Fijian Material Culture: a Study of Cultural: a Study of Cultural Context, Function and Change*. Honolulu, Hawaii: Bishop Museum

Press.

Tortell, P., Collins, D., DuBois, R., Gwyther, D., & Sedlak, O. (1992). *Environmental Guidelines for Dredging and River Improvement in Fiji*. Rome.

Tourism Council of the South Pacific. (1990). *Guidelines for the Integration of Tourism Development and Environmental Protection in the South Pacific*. Suva, Fiji: Tourism Council of the South Pacific.

Tourism Planning in Fiji: a Suggested Approach Based on Informed Community Consultation. (n.d.). Unpublished report.#

Tourism Stream Action Strategy Committee. (n.d.). *An Action Strategy for Sustainable Tourism Development*. Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada: Globe `90.

Ward, R. (1994). Environmental Impact Assessment in Fiji. In *New Zealand Environmental Law Reporter*, July, 42-44.

Watling D. & Chape. S. *Environment: Fiji; The National State of the Environment Report*. Gland, Switzerland: IUCN.

Weaver, S. (1991a). *Indigenous Forest Conservation Mechanisms in Fiji: Policy and Planning Perspectives*. (Report on the findings of a field trip to Fiji carried out in August and September, 1990). Christchurch, New Zealand: School of Forestry, University of Canterbury.

----- (1991b). *Nature Tourism as a Means of Protecting Indigenous Forest Resources in Fiji*. Christchurch, New Zealand: School of Forestry, University of Canterbury.

Weaver, S., & King, B. *Environment and Tourism in Fiji*. Unpublished report.

Wenzel, L. (1989). *Environment and Change in the Pacific: a Survey of Resource Use and Policy in Fiji, Tonga, W. Samoa, Vanuatu and Solomon Islands*. INR Environmental Studies Report No. 43. Suva, Fiji: University of the South Pacific.

Westman, W. E. (1985). *Ecology, Impact Assessment and Environmental Planning*. New York: J Wiley and Sons.

Zann, L. (1992). *The State of the Marine Environment in Fiji*. National Environmental Management Project, Technical Assistance Asian Development Bank. Townsville, Australia.