CO-MANAGEMENT:

Kanohi ki te kanohi

OPTIONS FOR EGMONT NATIONAL PARK

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OPTIONS FOR EGMONT NATIONAL PARK

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MASTER OF RESOURCE AND ENVIRONMENTAL PLANNING

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ABSTRACT

Egmont National Park is a very special place for those who live near or around the park. Many people, Maori and European, openly acknowledge a spiritual relationship with the mountain. Its importance cannot be underestimated. The functioning of the park ecosystem is increasingly being placed under pressure from various threats. The management of these threats is being strained due to insufficient resources from the Department of Conservation. The complexity of these threats means there is a need to look at new and innovative solutions for park management.

In order to achieve the conservation outcomes the local, regional and national communities of interest seek for Egmont National Park, there is a need to examine management arrangements. One significant outcome of such an examination is the desire for these communities to be more closely involved in park management. The Department of Conservation must begin to form such partnerships with Maori. Traditional Maori knowledge can be utilised in conjunction with western knowledge, in order to provide the best management for the park.

Consideration is given in this thesis to empowering these local communities so that they can be involved in park management. While a range of conflicts and differences within communities in Taranaki exist, there are a number of common threads. The concept of establishing consensus and co-operation to work towards a common goal is therefore by no means impossible or futuristic. This concept is termed co-management. This thesis develops options for co-management in Egmont National Park.

Developing a co-management agreement within the New Zealand context of enormous conservation threats, high interest in recreation, public access and ownership issues, means these processes must be based on a series of common principles. Therefore, this thesis builds on elements of the theory and application of co-management from overseas experience and literature and the broader New Zealand context for conservation planning. A range of principles for co-management are presented and used to develop structures and processes to enable co-management in Egmont National Park.

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1.1 Introduction

Communities are increasingly demanding opportunities to become involved in the administration and management of natural, physical, and historic resources. The associated increase in awareness of the natural environment and its importance to daily life has been matched by new planning processes and structures. Conservation management in particular has undergone a number of major reforms in New Zealand over the past ten years. In 1987 the Department of Conservation (DoC) was established. DoC is responsible for the management of native species, indigenous forests, national parks and reserves and other existing conservation responsibilities.

New Zealand has recognised a growing number of conflicts in the way we manage our natural and physical resources. The late 1980's saw major reforms to government, which corresponded with a change in the way we view and manage the environment. Conservation law was brought under one umbrella Act resulting in a significant improvement to the preceding state of a proliferation of Acts.

Conservation law and administration in New Zealand remains one of the most integrated systems by world standards. However, conservation efforts continue to be placed under threat from a number of sources. The implementation of a more holistic approach for the management of these threats, both from a public and private land management perspective, is essential if conservation goals are to be achieved.

National parks are one of the oldest forms of protection for the landscapes and ecosystems of New Zealand. These national icons are part of the conservation network, but they are also under threat from pests and human development. National parks protect some of New Zealand's most exceptional landscapes and ecosystems. Consequently, they are extremely popular areas for recreationalists, tourists and visitors. These national parks represent what people value most highly about New Zealand and conservation. They are symbols of landscape quality, conservation, protection, and our efforts to ensure we preserve our native flora, fauna, ecosystems and heritage for future generations. They can also become symbols of community involvement in

conservation, and of partnerships between the different groups and peoples' of New Zealand.

Conservation in New Zealand means *"the preservation and protection of natural and historic resources for the purpose of maintaining their intrinsic values, providing for their appreciation and recreational enjoyment by the public, and safeguarding the options of future generations"* (Section 2, Conservation Act 1987). Threats to New Zealand's conservation values have arisen over time from hunting, loss of habitat and the impacts of introduced species (both plants and animals). These threats have decimated New Zealand's indigenous biological diversity. Present political support for conservation means DoC has major resourcing problems for its range of legislative functions and responsibilities.

One challenge for conservation in New Zealand to establish management solutions to ensure the outcomes being sought are realised. One of the greatest resources available to conservation in New Zealand is local communities. While there are a range of threats to conservation, it should be recognised that the New Zealand public are extremely vocal and supportive of efforts to preserve our natural and historic heritage. Communities want to be involved in conservation. Conservation management needs to utilise this community knowledge and support in a manner that enhances conservation outcomes. This may be achieved at any level or scale, from an issue based approach (such as gaining community involvement in ecological restoration programmes) to an area based approach (such as providing for community involvement in the management of reserves or parks).

A number of methods and techniques are available to managers, planners and administrators to achieve community demands for increased involvement in conservation. One of these options is involving communities in the administration, management and decision making processes that affect conservation in a collaborative and co-operative manner. This is termed co-management.

Co-management refers to the joint administration and management of an area by two or more different interest groups. This involves as one of its major components, the sharing of power and management responsibility between government and communities. The aim of co-management is to improve the conservation or environmental outcomes for a specific area, and to increase community support for and involvement in conservation or environmental goals.

The concept of co-management is relatively new in New Zealand. The Treaty of Waitangi establishes a partnership with Maori, the principles of which have been embodied in law in relatively recent times. Co-management provides a practical framework to establish meaningful partnerships between iwi and the Crown and give effect to the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi. In addition to this Treaty partnership, other partnerships can be developed to include local communities for the benefit of both community understanding of this relationship, and more inclusive and holistic decision making.

Co-management provides an opportunity for all communities to become actively involved in the management of important resources. It is the interaction between local communities, Maori and the Crown that will provide the strength for co-management or similar concepts in New Zealand.

In New Zealand conservation planning processes (such as management planning and strategic planning for conservation goals) play an important role in achieving the integrated management of natural and historic resources. If these processes are to improve conservation outcomes, it is vital that they empower communities. Co-management is one such method of empowering communities, and therefore, is one important mechanism to be considered in planning processes.

During the preparation of the draft management plan for Egmont National Park[1], it became obvious that there were a number of inadequacies with existing planning and management processes. These inadequacies were not based so much on the quality of outcomes being achieved by DoC, but the level of community involvement, understanding and 'ownership' of the outcomes. This raised the question as to how conservation planning could bring about a change in the ability of communities to become involved in the management of national parks. Planning processes can significantly affect conservation outcomes. It therefore follows that such processes may be able to assist in a transition towards more 'collaborative' conservation management. This process must involve a rigorous examination of principles, legislation, conservation planning processes, stakeholders, outcomes and structures.

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[1] I was contracted by the Wanganui Conservancy of the Department of Conservation in 1995/96 to review the operative Egmont National Park Management Plan, and produce a draft plan for 1996-2006 under the National Parks Act 1980.

Co-management is not simply an adaptation of existing consultation procedures, but rather a shift in the administration, management and decision making processes for national parks. It involves a shift in the power base from government to local communities. Local communities represent a range of different values. These values need to be heard in an open process if co-management is to be successful at reducing conflicts and enhancing outcomes. Co-management may assist in developing a closer understanding between the two dominant cultures in New Zealand. If enough of these partnerships succeed nation wide, both in terms of building and empowering stronger community relationships and improving conservation outcomes, the cumulative effects on conservation and society in New Zealand could be very significant.

1.2 Aims and objectives:

The focus of this thesis is on the conservation planning processes that are used in national park management. A broad examination of these processes is undertaken in order to examine options for co-management. The overall aim of this thesis is therefore to explore the question:

> **How can conservation planning processes in New Zealand provide for the collaborative management (co-management) of New Zealand's national parks, specifically Egmont National Park ?**

DoC and other stakeholders, such as tangata whenua, various tramping clubs and environmental organisations continually identify the need for greater input to conservation management and planning. Co-management is one concept that has been used in a number of cases overseas to alleviate these concerns while providing better conservation or resource management outcomes. While the concept of co-management is well understood in those areas it has been applied, its application in New Zealand is relatively recent. Conservation in New Zealand is undergoing continual change, and the ability to inform this change is critical. Major conservation issues continue to remain unresolved while community demands for greater involvement increase. Furthermore, Treaty of Waitangi and tangata whenua concerns mean New Zealand must be prepared to address the issue of giving meaningful effect to partnership principles in conservation management.

These issues have identified the need for a more in-depth examination of exactly what co-management may mean in New Zealand, and specifically what impacts it may have on conservation planning and management. The following objectives will direct the analysis of conservation planning processes in New Zealand towards an outcome that enables the key research question to be fully explored. The objectives are fulfilled using a number of key research questions.

Objective 1: Define and illustrate co-management principles and practice

Research questions:

⇒ What is co-management, and what are the primary principles upon which it is based?

⇒ Who is involved in co-management partnerships, to what level, and how are they identified?

⇒ What are the potential advantages, costs and obstacles for co-management of national parks?

⇒ What are the necessary prerequisites to successful co-management agreements?

Objective 2: Describe and analyse conservation planning and management practice in New Zealand's conservation estate.

Research Questions

⇒ How have national parks developed in New Zealand, and what impacts might this history have on the potential for co-management?

⇒ What are the major conservation and management issues in national parks, and how are these being addressed?

⇒ What opportunities exist for tangata whenua and community involvement in conservation planning processes under existing legislation and practice?

⇒ How might the present New Zealand administration and management systems for conservation fit with a co-management 'model'?

⇒ What changes are necessary at a national level in order to provide for co-management in New Zealand's national parks?

⇒ What process principles need to be incorporated in conservation planning to provide for co-management?

Objective 3: Describe and analyse national park management and potential improvements resulting from co-management.

Research questions:

⇒ How and why have national parks developed, and what is their primary purpose?

⇒ What legislation has developed in New Zealand and overseas for national park management?

⇒ How is co-management implemented in Australia within national parks or similar protected areas?

⇒ What processes and structures are necessary in order to give effect to the principles of co-management within national parks?

⇒ How might existing structures be improved to provide for greater community and tangata whenua involvement in national park management?

Objective 4: Describe possible conservation planning processes and management structures that may be used in Egmont National Park to progress the implementation of co-management.

Research Questions:

⇒ What resources and values are important and unique in Egmont National Park?

⇒ What are the major management issues associated with Egmont National Park?

⇒ Who are 'stakeholders' in co-management at and local, regional or national level in relation to Egmont National Park?

⇒ What are the advantages and disadvantages to Egmont National Park 'stakeholders' in providing opportunities for co-management?

⇒ What is the level of interest in park management, and what issues are raised by 'stakeholders' in relation to Egmont National Park?

⇒ What is the conservation management and planning framework for Egmont National Park, and how can this framework provide opportunities for co-management, either presently or in the future?

⇒ What structures and processes could be used to provide for co-management in Egmont National Park?

1.3 New Zealand Conservation estate

The term 'conservation estate' is applied to land held in public ownership for conservation purposes. The conservation estate accounts for almost a third of New Zealand's land area (DoC, 1996). The conservation estate includes 13 national parks totalling 2.9 million hectares, 20 forest parks totalling 1.8 million hectares and approximately 3,500 reserves.

The conservation estate has been progressively acquired and protected since the first national park was gifted to the nation by the paramount Chief of Tuwharetoa in 1887. It is managed under a number of different statues including the Reserves Act 1977, the National Parks Act 1980 (NPAct) and the overarching Conservation Act 1987. These statutes provide for a range of opportunities in the conservation estate from passive and active recreation to strict wildlife protection.

Recreation services on the conservation estate are provided by DoC and include 90 viewing platforms, 8,000 bridges, 960 backcountry huts and more than 10,000 kilometres of tracks. These extensive services provide opportunities for both New Zealanders and visitors to enjoy the conservation estate, while ensuring conservation values are not compromised.

The management of the conservation estate is an extremely complex task. DoC receives an annual budget of $160 million, of which approximately half is spent on conservation management and half on visitor services and public involvement. There have been many debates over the past years about the level of funding conservation should receive.

1.4 Treaty of Waitangi

In addition to the range of biological threats to conservation management, there has also been widespread concern by the public about the use of the conservation estate to settle historical grievances which stem from unjust confiscation of land from the indigenous people of New Zealand, the Maori, since the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840. The release of the very controversial 'fiscal envelope' policy by the National Government in 1994 has again renewed the public perception that the conservation

estate will be used by the Crown to settle long standing Treaty of Waitangi Claims (Blue, 1995).

The Treaty of Waitangi provides an important basis for the development of partnerships for conservation in New Zealand. It provides the justification to develop co-management arrangements both for the benefit of conservation outcomes and to give effect to the principles of the Treaty.

The broader philosophy behind co-management is also compatible with the underlying tenets of the Treaty:

> *"The Treaty was an acknowledgement of Maori existence, of their prior occupation of the land of an intent that the Maori presence would remain and be respected. It made us one country, but acknowledged that there were two people....The Treaty represents the gift [by the Maori] of the right to make laws in return for the promise to do so as to acknowledge and protect the interests of the indigenous inhabitants...."* (Waitangi Tribunal, 1983)

There is also growing recognition of the importance of recognising this partnership in the field of conservation and environmental management. In an investigation into New Zealand's environmental management systems and the Principles of the Treaty of Waitangi, the Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment (1988) stated that:

> *"The principal change implied for the existing environmental management system is a greater share of decision making power between Crown / pakeha and Maori partners to the Treaty and greater cognisance of Maori cultural values in the protection of resources and other taonga. The holistic approach of traditional Maori environmental management has much to offer, and is receiving belated recognition of its essential similarity to the ecological approach."*

Co-management acknowledges that there are two streams of knowledge in relation to the environment - that held by Maori and that held by 'western' science. These two streams of knowledge can be seen to provide a more holistic approach to environmental management when used together in a broad conservation planning framework.

Another major debate which impacts upon the conservation estate is the settlement of land claims resulting from Maori grievances in relation to the Treaty of Waitangi 1840.

The partnership 'model' established by the Treaty is fundamental to the success of co-management. While ownership is not examined in depth in this thesis, it is none-the-less an issue that may impact upon co-management. In particular, where areas of the conservation estate are subject to a Treaty claim, co-management may be an appropriate solution to both ownership and management issues.

The management and ownership of conservation estate is the subject of many differing views, values and experiences, and thus is an extremely important and contentious issue. One certainty in relation to the resolution of these issues is that they will take a great deal of time, dialogue and partnership building if they are to be agreed upon and successful. The adoption of appropriate techniques and approaches in conservation planning processes may greatly assist any transition to the collaborative management of the conservation estate.

1.5 Structure

This thesis is structured in six Chapters. This section outlines each chapter and the major topics covered. The first four chapters build up to the focus of this research, the case study of Egmont National Park.

1.5.1 Chapter Two - Methodology

This chapter outlines the research methodology for the thesis, including the development of a draft management plan for Egmont National Park, the interview process for the range of stakeholders identified for the park, and the literature review carried out to enable the development of options for co-management.

1.5.2 Chapter Three - Co-management: Theory and Application

This Chapter deals with the theory and application of the concept of collaborative management. The scene is set for the practical application of co-management opportunities for New Zealand through examining the principles and processes of co-management. The fundamental principles of co-management are analysed, in particular the central concept of recognising and utilising the strengths of two or more world views in a planning and decision making system.

In order to establish a framework for consideration of co-management arrangement, the potential costs, benefits and obstacles to co-management are discussed.

To complete this Chapter, a brief examination of processes and structures representative of co-management is undertaken. The purpose of this is principally to provide simple examples of what co-management may mean in practice. More detailed examples of co-management processes and structures are provided later in Chapter five.

1.5.3 Chapter Four - National Parks and Conservation Planning Processes

This Chapter provides a setting for co-management - that of New Zealand's national parks. An examination of national parks world-wide is carried out. This enables an understanding of the origins of the national park concept both internationally and in New Zealand.

New Zealand contains very few examples of co-management arrangements in operation. For this reason it is useful to outline international examples of co-management, and in particular, those that relate to national parks. Australia provides a number of useful examples of co-management in national parks, and Kakadu National Park is chosen as a minor case study.

Against this more general and international background, conservation administration and management in New Zealand is introduced. Key topics covered here include legislation, DoC, conservation management issues, and national parks in New Zealand. An examination of the history of national park management in New Zealand provides an insight into what issues may need to be resolved or taken into account in examining options for co-management.

Conservation planning processes in New Zealand are influenced at a number of levels, from a national level to local level implementation. DoC has carried out a number of rigorous strategic planning exercises in relation to major issues facing conservation in New Zealand. The importance of management planning, such as the preparation of conservation management strategies and conservation management plans is also discussed. These processes and their outcomes form the basis for considering co-management in Egmont National Park.

1.5.4 Chapter Five - Case Study : Egmont National Park

Egmont National Park was the second national park to be established in New Zealand. The park is chosen as a case study as the writer was involved in the preparation of a draft management plan under the NPAct. During this process, it became obvious that a

number of groups within the community, tangata whenua in particular, were not being involved in conservation planning processes or park management. This lead to the park becoming less relevant to the needs of the people, and conservation goals were, in some instances, not being achieved due to lack of public support.

The case study is presented as a reflection of the history of park management, and future options for co-management. This is done through an examination of the park, the people of the region (and other stakeholders) and the management plan process. These three elements are then combined to formulate options for co-management in the park based on the needs and aspirations of stakeholders and the political reality of current park administration. The management plan process was followed by consultation and discussion with a number of key stakeholders to gather further information on how conservation planning can be improved to provide for greater community control over park management. This process is described, and many of these discussions have been critical in developing the options presented for co-management of Egmont National Park.

1.5.5 Chapter Six - Conclusions and Recommendations

This Chapter reviews the concept of co-management in relation to Egmont National Park, and specifically reviews the objectives and research questions to discuss the conclusions reached. A number of recommendations are also made to both DoC and other stakeholders.

Methodology

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1 Introduction

Chapter one has introduced the problem being addressed in this thesis. This chapter outlines the research design and major phases of the research undertaken in order to achieve the aim, and explore the four key objectives. One of the primary outcomes of undertaking this research is the development of a series of workable options for co-management in Egmont National Park.

The research methodology adopted is both theoretically informed and relevant to the key stakeholders interests. This methodology ensures that stakeholders are fully informed of what the research aims to achieve. This enables those participants to develop an understanding through the process of consultation and interviews.

The development of the draft management plan for the park ensured a high degree of contact with key stakeholders. Subsequent interviews and meetings enabled progress and informal feedback to be made on issues raised during the management plan 'phase'. Participants were also able to more fully express ideas specifically in relation to co-management options as they were developed. The development of co-management options required regular interaction with key stakeholders, and a 'trail' of their involvement could be seen. As a result a there is a degree of ownership of the options presented in Chapter five. This will be particularly relevant in the future if the options are pursued.

This research has been carried out in four phases as follows:

(1) Literature review ;

(2) Egmont National Park Management Plan Review;

(3) Interviews with key stakeholder groups and individuals; and

(4) Analysis

Greater discussion of these phases is outlined in the following sections.

2.2 Methodology and research design

2.2.1 Research Methodology

One of the principles aims of the research methodology adopted for this thesis has been to involve as many of the participants and key stakeholders in Egmont National Park as possible. This was particularly important when investigating the various theoretical and practical aspects of co-management.

The methodology can be seen to be associated with a body of research theory known as 'action inquiry'. Action inquiry is a term used to describe any research methodology that deliberately uses a plan, action, description, review and a cycle for inquiry into action in a field of practice. The central elements of action inquiry is a cycle that allows the researcher to develop knowledge and understanding of processes by participating in them.

Figure 1: A common cycle of action inquiry (Kemmis and McTaggert, 1990)
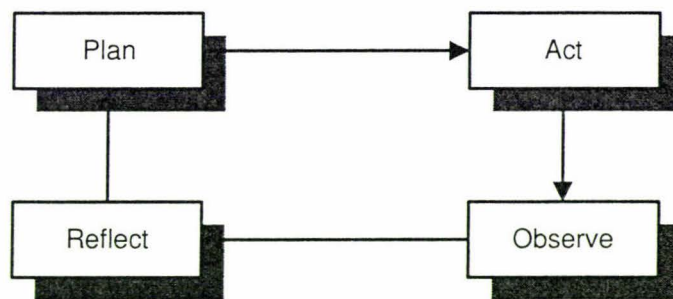
There are a number of different approaches to action inquiry which largely reflect the history of the implementation and development of this group of research methodologies. One such methodology is action research (Tripp, 1996) which has been defined as follows:

> *"a systematic inquiry that is collective, collaborative, self-reflective, critical and undertaken by participants in the inquiry"* (McCutcheon and Jurg 1990: 148).

"a form of collective self-reflective inquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own social or educational practices, as well as their understanding of these practices and the situations in which these practices are carried out" (Kemmis and McTaggert, 1990:5)

"action research aims to contribute both to the practical concerns of people in an immediate problematic situation and to the goals of social science by joint collaboration within a mutually acceptable ethical framework" (Rapoport 1970: 499)

A number of characteristics may be assumed to be central to any action research approach, including the following:

(1)   **Cyclic**: similar steps tend to recur, in a similar sequence;

(2)   **Participative**: the key stakeholders are involved as partners, or at least active participants, in the research process;

(3)   **Qualitative**: it deals more with language than with numbers

(4)   **Reflective**: critical reflection upon the process and outcomes are important parts of each cycle.

Action research assumes that one outcome may be real change in the issue or problem being researched. In the case of co-management, real change may take a number of forms, and it must be realised that the critical process of relationship building can take a great deal of time.

There are a number of ways to involve participants in an action research process. When determining which type of participation is most appropriate for the specific research project, it is useful to bear in mind two dimensions:

(1)   Who is to participate?; and

(2)   To what degree are they to participate?

Dick (1996) suggests a range of different dimensions for involvement in action research. This range has certainly been confirmed through the research process, as the ability and availability of each stakeholder determined their relative input. Some people

interviewed were, for example, excellent sources of data or information, while others were key decision makers (such as Conservation Board members of politicians at a local government level) and thus are able to plan change.

Table 1: Dimensions of participation (Dick, 1996)

Degree Of Participant Involvement	Characteristic	How participants relate to the process.
Providing Data	The participants are informants	Participants relate to the content of the situation
Interpreting Data	The participants are the interpreters	Participants relate to the content of the situation
Planning Change	The participants are the planners and the decision makers	Participants relate to the content of the situation
Implementation	The participants are the implementers	Participants relate to the content of the situation
Facilitation	The participants facilitate and manage the process of data collection and interpretation	Participants are part of the research process
Research Design	The participants design the overall study, and are researchers or co-researchers	Participants are part of the research process
Informants	Participants are kept informed about the study and its implications; participants are recipients only	Participants are part of process and/or content, low level or participation.

These dimensions were applied to the case study in a number of ways. Initial meetings with a number of key stakeholders in Egmont National Park in relation to the draft management plan revealed the importance of information collected from people involved in particular aspects of park management. The continued interest in co-management options for Egmont National Park shown by key stakeholders indicate the importance of ensuring people are kept informed and involved in any of research and conclusions being reached.

In relation to national park management, and potential changes to conservation planning processes or management structures to provide for co-management, the involvement of key stakeholders in this research process is essential for a number of reasons. The key stakeholders:

- were familiar with the history of the park, park management, what has been tried, and what has achieved its initial desired outcomes;

- were aware of what might be or what is culturally acceptable;

- were able to act themselves and to evaluate solutions according to their own suitability for the particular environment or for a particular project;

- are most likely to be directly affected by the outcomes (of conservation planning processes) and have a real interest in having some control over the outcomes;

- will have an active interest in progressing solutions following the completion of the research, and will be able to progress any mutually acceptable actions (because they have learnt about a number of issues along the way);

- will have developed relationships along the way which will assist in progressing the actions;

- will often have a diverse range of views, contributing to the strength of any potential negotiated agreements.

When choosing who is to participate it is appropriate to examine the structure of representation which is already established for those groups. For example, a number of iwi groups in New Zealand have established a representative who has a mandate to speak for their iwi on issues such as resource management, or conservation. This results in a representative form of participation in the action research exercise, as these representatives often relay the proceedings or events back to the wider group they represent.

Some groups may have a greater ability to contribute due their possession of relevant data or information, whether in a written or oral form. In this regard, the relative ability of each group or individual to contribute to the research was discussed, and appropriate methods of contact and ongoing relationships suitable for enabling their participation in the research were established at the outset.

Figure 2: Research Design

The following diagram illustrates the major phases of the research.
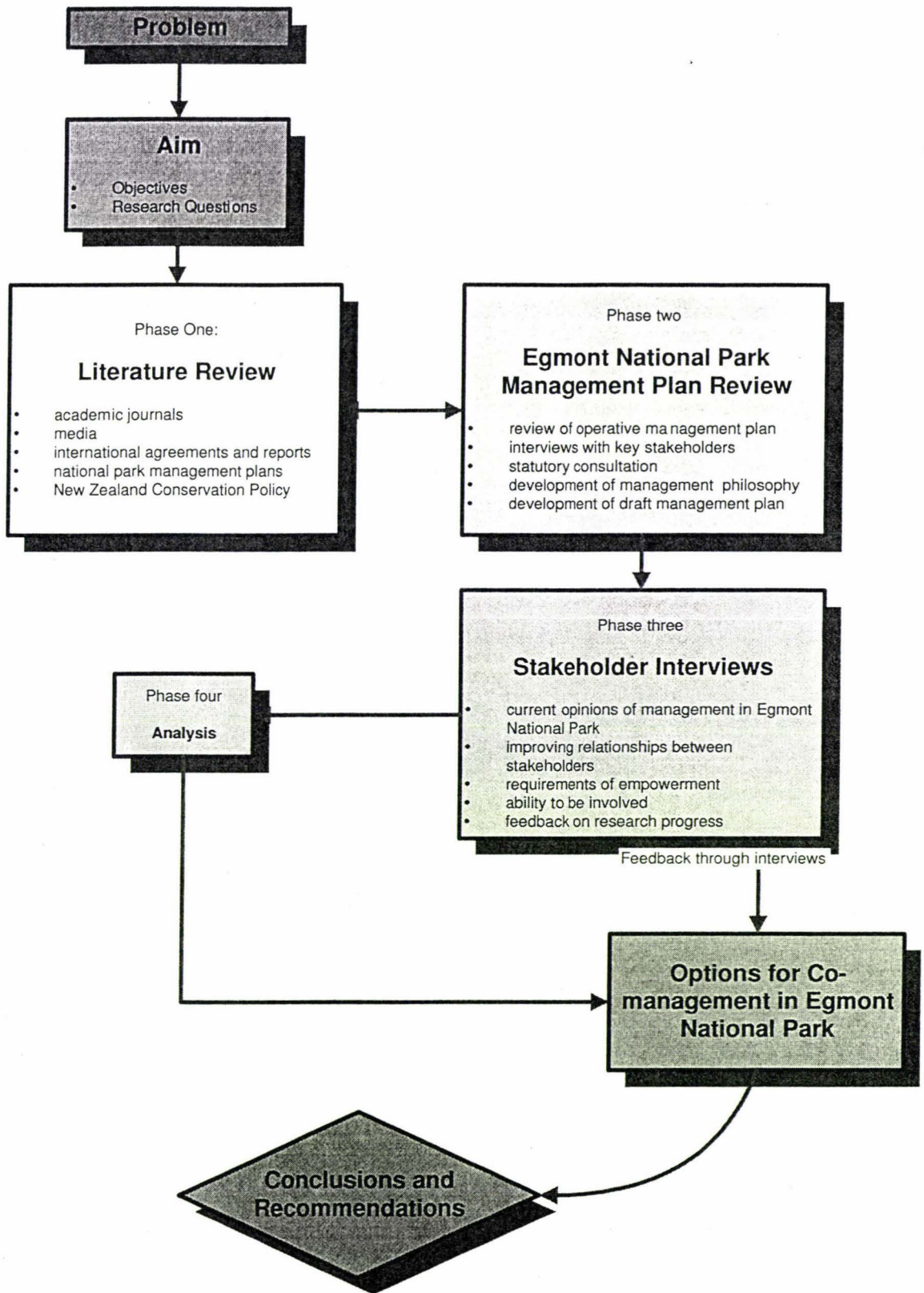
2.2.2 Limitations:

In considering and outlining the aim, objectives and key research questions of the thesis, there are also a number of limitations that need to be established. Examining co-management options for national parks provides a range of opportunities for researching new and innovative solutions to a range of conservation, recreation and cultural issues that prevail in New Zealand. Not all of these issues are examined in this thesis.

The limitations of this thesis are summarised below, and give a clear indication of what to expect. They also outline what issues have not been addressed or are not able to be addressed within the research framework. These limitations may provide some guidance on future work that may be required by those involved in developing co-management initiatives in New Zealand:

(1)   This thesis does not seek to develop comprehensive processes and structures for the transition towards and implementation of co-management in every potential situation. It will be shown that there are a range of common factors that lead to successful co-management, and that in the example of Egmont National Park, there are a series of possible options that are feasible in that instance.

(2)   In part, some of the limitations are inherent in the aim of the thesis, which focuses specifically on Egmont National Park. This in itself creates a 'geographical' limit, as all preceding theoretical and policy analysis is based on forming a strong background for that particular park. This does not negate the general application of a number of the principles, processes and other structures that have been developed throughout this thesis.

(3)   The fieldwork undertaken in conjunction with the management plan review was constrained by the amount of time and resources available during the 'early consultation' phase. This meant effort was directed at people and groups who were deemed to be 'key' stakeholders. In subsequent fieldwork (that was not part of the statutory phase), a wider group of people were interviewed.

(4)   In Chapter three a range of principles are developed for co-management. These principles are not suggested as a complete and comprehensive list of principles to guide co-management in every situation. Rather they are

a 'summary' of those principles that have been developed by practitioners working in this area abroad, and articulated in a range of academic articles and international reports and agreements.

(5)   The thesis also recognises the importance of structures that are able to provide accountability and transparency in the management process, but a full analysis of legislative requirements relating to the transfer of funds or other resources to a co-management body has not been carried out. This more 'financial' aspect of co-management requires further investigation once the final version of a co-management agreement or structure is more certain.

(6)   The research also raises a number of conservation management issues. These in part define the essence of the co-management problem (where management options must involve people who live in or adjacent to specified ecosystems). While solutions to a number of these areas may lie in areas such as proposing new 'ecosystem management' techniques (such as reorganising agency functions or boundaries), these are not explored because they have a different conceptual and organisational focus.

2.3   Literature review

The literature review has involved a search of academic journals, media sources, international agreements and reports, national park management plans, conservation policy from New Zealand and abroad, and transcripts from interviews of other people involved in co-management abroad. The primary source of the literature review has however been academic journals.

The literature review aims to describe and define co-management as it has developed in various locations around the world. The implementation of co-management in national parks also requires some review of the development of the national park concept. This includes an investigation of the various roles and changes in national park management over the last century or more. One of the key outputs of the literature review is the development of a range of principles for co-management that have emerged from practice overseas.

The input of key stakeholders was also sought in the development of chapter three and four by providing summarised versions of the both chapters to the group or individual prior to interviews. Changes or ideas expressed by stakeholders were then incorporated where possible in conjunction with information derived from interviews.

2.4 Case Study Selection - Management plan review

Two case studies are used in this thesis. The primary case study is Egmont National Park, located on the west coast in Taranaki, New Zealand. Kakadu National Park is located in the Northern Territories of Australia.

Egmont National Park was selected as a case study for co-management for two reasons. Firstly, I was contracted by DoC in late 1995 through to early 1996 to prepare a draft management plan for Egmont National Park under the NPAct. The statutory process required for the production of a notified draft management plan is relatively simple in comparison to processes under similar legislation, such as the Resource Management Act 1991 (RMAct). For this reason, a large number of interviews and group consultation with a range of key stakeholders occurred within time and resource constraints, prior to the preparation of the draft management plan. This is referred to as the 'early' consultation on the management plan. These initial contacts were maintained throughout the research into options for co-management in Egmont National Park, and have proved extremely beneficial.

During this process the need to alternative methods of providing for the participation of iwi and local communities in national park management became obvious. A number of iwi in particular were seeking further work in the field of management options for Mt. Taranaki. Secondly, my own interest in the park has stemmed from throughout my lifetime living in Taranaki and visiting the park and mountain on a number of occasions. The opportunity to be involved in both the management plan, and research for future options for park management was very appealing and satisfying from a personal viewpoint.

Kakadu National Park was selected as a comparative summary of how co-management is being applied abroad for two reasons. Firstly it was the first national park in Australia to enter into a co-management agreement with the aboriginal people as traditional owners. Kakadu provides a range of lessons in co-management, as managers and traditional owners alike have dealt with a number of issues that are similar to those

potentially facing Egmont National Park now and in the future. The second reason for choosing Kakadu is its location in Australia, which while very different ecologically, is relatively similar in terms of its constitutional jurisdictions, government agencies responsible for justice, conservation and so forth, colonial and traditional history and its 'social' similarity to New Zealand.

2.5 Interviews

Interviews with key stakeholders, were conducted in two phases, and were focused on two different matters. Firstly, a number of interviews were conducted for the purpose of preparing the draft Egmont National Park management plan. These focused on broad management issues relevant to the particular group or individual being interviewed. These interviews have contributed to the general information presented in Chapter five in relation to Egmont National Park.

Secondly, interviews carried out subsequent to the management plan focused on co-management options for Egmont National Park. These influenced a number of different parts of this thesis, primarily the principles of co-management developed in Chapter three, and those options for co-management of the park listed in section 5.5.4. This second 'phase' of interviews also provided a sense of what current opinions were on the management of Egmont National Park, and what potential existed for community involvement in national parks.

All interviews were conducted both on an individual basis, and with groups of people from one particular stakeholder group. Table 2 identifies the interviews conducted.

In summary, four key groups were consulted.

(1)   DoC staff

(2)   Taranaki iwi

(3)   Community groups

(4)   Taranaki / Wanganui Conservation Board

Many of these interviews provided stakeholders with information in relation progress on the development of the draft park management, and subsequently the research. This enabled the identification of any particular concerns as they arose. Therefore, the

interview process was two way, and participants were able to have a degree of ownership of both the research and the management planning process.

Table 2: People Interviewed during conduction of research.

Groups / Organisations Interviewed	
Taranaki Alpine Club	Stratford Tramping Club
Egmont Alpine Club	New Plymouth Tramping Club
Kahui Outdoor Pursuits Alpine Club	The Stratford Mountain Club
Forest and Bird (Taranaki)	Tourism Taranaki
Concessionaires:	
Chris Prudden - Mountain Guide	Tom and Nell Lilford (Dawson Falls Tourist Lodge)
Keith and Berta Anderson (Stratford Mountain House)	John Bowie - North Egmont Visitors Centre Manager (1995-1996)
Individuals	
Colin Wright	Don Field
Frank and Shirley Bourke	Lester Barnes
Neville Davies	
DoC Staff	
Rudy Tetteroo (Field Centre)	Steve Hormann (Wanganui Conservancy)
Jeff Mitchell-Anyon (Wanganui Conservancy)	Eru Manuera (Head Office)
Dave Rogers (Field Centre)	Clive Anstey (Head Office)
Kerry Mathews (Field Centre)	Sue Hemer (Field Centre)
Rangipo Mete Kingi (Wanganui Conservancy)	Barry Hartley (Conservation Board)
Taranaki iwi [2]	
Diane Ratahi	Charles Hohaia
Lesley Patu	Raima Kingi
Spencer Carr	

[2] It should be noted that the majority of contact with iwi representatives occurred as a result of the review of the management plan. Further interviews were conducted with some representatives from different iwi, however, the availability of representatives was stretched over this time period due to the research and presentation of claims to the Waitangi Tribunal.

2.6 Summary

This chapter has outlined the range of research methods and approaches used in developing this thesis. It essentially 'sets the scene' for the conclusions and assumptions made in each of the following chapters. Each of the phases of research has required different skills. The literature review phase of the research ensures a comprehensive assessment of both co-management and national park management is carried out before developing co-management options for Egmont National Park.

The collation and interpretation of a range of different opinions on future management options for a national park is process that has uncovered many different opinions within local communities in Taranaki. Involvement in the preparation of the draft management plan, and the statutory and other associated institutional processes proved extremely valuable and crucial to the completion of this research. Participation by key stakeholders in processes that may eventually be used to co-manage Egmont National Park, a national icon, is a critical requirement.

3

Co-management
Theory and Practice

3. CO-MANAGEMENT: THEORY AND PRACTICE

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides theoretical and practical background information on the principles, processes and implementation of co-management. Firstly, co-management is defined, and some description of the basic concept is provided. Co- management can be seen to draw on a number of bodies of theory, resulting in difficulties in defining the process and practice of co-management. A brief examination of the history of co-management helps remove any uncertainty over definitions and provides an indication of the situations in which co-management has developed.

The identification and inclusion of a diverse and representative range of stakeholders is perhaps one of the key challenges for co-management. There are a number of reasons people and communities wish to be involved in co-management. These must be accommodated within the process. The process of implementing a co-management agreement also means all stakeholders are required to make decisions together. This requires a synthesis of two or more world views. The process by which these diverse communities form a decision making partnership is of critical importance to co-management as it relates to the underlying philosophy of such community based approaches .

As with any planning or resource management process, co-management is based upon a number of principles. While co-management is being used in many situations around the world, each is unique. In New Zealand there are a number of unique factors which mean we must adapt, and to a certain extent, re-invent the principles of co-management processes to suit our own social and environmental conditions. In essence, co-management requires three basic sets of principles. These are: conservation management principles; principles for the process of co-management; and those principles which form the understanding and relationship between the parties involved. These will all be explored and articulated in greater depth. Participants will also be aware of the broader social and economic implications of co-management.

In addition, it is pertinent to examine the potential costs, benefits and obstacles of co-management, as determined by current practice. The actual environmental outcomes that may be achieved using co-management are of special interest to government

agencies when contemplating such an arrangement with local communities. It is recognised that a lot of information is available on the process of co-management as it operates overseas. What is required in the New Zealand context however, is an analysis of how conservation planning processes can provide for co-management. This must be coupled with an analysis of the potential advantages and disadvantages of moving towards a co-management approach.

Complimentary and essential to an examination and articulation of a process are the institutional and structural arrangements necessary for co-management to deliver the anticipated outcomes. The actual way in which representation occurs on a decision making body is a crucial issue for most stakeholders. A description and examination of the various structures in operation overseas will inform this discussion.

In many examples where co-management has been successfully implemented, indigenous peoples' are significantly involved in partnership with a government agency. Indigenous peoples' often base their economies and survival on the sustainable use of local resources and thus have a crucial role in the management of these resources. Co-management arrangements with indigenous communities represents a carefully planned and incremental step towards self-determination (IUCN, 1997).

While a number of the case studies in this thesis focus on co-management arrangements between indigenous communities and government agencies, it must be recognised that there are also a number of other stakeholders who have significant interest in the management of local resources. In many instances, these 'other' stakeholders have as much difficulty in being included in decision making processes as indigenous peoples'. The context of co-management in this thesis is that of involvement by indigenous peoples' and all local communities who wish to register an interest. This open and inclusionary process is again derived from the fundamental principles of co-management.

The principles and processes that may be used to implement co-management arrangements are applicable to any co-management partnership between government and another party or parties. The majority of examples of co-management in operation today involve a partnership with indigenous communities. The majority of co-management literature focuses on these partnerships.

3.2 Definition of co-management

'Management' within the institutional framework of a government bureaucracy may be defined as "*the professional administration of public concerns*" (Concise Oxford Dictionary). This government management paradigm is dominant and is based on western scientific knowledge (for further discussion of this management paradigm, see section 3.5).

In addition to the western management paradigm there are also management practices that relate to local knowledge, specifically those practices of indigenous peoples'. The term 'indigenous knowledge' has been broadly defined as: "*the local knowledge held by indigenous peoples' or local knowledge unique to a given culture or society*" (Berkes *et al*, 1995).

These "traditional" local management systems have been the primary means by which humans have managed natural resources for millennia (Berkes and Farvar, 1989). More specifically in relation to conservation and protected areas, 'traditional ecological knowledge' (which is referred to as a subset of indigenous knowledge) may be defined as:

> "*a cumulative body of knowledge and beliefs, handed down through generations by cultural transmission, about the relationship of living beings (including humans) with one another and with their environment*"
> (Berkes, 1993).

There are many similarities between these two management systems. They both utilise the power of observation, comprehension and generalisation to make some sense of the world. In a number of areas around the world, for various reasons, these two seemingly diametrically opposed systems of management have drawn on the strengths of each others paradigm in a collaborative effort to manage resources. From these efforts, and the growing momentum for political processes to encourage meaningful community participation in decision making, the term co-management has spawned.

The term co-management[3] of national parks or protected areas refers to a partnership between any number of stakeholders that is based upon a mutual desire to share management functions, rights, and responsibilities (Borrini-Feyerabend, 1996). It has also been described as an inclusionary, consensus-based approach to resource use and development (Campbell, T. 1996).

Co-management most often involves a partnership between an agency with jurisdiction over a particular territory or resource and a number of other stakeholders. From the point of view of a government agency, co-management at a broad level refers to the degree to which central or regional government may integrate their management functions with local resource users, to the extent that they share power and responsibility (Berkes et al, 1991).

Power is a critical element in co-management. One of the core principles of co-management is the devolution of power to local communities. Power is also a critical element in a conflict resolution situation. Power is that element of a decision making process that enables the power holder to act, influence or to hold authority over the outcome. Co-management attempts to share this power equally amongst participants in the process to enable outcomes to be based on a collective power relationship. The more traditional relationship, where one particular group holds all the power, inevitably leads to the 'have-nots' being excluded form the process.

The approach taken by different stakeholders will often depend upon their view of the power they have and the balance of power among the other stakeholders (Lewis, 1996). There are many different types of power, some real, some perceived. Co-management processes need to enable the various real and perceived powers to be harnessed in an inclusionary approach. Different types of power may include;

- power of position (where a person has authority and is in a position to make or influence decisions);

- personal knowledge;

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[3] The term co-management may also be referred to as participatory management, participatory democracy, joint management, shared management, or multi-stakeholder management. This wide range to references to often similar processes understandably results in a certain degree of confusion surrounding the term co-management.

- personal power (being personally forceful/ persuasive);

- economic power (having financial resources);

- political power (having the support of a constituency or access to political leadership, or in politically appointed position of power);

- legal power (having a "good" legal case to support a particular position, or being in a position of power by virtue of the law);

- coercive physical power (having police or military backing);

- family power (being from a well connected family)

- historical power (power resulting from historical association with decision making)

- group power (being a member of a pressure group, usually with one particular interest) (adapted from Lewis, 1996).

While it is possible to make broad statements relating to co-management, a precise definition of co-management is difficult in that the concept is applied in a number of different situations globally. Attempts to define the practice of co-management may indeed limit possibilities when attempting to pursue such an arrangement (Notzke, 1995). For this reason it must be recognised that the practice of preparing and implementing co-management agreements should take place at a level that is based on the particular ecosystem or area concerned. This process should also actively seek the involvement of all major interest groups connected with the area.

Craig (1992) provides a succinct summary of what is meant by the term co-management.

> *"Joint management is the sharing of control of an area by two or more different interest groups. It aims to provide for the conservation of the park and to maintain its value to the traditional owners. There is an attempt to recognise the interests of two cultures within the constraints imposed by the goal of ecosystem preservation. The model institutionalises co-operation in both long term planning for the park and the day-to-day implementation of a process which includes the mediation of disputes and the regulation of tourism. Joint management*

recognises the importance of cultural and biological diversity. It is a method of utilising the traditional knowledge of indigenous cultures to the benefit of all humanity...."

Borrini-Feyerabend (1996) describes co-management as:

"a situation in which some or all of the relevant stakeholders in a protected area are involved in a substantial way in management activities. Specifically in a collaborative management process, the agency with the jurisdiction over the protected area (usually a state agency) develops a partnership with other relevant stakeholders (primarily including local residents and resource users) which specifies and guarantees their respective functions, rights and responsibilities with regard to the protected area"

Don Gilmour (1996, cited in Bayon,1996), Head of the IUCN Forest Programme describes co-management as:

"a process of mutual social learning, where each side is learning about the other, and I have no doubt it is the future for all natural resource management strategies. One of the essential features in this type of collaboration is that the outcome is a negotiated outcome, so negotiation is essential.....it's not just a matter of calling a meeting, and having a simple discussion, there is a long and lengthy social process that has to be defined and managed. It's a new process for most of the government-type people who are involved, although it is not necessarily new for some of the other social actors who have always had to negotiate."

In many overseas examples, land claims by indigenous peoples' have forced governments to re-examine their partnerships with indigenous peoples'. In particular, a number of judicial decisions have been instrumental in clarifying indigenous rights and as a consequence, the legal relationship between governments and indigenous peoples'. This is particularly true for Canada and Australia where a number of recent Court decisions[4] have been instrumental in redefining this partnership. In some instances

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[4] These include the *Mabo, Sparrow,* and *Calder* decisions. These are discussed later.

these decisions have provided the impetus for governments to seek co-management partnerships with indigenous peoples'.

A description of the basic elements of partnerships often provides a useful insight into what co-management actually means. In general, a partnership may identify the following:

- the actual protected area or resource and a description of these, including their boundaries and the legislative or policy mandate for their management;

- the range of functions and sustainable uses it can provide, including the primary purpose for which it is being managed and any potential or actual conflicts with that purpose;

- the recognised communities of interest and potential stakeholders;

- the functions and responsibilities to be assumed by each stakeholder, and the process by which functions and responsibilities are assigned;

- a process by which specific benefits and rights are to be assigned, and allocation of these benefits and rights to each stakeholder or the communities they represent;

- an agreed management philosophy, including management objectives, policies and prioritised actions, possibly through the development or adoption of a management plan;

- procedures for mediation, dealing with conflicts, and negotiating consensus decisions about all of the above;

- procedures for enforcing the above; and

- specific rules for monitoring, evaluating and reviewing the partnership agreement, the effectiveness of its implementation, and the effectiveness of the management plan, as appropriate (adapted from Borrini-Feyerabend, 1996).

Given the difficulties in defining co-management, a comparison of different levels of involvement by indigenous peoples' and the community in the management of local resources provides a useful overview of what is meant by co-management in practice. Berkes *et al* (1991) modified Arnstein's (1969) "ladder of community participation" to

depict degrees of co-management as rungs of a ladder (see Figure 3). Arnstein's ladder of participation (see Appendix 1) focuses on the issue of distribution of power. Examination of the content and context of her article provides an excellent starting point for analysis of co-management practices (and indeed all resource management or political processes which purport to be participatory) in terms of the ability to provide for citizen participation.

Participation has become a cornerstone of democratic processes. The report of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) entitled "Our Common Future" recognised that sustainable development will require *a political system that secures effective citizen participation in decision making*" (WCED, 1987). A number of subsequent international reports have endorsed the requirement for citizen participation in political processes. Reform of New Zealand government in the 1980's was also based upon the principles of open and accountable government. This included a requirement for citizen participation (Hoskin, 1994). Arnstein wrote the following introduction to her ladder of citizen participation, which provides a useful context for consideration of different 'rungs' or levels of co-management:

> *"Inviting citizens' opinions, like informing them, can be a legitimate step towards their full participation. But if consulting them is not combined with other modes of participation, this rung is still a sham since it offers no assurance that citizen concerns and ideas will be taken into account. The most frequent methods used for consulting people are attitude surveys, neighbourhood meetings, and public meetings. When power holders restrict the input of citizens' ideas solely to this level, participation remains as just a window dressing ritual. People are primarily perceived as statistical abstractions, and participation is measured by how many come to meetings, take brochures home or answer a questionnaire. What citizens achieve in all this activity is that they have 'participated in participation'. And what power holders achieve is the evidence that they have gone through the required motion of involving 'those people'."*

Similar to Arnsteins' ladder, each rung on the ladder suggested by Berkes *et al* (1991) in relation to co-management illustrates a gradual shift in power and responsibility from central government to community control, from token power sharing to complete

community control. In this example, community control is taken to include the indigenous community, but may also be extended to include other community groups with an interest in the management of natural and physical resources.

Figure 3: Levels of Co-Management (source: Berkes *et al*, 1991)

Box	Description
Partnership / Community Control	Partnership of equals; joint decision making institutionalised; power delegated to community where feasible
Management Boards	Community is given opportunity to participate in developing and implementing management plans
Advisory Committees	Partnership in decision-making starts; joint action or common objectives
Communication	Start of two-way information exchange; local concerns begin to enter management plans
Co-operation	Community starts to have an input into management; e.g. use of local knowledge, research assistants
Consultation	Start face to face contact; community input heard but not necessarily heeded
Informing	Community is informed about decisions already made

(vertical axis label: Increasing levels of community involvement in conservation management)

The approach suggested in Figure 3 has also been adopted by Borrini-Feyerabend (1996) in developing a continuum of participation in protected area management. Figure 4 illustrates this continuum from the point of view of the administering agency. It does not take account of ownership issues such as underlying tenure rights or other rights conferred on individual groups or stakeholders by legislation.

Full control by the administering agency	Shared Control between the administering agency and other stakeholders	Full control by other stakeholders

CO-MANAGEMENT OF A PROTECTED AREA

← →

actively consulting	seeking consensus	negotiating (involving decision making) and developing specific agreements	sharing authority and responsibility in a formal way (e.g. via seats in a management body	transferring authority and responsibility

No interference or contribution from other stakeholders	←→	No interference or contribution from the administering agency

- increasing expectations of stakeholders →

- increasing contributions, commitment and 'accountability' of stakeholders →

Further definition of co-management is assisted by a comprehensive analysis of two broad aspects of the outcomes of such agreements or processes. These are:

(1)   What co-management changes in relation to the management of natural and physical resources; and conversely

(2)   What co-management does not change in relation to problems identified with current resource management or conservation planning processes.

This analysis needs to be inclusive of all parties involved in co-management, including an assessment against both their initial expectations of the process and the objectives that were agreed from the outset of the process (where this occurred). Such an analysis

is partially a monitoring function that should be undertaken by those involved in co-management as it relates to the effectiveness and suitability of the co-management process in addressing resource management issues. A linkage to monitoring the 'state of the environment' must also exist in terms of measuring any improvement in environmental quality or protection of resources. This type of analysis or evaluation is aided by establishing clear objectives from the outset of the process.

In addition, broader outcomes including social changes need to be monitored. This recognises the broader social implications of involving local communities in managing their local resources directly through processes that empower them to do so.

One of the major issues that must be resolved in relation to initiating co-management processes is the devolution of power on the part of government to more local institutions. There is an inherent conflict in governments' devolving power to more local levels as it is against their natural instincts for survival. This assumes however, that governments are entities in which every person follows a single policy direction. Clearly this is not the case. Governments (including politicians and the officials who support them) are diverse in their political will and philosophy. All groups contain people who resist change, and others who drive for change. The major challenge for those initiating moves towards co-management is to manage the transition so that adequate time is provided for both government and communities to take joint ownership of the process.

The differences between state level management and local level management of natural and physical resources are critical in assessing what co-management may or may not change. At a global level, the sustainable development debate contributes a great deal to the analysis of differences between state (centralised) and local government control over resources. Co-management attempts to empower management responsibility at a community level. This involves decision making processes that are open and accessible to those directly affected by decisions. This differs to the devolution of resource management functions from central to local government. In many cases, even local level government remains beyond the realm of influence of many local communities.

Table 3: Differences between state-level and local-level resource management (adapted from Berkes, 1995).

State-Level Management	Local-Level Management
centralised authority	local, informal authority
inaccessible to local resource users	accessible to local resource users
enforcement based on exogenous law	consensus and social sanctions
based on science	based on custom or traditional knowledge
separation of objective and subjective	moral and ethical context paramount
universal laws	locale-specific
disembeddedness	embedded in local culture
synchronic data	diachronic data
separation of user and manager	no separation of user and manager

While the focus of this thesis is co-management in national parks, there are also a number of examples where co-management has been initiated outside protected areas, or to manage specific resources, such as marine mammals. While these resource specific examples of co-management are not discussed in great depth, it is recognised that co-management agreements do not necessarily occur solely on a territorial basis, but may occur on a resource basis. An example where co-management is used to address resource specific issues is in managing traditional or cultural harvesting issues.

The nature of the relationship between a government agency and local communities may be such that certain functions are delegated to local control, such as, the management of sacred sites. This raises a significant question for those government agencies investigating or being pushed to devolve management responsibility for protected areas to local co-management arrangements. That is: *"on what basis are delegations to a co-management body[5] made?"*.

In many nations central government agencies are charged with managing resources, activities or effects that are of national significance. A component of this is the development of policy that reflects this national 'co-ordination' role. The decision governments must make in relation to resources or areas that are currently managed in the national interest, is whether similar or acceptable results can be achieved in an

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[5] The term co-management body refers to that group of stakeholders who have a collective mandate to manage the area or resource under consideration. The co-management body is in effect the community based structural decision making body that gives effect to a co-management agreement.

integrated manner through local co-management arrangements. While a government agency may be represented on a co-management body, it is by no means assured that the outcomes it believes should occur are achieved or receive highest priority. Different priorities may be established by local communities. The outcomes produced by a co-management arrangement however, may reflect a local level translation of national concerns.

In relation to co-management agreements for protected areas, such as national parks, it is recognised that in many situations these areas do not exist in isolation from resource management issues that occur in surrounding landscapes. Therefore, a requirement of co-management is that it is able to adapt and be compatible with the processes and structures used to resolve issues that occur outside protected areas. Issues within an ecosystem (such as the loss of biodiversity) that have a cause/effect relationship across the boundary of a protected area may be resolved by establishing and strengthening positive working relationships with surrounding landowners and other agencies. Integration must be a key component if co-management is to be successful.

The debate on sustainable development, including the growing concern over a number of serious global, national and local environmental issues and the demands of the basic right of people to develop, means the number of conflicts over resource use are increasing. While the influence of the global economy is growing, many governments are addressing the problems associated with decreasing budgets for addressing environmental issues by devolving this responsibility to local communities (McNealy, 1996). This does not necessarily reduce or remove these conflicts.

The management of natural and physical resources involves a number of complex resource allocation considerations. Conflict inevitably arises when decisions are being made as to who should be permitted to use resources, at what rate, and under what conditions. Different competing interests for natural and physical resources seems to mean the stakes are raised, stakeholders become less and less able to negotiate a useful outcome, and litigation is the only method of dispute resolution. Questions of ownership and the jurisdiction of governments to make such decisions are often unresolvable conflicts that usually result from different historical, political and philosophical views of resource management. Conflict is inevitable in situations where ownership is debatable or where resource use or development is considered to have a negative effect on the community as a whole.

One realm of resource management within which there are often considerable conflicts over resource use, is that which impacts upon indigenous peoples'. This impact may occur in any number of ways from a reduction in an ability to carry out traditional subsistence to an effect on the ability to practice traditional ecological or spiritual beliefs. In terms of co-management of protected areas, there is an important correlation to be made between indigenous peoples' and the protection or sustainable management of biological resources. Indigenous peoples' are responsible for a majority of the worlds cultural and biological diversity (IUCN, 1997), and therefore, have a critical role to play in any ongoing management of protected areas. However, this appears quite the opposite when examining the involvement of indigenous peoples' in management regimes.

Conflicts between indigenous peoples' and other resource users are well illustrated in many countries throughout the world. This may be attributable to the proposition that historically, indigenous peoples' have been excluded from any meaningful involvement in resource allocation decision making processes (Campbell, T. 1996). This results in conflict being the only alternative course of action. Exclusion of indigenous peoples' and local communities from decision making processes has predominantly been carried out by state level governments, and/or local government. All local communities (whether indigenous peoples' or otherwise) are directly affected by resource management decisions that are made in respect of their local areas. Therefore, local communities have a right to be directly involved in these decision making processes.

These seemingly unresolvable conflicts have, in some instances, led to a change in the way certain governments address such issues. In many cases, the root of the conflict can be traced back many generations. While development continues unabated and concern over environmental degradation reaches new political levels, there is a growing need on the part of governments to consider a wider range of interests in resource management decision making than has occurred in the past. This is especially the case where land or resources subject to claims by indigenous communities are involved. Resolving the historical grievances associated with such claims will inevitably involve a great deal of negotiation, and often a re-examination of the decision making process. New arrangements that attempt to mitigate or avoid the effects of development (or other activities) on the resources at issue are required as a minimum to prevent any new or ongoing grievances from occurring.

A number of social justice, institutional and environmental management matters need to be addressed when considering co-management. While it is possible to isolate co-management arrangements from broader issues such as ownership, planning processes should still recognise these issues are of interest to stakeholders. The ability of co-management processes to pursue (with a clearly defined mandate) management solutions to environmental or other resource crises in order to avoid an long term of permanent loss that might otherwise occur as a result of inaction, is critical.

Once a mandate has been established, suitable community based action may be taken to resolve a number of the pressing issues being faced by protected areas and local communities. This range of management and ownership issues has been demonstrated on a continuum of co-management (see Figure 4). Where co-management is being considered in a specific environment, for example a protected area, this may be influenced by a number of broader matters, such as:

(1)   the range of critical management issues facing natural and physical resources;

(2)   the range of social justice issues which require resolution;

(3)   the cost and time involved in resolving social justice issues including Treaty claims issues; and

(4)   the degree to which current management structures are able to share power and responsibility with an alternative management approach or viewpoint.

Where co-management is established, its success or otherwise must be able to be assessed in some way. Therefore, clear and measurable objectives must be established. These objectives should be framed so that the co-management arrangement put in place is empowered to improve and enhance processes and outcomes beyond the baseline of traditional government agency management. Furthermore, co-management should be seen as more than a remedy for representational issues, or a simple re-drawing of jurisdictional boundaries. Unfortunately, most often it is seen as a reactive response to either resource degradation problems, or to remedy in a partial sense, land claim and ownership issues.

The broad range of social, environmental and economic implications of this type of management result in a diversity of application. As with many fields in natural resource

management, the best indicator of what is before us in terms of defining future practice or directions for co-management is an examination of the past.

3.3   History of co-management

Co-management has evolved as a concept over the past two decades under vastly different circumstances in different countries. A recurrent theme is the need to address aboriginal and treaty rights. In other situations, co-management has evolved in response to either real or perceived environmental or conservation crises, and legal decisions that affect the degree to which aboriginal rights may be exercised and/or controlled. In some cases, regional levels of government have initiated co-management regimes as part of a process involving a fundamental change to the way government views and expresses the rights and relationships of indigenous peoples' (Notzke, 1995). These situations are often focused on the use of natural and physical resources. Consequently, co-management has perhaps had the greatest advances in resource management, including those in protected areas such as national parks.

While the term co-management has appeared in the literature only relatively recently, the principles of partnership that underpin co-management are by no means a new approach to resolving resource management issues. Partnerships for managing resources, specific territories or resolving resource use conflicts are commonplace in many countries. It is the level of involvement by the partner with less statutory power or responsibility that varies considerably. It is also necessary to recognise that co-management is not an appropriate arrangement in all situations. Two countries that are notable for a continuous commitment to co-management arrangements are Canada and Australia. In particular, these countries have co-management arrangements in protected areas such as national parks.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders in Australia have the dual concern of having meaningful involvement in the management of the natural resources and settling the claims to the ownership of those resources including land. Generally, but not always, the land claims process in Australia deals with land title and is treated quite independently of resource and environmental management matters. Until the Mabo

decision in Australia[6] the doctrine of aboriginal title was not recognised in Australian common law.

Co-management in national parks in Australia has been attributed to the Ranger Uranium Inquiry. This Commission of Inquiry considered matters that directly impacted upon aboriginal land rights in the Northern Territory. The Commission was established pursuant to the Environmental Protection (Impact of Proposals) Act 1974 (Cwlth) to evaluate a uranium mining proposal and its wider policy implications for Australia in the Alligator Rivers Region. The recommendations of the *Ranger Report* are summarised as follows:

(1) that a national park be declared (Kakadu) over parts of the region;

(2) that title should be granted to the traditional owners under the Aboriginal Land Rights (Northern Territory) Act 1976; and

(3) that the mining proposal go ahead and that aboriginal interests and conservation issues should be integrated into a plan of management for that area set aside as a national park.

The National Park and Wildlife Conservation Act 1975 (Cwlth) provides the possibility for co-management arrangements and has been can be used to achieve such outcomes in relation to parks in the Northern Territory including the world heritage parks, Kakadu and Uluru (Ayers Rock). These co-management regimes return legal title to Aboriginal interests. A lease-back arrangement to the Australian National Parks and Wildlife Service allows for the both Federal and Aboriginal interests to be taken into account in the management process. Boards of Management are established which have a majority of members nominated by the Aboriginal owners. These Boards have responsibility for the overall management of the parks including the preparation of management plans. There are now a number of examples of co-management in protected areas, and specifically in national parks, in operation in Australia. The majority of these follow the blueprint of the Kakadu and Uluru 'model' for co-management.

Co-management regimes in Canada have been developing for two decades. The 1980's and 1990's have seen a redefinition of the relationship between native and non-native Canadians. A component of the change in this relationship has been a change in power and responsibility in relation to natural resources and protected areas (Notzke, 1995).

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[6] the Australian High Court in Mabo v State of Queensland (1992) 66 ALR 408

Part of the reason for this change in relationship has been the negotiation and settlement of comprehensive land claims with indigenous peoples'. These negotiations have led to agreements that featured co-operative or collaborative approaches.

The negotiation of comprehensive claim agreements with the indigenous peoples' of Canada occurred mostly in the 1980's and early 1990's. Management regimes that provided for access to and control over natural resources were a regular feature of these agreements. These "Agreements-in-Principle", "Umbrella Final Agreements" and "Final Agreements" have been negotiated with aboriginal people of Yukon and the Northwest Territories. While the comprehensive land claims policy was set by the Canadian Government in 1974, the first agreement to be negotiated was signed in 1984 and was known as the Western Arctic or Inuvialuit Final Agreement (IFA).

In order to evaluate whether this agreement embodies one of the beginnings of co-management in Canada and thus whether it is significant in terms of the development of co-management, it is important to know the goals being sought by the partners to the agreement (Notzke, 1995). Doubleday (1989) states *"the provisions of the Inuvialuit Final Agreement which deals with the management of living resources are but one component of a cross-cultural compromise between Canada and the Inuvialuit"*. The goals of this agreement are as follows:

(1)   to preserve Inuvialuit cultural identity and values within a changing northern society;

(2)   to enable Inuvialuit to be equal and meaningful participants in the northern and national economy and society; and

(3)   to protect and preserve the Arctic wildlife, environment and biological productivity.

Another major push for some of the more recent co-management arrangements in Canada, as with Australia, has been the development of a number of critical judicial decisions. One important decision of the British Columbian Court of Appeal in December 1986 involved native fisherman who had been convicted in an earlier trial. One of the key matters for interpretation by the Court was the meaning of section 35(1) of the Constitution Act 1982 which states *"The existing aboriginal and treaty rights of*

the aboriginal peoples of Canada are hereby recognised and affirmed." This decision became known as the *Sparrow* case[7].

The Court ruled that the native people have an unextinguished right to fish for food, and that the term 'food fishery' should be given a broad definition. This effectively acknowledges aboriginal rights. Furthermore, the Court considered that these rights were to be given priority over other resource users' rights subject only to federal authority to conserve fish stocks. This ruling was confirmed in 1990 by the Supreme Court of Canada. The Government of British Columbia initiated substantial change in the way it expressed the relationship between native and non-native citizens. This was to have far reaching consequences for natural resource management in particular. The Aboriginal Affairs Ministry in British Columbia began to formulate ideas that indicated a collaborative approach to resource management was likely, pending the negotiation of contemporary treaties (Notzke, 1995).

It is acknowledged that while Canada and Australia have made significant advances in terms of implementing co-management, a number of unresolved issues remain in those countries. A number of other countries also have examples of co-management in operation that illustrate interesting variations and possibilities for this type of management regime. These examples provide an insight into the development of co-management over more recent years.

India was one of the first countries to establish a national forest service (some 50 years before the United States) and has one of the largest services in the world, employing approximately 150,000 people (Poffenberger, 1996). India has a severely degraded environment with as much as one half of its land area declared unproductive in 1980. While one quarter of the land area is designated public forest, only eight percent of land supports good forest vegetation. Joint forest management (JFM) programmes established in the early 1980's by separate states gradually spread throughout the country. By 1996 the central government and a majority of states had established JFM programmes to register informal forest management groups. These groups have become involved in substantial ecological restoration projects.

There are also numerous examples of co-management in operation throughout Africa. Mount Elgon (100 km north of Lake Victoria) is one of East Africa's oldest volcanoes,

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[7] (*Sparrow* v. R. (1986) 9 B.C.L.R. 300)

and is an important area for plant diversity (Mugisha, 1996). Since 1988 the Ugandan Government has reinstated a commitment to conservation. This commitment led to a strategy being developed for the long term conservation of the Mount Elgon Forest Reserve.

One of the major conflicts with conservation in Mount Elgon Forest Reserve was the tens of thousands of people living within close proximity to the reserve. The resources of the reserve were used for grazing their livestock, hunting, timber and a variety of harvesting purposes. Today, about 20 percent of the vegetation has been cleared from the lower slopes of the mountain. In 1989 all the settlers in the area were evicted. In 1993 the area on the Uganda side of Mount Elgon was declared a national park. A project initiated by the government in association with the IUCN initially concentrated on meeting the immediate conservation needs of the area. It aimed to involve local communities through environmental education an sustainable development activities.

The project scope grew as technical staff realised the strong relationship of the surrounding communities with the area would have to be internalised in terms of a management process. Since 1994 the Mount Elgon National Parks Authority and the project have been working to ensure the dependency of local communities on the resources of the park creates a basis for fostering community commitment to conservation initiatives, rather than being continuous opponents to such measures. This outcome has been achieved using a co-management approach whereby people are placed at the forefront of conservation initiatives. The government in Uganda sees conservation as a responsibility, an interest and a right of the people who have lived in the region caring for resources for many generations (Mugisha, 1996).

Co-management can also be seen in parks within Europe where landscapes have been extensively modified as a result of human activity. Many landscapes are heavily influenced by traditional land uses, with biodiversity values often associated with these natural and cultural landscapes. Protected areas in the sense of the national park concept (that is, those protected areas that follow the "traditional" national parks concept pioneered in the U.S.A) are very sparse in Europe in contrast to other parts of the world. The majority of protected areas in Europe are 'managed' by those people who are farmers and foresters in the area and who use the land in a traditional way. Protected area 'authorities' are most often local level government agencies. This enables direct local level input and representation by those living inside the protected

area boundaries. The actual business of conservation is therefore undertaken in partnership with local level communities and stakeholders. In this sense, collaborative management has been practised in Europe for many years.

Co-management has developed in a number of situations to address a number of key issues. The differences in implementation of co-management are perhaps the strength of this type of management. Local communities can design structures and processes that best meet their needs while ensuring the desired outcomes are achieved. These outcomes may differ depending on the nature of the ecosystems within which co-management is being used. Europe, for example, contains hugely modified ecosystems with much higher density populations than those national parks in Australia where aboriginal people still live within national parks and ecosystems that remain largely unmodified.

The development of co-management in New Zealand must recognise that throughout the evolution of this concept overseas many variables have influenced the design of the process, structures and the outcomes. There are a number of pros and cons of this type of management arrangement which in some instances mean co-management does not result in the desired outcomes. The pros and cons of co-management will be addressed in section 3.8.4.

3.4   Stakeholders

The development of co-management arrangements for national parks and protected areas requires increasing levels of integration with local communities and resource users on the part of government management agencies. In a practical sense, it should not automatically be assumed that local communities want to take the role of resource management without some assistance and encouragement. Extensive programmes, that may include education and other forms of assistance, need to accompany a long term strategic plan to implement co-management for a particular area or resource.

In many instances, tangible economic and social benefits are key motivating factors. Other major areas of concern, especially with regard to indigenous people may be summarised as: land; self-government and self-development; resources; environment; culture; language; education; health; social and economic conditions (Furze et al, 1996).

Irrespective of which agency has the responsibility for the management of national parks or other protected areas, it is a fact that such management affects various groups

in society. It is often a consequence of location that local communities feel affected to a greater degree by management decisions made by the administering agency. This local feeling of 'separation' is increased where the area is managed (at least in a policy sense) from a centralised 'head office' of the government agency. Those most affected by such a regime may include: those people who may derive an income from their natural resources; the people who possess knowledge, capacities, aspirations and skills that are relevant for management; and the people who hold unique cultural, religious or recreational values in relation to the territory or resource.

Many of these communities, especially indigenous communities, claim customary use rights over the natural resources. In many instances, such use rights are not officially recognised by the administering agency. This may be due to empowering legislation failing to recognise or provide for such use rights. This results in a conflict between traditional use rights and the primary purpose of legislation, which in protected areas is often the wholesale 'protection' of resources.

In addition to local residents and communities, there are a number of other groups within regional and national communities that may claim an interest in the management of a protected area. These groups may include mountaineering clubs, recreational clubs, nature protection organisations, science organisations, and tourism groups. While co-management is generally focused on local resource users and interest groups, it must be recognised that these groups have a legitimate interest.

In addition, government agencies responsible for specific resources (e.g. forestry, fisheries, tourism) may also indicate an interest. Local government may also have particular responsibility for the control of land and resource use outside the protected area concerned, or for other social or economic considerations in the local or regional community. Therefore, local government will also have a vested interest in the management of significant protected areas within their jurisdictions.

The various communities of interest, organisations and government agencies are termed "stakeholders". A 'stake' in the co-management of national parks may originate from any number of mandates including (but not limited to): historical association, geographic location, cultural association, social and economic reliance upon a resource, institutional mandate and representation of members interests. Stakeholders may be described as those persons or independent party's which have an interest or concern in the issue under consideration.

Due to the range of mandates of each stakeholder it is very likely there will be a number of differing concerns, values, and perceptions. It is important to gain an understanding of these differences in the process of stakeholder identification and involvement. Therefore, the process for implementing co-management or any other form of community participation in decision making, needs to provide time for this 'understanding' to develop from all sides.

The degree of involvement by any stakeholder in co-management will be influenced by the structure developed for that purpose. Some structures will be more consensus based, others democratic or representative. Not all stakeholders will be equally interested in all the common goals established by a group. In some instances, it may not be appropriate to afford equal authority to some stakeholders in the process of decision making. The degree to which any hierarchy of interests or differentiation between stakeholders occurs will depend upon the principles of the relevant co-management agreement or the process used to identify stakeholders.

In any group of people bought together for a specific purpose there are a number of roles that need to be taken. These roles include the leader; facilitator; chair; resource person, advocate, expert, mediator, negotiator, stakeholder and the proponent. The roles of these various elements (which are present in any group) will not be described any further, with the exception of the proponent and the stakeholder.

3.4.1 Initiating a co-management process: the role of the proponent

Before a co-management process is initiated (including stakeholder identification) it is vital that the proponent of co-management has a well identified purpose. Inviting people to participate in a process that has no mandate, purpose or achievable outcome will only serve to place the proponent offside with the local community. This results in frustration and criticism.

The proponent is the organisation or person driving for co-management of a specific territory or resource. They must convince the stakeholders that the process is needed and will result in a number of positive outcomes for all parties concerned. In addition, if the proponent is a government agency, political acceptance of such a process must also be gained. This will be easier if the aforementioned benefits can be articulated and a high level of local community support demonstrated.

Benson (1987, cited in Donalsdon, 1994) describes three characteristics of the proponent that are essential in achieving acceptance of a co-management mandate for a national park. These are:

(1) **Competency**: the proponent must be extremely familiar with the subject matter and have an understanding of the reasons co-management is being sought for the particular area. Stakeholders should also feel that the proponent is open and honest and is not trying to manipulate or control them.

(2) **Compassion**: the proponent should have an interest and empathy for all stakeholders and should encourage similar relationships between stakeholders. All people should be made welcome and encouraged to contribute to the process.

(3) **Commitment**: the proponent must believe in the process, and in the stakeholders ability to participate. Furthermore, the proponent must have commitment to, and take 'ownership' of the negotiated outcomes of the process.

The design of the process by which stakeholders are found may be a major role for the proponent.

3.4.2 Requirements of being a Stakeholder in a co-management process

Irrespective of the degree of involvement offered to stakeholders in the process, there are a number of key elements, or roles and responsibilities, to being a stakeholder. Donaldson (1994) identifies a number of responsibilities of stakeholders. These are;

- positive group participation;

- commitment to any action or decision reached by the group as a whole;

- focus on win-win results, with minimum conflict;

- be an active listener, hear all points of view with an open mind, with a willingness to explore new ideas;

- ask pertinent questions and be a constructive critic; and

- confer with whomever she/he represents as efficiently and as effectively as possible so that the group process is not held up unnecessarily.

These responsibilities begin to define the principles of process and relationship that form the basis of any co-management arrangement (these will be discussed in greater depth in section 3.6). Stakeholder involvement can occur along a spectrum from minimal to very heavy involvement. Each level of involvement carries with it different responsibilities. For example, where stakeholders are heavily involved they may be in a position of making consensus decisions in association with other stakeholders or a government agency. It is therefore critical that the 'right' stakeholders are found to ensure the entire range of community values are accommodated in decisions made under a co-management mandate.

3.4.3 Finding Stakeholders

Once a decision has been made by a proponent to initiate a co-management response or process, the question of who the stakeholders are arises. Finding stakeholders to inform them of the process and invite their participation is often a difficult task, which if not performed satisfactorily, can lead to criticism by local communities. Donaldson (1994) suggests there are three models for identifying stakeholders:

(1) **The Elite Model**: this common approach utilises the networks established by special interest groups that may be of relevance to the issue under consideration. This process is exclusionary and may lead to conflict with those groups not invited to participate. Local interests are rarely represented using this model.

(2) **Building on existing groups**: this approach examines the structures that are already in place in relation to the issue under consideration. It attempts to either add more groups onto what exists, or to change or manipulate the mandate of that group to accommodate the new project. One of the difficulties with this approach is that the existing group may have trouble adopting a new mandate. A reluctance to change the structure to suit the nature of the new concerns may also create problems.

(3) **Starting Fresh**: this involves bringing people together for the specific purpose of forming a co-management body using structures and procedures agreed by participants. Membership is open and

inclusionary, meaning any existing group and any other interest can be represented. Encouraging those groups that traditionally do not become involved in such processes is essential.

While the above models are useful, it may also be necessary to carry out an analysis of the likely issues that will arise throughout the process and try to determine the broad types of groups are likely to have a stake in the process or its outcomes. Possible criteria to distinguish among stakeholders have been developed by Borrini-Feyerabend (1996) are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Possible criteria to distinguish among stakeholders

1.	Existing rights to land or natural resources;
2.	Continuity of relationship (e.g. Residents versus visitors and tourists);
3.	Unique knowledge and skills for the management of the resources at stake;
4.	Degree of economic and social reliance on such resources;
5.	Losses and damage incurred in the management process;
6.	Historical and cultural relations with the resources at stake;
7.	Degree of effort and interest in management;
8.	Equity in the access to the resources and the distribution of benefits from their use;
9.	Compatibility of the interests and activities of the stakeholder with national conservation and development policies;
10.	Present or potential impact of the activities of the stakeholder on the resource base.

The application of these models to the identification of stakeholders is dependent upon the purposes of the protected area or resource under consideration. In the case of national parks there are a distinct set of management 'goals'. These goals may be the result of a number of historical policy positions, the need for species or ecosystem protection or the desire of local communities to protect and preserve these resources. The management of national parks in particular, may affect a number of parties thus giving them a mandate for involvement in park management.

The degree to which the agency responsible for the administration of the park has historically provided opportunities for stakeholders to be involved in the management may affect the range of people who take an active interest in new co-management opportunities. If stakeholder groups feel that their concerns are not likely to be accommodated, they may give up on participation in the process altogether.

The management arrangements and structures for the park will also, in part, determine the degree to which stakeholders may become involved. Some people argue that in a practical sense it may be necessary to distinguish between those stakeholders with a primary interest, or a secondary interest.

3.4.4 Stakeholder Analysis

The final aspect involved in determining who stakeholders are, is the stakeholder analysis. A stakeholder analysis aims to suggest what issues may be raised by the stakeholders who have been identified or who have come forward. In co-management the stakeholder analysis should not aim to determine who should be involved. Rather, it should be used to determine what resources and issues are likely to be raised in order to prepare for the ensuing dialogue.

In order to focus a stakeholder analysis to provide useful outcomes (that is, what may be expected when the identified group of stakeholders meet) the following aims are a useful beginning for a stakeholder analysis:

- identify and define the characteristics of key stakeholders;

- identify major issues that each stakeholder may use to justify their involvement;

- assess the manner in which they might be affected by the process or its outcomes;

- attempt to understand the relationships that exist between stakeholders, including any real or perceived conflicts, or any real or perceived power struggles;

- assess the capacity of the stakeholders to participate;

- assess the ability of the stakeholders to control specific management functions; and

- assess the ability of stakeholders to be empowered by the knowledge of other stakeholders, and vice versa.

A stakeholder analysis may identify a number of issues that need to be taken into account when the process towards co-management is initiated. These considerations may include:

(1)   the possibility of dealing with a large number of stakeholders and associated problems of some groups not being able to have their say;

(2)   building trust amongst a large or diverse group of stakeholders takes time, especially where some relationships between stakeholders have historically been adversarial;

(3)   the need to consider all issues collectively and not just the issues raised by one powerful group of stakeholders. It may be easier to start with small issues that can be easily resolved to build trust between stakeholders;

(4)   dealing with important stakeholders who do not want to participate in consensus decision making processes or any dialogue where they are not in control;

(5)   the need to ensure less powerful stakeholders are not intimidated at the first meeting or discouraged from returning;

(6)   the tendency of certain stakeholders to maintain an adversarial approach when dealing with certain issues;

(7)   the possibility of stakeholders raising, and being totally focused on, issues that fall outside the boundaries of the protected area or the mandate of the group;

These are only indicative of the considerations or issues that may need to be raised on completion of the search for stakeholders. The final realisation in trying to find, analyse and encourage people to participate in co-management is that the nature of group dynamics in a decision making environment will change. Stakeholders may change their stance or viewpoint on a certain issue after more information or knowledge has been shared. The ability to harness this flexibility within a consensus based framework is one of the strengths of co-management. This also implies a certain level of social learning on the part of all participants.

3.5 Synthesising World Views - Fundamental Principles of Co-management

One of the fundamental concepts of co-management is that it involves a partnership between two cultures and hence, world views, in a decision making framework. The intention of this partnership is to provide negotiated and agreed outcomes in a fair and equitable manner. Part of this process involves establishing an understanding and compassion for the values and world views of other partners who have placed so much effort and hope in a process. The underlying reason for co-management being initiated is a belief held by both partners that they have much to offer each other in the management of a resource that is held in equal respect.

A common problem identified throughout the literature is that the basic framework within which this partnership occurs is the 'western management system'. Although co-management involves the meeting of two cultures, one culture is immediately disadvantaged from the point at which partnership discussions are initiated. This is because the discussion is based on the premise that the western management system (government) is 'willing' to delegate power to a collaborative management arrangement.

One of the difficulties faced by co-management is agreeing upon a shared standard of values. This is one reason why time is such an important principle for any co-management process (see Table 8). The immediate response in many instances where two 'value sets' or 'world views' are asked to make a unanimous decision based on an agreed set of values, is "Whose Values?" This presupposes that people are so segmented by their values and separate interests that they have very little in common. The question posed by co-management is "are people so conditioned by their values that they cannot form collaborative relationships with other groups for mutual benefit?"

The issues in relation to the articulation of values and the meaningful incorporation of two or more sets of values in a decision making process, eventually filter down to the management and operational decisions made by protected area managers. Implementation by managers is effectively guided by a co-management body that 'distils' the range of values and informs the process in terms of how implementation should occur and what priorities are. Irrespective of the cultural background of such managers, it is becoming clear that the links required between the ecosystem

management practices of local indigenous people and those practices employed by protected area managers will require creative craftsmanship.

Managers must begin to make the links between management practices and the values from which decisions are being made. The role of managers shifts in a co-management arrangement. They must move from having "expert understanding" on a number of issues to being facilitators of a social process aimed at increasing the understanding of conservation or resource management issues. Managers, their staff and management practices must become acutely aware of the different values and world views from which decisions are made by a co-management body (Bayon, 1996).

Traditional knowledge has a different focus from the western scientific world view. Traditional knowledge may be extremely detailed in relation to the area in which the traditions have developed. This level of detailed knowledge compliments the broader scientific knowledge about an area, and the linkages between areas. These two sets of knowledge and world views, the range of ecosystem management techniques they have available and the diversity of approach is the fundamental strength of co-management. Figure 5 illustrates the way in which these two world views may interact in a co-management situation.

Figure 5: Creating links between World Views: From Wisdom Traditions to Implementation
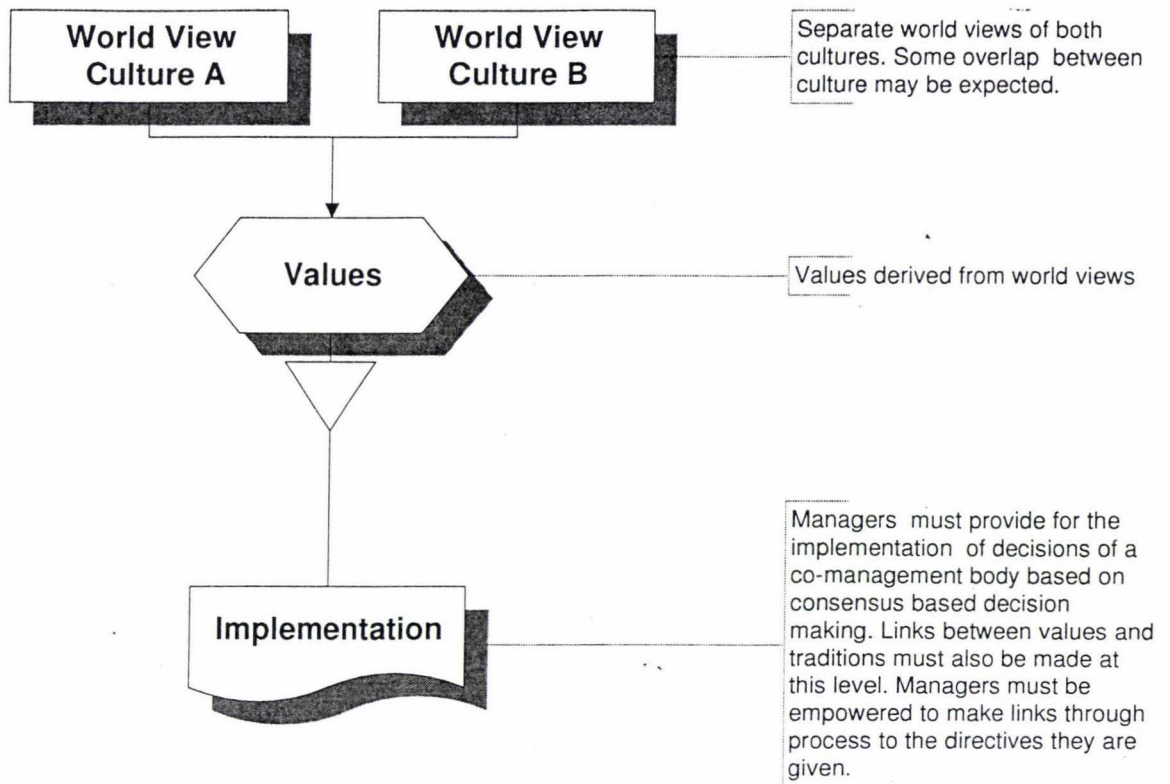
The relationship between different cultures that forms the fundamental partnership and conceptual basis for co-management is best illustrated by describing the different management systems to which each culture relates. In essence, these different systems provide the diversity of culture that is celebrated by co-management. In order to focus our perceptions of the concept of co-management it is useful to describe the relationship in two areas:

(1)   the characteristics of the two different resource management systems that are attempting to combine or integrate; and

(2)   the process, nature, level, and cultural setting for this mutual integration.

Berkes (1991) acknowledges one of the fundamental challenges for co-management is recognise the strengths of the potential contributions from each of the two systems of knowledge. Indeed, when one examines the history of the evolution of modern science, it is suggested that modern science is moving towards a more holistic view of the environment and of ecosystems. View the emergence of ecology and ecosystem management.

While Berkes *et al* (1991) recognise a number of levels of co-management, the integration of two cultural resource management systems within a single decision making framework (while ensuring the cultural identity is retained and strengthened) requires a good understanding of the way in which the respective systems derive their mandate. Usher (1986) provides comment on both the state system of resource management and indigenous systems this as follows:

> *"The state system rests on a common property concept in which the state assumes exclusive responsibility and capability for managing a resource equally accessible to all citizens. The state manages for certain levels of abundance on a technical basis, and then allocates shares of this abundance to users on an economic and political basis. The system of knowledge is based on a scientific accumulation, organisation, and interpretation of data, and management problems are resolved in a technical, and historical framework. This system of management is bureaucratic, which is to say, hierarchically organised and vertically compartmentalised. Managers become distinct from harvesters, authority becomes centralised and flows from the top down. The environment is reduced to conceptually discrete components which are managed separately. As these separate management units take on a life of their own, management objectives diverge and become focused on specialised objectives; maximising fur production, trophy production or recreational expenditures. Not least, the management of fish and wildlife resources becomes separated from the management of the lands and waters that sustain them."*

In contrast, indigenous peoples' at a local level have in place markedly different and diverse management systems that are often based on self-regulation. Their mandate and authority is derived from local levels with full community ownership of the values that direct self regulation. Full community input through collective learning and knowledge further reinforces the legitimacy of local level resource management systems. Usher (1986) also recognises this collective community responsibility that is inherent in the social rules of indigenous society:

> *"The indigenous system rests on communal property arrangements, in which the local harvesting group is responsible for management by*

consensus. Management and harvesting are conceptually and practically inseparable. Knowledge comes from the experience of every aspect of harvesting itself - travelling, searching, hunting, skinning, butchering and eating. It is accumulated by every individual, and shared intimately and constantly within the household, the family, or whatever is the social unit of production. It is also shared and exchanged within the larger society, and handed down in the form of stories from one generation to the next. In sum, these observations, like those of the state system's, become coded and organised by a paradigm or set of paradigms that provide a comprehensive interpretation of them. The knowledge, so produced becomes the cultural heritage of these societies, just as what we call science is part of ours.

...the indigenous system of management is a core feature of all northern Native cultures, and is therefore intimately linked with their values, ethics and cosmology, which are generally based on an integrated, non-compartmentalised view of the environment...

The outcome of describing the relative differences in approach to environmental management of the western and indigenous systems, is that any natural resource management process based on the combined strength of the two systems must be extremely robust."

In addition to the partnership between cultures implied by co-management, an important partnership with nature is also required. Part of the challenge for co-management is the way in which this partnership is expressed. The differences in partnership with nature illustrate the recent history of environmental degradation caused by an essentially 'western' orientated resource management system.

Traditional Maori attitudes to the environment and the natural world reflect the relationships created through the union of Ranginui (the Sky Father) and Papa-tua-nuku (the Earth Mother). All living things descend from Rangi and Papa creating a sense of interrelatedness between people and nature. Rangi and Papa are said to have had a number of children. Some traditions say there were six children, others up to seventy (Orbell *et al*, 1995). Humans are born from Papa-tua-nuku, and return to her on their death. Furthermore, everything in the natural world possesses mauri (the physical life force) which is protected by a kaitiaki (spiritual guardian) or atua (deity). Maori are

also kaitiaki of the taonga (treasures) within their rohe (tribal boundary). It is considered that the preservation of the mauri of any element of the natural world is essential for its survival.

Care must be taken when attempting to identify common tikanga (customs) as many of these have developed from the spiritual beliefs of different iwi and hapu throughout the country. What is consistent however, is that the Maori relationship with the natural world is expressed in their cosmological beliefs. Natural resources are protected by the existence of this environmental ethic passed down by the tupuna (ancestors). The interrelatedness of the environmental ethic and the social structure is also demonstrated in that the needs of the individual, family and extended family provide the context for community ownership and control of resources. The collective relationship of iwi and hapu with the environment is recognised by the underlying authority by which collective behaviour is governed, that is, rangatiratanga. Rangatiratanga is the expression of the mana motuhake (separate authority) of iwi and hapu. Rangatiratanga is the means by which Maori mobilise their shared resources as a community and maintain, protect and assert their tikanga (Taiepa, 1996).

The Maori world view obviously differs from the European world view. The development of an environmental ethic in western civilisation has been slow but sure. Nash (1990) illustrates the changing attitudes towards nature around the world, from the protection of domestic animals, through debates over vivisection, to arguments that attempt to provide equal rights in law to all parts of nature. In western thought, the philosophical and ethical debates that have been influential in forming the growth in conservation movements have formed over many centuries. A number of philosophers have published many volumes that attempt to articulate and analyse the way in which humans view and value nature. In essence, this history of philosophy reflects the concept that morality ought to include the relationship of humans to nature.

In more recent times a number of influential publications have made an attempt to define a western environmental ethic. These include: Lynn White's *"The Historical Roots of our Ecological Crisis"* (1967); Garett Hardin's *"The Tragedy of the Commons"* (1968); Aldo Leopold's *"A Sand Country Almanac"* (1949) and Rachel Carson's *"Silent Spring"* (1962). Furthermore, in many countries around the world there can be witnessed a growth in the exposure of environmental issues both through increased community awareness and an increase in the influence of 'green' politics.

What these two histories in relation to nature represent, is that both cultures in New Zealand have a world view that forms the basis of values and morals. In the western world these are most often translated into laws that determine what is acceptable practice. In the Maori world human action with respect to natural resources is regulated through concepts such as tapu and rahui.

To accommodate these two world views, there is a need to develop guiding principles for community based environmental management. Based on the starting point, that of environmental management by the state, the principles must reflect a transitional process to accommodate the traditions of two cultures. Principles of co-management must therefore be broadly based and reflect both mainstream cultural traditions (Horsley *et al*, 1996). They need to provide parameters for debate to allow a number of options or solutions to develop (dialogue, respect, openness and the building of trust are all preconditions for any worthwhile initiative). The principles also need to be long terms and visionary.

In New Zealand, this backdrop of broad guidelines has been used to develop a representation of the essential elements of synthesising two world views to achieve a common purpose - that of protecting nature. They have been incorporated into a kereru symbol (see Figure 6). The key elements are:

(1)   Nature conservation principles (the common ground; a covenant of connection).

(2)   Treaty of Waitangi;

(3)   Ecological Principles - Whakahokia te Mauri (the return of mauri - life force) and ecosystem health and renewal;

(4)   Community and collective authority principles - Rangatiratanga and community empowerment;

(5)   Individual and nature relationship principles - kaitiakitanga and guardianship (protection) / stewardship (use);

(6)   Process principles - new partnerships, appropriate structures, sound management; and dialogue principles;

(7)   Wisdom tradition principles - tikanga, traditional knowledge and ecology, environmental ethics.

Figure 6: The key elements of co-management in relation to nature conservation (keruru)[8].
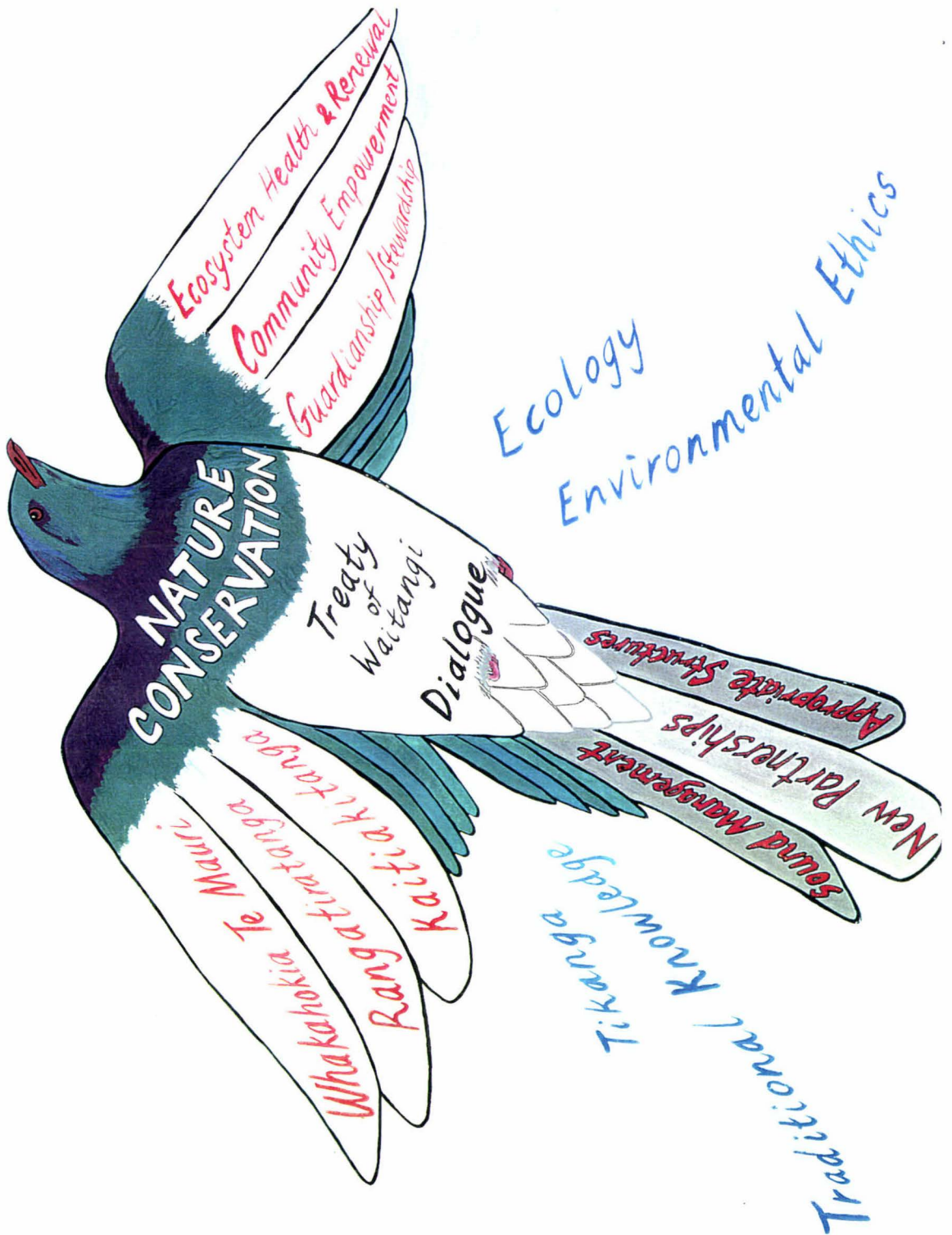
[8] The Kereru symbol used here to illustrate the important aspects of co-management was painted by Charlotte Sunde.

Co-management must to ensure that both cultural systems are maintained. All communities have knowledge, skills and expertise to offer. No single person, body or organisation (whether governmental or otherwise) in society has all the capacities and skills needed to provide all the answers or solutions for the best management of resources (Bayon, 1996). Co-management stems from the need to create partnerships with different cultures and community groups in order to provide for a unified partnership with nature. The two major streams of conservation and resource management practice are:

(1)   traditional ecological knowledge and relationships with nature (expressed in Maori tradition as kaitiakitanga) ; and

(2)   modern scientific understanding of interconnectedness and interdependence (expressed through ecology and the ecosystem concept, biodiversity concerns, and guardianship/stewardship responsibilities).

Implementation of these concepts will necessarily involve a number of social interactions. From a starting point, it must be recognised that not all communities enter a process of co-management from an equal point. This inequality may be reflected either in socio-economic status or in elements that are important to co-management, such as knowledge of different cultural systems. What co-management attempts to provide is a process to enable two cultures to participate and contribute equally to the process of resource management. The strength of this relationship will be reflected by the ability to develop a similar relationship with nature.

The beginning of face-to-face contact between two cultures in a management context which has a common goal holds enormous promise. New Zealand finds itself in a unique situation in that the two predominate cultures, European and Maori, co-exist in the country based on a treaty that has partnership as one of its fundamental principles. The translation of that partnership into a management arrangement based on co-operation, not misunderstanding or conflict, is an enormous challenge. The need for common principles to be developed to guide this process cannot be understated. The process for co-management in a broad sense must, therefore, be based on concepts such as mutual environmental education, capacity building and community empowerment.

3.6 Principles of the Treaty of Waitangi

The Treaty of Waitangi, singed in 1840 by representatives of both Maori and the Crown, established an agreement that for all time will ensure New Zealand is governed in a spirit of partnership and generosity. It is not the intention to describe here the history or meaning of the Treaty of Waitangi. The Treaty contains three articles, which in very broad terms provide for the following:

- **Article I:** the Queen obtained the right to establish a system of government in New Zealand, but subject to the obligations under Article II.

- **Article II:** provided an obligation to protect Maori rights to those resources (taonga) which they wished to retain.

- **Article III:** protected Maori legal, social, and political rights and interests.

The provisions of the Treaty of Waitangi have been the subject of continual misunderstanding, argument and frustration. This stems from the three different versions of the Treaty, and violations of the provisions by the New Zealand Government and settlers, especially in the late nineteenth century. The inability of successive Governments to adequately address the grievances relating to the Treaty of Waitangi has resulted in public disillusionment on the relevance of the Treaty provisions to New Zealand today.

Major constitutional conflicts, actions that led to Treaty grievances, and uncertain interpretations of the provisions of the Treaty needed to be resolved in some way. This led to the term "Treaty principles" being incorporated in legislation. The Treaty of Waitangi Act 1975 was:

> *"an Act to provide for the observance, and confirmation, of the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi by establishing a Tribunal to make recommendations on claims relating to the practical application of the Treaty and to determine whether certain matters are inconsistent with the principles of the Treaty"*

Section 6 of the Treaty of Waitangi Act 1975 made the first reference to these principles, with other important legislation following this approach, including the State Owned Enterprises Act 1986, the Conservation Act 1987 and the RMAct (see Table 5).

Table 5: Examples of Legislation Containing References to the Principles of the Treaty of Waitangi:

Act	Section reference
The State Owned Enterprises Act 1986	Section 9
The Conservation Act 1987	section 4
The Environment Act 1986	Long Title to the Act
The Resource Management Act	section 8
The Crown Minerals Act 1991	section 4
The Crown Research Institutes Act 1992	section 10
Runanga Iwi Act 1990	section 3A (since repealed, 1990)

As the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi are not defined by statute a number of institutions have attempted to define them. These include the New Zealand Government, Waitangi Tribunal, New Zealand Maori Council, the Court of Appeal and the Royal Commission on Social Policy. Present legislation does not provide the Courts with an obligation to agree with the Waitangi Tribunals definition of principles. Therefore, the definition of Treaty principles by the Court of Appeal in the *New Zealand Maori Council v Attorney General* [1987] 1 NZLR 641, should be taken as being the most relevant to legislation and the Courts (see Table 6).

Table 6: Principles Identified by the Court of Appeal (1987)

Sovereignty in exchange for protection of Maori interests	Partnership; Duty to act reasonably and with the utmost good faith.
Freedom of the Crown to govern.	Active protection.
Duty to remedy past breaches.	Retention of Maori.
Maori duty of reasonable co-operation.	Consultation. Not a duty. Honest effort to take account of the perspective's of others.

The principles of the Treaty were held by the Privy Council to *be "the underlying mutual obligations and responsibilities which the Treaty places in the parties."* The Privy Council also noted that:

> *Foremost among those "principles" are the obligations which the Crown undertook of protecting and preserving Maori property...as part of taonga, in return for being recognised as the legitimate government of the whole nation by Maori. The Treaty refers to this obligation in the*

> *English text as amounting to a guarantee by the Crown. This emphasises the solemn nature of the Crown's obligations. It does not however mean that the obligation is absolute and unqualified. This would be inconsistent with the Crown's other responsibilities as the government of New Zealand and the relationship between Maori and the Crown.* (New Zealand Maori Council v. Attorney General [1994] 1 NZLR 513, 517)

The Crown can be seen to have a dual responsibility under the Treaty. One to Maori as partner to the Treaty and secondly to the people of New Zealand as the government of the day. The Crown's sovereignty may be limited by the authority of the tribes to exercise a control in respect of their resources. The Crown does however, have the power *"to legislate for all matters relating to "peace and good order", and that includes the right to make laws for conservation control"* (Waitangi Tribunal, 1988)

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3.7   International Sustainability Principles

A number of principles relevant to co-management have also been articulated in international agreements and treaties. In the realm of resource management and environmental issues, the majority of advances in international agreements have been achieved over the past two decades. Co-management is one concept that is beginning to give effect to a number of international environmental principles that have been established in recent times by negotiated agreement.

International direction over the past 15 -20 years has moved towards the concept of sustainable development. Tracking the path of sustainable development at an international level can be seen to be influenced by four major publications by different organisations over this time period. In chronological order, these are: the *"World Conservation Strategy"* (WCS) (1980), The Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED)- *"Our Common Future"* (The Brundtland Report) (1987*), "Caring for the Earth: A Strategy for Sustainable Living"* (1991), and the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) document, *"Agenda 21"* (1992).

The WCS suggested that humanity (which exists as part of nature) will be placing its future at risk unless nature and natural resources are conserved. The WCS first used the

term 'sustainable development', stressing the interdependence of conservation and development. The WCS contained three main objectives:

- essential ecological processes and life-support systems must be maintained;

- genetic diversity must be preserved;

- any use of species or ecosystems must be sustainable.

Seven years after the publication of the WCS international direction on sustainability was given further clarification with the release of the report of the WCED entitled "*Our Common Future*". The brief given to the WCED in 1983 to formulate a 'global agenda for change', while ambitious, was "*a clear demonstration of the widespread feeling of frustration and inadequacy in the international community about our own ability to address the vital global issues and deal with them effectively*" (WCED, 1987).

Sustainable development has been defined as:

> "*development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs...[it] does imply limits but limitations imposed by the present state of technology and social organisation on environmental resources and by the ability of the biosphere to absorb the effects of human activities...sustainable development requires meeting the basic needs of all and extending to all the opportunity to fulfil their aspirations for a better life*" (WCED, 1987).

The 1987 WCED report on sustainable development has created a central reference point for policy development throughout the world. The publication of "Caring for the Earth: A Strategy for Sustainable Living" in 1991 added further clarity to this international direction. This document established a series of principles for sustainable living (see Appendix 5) that suggest every person must accept that they have a duty to seek harmony with nature and humanity if sustainable development is to be attained.

The UNCED (the "Earth Summit") which was held in Rio in June 1992 produced "*Agenda 21*". Agenda 21 provides a common framework of action for all countries to achieve sustainable development. While it is a non legally binding document, approximately 180 countries have given a commitment to it. Agenda 21 is a guide to action that is focused primarily at the local level. It is recognised that this level of

governance makes decisions that directly affect the local community and local environment. Agenda 21 states that:

> *"Humanity stands at a defining moment in history. We are confronted with a perpetuation of disparities between and within nations, a worsening of poverty, hunger, ill health and illiteracy, and with the continued deterioration of the ecosystem on which we depend for our well-being"* (UNCED, 1992)

The principles, processes and issues discussed at the Earth Summit in 1992, that have been developed over the preceding years have influenced the approach taken by governments at a national level. For example, the reorganisation of local government in New Zealand and the enactment of the RMAct is consistent with the principles and issues articulated in various international forums on sustainability. A number of other countries have also enacted legislation aimed at achieving sustainable development.

Sustainability as a concept relies heavily on the attitudes of individuals towards their local environment. In resource management the most difficult issues to resolve are the conflicts resulting from the perceived invasion of private property rights by regulations that aim to protect the public interest in a resource. This is at the heart of the debate on sustainability.

In the case of protected areas it is important to manage these areas in association with adjoining private land (or land set aside for other purposes). In many countries, protected areas are the last representative areas of a particular ecosystem type. Therefore, it is important to recognise the linkages between such an area and the surrounding modified landscape.

The application and implementation of co-management, is heavily influenced by international, national, and local activities. The following broad observations are made in relation to the approaches of international communities in applying these concepts and principles at the local level in a collaborative management situation. International principles being developed suggest:

- an approach that is long term and visionary in nature and utilises a holistic and inclusionary approach to planning and management;

- a precautionary approach;

- an approach that reflects the true costs of environment and development actions on local communities;

- a process based on the right to citizen participation and which encourages partnership building, informed choices based on open access to all relevant information and a consensus approach to decision making;

- an integrated consideration of issues that takes account of the social, cultural, economic and environmental implications of the policy decision; and

- rigorous monitoring and evaluation to assess progress towards the stated goal for the purpose of providing feedback to local communities, and to make appropriate changes in direction where necessary.

3.8 Co-management: basic principles

A number of core principles are essential for the success of a co-management arrangement. The broad principles suggested here are drawn from a range of experiences from New Zealand and abroad. The majority of these principles are generic to any co-management arrangement or process. However, the legal, policy and institutional framework within which the principles are to be applied is unique to New Zealand. In addition, New Zealand's biophysical environment is unique, creating the necessity to examine and incorporate the influence of these factors on our conservation management approaches and perceptions of environmental issues.

Experience of co-management overseas has shown that in order to be successful, a great deal of time is required to enable the establishment of a co-management arrangement (especially when associated with land claims). One of the important aspects of this 'time' is to allow all participants to nurture the process to ensure all parties strive for consensus on the best and most appropriate outcomes.

One of the aims of co-management is to find some 'common ground' on which to form the basis of the partnership. Planners may play a significant role by identifying this common ground by examining issues that are presently being raised in more traditional consultation.. The nature of planning processes is that they are based on any number of principles. Principles are defined as *"a fundamental truth or law as the basis for reasoning or action"* (Concise Oxford Dictionary). While planning can be seen as essentially a politically 'neutral' activity, it is operating in a political framework that has

undergone enormous change in New Zealand as a result of institutional reform of the late 1980's.

The mandate for conservation planning practice in New Zealand is established by legislation that gives recognition to the need for planning to occur. In New Zealand this is essentially the Conservation Act 1987 and associated legislation (see Appendix 3). In addition, the RMAct provides a number of fundamental principles for planning processes, including the requirement to carry out integrated resource management.

As previously suggested, co-management involves the devolution of power to local communities. This will involve a change in the political decision making environment within which conservation planning processes occur. Due to the greater number of participants in the decision making process, a wider range of considerations will be inherent in any move from the status quo towards co-management. If the previous statement, that the mandate for planning is drawn largely from legislation, is accepted then it follows that the change to planning processes implicit in co-management will require either adaptation of mechanisms found in existing legislation or the development of new legislation.

The principles articulated in this thesis are those considered essential to allow conservation planning processes to enable co-management. A comparative analysis between these broad principles and the existing legislation will determine the degree to which existing statutory mechanisms may be utilised to provide for co-management processes. These options will be examined in greater depth in relation to Egmont National Park.

These principles have been collated from an intensive literature search and review covering a wide range of academic fields and experience or practice in co-management around the world. Notes from conversations held with various parties during the 'early' consultation phase of the management plan for Egmont National Park Management Plan are also included. These notes largely reflect the observations of community groups and certain iwi in Taranaki in relation to their perception of consultative mechanisms employed by DoC.

Given the numerous differences between New Zealand and other countries who have adopted co-management, the most useful information that can be derived from these experiences is a summary of the principles that may be appropriate in the New Zealand

context. These principles may in turn assist in the development of more successful processes and structures for co-management in New Zealand.

Principles are useful in guiding processes for change, and also provide a beneficial benchmark against which current processes may be examined. Therefore, it is anticipated that these principles may be used to assess current performance against any proposals for co-management for any national park to determine the actual or potential outcomes (including costs and benefits) for conservation.

The principles of co-management summarised below fall into three categories:

(1) **Conservation management principles**: these principles form the 'common ground' shared by all parties. Generally these principles relate to the protection and/or conservation of resources within protected areas. This involves placing the highest priority on preventing further deterioration on the present ecosystems while emphasising the importance of protecting natures 'building blocks'.

(2) **Process principles**; these principles concern the way parties involved in the process move through a series of important steps towards an agreed outcome or outcomes. Principles must also include a commitment to provide feedback loops throughout the process to enable performance measurement. Protocols about how to resolve conflicts throughout the process (for example, through mediation) are also critical. Due to the focus of this thesis on the process elements of co-management, these principles are supplied in greater detail than for conservation management principles, or relationship principles. This does not imply that these two other categories are less important. All principles are inextricably linked.

(3) **Relationship principles**: these principles outline the way parties should relate to each other. They are based upon the Treaty of Waitangi and its principles as they have been established by practice and through implementation by the Courts and Waitangi Tribunal.

3.8.1 Conservation Management Principles

The development of guiding conservation management principles is perhaps the most important aspect of co-management. The importance of finding common ground for the

management of resources cannot be understated. The mutual desire to achieve an outcome by consensus, as opposed to conflict driven processes that do not necessarily provide acceptable outcomes, will determine the success of any collaborative relationship.

The principles that have been derived for conservation management must be seen within the context of the jurisdiction over which it is assumed they will be used. The management of a protected area such as a national park has specific boundaries. National parks rarely protect entire functioning ecosystems. The history of national parks and other similar protected areas shows that people have been excluded as legitimate elements of national parks and ecosystems. National park management aims for protection from human activity, which in many situations negates hundreds or thousands of years of human occupations in an area. In many areas throughout the world, human activity forms an integral part of ecological processes.

Principles must recognise the interrelationships that exist between human action and the management response in protected areas and surrounding ecosystems. Therefore, the principles for conservation management are in part based upon an ecosystem management approach. It follows that any co-management process founded on finding common ground in ecosystem management principles, may be more easily adapted to managing those resources not included in the protected area in an equally collaborative and integrated manner.

In order to provide some context for conservation management principles, two terms will be explored. These are the term 'conservation', since this is the context of the planning processes of this thesis, and the term 'ecosystem management'.

Conservation is a term which has carried with it a number of meanings depending on the context in which it is applied. Conservation has been defined as:

> *"The management of human use of organisms or ecosystems to ensure such use is sustainable. Besides sustainable use, conservation includes protection, maintenance, rehabilitation, restoration, and enhancement of populations and ecosystems" (IUCN/UNEP/ WWF, 1991).*

> *"Conservation is the management of human use of the biosphere to yield the greatest sustainable benefit to present generations while maintaining the potential to meet the needs and aspirations of future generations.*

Conservation is positive, embracing preservation, maintenance, sustainable use or resources, restoration and enhancement of the natural environment. Conservation is a process to be applied cross-sectorally and not an activity sector in its own right. Conservation is concerned with maintaining the integrity of the whole ecosystem as well as the sustainable use of particular resources within the ecosystem" (NZNCC, 1981).

" the preservation and protection of natural and historic resources for the purpose of maintaining their intrinsic values, providing for their appreciation and recreational enjoyment by the public, and safeguarding the options of future generations" (section 2, Conservation Act 1987).

Ecosystem management has been defined in a number of ways:

Ecosystem management involves regulating internal ecosystem structure and function, plus inputs and outputs, to achieve socially desirable conditions. It includes, within a chosen and not always static geographic setting, the usual array of planning and management activities but conceptualised in a systems framework..." (Agee and Johnson, 1988).

"....the careful and skilful use of ecological, economic, social, and managerial principles in managing ecosystems to produce, restore, or sustain ecosystem integrity and desired conditions, uses, products, values and services over the long term" (Overbay, 1992).

"Ecosystem management is a collaborative approach to natural and cultural resource management that integrates scientific knowledge of ecological relationships with resource stewardship practices for the goal of sustainable ecological, cultural, and socio-economic systems....[it is] an awareness that resources and processes do not exist in isolation. Rather, living things exist in complex, interconnected systems within a broad landscape. These interconnected communities of living things, including humans, together with the dynamic physical environment are termed ecosystems. The interconnected nature of ecosystems necessitates ...a shift from a primarily park- or resource-specific approach to a wider systems and process approach to management" (National Parks Service, 1994).

"...integrating scientific knowledge of ecological relationships within a complex socio-political and values framework toward the general goal of protecting native ecosystem integrity over the long term" (Grumbine, 1994).

"...integration of ecological, economic, and social principles to manage biological and physical systems in a manner that safeguards the ecological sustainability, natural diversity, and productivity of the landscape" (Wood, 1994).

In establishing principles for conservation management planning, it is recognised that these principles cannot be comprehensive or exhaustive. Rather, the principles aim to indicate the types of broad imperatives that both cultures may use to search for common ground. Principles are obviously open to interpretation and it is this part of the process that requires dialogue and understanding between stakeholders.

Table 7: Conservation Management Principles

Principle	Components
Maintaining ecosystem functioning and integrity.	Fully functioning ecosystems ensure complex linkages, which occur at every level of an ecosystem, are maintained and the natural diversity of resources and organisms are retained.
	Basic and more complex ecosystem functions, such as photosynthesis and evapotranspiration, ensure the continuity of life through stability.
	Ecosystems are based on interdependence and may include communities, networks, niches and synergies.
	Ecosystems are based on energy flow, solar energy, and the laws of thermodynamics.
	Ecosystem management should aim to protect what we have, and where and as appropriate, enhance ecosystem functioning and integrity.
	Maintaining biological diversity is of the utmost importance.
	Cultural diversity and the association of people with ecosystems should be recognised and protected.
Humans are a part of nature, not separate from it.	People have a highly detrimental effect on the functioning and integrity of ecosystems.
	To be truly effective an ecosystem management approach must be designed by those that are affected by the outcome. Local people should be among the main players in ecosystem management.
	It is recognised that people have a major role to play in managing ecosystems. All people living within an ecosystem will be affected by its management. Partnerships which occur for managing the ecosystem should be based on shared goals and objectives.

	Local and traditional ecological knowledge about ecosystems is invaluable, and can be a tremendous source for designing and implementing management plans.
Ecosystem Processes are dynamic, not static.	Ecosystems may be seen to be based on a number of cycles. These create feedback loops, information flows, and include concepts such as recycling and conservation. These processes are dynamic.
	Ecosystems may change in space and time. This change should be recognised through a broad and inclusive definition of ecosystems when establishing management objectives and policies.
All ecosystem have a carrying capacity.	Ecosystems are limited in nature by the resources they contain.
	The carrying capacity of all ecosystems should not be exceeded. The carrying capacity creates and environmental bottom line over which human activity should not have influence.
Ecological boundaries should be recognised.	Ecosystem boundaries are not permanent or absolute, but are influenced by multiple scales.
	Fluid zones of co-operation should occur where institutional jurisdictions differ from ecosystem boundaries.

3.8.2 Process Principles

In developing principles as the basis for the process of co-management a number of broad considerations are used. These provide a robust and flexible process and reflect the particular advantages and disadvantages of co-management that have been articulated though various experiences overseas. If integrated management of the resources under consideration is to occur, these principles must be relevant to management frameworks that occur outside protected areas. Therefore, in a New Zealand context, the principles must also be compatible with the purpose and principles of the RMAct, that is, sustainable management (see Appendix 4).

One general observation made by Borrini-Feyerabend (1996) is that co-management is more likely to develop where there is an energy centre, a dedicated person or core group who applies consistent pressure to advance the process. While the presence of such a core "energy centre" is suggested as being necessary, it must also be recognised that a series of human relationships between the stakeholders or participants in the process will develop. The success of these relationships will almost certainly be directly proportionate to the success of co-management.

The development of broad process principles for co-management has been directed by categorising five sub-themes as follows:

- **Process principles**: these principles relate to the actual elements of the process that ensure the objectives of co-management are met. This may

include the provision or time frames, the need for monitoring and feedback and so forth.

- **Recognition of indigenous rights**: the process should recognise the rights of indigenous peoples'. In New Zealand this includes those provisions and principles of the Treaty of Waitangi. Often processes pay little regard to the issue of rights and consequently these are not adequately addressed. These rights may include self-determination, control over traditional resources or sites and the right to control the use of traditional knowledge.

- **Provisions of resources**: as with any decision making or management process, success will be dependant on the availability or appropriate resources to carry out its functions. Resources may include: financial, education, or mediation.

- **Structure principles**: for establishing management structures or reviewing the structures of those agencies or organisations that are component parts of the co-management body. Important considerations may include: institution building, equity, democracy or representation issues.

- **Methods:** certain methods are more appropriate for enabling the progress and implementation of co-management. There are a number of principles articulated that guide the selection of methods. For example, the use of education as a method for increasing public understanding of the process e.g. research, education.

Table 8: Process Principles

[Note: The following table is organised in an alphabetical manner. It does not attempt to place greater importance in any single group of principles. Each broad principle is accompanied by a number of components, which serve to add explanation to the principle.]

Principle	Components
Change is always present in any dynamic system.	The structure needs to be robust to ensure it can deal with changes in interests and positions of participants.
	The process and participants should recognise that change is always present in any dynamic system, whether ecological change or changes in stakeholders' position on particular issues.

	Recognition that change may occur in two directions in relation to the co-management - more complex management agreements, and larger areas of application.
Commitment should be encouraged by the process.	The process should encourage a long term commitment by all parties involved to the agreed common goals and objectives.
Communities should be empowered to make decisions and provide for their own futures.	Aim to strengthen indigenous and community institutions and organisations to enable, encourage, and empower their involvement in the management of resources and to enable them to effectively and efficiently provide for the well-being of their communities.
	Suitable support services for all parties need to be provided to ensure they are equipped to deal with every aspect of the process.
	Empower indigenous elders, woman and youth.
	Institution building, strengthening and empowerment is necessary to sustain resource management and development actions.
Community empowerment is critical to success of co-management initiatives.	Develop the office or administration centre of the co-management body (and that of participants where relevant) to enable it to facilitate the community's conservation and natural resource management needs.
Community Liaison is essential for 'community ownership' and understanding of the process.	The co-management structures established by the process should maintain close liaison with the community and wherever possible ensure integration with the local community.
Compatibility with other agencies.	Co-management body needs to be comparable in essential components with other agencies, especially those agencies that form part of the co-management partnership. Internal and external partnerships are more likely to be effective.
Consensus should be the aim of decision making.	Consensus decision making should form the basis for all decisions.
	Co-management structures should be based upon decentralised decision making, while maximising integration with the local communities and other more regional or national organisations where appropriate.
	Consensus decision making may involve significant time and dialogue between all parties. Therefore, time must be allocated for discussion and dialogue in the decision making process.
	The interests or values of one group that are asserted against those of others, creating animosity between stakeholders, are discouraged.
	Decisions made by a co-management body should be transparent and accountable.
	Responsibilities and delegations must be clearly established, using a suitable process to determine which participants are best suited to holding specific responsibilities.
	Ensure decision making recognises and respects the inherent collective and individual rights of indigenous peoples'.
	Focus discussion on problem solving or problem identification, not on the differences between the people arguing for a particular position.
	Decision making processes should aim to focus on the interest of a particular group, rather than the position they may take in negotiating that interest.

Decision making should be timely and consider all available information.	Participants should reserve their decision on a particular issue until appropriate information or advice is received and discussed.
Delegation / decision making should be clearly articulated and understood.	Where power is delegated from the co-management body to another body (for example to indigenous peoples' for the management of sacred sites) the monitoring of effectiveness of that delegation should occur.
	Parties should aim to define areas of responsibility within a decision making process.
	Where the delegation of functions is to be made progressively over time, from a government agency to a co-management body, all parties must clearly define time frames and where accountabilities should lie in transitional phases.
Development of alliances should be encouraged.	Provision should be made to allow alliances and coalitions to develop with the public and private sector as appropriate.
Education and training will ensure the future success of co-management.	The process should aim to provide education to the local community, both in relation to the resources which the subject of the agreement, and in the operation of co-management itself.
	Process should focus on training and developing future leaders who will be respected.
	Provide for indigenous membership of other specialist/ technical committees to provide an indigenous perspective where such committees are established.
	Provide young people with skills to become responsible land natural resource managers for the future.
	Promote among non-indigenous employees in the park (and visitors) a knowledge and understanding of the traditions, language, culture and skills of indigenous peoples' and to arrange proper instruction by indigenous peoples' for this purpose.
	The process should ensure replication and extension occurs, which results in skills and knowledge accumulated is passed on to others.
Equitable distribution of benefits and costs.	Benefits and costs that are attributable to the operation of the co-management agreement should be redistributed on an equitable basis.
Establishment of alternatives and options.	A wide variety of alternatives and options that assist the decision making process should be generated.
Ethical guidelines should be developed for conduct.	Aim to establish ethical guidelines, based on an agreed set of principles, for the conduct of members in other aspects relating to the management of the resource.
Indigenous peoples' rights should be recognised and provided for.	Enable the full ownership, control and protection of cultural and indigenous property, and other traditionally owned or used resources.
	Enable restitution of cultural and intellectual property taken without free and informed consent.
	Protect vital medicinal plants, animals and minerals.
	Provide compensation (where appropriate) to mitigate adverse environmental, economic, social, cultural or spiritual impact.
	Aim to preserve, protect and promote where appropriate indigenous language and cultural identity.
Integrated management enables complex issues to be addressed.	Degree of integration will relate to complexity of issues which may be addressed by co-management body.

Jurisdictions must be recognised, and constraints defined.	Communities involved in co-management need to recognise that they are to some degree constrained by their legal or policy mandate, therefore outsiders may not recognise local management structures.
	Recognise the boundaries of indigenous peoples' in establishing a co-management agreement.
Knowledge should be controlled by the rightful owners.	Ensure local communities are provided with the right to control access to their knowledge.
	Ensure use of traditional ecological knowledge in scientific, commercial and public domains proceeds only with the co-operation and control of the traditional owners of knowledge.
	Use of traditional ecological knowledge should result in some benefit to indigenous communities.
Language and understanding between parties.	The definitions and interpretations upon which an agreement is based must be culturally appropriate, with indigenous peoples' themselves being able to exercise powers of definition.
Legislative impacts should be carefully analysed.	Where possible recognise or reinforce the status of indigenous rights, treaties, and any other agreements which confer rights on indigenous peoples'.
	Recognise legislative impacts upon indigenous interests.
Limits to capability should be recognised.	The process and the participants must recognise that problems which originate outside the community or resources concerned cannot be solved using co-management. A well organised community is however better equipped to deal with external forces (e.g. economic influences).
Management practices should embrace the spirit of partnership.	The process should provide for the implementation of management strategies and formalisation of responsibility and authority.
	Legal recognition should be provided for the co-management structure, any plans they may devise for implementation of their functions, and the authority of any decisions made.
	Management issues that have a cause or effect relationship which cross the boundary of the protected area should also be dealt with in an open and participatory manner.
	Recognise particular cultural requirements especially with regard to sites of significance.
	Encourage maintenance of the traditions of indigenous peoples' within the park.
	Recognise that indigenous peoples' are committed to contributing their traditional and other forms of knowledge skills, efforts and expertise for the betterment of humanity, the common security of all people and world peace.
Management planning should be owned by the stakeholders.	Adopt or prepare, in consultation with all stakeholders, a plan for the management of the national park.
Management planning and decision making must be closely linked.	A core management group may be formed to carry out day to day management functions. This group will necessarily contain a large degree of energy and commitment to the process.
	A clear and well defined mandate or brief, with clear objectives should form the initial stages of a co-management agreement.
	Motivation for groups is enhanced where care is taken in the identification of issues.

	Ensure decisions made by the co-management body follow consistent management values and policies, preferably through development (or adoption) and implementation of a management plan.
Management practices should utilise range of skills offered by community.	Involving as many indigenous peoples' as possible in the operations of the park and adjusting the working hours and conditions to the needs and culture of indigenous peoples' to facilitate this.
	Employ indigenous peoples' to carry out culturally relevant duties.
	Aim to maximise the use of traditional skills in park management.
	Utilise appropriate technology in all aspects of the management of the resource, including protection, monitoring, consultation etc.
Monitoring performance is critical to success and evaluation	The process should provide for evaluation and adjustment through adequate monitoring provisions.
	Aim to establish indicators of the effectiveness of the operation of the co-management agreement.
	Monitoring should make maximum use of all knowledge available to the group, including traditional ecological knowledge and local knowledge
	Simple and appropriate monitoring technology should be employed where this allows community involvement in the monitoring of the environment.
	Provision should be made for implementing and reviewing any agreements or goals of co-management.
Monitoring and reporting should occur on a regular basis.	Feedback on success of actions or projects is crucial to ensure ongoing community support and understanding.
	Feedback of monitoring results to maintain community participation.
	Reporting of monitoring results must also be directed towards government departments to satisfy their requirements.
	Appropriate ceremonies should be used to release monitoring information on the success of co-management, and used to reinforce the community partnerships created.
Negotiation should create win-win outcomes.	Enable the negotiation of acceptable ways in which resources are shared and used.
Ownership issues must be recognised and discussed openly.	Land tenure should be recognised within the process where these are clearly established or recognised.
	Land tenure or territorial land rights should not however constrain the ability of the co-management group to achieve its common objectives in relation to the ongoing management of the protected area.
	Support should be given to any external processes that are aiming to resolve ownership issues within the jurisdiction of the co-management body.
	Recognition should be made of traditional or legal entitlements to resources, including land.
	Sole management responsibility should be considered for some resources, such as sacred sites, where there is no joint interest in these resources.
Participation in the process is open.	Open and unrestricted participation in the process should be a right to any person, group or community.

	Aim to include groups within process where conflicts arise.
	Ensure direct and meaningful participation with local communities occurs as a necessary prerequisite to democratic and effective action.
	Recognise the need to limit the size of the body responsible for day to day management functions for reasons of efficiency and effectiveness.
	Encourages broadly based participation in the management process that recognises the value of voluntary input.
	Linkages with other agencies and groups should be established to encourage participation.
	Ensure regular consultation with traditional owners and their organisations about administrative and management considerations of the national park or protected area .
Privacy must be respected.	Recognise rights to privacy from unwanted public attention.
Publicity should achieve education.	Publicise the establishment of a co-management group through appropriate ceremony.
	Ongoing public education on the progress, activities, and opportunities for involvement and partnership should be publicised whenever appropriate.
	Form relationships and partnerships with local media to ensure effective working relationships.
Representation must be accountable to local communities.	Appointees to a co-management body should be nominated by the organisations they represent.
	Appointees should have an agreement with the organisations they represent to regularly feedback discussions, matters for decision, or activities of the co-management body.
	Aim to establish representative indigenous advisory or management committees.
Research activities should aim to inform the management process.	Where a consensus decision is unable to be reached due to insufficient information (or their is disagreement on the interpretation of the information), joint research projects to clarify an issue may be appropriate and a position deferred pending better information.
	Provide opportunities for research to be undertaken by indigenous peoples' or other groups where appropriate for the purposes of informing the decision making process.
	Aim to prepare a field guide to explain research processes for groups wishing to conduct research within the area of jurisdiction of the co-management body. These guidelines should reflect the nature of the partnership arrangement between all other parties.
Resources for conflict resolution.	Provide resources for conflict resolution where required, to ensure conflict does not disrupt the ability to manage the protected area.
Respect the diversity inherent in cross cultural partnerships.	The process should encourage and provide a respect for diversity of needs, values, opportunities, arrangements and capabilities.
	Recognise religious rights and freedoms.
Rights of communities should be defined by communities and recognised.	Recognise the right to development of communities, where these do not conflict with agreed collective values and objectives for the resource concerned.
	Self determination of indigenous peoples' should be an outcome sought by the process.
	Recognise the collective rights of communities.

Self determination is inherent in community empowerment.	Encourage various indigenous community stakeholders and interest groups to come together to discuss and resolve issues which are generally internal to the indigenous community.
	Enable the indigenous community to articulate their interests within the wider community as one stakeholder where appropriate.
	Recognise the degree to which the government restored ownership of land to indigenous communities.
	Recognise the degree to which legislation has empowered indigenous communities to mange their own affairs in the key decision making processes which affect their lives and interests.
	Provide for the ownership (and control) of cultural and economic assets that would enable indigenous communities to achieve cultural security and financial independence.
	Support requests for access to other areas of land not under indigenous control in order to carry out traditional activities regarding the care and maintenance of significant sites, hunting, fishing and gathering etc.
Simplicity should be the initial focus.	Expansion to more complex and task is easier once initial process established.
Size of the structure should reflect the communities represented.	The size of the structure needs to take account of small scale community oriented schemes, but also balanced against management functions held by the co-management body.
Socio-economic concerns identified.	Encourages indigenous peoples' and local communities to establish business and commercial initiatives and enterprise in the park where consistent with other objectives.
Stakeholder identification should be an open process.	Recognise distinct indigenous people with unique ancestry, culture and homelands with political boundaries in relation to establishing stakeholders in protected area management.
	Any stakeholder should be able to identify an interest in the process at any stage and become involved.
Stakeholder resourcing promotes community empowerment	Commitment should be made to providing support facilities for stakeholders throughout the process.
Time should be provided for all aspects of the process.	The process should provide sufficient time for all stakeholders to prepare for their roles.
	The process should allow adequate time for linkages to develop, both in a terms of relationships between participants, and for participants to make linkages between resource management issues.
	Patience and time are required for successful partnerships, especially where participants are from different cultural or social communities.
	Consideration of process is paramount. Incorporation of dialogue, action and reflection in process means due consideration is given to establishing a robust process before too much focus is placed upon content and outcomes.
	Processes for co-management should provide sufficient time to establish and maintain trust. It must be recognised at the outset that trust is fundamental to the success of the partnership.

3.8.3 Relationship Principles

Co-management involves a partnership between a number of stakeholders in the community. Often stakeholders are from diverse cultural or ethnic backgrounds, and

hold different (and in some cases diametrically opposed) views on the need for the use or protection of resources under consideration. In many instances co-management is used where conflict has historically been the norm. Given this scenario, and that the aim of co-management is to move together towards an agreed and shared vision, it becomes necessary to attempt to define the principles which underpin the relationships and partnerships that need to occur. Pinkerton (1989) suggests that:

> *"Of importance is the degree to which these relationships between organisations are robust enough to maintain their responsiveness to membership. Inevitably co-management agreements aim towards greater efficiencies between all parties, which may alienate some stakeholders from their membership. Do such groups inevitably become bureaucratic through such efficiency, or is it possible to set up institutions or processes which in and of themselves are resilient enough to withstand the pressures towards more efficient operation at the price of less communication with an accountability to their constituent communities."*

A number of critical factors will determine how these human relationships develop. As different players in a co-management arrangement develop working relationships and trust, the dynamics of the group will become more apparent. It is impossible to establish any firm or reliable "rules".

As with the principles for conservation management (see section 3.8.1) the principles for the relationship between parties are relatively brief for the sake of simplicity. These principles tend to relate to any number of common principles in terms of human relationships. They are common to any aspect of living within a community. These principles almost begin to act as a 'code of ethics'. In most instances, the major principles articulated in Table 9 are self explanatory. It should also be noted however, that these principles are not an interpretation of the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi. Rather, these principles build on the Treaty, and attempt to articulate an important 'standard of conduct' for the various 'relationships' - both collective and individual - that will occur by virtue of a co-management agreement.

Table 9: Relationship Principles

Principle	Component
Act with a generosity of spirit.	All relationships require a generous spirit and interactions based on compassion, honesty and a willingness to provide any resources or services at a persons disposal.
Clarity.	If unclear or uncertain on an issue under discussion, ask for clarification.
Fairness.	Participants should be fair to others involved in the process, providing adequate opportunity for all to be involved and treated in an equal manner.
Honesty.	It is crucial to ensure that all statements and positions provide an honest representation of interests.
	Participants shall not knowingly make misleading claims or statements in an attempt to influence decisions improperly.
Meetings shall be conducted in a fair and open manner.	Communicate directly and immediately about any concerns with other participants, the mediator or the process.
	Please wait for others to finish before speaking.
	Use a pleasant tone.
	Everyone is to have an equal opportunity to speak.
	Refrain from accusatory language.
	Stereotyping will be avoided.
Neutral 'mediators' should be identified.	Mediators within the group (or external) are useful to facilitate a process of decision making where contentious issues arise.
	Private conversations with the mediator will remain private unless agreed otherwise.
Openness.	Participants should aim to be open about their concerns to enable others to understand their position.
Participants are responsible for the success of relationships established by co-management.	Participants should aim to educate or share knowledge with other members where this will enhance the understanding of different points of view and lead to more informed dialogue and better decision making processes
	Participants should aim to inform the process wherever possible, either though relaying experiences or tabling new information.
Participants responsibilities to the group.	Participants should at all times attempt to maintain an appropriate level of understanding of all issues being considered by the co-management body.
	Participants should ensure that full, clear and accurate information is available.
	Participants should pay special attention to the implications of decisions on the environmental, social and economic concerns of the communities they represent and other communities represented on the co-management body.
	Participants should ensure their actions do not compromise any of the agreed shared values or management objectives, or compromise the principles of conservation management.
	Participants should not do anything calculated to injure unjustly or unfairly the reputation of another participant.

Participants shall declare their interests.	Participants should ensure that any private interests are declared where a conflict of interests may exist between their role in decision making and the receipt of any ensuing benefits.
	Participants should not accept any financial inducement in order to affect a particular discussion or decision.
Sensitivity to cultural protocols.	Participants should recognise the range of values and cultures present in a co-management situation, and act in accordance with relevant protocols.
	Participants should aim to become familiar and comfortable with the protocols of all participants where the setting requires this.
Some conversations may remain private.	Participants will inform others when private conversations between participants are to remain private. This enables individual participants to hold private conversations which shall not be open to discussion by the main group, allowing clarification on certain issues where necessary.
Treat others with respect.	All participants have equal standing in the process and therefore should be treated with equal respect.
.	The personal integrity and values of participants will be respected
	Participants should uphold the dignity and reputation of other members of the co-management body.
	Meetings and discussions should take place in a pleasant manner.

3.8.4 Concluding Overview: Principles

Berkes *et al* (1991) distinguished between 7 levels of co-management, each of which provides for different degrees of devolution of power, responsibility and management of resources to local communities (see Figure 3). While the principles above may be seen to be very generic, it can be demonstrated that as any management structures or processes move up through the levels suggested by Berkes then there is a greater commitment to an increasing number of these principles. For example, the principle of consensus decision making may not be given full consideration until the government agency is prepared to allow the management of the resource to reach a level comparable to community management boards or partnership/community control. Therefore, as a greater commitment to increasing community control is manifested, there must also be a corresponding commitment to change the principles of the process and relationship.

3.9 Potential benefits, costs and obstacles to co-management.

The potential benefits and costs of co-management require careful consideration. It is this analysis that will partially determine the political likelihood of co-management being viewed as a viable alternative to the status quo. The western management system (that is, the management system used by government agencies) requires a very

systematic and thorough investigation of options (such as co-management) prior to any commitment to reform or change. Indeed, this requirement for rigorous analysis is one of the advantages of the western management system. One of the first matters to be addressed is a detailed examination of the status quo, against various options for improvements can be measured.

The change required to implement co-management in New Zealand is not a minor one. There may be both legislative and social changes required. Therefore, careful consideration of a process to move towards co-management is required. Justification for this change must come through an analysis of the benefits and costs of co-management. Consideration of obstacles is also important as these may add further costs to the process.

Pinkerton (1989) identifies three key benefits sought as of co-management regimes as more appropriate, more efficient and more equitable management. In order for these benefits to be realised, they need to be considered in association with the following processes and goals:

(1)   co-management for community based economic and social development

(2)   co-management to decentralise and enhance resource management decisions; and

(3)   co-management to reduce conflict through a process of participatory democracy.

Co-management should not however, be seen as an ideal solution in all situations. Some commentators have suggested that in certain situations co-management may result in a number of negative outcomes. Chapeski (1990) articulates a number of these concerns, stating that co-management committees may:

(1)   foster a Western style of thinking about resource management, and therefore:

(2)   produce an elite group within the local indigenous community that posses the very skills needed to deal with the matter within the Western cultural model, and therefore:

(3)   cause a social split in the local indigenous community as well as:

(4)   neglect the local customary resource management practices and knowledge that previously prevailed among to local indigenous community.

While the agency responsible for the management of the protected area may not have functions or responsibilities in these areas, it must be recognised that many of these elements (such as social development) occur as part of the process of co-operation and collaboration

The following set of propositions relating to observations of human relationships in co-management situations have been adapted from Pinkerton (1989). Successful co-management:

(1)   establishes and maintains commitment between individual stakeholders and communities in planning for the protection of the resource which is of common interest.

(2)   creates the commitment between stakeholders to share both the costs and benefits of their efforts towards protecting the resource. Sharing allows individuals to move towards a collective system of management with a common purpose, where all participants share common objectives.

(3)   places great emphasis on conflict resolution in relation to resource use allocation decisions, and in particular on resolving such conflicts through dialogue and negotiation within the group of stakeholders.

(4)   enhances the position of all stakeholders in a manner that does not unfairly disadvantage any other stakeholder, in order to allow a more equal negotiating relationship between all resource users.

(5)   establishes relationships where information held by both government and stakeholders is shared freely, creating a better informed process for making management decisions. Decision makers will therefore be empowered to make collectively agreed and understood decisions on the status and best use of a resource.

(6)   examines the imposition of rules and regulations with a view to determining the best method of regulation. This creates a greater sense of trust between all stakeholders (including government) and a greater sense of control on the part of the previously "regulated" stakeholders.

(7)   creates a higher level of trust between government and stakeholders and therefore enforcement of an agreed set of regulations becomes much easier as all stakeholders have a sense of ownership of regulations.

(8)   creates a higher level of trust between government and stakeholders, leading to a government willingness and commitment to devolve management and decision making authority to such processes at a local level where the necessary propositions exist.

3.9.1 Benefits

- The formation of strong partnerships between government agencies and local stakeholders to ensure conservation interests remain unthreatened.

- Stronger commitment to conservation and the protection of resources from environmental degradation.

- A reduction in the burden of management through a sharing of responsibilities among all parties involved in the agreement.

- The ability to negotiate specific benefits for all stakeholders in the agreement[9].

- Increased effectiveness and efficiency of management. A consequence of harnessing the skills and knowledge of numerous communities is that the resources of those communities may be utilised, whereas previously they were inaccessible.

- Enhanced communication, dialogue and management that occurs in a spirit of partnership, thereby increasing community capacities for resource management.

- Shared ownership of the conservation planning process.

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[9] This point is of critical importance and has major ethical considerations. Its implementation may involve crossing the jurisdictions of a number of government agencies due to the narrow mandates often held by those agencies responsible for conservation. Negotiated benefits for stakeholder groups may in some cases provide for the survival of local communities, specifically indigenous communities, and/or may compensate for historical losses or grievances.

- Increased trust between stakeholders and government agencies.

- More effective enforcement, lower costs of enforcement, and community ownership of regulations.

- A greater understanding of the reasons for 'regulations' by the local community.

- Mechanisms for articulating local concerns.

- Retaining and utilising local knowledge over long term and transfer of knowledge from generation to generation.

- Safeguarding local and regional resource rights.

- Increased certainty for investments, long term perspective's on management and enhanced sustainability as a result of enhanced sense of security and stability.

- Conflict avoidance as a result of increased understanding of different viewpoints and priorities.

- Increased public awareness of conservation issues;

- Increased employment for indigenous peoples' with appropriate skills for conservation management.

3.9.2 Costs

- substantial investment of time by all parties in the initial stages of negotiating an agreement with stakeholders.

- The need to include professional services (such as lawyers, planners, accountants etc.) In the initial stages, which may involve significant financial resources.

- Need for increased community and political consultation throughout the process to continually justify process, especially during initial phases.

- Inability to make crucial decisions may result in conservation losses unless clear lines of accountability are defined.

3.9.3 Obstacles:

- Potential unwillingness by government agencies, their managers, or support staff to share authority with other stakeholders.

- Opposition from the local community who resent the existence of present conservation management agencies, or who do not believe in the protected status of the protected area, which in some instances may have deprived them the possibility of a livelihood;

- Opposition from stakeholders who utilise any conflict surrounding the management of the protected area to chase their own political agendas in other forums;

- Chances that conservation goals supported by a majority of people may not be continued by a co-management arrangement;

- The possibility that local communities may not have the resources or strength to survive major challenges over the long term, or to maintain a credible management operation through economically or socially tough conditions;

- Time and financial resources required during initial phases may not be available to government agencies who operate on short term project approaches to financial management;

- The possibility that stakeholders may become entrenched with debating one particular issue which is high on other social agendas (such as ownership claims by indigenous peoples').

- In some instances where traditional indigenous local resource management systems have been rendered relatively ineffective as a result of outside influences and centralised state resource management, the ability to re-initiate local level controls may take some time.

3.10 Application of co-management

The biggest question in relation to co-management, especially for resource managers, is *"when should co-management be applied?"*. Consideration of an answer to this

question should also involve an analysis of the costs and benefits of co-management and an examination of what co-management may change in terms of improving environmental outcomes. Another consideration is the efficiency and effectiveness of the delivery of conservation management services. This may be approached by asking the question "*Are the commitment and contributions of the stakeholders necessary for the effective management of the protected area?*". Ultimately this will involve an analysis and judgement as to whether the benefits of implementation will, in balance, outweigh the costs. A detailed feasibility study may be required to determine whether the necessary pre-conditions for co-management exist. Such a feasibility study will involve analysis of the institutional, political, legal, economic and socio-cultural conditions which exist in relation to the protected area and potential stakeholders. Borrini-Feyerabend (1996) has suggested a number of critical feasibility questions that should be asked when investigating the potential for applying co-management (see Appendix 2).

Co-management provides a mechanism for communities to restore a greater sense of self determination through greater control over local resources and local economies. Pinkerton (1989) reviewed a number of co-management agreements specifically related to fishery management. She developed a number of propositions that can be used to predict instances co-management may be a favourable management solution to resource conflicts. The propositions result from comparing what is present or absent in specific situations where co-management has been implemented. The following observations of co-management are adapted from Pinkerton (1989) and are grouped into different components of a co-management process, namely the preconditions for co-management, the best mechanisms and conditions to support co-management, the best scale for co-management and who are the most successful stakeholders in a co-management process.

3.10.1 The Preconditions for Co-Management

Co-management is most likely to develop:

(1)   from a real or perceived crisis or threat to a resource.

(2)   where stakeholders show a willingness to contribute resources (especially financial resources) to the rehabilitation and enhancement or ongoing protection of the resource. In addition a contribution to other

management functions enhances the likelihood of the establishment of a co-management agreement.

(3)   where there is an opportunity to implement a negotiation process and/or establish an experimental co-management arrangement for one simple function (which may later be expanded to additional or other appropriate functions where the experimental stage proves successful)

3.10.2 Mechanisms and Conditions to Support Co-Management

Co-management is most effective:

(1)   where agreements are formalised, legal, and ongoing.

(2)   where mechanisms exist for redistributing wealth, resources, or other benefits derived as a result of the collective effort, back to the community.

(3)   where the mechanisms introduced by an agreement provides protection and enhancement for both the resource and the operation of the cultural system which values the resource.

(4)   where external support can be utilised in the process (university, non-government scientists, credible organisations) and other external discussion forums are able to provide input from other sections of the community not directly involved in the co-management process.

3.10.3 Scale for Co-Management

Co-management is most effective:

(1)   where the area over which the agreement has jurisdiction is not too large, and preferably where benefits may be linked to watersheds or local waters.

(2)   where the number of stakeholders or communities is not too large for effective communication, or where well organised subgroups have efficient and effective methods of communication.

(3)   where the government agency responsible for the administration of the resource is relatively small and well defined in its mandate, and has a local or regional presence.

3.10.4 Stakeholders in a Co-Management Process

Co-management is most effective:

(1)   where a group or community can effectively define its boundaries, specific matters of interest, and desired outcomes so that membership is clear and allocations of resources can be made in an informed manner.

(2)   where stakeholders or participants have an existing cohesive social system based on some commonality, such as ethnicity, historical associations, recreational interests, or other interests.

3.10.5 General propositions

The following propositions have been adapted from Pinkerton (1989) and provide more general observations of instances when it may be appropriate, or successful to implement co-management processes. Co-management operates most effectively:

(1)   when those involved in the use or management of the resource are involved as members of the managing body, as well as at the operational level.

(2)   where an appeal mechanism is provided for dispute resolution when required. Preferably the appeal body should be community based. The co-management process should also enable disputes to be settled through dialogue between the parties concerned.

(3)   where technical management decisions relating to the status of a resource are made independently from resource allocation decisions (that is, which group gets what). This is especially necessary where one or more stakeholders are involved in the process.

(4)   where opportunities are provided for innovative and informal problem solving among stakeholders.

The above propositions relating to the likely success of a co-management arrangement are indicative of current and past experiences. They are qualified by the assertion that the success of any co-management arrangement is likely to depend on the human relationships that exist between the key players.

3.11 Processes for co-management

The transition from traditional government oriented "western" management, to management of a protected area or specific resource in a co-operative or collaborative manner with local and indigenous peoples' utilising traditional ecological knowledge is a difficult one. International experience in co-management suggests that there is no "model" for either a transition phase towards co-management (a transition may be illustrated by taking steps up the rungs on the ladder of co-management, illustrated by Berkes *et al* (1991) in Figure 3) or for a final "model" of co-management.

Three fundamental aspects to co-management exist. These are:

(1) a partnership;

(2) an agreement; and

(3) a process.

It is the process elements of co-management that are under discussion. In every sense, there are process elements in working towards a partnership, maintaining working partnerships, establishing agreements, and ongoing management of protected areas.

The "western" model of management translates these processes into statutory mechanisms. In some instances these statutory mechanisms are focused on a single purpose and tend to reduce the flexibility required for a range of stakeholders to be involved. In addition, government agencies have operating requirements that usually include efficiency and effectiveness performance measures, plus accountability and transparency. These principles should also apply to any co-management process.

Planning processes are generally an evolving area that often reflect the broader political climate of society. Democracy for example means planning processes are leaning further and further towards inclusionary and participatory planning processes. Other international influences such as Agenda 21 indicate the need to carry out planning at a local level.

Process issues are extremely important when dealing with a diverse range of people. It is critical that participation by all stakeholders is valued by the process and by those facilitating the process. Co-management processes differ slightly from a typical planning process as the mandate for co-management is more likely to derive from a politically negotiated agreement with local communities than from legislation. In a

broad sense however, planning processes can be seen to include a number of common elements. Generally such processes are cyclical in nature, meaning they include some feedback and evaluation of performance (monitoring) (see Figure 7).

Figure 7: A Typical Planning Process
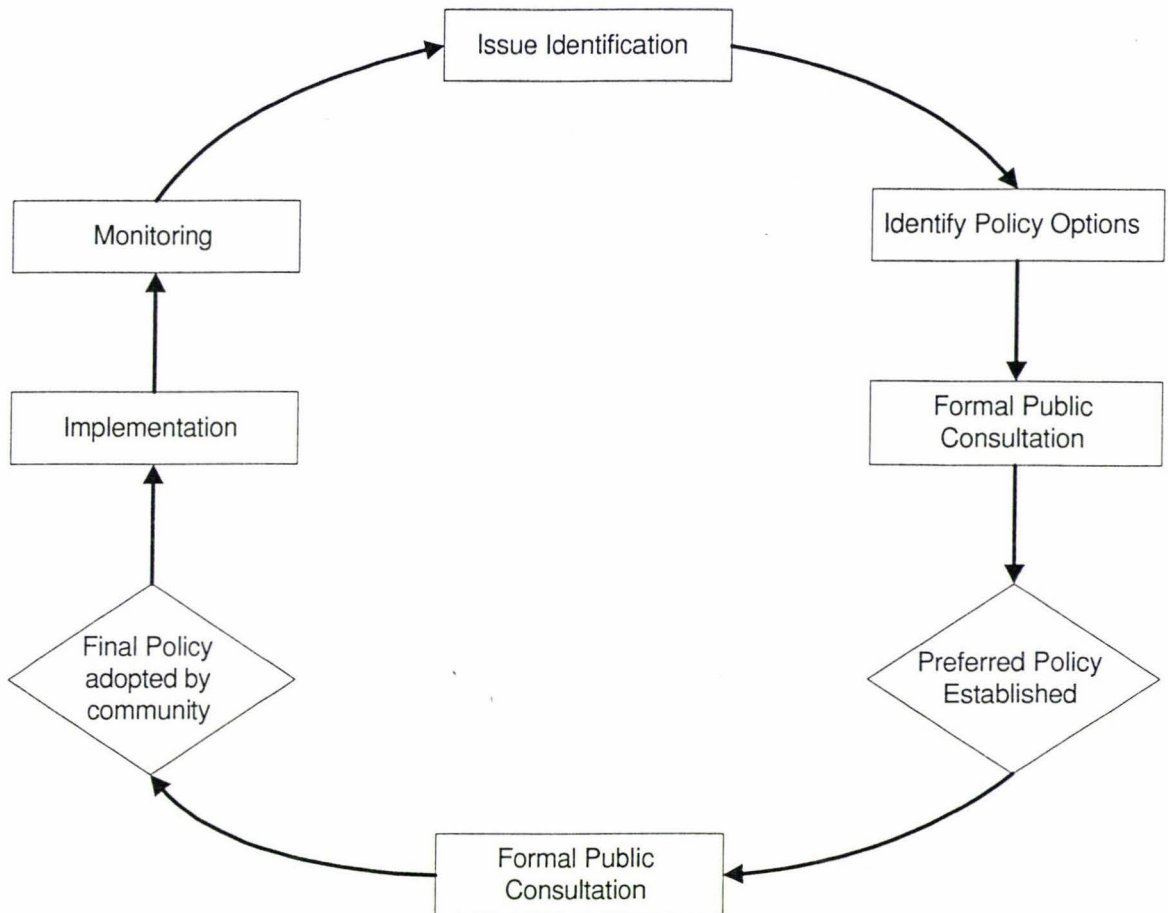
The difference between the above planning process, and the move towards conservation planning processes based on co-management are, that a co-management process must first derive its mandate. Key stakeholders must be identified, and agreements reached as to how the process will run. The process of co-management has a number of phases that aim to establish the mandate (negotiation phases). Once this negotiation has been completed it is likely that processes will more closely resemble more typical planning processes, such as those which are established by the RMAct or the Conservation Act 1987.

Agreements that provide for co-management are as diverse as the processes used to develop and implement them. This section will not attempt to identify any 'correct' process for co-management. A number of generic 'phases' or considerations are

suggested (see Figure 8). A more definitive process will be suggested for co-management in relation to the case study area, Egmont National Park, as the issues relating to conservation planning may be more clearly identified.

Figure 8: Generic Phases of a Co-management process.

Phase	Steps

Scoping / Policy Evaluation ↓	1. Policy issues
	   • Macro policy
	   • Micro policy
	   • Specific claims
	2. Identify potential resources available for the process.
	3. Preliminary identification and evaluation of potential stakeholders.

Pre-negotiation ↓	4. Review primary management issues and conflicts in protected area and surrounding ecosystems. 5. Carry out stakeholder analysis, including methodology to distinguish between stakeholders. 6. Initial contact with stakeholders for purposes of identifying interests and issues of importance.
Facilitation of Agreement ↓	7. Establish an agreed central team to co-ordinate and facilitate negotiations between stakeholders (including government agencies). 8. Appoint an independent facilitator if necessary. 9. First meeting of all stakeholders. 10. Facilitate the development of an agreement based on consensus. Agreement may include objectives for co-management of protected area. This may include adoption of a management plan. 11. Publicise agreement to gain community support
Implementation ↓	12. Establish appropriately resourced co-management structure 13. Carry out management activities. 14. Continue regular meetings of co-management body, as necessary resolve management issues or conflicts through processes agreed in the agreement. 15. Where a mandate exists and success has been demonstrated, expand the responsibilities of the co-management body;
Monitoring ↓	16. Establish framework or strategy to measure the effectiveness and suitability of the agreement and subsequent implementation measures. 17. Where appropriate, make changes to the agreement or seek changes to initial mandate to remove constraints from agreement. 18. Feedback through any stage of the process to re-evaluate any aspect that was not carried out effectively.

3.12 Structures for co-management

In order to provide for the implementation of the principles and processes of co-management, a management structure must be put in place that represents the commitment to co-management relationships. The decision making and management structures put in place are critical to creating an equal system of representation. In many instances, the disagreements between state management systems and indigenous peoples' are exacerbated as a result of under-representation in decision making processes.

Structures for co-management is taken here to mean those management systems and representative mechanisms that give effect to the principles of co-management identified earlier (see section 3.6). In essence, a structure that gives effect to co-management principles provides for the representation of local communities in a meaningful manner in decision making processes. In particular, representative mechanisms that provide a balanced representation of all interest groups and cultures provide an important step in implementing co-management (Hoekema, 1995). Co-management structures institutionalise the concept of co-operation in decision making through processes for both long-term strategic planning and short-term project planning. It recognises the importance of both long term and day-to-day management relationships.

There are many different structures that may be put in place to allow a diverse group of people to be represented in a decision making process. Before illustrating potential structures for co-management, it is appropriate to examine one of the important factors that will influence the functioning of any structure, that is, its mandate.

The mandate for co-management is critical to the type of structure established. Most often a mandate is established through some formal process between local communities and the government agency responsible for the management of the resource under discussion. This discussion and negotiation may result in a co-management agreement. While this agreement may provide for co-management, there may be a range of constraints on the mandate which in turn influence the degree of decision making power held by the co-management body.

The 7 'rungs' of co-management suggested by Berkes *et al* (1991) illustrate the degrees of mandate that may be used to describe various structures. Co-management structures

may vary in the degree of commitment to community control over decision making. Some structures may claim to provide for certain levels of community involvement, but due to fundamental constraints placed on the ability to make decisions, such claims may be false. The mandate of a co-management structure may also be constrained by overarching legislation or policy. For example, many countries have legislation which aims to promote the conservation of wildlife and ecosystems (such as the Conservation Act 1987). The principles of such legislation may still apply as a 'constraint' to the operation of co-management decision making processes.

In addition to policy and legislative constraints to the mandate, a structure may be influenced by the degree of community involvement in the process. This constraint comes back to the principles of co-management. Most often co-management involves a partnership between a government agency and indigenous peoples'. In most situations however, there are other local communities with equal interest in the management of their local resources. These communities have an equal right to participate in co-management processes, and to be represented on such structures. A lack of representation may result in community suspicion or aggression towards the decisions taken by a co-management body.

Structures essentially provide a formal mechanism to allow different groups of people (whether local communities, indigenous peoples', politicians or government agency managers) to interpret, define and implement the objectives of a co-management agreement within a dynamic relationship. Four broad organisational relationships have been defined based on observations of interactions between different cultural systems. The following relationships are adapted from observations made by Bodeker (1994) in relation to broad organisational interactions between different cultural systems:

(1) **Monopolistic**: state managers utilising western management practices based wholly on scientific method have sole right to practice. There may be some recognition of other cultures within a planning process.

(2) **Tolerant**: Traditional management practices that utilise traditional ecological knowledge are not officially recognised but are free to practice, but within regulations imposed by the state management system.

(3)   **Parallel**: Practitioners of both state and traditional systems are officially recognised. They both work towards similar or common goals, within equal but separate systems.

(4)   **Integrated**: Modern and traditional management systems merged in a single system, and practice jointly.

Craig (1992) suggests that in relation to the structures for co-management, the cultural context within which any co-management arrangement will be based is inevitably a western cultural model. Despite legal imperatives that direct otherwise, in many instances, no real effort has been made to incorporate meaningful partnership into the co-management structures or to attempt to correct the problem identified by Craig in relation to the cultural context. Craig (1992) further criticises co-management in relation to the structures and processes within which it operates:

> *"Joint management is a Western cultural model, deriving from within our culture and social context [which] holds some risks for Aboriginal people...A more fundamental criticism is that any Aboriginal involvement in mainstream decision making processes will lead to reliance and acceptance of the dominating culture. Examples include a growing reliance on non-Aboriginal professionals and the granting of land rights under our system of land law rather than recognising the customary system of land tenure. The issue of whether it is easier to establish true independence or achieve self-determination from within or from outside the system is problematic"*

These problems with co-management structures are highlighted to ensure careful consideration taken when developing co-management structures. While these problems of cultural context may or may not be resolvable, they need to be considered and a decision made on balance of the merits of developing and empowering (through a mandate) a co-management structure (or body). Hoekema (1995) notes that many of the problems associated with co-management structures may be resolved over time as experience develops.

The most simple structure which may be used to illustrate how co-management may be seen to work is one which depicts a 50:50 relationship between a local tribe of indigenous peoples', and a government agency. It is assumed that the mandate held by this body is not constrained in any way (see Figure 9).

Primary Government Agency
Representatives (e.g. DoC)

Independent
Facilitator

Co-management Board

Non-participating
community groups /
observers

Indigenous Peoples' and/or Local
Community Representatives

mandate for
representatives
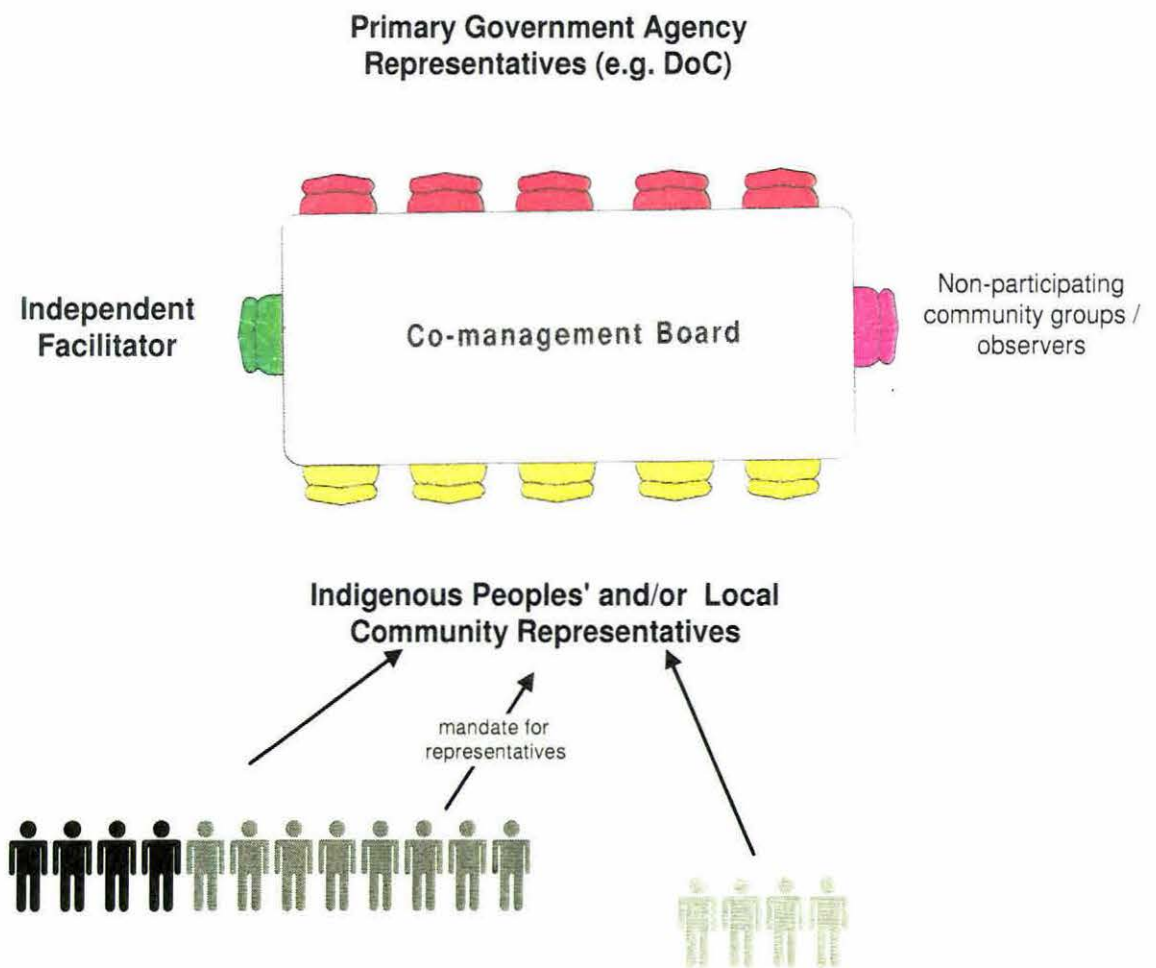
3.13 Summary of Key Themes

This chapter has covered a range of material in relation to co-management theory and application. There are certain key themes that emerge from this discussion and analysis that are important for the development of co-management options in Egmont

National Park. These themes are briefly summarised below:

- co-management is management partnership that aims to include all communities of interest or stakeholders in decision making process involving natural resources in a collaborative manner. Within this partnership there is an attempt to recognise the interests of two or more cultures within the constraints of ecosystem preservation.

- the primary principles upon which co-management is based are that communities must be empowered to participate in these processes, that there should be a commitment to guardianship of the natural resources or ecosystems at stake, and that ecosystem preservation should form the common ground for this partnership. These principles may defined by their application to ecosystem or conservation management; the process of co-management or to the relationships that develop through collaborative management.

- in New Zealand the Treaty of Waitangi and section 4 of the Conservation Act 1987 forms the basis and mandate for co-management of the conservation estate. In order to achieve successful co-management recognition of the role and importance of local communities in conservation means that a series of partnerships must be formed between government; iwi and local communities.

- a range of costs and benefits of co-management need to be explored and examined. These enable a robust analysis when determining whether co-management options are likely to have beneficial effects on balance.

- a number of pre-conditions to co-management and a range of mechanisms, scales, stakeholders and general propositions exist. These enable communities or proponents to gauge the interest and likelihood of success if co-management is to be pursued.

- appropriate structures and processes that provide for a participative process need to be established within the constraints of sound ecological and conservation management;

4

National Parks and Conservation Planning Processes
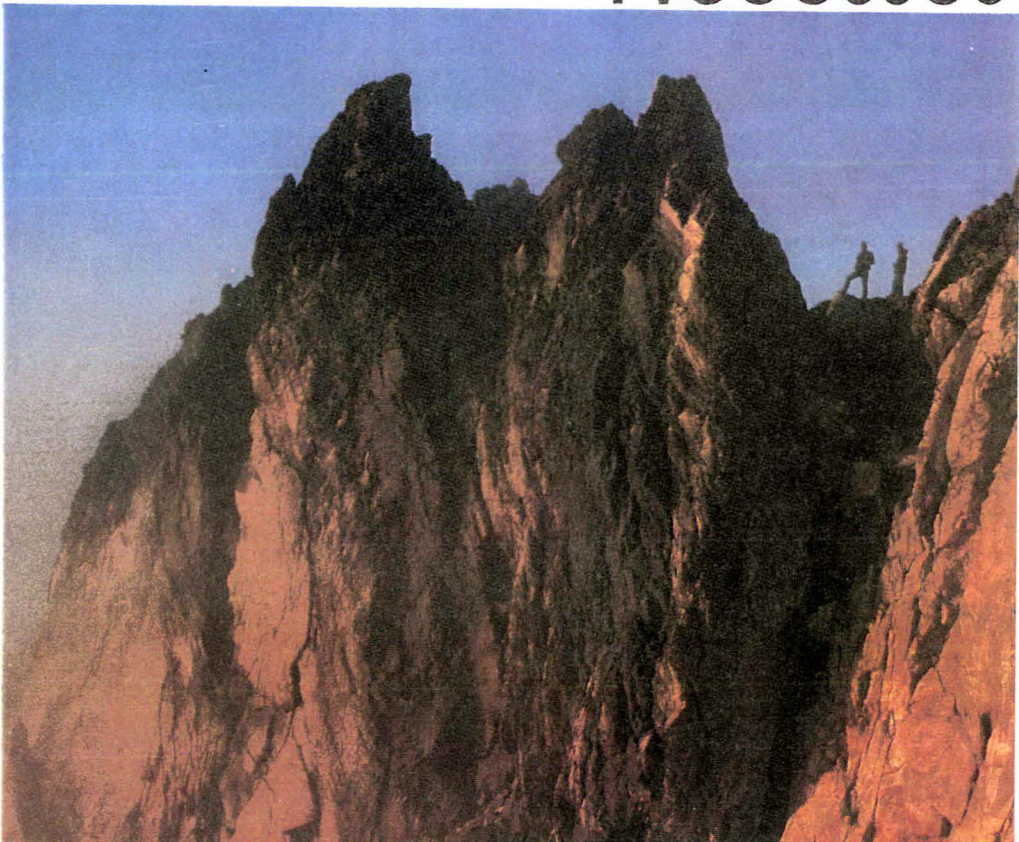
4. NATIONAL PARKS AND CONSERVATION PLANNING PROCESSES

4.1 Introduction

This Chapter describes and analyses the conservation planning framework in New Zealand, specifically in relation to national parks. It is important to set the scene for the case study in the following chapter on co-management options for Egmont National Park. In order to achieve this, a number of themes are developed. These themes are: national park management; the application of co-management in national parks; and the analysis of conservation planning processes that must inevitably adapt if co-management is to be a feasible management option.

Firstly, national parks are defined to ensure a common point of reference for the reader. This definition includes an exploration of the political, social and environmental history of national parks. National parks are themselves representative of a human desire to protect natural heritage. While many cultures have a long history of protecting resources through 'parks', the best known national park 'model' originated with Yellowstone National Park in USA in 1872. The development of the national park concept, and reasons for protecting natural resources within their boundaries can therefore be recorded.

Changes in the philosophy of national park management is influenced by changes in the demands of society as a whole, as may be brought about by changes in lifestyles or values. These changes are examined generically and also through the articulation of various 'phases' of management in New Zealand's national parks. Examining the history of the development of the national park concept is therefore critical in establishing why national park management paradigms used today are prevalent over other management options, such as co-management.

Secondly, an examination of co-management in Kakadu National Park provides an indication of the changes that have been implemented through co-management in specific situations. This provides an basis for considering co-management possibilities in New Zealand. The implementation of co-management in Kakadu National Park also gives an indication of how the principles of co-management can influence process and practice.

Finally, New Zealand's conservation planning processes, including current administration systems are analysed to provide a contextual setting for co-management initiatives. This includes discussion of both the legislative objectives and outcomes that for all intents and purposes define conservation planning and practice in New Zealand. Following from the suggestion in Chapter three that co-management is most likely to develop from a real or perceived threat to resources, key conservation issues and threats are discussed. An overview of New Zealand's conservation estate and national parks in particular, provides a geographical setting. The outcome of this 'theme' is an analysis and assessment of the potential for conservation planning processes to provide the flexibility required for successful co-management. This is achieved by examining a number of key planning mechanisms, such as legislation, national policy, conservation management strategies and conservation management plans. This will enable an overall 'picture' of conservation administration, planning and management to be established as a background for the Egmont National Park case study.

4.2   National Parks

4.2.1 National Parks - Definition

Concern with conservation and protected areas is by no means new. Many ancient civilisations have incorporated public space, public assembly areas and walkways into urban spaces. More than 2000 years ago Plato recorded his concerns about the loss of soil through deforestation on the hills of Attica in Greece (Wright and Mattson, 1996). The Assyrian Noblemen in 700 BC used large designated spaces to practice their riding and hunting. Similar spaces were incorporated in the urban areas established by the Roman Empire and throughout medieval Europe. These spaces were often exclusively reserved for the use of the ruling or elite classes. They were largely set aside for hunting or game purposes, but in effect advocated an early form of protection, as the game contained within these areas required an essentially 'wild' environment to survive (Nash, 1970 cited in Blue, 1995).

The development of the park concept over time should also be seen within the development of the relationship between 'people and nature'. For many centuries, this relationship was based on the domination of nature and the use of what were perceived to be "inexhaustible" natural resources for the benefit of society. This perception has gradually shifted, so that society has come to 'protect' these resources in recognition of

their finite nature. One method of protection has been designating land for purposes that do not involve the use or development of the natural, physical, biological or cultural resources of that area. This may be termed a 'protected area'. The definition of a protected area adopted by IUCN (1994) is:

> *"An area of land and/or sea especially dedicated to the protection and maintenance of biological diversity, and of natural and associated cultural resources, and managed through legal or other effective means. Although all protected areas meet the general purposes contained in this definition, in practice the precise purposes for which protected areas are managed differ greatly. "*

Protected areas may be managed for any one, or a combination of, the following purposes:

- Scientific research

- Wilderness protection

- Preservation of species and genetic diversity

- Maintenance of environmental services

- Protection of specific natural and cultural features

- Tourism and recreation

- Education

- Sustainable use of resources from natural ecosystems

- Maintenance of cultural and traditional attributes.

The IUCN has defined a series of protected area management categories based on management objectives. Definitions of these categories, and examples of each, are provided in *Guidelines for Protected Area Management Categories* (IUCN, 1994). The six categories are: Strict Nature Reserve and Wilderness Area (Category I); National Park; Natural Monument; Habitat/Species Management Area; Protected Landscape/Seascape; and Managed Resource Protected Area (see Appendix 6).

One of the higher forms of protection is the national park. The International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) has adopted the following

definition of a national park, as an indication of the international body's understanding of what constitutes a national park:

"A national park is a relatively large area:

- Where one or several ecosystems are not materially altered by human exploitation and occupation, where plant and animal species, geomorphological sites and habitats are of specific scientific interest, educational and recreational interest or which contains a natural landscape of great beauty;

- Where the highest competent authority of the country has taken steps to prevent or to eliminate as soon as possible exploitation or occupation in the whole area and to enforce effectively the respect of ecological geomorphological or aesthetic features which have led to its establishment;

- Where visitors are allowed to enter, under special conditions, for inspirational, educational, cultural and recreational purposes" (IUCN, 1994).

4.2.2 History of national parks- general

The increasing pressure on environmental resources created as a result of population growth and industrialisation has in part focused our attention on our ability to either protect resources or manage them in a sustainable manner. Agenda 21 states that "humanity stands at a defining point in history". At a local level, the success of sustainable development may be determined by the strategies adopted by local communities to resolve conflicts between the use, development or protection of resources.

The range of choices open to communities make this decision making process extremely difficult. It is inevitable that there will be losers, whether this is future generations, the environment or present generations. The aim of sustainable development is arguably to ensure such decision making processes aims for win-win situations wherever possible in order to minimise the 'losers' in any conflict.

These enormous resource conflicts have in part created the desire to protect nature from this exploitation. An examination of the history of environmental protection, in particular the establishment of national parks, will reveal a very anthropocentric origin. Yellowstone was the first national park to be designated in the United States in 1872. It

was closely followed by the Adirondacks (1885) and Yosemite (1890). These first parks were largely designated for utilitarian purposes such as water supply and game hunting. The development of the national park model in the United States should be seen within a historical context heavily focused on land development and the need to dominate nature. Concepts of nature preservation were by no means accepted by the majority of the colonial society.

One of the major advocates of the national park concept was George Catlin, who is generally credited as the first person to articulate the concept of an institutionalised and managed national park. Catlin observed the destructive effects of colonisation during travels across the Great Plains in the 1830's. The government supported policy of trading buffalo fur and tongues for whisky with native Americans would, in Catlins mind, eventually cause the extinction of the buffalo. Catlin concluded:

> 'its species is soon to be extinguished, and with it the peace and happiness (if not the actual existence) of the tribes of Indians who are joint tenants with them, in the occupancy of these vast and idle plains"
> (Catlin, 1832, cited in McAllister, 1982).

Catlin went on to promote the idea that the buffalo might still be saved and suggested that in the future their preservation in a wild state would be valued and that America could hold up this example of *"A nation's park, containing man and beast, in all the wild[ness] and freshness of their nature's beauty!"* (Catlin, 1832, cited in McAllister, 1982).

Catlins national parks concept contained a number of underlying principles that are summarised as follows:

- there should be no separation of man from nature;
- the need to preserve nature from the threats of development;
- national pride is a central component to preservation;
- parks should be large and wild in nature, rather than a manicured environment;
- parks should be administered at a national level.

These principles were reflected when Yellowstone was first established and thus Nash (1970) suggests that the origin of the national park concept can be quite accurately connected to Catlin in 1832. As the national park concept developed in New Zealand

during the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century, it is clear that the principles on which the Yellowstone model was based had significant influence here.

4.2.3 National parks legislation-general

One of the first steps in recognising the important role played by protected areas such as national parks is understanding why these areas have been set aside. The passage of legislation which provides for the establishment of national parks may provide an indication of the processes and time frames involved in heritage protection at a national level in a given country. Legislation is often the end product of many years of political pressure for policy change.

Increasing public support and understanding of the range of functions protected areas play in land use and environmental management is critical to maintaining the strength and purpose of legislation (Nelson, 1993). It is now quite apparent that parks and protected areas provide a number of services and functions, including recreational spaces, protection of biodiversity, ecosystem functioning and a number of other human values such as traditional spiritual and cultural values.

Nelson (1987) examined the functions of national parks from the point of view of those established by legislation or policy. The functions identified included the following:

(1)   Protection and appropriate use:

- of forests, water, soils, and wildlife;

- of lakes and rivers, for example through heritage rivers or wild and scenic rivers ;

- of marine and coastal resources including estuaries or other areas of importance for fish production, shipwreck sites or other historic sites;

- of cultural and archaeological resources;

- of urban heritage resources, such as green spaces, rare plants, biologically diverse habitats, aquifers, wetlands or other environmentally sensitive or significant areas;

- for various kinds of recreation and tourism;

- for education

- by indigenous peoples';

(2)   Protection of genetic resources;

(3)   Research and monitoring of environmental changes or stresses such as acid rain;

(4)   Use in comprehensive and integrated regional planning and management for the effects of land protection on land use and the environment; and

(5)   Use in comprehensive land management, using all possible methods toward the goal of sustainable development.

Recognition of such a diverse range of functions within legislation partly illustrates the number of different types of national park concepts that have developed. These range from areas set aside strictly to preserve their biodiversity value through to areas that provide a strong economic focus for a regional economy through tourism and recreation.

4.2.4 National parks -general concepts and management issues

Management issues and resource conflicts in national parks are similar in many countries. The primary purpose of national parks may be considered in broad terms to be conservation and protection of biodiversity, scenery, and ecosystems. National parks also have an inherent conflict that arises when considering the issues associated with public access.

New Zealand is no exception to international trends of critical and detailed governmental expenditure reviews in parks and conservation management (Gibbs, 1995). This often leads to a political desire to re-examine conservation or national park management goals. In some instances conservation agencies are being required to define or 'narrow' their core responsibilities or functions. Those functions seen as 'secondary' are beginning to come under increasing scrutiny during government resource allocation processes. The result of this increasing political scrutiny is that national park managers are expected to provide responses to issues in a manner that recognises the political expectation of "high value for money". Where agencies are unable to carry out a number of 'secondary' functions due to limited resources, conservation partnerships may result in positive benefits both for the agency, local communities and conservation.

National park management must recognise that both internal and external influences have an impact upon core functions of the park management agency. Co-management (as one management response option) requires greater consideration of external influences, being those concerns of the local community. Co-management enables a response to both internal and external influences due to the broader basis for decision making and thereby recognises the need for integrated management of ecosystems.

Management issues in national parks are complex and have become more so over time. The first national parks were established in periods with significantly fewer environmental problems than we are aware of today. The primary concern of national park management during the late nineteenth century up to the mid twentieth was that of preserving the natural resources contained within the boundary of the park. This view of management is based on an assumption that parks are isolated and management issues are exclusively internal. Management activities tended to involve controlling or providing for recreational activities in a manner that allowed public access while also protecting the natural resources of the park.

Future management planning must recognise national parks are integral and inseparable components of surrounding ecosystems. These concepts have been introduced in Chapter three through conservation management principles. Management issues in national parks are essentially changing in three directions. Firstly, the threats to national parks are becoming increasingly external. Secondly, the roles being played by national parks are moving from recreational play grounds to ecological systems that play an important role in the functioning or our environment. In response to these first two trends, national park management agencies must change from 'control' based management to 'facilitation' of partnerships with communities to allow a broader response to management issues (see Figure 10).
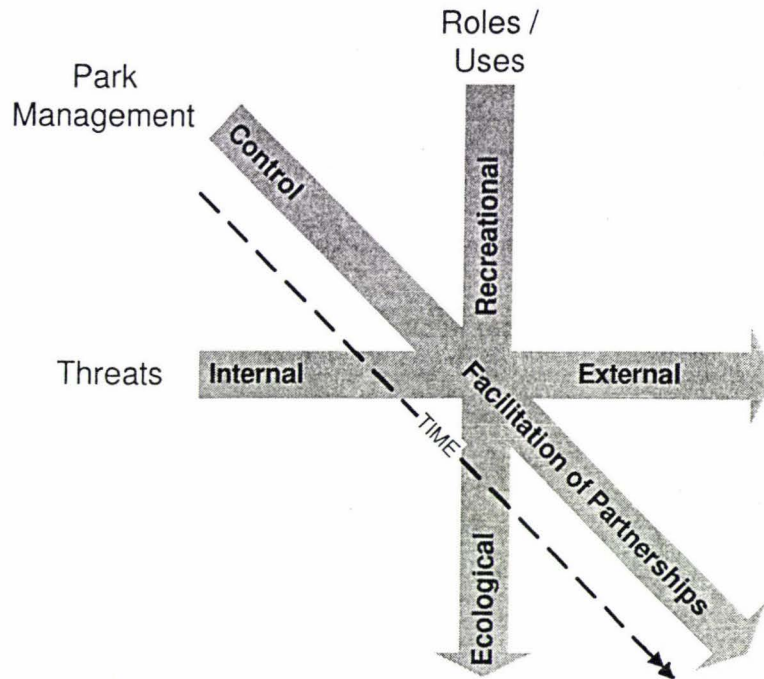
Key management issues in national parks may be summarised as:

- balancing the needs of conservation, recreation and sensitive economic development;

- preserving cultural and historical value of intensively used areas;

- dealing with an increasingly complex set of demands (possibly best characterised by an ever diversifying set of recreational needs);

- providing for increasing demand as recreation time increases and as the demographics of population change (the issue of demographics and time able to be spent on recreation etc. should for a critical factor in examining increasing demand on parks);

- ensuring visitor satisfaction with services and facilities;

- addressing historical and present day issues relating to ownership and management;

- improving productivity and conservation outcomes without the 'usual' commercial signals of price and competition;

These management issues demonstrate the range of issues facing national park managers. It is becoming increasingly necessary to equip and empower national park managers with decision support systems to enable conservation outcomes to be achieved efficiently and effectively. As with any type of environmental management there are inevitably a number of considerations, conflicts and decisions to be made in relation to national park management. Conservation management must be adaptable to ensure opportunities to achieve conservation 'goals' are not compromised.

The concept of ecosystem management has been defined previously (see section 3.8.1). The success of ecosystem management will be determined by an ability to formulate broad goals and establish a process based 'roadmap' for change in order to realise these goals. Agee (1996) argues that goal oriented approaches to ecosystem management (and by association, national park management) tends to reinforce conflicts between stakeholders rather than facilitate co-operation. Process oriented solutions to ecosystem management incorporate the broad goals, but ensure the concerns of all stakeholders are considered during decision making. Co-management regimes attempt to provide a process oriented response to achieving such goals while reducing conflict.

National park management must be seen as part of a wider planning process that involves a number of stages from identifying management issues, to plan preparation, implementation and review (see Figure 11). Establishing goals or objectives within this process relies on the ability to identify relevant management issues and potential responses. This process follows a 'traditional' planning process that may be summarised as "plan - do - monitor - review".

Management issues and concepts within national parks are best illustrated by examining a series of questions that need to be asked when looking at why national parks are set aside. These are:

(1)   What is the purpose of national parks?

(2)   What is the value of a national park compared to the use of the same land for some other purpose?

(3)   Who should benefit from national parks?

(4)   Where should national parks be located and how many are needed?

(5) How large should national parks be and how are boundary issues resolved?

(6) How are natural resources in national parks to be managed?

(7) How is visitor use and tourism activity to be managed in national parks?

(8) Who should be involved in national park management?

(9) How are decisions made about management issues?

(10) At what level of government should management decisions be made?

(11) How do national parks fit into the wider ecological context?

Figure 11: National Park Management Process
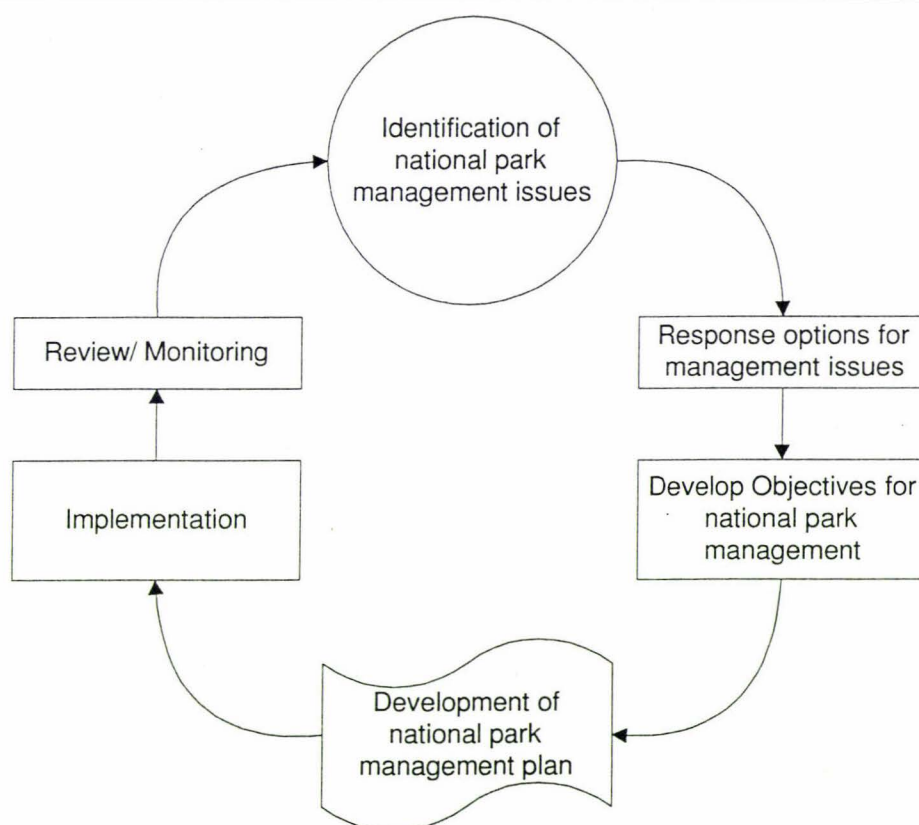
As with any protected area national parks are set aside for specific reasons. When examining the history of national parks it must be emphasised that often the reasons for 'designating' an area as a national park may be as simple as political pressure imposed by a committed group of individuals. The history of this designation process and balances in political power may become critical when examining options for management processes.

To a large extent the history of national parks illustrates this range of conflicts in what should constitute a national park. These conflicts are also inherent in resource management systems both inside and outside park boundaries. The conflict that occurs in national parks which follow the Yellowstone model can be isolated as that which occurs between the objective to preserve an outstanding natural environment and the requirement to allow or encourage the public to use and access that environment. In many situations these two objectives have been shown to be diametrically opposed.[10]

Land use planning systems create hierarchical structures and systems. The RMAct for example, provides for matters that are considered to be of national importance. These matters provide direction for those managing resources at a regional or local level and in some instances may take precedence over matters that are arguably only be of local importance. The national park planning process established to manage these areas must recognise parks as one 'element' of a broader 'landscape' (Davies, 1987). Recognition of the broader comprehensive land management function of national parks allows the development of a model that fully integrates all aspects of land use planning. This may be developed as an ecosystem management model.

Linkages between land uses create a framework for integrated management where land use regimes are recognised. Land use regimes in any ecosystem may range from land with preservation as the primary objective (for example, reserves and national parks) to land where any activity is permitted dependant on environmental effects. These linkages in effect represent the relationship between different land uses as part of a single ecosystem. Fundamental to understanding these linkages is that different land uses must be seen as components of one system. This point draws on the principles of ecosystem management that recognise the importance of maintaining ecosystem functioning and integrity.

What is apparent from an examination of the history of national parks and the concepts that are beginning to emerge in the realm of ecosystem management is that we are moving away from the traditional view of parks as isolated areas of 'preserved wilderness'. Rather, the concept of co-ordinated and integrated heritage area systems located on both public and private land that contribute to the overall functioning and integrity of ecosystems is becoming more favourable. This change in approach is partly

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[10] Witness for example the huge problems of camping in Yellowstone National Park where certain areas must be allowed to regenerate after intense camping or other human use.

due to the increasing number of resource use conflicts and critical environmental issues being faced across a spectrum of land uses. Part of this transition also relies on the increasing involvement of local communities in the management of resources.

People are looking less to government in expectation that they will protect and preserve heritage. Increasingly, community based initiatives and partnerships, in association with other community groups, government agencies, corporations are making large contributions to conservation.

4.2.5 Co-management in National Parks: General

A number of overseas examples of co-management in national parks exist. Despite a number of fundamental differences between the structures established to provide for the management of these areas, they are often collected together in a broad category of management termed co-management.

In New Zealand today a large range of legal structures provide for the management of natural and physical resources, health care, social welfare and many other important aspects of varying national, regional or local importance. In relation to the involvement of local communities in the management of national parks, conservation legislation largely dictates the form and principles by which structures and processes (and consequently participation) operate. Co-management in New Zealand needs to involve greater recognition of the concepts of community empowerment and rangatiratanga in the operation of structures and processes in national parks. The necessary frameworks for partnerships to develop within these parameters will take a great deal of time to develop, through much dialogue, trust and respect of all parties involved.

4.3   Australian experience of Co-management - Kakadu National Park

4.3.1 Introduction

The Australian Nature Conservation Agency (ANCA) is involved in managing protected areas under specific agreements or where the Commonwealth Government has clear responsibility. The ANCA (formerly known as the Australian National Parks and Wildlife Conservation Service - ANPWS) manages a number of parks in co-operation with Aboriginal peoples'. Agreements involving the traditional owners have been

established for the management of Kakadu, Uluru Kata Tjuta and Jervis Bay national parks. These are important examples or co-management agreements in operation. Similar agreements are also in place for Norfolk Island, Cocos-Keeling Islands and the Australian Alps National Parks.

Kakadu National Park is located in the Northern Territory of Australia. There are a number of national and other parks throughout Australia that are managed collaboratively. National parks in the Northern Territory have, however, had slightly more exposure to co-management as a number of parks now have such regimes in place. Since Kakadu National Park was first declared as an Aboriginal owned national park, three other significant parks have been declared as Aboriginal owned with co-management regimes following as part of these negotiations. These parks are: Uluru-Kata Tjuta (1985), Gurig (Coburg) National Park (1981) and Nitmiluk (Katherine Gorge) National Park (1989).

The co-management regimes operating in the Northern territories follow what is known as the 'Uluru Model'. This model seeks to incorporate Aboriginal land rights and conservation issues within a management framework for the benefit of Aboriginal people, and ultimately, Australia.

The establishment of the aforementioned national parks as Aboriginal owned and collaboratively managed, was not without political controversy. The majority of this conflict resulted from the competing interests of other land uses (particularly the mining industry) with Aboriginal land rights (see section 3.3). The Kakadu case study, as the first national park in Australia to undertake co-management will be examined from a historical viewpoint, with some evaluation and analysis of the success of co-management at Kakadu.

4.3.2 History

Two events in the 1960's sparked the beginning of the process that eventually led to the co-management regime now firmly established at Kakadu National Park. Firstly, in 1965 a proposal was put forward by the Northern Territories Reserves Board to establish a national park in the Alligators River Region. Secondly, in 1967 the Australian Constitution was amended by way of referendum so that State Governments lost the responsibility of Aboriginal Affairs and the welfare of Aboriginal people to the Commonwealth Government.

Before self government was attained by the Northern Territories in 1978, the Commonwealth Government was directly responsible for administration. The Commonwealth Government passed the National Parks and Wildlife Conservation Act (NPWCA) in 1975 that specifically authorised co-operation with Aboriginal people in managing land. The Commonwealth Government received a number of proposals for a major national park in the area of Kakadu. These proposals were complicated by a number of conflicting land uses and classifications (Hill and Press, 1993).

The early 1970's were very significant in the establishment of the park. The Commonwealth Government established a Commission of Inquiry into the issue of Aboriginal land rights in the Northern Territory, and appointed Mr Justice Woodward to lead the Commission. The result was the development of the concept of reconciling Aboriginal interests and conservation through joint management. At the same time the Ranger Uranium Inquiry was proceeding under the Environment Protection (Impact of Proposals) Act 1974, following the discovery of three significant uranium deposits at Kakadu.

The ANPWS submitted to that Inquiry that certain areas of Aboriginal land could be incorporated in the proposals to establish a national park at Kakadu. This would build on the principle of the NPWCA to ensure management of these areas occurred in co-operation with Aboriginal people. It was recognised in that submission that there would need to be amendments made to the legislation and also that the Commonwealth Government would need to negotiate for the lease of the Aboriginal land for inclusion in the national park. The concept of including Aboriginal land in a national park was at this time untested in Australia.

The recommendations of the Ranger Uranium Environmental Inquiry resulted in an announcement in August 1977 by the Commonwealth Government that a major national park was to be established in the Alligators Rivers Region. The agreement between the Government and Aboriginal land owners (who were represented by the Northern Land Council) was signed in October 1978.

Kakadu National Park was developed over a number of stages (with the first stage being that area of Aboriginal land) and was first proclaimed (following the necessary amendments to the NPWCA) on 5 April 1979. Kakadu National Park was the first in Australia to reflect the principle that *"since parks might provide a land use compatible*

with Aboriginal goals, park dedications ought to be pursued in a manner that would most fully involve the Aboriginal owners" (Hunt, 1983).

While the agreement and proclamation of Kakadu National Park may seem a significant breakthrough in the recognition of Aboriginal land tenure rights, this was not the case at the time. There was no disagreement between the Northern Land Council and the Government about the nature of the amendments to the national parks legislation. Essentially these amendments provided for:

- the leasing of Aboriginal land to the ANPWS for incorporation in the national park; and

- to ensure a meaningful role of Aboriginal people in park management.

The contentious aspect to negotiations arose due to the process the Commonwealth Government followed in finalising the arrangements for the national park and the mining operation that was to proceed on the recommendation of the Ranger Inquiry. The Aboriginal people did not want the mining operation to proceed and thus the negotiations over the lease back arrangement for the national park were protracted. Further conflict arose as a result of the declaration of the Stage 2 area as national park in 1984 (as a result of a change of government in 1983). Prior to this, it was understood that the Stage 2 area was to be explored for mineral deposits and a decision on its future made after the results of exploration. This did process was not followed as the exploration had not occurred when Stage 2 was designated.

Land use conflicts prevailed during the negotiation phases of the mid to late-1970's (and continue today). These conflicts were further complicated by the public opposition of the newly formed Northern Territories Government. Fundamental to this opposition was the involvement of the ANPWS as an agent of the Commonwealth Government. This distrust was further enhanced, when in 1987, the Commonwealth Government finally legislated to prohibit activities associated with mining in Kakadu National Park.

The history of conflict at Kakadu must be seen as background to co-management arrangements that have been secured by legislative measures at the Commonwealth level of government. The two legislative instruments that have formed the basis of co-management are the Land Rights Act 1976 and the NPWCA 1975. The involvement and participation of Aboriginal people in park management is implemented through a

hierarchy of statutory instruments, conditions of the lease agreement and management arrangements.

4.3.3 Co-management Mechanisms

The statutory instruments of interest are the structures established by the aforementioned legislation. These include the establishment of Aboriginal Land Councils, which in the area of Kakadu is the Northern Land Council. The functions of these councils, in relation to Aboriginal land are to:

- ascertain and express Aboriginal views on land management;

- protect the interests of traditional owners of land;

- consult traditional owners with regard to proposals for use of their land; and

- negotiate on behalf of the traditional owners and to assist Aboriginals claiming land to pursue their claims.

The NPWCA provides for Boards of Management established on Aboriginal land. The Boards also have a majority of Aboriginal representatives. The functions of these Boards are to:

- prepare plans of management(in conjunction with the Director of the ANPWS).

- make decisions on management, consistent with the Plan of Management.

- monitor management, in conjunction with the Director.

- advise the Minister (in conjunction with the Director) on future development (ANPWS, 1980).

Another important instrument for co-management in Kakadu is the lease agreement. The lease agreement ensures an appropriate level of involvement of the traditional owners in park management. While the rental of the park back to the ANPWS was at a peppercorn rate, it was 'subsidised' in effect by royalties from the Ranger Mining Operation on the Park boundary.

The lease agreement has been re-negotiated since it was first signed. It was initially written in broad terms, and required the ANPWS to:

- train local Aboriginal people in skills necessary to enable them to assist in management of the Park;

- employ as many traditional Aboriginal owners as is practicable under conditions that recognise their special needs and their culture;

- promote among non-Aboriginals a knowledge and understanding of Aboriginal traditions, culture and languages;

- engage Aboriginals in park interpretation programs;

- consult with the NLC which will ascertain the wishes and opinions of the traditional owners when preparing a plan of management for the Park to; and

- have due regard to the needs of traditional owners in their use of, and movement throughout, the Park.

The lease was for 100 years, while the conditions of the lease could be reviewed every five years. Since the agreement was signed there have been a number of changes to the conditions to reflect the evolution of the concept of co-management in the park. The major changes may be summarised as:

- the incorporation of the Gagudju Association whose members are the traditional owners of the park;

- the huge expansion in size of the park;

- the establishment of the Park Board of Management with a majority of Aboriginal representatives;

- the charging of park use fees; and

- the increase in popularity of Kakadu as a tourist destination (Hill and Press, 1993).

The re-negotiation of some conditions of the lease between 1987 and 1990 also reflected the maturing relationship between the partners. The new lease conditions provided for the termination of the lease if issues of detriment to traditional Aboriginal owners can not be resolved. Comprehensive conflict resolution procedures have been established, meaning lease termination would only be likely to occur in extreme circumstances.

The day to day management of the park has perhaps been the most successful element of this collaborative arrangement. Three important aspects to day to day management are the Board of Management, the Plan of Management and day to day liaison. The Board of Management was established in 1989 following the incorporation of this approach in negotiations with traditional Aboriginal owners at Uluru.

While formal structures are necessary the experience in Kakadu National Park also shows the importance of informal liaison on a day to day basis with the local community, including non-Aboriginal communities is critical. Informal liaison activities such as: public meetings to discuss specific issues, employment of cultural advisers (Aboriginal people), day to day working contact with traditional owners and employment of Aboriginal people in all aspects of nature conservation and park management all contribute to this positive relationship.

4.3.4 Summary

The experience of Kakadu National Park in co-management is useful particularly for Egmont National Park. A number of issues relating to ownership and conflicting uses exist in both parks. In Kakadu, the development of co-management structures has taken a great deal of time and progress has been assisted by similar processes occurring in other national parks in Australia. Hill and Press (1993) provide a succinct summary of the key lessons to be learnt from the Kakadu experience. These are:

(1) The concept of co-management needs to be clearly understood so that all parties have clear expectations;

(2) Commitment to co-management must be shown by all the parties to the agreement. In particular, in the case of government agencies this commitment must come from the 'top' of the organisation;

(3) The people involved in co-management 'on the ground' provide the 'backbone' to success and both aboriginal and non-aboriginal staff need to be carefully chosen to ensure the cross cultural environment created by co-management remains workable and maintains commitment to the partnership;

(4) Empowerment of Aboriginal people to participate in the management process is critical. This must include involvement in all aspects of management, from policy making to direct employment.

4.4 Conservation in New Zealand

4.4.1 Legislative Objectives and Outcomes

The Conservation Act 1987

The critical piece of legislation for conservation in New Zealand is the Conservation Act 1987 ("the Act"). The purpose of the Act is *"to promote the conservation of New Zealand's natural and historic resources, and for that purpose to establish a Department of Conservation"* (Short Title to the Act)

The period when the Act was passed was characterised by legislative and institutional reform. As part of this comprehensive review in the late 1980's the Government was examining its duties and obligations under the Treaty of Waitangi. Consequently, section 4 of the Act states: *"This Act shall so be interpreted and administered as to give effect to the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi."*

Procedures for consultation under the Act are slightly different to those contained within the Resource Management Act. There are two broad categories for consultation under the Act:

- consultation in relation to the preparation of conservation management strategies, conservation management plans, and general conservation planning processes; and

- consultation in relation to specific departmental functions in the management of the conservation estate.

The Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment (1994) further identifies five levels of "consultation" within the Act (see Table 10). These include a number of threshold tests in relation to specific functions. An analysis of the Act indicates that in terms of the seven levels of co-management suggested by Berkes (see Figure 3), the Act is based on consultation, with little decision making authority being delegated or entrusted to the community.

One of the changes instituted by the Act was the 'centralisation' and 'rationalisation' of public bodies established under previous legislation (such as the NPAct). In some instances the loss of these local bodies has created a negative relationship with DoC itself.

Table 10: Summary of Consultation Requirements of Conservation Act 1987 (Source: PcE, 1994)

	Nature of Function	Sections of Act	Level and form of consultation—
1.	Ministerial declaration	ss7, 8, 13, 24H, 24A,24B,24E	Public informed of ministerial declaration
2.	Exchange of stewardship areas for other land	s16A	Consultation between Minister and Conservation Board; Gazette notice of Ministers authorisation
3.	Declaration of Conservation Area; disposal of stewardship areas; acquisition or disposal of natural or historic resource excluding land.	ss18, 26, 28	Declaration by minister when "satisfied" required of legislation have been met; Public process of section 49
4.	Grant of lease / easements by Minister; or Authorisation of use of area for recreation, tourism, sport, trade etc. by Director-General	ss14, 15, 17	Minister give public notice of intention to make grant; consultation required with conservation board; Public process of section 49
5.	Management Planning	Part III	Extensive consultation with various community groups, statutory bodies and iwi required. (see figure XXX)

Levels three and four of this 'hierarchy of consultation' contain reference to the section 49 public process. This section applies whenever public notification is required. Section 49 relates to the rights of public objection and submission (see Figure 12).

Figure 12: Public Notice and Rights of Objection


```
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│              Proposal                │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  │
                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Minister to publish notice of       │
│  proposal in newspapers              │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
          40 working days
                  │
                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Any person may object or make       │
│  written submissions on proposal     │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  │
                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Submitter may appear before         │
│  Director General (DoC) in support   │
│  of objection or submissions         │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  │
                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Director General to give Minister   │
│  recommendations and summary of      │
│  submissions and extent to which     │
│  submissions accepted                │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  │
                  ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Minister considers recommendations  │
│  and submissions                     │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  │
                  ▼
         ◇ Minister makes Decision ◇
```

Conservation Law Reform

Various amendments to the Conservation Act have ensured conservation interests are integrated with broader resource management concerns. One of the major amendments was the Conservation Law Reform Act 1990. A significant aspect of that amendment was the level at which policy was to be made. Specifically, the level at which it was to be mandatory. The 1987 Act required mandatory management plans at the local level, while national policy remained optional. The 1990 amendments provided the Minister

with further opportunity to make statements of general policy. Conservation legislation introduced in 1987 and 1990 significantly increased opportunities for Maori involvement in conservation planning processes. Specifically, Maori were guaranteed two places on the New Zealand Conservation Authority (NZCA) which is responsible for national policy making and approves conservation management strategies.

There remains however, a general impression of fragmentation within conservation law, meaning some inconsistencies in the treatment of specific issues and classifications of land. In addition, conservation planning processes vary widely, as do instances of consultation or other such public participation in planning processes. A comprehensive review of the legislation to integrate all functions within one Act would increase clarity of functions and roles.

The National Parks Act 1980

The NPAct is administered by DoC as it falls within the first schedule of the Conservation Act. The events and political pressures leading to the changes that occurred in the 1980 Act will be discussed in section 4.4.5. The intention of the present discussion is to outline the important provisions of the NPAct and assess the requirements for consultation and public participation in national park management.

The NPAct was not amended substantially by the Conservation Act in 1987. This was primarily to provide an easy transition to the new integrated conservation planning and management system established. The majority of the amendments to national park planning occurred as a result of the Conservation Law Reform Act 1990. The effect of these amendments has been a gradual reduction in public representation in management processes as they relate to national parks. For example, the Conservation law reform of the late 1980's removed National Parks and Reserves Authorities and replaced them with Conservation Boards, who were to cover the significantly larger geographical areas of conservancies. In some regions, this was seen as minimising the effectiveness of public input in conservation planning processes (pers. comm. N. Davies, 1996).

Table 11: Consultation requirements under the NPAct

[NB: 'Consultation' is considered here in a very broad sense, and may include actions such as information provision.]

Nature of Function	Section of NPAct	Level and form of consultation
Ministerial approval to authorise introduction of biological organisms	s5A	Minister to Consult with NZCA
Ministerial declaration of a national park	s7	NZCA to consult with relevant Conservation Board and make recommendation to Minister; Where foreshore is included in area - joint recommendation with Minister of Transport, and must gain consent of relevant regional council.
Investigation of proposals to add to or establish new parks	s8	Authority to advise Minister of intention to request departmental investigation to add to or establish new parks; DG to give notice of the proposal in daily newspapers unless NZCA agree otherwise.
Establishing specially protected areas	12	Minister to consult with NZCA and appropriate board.
Establishing wilderness area	14	Minister to place Gazette notice to establish wilderness area on recommendation of NZCA.
Special provisions relating to wilderness areas	14A	Board to consider plan for area prepared by DG; Minister to place Gazette notice on status of area on recommendation of NZCA
Establishing Amenity areas	15	Minister to place Gazette notice on recommendation of NZCA
Plans of national parks	16	Plans to be made available for public inspection.
Access arrangements - Crown Minerals Act	18A	Minister to consult NZCA in respect of request for access arrangement for a national park.
Conservation Board Functions	30	Seek and have regard to advice of the Whanganui River Maori Trust Board on matters involving the park.
Preparation of general policy for national parks	44	Statement of general policy to be prepared by DG in consultation with NZCA; DG to give notice of the proposal in daily newspapers on direction of NZCA; NZCA to submit general policy to Minister for comments before adoption.
Amendment and review of management plans	46(5)	This section allows public input to be surpassed where objectives / policies will be not materially affected.
Preparing and Reviewing Management Plans	47	DG to consult Board prior to preparation or review; DG to give notice in newspapers inviting suggestions; DG to consult Board in preparing management plan;

		DG to give notice in newspapers of draft management plan and invite submissions; Submitters to be given chance of hearing before Board members and DG
Approval of management plans	48	NZCA to have regard to views of the Minister before approving management plan.
Granting concessions	49	Minister to be satisfied that rights of public in respect of park not permanently affected by granting of concession.
Bylaws	56	Minister may make bylaws by notice in Gazette for purposes of park management.

The consultation requirements of the NPAct are reasonably consistent with the general provisions provided in most conservation law in New Zealand. The legislation lacks creativity in terms of providing processes for conservation planners at a conservancy or field centre level to involve the public to a level they are interested in (such as the provision of recreation services, preparation of management plans, or involvement in species protection).

Delegation of Power in the NPAct 1980

One of the major changes that occurs as a result of co-management is the delegation or sharing of power and decision making authority with local communities or stakeholders. This concept may initially seem to present an enormous shift in the way government agencies operate, but powers of delegation are frequently provided through legislation. Delegation of responsibility aims to ensure decisions are made effectively at a level where responsibility should lie. This delegation is commonly from political to staff level, with lines of management ensuring responsibility falls at an appropriate level within an organisation.

If the delegation of decision making or management required for co-management is to occur, it is critical that the structures established for such functions are sound, robust and accountable for decisions. Conservation legislation establishes a number of legal structures for the administration of conservation resources or areas. To achieve the type of delegation required for co-management there are three broad options:

> (1) examine the potential for changes to the delegation powers under existing legislation. This may involve the delegation of responsibility for specific functions or areas to a 'management board' or similar structure that represents local stakeholders; or

(2)   re-examine legislation with a view to redefining responsibility and the level at which management decisions are made to define a more inclusive planning process that has community control as one of its principles. This would be closer to a local government model, where such a structure has decision making authority, and the ability to become involved in management; or

(3)   establish informal or negotiated agreements with local communities for their input into management processes, including involvement in practical projects where this is desired.

Irrespective of which broad option is pursued as a means of achieving co-management, there are implications for the decision making and representation structures for conservation. The broad options outlined above are representative of a continuum of management arrangements for public input (see Figure 13).

Figure 13: A Continuum of Delegation
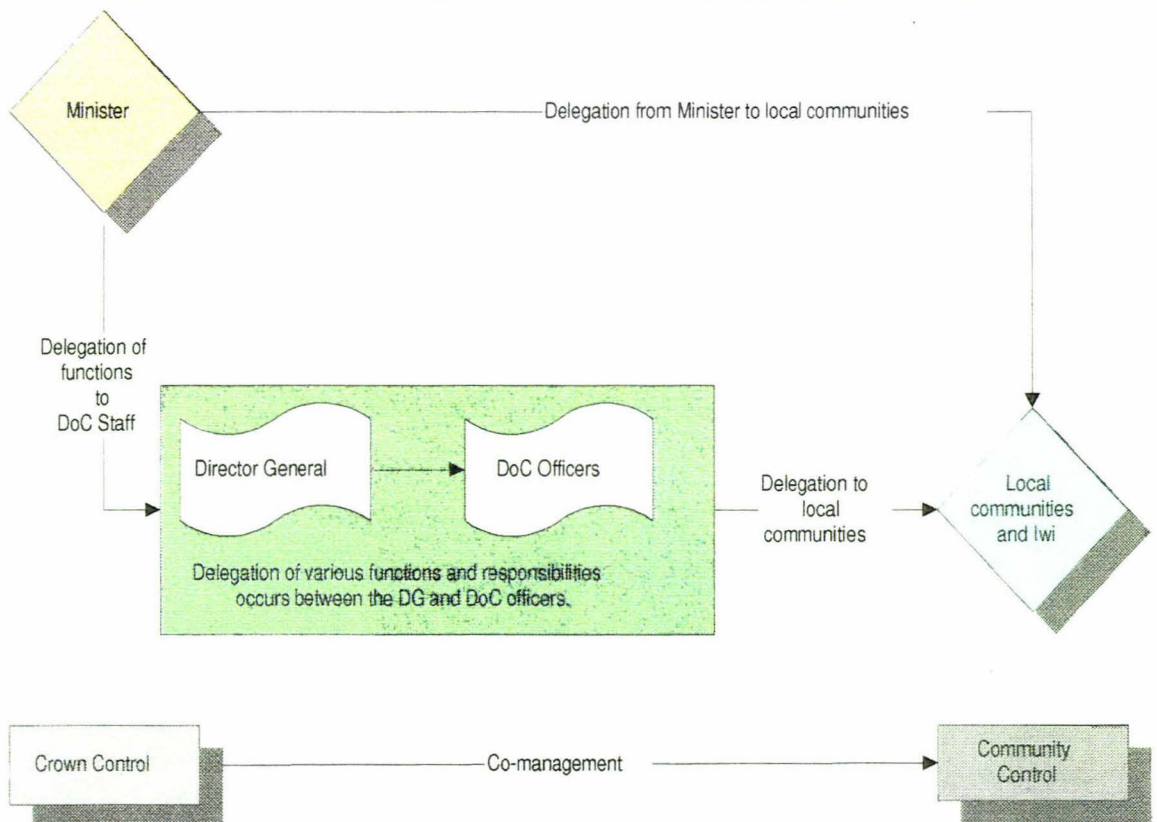
Delegation and co-management may be provided for entirely by legislation, through to negotiated 'informal' agreements with DoC officers in relation to specific functions or areas. This continuum is also reflected in the range of management options from total

Crown control to total community control suggested earlier (see Figure 4) in as far as the degree to which powers of delegation may be changed reflects the degree of commitment to providing opportunities for collaborative relationships to be formed with local communities.

Legal Structures and Administering Bodies

There are presently a number of legal structures provided for in conservation legislation. A number of these provide community representation opportunities. Two structures that provide for general public input to conservation are the New Zealand Conservation Authority (NZCA) and Conservation Boards at a conservancy level. In addition, Fish and Game Councils and the Historic Places Trust provide opportunities for input on specific areas of interest in conservation.

The membership of the NZCA is largely made up of those groups who have traditionally been involved in the establishment and management of the conservation estate. The membership of the present authority (see Figure 14) has changed substantially since the National Parks Authority constituted under the National Parks Act 1952. The earlier authority included a representative from national park boards' and government forestry interests. Of note was the lack of representation of Maori, local government (except through an internal affairs representative) and the general public.

Figure 14: Membership of the New Zealand Conservation Authority (section 6D, Conservation Act 1987).

Legend:
- Maori
- Tourism
- Local Government
- Royal Society NZ
- Royal Forest and Bird
- Federated Mountain Club
- General Public

34%, 17%, 17%, 8%, 8%, 8%, 8%
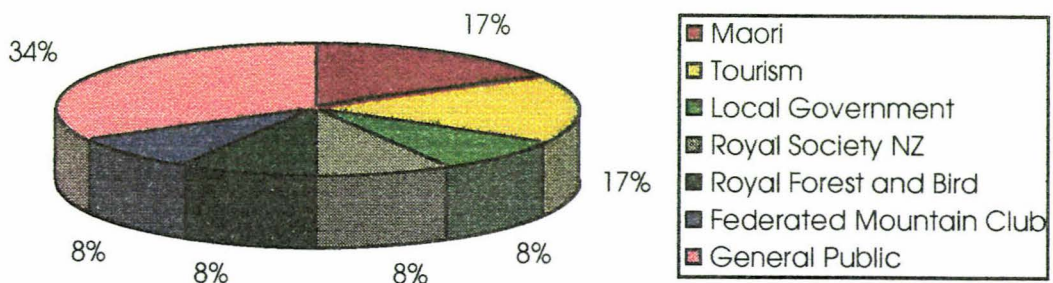
4.4.2 The Department of Conservation

DoC is one of the worlds first integrated conservation management agencies. Before DoC was established in 1987 by the Conservation Act, conservation was managed by a number of different organisations with different mandates. New conservation functions were also established as a result of the Conservation Act 1987, such as the advocacy role of the department.

The functions of DoC are to administer the Conservation Act and the enactment's specified in the First Schedule (see Appendix 3) as set out in section 6 of the Act. Of special note is the departments advocacy function which effectively integrates conservation purposes with other functions such as the sustainable management of resources under the RMAct.

Figure 15: Functions of the Department of Conservation
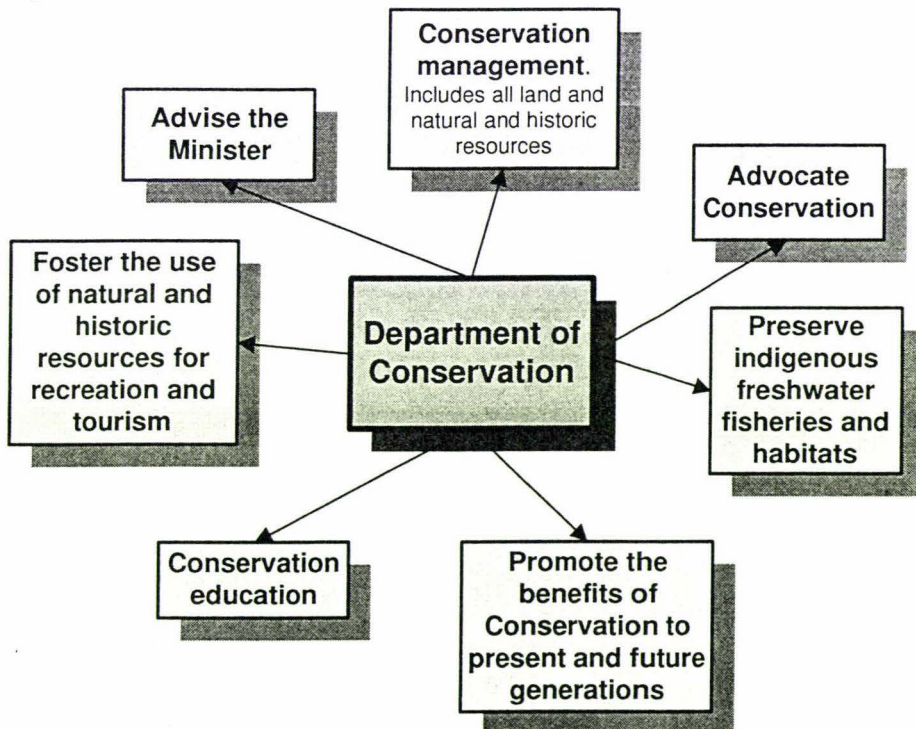
DoC's work programmes are based on a series of output classes that cluster like activities together. This allows DoC to assess its effectiveness in certain areas and provide accountability to Government for outcomes being sought. Output classes are broken down into key outputs, each of which may include further clusters of activities. Output classes essentially reflect the departments key functions under the Conservation Act. These output classes are mentioned here as they may form a critical component of a co-management agreement. For example, a local community may wish to be involved in a specific function, such as the provision of huts or track maintenance. The implications of this type of 'function based' co-management for that output class would need to be 'quantified' through DoC's financial planning system. Co-management agreements therefore need to take into account financial management systems of government agencies in order to be most effective.

Table 12: Approved Expenses for DoC Output Classes 1996/97

Output Class	Key outputs	$000
Output Class 1: Policy advice and Ministerial servicing	• Policy and Legislative Review; • Resolution of Treaty of Waitangi issues • Ministerial servicing	1,774
Output Class 2: Implementation of Legal Protection	• Implementation of Legal Protection of Natural and Historic Resources on Land; • Implementation of Legal Protection of Marine Areas	5,473
Output Class 3: Statutory Planning and Coastal Responsibilities under the RMAct	• Statutory Planning • New Zealand Coastal Policy Statement	6,035
Output Class 4: Management services: Conservation Estate	• Fire control; • Animal Pest Control; • Plant pest control; • Restoration; • Conservation of historic resources; • Generalist Survey and Monitoring; • Marine Reserve Management	46,002
Output Class 5: Management Service: Protected Species and Island Habitats	• Species Programmes • Island Restoration • Marine Mammal Protection Programmes; • CITES and Protected Species Permitting	25,753
Output Class 6: Management of Statutory Actions, Leases, Licences and Other Concessions.	• Management of Commercial Recreation and Tourism Concessions; • Management of non-tourism or recreation Leases, Licences and Concessions;	9,410

	• Pastoral Leases;	
	• Land Administration	
Output Class 7: Provision of Recreational Opportunities	• Huts and Campgrounds; • Other Recreation Facilities and Services • Sports Fish and Game	43,012
Output Class 8: Management of Visitor and Public Information Services	• Visitor Services and Information • International Awareness and Consultancies; • Volunteers and Public Participation	16,657
Output Class 9: Conservation Management Strategies and Conservation Management Plans	• Preparation of CMS's and CMP's • Servicing of Statutory Bodies;	5,292
Total Appropriation for Departmental Output Classes		159,400

Figure 16: Distribution of Approved Expenses for DoC Output Classes 1996/97 (Source: Table 12)

- Policy advice / Ministerial servicing
- Implementation of Legal Protection
- Statutory Planning/Coastal Responsibilities
- Management of Conservation Estate
- Protected Species and Island Habitats
- Statutory Actions/Leases/Licences/ Concessions.
- Recreational Opportunities: Access, Facilities, Services
- Visitor and Public Information Services
- CMS's and CMP's

4.4.3 Key Conservation Management Issues:

Volume 1 of the Brief to the Incoming Government produced in 1996, entitled "Greenprint: Conservation in New Zealand - a strategic overview" (DoC, 1996) outlines key issues for Conservation in New Zealand. These are as follows:

(1)   Turning around the decline in New Zealand's biodiversity;

(2)   Ensuring that the most valuable ecosystems are protected in the conservation estate and that the estate is representative of the range of New Zealand's biodiversity, so that conservation of our natural heritage is assured;

(3)   Consolidating the new systems of quality assurance and accountability developed after the Cave Creek Tragedy;

(4)   Reconciling the department's responsibility under section 4 of the Conservation Act to give effect to the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi with its overall conservation mission;

(5)   Recognising that the public interest in conservation, both within New Zealand and internationally, is high, and that many conservation issues may engender heated public debate.

In 1997 DoC released its strategic business plan that aims to address these key conservation management issues. This will be discussed in greater depth in section 4.5.1 as this plan begins to address some of the issues relating to improving conservation planning processes in a manner that may enable the development of co-management agreements.

4.4.4 Conservation Partnerships

Conservation legislation provides opportunities for public involvement in planning processes. These opportunities have changed over time in response to greater public expectations for involvement. In particular, those provisions relating to national parks have changed, not necessarily in a manner that increases public opportunities, but rather to reflect the need for efficient and effective management of national parks. Further discussion of the changing opportunities for public involvement occurs in section 4.4.5 in relation to national parks.

Like any other government department, DoC does not operate in isolation from communities, businesses or pressure groups. Effective conservation requires DoC to form partnerships with various groups to ensure conservation goals are met. These partnerships may occur at a number of different levels, from national level partnerships, such as the NZCA, to local levels where communities are involved with DoC in ecological restoration or other such projects.

The Treaty of Waitangi established a type of partnership between the Crown and Maori. DoC is required to give effect to the principles of the Treaty. The Court of Appeal has noted that one of these principles is partnership. At present, the partnership between Maori and the department is based largely at two levels.

Firstly, there are a number of discussions occurring at a macro level in relation to Treaty claims. The Government's response to Treaty claims is determined by a process managed by the Office of Treaty Settlements, in co-operation with other Crown agencies. In relation to resolving Treaty Claims, DoC has a number of action statements in the Kaupapa Atawhai Strategy (1997) that give effect to the overall goal which is: *"To advise Government on conservation issues relating to the resolution of Treaty grievances, and to implement settlements reached."* These action statements include a commitment to establishing teams within the department to examine Treaty claim issues, and also *"to provide the Office of Treaty Settlements with creative options that will help to address Maori grievances while protecting and enhancing conservation values"*.

The second level at which conservation partnerships with Maori occur is at the local level in relation to specific projects or areas of land, such as national parks. DoC sees this relationship as being a co-operative relationship, that recognises both kawanatanga and tino rangatiratanga and is based on the following principles:

- both parties act independently;

- both parties are committed to a co-operative relationship;

- the relationship is based on shared understanding;

- the relationship is based on a common goal;

- both parties engage in purposeful activity;

- the relative roles and responsibilities of both parties are clear and agreed;

- the respective capabilities of both parties are recognised;

- the actions of both parties are co-ordinated.

These principles for the relationship clearly provides room for co-management initiatives. At present the involvement of Maori in conservation is often limited to either providing iwi with information or consultation in the form of conservation planning processes, where community input may be sought, but not necessarily heeded. If conservation partnerships with Maori are to improve, both in terms of the relationship (that is, the degree of trust, mutual understanding, and respect etc.) and conservation outcomes, the level at which the partnership occurs may need to change. For example, in order to recognise the knowledge Maori have of conservation and the natural environment, structures and processes need to be established to ensure their input can be more effective and meaningful.

While it is recognised the Treaty of Waitangi provides for a special relationship between the Crown and Maori, in terms of enhancing conservation outcomes through co-management, a number of other local stakeholders must also be recognised in this relationship. This means conservation partnerships must move towards a more inclusive form. There are a number of examples in New Zealand of increasing the level of power and responsibility in this relationship resulting in positive conservation outcomes. These include a number of examples from the west coast of the North Island, that are focused on incorporating the concept of kaitiakitanga and ecology, through involving all groups from within local communities in ecosystem management.

One of the most promising and successful of these projects is the Lake Horowhenua Restoration project, which has been driven primarily by the local iwi, Muaupoko in partnership with the local community, including the Manawatu-Wanganui Regional Council and DoC. Rather than seeking a claim for the Lake under the Treaty of Waitangi Act 1975, the Trustees of the lake decided to set themselves the goal of restoring the mauri (life force) and health of the lake. The quest of Muaupoko is to restore the lake to its original status as a 'food basket' and a place of beauty to be shared by all (Pollock and Horsley, 1997).

At present DoC has a large range of 'partners in conservation with whom partnerships or relationships are formed for the benefit of conservation (see Figure 17). Any number of these stakeholders may have an interest in co-management of national parks or other conservation areas. The range of 'partners' illustrates the degree of interest in

conservation in New Zealand. These partners also have a range of complimentary skills that may be harnessed to improve conservation outcomes. The involvement of local communities will ensure the conservation estate protects natural heritage while providing the experiences desired by the community where this does not conflict with conservation.

Figure 17: DoC Partnerships

DOC PARTNERSHIPS

Historic Places Trust
New Zealand Conservation Authority
Conservation Boards
Concessionaires
Forest Heritage Fund
Nga Whenua Rahui
Iwi / Hapu
Maori Trust Boards
Local Communities
Environmental and Conservation Groups
Universities / Research Institutions
Government Agencies

Recreation and Mountaineering Groups
Conservation Awards / Events

Queen Elizabeth II Trust
Tu Kakariki
Project Crimson Trust
Regional / District Councils
Education Providers
Conservation Volunteers
Private Landowners
Corporate sponsors
Fish and Game Councils
NZ Tourism Board / Tourism Agencies
Neighbours
International agencies / conventions

4.4.5 New Zealand National Parks

The history of establishment of national parks in New Zealand provides an interesting insight into the present political and community pressures that exist in relation to conservation. New Zealand's first national park was established when Te Heuheu Tukino IV (Horonuku) gifted the peaks of Ruapehu and Tongariro in 1887 for that purpose. Te Heuheu was the fourth paramount chief of Ngati Tuwharetoa. While Ngati Tuwharetoa played a significant part in establishing New Zealand's first national park, the role of government in suggesting the concept is unclear (Blue, 1995). The

designation of the Tongariro National Park did not seem to recognise the possibility that ownership could remain with Ngati Tuwharetoa. While the question of ownership seems to have been avoided, the involvement of Maori in national park management at Tongariro was an exception in a national context.

The development of a national parks system (and the conservation estate) has included much lobbying from various sectors of the community, such as Maori, Federated Mountain Clubs and local communities. This creates a sense of 'ownership' of the conservation estate. There is a long history of community involvement in national park management and planning. This history is an important consideration when trying to understand current and future possibilities for co-management. Dingwall (1994) suggests the development of the national parks system in New Zealand has been characterised by a number of key phases.

Acquisition Phase

The first phase suggested is an 'acquisition phase' which saw the reservation of a number of areas as 'national park' or similar reserve. This phase was characterised by essentially utilitarian concerns. These concerns included interest in conserving soil, water and timber resources. Later, as a result of increasing levels of tourism, the protection of scenic wilderness values was added to the areas being protected, as Arthurs Pass and Fiordland areas were reserved (later to become national parks).

Maintenance Phase

The 1930's and 1940's were characterised by a maintenance phase. This period in New Zealand history was characterised also by the depression and World War II. Three of the earliest national parks, Tongariro, Egmont and Peel Forest (a small park which the Department of Lands and Survey felt was more appropriately classified as a reserve) were administered and managed by special parks boards comprising members of the community and government set up under special legislation in the 1920's.

Abel Tasman and Arthurs Pass National Parks were administered by boards established under the Public Reserves, Domains and National Parks Act 1928. The legislation and management of national parks and reserves during this maintenance period was at the least untidy. Public opinion was slow to understand the concept of national parks, and money was tight during these decades. The reform of legislation was therefore politically unfeasible. While clear principles had evolved for the management of these

parks, probably in conjunction with national park management concepts emerging from the U.S.A and Canada, these were not embodied in legislation.

During this phase a number of key players had also started to establish a great degree of influence on national park management. One of the first proposal for reform of the national parks system was based on conservationist grounds. In 1927 the Director of the Royal Botanic Gardens at Kew, Dr. Arthur Hill, visited New Zealand. He was alarmed at the devastating effects of wild goats in Egmont National Park and the threat imposed by introduced heather in Tongariro. While Dr. Hill's visit was to promote the establishment of a Botanic Gardens in New Zealand, he was compelled to suggest that any Director Botanic Gardens should be involved in the management of such national parks and reserves.

A number of people took exception to these statements, particularly the Head of the Department of Lands and Survey who was by implication criticised by Dr. Hill. The editor of the Taranaki Daily News wrote *"It would be quite impossible for any one man to gain the local knowledge necessary to do justice to the work"*.

While the 1930's were lean years, conservation ethics were emerging as a significant factor in the protection of native flora and fauna. In particular, E Phillips Turner, former Director of Forestry wrote to the Under-Secretary of Lands (20 December, 1932 - cited in Thomson, 1976) to state that too little attention was being placed on eliminating pests and more emphasis should be placed on protection of native flora and fauna. Phillips Turner noted that:

> *"In New Zealand the Acts under which national parks are constituted do not define the purpose of reservation, though sections of the Acts prohibit such actions as the cutting down of trees, the removal of plants, the killing of birds, the lighting of fires etc...They do not prohibit the introduction of exotic plants and animals into parks...In my opinion there should be a new Act passed defining the purpose of each class of reserve, so that no departure from that purpose can be affected...The Act should provide for the establishment of a distinct branch - the Bureau of National Parks and Scenic Reserves - of the Lands Department, under the control of an officer who has the special qualifications for the efficient administration and management of the reserves..."* (Phillips Turner, 1932 cited in Thomson, 1976)

In 1937 a similar concept was proposed by the New Zealand Tourist League. Among other things, they advocated the establishment of a national parks policy to provide for:

- effective preservation of forests and reserves;

- greater use of such areas by the public;

- a national reserves division of the Department of Lands and Survey, or a New Zealand Forest Service;

- the classification of national parks and other reserves in accordance with a defined purpose.

There is no indication that either of these proposals were directly actioned by the Department, although Thomson (1976) suggests that Phillips Turners discussion may have had some influence on departmental policy.

In 1931 a Federation of Mountain Clubs (FMC) in New Zealand was formed to represent the largest number of park users, trampers and climbers. The first President of the Federation F.W. Vosseler, was concerned that parks were not being managed in order to meet the needs of the people of 'today and tomorrow'. In that regard, FMC began a process to ensure that parks were managed in a manner that reflected their importance to the general population.

The end result was that FMC adopted a policy in 1938, that was extremely influential in subsequent reforms of national parks and reserves administration. The secretary of the FMC, A.E. Galletly, sent a letter to the Minister of Lands (dated 15 June, 1938) outlining the main elements of the FMC policy in relation to national parks. FMC's proposals were to:

- establish a national parks authority;

- establish a board of management for each park;

- ensure finance and general policy were under the control of the national authority;

- advocate principles for park management including:

    - free access and rights of camping and hut building,

    - preservation of native plants and animals as far as possible,

- extermination of introduced plants and animals as far as possible;

- development of parks for the purpose of recreation should only occur in conformity with these principles;

- commercial rights or privileges should not be granted where these would be detrimental to the natural features of the park or restrict use for recreation. (Galletly, 1938 - cited in Thomson, 1976)

While the FMC policy was influential in the reforms that manifested in the 1952 Act, there was a period of silence most uncharacteristic of the FMC during the war years. The change from the 1930's when national parks were deemed by Prime Minister Savage to be a luxury the country could not afford, to the late 1940's was that national parks were now seen as affordable luxuries by a country in a recovering post war economy.

Reform Phase

The late 1940's and early 1950's were a critical period of reform in national parks administration and management. The relationship between the Department of Survey and lands, and external reformers such as FMC were altered significantly by Ron Cooper. Cooper, who had been active in the Department of Lands and Survey in the area of national parks and reserves, was Chief Land Administration Officer in 1946. Cooper began to meet frequently with FMC members and affiliate clubs to discuss reforms. In an address to the Tararua Tramping Club in January 1944 Cooper cautiously identified possibilities for reform of national park administration. His address is notable for the close linkages with what was to become the NPAct 1952:

The other conception of a national park is that of a wilderness area set apart for preservation in as near as possible its natural state, but made available for and accessible to the general public, who are allowed and encouraged to visit the reserve. In such an area the recreation and enjoyment of the public is a main purpose, but at the same time the natural scenery, flora and fauna are interfered with as little as possible. Such a reserve should contain scenery of distinctive quality, or some natural features so extraordinary or unique as to be of national interest and importance, and as a rule it should be extensive in area.

Cooper went on to comment on the nature of administration of such areas:

"the system in force in New Zealand is working fairly well...There might perhaps be room for some argument over the relative merits of direct Government control and control by special boards. Without being too definite on this point I think that at the present stage of the Dominion's development each form of control has certain advantages, and that there is a place for each. Certainly the linking up of the boards with the Government through the appointment of departmental officers as members and chairmen is of assistance."

After further pressure from external groups, such as the FMC, the first steps towards drafting a comprehensive National Parks Bill were taken in 1949. The draft Bill was subject to some public consultation. This was an internationally significant step, as one of the core principles of the Act (as a result of the political pressure) was the involvement of 'citizens' in park management and administration. The NPAct 1952 established a National Parks Authority and a number of 'subordinate' park boards. Membership of both the authority and park boards was to include representatives of community interest groups such as FMC and Royal Forest and Bird Protection Society. One significant absence from the composition of the Authority and park boards (with the exception of Tongariro National Park) was Maori. The composition of these boards was hotly debated prior to the final reading of the Bill.

Ascendancy Phase

The end of World War II had been anticipated by the New Zealand Government in as far as the Cabinet established a process for a transition from war to peace that included a body called the Organisation for National Development. While this body largely failed in its mandate, the recommendations of its 'committee' on Tourism Development based on a report by Ron Cooper, were influential in the development of the National Parks Act 1952 (NPAct 1952).

While a number of reserves and 'national parks' had been established prior to 1952, the first real integrated and holistic consideration of the concept of a national parks system occurred as a result of the NPAct 1952. Therefore, through the introduction of the NPAct 1952, national parks went through an era of 'ascendancy'. Six new national parks were added within the following ten years (see Table 13).

Management Phase

Dingwall (1994) suggests that this era of park ascendancy was followed in the 1960's by a period of 'management' characterised by professionalism in park planning and management. Increasing scientific knowledge was able to support emerging protection initiatives. The growth visitor numbers to national parks required the establishment of a ranger service (Blue, 1995).

During this 'management' era there was also an increase in the influence of environmental politics in New Zealand, similar to trends emerging elsewhere in the world. In combination with the emergence of strong Maori political presence to place new pressures on national park management, a number of new and important 'pressure' groups were emerging. Maori involvement in environmental management in particular, grew rapidly. Combined with recommendations of the Waitangi Tribunal, Maori were beginning to assert their role in conservation management processes.

Community Phase

The 1980 change to national parks reflected changes around the world, particularly in the involvement of local communities in national park management. The IUCN began to advocate the need for greater involvement of local communities in conservation. Positive relationships with local communities in conjunction with new management approaches were seen as key aspects of successful conservation (IUCN, 1980). New Zealand is yet to see the full potential of real community involvement in national park management.

Summary

The impression left by an examination of the history of national parks in New Zealand is that Maori involvement in national park management and planning has been minimal. Little attempt was made to encourage such involvement or participation, either in formal or informal processes. This trend is seen in elsewhere in the world when examining the early history of national park management.

The potential for conflicting uses and values to develop in New Zealand's national parks is perhaps enshrined by the very legislation that enables national parks to be set aside. The difficult and subjective task of balancing recreational interests with those of conservation has meant that conservation in New Zealand is often open to intense debates about acceptable levels of use and development in parks. One of the major

outcomes of national park planning processes should be to preserve, in perpetuity, national parks for their 'intrinsic worth and for the benefit, use and enjoyment of the public'.

Table 13: New Zealand National Parks (DoC, 1996

Year Established	National Park	Area (hectares)	Brief Description
1887	Tongariro	79,598	Main features are three active volcanoes of Ruapehu, Tongariro, and Ngauruhoe. First National Park in New Zealand.
1900	Egmont	33,543	comprises all land within a 9km radius of the summit of Mt. Taranaki/Egmont, and older Pouakai and Kaitake range to the north. Park dominated by dominant and symmetrical peak of dormant volcano.
1929	Arthurs Pass	114,394	Rugged mountainous area including the main divide of the Southern Alps
1942	Abel Tasman	22,541	New Zealand's smallest national park, which has numerous tidal inlets and sandy beaches adjoining Tasman Bay.
1952	Fiordland	1,257,000	Largest national park in New Zealand and one of the largest in the world. Grand scenery, deep fiords with glacial origin, and numerous mountains and waterfalls.
1953	Mount Cook	70,728	contains New Zealand's highest mountain, Aoraki/Mt. Cook (3,754m) and the longest glacier, Tasman Glacier (29km). Together with Westland National Park is a World Heritage Area.
1954	Urewera	212,673	Largest area of remaining native forest in the North Island together with adjacent Whirinaki Forest Park. Includes notable Lake Waikaremoana.
1956	Nelson Lakes	101,753	rugged mountainous area including Lakes Rotoiti and Rotoroa, and extending to Lewis Pass National Reserve.
1960	Westland	117,607	Includes the highest peaks of the Southern Alps to the wild and remote Tasman Sea coastline. Includes glaciers, lakes, and gold mining remains.
1964	Mount Aspiring	355,543	impressive mountainous scenery, including New Zealand 's highest peak outside Mt. Cook National Park, Mt. Aspiring (3036m).
1986	Whanganui	74,231	Borders the Whanganui River, which itself is not included in the park. Includes areas of Crown land, former State forests and former reserves.
1987	Paparoa	30,560	Includes Pancake Rocks at Punakaiki, wild coastline, coastal forest, karst landscapes, limestone caves and granite ranges.
1995	Kahurangi	452,000	Extremely diverse range of flora and fauna. Landscapes include sand dunes, bogs, thick forest, karst formations, steep mountains and alpine meadows.

4.5 Conservation Planning Processes

4.5.1 Strategic Overview

In examining options for co-management of national parks in New Zealand, in particular, Egmont National Park, it is important to examine the potential improvements that may be brought about by co-management. Part of this examination involves a 'stocktake' of where DoC is heading in a broader 'strategic' sense. One of the strengths of DoC's 'institutional' arrangement is the integration of all conservation functions (including the management of the conservation estate and the advocacy of conservation on both private and public land).

The concept of integrated conservation management *per se* is not examined in great depth here, except to say that the general direction anticipated by key stakeholders in Egmont National Park is that a more 'holistic' approach to managing the park in the broader ecosystem is anticipated (pers comm. I. Barry, 1996). The key elements of the strategic planning undertaken by DoC are examined in order to provide some context for co-management options.

In 1992 DoC underwent a strategic intent process (Atawhai Ruamano/ Conservation 2000) in order to articulate a vision and develop strategies that would take DoC and conservation through to the year 2000. This process involved widespread public consultation. The following vision was adopted for DoC and conservation in New Zealand:

> *By the year 2000 New Zealand's natural ecosystems, species, landscapes and historical and cultural places have been protected; people enjoy them and are involved in their conservation. The Department of Conservation leads this process, providing for the community, inspiration, guidance, co-ordination and action"*

Six key strategies form the departments response to this vision. These strategies are as follows: Biodiversity; Historic Heritage; Visitor Services; Kaupapa Atawhai; Public Awareness; and Conservation Staff. The strategies, vision and key issues to be addressed by each strategy are summarised in Table 14. The DoC strategic planning exercise of 1992 must also be seen in the context of the Environment 2010 strategy prepared by the Government in 1994 (MfE, 1994).

Table 14: Strategies, Visions and Major Issues identified by the Department of Conservation (1992).

Strategy	Vision	Major Issues
Biodiversity	New Zealand will be a place where terrestrial, freshwater and marine ecosystems are managed to retain and restore the full range of natural biological diversity. People will be involved in their conservation through partnership with DoC to achieve the realisation of shared values.	• Forest Collapse • Threatened Species • Marine management • Community understanding of the need for action on private land (RMAct, farmers) • Use of toxins for pest and weed control. • The development of a New Zealand Biodiversity Strategy, as required under the Convention on Biological Diversity.
Conservation Staff	Skilled staff are valued, challenged and fulfilled achieving our conservation results.	• Management of change arising from restructuring. • Training staff • Compliance with the Health and Safety in Employment Act • Putting in place the human resource systems required to implement the department's People Plan.
Historic Heritage	Historic places and areas in land administered by the department are managed effectively in co-operation with the community, and those special to Maori are managed according to Maori tikanga in partnership with tangata whenua. In co-operation with the community and other agencies, key historic places in all lands have been identified and significant gains made in their conservation.	• Future management and funding of historic resources
Kaupapa Atawhai	The department, Maori and the community at large are working co-operatively to conserve the natural and historic heritage of New Zealand, for present and future generations.	• Resolution of treaty issues • Access to cultural materials
Public Awareness	The public are involved in and committed to conservation.	• There is a need to raise pubic awareness of the department's role. • There is a need to streamline and rationalise processes of consultation with the community.
Visitor Services	The department provides a good service to visitors without compromising conservation.	• The department's visitor services infrastructure. • Location of visitor services infrastructure • Public safety • Public reaction • Implementing the new concessions regime introduced by the Conservation Amendment Act 1996.

A number of events from 1992 to 1995 led the department to review its strategies, in particular the concept of Quality Conservation Management emerged largely in response to the Cave Creek tragedy of 1995.

In late 1997 DoC released its strategic business plan "*Restoring the Dawn Chorus*" that included a number of targets and goals in relation to three key strategic issues: those directly relating to conservation results, community issues and issues that affect DoC's capacity to achieve results. One of the key issues to emerge from the 1997 review was the allocation of a significant level of spending on public awareness and Iwi issues (4.2 percent).

One of the key issues these strategies aim to address is the manner in which all DoC functions are 'integrated'(DoC, 1997). The strategic business plan aims to place DoC in a position such that in five years time the following key goals would have been realised:

(1) key conservation results will be achieved in the priority programmes of Natural Heritage, Historic Heritage and Recreational enjoyment; and

(2) Communities will be involved more effectively in conserving their heritage; and'

(3) The Department will be valued by New Zealanders and recognised internationally as a world leader for the quality conservation service it provides,

The six strategies developed in 1992 have thus been prioritised and further key strategic issues identified, within an integrated budget for addressing the issues. The issues fall within three categories as shown in Figure 18.

Figure 18: Three Key Themes and Issues addressed in the DoC Strategic Business Plan
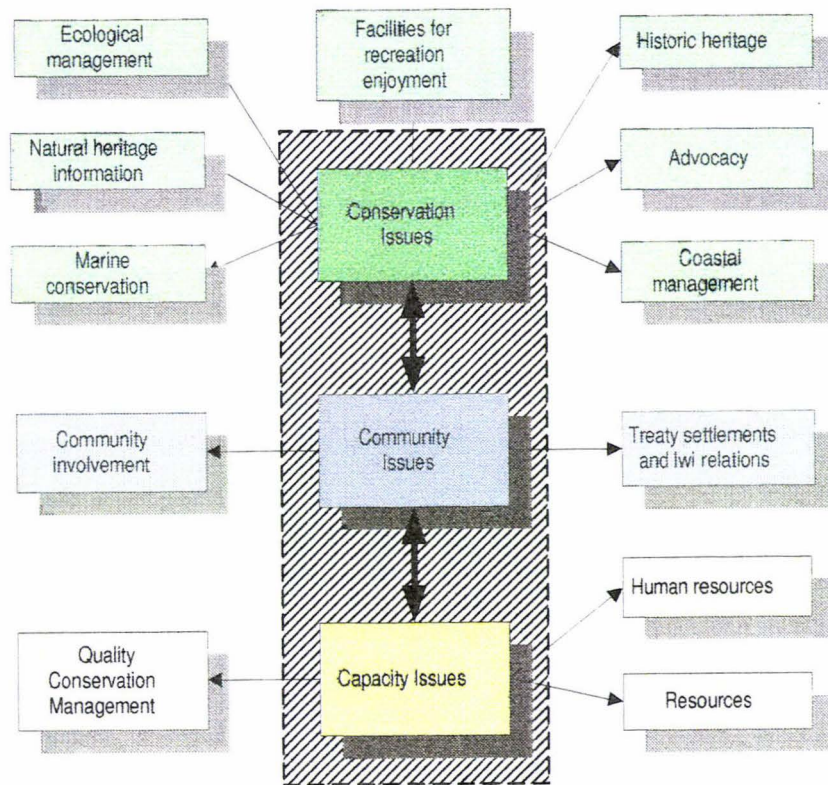
Of particular importance to the development of co-management agreements to improve conservation outcomes, is the way in which the DoC is aiming to improve relationships with communities. The following overview of key community goals and objectives are provided in order to give an indication of the way in which this improvement may proceed. It should be noted that in relation to Egmont National Park, the key policy framework is that of the CMS and the management plan. However, the national policy framework provide the 'political' will to begin to investigate and implement various methods of giving effect to the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi and increasing community involvement.

Community support

Goal	
4.1	Communities understand and support the conservation of their natural and cultural heritage
Objectives	
4.1.1	The Department supports community understanding of the importance of conservation to New Zealand .
4.1.2	The public has confidence in the Department and supports its work.

Community active involvement

Goal	
4.2	Individuals, groups and organisations are involved actively in managing conservation.
Objectives	
4.2.1	The Department supports local government to effectively fulfil its statutory conservation roles.
4.2.2	The Department supports landowners who value the natural and historic heritage on their land, who are working to achieve appropriate protection for this and supports local authorities with information and assistance in developing incentives for protection.
4.2.3	The Department encourages informed community participation in conservation decision making.
4.2.5	Recreational hunters and fishers support the Department's conservation work and contribute to the achievement of shared objectives.
4.2.6	Opportunities for active involvement in conservation work are taken up.

Working Relationships with iwi Maori

Goal	
4.3	The Department and Maori have an effective working relationship for the achievement of conservation goals in ways which recognise the principles to the Treaty of Waitangi.
Objectives	
4.3.1	The Department will have effective and efficient consultation networks with iwi.
4.3.2	The Department will have effective working relationships with Treaty partners.
$.3.3	The Department will work with iwi to develop policies and procedures which provide Treaty partners with: - input to the management of specified parts of the conservation estate in their rohe; - access to cultural materials managed by the Department; - assurance that iwi values are respected and protected - ability to exercise kaitiakitanga with their land.
4.3.4	The Department will advise the Crown on conservation issues related to Treaty settlements.

These goals and objectives begin to recognise the importance of working with communities to secure improvements in conservation outcomes. In particular the necessity of encouraging active involvement in conservation (Goal 4.2) and the development of effective working relationships with iwi indicate a need to develop appropriate structures and mechanisms to achieve this.

In summary, the key strategic issues facing conservation in New Zealand relate to conservation issues and to the capacity of DoC and the community to address these

issues. Of importance to co-management are the goals that indicate the need to involve both Treaty partners and communities in conservation efforts.

4.5.2 Integrated Conservation Planning

Integrated conservation planning is perhaps the ultimate goal of DoC. The strength of conservation in New Zealand is that one agency is responsible for all aspects of conservation and recreation on the conservation estate. Integrated conservation planning also allows consideration of those issues or threats originating from private land that affect the conservation estate. The linkages between planning processes under the RMAct and the Conservation Act (i.e. between private and public land) while perhaps not strong, nevertheless provide the framework for considering broader options for ecosystem management.

One of the first critical assumptions to be made in integrated conservation planning is that people are clearly important components of ecosystems. Therefore, people (including Maori and local communities) must be involved in the decision making process.

The primary planning 'tool' for achieving integrated conservation planning is the Conservation Management Strategy (CMS). At the level of national park management, the management plan provides guidance on park management issues and advocacy functions outside the park area (such as pest control on surrounding land).

If integrated conservation management is to be achieved, ecosystem management must be a central component. Two other important components need to be emphasised. Firstly, that the institutional arrangements of agencies administering private and public land need to ensure a consistent response to resource management and conservation issues. Secondly, the formation of strategic alliances within communities to lobby for integrated management and for their involvement. From the point of view of attempting to implement co-management, these alliances need to be formed not only between government agencies, but between community groups and iwi.

4.6   Summary of Key Themes

This Chapter has covered a range of material in relation to national parks and conservation planning processes. Again, certain key themes emerge that are important for developing options for co-management in Egmont National Park. These themes are briefly summarised below:

- the development of the relationship between people and nature has created the necessity in many places to set areas aside in order to protect, preserve and conserve the natural ecosystems and native flora and fauna. The national park concept varies from place to place. However, one of the key elements for national park management is that a sense of respect for the ecosystems and features of the park must be developed by those using the park in order to ensure its ongoing integrity;

- the role of national parks is changing over time. The facilitation of partnerships with communities, ecological functions and the management of external threats are all increasing in importance. The changing roles of parks is also reflected in the range of key management issues in national parks that need to be addressed, increasingly by government agencies that are inadequately resourced to implement solutions.

- the example of Kakadu National park in the Northern Territories of Australia illustrates the application of a number of key concepts of co-management. The process of resolving a great number of conflicts in relation to the land use, ownership and management of Kakadu National Park required a great deal of time and commitment by both the government agencies and aboriginal peoples' involved. The primary outcome of this process is a management partnership, that through a series of formal and informal mechanisms and structures, incorporates the interests of all parties. This should be a lasting and positive partnership.

- conservation management in New Zealand is undertaken within an integrated framework by DoC. Legislation and policies establish conservation planning and management processes that include consultation processes. These processes have resulted in a number of important

partnerships with a broad spectrum of community groups throughout New Zealand.

- local communities are increasingly seeking more active and meaningful roles in conservation management.

- The complexity of conservation issues such as: the loss of biodiversity; the funding and management of historic resources; the maintenance of visitor services infrastructure; and the need for public education, are also increasing within a political environment of reduced government spending;

- the present range of conflicts that involve the conservation estate, in particular, ownership issues determined in relation to claims before the Waitangi Tribunal and through negotiation with the Crown, create the need for inclusive and community based resolutions to ensure there is understanding and confidence in any resulting agreements and management arrangements;

- strategic conservation planning needs to articulate and evaluate the long term goals for conservation in New Zealand to ensure the visions of DoC and community are met. This may involve a shift in the way the conservation estate is managed, possibly by developing a more integrated ecosystem approach that recognises the place of people, external threats and the broader role the conservation estate plays in sustainability.

5

Case Study
Egmont National Park
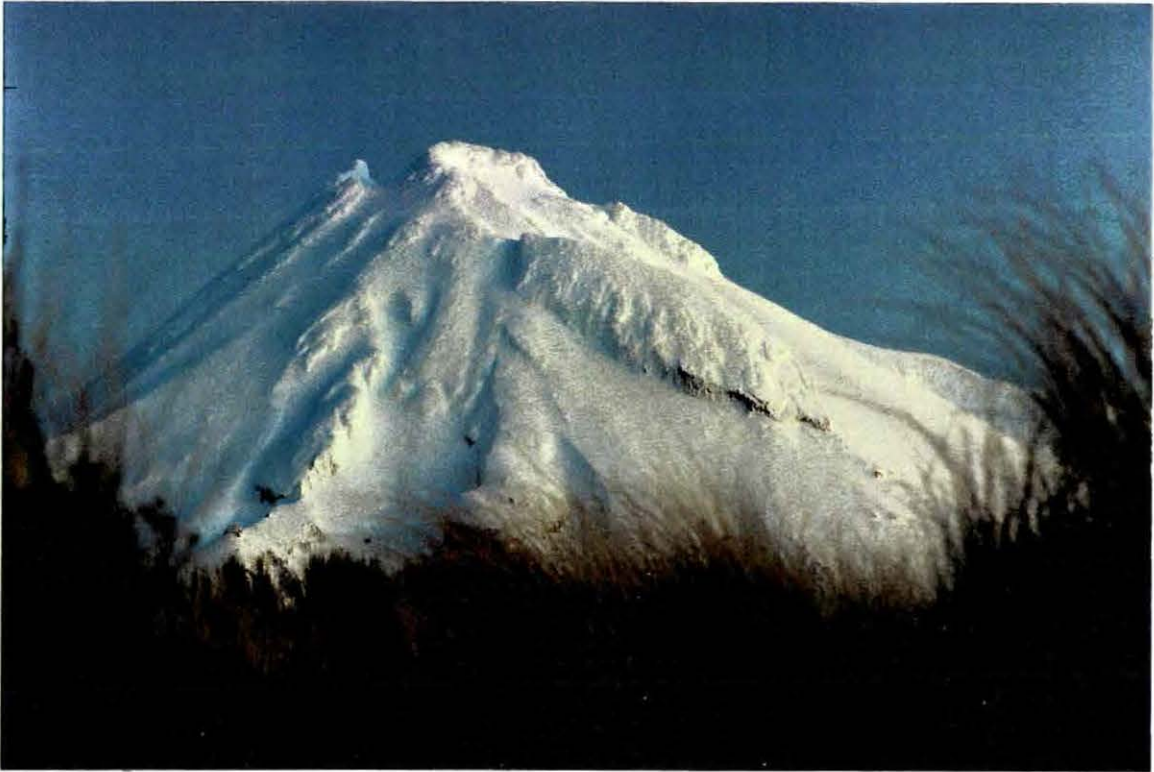
5. CASE STUDY: EGMONT NATIONAL PARK

5.1 Introduction:

This Chapter describes the planning processes and management structures that may be used to progress the implementation of co-management in Egmont National Park. This case study essentially draws together all the bodies of theory, experience and knowledge that have been described and analysed in previous chapters in relation to co-management and national park management. The case study is based on the experience of developing a draft management plan for Egmont National Park under the NPAct.

The case study is built around three themes. These are firstly 'the park' which examines the physical resource including the place of the park within the Egmont ecological district. This includes some assessment of the importance of the park in terms of potential broader ecological goals for the region, such as riparian planting and ecological restoration. The second theme is 'the people' who have an interest in Egmont National Park and their views on both park management and the involvement of the public in the management process. Finally, 'the process' of developing the management plan is described and examined. This forms the majority of the fieldwork

for the case study as part of a formal process for determining the management priorities for the park for the next ten years.

These three themes are pulled together in the final part of this chapter in order to examine options for co-management and the future of Egmont National Park. These options are based on previous principles developed in relation to co-management in chapter three, and the legislative and policy context for national park management described in chapter four. The options developed are also significantly influenced by fieldwork undertaken after the consultation process for preparing the draft management plan. This fieldwork focused on the possibilities for increased levels of public involvement in conservation and national park management.

The final section of this case study examines the potential for conservation planning processes to assist in implementation of options for co-management. This essentially places these options in the legislative and policy context of the park.

5.2 The Park:

5.2.1 Location of the park

Egmont National Park is located in the centre of the Taranaki region on the west coast of the North Island of New Zealand (see Map 1). The main feature of the park is one of the worlds most symmetrical volcanic cones Mt. Taranaki. The park features three volcanic cones. Mt. Taranaki at 2518m above sea level (a.s.l.) is currently dormant, and two other extinct volcanoes named Pouakai at 1400m a.s.l and Kaitake at 682m a.s.l.

Map 1: Location of Taranaki

Egmont National Park is unique in the context of other national parks in New Zealand in terms of the number of people living near the park border. Main population centres of New Plymouth, Hawera and Stratford all occur within 30 kilometres of the park. The park is surrounded by well developed and intensely farmed agricultural land, of the Taranaki ring plain.. Consequently, the mountain is a focus of a number of recreational activities in the region.

The park is located in the Egmont Ecological Region[11] (see Map 2), which was one of the first ecological districts to be surveyed under the Protected Natural Areas programme (Bayfield and Benson, 1986). The Egmont district comprises 270,000 hectares of land dominated by the andesitic volcanoes (Taranaki, Pouakai and Kaitake) and their associated ring plains including an area of ash covered uplifted marine terrace in the north-east (DoC, 1997).

The district is distinguished from adjacent North Taranaki and Matemateonga ecological districts due to different underlying rock types. The districts to the east of the Egmont ecological district are characterised by rock of sedimentary origin. The Egmont district is characterised by underlying andesitic rock of volcanic origin. This has resulted in a range of plant species in the ecological district that reflect the differences in parent material (Clarkson and Boase, 1982). The district also contains a population of approximately 106,000 people based on the 1996 Census (Department of Statistics, 1996).

The district contains a number of protected areas including Egmont National Park, which provides protection largely for alpine, sub-alpine and montane zones. Approximately 13% of the district is protect either by land administered by DoC, or through land in which DoC may have an interest such as conservation covenants (see Table 15). While there are a number of protected areas in the district, with the exception of Egmont National Park, the majority of these are less than 3 hectares (Bayfield and Benson, 1986). Protected areas in the district do not adequately reflect

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[11] The Egmont Ecological Region is also referred to in some documents, such as the CMS, as the Egmont Ecological District. Where ecological districts are significantly different to their adjoining districts, they are classified as ecological regions.

the original diversity of the coastal and semi-coastal areas (less than 1% protected) and lowland forests (approximately 2% protected).

Table 15: **Protected Areas in Egmont Ecological District (Source: DoC, 1997)**

Land Classification	Number	Total Area (ha.)
LAND ADMINISTERED BY THE DEPARTMENT		
National Park	1	33,584?
Reserves (under the Reserves Act 1977)	50	347
Conservation Areas	49	873
INTEREST IN LAND HELD BY THE DEPARTMENT		
Protected private lands	6	37
Conservation Covenants	6	18
Wildlife Refuges	2	75
Walkways	1	4km.
TOTAL PROTECTED AREA (excluding walkway)		35,204
TOTAL LAND AREA OF EGMONT ECOLOGICAL DISTRICT (approx.)		270,300

Figure 19: **Percentage of Land as Protected Area in Egmont Ecological District (Source: Table 15)**

Map 2: Egmont Ecological District (source, DoC, 1997)

LAND ADMINISTERED BY THE DEPARTMENT

	No	Total
National Parks	1	33,854 ha
Reserves (Reserves Act)	50	347 ha
Reserves (Wildlife Act)	-	-
Conservation Areas	49	873 ha

INTEREST IN LAND BY THE DEPARTMENT

Protected Private Lands	6	37 ha
Conservation Covenants	6	18 ha
Wildlife Refuges	2	75 ha
Walkways	1	4 km

North Taranaki Bight

Waitara

Urenui

New Plymouth

Sugar Loaf Islands

Waitara River

Oakura River

Inglewood

Kaitake Range

Waiwhakaiho River

Manganui River

Stony River

Pouakai Range

Warea River

Mt Taranaki or Mt Egmont

Stratford

Patea River

Waiaua River

Eltham

Opunake

Waingongoro River

Manaia

Hawera

Tangahoe River

Egmont

Egmont Ecological District Boundary

Land Administered by the Department

0	10	20	30

Kilometres

South Taranaki Bight

Mt. Taranaki is the predominant landscape feature of the Taranaki region. Mt. Taranaki can be seen from as far away as the northern tip of the South Island, and the Manukau Heads in Auckland. The mountain influences weather patterns, provides a large range of recreation opportunities, and establishes a sense of identity and culture for all communities of the region.

5.2.2 Park establishment and history

The mountain formed a critical part of Maori life prior to the arrival of Europeans in Taranaki. The mountain is a sacred place for Maori, with the lower slopes used extensively for gathering materials, food, kakowai (red ochre) and also as an urupa (burial grounds). In addition, numerous settlements were established on the slopes of the mountain during times of invasion from tribes outside the region.

In terms of European 'discovery', the mountain remained hidden by mist to Abel Tasman during his 'discovery' voyage along the New Zealand coastline in 1642. 128 years later Captain Cook sailed around the New Zealand coastline in the *Endeavour*. The first impressions of Taranaki are interesting from a historical viewpoint, as the views of the first European explorers are still relatively true today. On January 10th, 1770 Sir Joseph Banks, the botanist on Cooks' crew described Taranaki as follows:

> *"The country we passed by appeared fertile, more so I think than any other part of this country that I have seen; rising in gentle slopes not over well wooded, but what trees there were, were well grown. Few signs of inhabitants were seen, one fire and a very few houses. Towards evening a very high hill was in sight, but very distant."*

On the 12th of January 1770 Cooks' ship approached the mountain, which Captain Cook was to name Egmont, in honour of the Earl of Egmont, the first Lord of the Admiralty - a name which somewhat contentiously remains to this day. Sir Joseph Banks wrote: *"This morning we were abreast of the great hill, but I was wrapped in the clouds and remained so the whole day; it is probably very high as part of its side, which was for a moment seen was covered in snow."* The following day the mountain revealed itself to Cook and his crew. Banks wrote: *"we had a momentary view of our great hill...How high it may be I do not take it upon me to judge, but it is certainly the noblest hill I have ever seen..."*

The first ascent of the mountain, as told by Maori, was Tahurangi, as descendant of Te Hatauira, who claimed the mountain on behalf of the Taranaki iwi. On reaching the summit, Tahurangi lit a fire to show he had taken possession of the mountain. Whenever the wisps of smokelike clouds are seen clinging to the summit of the mountain this is said to be Te Ahi a Tahurangi, or the fire of Tahurangi (also see Appendix 9).

Ernst Dieffenbach, a geologist employed by the New Zealand Company made the first ascent of the mountain by a European in 1839. He enlisted the support of local Maori after an earlier failed attempt, who accompanied him to the snowline. Dieffenbach carried out experiments at the summit in order to estimate the height of the mountain.

He calculated the height of the mountain at 2694 metres above sea level.

Europeans began arriving in Taranaki steadily from the start of the nineteenth century, with settlement beginning in earnest from 1840's. As settlement in New Plymouth grew, tracks were established on the lower slopes of the mountain. Use of the mountain by settlers increased gradually, and with growing concern arising from land clearance, and with support from settlers, the Provincial Council protected temporarily, an area 6 miles radius from the summit in May 1881 under the Land Act 1881. Permanent protection was endorsed two months later with 29,292 ha. being declared 'forest reserve'.
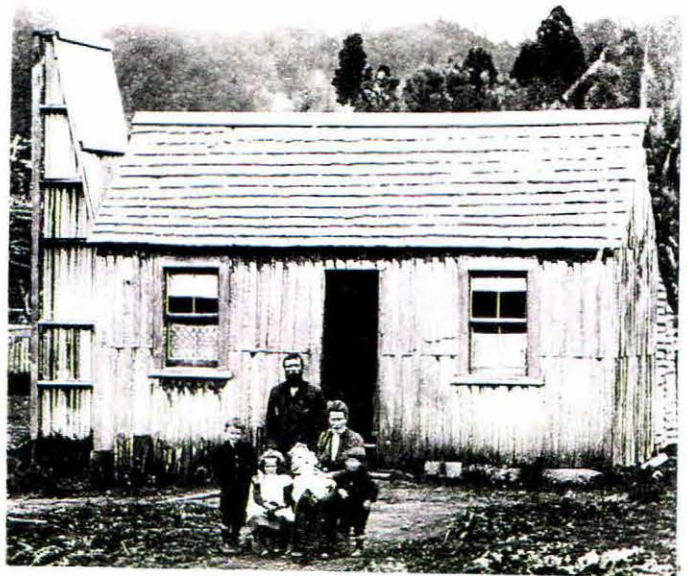
In October 1900 the Egmont National Park Act provided for this national asset to be managed by a board as a national park. While Egmont National Park was the second to be set aside in the country, it was the first to have a constituted board to manage and administer the park. The board comprised four sectoral committees responsible for a different sector of the park. At this time the park totalled some 33,000 hectares.

Amendments to the original legislation in 1924 retained the four subcommittees and required the Park Board to be comprised of representatives of each subcommittee. This structure resulted in competition between the subcommittees over scarce resources for development. This competition is reflected in the range of facilities around the park today.

The importance of the park to the region was reflected by membership of each subcommittee which included representatives of local authorities. The local community effectively drove the management of the park, creating a huge sense of conflict when the National Parks Bill of 1952 suggested a more centralised management system. The Bill, which was the first comprehensive legislation for national parks, was not without its problems for those drafting the legislation.

Management issues at Egmont National Park were perhaps among the most difficult to negotiate. New Zealand only had four national parks when the National Parks Bill (passed in 1952) was in preliminary drafting stages. While the majority of negotiation on the Bill centred around what values and policies should be used as a basis to control and administer national parks, a number of local issues needed to be resolved. The most complex of these being the relationship between Egmont National Park and the Taranaki region. Unlike other national parks that were largely protected for their scenic and natural values, the initial importance of Egmont National Park was as a vital element of the Taranaki economy and an important erosion control and forest

conservation measure. A compromise saw the sub-committees continue under the new Act, but their powers were reduced, and the sub-committees were accountable to the National Park Board.

Plate 2: The Mangorei Gorge painted by H.W. Kirkwood c. 1910
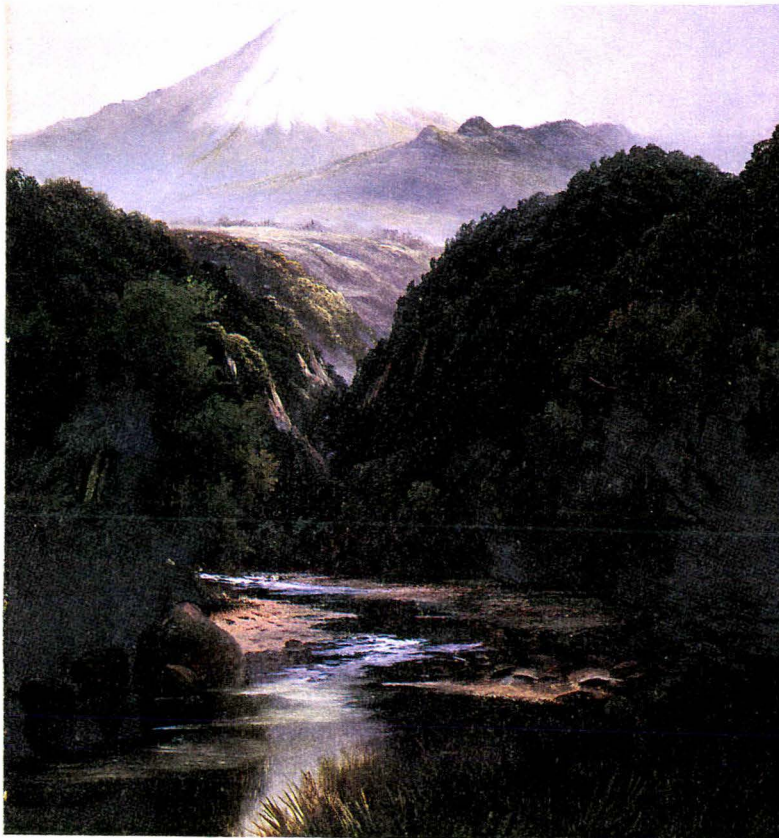
It has been only relatively recently that the four subcommittees of the park were abolished, by an amendment to legislation in 1977. In this regard, Egmont National Park is unique in that a national and regional perspective to the management of this national park has only been provided since 1977.

In 1978 the Egmont Vesting Act provided for the symbolic return of the mountain to the Taranaki Maori Trust Board (TMTB). This legislation was controversial at the time, and remains so to this day. Issues of ownership raised by this legislation are discussed in section 5.5.2. Issues relating to the Maori relationship to the mountain reached a major head in the mod 1980's with the debate surrounding the name of the mountain. The outcome was the adoption by the New Zealand Geographic Board of a dual name "Mt. Taranaki or Mt. Egmont".

In 1980 the NPAct was introduced. Seven years later major reform to the administration of the conservation estate caused changes to park management. Initially

DoC was structured in four tiers, with field centres, district offices, conservancy offices, and head office. The district administration level was later removed by restructuring in 1989. Currently the park is managed from the Stratford field centre, with its base on Pembroke Road, Stratford. Policy and other technical assistance is also provided from the Wanganui Conservancy office.

The history of the park, including park management is a significant matter for consideration when examining options for co-management of Egmont National Park. A number of historical issues relating to park management, relationships between various key stakeholders, and the reforms to administration impact on the way in which people in Taranaki will view and relate to any proposals for greater involvement of the community on management. To many people who have previously been involved in park management at Board or subcommittee level, co-management represents a similar system of management to that abolished in 1977.

5.2.3 Physical resources

The natural and physical resource of the park are of primary importance to the values that are protected by the national park status. The park contains a number of unique natural elements, including geology, diverse ecosystems, and climate. These aspects of the physical environment are described below.

Geology and Soils

The geology and soils of both Egmont National Park and the surrounding region are directly related to its volcanic history. The geology of the park is dominated by the youngest volcanic cone, Mt. Taranaki, and the two extinct and progressively older ones of Pouakai and Kaitake. Outside the park, the Sugar Loaf Islands represent the end of this chain of volcanoes.

The impact of volcanic activity on the Taranaki region has been significant. Lava flows, ash showers and lahars (mud flows) have transported materials away from the peaks. This has created a landscape in the west that is dominated by lahars and other volcanic structures (see Neall, 1980). The oldest lava flows on the mountain are preserved in the western sector of the park, while erosion has removed a number of older lavas, sometimes resulting in picturesque volcanic structures such as Humphries Castle.

Plate 3: Lahar dominated landscapes in western Taranaki (photo)

Plate 4: Humphries Castle

In addition, volcanic activity in the region has created excellent soils on the lower slopes of the ringplain. This has resulted in the lower Taranaki ringplain being used extensively for dairy farming. A consequence of this land use has been the clearance of the majority of lowland forest in Taranaki.

Ecosystem Diversity

As previously discussed Egmont National Park is located within the Egmont ecological district. Much of the district has been developed for intensive pastoral agriculture, meaning Egmont National Park is by far the largest remaining natural area in the district. The most comprehensive study of the parks flora was undertaken by Clarkson, with his work being published in 1986. The reader is referred to Clarkson (1986) for a description of the various vegetation and substrate classes of the park.

In many ways the cone of Mt. Taranaki is a classic textbook example of the effect of altitude on vegetation. As a practical example of the range of ecosystems present in the park, a walk to the summit will lead a visitor through a wide range of vegetation types. These range from the lowland forests with their distinctive undergrowth and lush vegetation, through montane forests dominated by kamahi and characterised by its uniform height. A number of ancient podocarps are also scattered through these montane forests. At higher altitudes scrub eventually gives way to the tussocks and eventually the alpine herbfields.

Plate 5: Mosses, fungi and other small plants are abundant on the forest floor

The park also contains a number of significant wetlands, such as the Ahukawakawa swamp and the Potaema Swamp. These areas are extremely significant to the region due to the drainage and destruction of the majority of wetlands outside the park. Wetlands are extremely important for biodiversity.

The park contains a number of nationally threatened plants (Cameron *et al.*, 1995). They are *Dactylanthus taylorii* (pua o te reinga, a parasitic flowering plant which causes wood roses to form on its host plant's roots), *Prasophyllum* species (an unnamed orchid, related to *P. patens*), *Olearia capillaris* (a shrub daisy) and *Melicytus* sp. (an unnamed divaricating shrub endemic to Egmont National Park). The mistletoe *Ileostylus micranthus* was last seen in the Park in the 1960s though was found within 200m of the Park boundary in 1995. The many plants in the park provide traditional medicines and materials for Maori.

In addition to plant life, the park supports a number of birds. Seventy-six bird species (53 native and 23 introduced) regularly occur in the Egmont ecological district. Egmont National Park is the district's only habitat for many of these birds (Cotton and Molloy, 1986). The Park has a good range of common forest birds including tomtit, rifleman, kereru and bellbird. Rare bird species of note include North Island brown

kiwi, fernbird, New Zealand falcon and blue duck. The forest gecko and brown skinks are also found in the Park.

Plate 7: Kereru feeding on a nikau palm.

The range of flora and fauna in the park is not as large when compared with other parks in New Zealand. The relative youth of the park in geological terms is thought to account for this.

Climate

The position of Egmont National Park near the west coast of the North Island, combined with its rapid elevation influence its climate. The climate of the Kaitake Range sector of the park is mild and humid with a mean annual rainfall of up to 1500mm. The rest of the Park typically receives low temperatures, is extremely exposed to wind and has very high rainfall. In some parts of the park, rainfall is as high as 7500mm per annum. Average wind speed at the summit of Mt. Taranaki is approximately 40 kilometres per hour. The prevailing wind is from the west to northwest.

The weather in the park can be extremely dangerous due to the speed at which conditions change. The climate and weather patterns in the park mean it is one of the most dangerous mountainous environments in New Zealand. People using the park need to be aware of the dangers associated with rapid weather deterioration and equip themselves appropriately.

5.2.4 Visitor and Recreation Facilities

For many people, especially those living nearby, the park provides a significant opportunity for outdoor recreation in conjunction with experiencing associated natural, historic and cultural values. In some instances recreation and preservation/conservation values are in conflict, and certain facilities or management policies must be put in place to reduce or avoid this conflict.

The management of visitor and recreation facilities and visitor and public information is a major proportion of DoC's budget (see Table 12). A range of recreational opportunities exist within Egmont National Park, a number of which rely on the provision of appropriate access and facilities such as huts. The maintenance of tracks and huts, and road end facilities (such as mowing lawns etc.) in Egmont National Park accounts for approximately 50 percent of staff time (pers. comm. Rudy Tetteroo, 1997). The provision of these recreation services and facilities is coming under increasing scrutiny by those funding them (i.e. the Government) as well as those using them (i.e. tramping clubs).

DoC is placing priority on providing services and facilities proportional to visitor numbers. This also has implications for the distribution of services around the park, with more resources being focused at high use areas, such as road ends. Issues such as this will be seen as important to alpine and mountaineering groups who do not want a reduction in the level of facilities in the park. (For an overview of the range of visitors and recreation groups that use the park, see section 5.3.6.)

Important recreation and visitor services in the park are managed according to two operation plans. These are the 'Road End Working Plan' and the 'Track and Hut Plan'. Facilities within the park include over 140 kilometres of formed high maintenance tracks and nine public huts.

One of the most popular tracks is the 'Around the Mountain Circuit'. The summit route is also extremely popular, as Mt. Taranaki is one of the most climbed mountains in New Zealand. Three other private huts are operated by clubs under licence or permit. These are Tahurangi Lodge (Taranaki Alpine Club), Kapuni Lodge (Egmont Alpine Club), and Manganui Lodge (Stratford Mountain Club).

The Stratford Mountain Club have a licence for a skifield and associated facilities within the skifield management area. The skifield is extremely popular with local skiers, and has been the subject of numerous conflicts in recent years, especially in

relation to access. Two tourist lodges are located inside the park, and are managed by private operators under license. These 'private' facilities inside the park generate a range of issues associated with the permit and lease arrangements, and public versus private rights in national parks. DoC also maintain visitor centre displays at North Egmont and Dawson Falls.

Plate 8: Lower slopes of the Manganui Skifield

Egmont National Park is relatively highly developed. This is a reflection of a number of factors, including its history of management (see section 5.2.2), the close proximity of the regional community and the highly accessible nature of the park.

5.3 The People:

5.3.1 Introduction

Egmont National Park is known as "the Peoples Park", a term which reflects its importance to the people of Taranaki. This section aims to provide an overview of stakeholders in Egmont National Park, who may play a significant part in the collaborative management of the park in the future should this option be pursued. This range of stakeholders builds upon those consulted during the management plan review process, which is outlined in section 5.4.

5.3.2 The Regional community

The Taranaki region is divided into three local authorities: New Plymouth District, Stratford District and South Taranaki District. The largest population centre occurs at New Plymouth, which is New Zealand's twelfth largest territorial authority with a population of 68,112. New Plymouth district includes the urban settlements of New Plymouth, Oakura, Inglewood, and Waitara. The two other districts in the region have experienced minor population decline in the past five years. Stratford district has a population of 9543 while South Taranaki district has a population of 29,136 (see Figure 20). The region also has a significant Maori population (see Figure 21).

Figure 20: **Population Changes in Territorial Authorities in Taranaki Region** (Source: New Zealand Census, 1996)
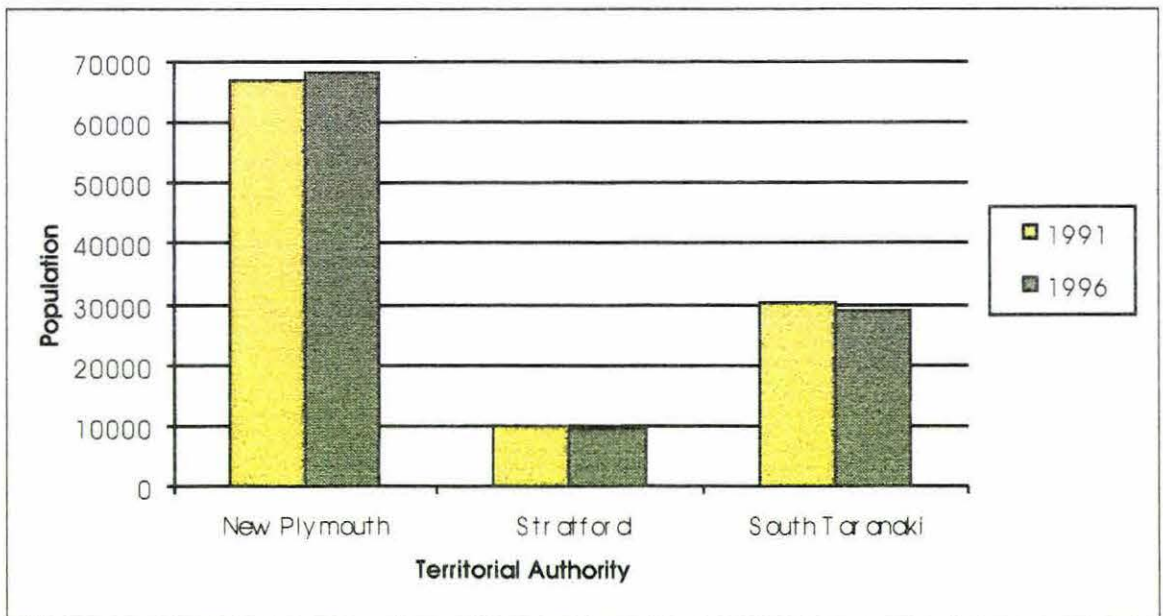
Figure 21: Maori Population by Territorial Authority in Taranaki Region (Source: Census, 1996)
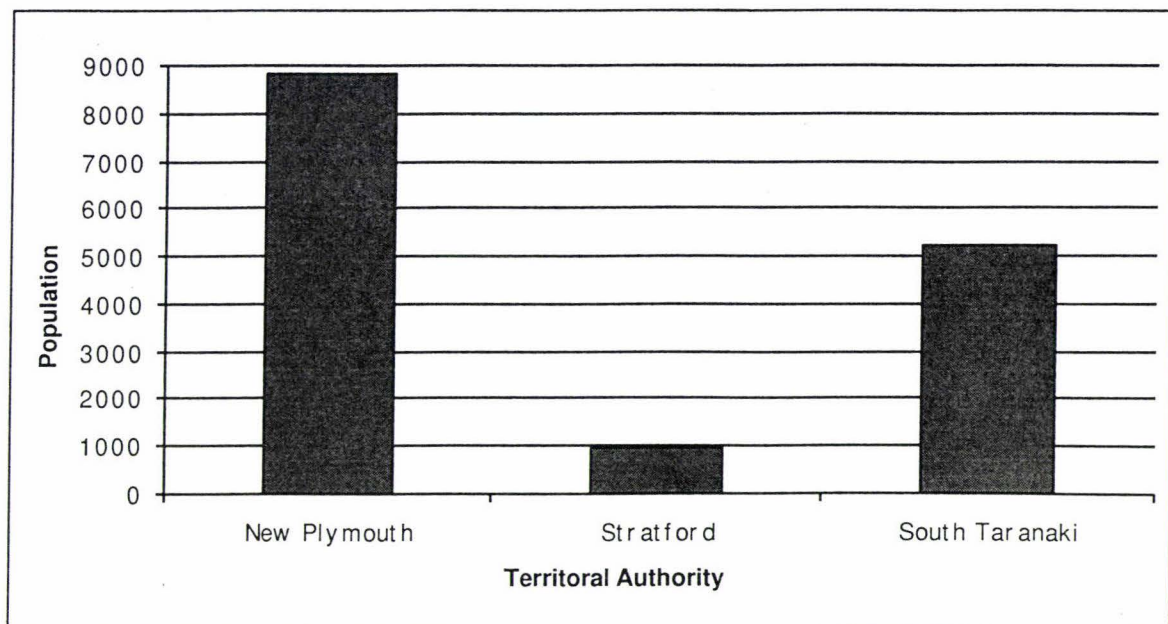
5.3.3 Stakeholders

There are a range of stakeholders in Egmont National Park. As suggested in Chapter 3, the identification of stakeholders and encouraging their involvement in an open process is an important element in the success of any co-management arrangement. In the case of national parks a number of stakeholders may be identified (see Appendix 7). The relationships with the park may be described at a number of levels, or using specific criteria as guidelines (see Table 4).

For Egmont National Park a number of stakeholders were identified at the outset of the early consultation for the management plan review. Stakeholders were identified using the 'elite' model (described in section 3.4.3) as this was an appropriate method for consultation on the draft management plan. For further discussion on stakeholder consultation see section 5.4.3.

Figure 22: Stakeholders in Egmont National Park

Local Government:
- New Plymouth District Council
- Stratford District Council
- South Taranaki District Council
- Taranaki Regional Council

DOC Field Centre Staff

Taranaki Federated Farmers

NZ Historic PLaces Trust

Individuals

Concessionaires
- Dawson Falls Tourist Lodge
- Stratford Mountain House
- Stratford Mountain Club
- Guiding Concessionaires

Egmont National Park - Maunga Taranaki

Royal Forest and Bird Protection Society (Taranaki)

NZ Motor Caravan Association (Taranaki Branch)

Tourism Taranaki

Tramping / Alpine Clubs
- Taranaki Alpine Club
- Egmont Alpine
- Kahui Outdoor Pursuits Alpine Club
- Stratford Tramping Club
- New Plymouth Tramping Club
- Stratford Mountain Club

Taranaki Maori Trust Board

Taranaki Iwi
- Taranaki
- Nga Ruahine
- Ngati Ruanui
- Nga Rauru
- Ngati Tama
- Ngati Mutunga
- Ngati Maru
- Te Atiawa

Of particular importance in Egmont National Park is the realisation that the success of co-management will depend on the degree to which all stakeholders are invited to participate at an equal level in the management arrangement. While this may seem to diminish the importance of the Treaty partnership, the participation of stakeholders in park management can occur on an equal level, acknowledging the special Treaty relationship, while empowering all communities to be involved. The mountain is the single most important feature of the Taranaki landscape, and therefore its management affects everyone in the region. All should have equal status as stakeholders. In this sense, the stakeholders in Egmont National Park form the three 'pillars' of a co-management agreement for the park (see Figure 23).

Figure 23: Stakeholders form 'pillars' of co-management
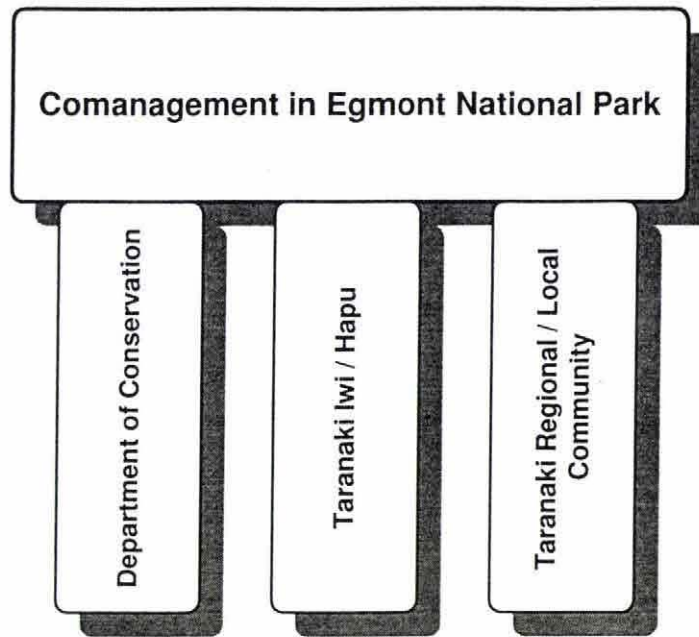
It is important to discuss each of these groups (DoC, iwi and community groups) in turn. This will help to establish the critical issues of concern to each 'partner' both in relation to the park, and in their relationship with the wider regional community.

5.3.4 Taranaki Iwi

The Taranaki region is occupied by eight recognised iwi[12]. For the iwi of Taranaki the mountain is more than a dominant geographical feature. Mount Taranaki is an ancestor of all Taranaki iwi. Although not all iwi in the region had access to the mountain in the past, good relationships existed between iwi which allowed shared use of resources. In addition, the slopes of the mountain provided a safe haven for all Taranaki iwi during times of outside conflict. The mythology of Taranaki is described briefly in Appendix 9. For the tribes of Taranaki the mountain has a male persona and acts as a guardian of the lands of Taranaki.

"He is an ancestor, a tipuna who provides both physical and spiritual sustenance to the iwi who live in his shadow. He is the chief of all tribes and the guardian of their ancestral home. Taranaki, as taonga of paramount

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[12] In recent times, through regular appearance at hearings of the Waitangi Tribunal, two further groupings have demonstrated that they exist today as distinctive and viable entities deserving separate consideration. These groupings are located in South Taranaki.

importance is entwined in custom, mythology and tradition, and his personification as the koroheke (old man), reflects the deep respect which is held for him. His intense beauty and mystique is a source of inspiration and guidance and he is venerated in oral traditions such as whaikoorero, waiata and karang" (Hond, 1993).

The location and existence of Taranaki iwi in pre-European times was largely dependant on the availability of resources. The mountain played a significant role in providing food, building materials and spiritual guidance. In addition, the mountain provided clean water and fertile soils, a fact also recognised by early European settlers. These resources were extremely important to Taranaki iwi, and remain so to this day.

The eight iwi of the region descend from three different waka. These are Tokomaru in the north, Kurahaupo in the centre and, Aotea in the south of Taranaki (see Table 16). Each iwi in the region is able to recall their distinct histories by identifying their tribal rohe (region). In terms of the rohe of the iwi in Taranaki, these were most recently 'defined' during the hearing of the Wai 143 claim to the Waitangi Tribunal under the Treaty of Waitangi Act 1975. The preliminary report of the Tribunal included a map that defined the boundaries of the eight iwi (see Map 3).

Land conflict in Taranaki has continued in Taranaki for over 155 years. Issues relating to the confiscation of land and conquest of Taranaki iwi are currently being heard by the Waitangi Tribunal (Wai 143). (For further discussion on ownership issues in either Egmont National Park or Taranaki see section 5.5.2.)

Table 16: Iwi groups by waka and region (source: Waitangi Tribunal, 1996)

Tokomaru (North)	Kurahaupo (Centre)	Aotea (South)
Ngati Tama	Taranaki	Nga Ruahine
Ngati Mutunga		Ngati Ruanui
Ngati Maru		Nga Rauru
Te Atiawa		(Pakakohi)
		(Tangahoe)

Map 3: Rohe of Taranaki Iwi (Source: Waitangi Tribunal, 1996)

Legend:

- NGATI TAMA
- NGATI MUTUNGA
- TE ATIAWA
- NGATI MARU
- TARANAKI
- NGATI RUANUI
- NGA RUAHINE
- NGA RAURU
- TANGAHOE
- PAKAKOHI

Overlap

NGATI TAMA

NGATI MUTUNGA

NGATI MARU

TE ATIAWA

TARANAKI

NGA RUAHINE

NGATI RUANUI

NGA RAURU

Mokau R.

Ohura

Parininihi

Taumarunui

Titoki

Te Rau o te Huia

Waitara R.

Onukutaipari
Herekawe Stm

Mt Taranaki

Taungatara Str

Ouri Stm

Waihi Stm

Outline of **TANGAHOE** and **PAKAKOHI**, see below

Original confiscation boundary

Patea R.
Whenuakura R.
Waitotara R.

Mt Taranaki

TANGAHOE

PAKAKOHI

Waingongoro R.

Tangahoe R.

Whanganui R.

Whenuakura R.

Original confiscation boundary

30 km
20 miles

In the 1996 Census of Population and Dwellings, the total number of people of Maori descent was 579,714 (an increase of 13 percent, from 511,278 in 1991). Furthermore, 74 percent of all people of Maori descent reported belonging to at least one iwi. In relation to Taranaki iwi, the 1996 Census showed that of the eight iwi, the three largest were Te Atiawa, Ngati Ruanui and Taranaki.

Figure 24: Taranaki Iwi (Source: 1996 Census - Iwi Affiliation of people of New Zealand Maori Descent resident in New Zealand)
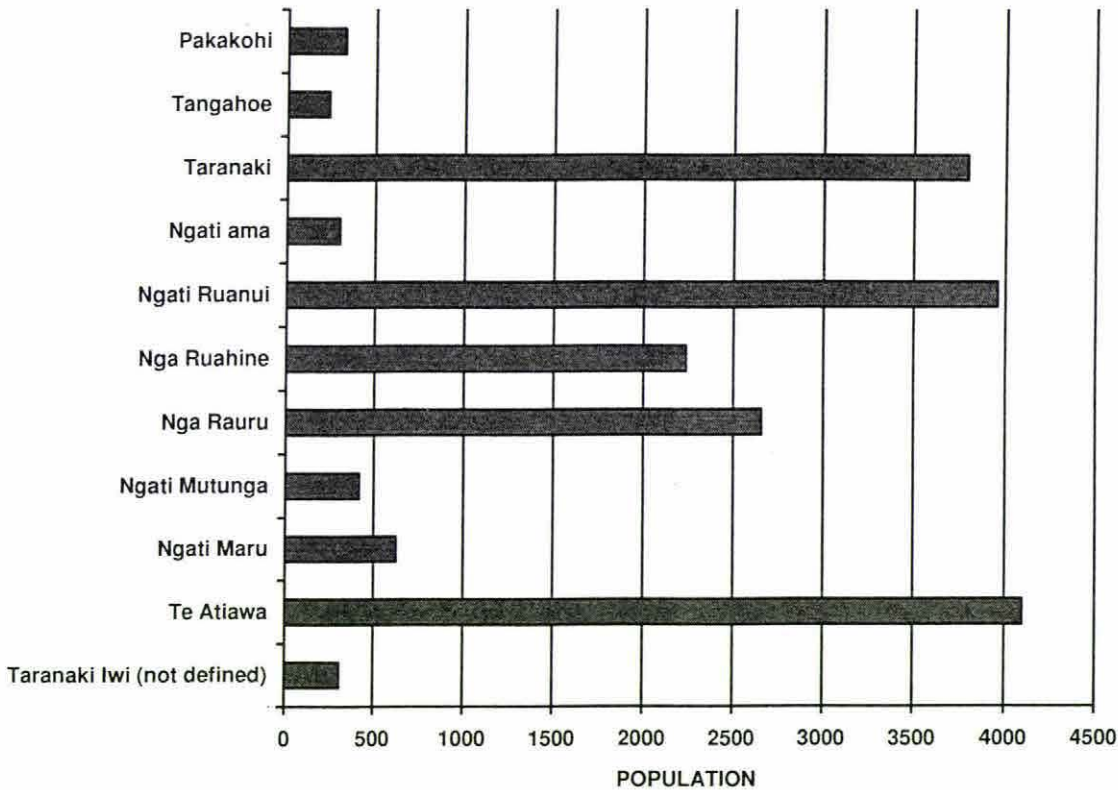
A number of 'structures' exist in Taranaki today that serve to represent the interests of iwi and hapu in policy and other administrative forums. These structures include marae committees, and trust boards. A number of these structures are established or recognised by legislation to provide iwi representation to government. It is not the intention of this thesis to discuss the actual structures in place at a hapu or iwi level for representation in political or park management forums. This is a matter that will be determined by Maori, just as the representation by DoC or community groups will be determined by them.

One of the most significant 'structures' to have had an influence on the relationship with Maori and the mountain in the recent past, is the TMTB. In addition to these structures mentioned above, iwi are represented on a number of other formal structures relating to conservation and resource management. For example, the Conservation Board includes two representatives from Taranaki iwi.

The relationship between DoC and Maori in Taranaki is, overall, relatively neutral. In some instances a positive relationship exists, and in others a more adversarial relationship exists. For this reason, DoC must place more emphasis on forming positive long term relationships with Maori in Taranaki at all levels.

Similar problems of resource distribution exist in conservation as they do for resource management. The resources of iwi and mandated representatives are often stretched due to statutory requirements that Maori are consulted on issues of significance. It is necessary to address these issues as part of forming such long term relationships. These matters may be addressed either by DoC in relation to its functions and requirements, or possibly in conjunction with other agencies, such as the Taranaki Regional Council. Similarly, these matters may be facilitated either by iwi, or a government agency such as Te Puni Kokiri.

Ownership issues are one of the primary factors affecting the relationship between DoC and iwi in Taranaki. Land ownership is am extremely important issue in Taranaki following the confiscation from traditional Maori owners of large areas of land and resources in the nineteenth century by the Government. These issues will be discussed briefly later, with specific discussion on the ownership of the mountain, an issue that has been hotly debated many times in the past.

5.3.5 Community Groups

The Taranaki region includes a wide range of community groups. In such a tight regional community it is important to understand the range of groups that exist. In relation to Egmont National Park there are a number of groups, and these have been identified as stakeholders in the management plan process. These groups are listed in Appendix 8. While this list of stakeholders is not exhaustive, it includes those groups who have been most active in terms of conservation and recreation issues associated with Egmont National Park. A number of other community groups may also provide

useful contacts, information and services in relation to any future implementation aspects of co-management.

5.3.6 Visitors

Tourism is one of New Zealand's fastest growing and important industries. Visitors to Egmont National Park include a significant proportion of international tourists, but perhaps of greatest significance is the importance of the park to the people of Taranaki. Public recreation and tourism in the region largely focuses on the opportunities provided by the park, and other outdoor attractions such as the coastline, and numerous gardens in the region. The park receives approximately 300,000 visitors per year (based on 1992 figures held by DoC), with the majority of activity focused at the three road ends of North Egmont, Stratford and Dawson Falls. The highest use facility in the park is the Manganui skifield.

The most recent comprehensive survey and analysis of visitors to Egmont National Park was undertaken by Ross Lawrence (1994). The survey was based on a stratified sampling procedure with a collection of 326 questionnaires gathered from park visitors (Lawrence *et al*, 1996). The importance of the park to Taranaki people is reinforced by this survey, which showed that half the visitors to the park were from the region (see Figure 25).

Figure 25: **Origin of Visitors to Egmont National Park** (Source: Lawrence *et al*, 1996)
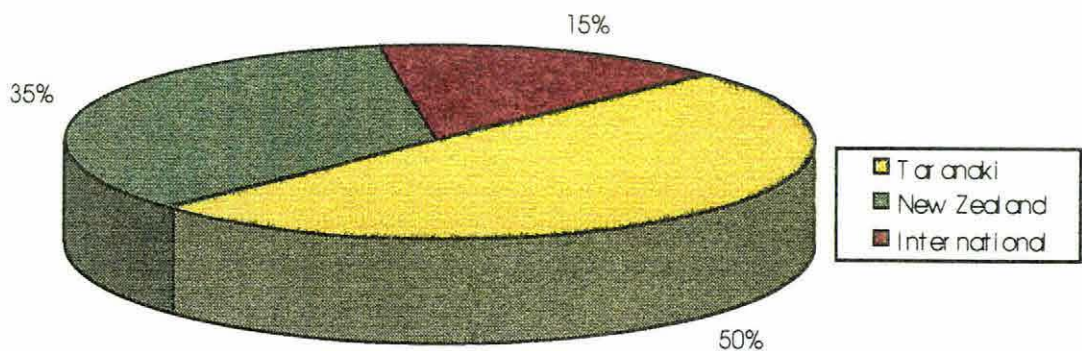
Table 17: Summary of Characteristics displayed by visitors to Egmont National Park (Source: Lawrence *et al*, 1996)

Characteristic	Summary of results
Age	Tended to be adults aged 20-40 years
Place of residence	Taranaki 50%; New Zealand 35%; International 15%
Mode of transport	Private cars heavily dominate as mode of transport
Gender	Slightly more male than female visitors
Employment	Visitors are more likely to be better educated and hold more professional employment than the general population;
Ethnicity	Visitors are predominantly of European ethnicity. International visitors from Australia, Europe and Japan.
Length of visit	Three-quarters of trips were a day or less in length, very few visitors stayed more than six days
Group size	Smaller group sizes (2-4) were more common and these were primarily friends and/or family.
Previous visits to national park	Half the respondents had visited the park more than five times before, a quarter 1-5 times before, and for the remainder it was their first visit.
Club membership	Over 40% of visitors belonged to clubs, which tended to be alpine and adventure orientated, and are more likely to be regular visitors and more likely to spend more than two days visiting Egmont National Park
Activities undertaken	The most common activities undertaken by visitors to the national park were viewing the scenery, taking photographs, walking and tramping.
Motivations	The most important motivation for visiting the park was the beauty of natural features followed by tramping and walking, though living close to the park and its accessibility were also important influences.

The results of the survey by Lawrence (1994) and the early consultation undertaken during the preparation of the draft Egmont National Park management plan show that a number of groups are important to the park. In particular, clubs play a very important role as approximately 40% of visitors associate themselves with an alpine or tramping club, whether or not they are on organised club trips.

5.4 The Process

5.4.1 Introduction

The majority of the issues in relation to co-management of Egmont National Park were raised during early consultation on the review of the management plan. The aim of this section is to describe the issues for Egmont National Park, including the context for decision making. This provides the framework for developing options for co-management. The CMS for the Wanganui Conservancy provides a significant

component of this framework. Conservation management plans (such as national park management plans) are not to be inconsistent with the CMS. The preparation of the management plan for Egmont National Park is significant in that it is one of the first to be prepared within the framework provided by the CMS (Pollock and Horsley, 1997).

5.4.2 Legislative and Policy Context

The legislation governing national parks in New Zealand has been described in some detail in Chapter 4. The Conservation Act 1987 and the NPAct form the basis of this legislative and policy context. One of the requirements of the Conservation Act 1987 is the production of a CMS for each conservancy area.

The CMS for the Wanganui Conservancy was approved by the New Zealand Conservation Authority in April, 1997. The CMS has undergone a significant public consultation process, initiated in 1993, in accordance with section 17F of the Conservation Act 1987 (see Figure 26).

A great amount of time has been spent on consultation during the preparation of the Wanganui CMS, specifically into the relationship with iwi in the conservancy. The CMS is structured to provide management direction across the conservancy for both specific places and functions.

Plate 9: The Stoney River and Bells falls are two popular sites within the park
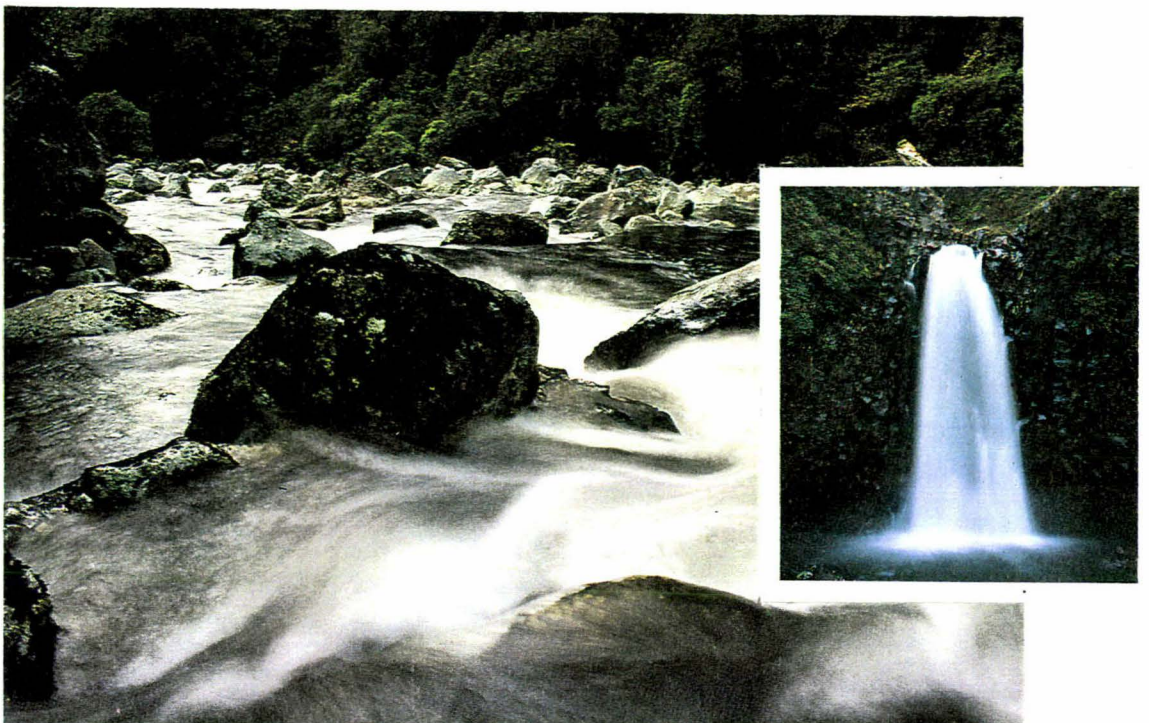
Figure 26: Preparation of the Wanganui CMS

1993
Issues and Options Public Discussion Document released, and submissions considered in preparation of draft CMS.

↓

April 1995
Draft CMS publicly notified. 365 submissions received from individuals and organisations. 49 submitters heard by DoC and Conservation Board representatives

↓

Draft CMS revised after consideration of submissions

↓

April 1996
Draft Revised CMS presented to Taranaki/Wanganui and Rangitkei / Hawkes Bay Conservation Boards, including a summary of submissions.

↓

Changes requested by Conservation Boards incorporated in revised draft.

↓

October 1996
Draft CMS recommended to New Zealand Conservation Authority by Conservation Boards

↓

NZCA consulted Minister of Conservation and requested further amendments

↓

April 1997
Wanganui Conservancy CMS approved by New Zealand Conservation Authority

The conservancy has been divided into eight ecological 'districts' (including the Egmont ecological district). The management objectives for these districts focus on the specific values and threats that exist. In addition, functional objectives provide broad objectives, identify priorities and outline implementation measures to achieve objectives for the whole conservancy. Functional objectives have been developed to cover the following:

- Treaty of Waitangi;

- Management of Natural and Historic Resources;

- Threat Management;

- Use Management;

- Recreation;

- Public Awareness; and

- Statutory Planning and Liaison.

The CMS provides guidance on implementation, monitoring and review, a critical function in any planning or management process.

The management policies of the CMS provided a framework for developing the management plan for Egmont National Park and for potential partnerships based on co-management. It is recognised in the CMS that *"it may be necessary for amendments to be made to reflect changed priorities or where provisions have become outdated or provide inadequate direction."* (pg. 421). However, the extensive consultation process for the Wanganui CMS means there is a high degree of public 'ownership' of the document as a whole, and it is unlikely that there would be any major amendments to the CMS in the first few years following completion (pers comm. Jeff Mitchell-Anyon, 1997).

The following analysis provides those objectives and implementation measures from the Wanganui CMS that are important to co-management in Egmont National Park. It does not reflect objectives that are important to park management as a whole.

The analysis is based on both the functional objectives and relevant objectives for the Egmont ecological district. The objectives referenced for each function are not necessarily complete. They have been selected to provide a framework to address issues relating to the implementation of co-management.

Treaty of Waitangi

Objectives:	
12.7.2(i)	To ensure the spiritual significance of Mt. Taranaki/Egmont to Taranaki Tangata Whenua is better understood by: • regular consultation with Taranaki Tangata Whenua on cultural matters; • seeking opportunities for dialogue when matters of cultural importance arise, particularly on matters concerning "use" in the park; • ensuring Tangata Whenua input is sought and responded to when the Egmont National Park Management Plan is reviewed; • seeking Tangata Whenua response to recreational activities which may conflict with their views. • recognising customary use if water, plant life and cultural materials where this is consistent with any management plan for the park.
16.1(ii)	To develop effective relationships with Tangata Whenua which enable Treaty obligations to be dealt with in a practical, reciprocal and progressive way.
16.1(iii)	To establish, maintain and enhance effective co-operation with Tangata Whenua in...[conservation management]...and open and free dialogue in the Conservancy on all aspects of conservation work.
16.1(iv)	To give effect to the principles of the Treaty, recognising the principles of co-operation and integrating the concept of Kaitiakitanga[13] into conservation policies and practices.
17.1(iii)	To strengthen conservation achievement by drawing on the cultural values of Tangata Whenua and Pakeha in the management of natural and historical resources.

Analysis:

The objectives in the CMS relating to the partnership between DoC and tangata whenua provide an excellent foundation for developing a co-management arrangement. Innovative conservation planning and management techniques will be required if implementation of these objectives is to be successful.

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[13] This is defined in the Wanganui CMS Glossary as *"The exercise of guardianship. In relation to a resource this includes the ethic of stewardship based on the nature of the resource itself"* (from the Resource Management Act 1991).

Management of Natural and Historic Resources

Objectives	
23.1(i)	To manage threatened species in order to enhance their populations and improve their conservation status.
26.3.1(ii)	Share information on natural, historic and recreation values with territorial authorities, Tangata Whenua and other organisations involved in conservation of these values.
27.1(iii)	To encourage local communities and landowners to undertake restoration of ecosystems on private land, particularly where this will assist in linking fragmented areas of land administered by the Department.
28.1	To achieve compliance with the legislation governing protection of natural and historic resources.

Analysis

These functional objectives include a diverse range of conservation management activities, such as land management, marine conservation, threatened species management and ecological restoration. In a number of these functions, DoC hold a great deal of expertise. Tangata whenua also hold a great deal of expertise in these areas. An overview of the type and range of objectives being sought by DoC indicates those functions that may be assisted by greater knowledge sharing and co-operation.

These objectives form some of what may be termed the 'common ground' for a co-management agreement. That is, those values that are generally held in common by all stakeholders, and for which Egmont National Park has been set aside. As discussed in Chapter three, co-management can achieve a number of positive outcomes that are not easily achieved using more 'traditional' management approaches, such as regulation and enforcement. Empowering communities to manage and protect resources in protected areas may have a positive effect on conservation (and other common goals, such as deterring vandalism of huts) as communities become self policing.

Threat management

Objectives	
31.1.1(ii)	To gain community acceptance of and support for the need for animal

Analysis

The control of pests, such as possums, in Egmont National Park has been a relatively contentious issue. The method of control which came under the highest criticism from the public generally, but in particular iwi, was 1080 poison drops. The issue of threat

management is difficult to approach in some instances. The need to carry out fast and effective control of possums also had to be balanced by a need for public acceptance of the control method.

Overseas experience has shown that co-management arrangements also allow decisions to be made which all communities are involved with. This may mean communities are more aware of the need to carry out certain threat management operations. This is one example of where higher degrees of public involvement (rather than informing or consulting with the public) in management decisions may be beneficial from the point of view of public relationships with DoC.

Use Management

Objectives	
34.1.1	To allow the taking of materials for traditional purposes where it has approval from Tangata Whenua, is lawful and does not significantly impact on the population of that species or other natural or historic values.
34.7.1(ii)	To limit the impact of currently leased buildings and structures to the minimum practicable.
35.1(ii)	To restrict development of skiing facilities in Egmont National Park to the existing Manganui Skifield Management Area.

Analysis

The issue of cultural harvesting is extremely important in Taranaki. The resources of the mountain have been used for many generations. A number of materials cannot be found elsewhere, or are found in most abundance in the park. Medicinal plants, water, kokowai (red ochre) and other materials are commonly gathered from within the park. While not all iwi traditionally had 'access' to the mountain, it was generally accepted that resources were shared between Taranaki iwi (Hond, 1993). Use management is also a function which requires specific consultation with Taranaki iwi (see Objective 12.7.2(i)).

The management of the range of uses of the park was raised as a critical issue during the management plan review by a number of stakeholders. Specifically, those with existing structures within the park (huts) were concerned about their ongoing use rights. In particular, the use (and expansion) of the Manganui skifield and associated facilities was raised by the Stratford Mountain Club as a pressing issue to be resolved (pers. comm., Shane Herbert, 1996). The resolution of these issues may be appropriately discussed in a forum with all stakeholders. At the present time there is limited dialogue between

DoC and clubs such as SMC. This often leads to unconstructive public conflicts over park management.

Recreation

Objectives	
37.1.1(i)	To maintain and improve free public access to areas administered by the Department.
37.4.1(ii)	To allow the use of foot-launched, non-motorised aircraft in areas administered by the Department, where this does not conflict with natural, historic or recreation values.
38.1.1(i)	To provide a range of walking opportunities for visitors and to manage associated impacts.
39.5.1(i)	To provide opportunities for overnight and extended stays for visitors in areas administered by the Department...
40.3.1	To provide an effective information service to visitors which enhances public understanding and enjoyment of areas administered by the Department and an appreciation of natural and historic recreation values.

Analysis

Recreation is a major activity in the park. The need to co-ordinate and increase awareness of the effects of some recreational activities may be enhanced through co-operation between all stakeholders. The provision of tracks and huts is an issue of high priority for the number of tramping and alpine clubs in Taranaki. These clubs have had a huge influence on park management in the past, and many have maintained certain tracks through an 'adopt-a-track' type programme which are informally established by clubs.

If DoC could incorporate the efforts of clubs into its work programmes, the sum of resources available could enable better outcomes across the board. It is important that the range of recreation activities that occur in the park, and their impacts on conservation, other recreation users, and other stakeholders is recognised and understood by all. In this way, the Objectives of the CMS, and subsequent policies in the management plan must begin to frame a response to any conflicts and deal with these issues in an open and consultative manner.

Public Awareness

Objectives	
12.7.9(i)	To utilise public awareness opportunities at road ends within the park to explain the natural, historic and recreation values.
40.2.1	To ensure that visitors are informed about the origins, meanings and values of a place or event to give them a better appreciation of what they have experienced.
42.1.1(i)	To enhance public enjoyment of land administered by the Department and appreciation of its natural and historic values.
42.1.1(ii)	To improve public appreciation and understanding of and support for conservation and for the work of the Department.
42.2.1(ii)	To encourage and support community conservation initiatives.
42.3.1	To develop and maintain support for and contributions to conservation and the work of the Department through continued liaison with key associates.

Analysis

One of the critical issues in Taranaki in relation to any proposed co-management structures will be public awareness and support for this concept. In the background to co-management in Taranaki is the land claims process. This very public and political process has, and will continue to generate enormous public division, debate and uncertainty until such time as all people come to an understanding of all the issues, both historical and future.

One of the strengths of the co-management model that is proposed is that all stakeholders are involved in the co-management arrangement. At any level, this will enable a number of the objectives of the CMS to be met more readily, as key people and stakeholder groups will be integrated in the process. This in turn raises understanding and awareness of conservation related issues, and may encourage greater community involvement in conservation projects.

Summary

The CMS provides an excellent framework for greater community involvement in park management. The relationship between the CMS and Conservation Management Plans (CMP's) is clearly spelt out in the Conservation Act 1987. The development of management plans for national parks is required by the NPAct.

The relationship between the CMS and the management plan for Egmont National Park was a matter debated from the outset of the review process. At the time of preparing the draft management plan, there were few instances of national park management plans being prepared within the framework of a CMS. Concerns expressed by field centre

manager Rudy Tetteroo and field centre staff, indicated that the new management plan must be more relevant to the park, and staff to ensure it is used more as a tool for management on a daily basis.

There were two options relating to conservation management plans (such as for national parks) that were being debated at the time. These were:

- that the management plan for the park provide a summary of CMS provisions where it provides adequate direction for the park; or

- that the management plan for a national park should be a stand alone document (in the case of Egmont National Park this also meant incorporating two operational plans - the Track and Hut Plan, and the Road Ends Working Plan) to allow members of the community to read only the park management plan to understand the vision, management direction and implications of management for the park and activities therein.

The Wanganui / Taranaki Conservation Board was consulted on this issue in December 1995, and it was decided that the plan should attempt to be stand alone where possible in order to ensure it was relevant and complete. The CMS forms the strategic framework of objectives within which park management issues are considered. The park management plan provides more specific guidance and policy direction based on the CMS framework.

5.4.3 Management Plan Review Process:

The process for reviewing the management plan for a national park is established by the NPAct, and the Conservation Act 1987 (see fig from Chapter 4). The development of a draft management plan for presentation to the Wanganui / Taranaki Conservation Board was assisted by early consultation with key stakeholders, including iwi, recreation and mountaineering groups, environmental groups and Department of Conservation staff.

This section outlines the major phases of this consultation. The major issues that were raised will be discussed from the viewpoint of whether the statutory conservation planning processes provides adequate opportunity for public input prior to the release of draft management plans. A full list of the stakeholders who were 'consulted' during this phase of the management plan preparation is contained in Appendix 8.

The current management plan for Egmont National Park was operative from 1986, and was prepared under the NPAct, but was not consistent with the new provisions of the Conservation Act 1987 or the CMS. The Act requires that management plans are reviewed at intervals of not more that ten years (section 46(3)). Park manager Rudy Tetteroo believed that the plan was due for review as it had become outdated and did not assist DoC in addressing a number of critical issues (pers. comm. Tetteroo, 1995).

In order to gain a broad understanding of the management issues in the park, and to make the plan relevant to both staff and the general public, it was decided that an early consultation process be undertaken prior to reviewing the existing plan and preparing a proposed draft. These essentially involved four informal 'phases'. These were:

- **Department of Conservation Staff:** a number of discussions were held with staff, both at the Conservancy office, and field staff from the Stratford field centre. This enabled staff to pinpoint those policies that were failing to achieve the desired outcomes, and identified areas where the management plan did not address certain issues. At this early stage staff identified iwi issues (such as cultural harvesting) to be poorly addressed by the operative management plan.

- **Taranaki / Wanganui Conservation Board:** a subcommittee of the Taranaki / Wanganui Conservation Board was established to oversee the review of the management plan. This review sub-committee consisted of Barry Hartley (Board Chairman), Raima Kingi, Charles Hohaia and Peter Horsley. Workshops were held with the review subcommittee on the proposed approach of the review, which was to include a greater level of consultation than that required by legislation prior to the release of the draft management plan. The full conservation board were also consulted at early stages over critical issues, such as the way the management plan should fit into the new planning regime.

- **Community groups:** A number of key stakeholders in the community were identified by staff, and through general investigation into park history. A process and time frame was discussed with the conservation Board for early consultation with these groups and individuals. In general most groups or clubs called special meetings to discuss issues relating to the park. Feedback from these groups was extremely positive. Many noted that DoC visited

their groups very infrequently to discuss park related issues, and that relationships needed to be improved through further and more regular discussions.

- **Taranaki iwi:** Discussions were held with a number of iwi from Taranaki. Face to face discussions were not held with all iwi during the early consultation due to all iwi being heavily involved with the research and preparation of submissions to the Waitangi Tribunal on the WAI 143 Taranaki Raupatu Claims. Discussions began with iwi from late November 1995 and continued until April 1996 in relation to the management plan.

The process of reviewing the management plan, and producing a draft plan took approximately six months, from September 1995 to April 1996. The draft management plan presented to the Taranaki / Wanganui Conservation Board in April 1996 is yet to be notified for public submissions due to DoC awaiting the completion of the CMS, and having insufficient resources to carry out the two projects at the same time. The following time frame indicates the major 'stages' of the preparation of the draft management plan:

Plate 10: Lowland forests were being devastated by possum damage until 1080 was used in 1995/6

Figure 27: Egmont National Park Management Plan Review 1995/96

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┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│      Call for early submissions  │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
            │  Analysis of issues
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│  Early consultation and review   │
│    of existing management plan   │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│  Development of Management       │
│  philosophy / Consultation with  │
│  Conservation Board              │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│  Further consultation with key   │
│  stakeholders and DoC staff      │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
            │
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│  Development of draft objectives │
│  and implementation measures     │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
            │  Presentation of draft management
            │  plan to Conservation Board
            ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│  Statutory Notification Process  │
│  - National Parks Act 1980       │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
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5.4.4 Management Philosophy

In developing a management plan for Egmont National Park, it was recognised that the park and networks of protected areas play an important role in national efforts to preserve biodiversity. During the management plan review process, it was recognised that *"an essential element in a well managed park system is the management plan which establishes policies for the management of Egmont National Park for the next ten years"* (Pollock, 1996).

The CMS included a vision for the Egmont ecological region which provided a good starting point for developing the philosophy for the management of the park. This

vision recognises the importance of the mountain to local communities and the values that make the park important. The vision is as follows:

"Egmont National Park will gain enhanced recognition for its natural features. The mountain will be known for its natural and historic values and relationships to Tangata Whenua. The full range of indigenous plants and animals will remain and all major animal and weed threats to the Park will be eradicated or controlled. Visitors to the Park have caused less damage and learn more about its natural, cultural and historic values. The impacts of commercial and recreational utilities within the Park will be reduced while interpretation facilities will be enhanced. The quality and flow of water on the ring-plain is protected and enhanced. The few scattered natural areas outside the Park are legally protected. Key parts of the marine environment and the adjoining coast are formally protected and the remainder used sustainably." (DoC, 1997).

The management philosophy builds on the vision for the ecological region. It is a broad statement of intent and direction for Egmont National Park, and includes concepts of co-management at a number of appropriate levels. The management philosophy guided the review and development of objectives for specific issues.

The concept of a management philosophy first emerged following early consultation with Taranaki iwi and community groups. These groups raised a number of significant issues that they felt were either not being adequately addressed or were of such importance that they should lead the future direction of park management. It was clear that a negotiated management philosophy would enable a common ground to be established with a number of stakeholders. Therefore, the issue of developed an overarching philosophy was first raised with the review sub-committee on 30 January 1996.

From the outset of the review process a number of key issues arose from both the vision for the Egmont ecological district in the CMS and the role the park was seen to play in the regional and national community. These were:

- kaitiakitanga / guardianship;
- spiritual / cultural relationships;
- management;

- ecological island concepts;

- recreation compatibility with conservation;

- the unique setting; and

- public visitation.

These issues were developed further in association with the review sub-committee and the following goals were finalised in association with a number of key stakeholders in the region, including a number of iwi who provided an indication that the management philosophy was in general acceptable at a hui in February 1996. The goals for Egmont National Park articulated within the management philosophy for the purpose of the management plan review are shown below:

Table 18: Management Philosophy for Egmont National Park

Kaitiakitanga/ Guardianship
To recognise the kaitiaki role of the tangata whenua, and the guardianship role of the Department and the communities of interest.
Spiritual / Cultural
To recognise the range of spiritual and cultural values which people place on the mountain.
Management
To develop a co-operative relationship in the management of the Park with tangata whenua and the communities of interest.
Ecological Island
To manage the Park as an ecological island / sanctuary to ensure its ongoing ecological health.
Recreation Compatibility
To provide for a range of recreation opportunities in the Park which are compatible with other principles, especially passive outdoor enjoyment of the Park.
Setting
To recognise the mountain's dynamic and dangerous environment, its symbolic nature to the region, and its importance for sustaining the functioning of natural systems that ensure the supply of water and nutrients to the people of Taranaki.
Public Visitation
To recognise the importance of the Park for public visitation purposes, including the potential to provide interpretation, information, and education with a conservation emphasis.

Analysis / Discussion

The management philosophy has since been instrumental in establishing a common ground between iwi in Taranaki and DoC in relation to the park. The management philosophy was discussed at a hui with Taranaki iwi in February 1996 at Opunake, and

a letter was subsequently sent to Bill Carlin, Regional Conservator, seeking the development of a co-management relationship with DoC.

5.4.5 Issues

The proximity and importance of Egmont National Park to the rest of the Taranaki region, mean there are a number of conservation, recreation and resource management issues are raised in any discussion with key stakeholders. While a number of issues in the park gain a higher degree of public attention than others (such as access to the skifield), one of the issues raised continuously in relation to the park is the way in which the local community are involved in its management. This is in part a reflection of the history of park management.

The review of a management plan should raise a number of significant issues to be addressed. Issues have arisen during a number of different phases, including the early consultation undertaken in late 1995 and early 1996. A number of issues have been identified in relation to Egmont National Park. These relate to a range of core conservation management issues, to visitor use and recreation issues, and community involvement in park management.

Table 19: Key Issues Identified in the CMS

Addition of unformed legal roads and other adjacent land with high natural, historic or recreation values to the park	Recognition of the spiritual significance of Mt. Taranaki to Tangata Whenua and their involvement in management
The need for consultation with Tangata Whenua about tikanga and cultural values.	Impacts of the high level of research activity and collection of specimens
The potential to introduce North Island robin	Continued release and monitoring of blue duck
Lack of knowledge about both bat species	Impact of goats and possums
Threat of the establishment of further wild animals, such as deer and pigs	Impact of weeds, especially wild ginger
Control of skifield development	Upgrade of visitor centre displays and interpretation
Visitor safety	Aircraft use
Improvement to facilities at road ends (including Tangata Whenua input)	Impacts of telecommunications facilities
Waste water management	Involvement of private sector in providing visitor services.

Table 20:   Summary of issues arising from early consultation on Draft Egmont National Park Management Plan

[NB: These issues provide a background for the types of issues raised by submitters in the early consultation phase of the management plan review process.]

Issue	Position on issue
Level of development in the park	• no new structures above the bushline; • tourist facilities should occur outside the park;
Standard of park infrastructure	• improvements required in some tracks and huts, but not to a level of 'Great Walks' • park should be maintained in its present condition; • old unused or unnecessary huts should be removed; • road ends should contain weather and mountain information ; • tracks should not be closed
Nature and role of the park	• the role of the park should remain the same
Private huts within park	• the use of private alpine huts within the park should be retained
Use of aircraft in and around the park	• the presence of air traffic potentially detracts from the experience, aircraft use should be limited to existing levels; • the launch of non-powered aircraft is acceptable from the summit
Involvement of park users with DoC	• continue park user meetings
Skiing facilities	• skiing facilities should not be restricted to existing facilities;

Conservation management issues in Egmont National Park reflect common themes and conflicts that exist in many parts of the conservation estate. The demand for more and better facilities must be balanced against a desirable level of development within the park. The park essentially must retain a feeling of naturalness and isolation. These use and conservation conflicts are the major issues facing the park. Addressing specific issues, such as pest control, within the park will inevitably create conflict due to the range of positions and interests of stakeholders. Co-management potentially provides a framework for dialogue and understanding on these key issues.

5.5   Co-management in Egmont National Park

5.5.1 Introduction

This section aims to develop structures for the collaborative management of Egmont National Park. The partnerships required for such a management arrangement are

numerous, as there are a number of stakeholders with different positions on a number of different issues. In addition, co-management in Egmont National Park must begin to address issues of practical sustainability. The various resource management regimes that exist across the Taranaki region have largely been imposed through local, government, resource management and conservation legislation. Integration of these regimes must focus on practical solutions for the numerous issues facing the region in terms of sustainability.

Co-management in Egmont National Park must be considered in conjunction with ownership issues which are currently being debated through the present Treaty claims process, and through the Waitangi Tribunal.

A number of preconditions for co-management have been developed (see section 3.10.1). A quick overview of these preconditions in relation to Egmont National Park indicates there is certainly scope for the development of a co-management agreement. The preconditions include:

(1)   **Resource threat**: a number of threats face the park, such as pest control and overuse. A range of community groups are recognising the urgent importance of addressing these issues, particularly as DoC are increasingly under-resourced to address existing and potential threats.

(2)   **Stakeholder commitment**: a range of community groups have provided resources, such as financial resources, and labour, to a number of projects in the park. One simple example is the common practice of a number of tramping clubs to 'adopt a track' and maintain it to a reasonable standard. If this willingness to contribute resources to the ongoing protection of the park is fostered by DoC, the likelihood of the establishment of a co-management agreement would be enhanced.

(3)   **Opportunities for negotiation:** a number of opportunities exist for the negotiation of a co-management agreement. Perhaps the most significant is the present discussion and hearing of the raupatu claims at the Waitangi Tribunal. The experience of Kakadu National Park in Australia showed that issues of ownership provide a unique opportunity to discuss the broad future of the park. While these issues are contentious, they do provide the required opportunity for dialogue.

The principles developed in Chapter three are critical to the nature of the partnership to be developed in a co-management arrangement. Important principles are based around the following broad themes:

- ecosystems

- self determination / community empowerment;

- open participation;

- social justice;

- management / ownership continuums

- sustainable environmental management

- conflict minimisation and resolution

The principles relating to conservation management, processes and relationships (identified in Chapter three) provide a sound basis for partnerships to be formed. The range of themes outlined above recognises that there are a number of areas where conflict or differences will occur. It is therefore important that areas of common ground are highlighted. These will form the initial basis and strength of these partnerships. These principles will, in part, assist in the development of appropriate processes and structures for developing any co-management agreement.

5.5.2 Ownership Issues - Egmont National Park

The ownership of Egmont National Park is a matter that has been a matter of discussion since the mountain and its lower slopes were confiscated (Waitangi Tribunal, 1996). The ownership of the mountain is tied up with ownership issues of significant areas of land around the Taranaki region which were confiscated prior to, during, and after the Taranaki Land wars (1860-1869). The significance of the ownership issue to Taranaki iwi cannot be understated. This was illustrated many times during the review of the management plan as many key people around Taranaki were too involved in researching and preparing for the Waitangi Tribunal hearing to provide detailed input to the review.

The issue of ownership of the mountain has been most recently addressed through the production of a preliminary report on the findings of the Waitangi Tribunal on the Taranaki claims. The claims were brought to the Tribunal as 'Muru me te Raupatu'. In Taranaki, 'muru' describes the confiscation or plunder of property as punishment for

alleged offences, 'raupatu', the conquest or subjugation of the people by Government control. In a letter to the Minister of Maori Affairs and the Minister in Charge of Treaty Negotiations sent from the Chairperson of the Waitangi Tribunal accompanying the release of the interim report on the Taranaki Claims, E.T. Durie noted:

> *"If the impact of Treaty breaches and the measures necessary to restore an equilibrium are significant criteria, then the gravamen of the enclosed report is to forewarn you that you may be dealing with the country's largest claim"* (Durie, 1996).

It is useful to briefly summarise the issues associated with the Taranaki claim as they have been presented by the Waitangi Tribunal. Many issues associated with the ongoing grievances of Taranaki iwi may, at some point in the future, be tied to a possible co-management arrangement as a method of remedying some issues.

The Waitangi Tribunal (1996) noted that the real grievance issue does not revolve around either the land wars or land confiscation, but rather the relationship between the Crown and Maori. This relationship at present, and the whole history of Government dealings with Maori of Taranaki has been the antithesis of that envisaged by the Treaty of Waitangi (Waitangi Tribunal, 1996).

Land Wars and Land Confiscation

Land conflict in Taranaki began with the arrival of the first settlers in 1841. Initial tension was between Maori themselves, although the attempts of settlers to acquire land was clearly the cause. The outbreak of war in 1860 had been preceded by 19 years of tension and fighting. War in Taranaki raged for an unprecedented nine years, beginning before similar land wars in Auckland, Hauraki, Waikato, Urewera, and the East Coast, and ending after wars in these areas had finished. Taranaki Maori consequently suffered more as a result. Conflict did not cease with the abandonment of arms, but continued through passive resistance to the broken promises of land from the Government. The Government had confiscated large areas of land; promised reserves necessary for hapu survival were never returned, but rather leased in perpetuity to European settlers.

Continuing Expropriation

There are continuing expropriation claims that resulted from Government imposing significantly different land tenure systems on those lands eventually returned to Maori as reserves. This imposed land tenure was *"probably the most destructive and*

demoralising of the forms of expropriation" (Waitangi Tribunal, 1996). All land returned as reserve was individualised, meaning no land passed back was in the condition it was taken. This move was undertaken without consent of Maori, and made alienation more likely as the imposed land tenure system undermined the social order, Maori leadership and authority.

Maori land continued to be sought for Government works as late as the 1970's and 1980's through such public works as the New Plymouth Airport and various major economic projects in North Taranaki.

Autonomy

The second major component of the Taranaki claim with a significant influence on the relationship between the Crown and Maori, is disempowerment. Disempowerment is used to mean the destruction of Maori autonomy or self-government, a concept that is critical both to the Treaty and the partnership it represents. During the period of confiscations, 'purchase' and war in Taranaki, the Government presumed it could determine matters of customary Maori policy better than Maori. At no point throughout the history of conflict and grievance in Taranaki did Maori depart from their position on autonomy change. This position has two key elements:

- that autonomy is the inherent right of all peoples' in their native countries;

- that on colonisation of inhabited countries, sovereignty in the sense of absolute power, cannot be vested in only one of the parties.

The Waitangi Tribunal (1996) concludes that the Treaty of Waitangi effectively constrained the ability of Government to assume complete sovereignty in as far as there is a need to respect Maori authority (or 'tino rangatiratanga'). (For further information on the Taranaki claims, the Waitangi Tribunal (1996) Taranaki Report should be consulted directly.)

Mt. Egmont Vesting Act 1978

In relation to the mountain itself, the Mt. Egmont Vesting Act 1978 returned the mountain to the ownership of the TMTB. By the same Act the Trust Board immediately gifted the mountain back to the nation as a national park.

The chronology of events prior to the symbolic gifting of the mountain spanned two Governments and generated considerable debate. In 1975 a petition from the Chairman

of the TMTB was presented to the then Prime Minister the Rt. Hon. W. Rowling. The petition sought:

- a $10 million cash payment as compensation for the loss suffered through confiscation; and

- the return of Maunga Taranaki and the restoration of its Maori name.

The effect of this petition was that the Minister of Lands instructed his department to develop proposals for the revesting of confiscated areas.

There was a great deal of controversy and debate relating to the revesting of the mountain. This criticism was directed at both parties to the negotiations leading up to the revesting, that is the Government and the TMTB. The TMTB were criticised by Taranaki iwi for both acting outside the ambit of their authority and failing to consult with the iwi and hapu they represented. The mountain became known by many Maori in Taranaki as the 'Magic Mountain' - 'now you have it, now you don't'. At the "official" return of the mountain in June 1979 at the Manukorihi Pa, Waitara, many Maori from Taranaki and beyond voiced their disapproval at the return of the mountain. The Taranaki Herald headline of 25 June read "Maoris Angry over gifting of Mt. Egmont".

The Government was also not beyond criticism for their response to the initial 1975 petition. The TMTB had made three requests through the negotiations on the Bill. These were:

- that the mountain be renamed to its original name, Taranaki, and that the park also be renamed Taranaki National Park;

- that the park be exempt from all mining to safeguard the mountain physically, spiritually and culturally; and

- that provision be made on the Park Board for a member of the TMTB and a person representing the formal tribal owners.

The $10 million cash payment the TMTB requested in the petition was never paid, but rather the boards annuity was increased from $10,000 to $15,000. The annuity itself had also been subject to intense debate in the past.

The consultation surrounding the Bill was minimal. The Egmont National Park Board was notified of the Bill by memorandum on 23 June, 1978, and the TMTB were notified

on the 10 July with comments due back to the Government on 17 July[14]. This gave the Trust Board one week to notify iwi, consult them as to their views, discuss the implications of the Bill and reply in writing. The huge number of objections to the revesting process bears testimony to the inadequate consultation process surrounding the legislation. The Act itself can also be seen as a failure in terms of delivering the three requests of the Trust Board. These were: participation in park management, renaming of the mountain, and a ban on mining.

The TMTB representative position on the Egmont National Park Board was negotiated separately and has no direct linkage with the earlier petition of the Vesting Act (Hond, 1993). The representation of former tribal owners has never been provided for.

The naming issue was the subject of intense public debate, and remains so to this day. The name of the mountain was eventually changed by the New Zealand Geographic Board to a dual name in 1986 (New Zealand Gazette, 1986), even though this was not what was requested by the Trust Board. At the time, the Taranaki National Parks and Reserves Board put its weight behind the TMTB submission seeking the renaming of the mountain, and also suggested changing the name of Park to Taranaki National Park to coincide with the centennial of national parks in 1987. In Maori eyes however, the mana of the Maunga us yet to be fully restored (Hond, 1993). The name change issue was also raised during the management plan review process in 1996 following a briefing paper to the Conservation Board meeting of 15 February, 1996 which suggested five options for renaming the park. The Taranaki Herald Headline read "DoC revives Egmont debate". The name of the park remains Egmont National Park.

The Trust Boards request to protect the Maunga from mining was translated into a provision in the Act (section 6) to consult the Trust Board where any part of the park was to be excluded. This is clearly less than the requested ban on mining. Furthermore, an application for mining was considered by the Taranaki National Parks and Reserves Board in 1988 for seismic testing that would have involved blasting. While the application was strongly opposed by iwi representatives, it was not immediately disallowed by the Park Board.

History shows that the reason the TMTB agreed to the revesting of the mountain was as a gesture of goodwill towards the Government in order to establish positive relationship

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[14] DOC File 1/1 NP 6 Vol. 1

upon which to base further negotiations (Waitangi Tribunal, 1996). Clearly this goodwill has not been returned by the Government. The outcome of the Waitangi Tribunal hearing will therefore be a pivotal element in forming the relationship between the Crown (and its agencies, such as DoC) and Taranaki iwi in the future.

The outcome of this overview of Treaty grievances in Taranaki is that there are a number of issues that need to be resolved through the Treaty settlements process. It is important to discuss the matter of ownership, as a number of co-management arrangements internationally have been instituted as a result of negotiation and settlement of ownership of resources traditionally owned or confiscated from indigenous peoples'. The relationship between ownership and management is an important one. It is however suggested that in the interim period of implementing solutions to immediate conservation threats, the management of resources is the most important aspect of co-management.

5.5.3 Co-management Proposal - 1996

In March 1996 a letter was sent from the Office of the Taranaki Maori Committee (Taranaki Iwi) to the Regional Conservator, Wanganui Conservancy. The purpose of the letter was to register an interest in formalising a relationship with DoC to initiate a process working towards co-management of Egmont National Park.

Taranaki Iwi recognised firstly the special relationship they have held with the Maunga since before the present system of management for the park. One of the important facets of this relationship was bestowing the presence of rangatiratanga on the Maunga by the Iwi (Ratahi to Carlin, 1996). The Iwi recognised the importance of forming relationships with DoC managers in order to preserve the essence of rangatiratanga. It was also noted that every stakeholder in that relationship should be accountable to the principles for management that allow the essence of rangatiratanga to be preserved. Taranaki Iwi also recognised the importance of achieving a common ground for the management of the park to ensure the "ongoing health of the Maunga" (Ratahi to Carlin, 1996).

Taranaki Iwi raised three concerns in relation to such a pilot project for co-management of Egmont National Park. These were:

> (1) **Funding** - commitment to such a pilot project in relation to co-management would need to come from DoC Head office, but driven by

the Wanganui Conservancy and Stratford Field Centre. This is in recognition of the local nature of co-management.

(2) **Structure for co-management** - Taranaki Iwi suggested DoC needed to examine the legislative and policy options for structures that may be used to formalise a co-management relationship. Iwi recognise the need for clear mandate and guidance from the government. It was also recognised that the Iwi 'body' with which DoC would form a relationship, would need to have statutory recognition in order to isolate that body purely to matters relating to the park. The purpose of that body would be conservation and preservation of the Maunga.

(3) **Principles for co-management** - Taranaki Iwi also recognised the importance of establishing a common ground for the management partnership. The process of establishing these principles would be one of the first functions of the proposed co-management 'body'. Following a meeting between DoC representatives[15] and Taranaki Iwi there was "general agreement to accept the principles as a first step towards developing a process for co-management of the park" (Ratahi to Carlin, 1996). The principles referred to are those that were proposed for the management philosophy section of the draft Egmont National Park management plan (see section 5.4.4). Commentary on these 'principles' from the perspective of Taranaki Iwi is contained in Table 21.

The proposal for initiating co-management in Egmont National Park was acknowledged by DoC, but no further research has been undertaken in relation to Egmont National Park. The Department has however commissioned research at Massey University to investigate options for co-management in Wanganui National Park. It is possible that this research may form part of the DoC response to co-management issues nation-wide.

It is likely that before more serious consideration on the part of iwi is given to co-management options for Egmont National Park, Treaty claim negotiations with the Crown will need to be resolved. One of the options

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[15] Representatives of the Department of Conservation at this meeting were Greg Pollock, Rudy Tetteroo, and Rangipo Metekingi.

that should be considered in these negotiations is to seek a co-management arrangement with the Crown.

Table 21: Taranaki Iwi Commentary on Management Philosophy (Source: Ratahi to Carlin, 1996).

The following table is a direct extract from correspondence sent to Bill Carlin, Regional Conservator from Diane Ratahi, Taranaki Maori Committee.

Kaitiakitanga/ Guardianship
To recognise the kaitiaki role of the tangata whenua, and the guardianship role of the Department and the communities of interest.
Commentary -
the primary role of Taranaki Iwi as kaitiaki is to ensure the preservation of this taonga. Historically Taranaki Iwi has worked with other communities of interest who have provided the same care and preservation of this taonga. We recognise the Departments current managerial role as guardians of this taonga.
Spiritual / Cultural
To recognise the range of spiritual and cultural values which people place on the mountain.
Commentary -
the Maunga has an important spiritual relationship with the descendants of Taranaki tribes. It provides particular resources applied to cultural usage by these tribes. Taranaki Iwi recognise the broad and diverse range of spiritual and cultural values placed on the Maunga by both Maori and non-Maori.
Management
To develop a co-operative relationship in the management of the Park with tangata whenua and the communities of interest.
Commentary -
Taranaki Iwi perceive there is a need to develop an active relationship with the Department in the management of the park. There is also the need to ensure other communities are involved in possible structures for co-management including community partnerships for maintaining and enhancing the ecology of the park. Our aim is to ensure ecological health and restoration to protect the rangatiratanga of the Maunga.
Ecological Island
To manage the Park as an ecological island / sanctuary to ensure its ongoing ecological health.
Commentary -
Taranaki Iwi recognise ecological principles for the management of the park are the area for common ground which may form the primary basis for co-management. A co-operative management relationship between both Taranaki Iwi and the Department, making full use of both sources of knowledge, will ensure the protection of this taonga and ensure the preservation of rangatiratanga of the Maunga
Setting
To recognise the mountain's dynamic and dangerous environment, its symbolic nature to the region, and its importance for sustaining the functioning of natural systems that ensure the supply of water

and nutrients to the people of Taranaki.

Commentary -

Recognition of the importance of the Maunga as a symbol of its rangatiratanga status. The Maunga is a provider of water, nutrients, food, cultural materials, and provided security and defence. To Taranaki Iwi, there is a traditional linkage between the Iwi, the land and the Maunga. Therefore, Taranaki Iwi recognise the potential of the linkage between the park, and areas beyond the park boundary, for creating ecological corridors and establishing riparian planting. Advocating the consolidation of this linkage is an action which can be taken jointly by Taranaki Iwi and the Department.

Recreation Compatibility

To provide for a range of recreation opportunities in the Park which are compatible with other principles, especially passive outdoor enjoyment of the Park.

Public Visitation

To recognise the importance of the Park for public visitation purposes, including the potential to provide interpretation, information, and education with a conservation emphasis.

Commentary -

Taranaki Iwi also recognises other recent uses of the park have been created, which include recreation, public visitation, and tourism. These issues will be areas where Iwi and Departmental views differ, and therefore it is important that a co-operative management relationship is established to develop a process to understand relative positions.

5.5.4 Options for Co-management in Egmont National Park

The results of the numerous discussions and early consultation process carried clearly show that conservation planning processes may enable the implementation of co-management agreements for national parks. This can be facilitated by providing for greater involvement of communities in management planning processes. In order to broaden the possibilities for ongoing co-management however, wider solutions need to be examined which are able to compliment planning processes.

A number of structures may be developed in order to give effect to co-management. International examples have been developed in order to provide for the unique circumstances of a particular area or issue. New Zealand national parks are themselves unique, with different stakeholders and issues in each park. Egmont National Park is no different in this regard and it is appropriate that structures that best suit both the park and stakeholders are developed in conjunction with DoC. Suitable structures will be influenced by a number of factors or considerations. These are briefly outlined below. They represent a summary of many of the issues discussed in previous chapters:

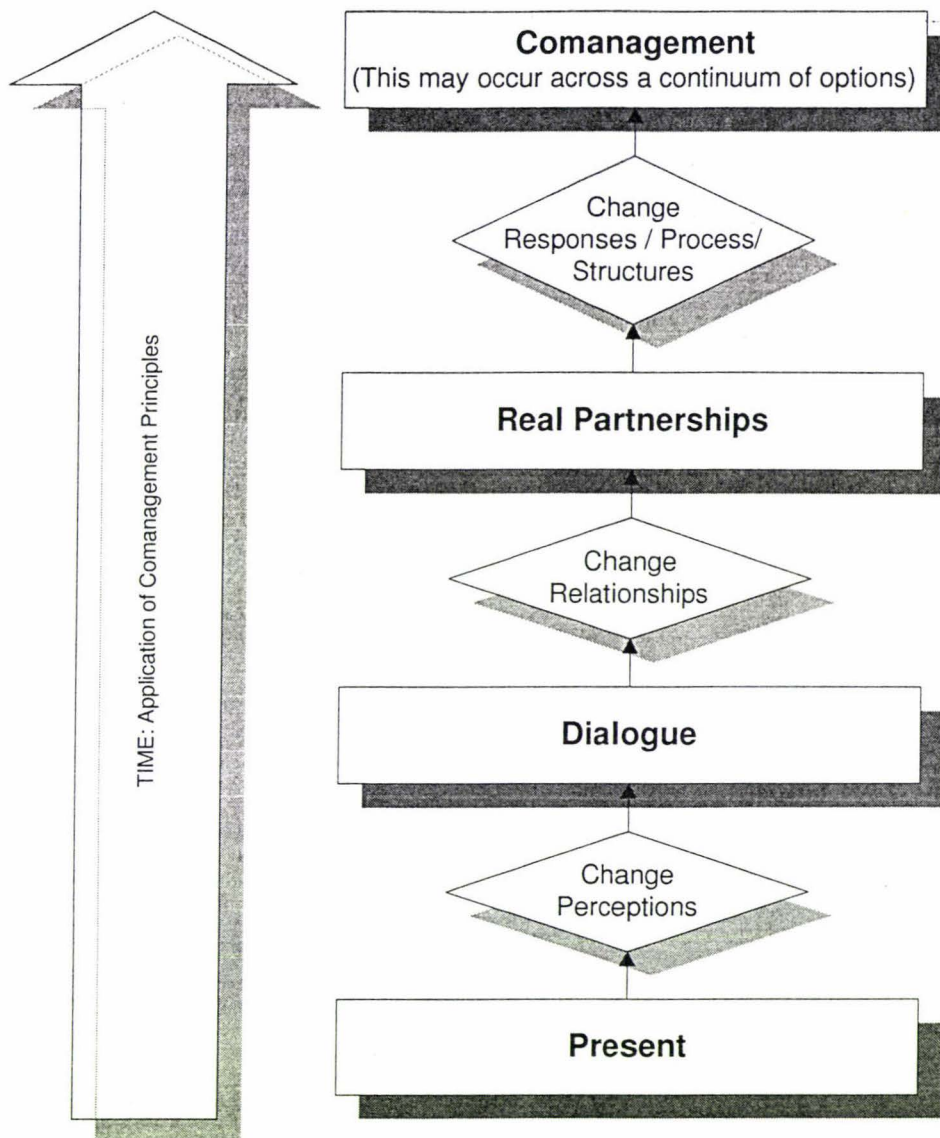**Considerations:**

- Treaty of Waitangi;

- ownership issues;

- conservation goals;

- public access etc.;

- integration with other agencies and sustainable management

- structures of community groups / iwi

- stakeholders

- principles (broad co-management principles)

Structures

Four options for structures to implement co-management are outlined below. These structures have been developed based on the above considerations.

It is recognised that any move towards co-management must take into account the time required for implementation. The various shifts in perceptions, relationships and responses required by co-management mean people must be able to deliver these changes at a rate which is both acceptable to them, and ensures the common goals being sought by all parties are achieved. Figure 28 illustrates these changes over time from the present to any number of management options in the future.

Comanagement
(This may occur across a continuum of options)

Change
Responses / Process/
Structures

Real Partnerships

Change
Relationships

Dialogue

Change
Perceptions

Present

TIME: Application of Comanagement Principles

While these options are by no means exhaustive, they reflect some of the scenarios that are being sought by Taranaki iwi and other groups interested in co-management.

The options are as follows:

Option 1: Community Advisory Groups

Option 2: Park Management Board

Option 3: Partnership Forum

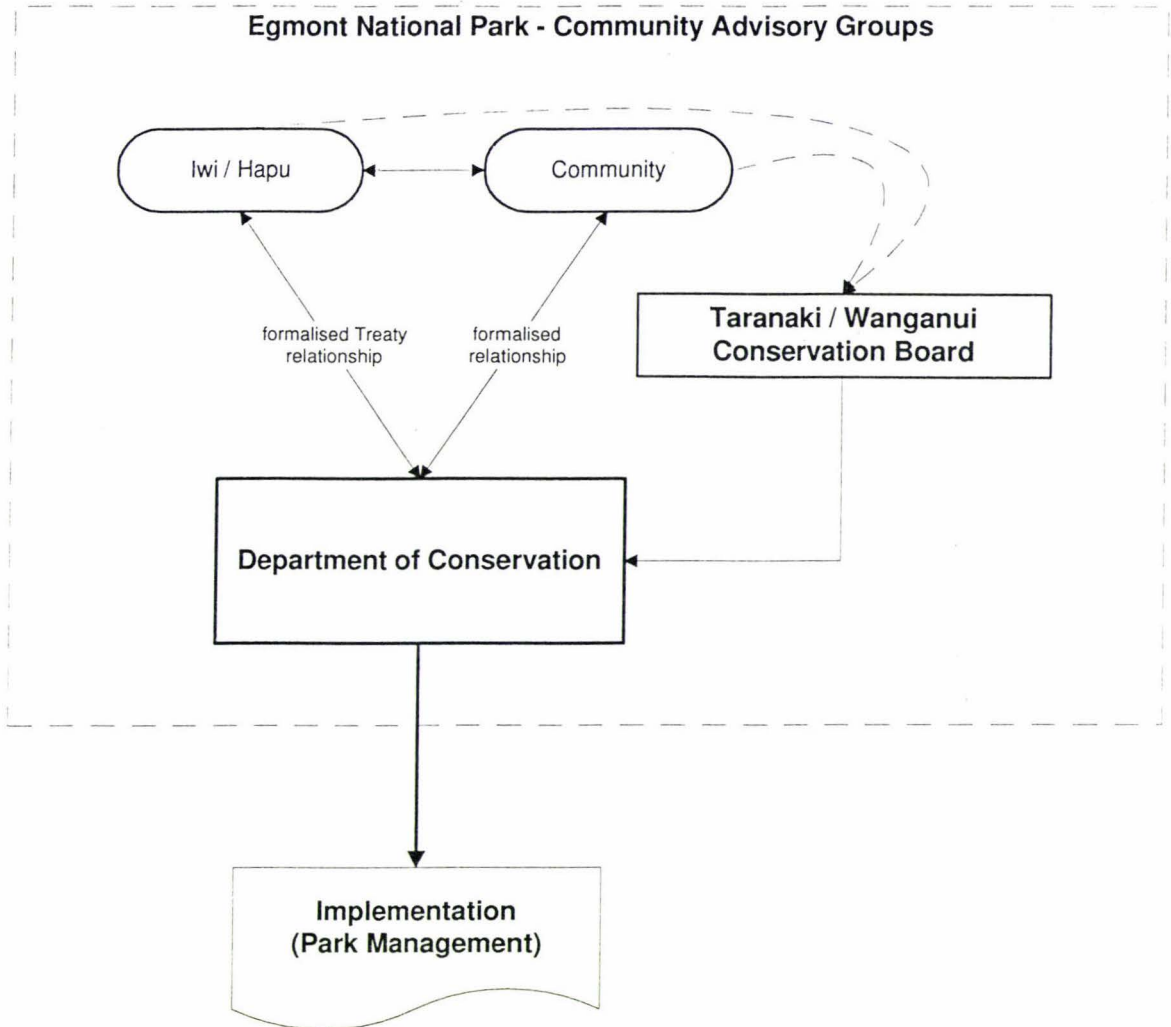**Option 4:** Historic Place Management Group

Options 1 to 3 represent a transition towards co-management over time with Option 1 representing the beginning of partnership, with less delegated authority, and Option 3 representing a full partnership of equals. This range relates to the continuum of co-management presented in Figure 4.

Option 4 represents a function based structure for co-management. In order to enable the development and explanation of this structure, the heritage management function is used as an example. This structure may just as easily be applied to another function, such as recreation.

To reinforce one of the common themes that has emerged throughout this case study, and examples from overseas, the foundation for any co-management agreement or structure must be one of commonality. All stakeholders and participants must have a common goal or outcome in order to ensure their collaboration and co-operation enhances the ability to achieve the common goal. In the case of national parks this goal may be slightly difficult to define as their are a range of interests, some of which can conflict from time to time.

Option 1: Community Advisory Groups

Structure:

```
Egmont National Park - Community Advisory Groups

    Iwi / Hapu  ◄─────►  Community  ╌╌╌╮
       │                    │        ╌╌╌╮
formalised Treaty     formalised       ▼
  relationship        relationship   ┌─────────────────────────┐
       │                 │           │ Taranaki / Wanganui     │
       ▼                 ▼           │ Conservation Board      │
    ┌────────────────────────┐       └─────────────────────────┘
    │                        │                    │
    │ Department of Conservation │ ◄──────────────┘
    │                        │
    └────────────────────────┘
                │
                ▼
        Implementation
        (Park Management)
```

Summary:

This structure for community advisory groups represents a move by DoC to formalise relationships with iwi and community groups as they relate to Egmont National Park. This may be carried out in association with the Taranaki / Wanganui Conservation Board. This structure builds on the functions of the Conservation Board by forming relationship with specific community groups and iwi with an interest in Egmont National Park. This scenario requires DoC to put extra time and resources into relationship building.

The effectiveness of iwi and community groups in this structure may be enhanced by collaborative and co-operative efforts. To get to this stage both iwi and other community groups may need assistance, possibly through independent facilitation, to enable collective advice or consistent relationships to be developed with DoC. --

This structure begins to form an 'umbrella' of relationships with DoC to enable a transition towards more collaborative decision making for the park. Each group or key stakeholder has a relationship with DoC in its own right, but DoC recognises the outcomes sought by each partner. While this structure enables each key stakeholder group to develop a collaborative approach with each other (e.g. iwi/hapu speaking with a consistent voice, or tramping clubs uniting together in representations to DoC), it has the disadvantage of not increasing knowledge of the views of other groups DoC has formed relationships with.

One of the concerns of iwi in Taranaki, in particular, is integrated decision making and consideration of resource management issues. This structure, while enabling relationships with DoC, does not provide a suitable structure for forming relationships with other agencies such as territorial authorities or the Taranaki Regional Council. This structure does however begin to utilise the principles developed in Chapter 3, in particular the relationship principles. As this structure does not involve the devolution of functions or power sharing *per se*, there is no emphasis on those process principles developed in Chapter 3. An attempt is made to give effect to those principles in the structure developed in Options 2 and 3.

Option 2: Park Management Board

Structure:
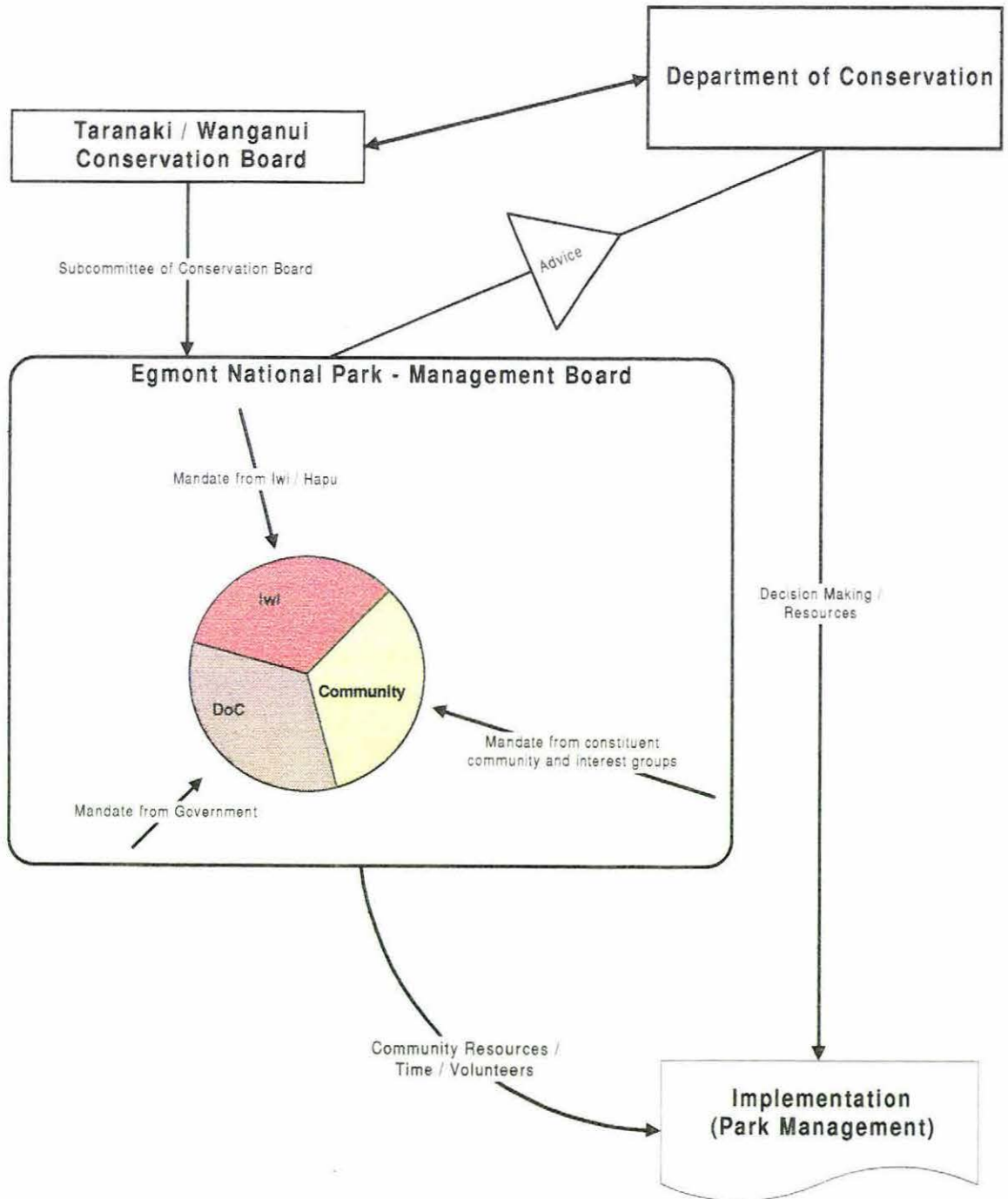
Summary

This structure for a park management board represents an attempt to initiate collaborative relationships with DoC, but does not involve the devolution of power or functions. This has been developed along the lines of a 'subcommittee' of the existing Taranaki / Wanganui Conservation Board. Members of the local community are co-opted to the subcommittee ("the Management Board") as mandated representatives of their respective communities. Representatives may be mandated, but board membership should remain open in accordance with co-management principles (see Chapter 3). One requirement for representatives would be to ensure linkages with their communities are retained and strengthened.

The establishment of such a Management Board may be seen as a significant step in developing relationships within the Taranaki community. If a greater degree of co-management is to be pursued (for example, see option 3) it would seem necessary to develop partnerships within the community prior to devolving power or responsibility to such a structure.

The aim of this type of structure is to empower and educate each partner on the needs and views of other partners (through dialogue) and move towards a common goal. Strengthening these partnerships is a matter that has not been undertaken by any party to date. These partnerships enable an integrated management approach to be taken in the ultimate sense, as both conservation management issues and the interests of stakeholders are considered together.

The role of the management board in this example may be to inform DoC on the implications of taking certain management decisions or undertaking certain projects. This may be a largely 'policy' or advice role. In addition however, the Board may choose to take a more active role in park management though volunteer or other types of support. A co-ordinated approach to the utilisation of community resources would ensure the best conservation outcomes are achieved. Currently a number of individual groups undertake 'projects' in the park, such as track maintenance, that may or may not be a priority within the park. A co-ordinated and agreed approach to such volunteer work would have positive outcomes, both for conservation and the partnerships that develop as a result. DoC ultimately retains control over statutory functions and resource allocation for park management.
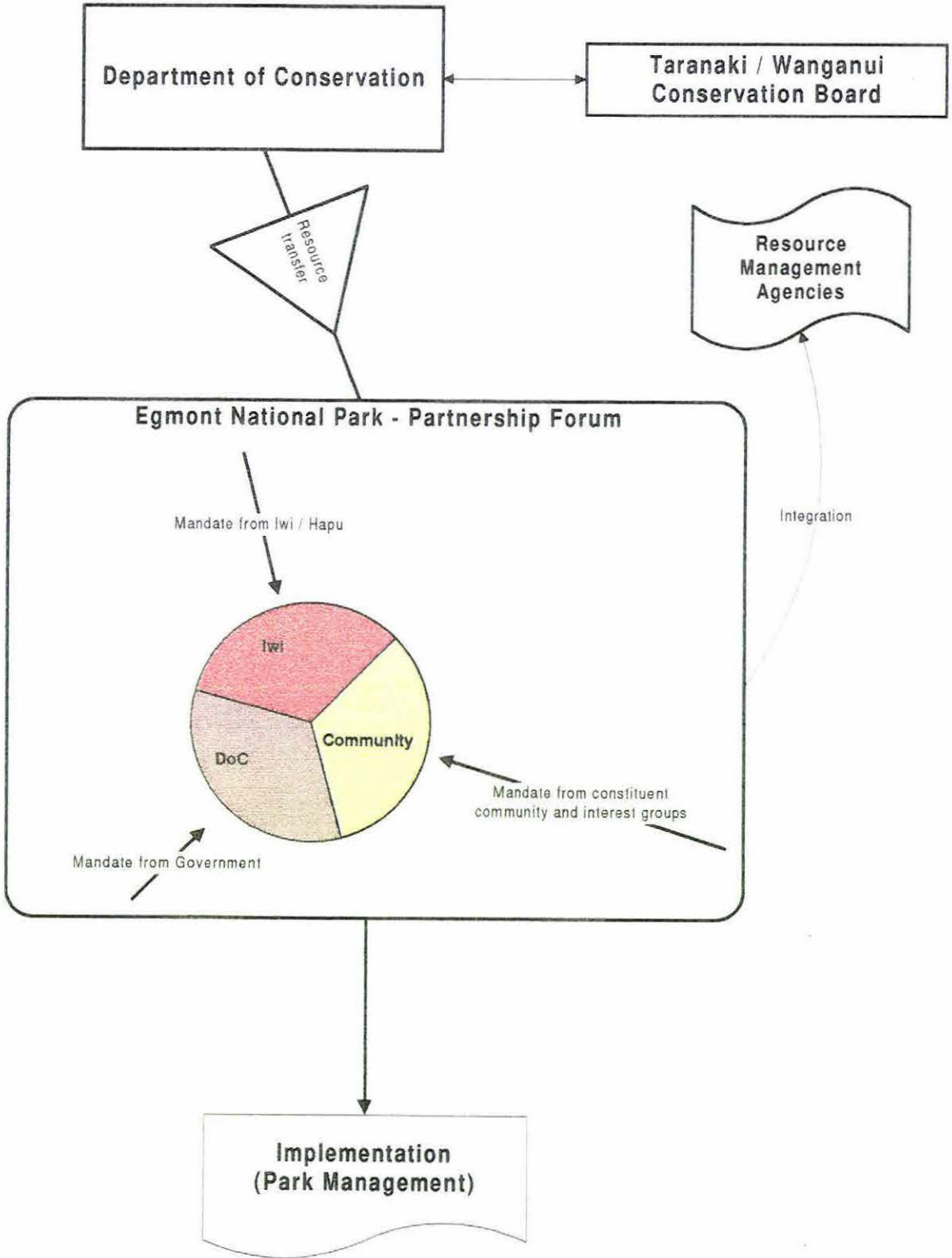
Structure:

Summary:

This structure represents a real move towards co-management in that the community and iwi, in partnership with DoC, are responsible for the administration and management of the park. Resources and functions currently provided for park management are transferred to the partnership forum. The forum is responsible for the implementation of the park management plan, and must be accountable for the outcomes specified in the plan which have been approved both by the general public through the management plan process, and the New Zealand Conservation Authority.

One of the possibilities for the delegation of such functions to a forum of this nature is that linkages with other local or regional resource management agencies (such as the Taranaki Regional Council and territorial authorities) could be improved. The partnership forum represents essentially the same communities as those other agencies deal with, and therefore any joint 'vision' for integration between the park and the Taranaki ring plain could be expedited through this forum.

Many Maori in Taranaki do not agree with the fragmented way in which resource management occurs between the different authorities. The advantages of a community based system for considering such issues would be that all resource management and conservation issues (such as water quality) could be dealt with in a holistic manner (pers. comm., L. Patu, 1997). Proposals that affect water quality or quantity in rivers on the ring plain in the eyes of Maori are not necessarily purely matters for the Regional Council to consider within the ambit of their functions. Rather, there is a necessary linkage with the mountain as the water source, and all these ecological elements should be 'managed' or considered as a whole.

Servicing co-management structures with professional planning advice (and other professional and management advice) would most efficiently be carried out through DoC. DoC officers may still be involved as partners on the forum in an advisory role. Members of the Conservation Board may form DoC's 'third' of the partnership forum to ensure the role of advisor and decision maker are separated. While DoC currently has a Kaupapa Atawhai Manager in each Conservancy, it may also be necessary to place greater emphasis on this liaison role if co-management partnerships are to be strengthened. One of the most important advances for iwi in Taranaki to make is the strengthening of their relationships with each other (pres. comm. D. Ratahi, 1997), a stage that may be assisted by option 2. The improved lines of communication,

education and empowerment of iwi that will result may inspire a greater level of involvement from both Maori and Pakeha.

Advantages for the management of Egmont National Park in the implementation of such a structure are numerous. One of the first and most immediately obvious benefits is greater involvement of the Taranaki community. The restructuring of DoC and consequential removal of management from the region to the Wanganui Conservancy office created a degree of animosity with some local stakeholders (pers. comm. D. Field, 1997). Placing the decision making authority near the park means the relationship between the Taranaki community and DoC will be focused to a greater degree on park management. This is likely to result in greater trust between all stakeholders.

Given the importance of the park to the Taranaki region, the opportunity for this forum to enhance the conservation efforts in the spirit of partnership should greatly improve the possibility of sustainability.

Option 4: Historic Place Management Group

Structure:
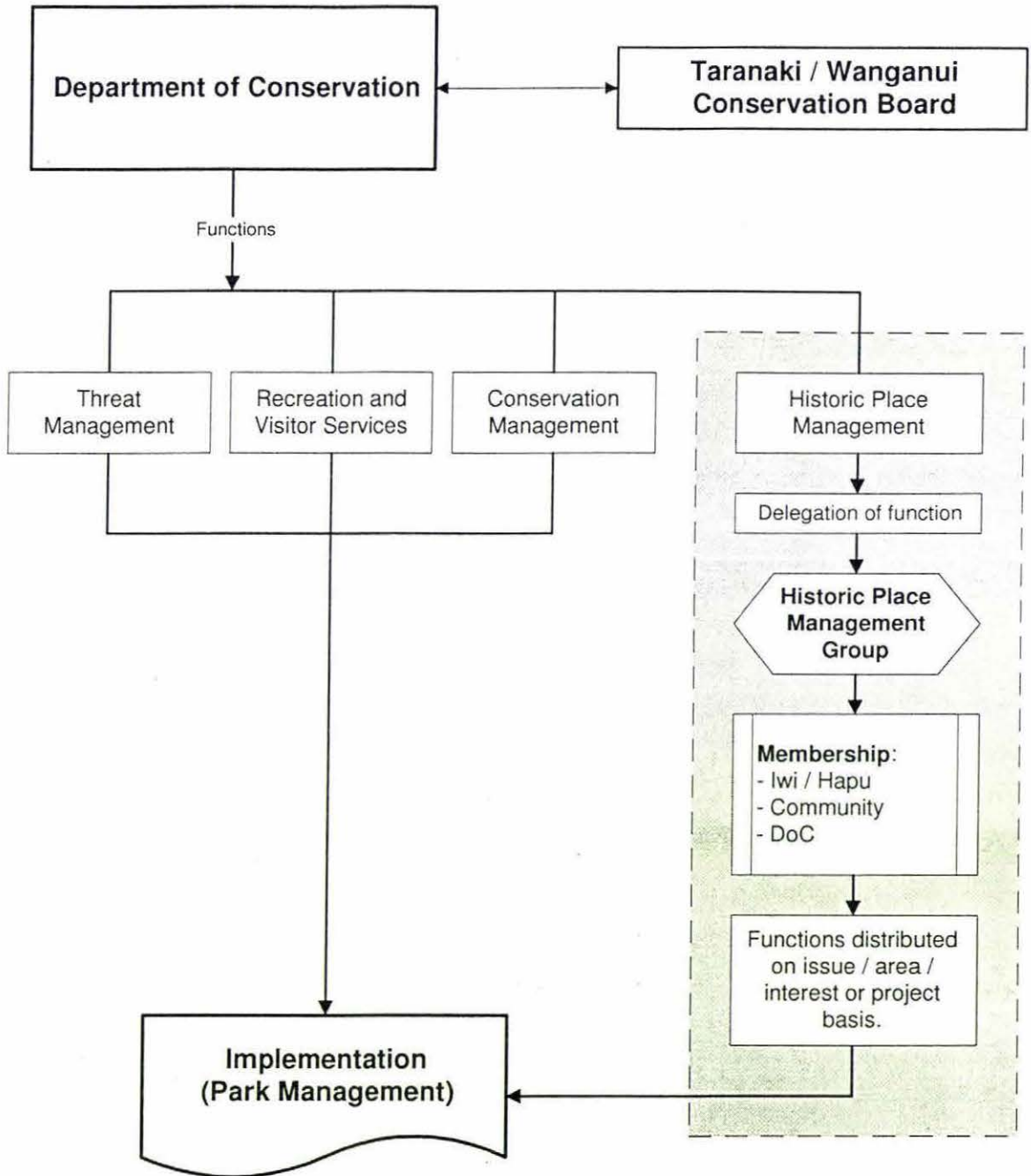
Summary:

The aim of this structure is to delegate one specific function to community control. Heritage management in Egmont National Park is identified by many local groups as being of importance. In some instances they felt DoC was placing insufficient emphasis on the preservation of historic resources.

Mechanisms to ensure integration between other functions (such as conservation management, or threat management)would be important. One scenario is that individual groups could take management responsibility for particular resources within the park. For example, the Kahui Outdoor Pursuits and Alpine Club (KOPAC) have a historical association with Kahui hut, which is one of the oldest in the park. They may therefore be involved in the preparation of a conservation management plan for the hut and may seek resources for its implementation. Resources for historic place management within the park may either be provided to the group concerned by DoC, or it may sought directly from the community. Similarly specific hapu or iwi groups may seek to manage waahi tapu areas within the park.

The park contains many structures and places that reflect the long association of both Maori and Pakeha with the mountain. Important heritage sites require a range of management techniques that should vary according to correct protocols, desire for community involvement and historic place significance and so forth. This suggests the need for some type of overall co-ordination of this function.

It is anticipated that a process of devolving the management of one specific function would also require a suitable transition phase. The process described above of individual groups undertaking specific projects is far from desirable in the long term. The formation of partnerships between all groups with an interest in heritage management of the parks resources would ensure some consistency and long term commitment to maintain and enhance heritage resources. Also, the advantages of partnerships forming between all groups with an interest in heritage protection may be an improved understanding and awareness of the values held by other groups in relation to those aspects of park heritage important to them. This structure aims to recognise the implicit socio-cultural context to heritage management by providing some mechanisms to allow communities to becomes involved in those aspects of park management that are important to them.

5.5.5 Implementation

The development of structures and processes for co-management are basically the first stage of the process of working towards co-management for Egmont National Park. Implementation is the key to the success of co-management. Implementation here is seen to be the adoption of the principles of co-management by DoC, iwi and local communities. Implementation does not simply involve the operation of co-management, but the transition from the present situation, to a level of co-management that achieves the outcomes desired by all stakeholders. This transition stage is equally 'implementation' as is the ongoing management of the park under a co-management body.

Figure 29: The transition to successful co-management (adapted from Kaner et al, 1996)
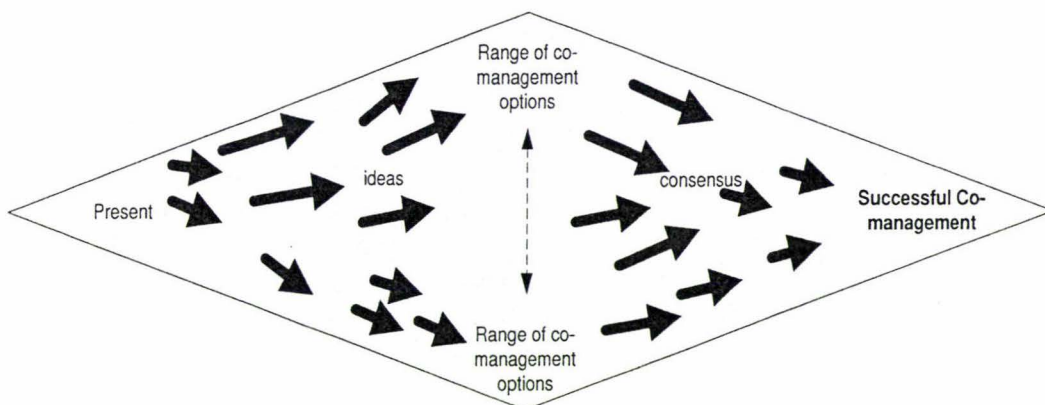
A broad process for the establishment of a co-management agreement between stakeholders was outlined in Figure 8. In the case of Egmont National Park, Taranaki Iwi have suggested the need for formalised structures and processes in a manner consistent with this approach. International experience, such as Kakadu National Park, suggests the need for a formal agreement that details the terms and levels of involvement of stakeholders. Processes for negotiation in the event of conflict are also important to the ongoing success of an agreement. The approach outlined in Figure 8 has five main phases. These are:

(1)   Scoping / Policy Evaluation

(2)   Pre-negotiation

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(3)   Facilitation of an Agreement

(4)   Implementation; and

(5)   Monitoring.

The following discussion builds on structural options for co-management in Egmont National Park proposed in section 5.5.4 by reviewing the requirements for implementation. This review is taken from the perspective of what is required of all parties in order to assist a transition to co-management. This is not necessarily an analysis of what each stakeholder must carry out in order to prepare for co-management.

1.   Scoping / Policy Evaluation

At present a number of policy frameworks exist that are important to identifying both macro and micro policy. These include:

- The Treaty of Waitangi 1840

- The Conservation Act 1987;

- The National Parks Act 1980

- The Wanganui Conservancy CMS;

- The Egmont National Park Management Plan

In addition to an evaluation of existing policy documents, recognition must also be given to deficiencies in the policy framework. Some issues (for example social justice) may not be dealt with in partnership with DoC in relation to the conservation estate, but they will be raised by stakeholders. These issues may more appropriately be dealt with by developing other partnerships or through strengthening social institutions (such as local marae) to provide for these matters. Co-management must provide the 'catalyst' for community empowerment to occur.

2.   Pre-negotiation

Prior to attempting to formalise an agreement for co-management, it is necessary to determine the interest in such a partnership. The consultation carried out for the draft Egmont National Park management plan and subsequent interviews, indicate a willingness on the part of the local and regional community to be involved in co-management. While there are a range of different and in some cases conflicting interests, the majority of stakeholders consulted in the early phases of the management

plan review were agreeable to the management philosophy proposed. This indicates there is some common ground on which to develop partnerships.

This process of pre-negotiation will require time to enable respective stakeholders to come to terms with the requirements of co-management. In particular, Taranaki iwi have a number of resource constraints in dealing with government agencies at present due to the amount of time being dedicated to the Waitangi Tribunal Claims process.

The process of pre-negotiation may be facilitated either by DoC, or an independent facilitator funded by the stakeholders involved.

3.   Facilitation of an Agreement

This phase of the implementation has four major elements:

      (1)   Establishing a central team to co-ordinate and facilitate negotiations;

      (2)   Bringing all stakeholders together;

      (3)   Developing the agreement; and

      (4)   Publicising the agreement to gain community support.

The first element is dependant on the process proposed and who facilitates that process. If DoC is to be proactive and seek a co-management agreement with relevant partners in Taranaki, it is likely that central team would be made up of key DoC officers. If co-management were to be initiated through another process (such as the Treaty Claims process) the central team may have a different composition.

The second element may cause a number of logistical problems. The most success is likely to occur where the first meetings take place at key locations around the region. Experience in other locations around the West Coast of the North Island show that local marae are extremely important places to facilitate the understanding and commitment of all stakeholders (see Pollock and Horsley, 1997 and Taiepa *et al*, 1997).

The development of an agreement will take a great deal of time. In order to ensure long term commitment to the agreement, resolution of outstanding Treaty Claims will be necessary. This may mean a number of recommendations of those settlements are incorporated in a co-management agreement. Intermediate co-management solutions may also be possible. However, the interrelationship between ownership and management issues in Taranaki mean ownership issues will need to be addressed at some point.

Publicity will also be an important element in the success of the agreement. DoC in particular has received a great deal of negative coverage in the press in Taranaki in the past few years. This observation is made by a number of groups in the region, and is one that many believe has been unfair (pers. comm. Don Field, 1997). The opportunity to promote positive partnerships for the management of the park should not be missed.

4. Implementation

The resourcing of a co-management body to enable it to carry out any functions contained in the agreement may require community backing in addition to the resources allocated to Egmont National Park by DoC. There are a number of considerations for DoC in allocating resources to conservation management. Allocation of resources to a co-management body will require transparent and accountable procedures. Legislative recognition of this body would therefore be required.

The options outlined in section 5.5.4 would enable a transition to a fully transparent and accountable co-management body. Alternatively, if the outcomes of the 'pre-negotiation' phase suggest interest is not sufficient for full control (as outlined in option three), a body with specific or limited functions may be more appropriate (e.g. heritage management as outlined in option four).

5. Monitoring:

As with any planning process, or change to an existing structure for implementation, it is important to evaluate the successes or failures of co-management. As co-management is a relatively new concept in New Zealand it will be important to ensure that if applied, it is producing the most appropriate conservation (or environmental) outcomes.

When developing the co-management agreement, as with developing any policy, it is important to ensure that provisions are able to be monitored to determine success. The purpose of monitoring the agreement may be to make changes to it, or to request a greater degree of devolution from DoC (assuming there is a transition 'built in' to the agreement).

One of the greatest gains that can be made in Taranaki from co-management is the strengthening of partnerships between different stakeholders, in particular between

Maori and Pakeha. The monitoring, evaluation and analysis of co-management is described in greater detail in the following section.

5.5.6 Evaluation and Analysis of Co-management

The process of evaluation is important when establishing models that may be used elsewhere in New Zealand or overseas. It is also important for those involved in the process to do a certain amount of 'naval gazing' in order to ensure the process and the outcomes sought from the outset are working in the best way for all concerned.

Two critical elements of establishing co-management in a national park need to be analysed. These are:

1. The **conservation outcomes** that occur as a result of implementing a co-management agreement; and

2. The **functioning of the partnerships, structures and processes** developed in order to give effect to the co-management agreement.

The first of these two elements is clearly a task that DoC carries out as part of its present functions. Monitoring of conservation outcomes, and thus the performance of DoC, is carried out for a number of reasons, including:

- legislative requirements;

- policy and plan requirements, such as the CMS; and

- good conservation management practice.

The second of these two elements relates to measuring the successes and failures of the actual process of developing and implementing the co-management agreement. Important aspects for monitoring include the facilitation of community based partnerships, the development of structures to enable collaborative planning and decision making at a community level and the development of an actual co-management agreement. Ideally a co-management agreement would include a number of primary accountabilities and indicators to enable such performance measurement to be undertaken.

5.6   The Future: Conclusions

Egmont National Park and Mt. Taranaki is one of the most unique landscapes in New Zealand.   The prominence of the mountain and the diversity of ecosystems and opportunities offered by the park mean there is a high level of interest in park management.   The future of park management may well be determined by the Treaty claims process currently being heard by the Waitangi Tribunal and negotiated by the government.

Co-management in Egmont National Park is almost a certainty for the future (pers. comm. Tetteroo, 1997).   This chapter has covered a range of issues in relation to co-management of the park.   One of the predominant themes is the importance of the park to the region.   The development of structures for co-management may enable a number of conservation, cultural, social and sustainability issues to be addressed in a more collaborative and collective manner.

Appropriate co-management structures must allow for a broader vision for the park in the region to be developed.   The future strength of co-management in Egmont National Park is the potential for it to become a central focus for a collaborative approach to ecosystem management beyond park boundaries.   The functioning of the park as an ecosystem may be improved for example by advocating the re-establishment of greater areas of lowland forest and riparian planting around the ringplain. If the support of local communities is sought through representation in the management process, any number of outcomes may be achievable. These outcomes may range from conservation to social outcomes.

The goal of co-management (and any type of planning or environmental management) must be to articulate and realise a vision for an area for the future.   The concept of sustainable management provides a basis for this vision, that is ensuring our ecosystems are able to support life and that future generations may enjoy the environment in the same way as present generations.   There is a need to agree on a collective vision for the park for 100 years time.   One of the certainties of this vision is that the park and the mountain will remain as one of the most important aspects of daily life in the region, and that the people of the region will be extremely interested and involved in its management with their fellow inhabitants.

6

Conclusions and Recommendations

6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusion

Communities involvement in the planning and management of resources in New Zealand has changed remarkably over the past twenty years. Conservation management in particular, has undergone significant change, particularly with the introduction of the Conservation Act in 1987. Community expectations of conservation management is perhaps greatest in national parks, which are icons of New Zealand's natural heritage.

The many threats facing the conservation estate (including national parks) are placing increasing pressures on DoC to apply community based solutions within tighter budget constraints. With increasing emphasis on facilitation of partnerships to assist in the management of national parks, exploring these options (such as co-management) becomes increasingly important.

The collective responsibility for conservation embodied in the concepts of rangatiratanga and community empowerment mean that these new partnerships, and appropriate structures and processes to support them, will form the new face of conservation in New Zealand. The basis of these partnerships stems from the Treaty of Waitangi and its linkage to conservation through the Conservation Act 1987.

It is evident that process issues are critical to providing the impetus for co-management partnerships and to carry them through to successful outcomes. Part of this process must involve the development of appropriate structures to reflect the desires of local communities and tangata whenua and also achieve conservation outcomes.

The aim of this thesis has been to explore ways conservation planning processes in New Zealand can provide for the collaborative management (co-management) of national parks. This question was explored by setting four objectives relating to different elements of co-management on the conservation estate. The case study of Egmont National Park has demonstrated how these principles and lessons from practice may be applied. The objectives are as follows:

(1)   Define and illustrate co-management principles and practice.

(2)   Describe and analyse conservation planning and management practice in New Zealand's conservation estate.

(3)   Describe and analyse national park management and potential improvements resulting from co-management.

(4)   Describe the possible planning processes and management structures which may be used in Egmont National Park to progress the implementation of co-management through conservation planning.

The research and subsequent conclusions for each of these objectives enable a number of recommendations to be made in relation to Egmont National Park. These may help the positive benefits that may arise from the implementation of co-management in New Zealand to be realised. These recommednations are specific to Egmont National Park. Egmont National Park in particular would benefit from the improvements to conservation outcomes that would be achieved under a co-management arrangement.

6.1.1 Co-management principles and practice.

Co-management is management partnership that aims to include all stakeholders in decision making processes involving natural resources in a collaborative manner. Within this partnership there is an attempt to recognise the interests of two or more cultures within the constraints of ecosystem preservation. Establishing a co-management regime in national parks requires a clear definition of what co-management is, what it can change and what it cannot change. This will ensure that all stakeholders have a sound understanding and clear expectations of the outcomes that co-management agreements may deliver. The basis of this understanding may be an agreement, or series of process principles upon which management and dialogue are based.

Principles for co-management need to reflect the open and inclusive nature of the processes and partnerships that develop. Co-management relies on the empowerment of communities to enable participation in these processes. In addition, the search for a common ground between the positions of various stakeholders in national parks should be based on a commitment of guardianship of the natural resources or ecosystems at issue. Appropriate structures and processes that provide for a participative process therefore need to be established within the constraints of sound ecological and conservation management.

In New Zealand the Treaty of Waitangi and section 4 of the Conservation Act 1987 forms the basis and mandate for co-management of the conservation estate with Maori. This partnership is itself defined through a series of principles that have been articulated

through the Courts and Tribunals. If this partnership is to be successful however, recognition of the role and importance of local communities in conservation means that a series of additional partnerships must be formed between government; iwi and local communities.

The range of costs and benefits of co-management largely show that the development of such agreements is a very location specific issue. While national parks may be icons for the entire nation, interest in their management may be largely local or regional. Increased ownership of conservation planning processes and more effective partnerships between government agencies and communities (in addition to a number of other benefits that have been discussed) provide an excellent incentive for all stakeholders in national park management to investigate the establishment of co-management.

The range of principles, structures and processes discussed in a general sense in Chapter three provided the basis for describing and analysing conservation planning processes and instituional arrangements in Chapter four and five. This effectively established a framework to examine conservation planning and management of the conservation estate. Applying these principles, structures and processes has enabled an examination of what, if any, improvements could be possible under a co-management regime.

6.1.2 Conservation planning and management practice in New Zealand's conservation estate.

National parks in New Zealand have developed in a similar fashion to the Yellowstone model. The involvement of both Maori and a large range of stakeholders (such as tramping clubs) in the development of the national park concept since Tongariro was gifted to the people of New Zealand by Tuwharetoa creates a sense of 'ownership' of national parks by all New Zealanders.

One of the key elements for national park management is that a sense of respect for the ecosystems and other natural, historical and cultural features of the park must be developed by those using the park in order to ensure its ongoing integrity.

National parks are facing an increasing number of threats and consequently in response, the role of national parks is changing over time. The facilitation of partnerships with communities, ecological functions and the management of external threats are all increasing in importance.

The changing roles of parks is also reflected in the range of key management issues in national parks that need to be addressed. DoC faces a number of conservation management issues, such as the decline of biodiversity, and the impacts of humans on the conservation estate. Examining these issues has led to the conclusion that DoC needs to build strong partnerships with local communities. Co-management is one response that allows both the Treaty relationship to be strengthened, and the inclusion of those stakeholders that have historically provided a great deal of commitment to conservation.

Conservation legislation establishes processes that include consultation. These processes have resulted in a number of important partnerships with a broad spectrum of community groups throughout New Zealand. While there are a number of opportunities for both community and tangata whenua involvement in these processes, these opportunities do not meet the increasing expectations of these groups.

In many cases a lack of public understanding of conservation issues necessitates a re-evaluation of the approach to conservation management. The implementation and long term success of strategies for conservation in New Zealand may require a shift in the way the conservation estate is managed. This may involve developing a more integrated ecosystem approach that recognises the place of people, external threats and the broader role the conservation estate plays in sustainability.

6.1.3 National park management and potential improvements resulting from co-management.

The example of Kakadu National Park in the Northern Territory of Australia illustrates the application of a number of key concepts of co-management. The process of resolving the great number of conflicts in relation to the land use, ownership and management of Kakadu National Park required a great deal of time and commitment by both the government agencies and aboriginal peoples' involved. The primary outcome of this process is a management partnership, that through a series of formal and informal mechanisms and structures to incorporate the interests of all parties, should be a lasting and positive one.

Potential improvements to national park management from co-management that have been outlined in both Chapter three and four provide the impetus for DoC to develop partnerships and community support for such a change in approach. Part of this change

will require input from both planners and conservation managers to ensure the process and participants agree on a common set of principles that will achieve appropriate conservation outcomes.

The development of structures that reflect the principles of co-management and sound conservation management is an important first step in this process. These structures must reflect the range of people, cultures and interests that will be involved. Developing these partnerships between different cultures requires an approach that recognises the different spiritual relationships, decision making processes and 'world views'. Marae based community decision making has had positive results throughout New Zealand, and is an approach that is appropriate for co-management.

From a practical perspective, the development of these new structures and processes requires a range of resources. This partly reflects the need to empower local communities and Maori to participate in these processes. In addition, resources need to be allocated from government agencies such as DoC to ensure the processes result in the improvements sought. Other government agencies may be involved in those aspects of community empowerment that do not have a direct 'conservation' benefit in terms of the current mandate for conservation. These situations may include those aspects of co-management that relate to community empowerment or other 'social' matters. In such instances, agencies such as Te Puni Kokiri may become involved.

6.1.4 Co-management in Egmont National Park

The resources and values of Egmont National Park are unique in the context of other national parks in New Zealand. The proximity of the park and mountain to urban and rural parts of Taranaki has created an intense sense of place and relationship between the people of the region and the mountain. This contributes to the high level of commitment and enthusiasm of local communities to resolving issues affecting the park. The high utilisation of the park by local people and visitors alike, while providing a range of recreation and tourism opportunities, also contributes to a number of the many management issues facing the park. There are a range of management issues facing the park, but the predominant issues that are of concern to the local community relate to the control of pests in the park in order to ensure the ongoing viability of the parks ecosystems.

There are a large number of people in the region with an interest in the park. The degree of interest in co-management is a matter that needs to be determined through discussions with these people or groups that represent them. A number of groups from outside the region also have an interest in the future management of the park. The various interviews and discussions held in examining options for co-management of Egmont National Park indicate considerable interest in participating at a decision making and implementation level of park management.

The framework provided by the Egmont National Park management plan provides an excellent basis for discussion relating to park management. The devolution of power and responsibility to a co-management body is a matter DoC needs to consider in order to provide opportunities for co-management. Part of this process involves the development of appropriate structures to reflect the representation needs of the various stakeholders. The options developed in Chapter five reflect the need for a process that evolves over time, as communities become more empowered to be involved in park management. There is also a range of opportunities for different levels of involvement for different stakeholders.

6.2 Recommendations

The aim of these recommendations is twofold. Firstly, they aim to assist in the political process of making the decision to initiate discussions with key stakeholders in relation to building partnerships for co-management of Egmont National Park.

Secondly, these recommendations are made in a general sense to enable a transition to more effective partnerships and relationships aimed at implementing co-management in Egmont National Park. These recommendations recognise the necessity to incorporate time into the process and that a number of other issues are being discussed in relation to both the park and Taranaki, primarily the negotiations in relation to the Taranaki raupatu.

The recommendations are left reasonably broad in order to provide some flexibility. The recommendations should be read in conjunction with the body of this report, which contains greater detail on the transition to co-management and any requirements of that process.

All parties have a critical role to play if co-management is to be successful in Egmont National Park. The potential for this model to improve the future of the park and its

place in Taranaki is enormous and may also improve relationships between all parties, resulting in stronger communities and better conservation (and other) outcomes. The challenge for all parties involved in conservation in New Zealand is to begin to develop the partnerships that are required to ensure sustainability of our natural, physical and historical resources is ensured.

Recommendation: Common Ground

(1)   That key stakeholders, including the Department of Conservation, aim to develop a series of common conservation management principles for Egmont National Park.

(2)   That key stakeholders initiate dialogue on the conservation management issues facing the Egmont National Park to assist in offering solutions and finding a common ground.

Recommendations: Process and Transition

(1)   That all parties recognise the need to allow time for any partnerships being contemplated to develop, and that discussions

(2)   That those currently in a position of power establish feasible changes in power relationships for the benefit of the wider community, including the investigation of devolution of that power to community based structures.

Recommendation: Ownership Issues

(1)   That those involved in the negotiation of the Taranaki claim give consideration to the potential for a co-management arrangement of Egmont National Park to include all the interests of iwi and local, regional and national communities in the management of the park.

(2)   That those involved in the negotiation of the Taranaki claim recognise the necessity for ongoing local partnerships to be developed in order to provide for sustainable social and environmental outcomes.

Recommendation: Resources

(1)   That DoC recognise the rising demands for community invovlement in the management of Egmont National Park, and set aside an appropriate budget and resources to facilitate that process.

(2)   That key stakeholders investigate strategic alliances within the local community that might enable resources to be provided for developing co-management arrangements.

(3)   That key stakeholders recognise the variety of resources available for co-management in the local community and harness this to expedite a co-management process for Egmont National Park.

Recommendation: Strategic Alliances

(1)   That all stakeholders in Egmont National Park begin to develop alliances with other community groups and/or iwi in the region to enable the transition towards co-management to begin through dialogue.

(2)   That key stakeholders investigate options for representation within their groups or organisations.

Recommendations: Empowerment

(1)   That all stakeholders assess their ability to be involved in the process of a transition towards full co-management and determine their ability to offer other groups information or resources.

(2)   That the Department of Conservation investigate the benefits of becoming involved in conservation initiatives that benefit both community groups and conservation.

(3)   That the Department of Conservation investigate the long term gains to be made from partnerships with iwi and local communities and that mechanisms to empower these partners be put in place.

(4)   That key stakeholders begin to develop potential leaders either for today or the future, in order to ensure the ongoing success of co-management partnerships.

Recommendations: Publicity

(1)   That once dialogue between stakeholders begins, and a common ground has been established; publicity for the possible directions these partnerships may take be sought in order to educate and inform the wider regional community.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Eight Rungs on a ladder of participation (Arnstein, 1969).

For illustrative purposes the eight types are arranged in a ladder pattern with each rung corresponding to the extent of citizens' power in determining the end product.

The bottom rugs of the ladder are (1) **Manipulation** and (2) **Therapy**. These two rungs describe levels of "non-participation" that have been contrived by some to substitute for genuine participation. Their real objective is not to enable people to participate in planning or conducting programmes, but to enable powerholders to "educate" or "cure" the participants. Rungs 3 and 4 progress to levels of "tokenism" that allow the have-nots to hear and to have a voice: (3) **Informing** and (4) **Consultation**. When they are proffered by power-holders as the total extent of participation, citizens may indeed hear and be heard. But under these conditions they lack the power to insure that their views will be heeded by the powerful. When participation is restricted to these levels, there is no follow through, no "muscle", hence no assurance of changing the status quo. Rung (5) **Placation**, is simply a higher level tokenism because the ground rules allow have-nots to advise, but retain for the powerholders the continued right to decide.

Further up the ladder are levels of citizen power with increasing degrees of decision-making clout. Citizens can enter into a (6) **Partnership** that enables them to negotiate and engage in trade-offs with traditional powerholders. At the topmost rugs (7) **Delegated Power** and (8) **Citizen Control**, have-not citizens obtain the majority of decision-making seats, or full managerial power.

Figure 30: Eight Rungs on a Ladder of Participation (Arnstein, 1969).
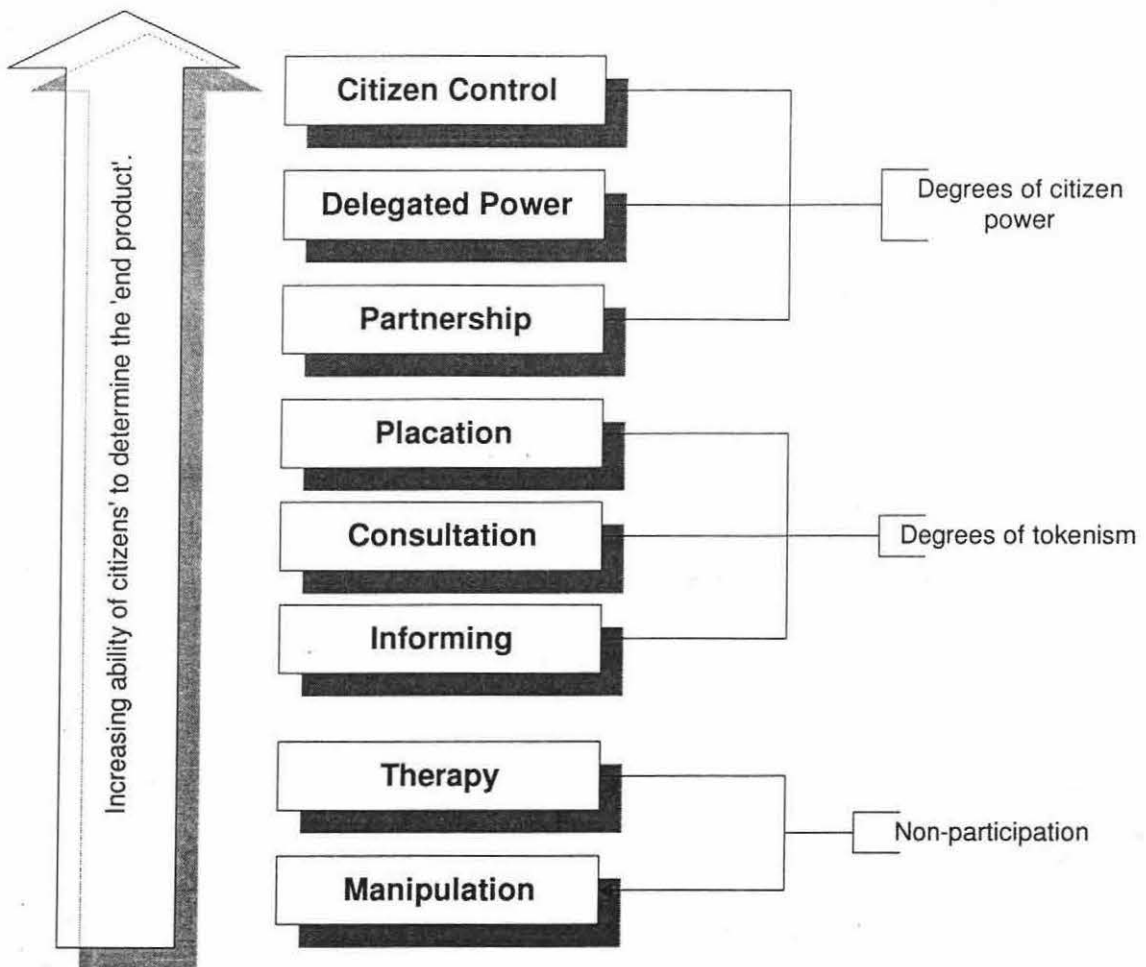
Appendix 2: Collaborative Management Feasibility Questions. (Source: Borrini-Feyerabend, 1996)

Legal feasibility:

- are there specific laws and regulations that allow or forbid involving various social actors in the management of the PA, or is there a legislative vacuum?

- who can issue permits for the exploitation of the PA resources?

- who can decide about revenue sharing?

- who is legally controlling access to the PA? the agency in charge? a local administrative body?

- is there a trusted judiciary system in place to assure that eventual contractual agreements are respected?

Political feasibility

- is there a political willingness to share the benefits and responsibilities of the management of PAs in the country?

- what are the key interests at stake? is there any interest which is politically dominant and capable of crushing others?

- are there major commercial, industrial, political or urban interests opposed to the PA who could become part of the management partnership with the ultimate aim of destroying it?

- are corruption and violence affecting PA management?

Institutional feasibility

- are stakeholders sufficiently organised to put forward their interests and contribute their capacities in PA management?

- are governmental agencies capable of interacting effectively with non-governmental stakeholders?

- are there traditional or other authorities capable of eliciting agreements and enforcing rules?

- are there fora for communication and discussion of relevant initiatives?

- are there institutional conflicts (e.g. unclear division of responsibilities between regional and district authorities) affecting the management of the PA?

Economic feasibility

- is there a budget source to sustain co-management processes (e.g. specific studies, meetings, communication, facilitation, etc.)?

- are there ways by which local actors can meet their economic needs compatibly with the conservation of the PA at stake?

- if needed, is capital available to make the necessary investments?

- if needed, are the local people confident enough to invest in entrepreneurial activities?

Socio-economic feasibility

- are stakeholders informed and knowledgeable about the protected area? about existing threats to it? about ways of conserving it?

- do they value the protected area?

- do stakeholders possess traditional institutions and systems of resource management?

- are stakeholders in conflict regarding the PA resources?

- is there adequate communication between the agency in charge of the PA and the stakeholders? do they trust one another?

Appendix 3: Other Legislation administered by the Department of Conservation

The Canterbury Provincial Buildings Vesting Act 1928

The Fisheries Act 1983: Part V

[The Foreshore and Seabed Endowment Retesting Act 1991]

[The Harbour Boards Dry Land Endowment Retesting Act 1991]

[The Historic Places Act 1993]

The Kapiti Island Public Reserve Act 1897

The Lake Wanaka Preservation Act 1973

The Marine Mammals Protection Act 1978

The Marine Reserves Act 1971

The Mount Egmont Vesting Act 1978

The National Parks Act 1980

The Native Plants Protection Act 1934

[The New Zealand Walkways Act 1990]

The Queen Elizabeth the Second National Trust Act 1977

The Queenstown Reserves Vesting and Empowering Act 1971

The Reserves Act 1977

The Sand Drift Act 1908

[The Sugar Loaf Islands Marine Protected Area Act 1991]

The Stewart Island Reserves Empowering Act 1976

[The Trade in Endangered Species Act 1989]

The Waitangi Endowment Act 1932-33

The Waitangi National Trust Board Act 1932

The Wild Animal Control Act 1977

The Wildlife Act 1953

Appendix 4: Legislation

CONSERVATION ACT 1987

SECT. 4. ACT TO GIVE EFFECT TO TREATY OF WAITANGI--

This Act shall so be interpreted and administered as to give effect to the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi.

SECT. 6. FUNCTIONS OF DEPARTMENT--

The functions of the Department are to administer this Act and the enactments specified in the First Schedule to this Act, and, subject to this Act and those enactments and to the directions (if any) of the Minister,--

(a) To manage for conservation purposes, all land, and all other natural and historic resources, for the time being held under this Act, and all other land and natural and historic resources whose owner agrees with the Minister that they should be managed by the Department:

[(ab) To preserve so far as is practicable all indigenous freshwater fisheries, and protect recreational freshwater fisheries and freshwater fish habitats:]

(b) To advocate the conservation of natural and historic resources generally:

(c) To promote the benefits to present and future generations of--

(i) The conservation of natural and historic resources generally and the natural and historic resources of New Zealand in particular; and

(ii) The conservation of the natural and historic resources of New Zealand's sub-antarctic islands and, consistently with all relevant international agreements, of the Ross Dependency and Antarctica generally; and

(iii) International co-operation on matters relating to conservation:

(d) To prepare, provide, disseminate, promote, and publicise educational and promotional material relating to conservation:

(e) To the extent that the use of any natural or historic resource for recreation or tourism is not inconsistent with its conservation, to foster the use of natural and historic resources for recreation, and to allow their use for tourism:

(f) To advise the Minister on matters relating to any of those functions or to conservation generally:

(g) Every other function conferred on it by any other enactment.

[SECT. 6B. FUNCTIONS OF AUTHORITY--

[(1) The functions of the Authority shall be--

(a) To advise the Minister on statements of general policy prepared under the Wildlife Act 1953, the Marine Reserves Act 1971, the Reserves Act 1977, the Wild Animal Control Act 1977, the Marine Mammals Protection Act 1978, the New Zealand Walkways Act 1990, and this Act:

(b) To approve conservation management strategies and conservation management plans, and review and amend such strategies and plans, as required under the Wildlife Act 1953, the Marine Reserves Act 1971, the Reserves Act 1977, the Wild Animal Control Act 1977, the Marine Mammals Protection Act 1978, the National Parks Act 1980, the New Zealand Walkways Act 1990, and this Act:

(c) To review and report to the Minister or the Director-General on the effectiveness of the Department's administration of general policies prepared under the Wildlife Act 1953, the Marine Reserves Act 1971, the Reserves Act 1977, the Wild Animal Control Act 1977, the Marine Mammals Protection Act 1978, the New Zealand Walkways Act 1990, and this Act:

(d) To investigate any nature conservation or other conservation matters the Authority considers are of national importance, and to advise the Minister or the Director-General, as appropriate, on such matters:

(e) To consider and make proposals for the change of status or classification of areas of national and international importance:

(f) To advise the Minister or the Director-General, as appropriate, on any matter relating to or affecting walkways:

(g) To encourage and participate in educational and publicity activities for the purposes of bringing about a better understanding of nature conservation in New Zealand:

(h) To advise the Minister and the Director-General annually on priorities for the expenditure of money:

(i) To liaise with the New Zealand Fish and Game Council:

(j) To exercise such powers and functions as may be delegated to it by the Minister under this Act or any other Act.

The Authority shall have such other functions as are conferred on it by or under this Act or any other Act.]

SECT. 6M. FUNCTIONS OF BOARDS--

(1) The functions of each Board shall be--

(a) To recommend the approval by the Conservation Authority of conservation management strategies, and the review and amendment of such strategies, under the relevant enactments:

(b) To approve conservation management plans, and the review and amendment of such plans, under the relevant enactments:

(c) To advise the Conservation Authority and the Director-General on the implementation of conservation management strategies and conservation management plans for areas within the jurisdiction of the Board:

(d) To advise the Conservation Authority or the Director-General--

(i) On any proposed change of status or classification of any area of national or international importance; and

(ii) On any other conservation matter relating to any area within the jurisdiction of the Board:

(e) To advise the Conservation Authority and the Director-General on proposals for new walkways in any area within the jurisdiction of the Board:

(f) To liaise with any Fish and Game Council on matters within the jurisdiction of the Board:

(g) To exercise such powers and functions as may be delegated to it by the Minister under this Act or any other Act.

(2) Every Board shall have such other functions as are conferred on it by or under this Act or any other Act.]

RESOURCE MANAGEMENT ACT 1991

SECT. 5. PURPOSE--

(1) The purpose of this Act is to promote the sustainable management of natural and physical resources.

(2) In this Act, "sustainable management" means managing the use, development, and protection of natural and physical resources in a way, or at a rate, which enables people and communities to provide for their social, economic, and cultural wellbeing and for their health and safety while--

(a) Sustaining the potential of natural and physical resources (excluding minerals) to meet the reasonably foreseeable needs of future generations; and

(b) Safeguarding the life-supporting capacity of air, water, soil, and ecosystems; and

(c) Avoiding, remedying, or mitigating any adverse effects of activities on the environment.

SECT. 8. TREATY OF WAITANGI--

In achieving the purpose of this Act, all persons exercising functions and powers under it, in relation to managing the use, development, and protection of natural and physical resources, shall take into account the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi (Te Tiriti o Waitangi).

Appendix 5: Principles for Sustainable living - Caring for the Earth (1991)

1. Respect and care for the community of life

2. Improve the quality of human life

3. Conserve the Earth's vitality and diversity:

    • conserve life-support systems

    • conserve biodiversity

    • ensure that uses of renewable resources are sustainable

4. Minimise the depletion of non-renewable resources

5. Keep within the Earth's carrying capacity

6. Change personal attitudes and practices

7. Enable communities to care for their own environments

8. Provide a national framework for integrating development and conservation

9. Create a global alliance

Appendix 6: Categories of Protected Areas

CATEGORY Ia: Strict Nature Reserve: protected area
Definition: Area of land and/or sea possessing some outstanding or representative ecosystems, geological or physiological features and/or species, available primarily for scientific research and/or environmental monitoring.
CATEGORY Ib: Wilderness Area: protected area managed
Definition: Large area of unmodified or slightly modified land, and/or sea, retaining its natural character and influence, without permanent or significant habitation, which is protected and managed so as to preserve its natural condition.
CATEGORY II: National Park: protected area managed mainly for ecosystem protection and recreation.
Definition: Natural area of land and/or sea, designated to (a) protect the ecological integrity of one or more ecosystems for present and future generations, (b) exclude exploitation or occupation inimical to the purposes of designation of the area and (c) provide a foundation for spiritual, scientific, educational, recreational and visitor opportunities, all of which must be environmentally and culturally compatible.
CATEGORY III: Natural Monument: protected area managed mainly for conservation of specific natural features.
Definition: Area containing one, or more, specific natural or natural/cultural feature which is of outstanding or unique value because of its inherent rarity, representative or aesthetic qualities or cultural significance.
CATEGORY IV: Habitat/Species Management Area: protected area managed mainly for conservation through management intervention
Definition: Area of land and/or sea subject to active intervention for management purposes so as to ensure the maintenance of habitats and/or to meet the requirements of specific species.
CATEGORY V: Protected Landscape/Seascape: protected area managed mainly for landscape/seascape conservation and
Definition: Area of land, with coast and sea as appropriate, where the interaction of people and nature over time has produced an area of distinct character with significant aesthetic, ecological and/or cultural value, and often with high biological diversity. Safeguarding the integrity of this traditional interaction is vital to the protection, maintenance and evolution of such an area.
CATEGORY VI: Managed Resource Protected Area: protected area managed mainly for the sustainable use of natural ecosystems
Definition: Area containing predominantly unmodified natural systems, managed to ensure long term protection and maintenance of biological diversity, while providing at the same time a sustainable flow of natural products and services to meet community needs. Where the site does not meet the internationally recognised definition of a protected area, application of a management category is not appropriate. This is indicated as category unassigned (UA) in WCMC protected area lists.

Appendix 7: Stakeholders in national parks

• individuals (e.g. landowners adjacent to national parks)	• families and households (especially those families with a long association with the national park).
• traditional groups with historical associations	• community based groups
• local traditional authorities (e.g. iwi authorities, marae committees)	• local political authorities prescribed by national laws (e.g. Members of Parliament)
• non-governmental bodies that link different relevant communities	• local governance structures (e.g. administration, police, judicial systems)
• agencies with jurisdiction over the national park concerned	• relevant non-governmental organisations at local, regional, national and international level
• political party structures	• religious bodies
• national interest organisations	• national services organisations (e.g. Lions Club)
• cultural and voluntary associations of various types	• business and commercial enterprises and associations;
• universities, polytechnics, schools, and research organisations	• local banks and credit institutions • government authorities at local and regional level
• national governments	• supra-national organisations with binding powers on national countries;
• foreign aid agencies	• staff and consultants of relevant projects and programmes
• international organisations (e.g. IUCN, UNICEF, FAO, UNEP, WWF)	•

Appendix 8:Key Stakeholders in Egmont National Park

The following appendix provides a list of those organisations / individuals / iwi that were consulted during the 'early consultation' in the review of the Egmont National Park management plan. It should be noted that this list only relates to external parties consulted. A great deal of time was also spent talking with those field centre staff who contain a large amount of knowledge on park management issues.

Groups / Organisations Consulted	
Taranaki Alpine Club	Stratford Tramping Club
Egmont Alpine Club	New Plymouth Tramping Club
Kahui Outdoor Pursuits Alpine Club	The Stratford Mountain Club
Forest and Bird (Taranaki)	Tourism Taranaki
Concessionaires:	
Chris Prudden - Mountain Guide	Tom and Nell Lilford (Dawson Falls Tourist Lodge)
Keith and Berta Anderson (Stratford Mountain House)	John Bowie (North Egmont Visitors Centre Manager (1995-1996)
Individuals	
Colin Wright	Neville Davies
Frank and Shirley Bourke	Lester Barnes
Taranaki iwi [16]	
Diane Ratahi	Charles Hohaia
Lesley Patu	Raima Kingi
Spencer Carr	
Local Government	
New Plymouth District Council	Stratford District Council
South Taranaki District Council	Taranaki Regional Council

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[16] It should be noted that the majority of contact with iwi representatives occurred as a result of the review of the management plan. Further interviews were conducted with some representatives from different iwi, however, the availability of representatives was stretched over this time period due to the research and presentation of claims to the Waitangi Tribunal.

Appendix 9: Summary of Maori Mythology

The Maori recite that Taranaki once resided with other proud, young and powerful mountains, clustered together at Te Ika a Maui (centre of the North Island). Like valiant warriors, they frequently quarrelled amongst themselves, until a furious tussle arose between Tongariro and Taranaki over their grasping love towards the only female mountain, the graceful and bushclad Pihanga. Although, during their struggle Taranaki had managed to slice off the top of Tongariro's head and toss it into Lake Taupo (now Motutaiko Island). The end of the conflict was the mighty blow inflicted by Tongariro on his arch rivals left side (the hollow now called Rangitoto flats) was enough to forcibly eject Taranaki. Pihanga accepted the victor, Tongariro, as her lover.

The defeated mountain uprooted himself, to be guided by To Toka-Rauhoto-Taipairu; a female kaitiaki kohata (guardian stone) of great mana to his intended destination, the place of the setting sun. As Taranaki travelled westward he scoured out a great trough, which filled with water and became the Whanganui River. On his travel, Taranaki rested at Ngaere, thus causing a great depression to become a huge swamp.

The travellers finally exhausted by their journey decided to stop. Te Toka-Rauhoto-Taipairu rested on a knoll near the Waikirikiri stream (until 1948) an Taranaki slept amongst the ancient mountains - Patuha, Te Iringa, Pukeiti and Pouakai. It was while Taranaki rested that Pouakai sent out a spur and bound him fast, where he still stands today.

The name Taranaki is derived from Rua Taranaki of the original mana whenua, the 'Kahui Maunga' who had settled amongst the mountains. One of the Kahui Maunga renowned sites is Pirongia near Te Iringa. The first ascent is credited to Tahurangi, his purpose was to claim the mountain for his tribe 'Taranaki' so on the summit he lit a fire as a sign he had taken possession. When wisps of smoke-like cloud cling to the summit, this is known as the 'fire of Tahurangi'. The ancestral rights of the Taranaki tribe to the mountain was paramount, until they were deprived by the Taranaki Land War confiscation.

The mountains of Taranaki are waahi tapu (sacred) to Maori. It is proclaimed that the vegetation on Taranaki to be his hair, the rocks his bones and also he is kaitiaki (guardian) to the sacred sites and burial places on all the mountains. For this reason it is offensive to Maori people to remove vegetation and rock from the mountain and it is also a violation to interfere with their burial places and sacred sites.

At times, Taranaki, the majestic mountain proudly displays himself for all to admire including Pihanga and Tongariro, whose anger causes eruptions of Ngaruahoe. When the clouds come over the summit, Taranaki is mourning his lost love.

Only the mystique guide, To Toka-Rauhoto-Taipairu, now located at Puniho Pa, in the protected custodianship of the mana whenua, has the power to release Taranaki and when she does he will travel straight back to Pihanga - it is not considered wise to live along this path.

Note: *This summary of the mythology and history of Taranaki was written by Tutewhakaiho Komene for the Egmont National Park Annual Journal, a publication that was initiated by the 'Friends of Egmont' which was first published in 1994.*