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The Service Quality of Maori Tourism Operators
A Gap Analysis

Steven M. Renata

A thesis submitted for the degree of
Master of Commerce
at the University of Otago, Dunedin
New Zealand

January 1996
Abstract

This thesis examines the nature and elements of Maori involvement in tourism using a dyadic assessment of operator service quality.

The SERVQUAL instrument has been proposed as an instrument for the measurement of perceived service quality within a wide range of service categories. The current research examines both the operation of the scale and its management implications in four major sectors of the New Zealand tourism industry.

Data for this study was collected through random mall intercept using a judgemental nonprobability sample of leading Maori tourism operators. In total, two hundred and thirteen useable responses formed the basis of the results.

Major outcomes of the study reveal that; the conceptualisation and measurement of Maori cultural impacts on service encounters is problematic due the difficulty in defining who and what is Maori; the definition and measurement of service quality as a five dimensional construct as in SERVQUAL appears to suffer from a number of methodological shortcomings. For researchers in the process of using SERVQUAL, the results of this study suggest to exercise caution. Suggestions are provided with implications for instrument modification.

The final outcome of the study reveals that the service quality of Maori tourism operators contains significant service gaps highlighting potential strengths and weaknesses and profiles of sector specific characteristics for the future development of this tourism field.
Acknowledgments

The production of this thesis has been truly an exercise in pursuing dreams, patience, responsibility and personal reflection. It began as a naive Maori student returning from the 1990 Waitangi celebrations, upon completion in 1996 developing a degree course in Maori tourism. Many times through that period the thought of giving up crossed my mind as personal and academic objectives of the thesis broadened. Fortunately I have been privileged to know the following people who in one way or another provide clarity and contributed to the completion of this work. Thank you all, kia ora tatou.

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Emma who wrote those enduring words that “You are a Finisher”. Thank you.

This exploratory work is dedicated to my late father Charles Manawanui Renata who inspired the original research direction toward taha Maori, never witnessed the final draft but rests with the vision it created. Haere, haere, haere, taku papa ake amine.
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1.0 Hei timata - He whakaoohooha:
To begin - An awakening

Kia ora koutou....Nau mai, Piki mai, Haere mai. Welcome to Aotearoa
Welcome to the Land of the Long White Cloud...Welcome to New Zealand
Welcome to our World!

By the year 2000 the New Zealand Tourism Board (NZTB) has proposed a
goal of annually hosting 3 million overseas visitors generating an estimated
$10 billion dollars in foreign exchange earnings and 120 000 full-time
equivalent jobs. (Kean. I, New Zealand Tourism Convention 1994)

While a targeted percentage growth is applied to achieving the above visitor
numbers environmental and socio-cultural impacts of increasing tourism
volume highlight the issue of “tourism sustainability.” Defined as meeting
the needs of present visitors, meeting the needs of host communities and
protecting and enhancing the attraction for the future, it stresses the need to
develop strategies that aim at attracting more visitors from higher spending
markets, increasing length of stay, and providing high quality added-value
products and services. NZTB suggest this could enable the achievement
of earnings and employment targets with less than 3 million visitors a year.
(Kean cite Ministry of Tourism Issue Paper No.2; 1992).

This implies that growth for “Destination: New Zealand” should be seen
not purely as an visitor arrivals objective but rather an outcome supported
by effective planning and management processes that focuses on ‘real return
per visitor’, (Haywood 1989)
Firstly, “planning is recognised as an important and advantageous process for organisations.” Empirical research studies (Austin 1990) have tested the relationship between planning and performance, and most have found that organisations tend to perform better when planning is a priority. However “planning of tourism as a distinct activity, requiring a particular body of knowledge and a systematic technical approach, is a relatively new specialisation in development planning.” (Inskeep 1988)

Secondly, tourism management processes in the 1990's will be influenced by a changing environment. Gronroos (1990) defines this environment using the term “service society or service economy,” citing the growing size and increasing importance of the service elements in business and the economy, and birth of a range of new kinds of services that is structurally changing the western world economy. This type of environment is characterised by new bottlenecks in management methods, and new organisational logic in business, creating what Gronroos (ibid) calls service competition. This suggests that rapid industry deregulation, intensifying and changing nature of competition will force managers to seek sustainable competitive advantages through service based strategies. Peters (1987) supports this view stating that in order to survive in the future managers will need the skills to manage in an ever-changing environment: “Thriving on Chaos”.

A major independent study of New Zealand's economy, ‘The Porter Project’, (Crocombe, Enright, and Porter, 1991) reported that in order for New Zealand “to compete successfully in the global economy, industry must move beyond cost-based strategies and move toward strategies that allow New Zealand to compete on quality, features or service rather than price”. The study recommended that for “newer industries the aim should
be to serve segments where a business can differentiate its products and price accordingly.” The most recent trend in many service industries has been the consideration of quality service as the critical factor in determining a sustainable competitive edge.

Discussion from academics and corporate executives suggest that the attention being given to service quality is enabling businesses to achieve a differential advantage over their competitors (Lewis 1989). Leonard and Sasser (1982) claim that “quality has become a major strategic variable in the battle for market share”. Liswood (1989) discusses the financial rewards of superior service noting that “on any formula for success used, such as ROA, ROS, or ROI, those companies with higher quality products and services will have substantially higher results.”

Berry et al. (1989) believe that service excellence is a key strategic weapon - emphasising service quality as a marketing management strategy for the financial services industry; Jaffe (1988) claims that “excellence of service is the critical corporate priority”; and Hutchins (1986) states that “quality, is the business of the whole organisation.” In the case of New Zealand tourism, there is a “need to improve the range and quality of service in order to command high prices” (Crocombe 1991).

Shames and Glover (1990) have explored the area of service quality from a tourism perspective suggesting that a barrier to achieving superior service quality results from a lack of cultural understanding. They suggest that “managers in the international hospitality often set service standards, engage in marketing practices and manage staff without regard to cultural differences. The results can be disastrous all the way down to the bottom line.”
They recommend an alternative approach,...”World Class Service, which is sensitive not only to the cultural predispositions’ of the visitors but also to the dynamics of the organisational culture and to the culture of the hosts and the locale.

World Class Service is, “the consistent satisfaction of the needs and expectations of a culturally diverse public,” and matches the capabilities and the approach of the service provider to the needs and expectations of the service consumer. “At a minimum, it is service perceived by each visitor as appropriate and adequate. At its best it may also make the visitor feel at home, among friends, or pampered. Always it is providing what was promised by the service business”. (ibid). This suggests that impacts of ethnic and cultural awareness by the host on the service process form a measurable attribute within the dimensions of service quality.

Furthermore, as the inbound visitor market to destination New Zealand becomes more culturally diverse (NZTB Asia: Market Brief 1992), “cultural tunnel vision becomes more potentially damaging and the need for culture management more pressing. The mandate for culturally aware service managers is clear.” (Shames and Glover 1990)

1.1 Kaupapa for the Study

“New Zealand Maori (the indigenous people) from all socio-economic levels have expressed interest in making a positive contribution to the present and future New Zealand tourism product,” seeing this as a strategic move toward enhancing their own social, cultural, and economic development, (Maori Tourism Taskforce Report 1987). There has been supported by an increasing awareness with the tourism sector that Maori
culture has a strong appeal to tourists and is essential component of an increasing number of tour packages. This suggests that as New Zealand becomes more competitive in the international marketplace the Maori dimension of the New Zealand tourism product may provide a sustainable competitive advantage. (Training Needs for Tourism: A Report to the Ministry of Tourism 1994).

To date there is no empirical evidence to support the validity of this assumption at a business level. This study is an attempt to explore the issue of delivering World Class Service from an tourism industry perspective and is based on a study of Maori tourism operators.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The general objectives of the study are to:

A. To review the literature on the nature and elements of the New Zealand Maori tourism industry and examine issues relating to the conceptualisation and measurement of service quality.

B. To provide limited replication of the work conducted by those responsible for the development of the SERVQUAL scale.

C. To extend the application of the SERVQUAL scale to a selected set of Maori tourism services

D. To examine the performance of the SERVQUAL scale with a view to suggesting modifications or refinements which might be appropriate for the greater tourism industry
A primary purpose of the study is to demonstrate the robustness of SERVQUAL, a multiple item scale designed to measure consumer perceptions of service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1988), when applied to New Zealand tourism services. A secondary purpose of the study is to establish levels of service quality from a dyadic view.

This approach attempts to measure service quality from the perspective’s of both visitor and host, as reflected by the degree of perceptual service gaps in their respective offerings. (Brown and Swartz 1989). The results of the study should provide a “Service Gap Profile” of Maori tourism operators with regard to service quality, as a basis for further research.

1.3 Organisation of Thesis

A fundamental element of any “real world” study should be a concrete understanding in the key concepts surrounding the study, based on the existing body of theoretical knowledge. As a result this study is divided into the following sections.

1.3.1 Literature Review

The literature review represented by chapters 2-6 provides a extensive summary of the existing background and theory to this study. In essence it attempts to provide a vision for Maori in tourism and an insight into the subject area.

Chapter 2 reviews the concept of ‘Te Whenua Te Iwi, The Land and The People’, the cultural predisposition of the New Zealand Maori people including:

- Defining who is Maori
- The Maori world view and Maori culture
• The effects of Colonisation
• Tourism issues related to the Treaty of Waitangi

Chapter 3 highlights the evolution and development of Maori tourism industry, including Maori human resource issues for the 1990’s. Specifically this chapter reviews:

Defining Maori Tourism
• Rotorua, an example of Maori Tourism Development
• Issues related to the Maori Tourism Image
• Issues related to Maori Tourism at private and public level
• Issues related to Maori Human Resource Development

Chapter 4 introduces the topic of Tourism Service Marketing. Specifically
• Service marketing a field of study
• Defining services
• Services characteristics
• The nature of tourism services
• Service marketing of tourism services

Chapter 5 introduces the topic of Service Quality. Specifically:
• Service quality as a strategy
• The conceptualisation of service quality
• Measurement of service quality
• Determinants of service quality

Chapter 6 introduces the service quality instrument SERVQUAL. A review of the development of SERVQUAL and potential application of the instrument within the tourism industry is offered.
Chapter 7 introduces the concept and application of Gap Analysis specifically the theory behind obtaining a dyadic perspective of service quality, that is from the perspective of both visitor and host. The literature review provides a frame of reference for areas which may be priorities for further research of Maori involvement in tourism.

1.3.2 Primary Research
The primary research is summarized in chapters 8, 9 and 10. While providing quantitative analysis on the service quality of Maori tourism operators it does not attempt to investigate all areas and issues covered in the proceeding literature review. Because so little academic research has been done on Maori involvement in tourism the theory covered in the literature review deliberately adopts a broad focus. It is hoped this will provide a greater appreciation of taha Maori (the Maori dimension) within the generic New Zealand tourism product. A discussion of the results and implications for Maori tourism operators is provided within chapters 9 and 10. The conclusion and recommendations to the study are outlined in chapter 11.

1.4 Limitations of Study
This study is one of the first to look at Maori involvement in tourism from a marketing perspective. Upon researching this area of study it became apparent that there currently exists “a growing interest in the future of Maori tourism development into the 1990’s and beyond.” (Training Needs in the Tourism Sector: Report to the Ministry of Tourism 1994) Issues regarding future development of Maori tourism include;

- Cultural sensitivity of training and education for Maori
- Protection of cultural and intellectual property
In researching this study it became apparent that there is a vast array of possible areas to explore, approaches to take, and that an attempt to cover everything in depth would create numerous studies. As such the study suffers in some ways because of its narrowness, approaching the service quality of Maori in tourism from a contextual perspective. This research approach reveals possible generalisations that may be drawn from a study of the specific. The primary research focuses on the measurement of service quality and the "perceptual service gaps" of both host and visitor.

The results of this study must therefore be interpreted in light of the fact that they can only be generalised to Maori involvement in tourism industry and do not in any way reflect the service quality of non-Maori tourism interests. The theory summarized in the literature review has been drawn from domestic and international sources and can be applied as such, however the primary research was intended to provide an insight into the New Zealand situation and should be interpreted accordingly.

1.5 Ka Awatea-light heralding the start of a new day

In January 1991 the New Zealand Ministerial Planning Group were given the task of providing a report to the Minister of Maori Affairs which discussed the current position of Maori in society and the issue of Maori development. The results of the report suggest that Maori have been marginalised and currently occupy a peripheral place in society.
The Maori Tourism Taskforce Report (1987) highlighted tourism as a potentially viable industry for Maori economic development claiming that “New Zealand stands, as in the 1880’s, at the beginning of another major economic restructuring. The report predicts ‘a massive shift of resources, as far reaching as the transition from the old extractive and grazing industries of the 19th Century to the scientific pastoralism of the 20th Century. Based on this rationale it recommended that it will be essential for the state to assist the Maori people making the transition into one of the industries that still offers economic opportunities to small scale enterprise - tourism.”

However, if there is to be significant participation by Maori in New Zealand’s bid to become internationally competitive as a nation then this will largely be predicated on the need to invest in education and training, in other words, in Maori human resources (Ministerial Planning Group 1991). Crocombe et al (1991) stresses the underpinning’s of this point stating, “…the quality and productivity of the human resource has become more critical to sustaining competitive advantage than inherited factor advantages.” Skill New Zealand represents a macro response to the above issues, a strategy to raise the skill levels of all New Zealanders. Based on the 1992 Industry Training Act this strategy encourages industry to form Industry Training Organisations (ITOs). The ITOs are responsible for:

- Setting national standards and qualifications for their industry
- Developing training for employers in their industry
- Arranging for delivery of training on and off the job
- Deciding how to monitor training standards and the assessment of trainees

The first step for an ITO is to undertake a training needs analysis to identify current and future skill requirements for the industry. The skills identified
are broken down into specific areas of skill and knowledge called skill or unit standards. Trainees gain credit towards a qualification when they achieve the specified standard. The standards are registered on the National Qualifications Framework and regularly reviewed and updated by the industry, in consultation with the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA). Key areas of training concerning Maori involvement in tourism are:

- **Education and Training in skills for Maori in Maori culture and tourism**
- **Education and Training for non-Maori in Maori Cultural Awareness**

(Ministry of Tourism 1994)

As a secondary objective this study will focus on the first area, skills for Maori, highlighting perceptual gaps in service quality of Maori tourism operators. The empirical research findings will provide a frame of reference for the tourism ITO needs analysis on Maori tourism training issues.
2.0 Te Whenua Te Iwi - The Land and the People

"Whatu ngarongaro te tangata. Toitu te whemua"

"People perish but the land is permanent."

(Anon)

Ki te mai ui ki au (And if you ask of me)

He aha te mea mui ki tenei ao

(What indeed is the greatest treasure on earth)

Maku e kii atu (My reply can only be)

He Tangata! He Tangata! He tangata!

(Tis people! Tis people! Tis people!)

(Anon)

Introduction

An underlying objective of this study of Maori operators in tourism is to gain insight into the delivery of World Class Service. Shames and Glover (1989) suggest that "Culture determines what the service providers and customers perceive as needs, what and how they will communicate, what they value and how they will react to each other. The provider (or host) enters the service experience with a predisposition to certain behaviours based on his or her own national or ethnic culture as well as the culture of the service organisation he or she represents."

It is with the first aspect, the hosts' ethnic culture, that this research is primarily concerned. The kaupapa (platform) of this section includes: Defining who is Maori; The Maori world view, Defining Maori culture; The colonisation of Aotearoa/ New Zealand by Maori and Pakeha; The Treaty of Waitangi and associated issues of Maori economic development.
2.1 Defining 'Maori'

Metge J (1976) reports New Zealanders make a basic twofold distinction between Maori and Pakeha (or 'European'). Though terms indicating mixed ancestry such as 'half-caste' and 'part-Maori' are sometimes used, they do not identify a separate, third category. This suggests that the Maori classification in a contemporary context may include not only Maoris with only Maori ancestry but many with mixed ancestry as well.

Review of New Zealand legislation (Metge ibid) highlights the profusion of attempts since 1953 to approach a single definition of a Maori. For example The Maori Affairs Act 1953, one of the most extensive pieces of legislation relating to Maori matters defined a Maori as;

"a person belonging to the aboriginal race of New Zealand, including 'half-caste' and a person intermediate between 'half caste' and a person of pure descent from that race."

In 1974 Maori Affairs Amendment Act extended this definition to read;

"Maori, means a person of the Maori race of New Zealand and includes any descendant of such a person."

In 1975 The Electoral Amendment Act adopted the above definition and provided that all adult Maoris so defined be given the right to choose whether they wish to vote on the Maori or General roll on electoral reforms distributed at the time of the Census. However no law requires any person who qualifies under the above definition to declare themselves as Maori; in effect. It is left up to the individual to take advantage of the right to do so for some purposes
and not for others; choice is absolute and may be reversed, without question or penalty. Until 1966, Census schedules asked citizens to declare their degree of Maori blood, if any, in 1971 this wording was changed to ask declaration in terms of full New Zealand Maori, or to give particulars, ie. as 3/4 European - 1/4 New Zealand Maori etc (ibid).

These statistics in turn were used by The New Zealand Census for providing information such as 'The Increase and Location and Maori Population and Dwellings.' The Maori population in this case included all those who declared themselves half or more and of mixed Maori and other Polynesian descent. (No proof of Maori descent was required on census declarations.)

Metge J (1976) contests that without proof of ancestry it highly likely that many people overstate their degree of Maoriness ie full blooded Maori when they are in fact only three quarters full blooded Maori or similarly half Maori when in fact they are only three eights Maori. Metge considers this is 'overstatement of Maori ancestry', to be related to identifying with a 'social and cultural feeling' rather than blood levels. As a result it is suggested that the Census data pre-1966 does not give an objective count of the number of persons who are half- Maori or more. Rather it reflects something of far greater significance, the number of those who identify themselves as Maori: in words, a reliable measure of the Maori social group.

2.1.1 Maori Ethnicity

The 1960's and 1970's marked a fundamental shift in the way that many people, including sociologists, analysed intergroup relations, or race relations, as it had been called up until then, (Spoonley 1988). Whereas in the previously groups of people had been identified by race or biological determination the new concept called ethnicity was introduced. This concept centres on
acknowledging the positive feelings of belonging to a cultural group, it is essentially an identity that reflects the cultural experiences and feelings of particular group. Schermerhorn (1970) defines an ethnic group as;

"a collective within a larger society having real or putative (supposedly) common ancestry, memories of a shared historical past and a cultural focus on one or more symbolic elements defined as the epitome of their peoplehood...A necessary accompaniment is some consciousness of kind (or ethnicity) among members of the group.

Spoonley (ibid) suggests that for an ethnic group to exist there needs to be cultural practices or beliefs that define it as different from other groups in society, typically symbolic elements such as language, social structures, diet, religious belief, dress, rituals, or political affiliation to certain groups. Further there needs to be a collective consciousness of difference and of being related to others who share those differences. These difference are culturally defined and in ways that are not always obvious to an outsider. As such it is possible that some ethnic groups are invisible to the wider society and it is only within the group that a feeling of ethnicity prevails. Because of this fundamental change in classifying people the 1986 New Zealand Census adopted a revised style of classifying people by requesting a declaration of "What is your ethnic origin?" The Maori category for the 1986 Census numbers was 403,185 or 12.36% of New Zealand's total population. Therefore it is highly likely that a proportion of this group are of mixed ancestry less than half Maori and yet identify with being defined as a New Zealand Maori. (New Zealand Official Yearbook 1986-87)

Ritchie (1963) also adds that "In New Zealand today there is little in using a physical or racial definition of who is and who is not Maori. The matter is best
defined only by understanding what is meant to use in constant interaction the assumptions about the world that stem from a background of, Maori experience. Being Maori means that in addition to knowledge of and participation in, the patterns of Non-Maori New Zealand life, the person who acknowledges his/her Maoriness acts in terms of another whole set of purposes and intentions and purposes." In support of this view point, review of legal literature suggests that any attempt to define of who is Maori should reflect components of ethnicity rather than focusing on biological ancestry criteria. (New Zealand Official Year Book 1986-87)

2.2 Defining Maori Culture

Using ethnicity as a basis for defining who is a Maori necessitates an understanding of what is Maori culture. Attempts to define Maori culture suggest that Maori and Pakeha recognise the continuing existence of something called "Maori Culture" but differ in their interpretation of the respective meanings. Difference of interpretation can be attributed to the following: different world views and different uses of the term culture. The following sections will attempt to explore these issues.

2.2.1 The Maori World View

Irwin J (1984) suggests that people's view of history is bound up in and emerges from their world view. "Western man's view of history is that it is an ongoing linear process, a continuum, with a beginning and an end. Conversely Maori do not accept the concept of a closed universe. Instead their world view combines Maori society together as a functional whole and illustrates the complexity of humankind's relationship to the sacred and the secular worlds. Maori do not see the sacred and secular as separated but as of the whole. Theirs is a holistic view of life." Figure 2.2.1 schematically depicts the Maori
world view illustrating a three-tiered structure made up of the realm of Ultimate Reality, the realm of the Human, and the realm of the Dead."

Figure 2.2.1 Maori Cosmology: Maori Religion and the World View

The three-tier system shown indicates the interpretation of the sacred into the mundane world, they do not represent not closed systems; rather they interpenetrate each other. When put together it provides a cosmic picture which constitutes the primal world of the Maori. Furthermore it illustrates a viewpoint made by Metge (1976 cit. Irwin 1984) that "the values and sanctions of Maori society are derived from a spiritual conception of the universe and a belief spiritual beings and supernatural powers."
Salmond (1975) expands on the spiritual and physical significance of the Maori world view, using an age old karakia (chant) by Tohunga (priests) which describes a whakapapa (genealogy) of the first stirrings of the universe, and progressed to the birth of the mythical homeland Hawaiki:

The first period...

From the conception the increase
from the increase the thought
from the thought the remembrance
from the remembrance the consciousness
from the consciousness the desire.

The second period...
the world became fruitful
it dwelt with the feeble glimmering,
it brought forth night:
the great night, the long night,
the lowest night, the loftiest night,
the thick night to be felt
the night to be touched
the night not to be seen
the night of death

The third period...
from the nothing, the begetting,
from the nothing the increase,
from the nothing the abundance,
the power of increasing,
the living breath:
it dwelt with the empty space which made the atmosphere
above us which floats above earth
the great firmament above us, dwelt with the early dawn,
And the moon sprang forth:
the atmosphere above us, dwelt with heat
and hence proceeded the sun:
They were thrown up above us as the chief eyes of heaven,
then the heavens became light,
the early, the early day,
the midday, the blaze of day from the sky.
The fourth period...
The sky above dwelt with Hawaiki, and produced land...
(cite Taylor 1855: Salmond 1975)

Continuation of this whakapapa (genealogy) makes reference to the creation of the natural world through the union of the first primal parents Ranganui (Sky Father) and Papa-tua-nuku (Earth Mother). In the beginning these primal parents lay in an eternal embrace producing numerous progeny, in some accounts 70 in number, all of whom were male. Tired of living in darkness the sons conspired to separate the parents. (Irwin 1984)

After many unfruitful attempts Tane lay down on Papa, bracing his feet against Rangi and extending his arm against Papa. Upside down and struggling fiercely, with the help of his brothers, the reluctant parents were inexorably forced apart. "Finally separated and grieving for each other Rangi's tears became the rain and Papa's the rising mists", (Irwin ibid).

Following the separation of their parents the brothers began to fight for dominance. Tane became god of the forests and birds and represents life, prosperity, welfare and sunlight. Tangaroa became god of the sea.
Tawhirimatea decided to remain with his parents and punished his brothers by creating the wind. Tumatauenga became the god of war and has dominion over human beings. Haumiatikitiki became the god of uncultivated foods and Rongomatene became the god of agriculture and peace. (Manatu Maori 1991)

The final period, the creation of humankind is attributed to Tane mahuta who searched for the female element and finally fashioned the first female ‘Hineahuone” (earth formed maiden), from red earth and breathed life - mauri - into her nostrils. This is remembered in the classic whakahooho (opening phrase/awakening). ”Tehei mauriora” - "Behold the sneeze of life."

Walker (1987) also discusses the spiritual and physical significance of the Maori world view stating "The Maori creation myth recognizes three states of being from the beginning of universe to the creation and descent of man". The first period recognizes the eternity of geological time when the world came into being as a void (Te Kore). The second stage of existence is also divided by qualifying adjectives, ie the dark (Te Po), the great night (Te Po nui), the long night (Te Po roa), and in this state potential of life is recognised. The third period is known as Te Ao Marama (the world of light) and it is then Te ira Tangata (the life principle) is established with the separation of Rangi and Papa and the creation of the first human form by Tane Mahuta. The significance of Maori myth, prohibition and taboo is in their relationship to nature which establishes: the "Maori World View" - Man is not above nature.

Rather man is expected to interact with nature in a meaningful way. "The myths lay down in a remote period of time general propositions concerning man and nature to ensure that people did not push this relationship to far", (Manatu ibid). The code is expanded in the second phase of Maori development in traditional times. While myths are located in the distant
Hawaiki homeland, traditions begin with the stories of migration to Aotearoa (Walker 1987).

In summary the Maori view of creation embodies both the spiritual and physical elements of the created world: the earth representing those beings that are transitory, and the sky the realm of the undying. Key concepts in Maori culture result from the emphasis on the interrelatedness of physical and spiritual reality (Metge 1976). Having identified the Maori world view as the basis traditional Maori culture the following research will attempt to identify specific concepts that are relevant to a contemporary setting.

2.2.2 Maori Culture - Maori and Pakeha views

Metge (1976) reports that Pakeha tend to view Maori culture being composed of language, distinctive Maori arts and crafts, and certain customs derived from pre European (Classic) Maori culture. This view of Maori culture sees it as belonging to the past rather than the present, and to the private, leisure time sector rather than the whole life. It is viewed as a collection of pieces from something that was once but is longer an integrated system. Additionally, Pakeha use of Classic Maori culture as a standard creates the view that any change as decline, loss and Europeanization, and 'Maori culture' is seen as inevitably 'dying' or 'being watered down'.

"Conversely, Maori intuitively view their own culture as being a matter of the present, a living and lived-in reality either for themselves or for others well known to them. It encompasses a wide range of behaviour, including everyday practices as well as ceremonial.". In an attempt to develop a definition Metge (ibid) offers an anthropological approach to defining Maori culture. Using this approach Maori culture is described as covering the whole of life not just
selected aspects, and inward ideas as well as outward forms. Maori culture is therefore defined as;

"the system of symbols and meaning shared by those who identify themselves as Maori at any given time"

In summary this approach defines Maori culture in terms of living people rather than its imagined content at a period in the past, and provides for changes over time, highlighting not only the individual elements of the culture but the way in which the elements are related to each other.

2.2.3 Key Concepts of Maori Culture

In support of a contemporary approach (Barlow 1991) offers an extensive review of seventy concepts he describes as "important for understanding Maori culture as practised today and concepts which are likely to be of relevant in the future." In an attempt to identify the cultural concepts relevant to this study the research adopts a synecdotal approach, this implies highlighting 'key' cultural concepts which are symbolic of Maori culture as a whole.

The Maori world view suggests that many of the cultural concepts are best described through "the device of oppositions - for every positive there is a negative - and these provide a logical structure for the cosmos", (Irwin 1984). The following series provide an example of these contrasting ideas or 'oppositions' forming what is described as an 'exhaustive classification'. Highlighting that "the two concepts go together and cannot be properly understood except in relation to each other." (Metge 1976)
The latter pair (runga, raro) give the opposition of 'up, above' to 'down, below' and the series is seen to link words such as ora (life) to runga (above), and aitua (misfortune) to raro (below). So in seeking to make sense of the cosmos Maori used this structure as a basis for learning. From the opposition structure a summary list of cultural concepts is derived and listed below. It includes only those cultures which were common across the literature, (Barlow ibid; Metge 1976; Irwin 1984), and fulfilled research objectives as discussed previously.

**Tapu**

Since the arrival of the Missionaries the word tapu has been translated as "holy". To the Maori tapu is often used in contexts where "sacred" does not fit. People, places, objects and actions can have varying degrees of tapu-ness. A tapu may be permanent or temporary and imposed or lifted. Everything designated tapu should be handled according to prescribed rules. According to tradition breach of tapu can result in sickness, trouble or even death. (Walker 1987)

**Noa**

Conversely noa can be defined as free from tapu or any other description. noa has positive as well as negative elements, as tapu also has.(Walker ibid)
Mate
Mate is an adjective which can mean both sick and dead: its basic meaning would seem to involve weakening of physical being. It is used in phrases to render hungry, thirsty, and in love. Mate is also used as a noun but as such signifies a death or a dead person rather than death in abstract. (Metge 1976)

Ora
Ora contains ideas of life and well being. Sometimes it is interpreted in terms of physical life as compared to death, as when a speechmaker, having paid respects to the dead. (Metge ibid)

Aitua
Aitua means misfortune or calamity in both the specific and general sense. It can be used for misfortunes of many kinds, but it is applied particularly to death, the ultimate aitua, foreshadowed by the lesser ones. (Metge ibid)

Tika
Tika literally means straight, direct; keeping a straight course. Being tika involves keeping to the prescribed path. For Maori the tika ways are those laid down by God and by the group, especially by one's ancestors. (Metge ibid)

He
He involves departing from the prescribed path, just to err in English means to go astray. He can also mean perplexed or at a loss. (Metge ibid)

Mana
Various terms are used for the nature and function of Mana in particular contexts. A selection of these follows. (King 1975)

Mana atuatanga pertaining to gods.
Mana ariki  inherited by children of chiefs especially the first born.
Mana tapu  sacred power.
Mana ora    life-giving power.
Mana tangata human mana acquired by leadership skill, etc
Mana whenua pertaining to the land which is Earth Mother and the progenitor of man.
Mana Maori  that which belongs to the Maori way of life.

Mana is a term that has changed in its interpretation over time. In classic Maori times ana signified power of the supernatural origin which possessed rather than was possessed by both men and things. It was possession by Mana which made both tapu, and mana itself that punished breaches of tapu. In Modern times Mana equates with prestige and status, and often to those who manifest the gifts of leadership and ability. Although broadening the definition, a person's Mana is still perceived through the authority given in expression. (Walker 1990)

Whakama

Whakama is a word without an English counterpart - though shyness, shame and withdrawal all convey part of the meaning. "It always involves an implicit if not explicit comparison with other people in which the person who is whakama comes off second best. Whakama is bound up with the lack or loss of mana in relation to others." (Metge 1986)

Whakaihi

Whakaihi is defined as arrogance or setting one's self above others. (Metge 1986)
Whakaiti
Whakaiti is defined as self belittling analogous to humility. It is a quality that is expected of the ordinary person and admired in those whose mana would justify self-assertion. (Metge 1986)

Aroha
Aroha is usually translated into English as love. The root meaning for aroha is love for kin, and implies not only affectionate feelings but also the issue of those feelings in action. Aroha stands for all those feelings of empathy that link people together and with God, and provides a basis for the impetus towards social interaction and positive reciprocity. (Metge 1976)

Awhina
Awhina refers mainly to the provision of tangible help and support in the form of goods, money, personal attendance and labour. (Metge 1976)

Manaaki
Manaaki means caring in the fullest possible sense, giving not only practical help but also moral support, comfort and protection from harm. It is the word that is used most often when saying 'God bless you'... 'Ma te Atua koe e manaaki'. (Metge ibid)

Utu/Reciprocity
The principle of reciprocity continues to play an important part in Maori society, though the word utu is not greatly used. This is possibly because Pakeha commonly translate it as revenge, giving it a purely negative meaning. Modern day emphasis is on the obligation to reciprocate gifts. (Metge ibid)
Unity/Kotahitanga
Maori place a high value on unity in social life, whether in family, descent group, local community or voluntary association, expecting and bringing strong pressures to bear on individuals to place the good of the group above personal wishes and convenience. The word used for the ideal of unity is formed by adding the noun ending tanga to the numeral 'one': kotahitanga or 'oneness'. (Walker 1990; Metge ibid)

Mauri
Mauri is the te hau ora (living breath) imparted at birth and signified by the sneeze when a new born child first responds to its new environment. This mauri is the principle of life. It contains the personhood of the individual and might well be described as the soul of the person. It is this that holds a person's mana. Should one's mana be violated, the mauri can be destroyed.

In summary the basic concepts referred to above pervade and underlie all aspects of Maori life. Over the last 150 years the concepts have been developed and modified with interaction with both Christianity and science, (Metge 1976).

Study of particular aspects of Maori life ie marae protocol, kinship, etc, demonstrates that these concepts are a part of an interlocking system, and inextricably linked, manifesting themselves under may different headings, (Walker 1990, Metge 1976). As such these concepts do not lend themselves to neat, clear cut definition, but have a range of connotations and in-built ambiguities which individuals play and exploit. This suggests that any attempt to explore how patterns of behaviour are affected and realised should implicitly consider the effects of related concepts.
2.2.4 Maoritanga

Added to the complexity of defining Maori culture is the associated use of the word Maoritanga. Metge J (1976) suggests Maori people tend to use the term Maoritanga rather than Maori culture. Ritchie J (1963) comments that this term, which is used without clear definition but with great sentimental significance, embraces those elements of traditional Maori culture. The late Sir Apirana Ngata described Maoritanga as:

"An emphasis on such Maori characteristics and such features of traditional Maori culture as present - day circumstances will permit, the inculcation of pride in Maori history and traditions, the retention so far as possible of ceremonial, their continuous attempt to interpret the Maori point of view to the Pakeha in power."

(cite Metge 1976: Sutherland 1940)

Ngata listed eight components of Maoritanga: (Ritchie 1963)

- The Maori language;
- The sayings of the ancestors
- Traditional chant-songs;
- Posture dances;
- Decorative art;
- The traditional Maori house and marae;
- The body of marae custom, particularly that pertaining to the tangihanga — traditional welcome;
- The retention of the prestige and nobility of the Maori people.

Metge J (1976) highlights two possible uses of the term Maoritanga by Maori. The first describing a general attitude of pride for things Maori and of identification with Maori and Maori ways: this attitude is sometimes described
as 'te wairua Maori' ('the Maori spirit'). The second is used to refer to ways of 'looking and doing things' which Maori hold to be distinctively and/or characteristically Maori. Metge offers her own comprehensive framework of Maori:anga adopting a two stage approach. The first stage describing the union of outward and visible forms with inward, invisible ideas:

- The Maori language, as used by both for everyday and ceremonial purposes;
- Attachment to the land of one's ancestors as a social and economic asset and as a symbol of identity;
- Emphasis on kinship as an important basis for ordering social relations and on descent as a determinant of relative rank and membership in tribes and sub tribes;
- The institution of the marae comprising both the physical complex of land and buildings and the ideas and practices centred on it;
- The marking of significant events and group encounters by largescale gatherings (hui), of which the most important is the tangihanga (mourning wake):
- Distinctively Maori methods of group organisation and decision making including the public expression of assent and striving towards unanimity;
- Respect for and practice of traditional knowledge and skills, where 'traditional' means 'inherited from Maori forebears' but not necessarily of pre-European derivation: oral history and literature, the study of whakapapa (descent lines), various ceremonial forms, a variety of crafts, and the arts of story-telling and speech-making;
- Preparation and enjoyment of foods regarded as Kai Maori ('Maori food')
The second stage addresses those abstract concepts and values which underlie and inform the whole Maori experience of life:

- An essentially religious view of the world and man's place in it, expressed in a series of complementary oppositions: between spiritual and earthly realms and beings, tapu and noa, ora and aitua, tika and he;
- A view of the man-woman relation that stresses complementarity;
- The concept of mana, used to express and explain differential status and achievement;
- The concept of aroha (love) and the associated virtues of awhina (helping) and manaaki (caring for);
- A conception of time that stresses relativity and the continuity of past, present and future;
- A conception of unity (kotahitanga) which involves the explicit recognition, even exaggeration, of differences, followed by their mediation.

Contrasting definitions of Maoritanga and Maori culture, illustrates that the concept of Maoritanga is more descriptive of some nationalistic practices than of culture in the anthropological sense, (Ritchie 1963). Metge offers an alternative perspective suggesting that Maoritanga in the latter sense covers less ground than the anthropological definition of Maori culture given above, but emphatically includes those Maori ideas and values which underlie and find expression in all kinds of behaviour, including those shared with Pakeha." (cite Metge 1976; National Council of Churches 1964)
2.2.5 Maoritanga and tribal variation

Rangihau J (1975) dismisses the concept of Maoritanga suggesting that "there is no such thing. He suggests that being Maori is absolutely dependent on personal history relative to a specific iwi (tribe) versus being a Maori person. In his view Maoritanga is defined as all-inclusive term embracing all Maori negating tribal distinctiveness (kawa). These assertions are based on the premise that tribal history and protocol cannot be shared, and tribal protocol can only be enforced within tribal boundaries.

For example a vital aspect of Tuhoetanga is the humility, however elders of the Tuhoe would encourage and enforce this concept only with people of Tuhoe descent, not only as a mark of tribal identity but also as a sign of respect to non Tuhoe persons.

Te Awekotuku (1991) observes that, for some Maori the maintenance of long established tribal traditions strengthens tribunalta, magnifies tribal mana and thus secures identity. Conversely this argument is offset by another reality- the ability to adapt. In the case of Te Arawa, women are forbidden to speak on the marae, however traditional protocol is being threatened by demographics. Te Awekotuku comments, "Women live longer than men and there suffer a literal scarcity of qualified competent orators. In the tourism context Te Arawa have learned to adapt and explore of ways of doing things. Tourism imposed itself upon the Maori view, and women became not only the mediators but the main players, for the Maori side. In this case Women - as entrepreneurs, guides, cultural brokers, innovators - have been essential to the understanding and experience, of tourism by Te Arawa." This point highlights previous comments made in section 2.3 that in order for culture to survive it must also be dynamic and adaptable to an everchanging environment.
Consequently, while "Maoritanga is widely used as a word it is much less understood as a concept. It is not an homogeneous product but rather an idea, in which differentiation and variation are of key importance. Maoritanga and tribal variations are neither rivals or alternatives but rather the former is made manifest in and through the latter." (Metge 1976) While it is accepted that tribal differences are general differences of particularity and detail they should not be underrated. This suggests that attempts to better understand Maoritanga should be approached through one of its tribal forms.

Having identified some of the main issues with respect to exploring definitions of Maori culture it is now appropriate to consider further issues of culture: the effects of colonisation of Aotearoa by Maori and Pakeha.

2.3 Te Hekenga O Nga Waka

The Polynesian ancestors of Maori people had been occupying a region in and around Samoa and Tonga over one thousand years when they began undertaking a series of long ocean voyages of discovery and settlement of the islands in the Great Ocean of Kiwa, (Walker 1990). Current theories suggest that from about 0 to 300 AD, the Samoans migrated to the Marquesas Islands, and by 400 AD, at the latest populations had been established in Hawaii, Easter Island, and the Society Islands. "Aotearoa was last to be settled around 800 AD", Campbell (1989 cit. Moon 1993). Recent research is giving increasing recognition to the 'remarkable achievement' (Walker 1990) of the early Polynesian explorers, their knowledge systems in Pacific migrations thus diminishing earlier theories of accidental habitation of Polynesia, (Moon 1993).

Work by Lewis (1972) on Polynesian maritime skills dismiss most of the theories of the early nineteenth century research. In his work Lewis refutes not
only the Polynesian mariner romanticism theories (Smith 1907; Best 1925; & Te Rangihiroa 1949) but also the drift voyage theory (Sharp 1957), revealing that the early navigators had an extensive array of techniques on voyages of discovery and settlement. Determinants for the migrations are reviewed by both (Moon 1993 & Walker 1990). The key determinants include;

- Population growth constraining limited production functions
- Social pressures
- Polynesian mentality for exploration and discovery

Moon (ibid) notes that one of the central reasons Polynesians were so successful in migration was of their ability to duplicate social structure in new environments. The kinship links (as discussed in section 2.2.3) of the extended family, with a broad base of independence allowed for fragmentation and separation of bigger family which could after a process of migration, regroup and redefine its role in the new environment. This suggests that Polynesians were not bound to a location by a strong spiritual attachment to the land in the way that the Maori later became.

2.3.1. Legendary Maori Explorers

Although archaeological research acknowledges human settlement in Aotearoa from 800 AD, tribal traditions which date back from the fourteenth century reveal little about that period, (Walker 1990). It is suffice to say that archaeologists have termed 800 AD to 1100 AD, as the Archaic Maori culture period (or moa hunter period) and from 1100 AD to 1300 AD the Classic Maori culture period.
A central legendary character in the settlement of Aotearoa is Kupe. However it is worth noting that different tribes acknowledge other characters as their founding ancestors, this highlights the concept of tribal variation as discussed in section 2.2.5.

Tribes from the Bay of Plenty on the east coast of the North Island acknowledge 'Te Tini o Toi, as one of their founding ancestors from the Proto-Macri period. They believe that Toi's ancestor was Tiwakawaka (fantail), the first person to settle the land in ancient times implying that Toi's ancestors had been in New Zealand from the beginning of time. Alternatively Ngai Tahu, the predominant tribe of Te Wai Pounamu, acknowledge 'Paikea' as their founding ancestor. Paikea is said to have ridden a whale from Hawaiki in the Pacific islands to Turanga, (Tau Te Marie et al 1990).

As for Kupe, traditions of the tribes on the west coast of the North Island acknowledge him as a legendary navigator whom explored the coastline of New Zealand around the mid thirteenth century. Historically it was believed that Kupe the legendary navigator was the founding ancestor of New Zealand arriving around 925 AD, (Walker 1990). Work by Simmons (1976) in his book the "The Great New Zealand Myth" debunked this theory and instead placed Kupe's exploits around the early fourteenth century which also coincides with the canoe migrations of Maori to New Zealand around 1350 AD.

As for the sighting of New Zealand, one version of Maori tradition credits this to Hine te aparangi, Kupe's wife. Alpers (1964) notes...

"After sailing for many days keeping a constant watch for any sign of land, such as a patch of different colour on the underside of the
clouds, or a cloud of unusual shape, Hine te aparangi saw something. She cried, "He Ao! He Ao!" ("a cloud, a cloud") and the land beneath the cloud, when they sailed along it, was found to be much longer than any island they had ever known." They therefore named it "Aotearoa, Long White Cloud."

Kupe is also acknowledged for the naming of prominent physical features during his exploration of the New Zealand coastline. One of the most famous place names which Kupe gave to New Zealand occurs in the North Auckland peninsula; Te Hokianga-nui-a Kupe (the great returning place of Kupe). Tradition has it that Kupe returned to Hawaiki to pass on knowledge of his exploits, (Walker 1990).

2.3.2. The Great Migration Myth

Tribal traditions recount waka -(double hulled canoe) migrations around the fourteenth century which coincide with the return of Kupe and anthropological record of earlier settlement activity. Hawaiki is referred to as the place of origin of Maori people, however it is simply a generic term for homeland, Moon (ibid). Thus for the many ancient accounts of migration for various tribes there are many Hawaiki along the route all the way back to Samoa and Tonga. Hawaiki is used to refer only to the last homeland and not a specific island, (Walker (1990). A popular waiata (song) "Nga Waka", cites seven waka (ancestral canoe)

TAINUI, TE ARAWA, MATAATUA, KURAHAUPO, TOKOMARU, TAKITIMU, AOTEA

These waka are viewed as being responsible for delivering the ancestors of the Maori to Aotearoa/New Zealand. Whether migration took place in a few within a few years or over several decades is not known. What is certain is
that the Maori did not arrive in 'Great fleet' of about six or seven canoes as was the popular belief until recently. Within Maori legend or tribal accounts there is no mention of such a fleet, and anthropological study suggests that the population of Aotearoa by the thirteenth century could not have stemmed from a fleet this size. (Moon 1993; Walker 1990)

2.3.3 Nga Waka

"Because the seafaring tradition of the Polynesian endured as an important folk memory of Maori tribes, the waka (canoe) in New Zealand became a potent symbol of tribal identity, mana (prestige) and territory" (Walker 1990). Tribal tradition acknowledges mana o te whenua (sovereignty over land) as belonging to tangata whenua (host people) and rangitiratanga (chieftainship) as coming from canoe migrants. A Bay of Plenty tribal aphorism describes thus:

"Na Toi raua ko Potiki te whenua, na Tuhoe te mana me te rangitiratanga." "The land belonged to Toi and Potiki, the mana and chieftainship belonged to Tuhoe". Walker (1990)

"The lineages of migrant ancestors became important as legitimating charters for the tribal groups that emerged after the fourteenth century, and the waka that was identified with their migration became a political symbol of the new order", (Walker ibid). Through recitement of whakapapa, heroes from mythology span the gap between the remote past and the ancestors of the canoes from whom descent was traced to living person. This highlights the concept of mana based on whakapapa (discussed in section 2.4.2), and suggests that identity, as a key concept in contemporary Maori culture, has potential to create certain predispositions in behaviour of Maori - the service providers.
2.4 Tauiwi - Coming of the Pakeha

"Kei i te awe kapara he tangata ke, mana te ao, he ma."

"Shadowed behind the tattooed face a stranger stands, 
he owns the earth, and he is white."

(A prophesy made by a dying chief)

When the first white people first arrived in Aotearoa they were described as "pakeha" which can be defined as foreign or in modern terms as someone of predominantly European descent. "The first part repeated as pakapakeha refers to mythical beings from Maori mythology resembling humans but with fair skins." MacDonald (1989)

The word 'Maori' is the name given to the indigenous people of New Zealand. The origin of the word is not known, but Maori are supposed to have referred to themselves as Maori well before the arrival of the Pakeha", (Barlow 1990). As an adjective it denotes temporal or physical things in their natural state. MacDonald (1990) offers an opinion stating that "for the Maori reality took on a paradoxical stance once the pakeha arrived. What was foreign was imposed on the land and what was normal and ordinary became strange.

The forests were cut down, land was alienated and Aotearoa took on a bizarre mirror image of England in the Antipodes." The Maori had been already been in occupation of Aotearoa for nearly 800 years when Abel Tasman sighted land in 1642, calling it Staten Landt. After Tasman's return from his Southern Ocean expedition the Dutch renamed it "New Zealand" This name honours a flat stretch of the Netherlands which is very different from the antipodean reality - three islands with wild coasts and rugged mountains.
Owens (1981) notes Tasman's arrival marked two distinctive features of the European approach to New Zealand. Tasman's instructions drawn up by the Dutch East India Company at Batavia illustrate this:

- *A clear distinction was perceived between savage races and civilised races. The latter were to be treated with extreme caution since they perceived that..."barbarian men are no way to be trusted".*

- *Trade was to be the basis of any kind of relationship with local peoples. "Even the savages were to be won over with kindness, in order to learn "whether there is anything to be got or effected"."*

Over a century later Captain James Cook visited New Zealand in 1769 mapping much of the coastline and establishing an outline of the country. Cook's exploration marked the arrival of British imperialism. The size of the British Empire, which covered approximately one quarter of the world's land mass, highlighted the underlying sense of superiority, or at least the moral self-righteousness, which became a rationale for exceeding the limits of intervention necessary in the protection of traders, (Moon 1993).

Davidson (1984) notes "Maori prehistory was "caught alive" when Cook arrived." Cook's observations were of a tribal culture already in a fine state of balance that had been in isolation since the original colonisation period. However he raised issues and expressed opinions that were to typify the European response to the Maori for many generations. For example although the Maori spiritual world view was well developed the Maori were not perceived as Christians. Cook brought with him the tradition of Christianity and Protestantism, and that of scientific inquiry which MacDonald (1989) describes as "a logical off-shoot of the western view of the world."
The implication drawn here is that when nothing is sacred, all is ripe for exploitation. Consequently, Cook's documentation of New Zealand's land and people highlighted two significant points:

- *The vast natural resources New Zealand possessed.* eg, the massive *Kauri* trees he sighted in the Hauraki Gulf. Eighteenth century Europe had a great need for ship building timber and a the biggest *Kauri* trees contained more timber than the giant Redwoods of California.

- *The perceived need for a central government.* Cook believed that the tribal form of Government was inconveniencing the people. "This belief was probably based on Cook's own doubt of Maori leadership credibility." (MacDonald 1989)

Imperialism, in the sense of control by another power, grew as explorers of the eighteenth century were gradually replaced by traders dominating the European presence in Aotearoa until the late 1830's when large numbers of settlers began to arrive. In summary this period of Maori/European contact was characterised by economic trade however Maori culture with its ability to adapt would be transformed by the effects of intermarriage and socialisation processes of colonial expansion.

### 2.4.1 The Missionaries

Owens (1975) notes "Contact with traders with brought inevitable changes to Maori society, new ways, tools and techniques". However it was not until the arrival of the Missionaries had the pakeha consciously sought to change Maori values or customs. The three main missionary groups that existed before 1840 were, the Anglicans represented by the Church Missionary Society,
the Wesleyans, and the Roman Catholics. Among the Ngapuhi tribe of the Bay of Islands, where they were most active in the early years, the results of their efforts were not apparent until the late 1820's. The adoption of Christianity and Protestantism into Maori society was attributable to a number of reasons:

- **Maori warfare was under going considerable advancement with the advent of musket warfare. As a consequence greater missionary success coincided with a period of considerable social upheaval.**

- **European influence of smoking and alcohol was causing increased mortality suggesting social breakdown.**

- **Improvement in missionary resources and techniques. Knowledge of language improved, translations of the bible, prayer books, and hymns had been made. The mere fact that the Maori language which was capable of printed form created much interest. Reading and writing were skills that gave a person mana. However much of the early written word available to the Maori was conveying the missionary message.**

The missionaries brought to the Maori new skills in horticulture, fishing, dwelling, construction, and literacy. However regardless of these advantages Christianity had a significant negative impact on Maori life. From this perspective "Maori cultural and sociological distinctiveness was most under threat by the imitation of external forms of social patterns - particularly those practised by the missionaries", (Moon 1993). Walker (1990) supports this view noting that, "while the musket wars were physically debilitating, conversion to Christianity led to further erosion of Maori culture and power." Traditional beliefs in the force of tapu (a means of social and behavioural
control based on a belief in a spirituality in most actions and things) were overridden by the missionaries. (ibid). Conversely, Christian beliefs were portrayed as superior to Maori beliefs and consequently old ways began to disappear among some tribes. This was to have a profound affect towards the end of the nineteenth century in terms of health and living conditions. (Moon ibid).

In summary the Maori response to Christianity can be represented by a continuum from rejection to total acceptance. However the introduction of literacy created knowledge systems relating that impacted every element of Maori culture providing information that enabled individuals to be empowered.

As a consequence some elements of Maori society moved from a communal focus (kotahitanga, discussed in section 2.2.3) to an individual focus. By 1840 many of the social structures of traditional Maoridom had been broken down to the extent where a significant proportion of Maori existed in what Moon (ibid) terms "a social no-mans land."

2.4.2 The Musket Wars
Warfare was an inherent part of the structure of Maori tribes. It provided a means of identifying relationships with other tribes, defining boundaries, or the imminent threat of force, (Cite Howard 1983: Moon 1993). Missionary trade in muskets was common by 1818. In 1821 Hongi Hika a leading Northern chief began the musket wars, taking tribal warfare to an unprecedented level in the history of New Zealand (Walker 1990). A number of factors resulted; upset balance of power between tribes, increased casualty rates, construction of gunfighter's pas', and the disruption of Maori society through the stimulus of an arms race among tribes. By the late 1840's the musket had along with
disease and reduced food production took its toll on the Maori population. Estimated by Cook at 100,000 and by others as high as 200,000, the Maori population went into decline, (cite Walker 1990: Sinclair 1959).

Highlighting the need for peace, the Maori began turning to the missionaries as independent negotiators who in turn desired to "convert the Maori from heathenism to Christianity and from barbarism to civilisation," (Walker 1990). This suggests that missionary desires were based on ethnocentric attitudes of racial and cultural superiority. In the following sections we explore the implications of Pakeha ethnocentrism with respect to legislative initiatives.

2.4.3 The Declaration of Independence
On October 1835 thirty-four chiefs representing Northland down to the Hauraki Gulf assembled at Waitangi to sign a declaration of Independence. As a vital precursor to the Treaty of Waitangi, the declaration had evolved through the need for some form of control over British nationals in New Zealand and protection from the possibility of other foreign intervention. In the first clause of the document the Maori chiefs declared New Zealand to be an independent state under the names of the United Tribes of New Zealand, (Moon 1993).

The pivotal issue in this declaration was the translation of the Maori term "mana" to be equated with the pakeha terms 'sovereignty' and 'power'. This point would become more explicit in the years that were to follow (see section 2.8). Those that agreed to the signing were to reconvene at Waitangi for annual meetings to make laws for preservation, peace, and the regulation of trade. However the concept of Maori nationalism was alien to tribal society (as discussed in section 2.3.2) and as a result few chiefs attended. Although the declaration was recognised by the British Colonial office Busby
(the official British Resident) concluded that the diffusion of authority among
tribal chiefs who were fiercely independent, made it impossible to create
central administration through them. (Walker 1990) The failure of the
declaration was evident within months of its signing with continued tribal
fighting and no formal governing body in power.

2.5 Te Tiriti o Waitangi - The Treaty of Waitangi

"This Treaty has been rained upon by the rain, it has been
exposed to the blast of the storm, but the words are still clear,
they cannot be obliterated."
(Reverend Timoti Kiriwi, Waitangi 1899)

On February 6th 1840 the Treaty of Waitangi was signed at Waitangi, Bay of
Islands. "What ever the chiefs thought that British rule and the Treaty meant,
it certainly included the belief that they would continue to occupy and possess
their lands and fisheries and control their destinies," (Asher & Naulls 1986).
From a social and cultural perspective the Treaty of Waitangi represented the
single biggest act of subversion of chiefly 'mana' (as discussed in section 2.3.2)
by the British crown. Forty six chiefs on the day and nearly another 500 were
obtained in the following months as the treaty toured throughout the country.
Some chiefs did not sign the treaty because they were either not asked or they
refused. Among the latter were chiefs of Tainui, Tuwharetoa and Arawa. The
legal standing of the document has been a constant source of controversy
since its signing. This has been a result of the serious discrepancies between
the English and Maori versions of the treaty, and over what the Maori chiefs
at Waitangi understood they were giving away or receiving for their
signatures. (Orange 1987)
Three crucial points in the Treaty were: the notion of sovereignty, the protection of the Maori's land and fisheries, and the Crown's rights of pre-emption in any land sales. Walker (1989) offers a Maori perspective that the moral validity of the Treaty rests on the translation of the word 'sovereignty' which equates to the Maori term 'mana'. The term 'mana' was omitted from the treaty and the substitute term used was 'Kawanatanga' which means 'governorship'. Ceding 'governorship' is not the same as ceding 'sovereignty'. Further in the second article of the treaty (Maori version) the Maori were guaranteed:

- "te tino rangitiratanga o ratou wenua, o ratou kainga me o ratou taonga katoa" (translated in English) "the full chieftainship of their lands homes and all their possessions"

The discrepancy of leaving out estates, forests, and fisheries in the Maori version is, from the Maori viewpoint, covered by the words 'taonga katoa'. "Both fisheries and forests are readily subsumed by the Maori meaning of these words," (Orange 1987). However what is of more importance is inclusion of the term 'rangatiratanga'. To the Maori 'rangatiratanga' over land is inseparable from the word 'mana' and thus the guarantee of the rangatiratanga of their lands is equivalent to the guarantee of their sovereignty, (Orange ibid). In favour of British rule the progressive Maori viewpoint can be encapsulated in the comment made by the Kaitaia chief Nopera Panakareao;

"The shadow of the land goes to Queen Victoria but the substance remains with us." (Asher & Naulis 1986)
Ironically, eight months later in January 1841 the same Chief revealed his fear commenting;

"The substance of the land would pass to the European and only the shadow of the would remain with the Maori people." (cite Asher & Naulls 1986; Parker 1978)

That the Treaty of Waitangi was not honoured by the crown in the nineteenth century remains unquestionable, (Moon 1993; Walker 1990; Kawharu 1989). Violations to the Treaty ranged from specific legislation (Moon 1993), to the general exclusion of Maori from the political system, to the unethical land purchases by the New Zealand Company, (Asher & Naulls 1986) and others (which received Crown sanctioning), to the deliberate denial of Maori voting rights (Moon ibid). From a land ownership perspective since the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840, the Maori tribal estates have declined from almost 27 million hectares to about 1.3 million. Most of the remaining Maori land exists in the form of fragmented holdings with a multiplicity of owners, predominantly absentee. Asher & Naulls (1986) assert that the reduction in ownership of land was largely the result of the complex process of colonisation and settlement of New Zealand.

In summary from a cultural perspective the Treaty of Waitangi illustrates the breakdown between Maori and Pakeha cultures. The breakdown is manifested in legislative initiatives which reflect Eurocentric views, (Kawharu 1989). The enduring legacy of the Treaty of Waitangi has been in the form of a challenge, to the government of the day to address and resolve the grievances arising from these earlier breaches. In the following section the research will explore issues related to Treaty of Waitangi Settlements and ensuing Government policy.
2.5.1 The Treaty of Waitangi - Weak Signals for Tourism

"The principles of the Treaty are not diminished by time; rather it takes time to perfect them."

(Eddie Jurie, Chief Judge Waitangi Tribunal 1989)

**Treaty of Waitangi Settlements**

In 1877 Chief Justice Prendergast said with devastating simplicity that the Treaty was a legal "nullity", an edict that blew the Treaty away into a judicial limbo for the better part of a century (Orange 1987). One hundred and thirty five years after its signing the Treaty of Waitangi Act (1975) was introduced effectively making the treaty part of an Act of Parliament, and not something to be taken lightly by those responsible for introducing new legislation or enforcing legislation that already exists. (Waitangi Tribunal 1984)

"Under the Act Maori people were offered a forum, known as the Waitangi Tribunal, to air grievances against the Crown in terms of the principles of the Treaty of Waitangi. While principles were not specified then - nor have they been since with any finality - the forum itself was clearly defined in the Act, as were its powers," (Kawharu 1988). An amendment to the Act (1985) allowed grievances to be considered from any point since 1840, rather than from the parent Act date of 1975. This gave rise to an escalation in claims made to the tribunal. All claims were tribal group claims and all were most certainly grievance based. (Kawharu ibid)

Land settlements through the Treaty process have the potential of returning considerable areas of land back into communal ownership of Maori. Issues associated with this process include:
parties involved and who they represent the type of trustee role appropriate for Maori connected in a tribal sense.
- the negotiation process and outcomes
- compensation alternatives
- sustainability of returned land.
- legislative conditions to utilisation of returned land.

A central issue to the settlement process is the ability of the Crown to negotiate with the respective claimants based on recommendations from the Waitangi Tribunal. Uncertainty lies with the sustainability or effectiveness of this approach to claims settlement, (Latimer 1994).

Underlying this view is the omission of a framework of principles to guide the development of negotiated settlements. An outcomes based approach to successful resolution of settlement claims is offered by Latimer (ibid) based on four criteria;

- Constitutional Evolution
- Certainty
- Cultural renaissance
- Collegiality

Latimer suggests this approach should express outcomes as a "better state of being. ‘The Firstly regardless of electoral reform the legislature must function for Maori defined purposes as well as those of the Crown. Secondly, the State Owned Enterprise 'estate' is a strategic resource which has the potential to deliver a Treaty resource base to reduce uncertainty and move Maori into an economic position which gives real substance to the theory of Treaty based development. Thirdly, with the resurgence in Maori culture and specifically
Maori language there is a need to develop broadcasting policy. Lastly, a void exists with respect to the distribution of claimant entitlement. This relates to the lack of truly representative, consultative, communicative tribal bodies with a clear trustee relationship with a clearly defined constituency, (Love 1994).

In support of settlement resolution the Hon John Luxton, Minister of Maori Affairs (1994) adds "As settlements are reached, it will be important for Maori to be in a position to ensure that if assets and finance are part of the settlement, then there must be both the skills and the knowledge to utilise those assets for the benefits of the beneficiaries of the settlement." This view highlights the mandate for industry needs analysis (as discussed in section 1.2.) to establish future for education and training frameworks.

**Treaty of Waitangi - Government Department Devolution**

In 1987 the New Zealand Maori Council sought judicial review of the powers of the Crown under the State-Owned Enterprises Act. In this landmark case the President of the Court of Appeal, the Hon. Mr Justice Cook, expressed the view that the, "Treaty was a still-valid compact of mutual obligation." In reference to interpretation..."the spirit of the treaty transcends the sum total of its component written words and puts narrow or literal interpretations out of place," (cite Kawharu 1989; Sorenson 1989). Through this case the Treaty of Waitangi acquired what Kawharu (ibid) describes as a "halo effect." Essentially the Crown and the Maori became partners and therefore acknowledged that the Crown really did have an active fiduciary role towards the Maori and their heritage.

In 1987 witnessed the devolution of the Department of Maori Affairs as a result of the Deane Report. Under the restructuring programme for State Owned Enterprises it recommended a policy of partnership in Maori
development by progressive transfer of responsibilities for government programmes to iwi authorities, and the establishment of a new Ministry of Maori development to undertake policy development, advocate Maori interest, and serve the needs of both Maori and Government, (Walker 1990).

1988 saw Government issue a discussion paper, He Tirohanga Rangapu (Partnership Perspectives). This paper highlighted a number of issues including;

- ways for the public sector to better respond to needs of Maori
- the existence of a partnership between the Crown and Maori
- recognition of the continuing strength of iwi

These issues are based on recognising systems of Maori authority and accountability comparable with the "rangatiratanga" of the Treaty. The paper proposed the view that;

"...iwi organisations which meet eligibility criteria jointly established by the Government and iwi should become responsible for implementing and administering government programmes."

Central to this perspective is the notion of accountability: Government to the taxpayer and iwi authority to its beneficiaries. In opposition to the devolution of accountability is the fact that many iwi-based authorities lack the appropriate business structures and human resources to survive in the world of commerce, (Kawharu 1989). This view supports previous suggestions on the need to develop Maori human resources to implement the policies of the Crown and establish an iwi-driven economic base.
2.6 Maori Economic Development

While an increasing body of opinion has begun to recognise the central role of business development as a vehicle to economic development, there has been little recognition of the need to examine the particular participation or access by Maori into business ventures. The peripheral placement of Maori in business indicates the presence of complex economic, social and cultural barriers which signify some form of market failure in terms of equity of access, process and outcomes, (Ministerial Planning Report 1991).

1991 estimates suggest there were approximately 1000 Maori business enterprises currently operating in New Zealand. In the main these comprise incorporations and trusts involved in land based activities such as agriculture, forestry and horticulture. With asset values of $666 million dollars it is argued that the major growth in Maori economic development in the 1990's rests with these organisations,( Macfie 1993). Notwithstanding the potential impacts capital assets return to iwi-based (tribal based) groups through the Waitangi Tribunal and High Court processes, the realities of this growth are also dependent on a number of other factors including, organisational structure, investment strategies, and managerial leadership skills.

Firstly, Davidson (1994) suggests that Trust Boards established under the Maori Trust Boards Act 1955 may not be the most productive business model to realise future Maori economic growth. This view is based on the constraints of the provisions as set out by the Act as highlighted below:

- Trust Boards are not accountable to their beneficiaries, but to the Minister for Maori affairs - the Crown.
• Beneficiaries are expressly excluded from having any interests of any kind in the assets of a Board.

• Beneficiaries may elect members of the Board, the Minister can remove members at any time if in his judgement they are inefficient, neglect their duty or otherwise misconduct themselves.

• A Trust Board cannot appoint its secretary without approval of the Minister.

• A Trust Board cannot borrow or give a guarantee without Ministerial consent.

• A Trust board has no choice but to use the Audit office. It cannot appoint its own auditors.

• A Trust Board must in each year submit an estimate of receipts and proposed payments for the year to the Minister for his approval.

• A Trust Board cannot make a payment of more than $200 without the Minister's approval, if that payment has not been provided for in its annual estimates. Even then it cannot in any year exceed its payments by more than without Ministerial approval.

• The Minister of Maori Affairs can at any time direct an investigation of the affairs of a Trust Board.
The provisions of the Act illustrate a contradiction in terms of "accountability" and "te tino rangatiratanga" (as discussed previously in section 2.4.3.). Similarly the legal identity of the Trust board structure creates difficulties for other parties to enter business agreements. The legal identity of Incorporations also provide some constraints as a business model. "Incorporated societies or Charitable Trusts do not normally provide for the Trustee relationship a representative tribal body requires, to be the group with whom the Crown could settle claims with for the whole tribe. This arises because they are not constitutionally robust enough to provide a lasting representative body accessible to the whole tribe", (Love 1994).

Acknowledging the success of some Incorporations and Trusts, Davidson (ibid) also predicts that continued success will be largely related to the ability of the these organisations to change their structures and accountabilities. Macfie (1993) agrees stating "Traditionally land - based Maori trusts and incorporations are universally characterised as conservative with an extreme unwillingness to borrow - for fear of jeopardising their land holdings, because of the traditional, reluctance of the mainstream banks to lend to Maori authorities, and because of difficulties in borrowing against multiple-owned land."

Secondly, the opportunity for trust and incorporations rationalised investments in the primary sector and adopt a diversified investment strategy is highlighted by the success of the Nelson based Wakatu Incorporation and Taranaki's Paraninihi ki Waitotara Incorporation. Both organisations have rationalised leasehold land where possible and diversified investments into a variety of industries including real estate, engineering, horticulture and fishing. Sanderson (1993 cit. Macfie 1993) predicts that major opportunities are opening for Maori as the New Zealand economy moves toward export value
added processing - what he terms the 're pioneering phase of the economy'.

According to this view is the development of investment strategies which involve joint ventures, to negate the legal constraints of trust and incorporation structures, and vertical integration within industry sectors to develop added value products and services, (Marshall 1994)

Thirdly, current opinion suggest that conservatism of Trusts and incorporations is not only a function of organisational structure but also leadership style and skill. It is suggested that the slow and conservative nature of Trusts and Incorporation leadership is determined by the cultural values of the elders who occupy many trustee positions. Ria (1993 cit. Macfie 1993) comments that "it's often difficult convincing elders who see their role as protectors of the land, to take a more entrepreneurial approach. They believe they are there as caretakers, as opposed to being pro-active. They see that the land belonged to their parents, and their parents and so on, and they want to be able to look after it and pass it down to their children."

Tamahori (1993 cit. Macfie 1993) disputes the view that trusts and incorporations are resistant to young skilled people suggesting that "the bigger problem is the difficulty in luring qualified Maori out of the cities and back to the provinces where the authorities are based." Directly related to this view is statistical references to Maori under-achievement: they are 2.5 times less likely to own their own business; Maori students are more than 3.6 times as likely to than Non-Maori to leave school before the fifth form; Maori unemployment is three times the rate for non-Maori; the average income of Maori is only 80% of that of non-Maori men. This highlights the need for Maori human resource development to help authorities to move more rapidly into commercial development, (Macfie ibid).
Whether the success of iwi based groups will translate into an improved socio-economic position for Maori is difficult to predict. Dyall (1993 cit. Macfie 1993) offers a paternalistic approach commenting that "Trusts and Incorporations cannot take over the government's responsibility for unemployment, job creation and educational advancement." Dyall argues that many trusts and Incorporations do not perceive themselves as social welfare agencies but rather providers of educational scholarships for shareholders and beneficiaries, supporting local marae and offering limited training programmes. In the main tangible benefits are translated into dividends.

In contrast to this view the South Island's Ngai Tahu Trust Board offers a much more vigorous approach that is characterised by the concept of 'te tino rangitiratanga'. The proposed Ngai Tahu corporate structure is a socio-economic model which uses a raft of companies to develop the tribes interests in fishing, tourism and forestry, agriculture and trading. Within the corporate structures a social development unit has been established which will look after the Ngai Tahu social issues funded by income generated from assets, not from capital assets (ibid). The iwi development model (see fig 2.6 below) as proposed by the Ngai Tahu illustrates that "economic strength comes before social development", Marshall (1994).
This underscores the philosophy that for iwi based organisations long-medium term accountability to beneficiaries may be redefined in terms of business formation as a means toward positive job creation potential, an opportunity to contribute to the private sector, and the ultimately the growth of the New Zealand economy. Related to this view is the emerging consensus amongst analysts and business operators that "the bulk of new, real jobs will come from small businesses, rather than massive industrial enterprises,"
Studies by Bollard and Thompson (1987); Bollard et al, (1989) indicate further that the size of the New Zealand economy and its factor endowments present unique opportunities for niche products and services.

Economic predictors such as 'Analysis of the Employment by Industry' would indicate that the Maori participation has been increasing in certain service sector industries such as trade, restaurant, hotels, finance, insurance, real estate and community services. However overall Maori continue to be under represented in the anticipated high growth service sector of the economy. The under representation of Maori in the service sector industries is viewed with some concern (Ministerial Planning Report 1991), given that recent forecasts anticipate that the majority of new jobs over the next decade will be located in the service sector.

New Zealand Planning Council forecasts estimates 85% of all new jobs between 1992-1997 are expected to be located in the service sector. (Callister 1989) Underscoring this trend is that continuation of current Maori skill and employment patterns suggests that Maori will not be able to take advantage of employment opportunities in growth sectors, (Ministerial Planning Report ibid).

Giarini (1990) highlights the importance of services in today's society, "if we look at all sectors of contemporary economic activity, we can easily find out services of any sort represent the essential part of the production and delivery system of goods and services". Furthermore..."of the final price of these products more than 70 to 80 percent is represented by the cost of making the complex service and delivery system work. This means that the service
functions have become the greatest part of concern and investment even with the most traditional industrial companies."

Giarini's macro perspective is supported by examples from the micro level. Studies by Rudie and Wansley (1985) and Thompson et al (1985) indicate that one strategy related to success in business is the delivery of high service quality. Similarly, Peters and Austin (1987) in their book "A Passion for Excellence", list a number of firms that have achieved success through a service orientation.

Therefore, while it is accepted that macro-economic conditions provide barriers to entry into the tourism industry (Maori Tourism Task Force 1987), it is suggested that the success of Maori tourism operators will in part depend on their ability to:

- **Build new market demand out of their product/service offerings - the Maori dimension**

- **To capture and retain existing market share from competitors - Maori and non-Maori alike.**

This study will explore the former issue by attempting to measure service levels from a sample of Maoridom's "successfully-managed" tourism ventures. It is proposed that the results will provide a kaupapa (platform) or framework for developing superior service strategies and a basis for further research.
3.0 Maori in Tourism

"Maori are one of only 3 living cultures still alive today which place us way on top of the priority list for the discerning traveller"…
- Tommy Wilson: Aotearoa Maori Tourism Federation 1994

3.1 Introduction

The previous research in Chapters 1-2 explored the realms of Maori culture and direction of Maori economic development. In 1987 the Maori Tourism Taskforce report highlighted the need for Government to assist Maori transition into the tourism industry as a vehicle toward economic development. This chapter endeavours to explore; a definition of Maori tourism, the history and industry structure of Maori Tourism, Maori Tourism images and contemporary issues associated with service marketing.

3.2 Defining Maori Tourism

Unlike traditional product orientated industries tourism is not a homogeneous product, rather it is a combination of many interrelated parts. For this reason it is difficult to define the phenomenon of tourism. Denize (1987) provides a summary of the problems producing an adequate definition of the tourism phenomenon:

- The heterogeneity of the tourism phenomenon
- The lack of a distinct touristic product
- The variation in the level of involvement in tourism
- Identifying the boundaries of a tourism segment within the broader travel market
Separating tourism resources into industrial and non-industrial elements, and

Specifying the number of industries inherently connected with tourism

Review of relevant literature suggests a profusion of definitions of tourism, tourists and the tourist industry in the generic sense. Additionally there exists a number of different definitional stances. Denize (ibid) suggests this diversity is undoubtedly a function of the complexity of the phenomenon. Attempts to conceptually define 'Maori Tourism' further highlights the heterogeneity of the tourism phenomenon.

The present study is an attempt to measure the service quality of Maori tourism operators. One approach (as discussed in Section 2.2.3) for defining Maori tourism is to highlight certain Maori ethnic and cultural components that form the 'tourism product'. Mahuta (1987) offers further support for this approach stating;

"Our people (Maori) always think holistically so we want to be part of the visitor business as a whole; the accommodation, the transport, the hospitality, the entertainment, the information and educational tracks. We do not want to be on display but we want to organise the display and carry it on and through. We want vertical and horizontal integration within the industry"... "We want to put added value into the visitor experience, not to have others do that for us. We want our values to be part of the way they have come to see the landscape, understand the modifications of it, come to realise the cultural and social consequences of what has happened here since the immigrant culture arrived."
This illustration attempts to encompass the relationships and processes involved in tourism, known as the 'holistic perspective'. Using the Oxford Dictionary (1990) definition this perspective implies that the 'whole' is greater than the sum of the parts. Adopting this approach has a bias toward classifying Maori tourism as 'ethnic tourism'. Te Awekotuku (1981) defines ethnic tourism as "the presentation of various aspects of an indigenous culture for the enjoyment of the visiting public."

While it is accepted that some of the explicit Maori tourism product is based on the ethnic dimension of the Maori culture, the limitation of this classification is that it does not include those Maori operators who do not actively market an explicit 'ethnic tourist product'.

Associated with this view is the suggestion that cultural predisposition of the host/service provider may be a dependent variable for evaluation of Perceived Service Quality (Shames and Glover 1990; Gronroos 1990). Based on this rational the present study will adopt a holistic definition and alternative descriptive title for Maori tourism to include tourism based entities that are:

- Owned by Maori
- Operated by Maori
- Affiliated to the Aotearoa Maori Tourism Federation (AMTF)

This definition is formally recognised by the above National Maori Tourism industry body. Acknowledging the parameters of this holistic definition the term 'Maori Tourism' will be used interchangeably with term 'Maori in Tourism'. (AMTF 1994)
3.3 Evolution of Maori Tourism

Review of relevant literature reveals a lack of information on the evolution of the Maori tourism industry with the exception of a study by Te Awekotuku (1980) who researched the "The sociocultural impact of tourism on the Te Arawa people of Rotorua." Dr Awekotuku, carrying out research for her thesis, started out by believing that tourism was a corrupter of pure culture spawning immeasurable malaise. After two years of study she concluded:

'There was indeed substance to my people's loud and frequent claim that tourism has not hurt Te Arawa, in many instances it has helped us.'

The Rotorua region, home of the former Pink and White Terraces, destroyed by the eruption of Mt Tarawera in 1866, is arguably New Zealand's first major Maori tourism development. Awekotuku (ibid) comments that, "In the thermal regions of New Zealand, the local Maori people were largely instrumental in setting up a holiday resort and entertainment centre." From a national tourism perspective, Rotorua now boasts the reputation of being the "centre of Maori culture" (NZTP 1990).

The following sections endeavour to outline the evolution of Maori tourism in Rotorua, the part played by the local tribes in founding the township, and the subsequent evolution of tourist-orientated Maori activities.
3.3.1 The Thermal Regions of Rotorua, New Zealand

People often travelled to the Rotorua area in the earliest days of pioneer New Zealand, recording confident projections, like those below (Te Awekotuku 1981). In 1847, Dr John Johnson, the Colonial Surgeon, wrote:

"Rotorua would be a most agreeable summer residence - pleasing scenery, boating and riding parties to other lakes, hot and cold bathing; and it may be anticipated that at no very distant future ... it will be part of the country much resorted to by invalids, and by those whose leisure will permit them to vary their residence."

Lieutenant Stratton Bates (1860) echoed similar statements two years later:

"There is no other scene, I believe, in which the wondrous and the beautiful are so intimately connected. There can be no doubt that one day this place will attract thousands of visitors from all over the world."

During the early period of colonisation the region had attracted mainly 'travelling artists' and 'pleasure seekers', but not settlers or land speculators. This was due in part to the suitability of the land for farming. However it was not long before the wonders of the volcanic region were perceived to be of unique economic potential. In 1880 Raniera Kingi, a respected elder of Ngati Whakaue observed:

"The Rotorua area, with its thermal wonders and lakes, had been attracting visitors from overseas - the Pink and White
Terraces were irresistible. The Government of the day - 1880 - realising the district had valuable assets to be exploited, decided that a town should be founded on a site central to these assets."

By November 1880 Rotorua was officially proclaimed a township. The Native Land court awarded overall proprietorship to the Ngati Whakaue people, who were principal claimants. Building sites were leased on 99 year tenure from the Ngati Whakaue - during the next ten years four times the amount paid to the tangata whenua was spent on a Sanatorium - thus creating conflict over land valuation. By the 1890s the government had become entrenched in the developing travel industry. State ownership and control of resources continued to grow reflecting legislative initiatives that 'alienated Maori resources'. (discussed in section 2.8.1)

The role of the Maori in regional tourism was seen as a necessity given the importance of their unique promotional value, however it was preferred on Crown terms. The Maori people were also conscious of their role in setting up a town with such an enormous potential. This is evident not only in their claim to mana whenua (prestige derived from the land) but also in their gifting of land to the people of New Zealand - 1047 acres was gifted in 1880 by the Ngati Whakaue for use as recreational, sporting, educational, hospital and municipal reserves, (Te Awekotuku 1981) Unfortunately even though Manaakitanga (hospitality) was a time honoured tradition to the Maori they could not perceive that their relationships with the state were essentially economic in nature. (ibid) To the Maori, often the land gifted was of high ancestral significance and thus..."the gift was to preserve that spirituality not to desecrate it or expose it. The gift was not to be
encumbered rather it was tagged from its inception. That spirituality has since been severely compromised," (Te Heu Heu: 1990).

3.3.2 Whakarewarewa- Rotorua

In the early 1900's a model Maori village was opened at Whakarewarewa on a hill above the geysers. This was encouraged by Maori enthusiasm and state investment. The thermal reserve was vested with the New Zealand Tourist Department under the Tourist and Health Control Act 1908. The "Model pa" as it is called, continues to be a leading scenic attraction. (New Zealand Tourism Department 1990). The significance of land in the evolution of Maori tourism developments in the Rotorua region suggests that the Te Arawa Maori people had recognised the enormous potential of their tribal domains and planned back as far as a one hundred years. Te Awekotuku (ibid) suggests three macro factors influenced the ability of the local Maori people to control subsequent tourism developments in the region:

- The catastrophic eruption of Mt Tarawera in 1866, and destruction of the Pink and White Terraces.

- The worldwide economic recession of the 1880's, and

- The subsequent alienation of land title to the township site.
3.3.3 The Maori Guide of Rotorua - A Visitor Encounter

Te Awekotuku (1981) observes the tourist market demands showed increasing value for not only the natural resources, hot mud pools, geysers and the like, but things Maori. According to Webb (1949):

"the tourist, or a least a type of tourist, was prepared to pay good money to see native dances and haka performed in ancient style"...

The 1872 "Guide to the Hot Lakes" says of Ohinemutu:

"I have heard it described as having "an air of spurious civilisation", but there is not much see there - at any rate, when the natives are away"...

It is suggested that these comments are reflect the excellent work done by the 'Te Arawa people in hosting visitors to the area, specifically the women of the of Te Arawa. As Maori tradition dictates the men remained the public leaders, and the women retained responsibility for hosting visitors, (Te Awekotuku 1991). However records suggest that as visitor numbers to the region increased, the women of Te Arawa responded well in the role of gracious hostess and guide. In early times all were of the Ngati Wahaio Hapu of Tuhourangi, and thus could claim "mana o te whenua" (sovereignty over land). Due to the Puhi tradition (Walker 1990) - the highest ranking village hostess - all were female.

Over the years certain colourful and strong personalities emerged, and guiding as a female occupation was established. Some of the more notable
guides were Te Kirimatao, Sophie, Kate, and Sister Maggie and Bella Thom. Arguably the most famous of all the guides, Rangitiria Dennan (Guide Rangi) observed the identification and potential of the Maori dimension when she commented:

"I began to see that most of the visitors were interested in Maoris as well as the geysers and the mud. It seemed that my career was... right here among my own people. A guide could become an ambassador, serving by example to show the visitors the true worth of our race. Here was a good chance to do something to improve the Maori image and make a worth-while career at the same time. Where else could one meet and talk with so many foreign people, whose impressions of their first glimpse of Maoridom would be taken to the four corners of the world."

Dennan's observation of the visitor perception suggests there exists an opportunity to adding value to the core 'tourist product' (Collier 1994) ie, observing New Zealand flora and fauna, by communicating in a way that exposes a different cultural perspective. Te Awekotuku (1980) in her doctorate thesis comments ..."that for many tourists, Guide Rangi was Rotorua." This example illustrates an earlier point that the 'social encounter' between host and guest (a process dimension), plays a significant part in the evaluation of perceived service quality (further discussion in section 5.4)
3.3.4 New Zealand Maori Arts and Crafts Institute

After the First World War, Maori tourist orientated activity flourished. In 1929 a carving school was established at Te Aomarama as a result of tourist demand for carved souvenirs. It attracted artisans from all over the country finally closing its doors around 1960. This coincided with a plethora of inferior "backyard" carving appearing in Rotorua shops during the mid 1960's much to the concern of many sincere artisans and ultimately to the long term perceived value of high quality Maori carved objects. In 1963 the New Zealand Maori Arts and Crafts Institute was opened to focus on the preservation of Maori Arts and Crafts. As a government sponsored nonprofit body it was designed to encourage the practice and appreciation of traditional Maori Arts and Crafts. Although harshly criticised by some Maori elders, the Institute has played a part in the cultural renaissance of Maori Arts and Crafts gaining world recognition for its carving and weaving. Financed by income accruing from tourist traffic its tourist operation is regarded as secondary. (NZTD 1990)

3.3.5 Maori Concert Parties:

When the Haka became the Boogie

Maori concert parties have been performing since the 1860s, however the most persevering have been those set up as tourist entertainment. Maori performance - Waiata (song), Haka (dance), and Poi (action song) have been, and continue to be, an integral part of tourist expectation.

For many decades these shows were set up as part of the "Whakarewarewa" offering organised ad hoc by the Guides. Emphasis was on the carefree, hilarious and entertaining, choreography and artifice were minimal while traditional dance form was modified. With accelerating demand,
competitive entrepreneurship styles, and advanced business strategy the modern day Maori concert party has been described as a 'polished tourist product'. (Te Awekotuku 1980)

A notable success has been the Rotorua Maori Council Cultural Theatre established in 1973. The success of this business is a function of the operators themselves who are experienced Maori entertainers, widely travelled, and highly educated. Critics of this 'tourist dance' observe that while maintaining a semblance of the older forms, it has risked losing some of its precision of meaning and performance. The persistent curiosity of, and commercial appeal to the non Maori audience caused a noticeable slackening in standards, even as early as the nineteenth century. (Te Awekotuku 1981)

The evolution of Maori tourism performing arts can be represented by a continuum which began with traditional and tribal based offerings of the late nineteenth and early twentieth century through to the old style programs which existed up until the late 1960s, resulting in the various "slick presentations" on the modern stage. Influencing this continuum has been the factor of Whanaunatanga (kinship). In the early period, presentation and style was based on that of the local Hapu (sub tribe) structure resulting in regional flavour. Over time performers have migrated to the region thus diminishing the local Hapu influence. Many of the modern groups do not share a common ancestry within five to six generations and thus are primarily employees, not members of a tribal group party of specialists. In fairness it is also evident that much of the current entrepreneurial spirit originates from the non Te Arawa Maori migrants. (Te Awekotuku ibid)
3.4 Images of Maori Tourism

Image plays a central role in the visitor perception of service quality. This role can be characterised in four ways; communicating expectations, acting as a filter, as a function of visitor experiences, and influencing attitudes of employees. (Gronroos 1990). In the following section a chronological review is offered to highlight the development and management of the Maori tourism image.

3.4.1 Maori Screen Images 1910-1930

From the beginning, the Maori were a key part of the New Zealand tourism package, and as early as the turn of the century Thomas Cook Tours were advertising them in the following way:

"...The Maori, whose presence, together with their strange habits, customs, and legendary lore, adds greatly to the interest of a visit to New Zealand"..."They are undoubtedly a splendid race, although, unfortunately, the type met with along some of the well-worn tourists routes presents anything but a fair representation." (Cook Tours 1902).

Two areas, the model village at Whakarewarewa and the Whanganui River became the frontier zones for advertising of 'Maoriland' between 1900-1930. The paradox of this situation was that: if the Maori were as exotic as the land itself and therefore a source of income, then this also tended to imply that much of the land was 'theirs'. By maintenance of the distinction between 'theirs' and 'ours' the Maori served as a tourist and ethnographic resource, (Blythe 1990). Therefore 'Maoriland' became a useful as a point of comparison: it demonstrated that contemporary Maori had abandoned
Maoriland's 'barbaric' ways and now the rest of New Zealand could be subjected to the colonial system of ownership and property acquisition.

The two kinds of fiction that were used to promote the Maori image were - the timeless romance and the historical romance. "The former operates via a rhetoric of exclusion: ie the Maori are removed into another space and out of time, the distance being negotiable only by the promotional medium's perception. The latter operates via a rhetoric of annexation: the Maori share the same space and time but are rendered peripheral and somewhat behind the 'progressive', Pakeha", (Blythe ibid) The key to the tourism romance is the "side-by-side" of two separate worlds, one of which is inherited from the timeless romance (the world of Maoriland), and the other is inherited from the historical romance (the world of Pakeha New Zealand). Defined spatially, Maoriland is a world outside time, a lost world even, into which the tourist may step briefly and tantalising before returning to the luxury and comfort of the nearby hotel, and the hotel is of course in real time (the present).

The thermal activity of Whakarewarewa and the nearby hotels where one could enjoy a cup of tea and a good night's sleep provided a favourite tourist location for this. Blythe (1990) offers an alternative to the above whereby "the two worlds are positioned side by side temporally, New Zealand physically displaces 'Maoriland'. Instead of offering utopia this narrative strategy makes use of romantic legends drawn from Maori mythology."
3.4.2 The Maori Maiden Image

One recurring image of New Zealand is woman - Maori. Te Awekotuku (1980) notes "This image dates back to the mid nineteenth century in observations of the female guides of the Rotorua region."

In 1864:
"This settlement had always been famed,... for the beauty of the woman. We saw a few girls with complexes like southern gipsies, just fair enough to let the warm colour show through clear olive skin, and large lustrous eyes, with great ever changing expression, and beautiful, snow white, regular teeth."

In 1939:
"Guide, Glamour Girl, Her frock made from a lily plant, she is one whose race has been described as Earth's Most Splendid Savage! Watch her make obeisance to the ancestral gods, plait a flax skirt, and cook her dinner in a boiling pool...and bend lush and bare breasted to scoop warm grey water from a turgid mineral water fall of sour graphite to her sweetly smiling lips. Meet her in the Thermal Wonderland of New Zealand."

In 1970:
"Gleaming black hair draped about bare olive shoulders, she leans against one arm, tucking smooth legs neatly beneath the supple patterns of her piupiu. With the other hand, she extends her hand, dangling minced meat over the
The Maori Maiden image represents relentless lure. In the Maori context, she reflects both the assumed expectations of the tourist and the extent of Maori participation on this aspect of tourism. This image is also a reflection of the Western aesthetic ideal...the appealing, youthful, smiling, brightly costumed maiden whose brown eyes beckon. In contrast the Maori ideal - large, graceful, buxom women - has been disregarded. (Te Awekotuku 1980)

3.4.3 Other Maori Tourism Images

Photo essay work done by the Maori Tourism Task Force (1988) and Walker R.J (1990), examines other promotional images of the Maori. Images include: the Maori Maiden, the Maori Warrior, Maori motifs, Maori cooking methods, and the Maori concert party. A major finding of this work is that most promotional images displayed by Government agencies and industry players depict the Maori spatially, dressed in traditional clothing positioned in the foreground of natural flora, in a time between the tourist (present time) and the landscape (past). This image suggests the Maori occupies an intermediate position in becoming "civilised."

This can be contrast the image portrayed by Te Maori Ekepihana which depicts Maori as an artistic people who have contributed priceless antiquities and treasures to the world of art. Te Maori (1984), as it is commonly known, was the first New Zealand art show to be hailed and
recognised as an exhibition of world-class standard, (Collier 1994). The
variety and style of images portraying Maori in tourism highlights the need
to understand the issues concerning how image develops and what causes
image problems. Winiata (1985) supports this view emphasising what he
terms 'image gaps': between what is projected by the industry, what is
perceived by the tourist, and the self image that the Maori currently have of
themselves. In the following sections these issues will be expanded upon.

3.4.4 The Future Maori Tourism Image
A favourable and well known image, corporate and/or local, is an asset for
any firm, because image has an impact on customer perceptions of
communication and operations of the firm in many respects, (Gronroos
1990). Without doubt the Maori image has been a promotional tool for over
one hundred years. Taskforce Report (1988) notes "however it is of deep
concern to the Maori that this image has been used as a marketing tool
which stereotypes them as guides, entertainers, carvers, and as components
of the natural scenery." Criticised by having as backlash effect upon the
Maori self perception, (Winiata 1985), this can have negative influence of
the performance of the employees and thus on customer relationships and
quality. (Gronroos ibid)

Secondly, this Maori image has been developed without consultation and
minimal commercial benefit to the Maori people. It is clear that the Maori
image has commercial value, However it is the express desire of the Maori
people that they have future control in strategic development of this image,
(Maori Tourism Taskforce 1988). It is important to base any development
or improvement program on reality. Development or modification of an
image should be based on the premise that image is reality.
Berstein (1985 cit Gronroos 1994) notes that if the image is false and performance is good, a communication problem exists. Alternatively, if the image is true and reflected by bad performance, management are seen as bad managers. From an contemporary perspective concerns over image relate to the former view. It has been suggested that future Maori tourism images should be reflective of an emergent people moving toward self determination and proud to be taking their heritage with them, (Winata 1985).

On approach to reducing the communication problem is the use of branding. The Brand name assures the customer of a certain product, (Witt 1989) and service quality, and provide service marketeers with a degree of pricing freedom if the brand is properly created and promoted, (Onkvist & Shaw 1989). Related to the issue of quality is image: brand name can suggest a quality image .ie. The Waldorf- Astoria New York suggests high quality, while Comfort Inns suggest reasonable cost and economy. The brand name does not just create an image for the product or service, it also suggests one for the firm.

**The New Zealand Way Brand**

Related to this discussion has been the development of a national New Zealand brand. 'The New Zealand Way'. The vision to create a Brand to give New Zealand exporters in tourism and trade a premium positioning in the global market place became a reality in late 1991 with the development of 'The New Zealand Way'. Following extensive review of the brands positioning to meet the needs of both exporters and international markets refinement of the design and worldwide registration of the mark, the New Zealand Way Brand campaign was launched. The core values and personality of the New Zealand brand are aimed at positioning a broad
range of the country's tourism and trade products and services at the forefront of the world's markets. The New Zealand Brand will become recognised as a symbol of:

- **Quality Excellence epitomised by the consistent delivery of products and services which meet and exceed the expectations of the customer**

- **Environmental Responsibility reinforced by New Zealand’s leadership in the efficient and sustainable use of the environmental resources and delivery of fresh & natural products**

- **Innovation characterised by the unique personality of New Zealanders which seeks out new solutions and which disregards the ingrained and inhibiting conventions of its trading partners**

- **Contemporary Values reflected in the positioning of its products and services at the forefront of contemporary market trends and requirements**

  *Honesty, Integrity, and Openness personified in the business practices, lifestyles and character of New Zealanders in business, sport and art.* (The New Zealand Way 1993)

Individually each of the elements provides a tangible benefit to New Zealand origin products and services. When combined in a single focus these values will provide a unique and powerful long term foundation on which to position New Zealand's exports at the forefront of the world's premium markets.
The forefront of the Brand's promotion incorporates the New Zealand Tourism Board's advertising campaigns, direct mail, public relations and other below-the-line activities in Europe, North America, Japan, Asia and Australia. The Brand will be exhibited at promotional events for exporters and tourism organisations wherever New Zealand has a strong presence. A long term objective for the Brand is to become the focal point for New Zealand in all Tradenz and New Zealand Tourism Board exhibitions. The three components of the Brand are:

- **The Brand Logo** - a strong image featuring a white fern, visually similar to other high profile New Zealand fern icons, enclosed in an irregular blue and green square and the words 'New Zealand'. The Brand logo is a trademark in the principal product service categories in all major world markets where New Zealand trade and tourism exporters have a presence.

- **The Descriptor Word or Short phrase** - An element which completes the campaign proposition and allows brand users to personalise the New Zealand brand to suit their marketing programme. Any words or short phrases may be licensed provided that they are compatible with the overall personality of the Brand New Zealand brand.

- **The Campaign Statement** - a distinctive statement which conveys a strong message of uniqueness. (The New Zealand Way 1993)

From a national tourism perspective guidelines for communication of brand elements. The elements of tourism's global brand are:

- **Soft Adventure**
- **Mystique**
• Distinctly New Zealand
• Replenishment of body mind and soul
• Participation with nature; accessibility of nature
• Active outdoors people
• Backdrop of nature
• Fresh (healthy and good) in activities, foods
• Personality
• Contemporary
• New Zealand is alive and growing

Under the Maori tourism brief, guidelines specify; "Maori influences should be portray exotic and unique differences against other countries. Use of Maori icons will play an important role for this element. Maori should be portrayed in a contemporary light where possible", (NZTB Brand New Zealand Strategy 1994).

To ensure quality and build a premium position it is recommended all communications associated with the development of a brand should be matched against the following criteria:

• Uniquely New Zealand
• Memorable
• Lacking Negatives
• Contemporary
• Attention getting
• People Orientated
• Credible
• Comprehensible
• Deliverable
• Positive message
Based on historical concerns of the Maori image in tourism the 'Brand New Zealand' campaign offers a strategic branding approach to developing a premium position in the tourism industry. The core values, flexibility to personalise the brand, and personality of the New Zealand Way Brand balanced against Maori Cultural concepts and future tourism aspirations provides a strong promotional tool to assist development and management of a favourable tourism image.
3.5 Maori Tourism Developments

"A journey of one thousand miles begins with single step"
- Chinese proverb

3.5.1 Industry Development

Recent years have seen a renaissance of Maori culture and self determination. This is a function of that fact that "the current position of Maori society portrays, at best, a people in crisis," (Ministerial Planning Group 1991). While Maori are beset by major disparities in almost every area their aspirations are to develop their social, cultural, and economic wellbeing. Entry into the tourism industry as a means to achieving greater wellbeing suggests an understanding of the industry structure.

Collier (1994) suggests that "industry structure should be viewed as an aid to development and growth and if the industry is viewed in the same light as a business entity, the need for some sort of organisational chart to depict the different levels and interrelationships becomes obvious." The following sections represents a chronological review of events that support the interest in Maori tourism industry development.

Maori International 1983

From a meeting of trust board representatives and Maori Land Incorporations, a new company was established titled 'Maori International'. The need for such a company arose from the fact that many Maori incorporation, groups, individuals and trusts, etc., felt there needed to be an on-going body taking initiatives on their behalf in the broader sense. The broad mission of the company was to look at Maori export product area and
tourism. It was perceived that a focus on the establishment of Maori tourism would facilitate an environment to promote the export of Maori products to overseas markets. (Puketapu 1983)

**Te Maori 1984**

On the 10th September 1984 Te Maori exhibition opened at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York. "In one dimension it represented a touring exhibition of Maori Art drawn from New Zealand collections, a celebration of Maori culture and its symbolic entrance into the international world of Art." (Te Maori Management Committee 1988). The educative role of overseas travel in support of Te Maori needs to be emphasised. Quite apart from the obvious cultural experience gained by participants, Te Maori provided them with a unique educational experience.

The dimension which separated Te Maori from other exhibitions in the United States was the strong support of the elders and their dominant role in the opening ceremonies and other supporting activities. These gave meaning to a concept of Te Maori as a 'living art', (as discussed in section 3.5.4). Through guided visits by Kaumatua (elders) the visitors were able to see and feel an attitude of reverence and respect for the taonga (treasures), (Te Maori Management Committee ibid). This supports an earlier discussion (section 3.3.3) on the importance of the 'social encounter', the process dimension of the experience, with visitor evaluation of service quality.

From a tourism marketing perspective Te Maori was a extremely successful in creating awareness of New Zealand in the United States and around the tourist globe. In Britain, France, and Germany reviewers who had travelled to see Te Maori, hailed it as an outstanding artistic and cultural event on the world stage. As a Maori tourism model Te Maori illustrated the importance
of people in the cultural service encounter, shown by the visitor reaction to the Kaumatua (elders) and cultural groups, giving an exhibition of artefacts social meaning. On completion of the exhibition a total of 26 recommendations were made by the Te Maori Management Committee under the areas of; Foreign Affairs, Tourism and Publicity, Air New Zealand, Maori Affairs, Internal Affairs, and Art Galleries/Museums and to the Queen Elizabeth II Arts Council. Many of these recommendations would form the basis of future government tourism policy, (Te Maori Management Committee Report ibid).

Hui Taumata 1984
This major government sponsored conference represented a turning point for Maori tourism. A recommendation was made that allowed Maori people to have access to funds for feasibility studies in tourism potential. Other suggestions included the development of Marae stays and the identification of a Maori handicraft cooperative. For the first time at a political level the tourism industry was identified as a serious option for Maoridom to inspire self reliance.

Manaakitangi Hui 1985
In September 1985, the Manaakitangi Hui was held in Rotorua to encourage Maori participation in the tourist industry. Acting Minister of Overseas Trade and Industry, Hon Mike Moore commented that the government of the day saw..."a need to go beyond the talk...underlined by the establishment of the Kupe Scholarship Scheme." The basis of this scheme was to encourage Maori Graduates to join NZTP and equip themselves to become eligible for overseas positions. Neil Plimmer, General Manager NZTP commented on the need for Maori to realise the different demands of
tourists when considering product development options highlighting three categories:

- demand for tourist opportunities which involve and provide that distinctive experience
- demand for activities that and materials which offer an "interpretation" of some important aspect of New Zealand
- demand for products which are distinctively New Zealand

The conference passed two specific motions calling for:

- the Establishment of a Maori Tourism Association
- the Establishment of the Maori Tourism Taskforce

The two structures would form the basis of a framework for Maori to gain an understanding of:

- the current position of Maoridom within the existing industry structure.
- the future strategic direction of Maori tourism.
- the action required for the development.
- the support that would be necessary to make development viable.

Maori Tourism Task Force

The Maori Tourism Taskforce was established as a result of the 1985 Manaakitanga Hui and given the task of reporting within 12 months on the following matters:
the general opportunities for Maori participation within the tourist industry;

- the social, economic and cultural policies that need to be pursued if Maori participation is considered desirable;

- the structure and organisation of the Maori tourism initiative; and

- the creation of a five year strategic plan to position the Maori tourist industry

In May of 1987 the Taskforce report was released. It identified seven strategies that set a course for Maori development. A noteworthy exception of the report was the absence of a generic business definition. The omission of a business definition is also noted by Young (1989) who comments "these strategies emerge - though not always clear" which suggests further emphasis on strategic planning. From the seven strategies 30 recommendations were made covering areas such as;

- greater Maori representation within the industry.

- identification of training needs and requirements for Maori involvement.

- government access to resources to facilitate ownership,

- management and staffing of businesses engaged in the provision of tourism goods and services.

Additional recommendations related to Maori employment in NZTP, the Tourist Hotel Corporation, Air New Zealand, the appointment of Regional Business Consultants, Marae Development, and National Parks. In response to the report University of Waikato academic, Mahuta commented that;
"The report is an essential document in the development of a national tourism strategy; and the only resource that comes any where close to informing the industry of where it is the Maori people want to go". In this respect the report could be considered as policy and as such would require transformation into a detailed action plan."

In a joint effort between NZTP and Maori Affairs the Maori Tourism Action Plan was submitted to the Minister of Tourism in late November 1987. In summary both groups agreed with the principle thrust of the Taskforce Report but were concerned about the structures proposed to implement it. In the original report proposals were perceived to duplicate existing structures and fell short on clarity of operationalizing liaison and cooperative frameworks. The main outcome of the Action Plan recommendations were;

- Establishment of a National Maori Tourist Association.
- Establishment of a Maori Tourism Liaison Unit within the existing
- NZTP structure to liaise between the tourism and the Maori people from within existing funds, and further develop its regional liaison services for Maori groups.

NZTP Maori Tourism Liaison Unit

In September 1988 the above unit was established at Head Office NZTP, Wellington. This unit was developed as one alternative structure proposed in the Taskforce report. The unit was to act as a focal point for liaison between Government, the tourism industry and Maori people. In August of 1991 the New Zealand Tourist Board separated into two entities.
The Ministry of Tourism is a policy unit and comes under the umbrella of the Ministry of Commerce. The second entity being the New Zealand Tourism Board (NZTB) whose primary function is to market "Destination New Zealand." With this restructuring the Maori Liaison unit became the responsibility of NZTB under the Product Development Division. The function of the unit was to perform three roles:

- **Maori Tourism development from a Governmental perspective.** Including analysing the strategic direction of the acting government and the direction of government policy. From that analysis the identifying the implications for Maori tourism.

- **Government liaison between various departments.** Specifically Maori affairs, Iwi Transition Agency and Department of Conservation.

- **Growth with developing stronger liaison between the governmental agencies, the Maori people and the tourism industry general.** The second dealing with developing the networking of Maori tourism operators acting as an ex-officio member of the AMTF executive board and New Zealand Maori Arts and Crafts Institute.

In 1992, in line with the principles of 'Te Tino Rangitiratanga' (as discussed in section 2.8.1) the Maori Liaison unit was disestablished and responsibilities entrusted with the national Maori Tourism body.
3.4.5 Aotearoa Maori Tourism Federation (AMTF)

The Aotearoa Maori Tourism Federation was established in 1987 (under the name Maori Tourism Association) with a mission to ensure representation of Maori in all sectors of tourism and an associated growth and promotion of employment opportunities for Maori at all levels within the industry. Membership of the Federation is open to any person, corporate body, society or association supporting the objects of the Federation.

The position of the Federation within the structure of the New Zealand tourism industry is illustrated in Fig 3.4.5 below. Situated within the industry as a trade association the Federation’s primary functions are largely concerned with the image of the trade group or industry, communicating, and negotiating with, on behalf of the industry with other bodies and groups. As a result trade association members benefit through gaining information, advice, and support from other members, along with representation, (Collier 1994).

Federation membership includes individuals and organisations from a broad spectrum of tourism interests. The objects of the Federation are:

- To introduce, promote and co-ordinate the special interests of Maori people in the development of the tourist industry in New Zealand and overseas.

- To promote and encourage the development of tourism in New Zealand in a manner which recognises and protects the spirituality, physical and cultural values of the Maori people.
- To serve as the voice of the Maori people in the tourist industry.

- To stimulate and promote tourism to New Zealand.

- To stimulate and promote tourism within New Zealand.

- To initiate, encourage and conduct research for the benefit of Maori people in the tourist industry.

- To foster unity among Maori tourist industry organisations without in any way affecting their industry.

- To encourage the development of Strong District/regional Associations and encourage co-operation between them through membership of the Federation.

- To extend recognition of the wide economic, social and cultural benefits that Maori tourism can bring to New Zealand the increased understanding and goodwill it brings between people of all countries.

- To act as the adviser and advocate of Maori tourism interests to regional Authorities, Local authorities, Maori Authorities and other Maori organisations and work with them to achieve these objectives.

- To promote, encourage and foster education and training Maori people to benefit the tourist industry.
• To foster the highest possible level of co-operation the Maori sector and general tourist industry at both the national and regional levels.

• Support the aspirations and needs of the members of the Federation according to the Policy of the Federation.
Fig 3.4.5 AMTF & NZTIA: Industry Partnerships
Research objectives for the Federation include:

- **Identifying operator quality standards**
  
  *(New Zealand Tourism Convention 1994)*

- **Compiling a database of Maori in tourism operators to identify, location, product range offered, and organisation size.**

- **Identifying the marketing position of the Maori product both within Aotearoa and globally. Identifying Maori in tourism market segments.**

- **Identifying Maori tourism distribution networks.**

- **Identify benchmark indicators to measure growth of the Maori involvement in the industry.**

- **Identify operator 'information gaps'.**

- **Implement operator tracking studies. It is envisaged this will pilot discussion and further research on issues of control over the image of Maori and protection of Maori intellectual and cultural property rights.** *(AMTF Newsletter June 1994)*

With the growth in the number of Maori in tourism operators and the associated growth in the variety of Maori cultural experiences, *(NZTC 1994)*, a key concern of the Federation is to ensure quality Maori product is represented in all sectors of the industry. At present the majority of Maori cultural experiences can be classified into three broad areas:
• **Hangi and Concert**  
  *ie. Sheraton Hotel Rotorua*

• **Eco tourism - culture based guided tours**  
  *ie. New Zealand Maori Arts and Crafts Institute*

• **Eco tourism - nature based adventure tours**  
  *ie. Kaikoura Whalewatch*

Support for quality standards can be highlighted by the growing number of industry and sectorial standards that are appearing, ie. Total Quality Management ISO 9000: Customer service: KiwiHost; Accommodation sector: Qualmark. From an education and training perspective there also exists related development of units standards as part of the National Qualifications Framework as discussed in section 1.2.

Associated with industry recognition of standards is the growing interest in how visitor’s evaluate service quality, (Parasuraman et al 1985). This suggests a key to the success of the AMTF will be its ability to initiate and encourage and research that offers industry training organisations and operators prescriptive information on how visitors evaluate service quality of the respective cultural experiences. In the next section the research explores the issue of a service marketing approach to Maori tourism development.
In the previous sections the research has explored and highlighted many of the issues concerning Maori tourism development. Central to these developments is the environment in which they occur. The Western world is currently experiencing a service society or service economy, (Gronroos 1990). Described as a 'game between persons', this metaphor suggests emergence of new relationships between people and machines, new forms of organisational solutions, coordination of job activities and management skills concerning, for example, overall management, marketing, and organisational behaviour. Bowen & Schneider (1988 cit Gronroos 1990).

From a tourism perspective this suggests that the traditional view of marketing as a function of planning and executing a marketing mix may not apply where services are concerned. This is supported by the view of (Ryans & Wittink 1977) that services deserve special marketing consideration in the same way that certain product categories do.

Gronroos (ibid) offers a Marketing strategy continuum Fig 3.7 providing several options for analysing marketing strategy. 'Relationship marketing' and 'Transaction marketing' form the ends of the continuum. Relationship marketing is defined as a long term marketing strategy which aims at developing and enhancing continuous and enduring customer relationships. Transaction marketing is defined as "making one transaction at a time with any given customer, without deliberately trying to develop any enduring relationship with that customer. This continuum is based on the rationale of the changing role of marketing in a services context, resulting in a growth of the interface between host and guest, (Rathmell 1974). This implies that as the interface grows more attention should be given to 'managing the
service encounter'. In the service context this issue is very important because the traditional marketing functions are spread throughout the organisation; therefore the whole organisation has to be supportive to marketing. This supports the earlier view that the marketing function should be an integral part of overall management described by the term 'market orientated management': therefore marketing can be characterised an integral part of service management. In Fig 3.7 strategies on the marketing strategy continuum are examined in some detail the analysis focuses on the ends of the continuum however the range between the extremes allows for in-between possibilities. The conceptual framework allows the user to consider four types of consequences of a relationship marketing strategy and a transaction marketing strategy highlighting where typical marketing situations occur on the marketing strategy continuum.

### Figure 3.7 The Marketing Strategy Continuum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marketing strategy continuum</th>
<th>Transaction Marketing</th>
<th>Relationship Marketing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dominating marketing function</td>
<td>Traditional marketing mix dominated</td>
<td>Interactive marketing dominated*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality dimension most important for a competitive advantage</td>
<td>Outcome-related technical quality dominating</td>
<td>Process-related functional quality dominating*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price sensitivity</td>
<td>Customers very price sensitive</td>
<td>Customers much less price sensitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interface between marketing and other functions, e.g., operations and personnel</td>
<td>Limited or nonexistent: interface of no significant strategic importance</td>
<td>Substantial; interface of strategic importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical marketing situations continuum</td>
<td>Consumer Marketing</td>
<td>Consumer Marketing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* But supported by traditional marketing mix elements
** Provided that the technical quality is at an acceptable level

Source: Gronroos (1990) pg 142
Given the unprecedented growth and variety of Maori tourism experiences (NZTB 1994) it appears that sustainable tourism growth requires the need for the adoption of a broader marketing approach as a means to achieving competitive advantage. Coyne (1986) suggests competitive advantage is meaningful in strategy only when three distinct conditions are met:

- **Customers perceive a consistent difference in important attributes between the producers product or service and those of his competitors**

- **That difference is the direct consequence of a capability gap between the producer and his competitors.**

- **Both the differences in important attributes and the capability gap can be expected to endure over time.**

Durability of a competitive advantage is dependant on competitor ability to imitate the provider's superior product/delivery attributes. In other words, "a gap in the capability underlying the differentiation must separate the producer from his competitors; otherwise, no meaningful competitive advantage exists", (Coyne 1986). Capability gaps fall into fours categories:

- **Business system gaps** - resulting from the ability to perform individual functions more effectively than competitors and from the inability of competitors to easily follow suit.

- **Position gaps** - resulting from prior decisions, actions, and circumstances.
- **Regulatory/legal gaps** - resulting from government's limiting the competitors who can perform certain activities, or the degree to which they can perform those activities.

- **Organisation/Managerial gaps** - result from the organisation's ability to consistently innovate and adapt more quickly than its competitors.

Acknowledging the position of Maori tourism, toward the relationship marketing strategy end of the continuum, suggests an interface between Maori tourism and service marketing. The following section will attempt to explore the strategic significance of this.
4.0 Tourism and Service Marketing

Tourism Marketing is Service Marketing”
- Michael Haywood 1989

4.1 Introduction

The previous research in Chapters 1 - 3, is an attempt to review elements of Maori culture, Maori economic development, and Maori involvement in tourism. This section sets out to review service marketing as an approach to Maori tourism development and provide background to the issue of service quality. This section will explore the emergence of services marketing, examine theory behind separation of goods and services marketing, the characteristics of services, and specific problems associated with marketing management of tourism services.

4.2 Toward a Service Economy

In his book Service Management and Marketing, Gronroos (1990) notes that "in the Western World we is already experiencing a service economy ,"..."such an economy is characterised by the fact that more than half of the gross national product (GNP) is produced in the so-called service sector. Services are becoming a critical source of wealth in many ways." Statistical data published by GATT (General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs) reveals that in 1984 the service sector of the United States economy contributed 66% total GNP, EEC countries average at 58% total GNP (Gronroos ibid), compared with New Zealand service sector contribution of 34% total GNP, (Crocombe et al 1991).

According to Gronroos (1990), at a micro level the importance of services is constantly growing beyond the boundaries of a 'service sector'. Every statistic defining such a sector is a gross understatement of the truth, since services produced by the manufacturers of goods in the so-called industrial sector are
not included. This gives rise to a large 'hidden service sector'. As a result the term 'service industries' is becoming outdated, more appropriate historically when services for manufacturers were a negligible part of their operations, without any strategic importance. This implies that discussion should focus on "managing services and service elements of the business irrespective of whether the organisation belongs to what is traditionally called a service sector or a manufacturing sector." Applying this rationale to strategic decision making suggests that new frameworks and concepts geared to the characteristics of services and the nature of service competition are required. In short a solid theory of service competition is required.

4.2.1 Service Marketing Schools of Thought

Broadly speaking three schools of thought may be identified in the literature as noted by Rushton et al (1989). The first school of thought argues that services marketing is a special case because the very nature of services means that most normal marketing practices are not directly applicable. Adopting this perspective suggests marketing management tasks can be differentiated from manufacturing along two dimensions. The first relates to the generic differences between service products and physical goods products. The latter concerns the management environment or content within which marketing tasks must be planned and executed, cite Lovelock (1981 cit Rushton and Carson 1989).

The second school of thought supports the view that apart from a few fundamental marketing principles, most marketing is situation-specific and determined by the particular characteristics of an industry. Consequently, only generalisation is possible, be it about the marketing of goods or the marketing of services. The third school of thought apparent in the literature suggests that services marketing is simply one application of basic marketing principles and not a distinctive issue. Levitt (1981) expresses this view, "Distinguishing between companies according to whether they market services or goods has
only limited utility. Instead of speaking of services and goods, we should speak of intangibles and tangibles. Enis and Roering (1981) agree stating that neither goods or services are marketed. "What is marketed is a bundle of benefits, often including both intangible and intangible aspects. Everybody sells intangibles in the marketplace, no matter what is produced in the factory."

Wyckham, Fitzroy, and Mandry (1975), Enis and Roering (1981), and Orsini (1987) agree that differences between products and services and the resulting differences in marketing are "much more a matter of emphasis than nature or kind." This view suggests that attempts to define services become myopic because if no real differences exist, then no new concepts and techniques are needed. Conversely what is required is a better understanding of what already exists (Bateson 1979).

In summary, while debate exists over approaches to service marketing a commonality exists between approaches based upon the degrees or levels of generalisation in relation to the applicability of marketing fundamentals and theories. Appreciating that various levels of generalisation exist according to circumstance allows for positioning of a conceptual services marketing framework relative to the existing marketing paradigm.

4.3 Service Marketing: A Conceptual Framework

Rushton et al (1989) propose a conceptual framework as shown by Fig 4.3 which positions the study of service marketing. This framework illustrates the conceptual proposition that, whilst there are general marketing concepts, approaches and theories of universal applicability, when it comes to the actual process of marketing, adaptation of these generalisations is required to suit different circumstances.
Rushton and Carson (ibid) note that the result of these adaptations is highlighted in the situation-specific practices of a sub-industry or an individual operator. In this situation, although the marketing concepts and many of the practices are universal, the marketing practices are often very unique to that situation. On a broad industry perspective the opposite occurs where exists a considerable degree of commonality in marketing practices across consumer goods, industrial goods, consumer services and industrial services. A third level of generalisation suggests service marketing should be considered as a separate entity. This entity is based on the differences between goods and services marketing and the similarities within goods marketing and within services marketing.
4.4 Services Defined

A service is a complicated phenomenon. The word has many meanings, ranging from personal service to service as a product. To advance illustration of the above issues, an attempt to define the phenomenon is offered.

Judd (1964) defines a service as;
"the object of a transaction which does not entail the transfer of ownership of a tangible commodity."

Bessom (1973) asserts;
"for the consumer, services are any activities offered for sale that provide valuable benefits or satisfactions; activities that he cannot perform for himself or that he chooses not to perform for himself".

Rathmell (1974) defines a service as;
"any intangible product bought and sold in the marketplace."

Lehtinen (1983) states;
"A service is an activity or series of activities which take place in interactions with a contact person or a physical machine and which provides consumer satisfaction"

Upah and Uhl (1983) offer a comprehensive definition that emphasises a number of the unique aspects of services which make them different from products;
"any task (work) performed for another or the provision of any facility, product, or activity for another's use and not ownership, which arises from an exchange transaction. It is intangible and incapable of being stored or transported. There may be an accompanying sale of a product."
Kotler and Bloom (1984) suggest a service is;
"any activity or benefit that one party can offer to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything. Its production may or may not be tied to a physical product."

Observation of these definitions suggests a move toward a more comprehensive definitions of services that emphasise the small number of major differences between products and services; interaction (Gronroos 1990), task, provision of any facility, activity, and incapability of being stored (Upah and Uhl ibid), and intangibility (Kotler and Bloom ibid) Contrasting this view Gronroos (1990) suggests that the debate service definitions would be more fruitful by "looking at the characteristics that seem to be common to most services". (Gronroos 1990). In supporting of this view the following section explores research on the characteristics of service.

4.5 The Characteristics of Services
An underlying assumption of the goods and services dichotomy is that specific and unique characteristics distinguish services from goods (Rathmell 1974, Gronroos 1974, Bateson 1979, Berry 1980, Booms and Nyquist 1981). Zeithaml et al (1985) present a summary of the purported differences between services and goods along with a bibliography of the citations supporting those differences. Intangibility, the primary characteristic of difference gives rise to three other distinguishing characteristics: the inseparability of production and consumption, heterogeneity, and perishability. A fourth characteristic identified as a distinguishing feature of services is ownership. Figure (4.5) presents a summary of the references documenting these differences. These characteristics, which describe the very nature of services, also give rise to the general problems associated with the marketing of services.
4.5.1 Intangibility

Of all the characteristics of services intangibility is arguably the single most important characteristic of a service, (Rushton and Carson 1989). Services are rendered. Services are experienced. Services are intangible, meaning, they contain elements that are dynamic, subjective, and ephemeral (Shostack 1977). Because services are regarded as performances rather than tangible products they can not be held, touched, tasted, or seen before the purchase decision. This leads to difficulties in service evaluation before and after purchase. In the case of tourism services this is applicable as potential visitors do not have access to the benefits offered until they actually start their holiday, (Greenley and Matcham 1984). Zeithmahl (1981) has examined this particular issue by reference to three types of product properties: search qualities, experience qualities and credence qualities. Search qualities are attributes which a consumer evaluates before engaging in a service, ie. facilities, equipment, appearance of personnel. Experience qualities are attributes which can only be specified during or after consumption of the service. The experiential nature of tourism services makes them more difficult to evaluate because they lack durability which is a feature often linked with quality in products. Credence qualities are attributes which consumers may find impossible to evaluate even after purchase and consumption, perhaps because they do not have the knowledge or skill to do so.

Witt (1989) suggests that the majority of tourism services, due to their intangibility, are low in search attributes and high in experience attributes. The heterogeneity characteristic of services heightens the relative importance of experience attributes because of the inevitable variability in service delivery from one occasion to another.

These factors have important implications for the marketing of services because it is marketing that needs to address the problems of clarifying the service for
customers and of facilitating the evaluation process. (Rushton and Carson 1989). Intangibility, the primary characteristic of the goods and services dichotomy, can be illustrated as a continuum (Fig 4.5.1), with services tending toward the intangible-dominant end of the scale and products toward the tangible-dominant end.

Figure 4.5 Purported Differences between Services and Goods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unique Service Features</th>
<th>Resulting Marketing Problems</th>
<th>Selected References Citing Problems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Intangibility**

3. Cannot readily display or communicate services. Rathmell (1974)

**Inseparability**


**Heterogeneity**


**Perishability**


Suggested Marketing Strategies for Problems Stemming from Unique Service Features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unique Service Features</th>
<th>Marketing Strategies to Solve Problems</th>
<th>References Citing Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Intangibility**

2. Use personal sources more than nonpersonal sources. Donnelly (1980), Johnson (1969)

**Inseparability**


**Heterogeneity**


**Perishability**

1. Use strategies to cope with fluctuating demand. Lovelock (1981)
2. Make simultaneous adjustments in demand and capacity to achieve a closer match between the two. Sasser (1976)

Source: Zeithaml et al (1985) pg 35

*Levitt suggests specific techniques to substitute organized preplanned systems for individual service operations (e.g., a travel agency could offer packaged vacation tours to obviate the need for the selling, tailoring, and haggling involved in customization). This strategy is the opposite of customization.
This model provides a framework to aid decision making. It highlights the subjective and situation-specific nature of how intangible the visitor offering is. This implies that the degree of intangibility will have an impact on how the offering should be positioned - and what components of the marketing mix should be used to communicate to the market. Because services have no physical appearance there is a heavy reliance on tangible clues to provide an image. In the case of tourism, the predominant tangible clues are in the form of promotional brochures, therefore effective media representation of intangibles is a function of establishing non-abstract manifestations of them, (Shostack 1977).
4.5.2 Inseparability of Production and Consumption

A service is generally consumed whilst being performed, and usually the consumer is actively involved in the performance of the service they are using (Rushton and Carson ibid). Most services cannot be produced in one place and then transported to another. For these services, either the consumer must go to the production facility or the production facility must be brought to the consumer (Upah and Uhal 1983). In tourism the former case is typical.

Visitors to a Maori hangi in a tourist setting, for example, participate in the service by ordering, eating, and generally serving themselves. Further the meal is consumed at the same time as the service of providing the meal is performed. Since the guest must be present during the production of many services, inseparability "forces the visitor into intimate contact with the production process", (Carmen and Langeard 1980). "Evaluations on quality of performance are made at this stage. Because the tourist often participates in delivery of a service, the performance and its subsequent quality can be impacted by the tourist's actions, mood, and cooperativeness", (Witt and Moutinho 1989).

Inseparability also means that the producer and the seller are the same entity, making only direct distribution possible in most cases (Upah 1980) causing marketing and production to be highly interactive, (Gronroos 1978). The resultant marketing problems are that service production involves the consumer (Booms and Nyquist 1981), service production involves other consumers (Bateson 1977, George 1977, Gronroos 1978), services are difficult to centralise, mass produce (Sasser et al 1978, Upah 1980), requiring greater attention to tangible features that provide evidence about the intangible service offered (Haywood-Farmer 1987).
4.5.3 Heterogeneity

"Marketing services is always challenging because the quality of a service is often inconsistent", (Moutinho 1991). Services are performed and always involve a human element, even if only on the part of the user, variation in performance occurs and therefore developing realistic standards of performance is extremely difficult (Rushton and Carson 1989). "Goods can often be described and evaluated by a few well-understood attributes that remain relatively constant over time. Services however, often have many more important attributes, the relative importance of which can change rapidly" (Haywood-Farmer 1987).

Calantone and Mazanec (1991) support this view stating that, "tourism is a service, thus delivery of peak performance is critical to success". Although the performance of most services is supported by tangibles, the essence of which is bought is performance rendered by one party for another" (Berry 1984). This further highlights the marketing problem of gaining necessary control for uniform delivery of service quality.

Langeard et al (1981) argue heterogeneity may occur due to "many different employees being in contact with an individual customer, raising a problem of consistency of behaviour. Service output from the same individual may also differ." Knisley (1979) adds support stating, "people's performance day in and day out fluctuates up and down. The level of consistency that you can count on and try to communicate to the consumer is not a certain thing".

Corollary to the above issues, George and Berry (1983) suggest that "when making promises in services advertising, prudence and caution should rule. In general it is better to promise only that which can be delivered a very high percentage of the time and foster realistic expectations rather than unrealistic expectations."
4.5.4 Perishability

Due to their intangibility services cannot be produced before required and then stored to meet demand (Rushton et al. 1985). All service capacity is perishable and furthermore perishes with every instant of non-use (Uhl and Upah 1983). For example, motel rooms not occupied, airline seats not purchased, and telephone line capacity not used cannot be reclaimed. This total lack of storage capability creates the need for a more exacting match between supply and demand for services than for products (Sasser 1976).

An additional problem of this characteristic is the uncertainty of forecasts and the ability to be able to control the variables which affect demand. Consequently the marketeer is faced with the challenge of deciding on the quantity to be supplied. Greenley and Matcham (1985) note that resultant tourism marketing problems exist in the adjustment of the marketing mix, for example changing price or advertising expenditure to affect demand. In addition Gabbott and Hogg (1994) argue that, for the consumer of services, the time at which the consumer chooses to use the service may be critical to its performance and therefore the consumer's experience. Kelley et al. (1990) make the observation that consumption is inextricably linked to the presence of other consumers and their presence can influence the service outcome.

4.5.5 Ownership

Judd (1964), Wyckham et al. (1975) and Kotler (1982) have identified the concept of ownership as a distinguishing feature of services. With the sale of a good the purchaser generally obtains ownership of it. By contrast in the case of a service the purchaser only has temporary access or use of it: what is owned is the benefit of the service, not the service itself, i.e., in terms of a holiday the consumer has the benefit of the flight, hotel and beach but does not own them. The absence of ownership stresses the finite nature of services for consumers,
there is no enduring involvement in the product only the benefit. In summary these separate characteristics which distinguish a service from a good form the basis of most analyses of service marketing. In the preceding section the research explores additional industry specific characteristics that apply to services.

4.6 The Nature of Services - a Case for Tourism

In addition to the general service characteristics previously listed Greenley and Matcham (1985) cite three other characteristics which can be specifically associated to the problems of tourism marketing. These additional characteristics are relevant to the present study which reflects domestic and international tourist perspective's. These problems can be classified as being due to the nature of the tourist product, the nature of (inbound) tourism markets, and the nature of the industry.

4.6.1 Nature of the Tourist Product

It is difficult to change the core (generic) product of tourism, i.e. the destination as such can not be easily modified. Landscape, flora and fauna, waterways, historic buildings cannot be modified in the same way that a manufacturer can improve a physical product. As a result, the marketer is faced with the problem of fitting the core (generic) product to the markets which are readily available. This contrasts with established marketing principles, where the product is modified to satisfy the requirements of the business target market segments.

Greenley and Matcham (ibid) suggest resultant marketing problems may be addressed through modification via the augmented product, in the form of enhancing facilities and modes of transport. Peters (1989) supports this view using Levitt's (1980) Total Product Concept (TPC), asserting that, rather than focus on the generic product (Firm A), organisations should focus on the outer
rings of the TPC, the potential product and augmented product (Firm B), to develop service strategies that reposition the product and create whole new markets." (see Fig 4.6.1)

![Figure 4.6.1 The Total Product Concept](image)

Source: Peters (1989) pg 93

The value of the Levitt model is demonstrated when used as an aid to strategic thinking. ie. As the visitor, traverse the model's conceptual rings, from generic to potential, it is suggested for example the New Zealand Maori Arts and Crafts Institute is not a manufacturer of Maori Art and Craft but rather "an experience", "a phenomenon" or as Peters (1987) suggests "a provider of lifetime, (visitor) friendly relationships, only marginally associated with souvenirs of Maori Arts and Crafts per se!" Peters (ibid) adds that "invariably the excellent service providers operationalise these (service) strategies "through a thousand tiny differentiating actions, none of which is earth-shaking by itself."

Jan Carlzon of Scandinavian Air Services supports this management approach arguing that "successful service management is to improve one hundred things by one percent, not one thing by one hundred percent." (Gronroos 1990)
4.6.2 Nature of the Tourism Markets

The problems of developing strategies for tourism markets are two-fold. First is the problem of fitting a core (generic) product to a wide range of visitor needs and secondly how to fit a core product to visitors from diverse cultural backgrounds. Typically basic visitor needs are a function of; reason for visit, length of stay and expenditure. This variation in tourism needs, coupled with the core (generic) product, means that the marketing strategy needs to be varied, based upon the requirements of the different market segments.

Many of the visitor markets provide strong barriers to entry, i.e., different languages and customs, limited knowledge of destination and destination culture, expensive advertising, immigration constraints, limited or no access to between destinations, etc. These barriers have been recognised by the New Zealand Tourism Board (NZTB) in their bid to position New Zealand "as a distinct and competitive visitor destination"... "and ensure the New Zealand tourism product meets market demand to enable us to grow visitor arrivals, and to increase length of stay and expenditure." (NZTB 1992).

As a result the NZTB currently segments the international market geographically and implements independent marketing strategies based the varied visitor needs and wants of each target segment. To help achieve the stated objective it has adopted of a "proactive product development policy to address new product development, enhance existing product and ensure we meet changing consumer preferences through innovative market offerings." New Zealand Tourism Board (1992) research suggests that future opportunities exist through developing attraction experiences that focus on the following:

- provide close contact with "real" New Zealanders
- soft adventure tourism
- heritage/culture tourism
4.6.3 Nature of the New Zealand Tourism Industry

The tourist industry has traditionally been highly fragmented and diversified, consisting of many different organisations covering all services required by the visitor. Marketing of tourism is carried out at one level by the national, regional and tourist organisations and at another level by the tour operators. This situation often causes confusion and clashes of interest within the industry, as reported by Burkart and Medlik (1974). Promoting the Maori dimension of the New Zealand tourism product highlights the realities of this problem.

Mahuta (1987) notes..."It has been of deep concern to the Maori that the Maori image has been used as a marketing tool in the promotion of the tourist industry for over 100 years. Maori are also critical of the way they are stereotyped into guides, entertainers, carvers and as components of the natural scenery. This has been without consultation and with little commercial benefit to the Maori people." Further, "there exists the potential to drive a serious undercurrent of bitterness which could easily turn to anger. This means that the industry must rethink its present tendency to stereotype the Maori role in tourism" (Maori Tourism Task Force Report: 1985).

At a macro level this highlights the need for better horizontal and vertical communication within the industry so that all participants can work more effectively and efficiently toward common goals. A critical factor for improving the communication process rests with the rationalisation of the industry associations establishing the "one industry concept" by amalgamating many trade associations into a new tourism federation (NZTIA 1994).

The proposed structure (Fig 4.6.3) classifies industry players by nature of activity into one of nine industry training organisations (ITO), reducing the number of networks and centralises communications, thus increasing efficiency. Table 4.6.3 lists the sectors within each division, and recognises the activities
and issues related to Maori tourism through an independent body within the regional membership division. This framework also allows for the extension of member activities across more than one division and the resulting appropriation of funding. For Maori operators there is also the added flexibility of independent membership within specific divisions with or without membership to the Maori tourism sector body, allowing members to develop their tribal/iwi differences within the national framework.

Table 4.6.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Air Transport</th>
<th>Distribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International Airlines</td>
<td>Travel Agents Reservations</td>
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<tr>
<td>Domestic Airlines</td>
<td>Tour Wholesalers Principals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flightseeing</td>
<td>Inbound Operators</td>
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<td>Local Booking Offices</td>
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<tr>
<td>Surface Transport</td>
<td>Regional</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coach Operators, Railways</td>
<td>R.T.O’s, Promotion Boards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rental Car Operators, Ferries</td>
<td>MAORI TOURISM, Local Bodies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campervan Operators</td>
<td>Visitor Information Centres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality</td>
<td>Activities and Shopping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels Motels</td>
<td>Adventure Providers Museums</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camp/Cabin Farm/Home Host</td>
<td>Attractions Recreation providers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bed and Breakfast Backpackers</td>
<td>Retailers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>Event and Conference Organisers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Training</td>
<td>Tourism Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Schools Polytechnics</td>
<td>Credit Cards Banks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry Training Organisations</td>
<td>Publishers Consultants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Bodies Universities</td>
<td>Developers Advertising Agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Training Providers</td>
<td>Government Departments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In support of Mahuta’s (1987) assertions and amidst industry rationalisation, increased consultation and recognition of Maori interests will be a prerequisite if an attempt is made to reduce the "perceptual gaps" that currently exist between the visitor and the New Zealand tourism offering.
An approach to reducing these gaps suggests a greater understanding of the existing/proposed industry bodies and networks to develop communication leverage and competitive advantages of the Maori tourism dimension.

Associated with the need for greater consultation within the tourism industry is the issue of Maori Cultural and Intellectual Property Rights. In a comprehensive review of this issue the primary concern identified was that of ethnic authenticity, which is put at risk by tourism activities. Specific areas of concern include:

- *Dilution of Tikanga (Maori Ways),*
- *Misuse of Taonga and information regarding Taonga,*
- *Exploitation of Taonga through fake reproduction,*
- *Threat to ownership and control of Taonga, and*
- *Depreciation of Taonga Maori.*

Exploration work by the CIPR working group has resulted in four recommendations to be implemented through The Maori Economic Development Board: Te Puni Kokiri with the aim of introducing new legislation to protect and support Maori aspirations by involving Maori in decisions which have national and international implications (Bennett 1994).

In summary within the New Zealand Tourism 'One Industry Concept' the Maori dimension historically and currently provides a "unique point of difference". Maintenance of service quality standards and long term commercial benefits are attainable providing the rights of Tangata Whenua/Maori are recognised protected and marketed by the industry in a sustainable manner. Setting future service quality standards for Maori tourism requires further research to gain
Fig 4.6.3 Structure of the New Zealand Tourism Industry Association

Source: Collier (1994) pg 122
4.7 Management of Tourism Services

Haywood (1990) asserts that... "Tourism businesses and organisations are providers of services, but the generic attributes of services pose vexing problems for managers. This suggests one approach to the management of service quality may be to identify and determine the nature of its generic attributes. Managers are ultimately responsible for the achievement of results through the specialised efforts of other people, whether individually, in groups, or in organisations." (Ivancevich, Donnelly and Gibson 1989). Managers determine which services are offered to visitors, which attractions are built, how goods and services are priced, who will do the work and how it will be done. Calantone and Mazanec (1991) state "managers decide the who, what, where, when, how much, and many other aspects of the supply-side of the tourism exchange. It is the calibration of the service delivery system with the wants and needs of visitors that provide satisfaction and the efficiency in that exchange relationship."

![Figure 4.7 The Strategic Management Trap](source: Gronroos (1990) pg 95)
Figure 4.7.1 The Cycle of Failure

Figure 4.7.1 Cycle of Success

Source: Schlesinger and Heskett (1991) pg 18-19
As a means to improving profitability managerial decisions often focus on efficiency. Gronroos (1990) suggests efficiency is a complicated phenomenon with at least two dimensions, *internal efficiency* and *external efficiency*. The former relates to the way a firm operates and the productivity of labour and capital. This can be measured by the unit costs of production output. The latter is the way the visitors perceive the operations and output of the firm. In manufacturing businesses the inter-relationship between internal and external efficiency is of less importance because the customer only perceives the physical output of the production process.

In a tourism service operation the situation is often altogether different. The visitor may not only interested in what he or she receives as an outcome of the production process, but in the process itself. Parasuraman et al (1991) further support the importance of the process dimensions (*external efficiency*) of service quality as a means to exceeding customer expectations. It is during service delivery “the process” when customers directly experience provider’s service skills and ‘tone’ that firms are best able to *augment* the service core of reliability in ways that are differentiating. In effect, the process dimensions of service play a different role than the outcome dimension of reliability. ie. To compete firms must be reliable, however if they also do well on the process dimensions, they are more likely to dominate the competition.

Fig 4.7 illustrates the consequences of following a traditional manufacturing approach to managing services resulting in what Gronroos (ibid) describes as the "Strategic Management Trap. (SMT)" This schematic illustration highlights the need for management decisions to consider internal efficiency equally as external efficiency so that any improvements on internal efficiency are still perceived by the customer as improving service quality.
Expanding the "Strategic Management Trap" to an operational level Schlesinger and Heskett (1991) suggest that future managers will need to invest heavily in human resources specifically front-line staff in order to break what they term "the cycle of failure" (Fig 4.7.1) which results in employee dissatisfaction, high staff turnover and increasing customer dissatisfaction. Contributing factors to the "cycle of failure" include; slowed labour market growth, dramatic increases in the demand for service workers, tightened immigration policies, and increasing consumer demands for improved service, making the business consequences of the cycle increasingly untenable.

As an alternative "the cycle of success" (Fig 4.7.1) results from firms who make a commitment and upfront expenditure of money and effort to recruit and retain employees that fit their service strategies well. In the restricted labour markets of the future the value of this "cycle of success" can be expressed as competitors are required to spend more on recruiting and training in attempts to remain competitive. This supports the Gronroos' view that overemphasis on internal efficiency without regard for employee and customer satisfaction ultimately leads to long term decreases in sales and profits.

To conclude, a service economy requires a new approach to the marketing paradigm: Service marketing. Characteristics of services provide justification for marketing strategies stemming from unique service features. In addition to general service characteristics there are also characteristics specific to the tourism industry which create marketing problems. At the industry sector level the marketing of Maori tourism services provides a good example of the challenges that face marketeers of culture.

Future issues for providers will include the ability to measure and satisfy the visitors expectations of culture based experiences and the establishment of cultural authenticity standards. This implies an approach to the management of
tourism service quality that focuses on the process dimensions as well as the outcome dimensions. Therefore a greater understanding of the service quality construct may provide competitive insight for managers of Maori tourism services.
5.0 Service Quality

"Service Quality is a journey, not a destination"
- Berry et al, 1989

"Product quality takes time to appreciate, service quality is appreciated immediately"
- Michael Allen GEC 1990

5.1 Introduction
The preceding chapter provides support for further study of the service marketing area. This section examines the strategic significance of service quality as an area within the field of service marketing. Specifically, the research explores the theory behind service quality as a strategy, the service encounter, conceptualisation of service quality, and measurement of service quality.

5.2 Service Quality Strategy
In this section, we explore service quality as an element of the overall service marketing strategy. The term "strategy" is reserved here for actions aimed at altering the strength of the enterprise relative to that of its competitors. Ohmae (1982) makes a distinction between relative strength (actions aimed at operational improvements) and absolute strength (actions aimed at strategic improvements) noting that there is a significant difference between the two with respect to the degree of urgency. Ohmae notes, "while internal weaknesses or inefficiencies can usually be tolerated in the short term, that the deterioration of a company's position relative to that of its competitors may endanger the very existence of the enterprise."
This implies that marketeers should address service quality as a strategic marketing decision. Gronroos (1990) defines a service strategy as "creating a range of services to enhance customer relations. As a result the specific competence of a firm can be seen in its ability to serve its customers in a competitive way, and thus create a differentiated offering to the market. With this approach the key competence is the 'competitive edge' created by offering values or benefits that are due to various services or service elements in the relationships with the customer. The values or benefits may be offered as a result of the service outcome or through service delivery. Gronroos (ibid.) claims as a result "differentiation can be achieved as by profound exploitation of the service characteristics of services, regardless of industry sector."

5.3 The Service Encounter

The situations in which the visitor meets the resources and the ways of operating of the service provider are critical to the quality experience. The service encounter can be defined as the points of interaction between the service provider and visitor (Mill 1986). The nature of this interaction has been recognised to be a critical determinant of satisfaction with the service (Czepeil 1985). This suggests for example that when reviewing their total response to a restaurant, guests do not separate the food from the service; it is all one package.

McCallum and Harrison (1985) claim "service encounters are first and foremost social encounters". For marketeers and others who believe in the power of economic utility to explain market place exchange behaviour, such a statement seems difficult to accept. McCallum and Harrison claim that, "in reality whether in consumer or industrial settings, the social content of service encounters often seems to over-shadow the economic."
From the provider perspective a service encounter represents the point on which both today's and tomorrow's business success hinges, for both depend on the functional and social performance of the service provider's interactions with the visitor. From the visitor perspective, it is the key element in the economic exchange in which functional and psychological benefits are produced and delivered by the service provider. (Czepiel 1990).

To ensure long term success, management of the service encounter should become a key objective. Gronroos (1990) notes that, "the service production and delivery process must always be planned and executed so that no badly handled moments of truth take place." If such situations go unmanaged there is an evident risk that unexpected quality may occur. Albrecht and Zemke (1985) comment, "When the moments of truth go unmanaged, the quality of service regresses to mediocrity". While it is not possible to directly control the encounter it is possible to influence service provider behaviour and visitor expectations.

Czepiel et al (1985) offer a model Fig 5.3 of visitor - employee interaction's proposing that behaviour by visitors is a product of their expectations of a business's service. "Service firms that seek to exceed customer expectations in order to enhance their quality image should capitalise on the best opportunity for doing so through service delivery, (Parasuraman et al 1990). It is during delivery, when customers directly experience providers service skills and tone, that firms are best able to augment the service core of reliability in ways that are differentiating (ibid.). Gronroos (1990) adds weight to this argument stating "from a competitive point of view , this so called functional quality dimension (service encounters) frequently is equally important as or even more important than the so called technical quality (service outcome) of the offering."
From a reliability perspective, Parasuraman et al (ibid.) assert that "in effect the process dimensions (service encounters) of service play a different role than the outcome dimension of reliability." As a result, leveraging the process dimensions is critical when service failures occur (i.e., when service recovery is necessary) because "the opportunity for recovery is greater with the process dimensions because of lower expectations and a larger zone of tolerance," (ibid.). In summary, organisations must be reliable simply to compete. If they also perform well on the process dimensions, the likelihood of sustaining a competitive advantage is greater.

Figure 5.3 A Model of Customer - Employee Interaction

![Diagram of Customer - Employee Interaction](Source: Mill (1986) pg. 40)
5.4 Conceptualisation of Service Quality

The growth of literature suggests the interest in service quality has increased exponentially since the 1980's. Two schools of thought dominate the service quality literature - Nordic and the North American.

5.4.1 The Nordic Approach

The Nordic School is dominated by the early work of Gronroos (1984) who proposed a service orientated approach to service marketing, the concept of perceived service quality, and later developing a service quality model (Fig 5.4.1). The Gronroos model illustrates how quality experiences are connected to the traditional marketing activities resulting in a 'Perceived Service Quality'. Using this model the quality of a service as perceived by customers has two dimensions, namely, a technical or outcome dimension and a functional or process-related dimension. The model highlights that corporate or local image of the firm also plays an integral part in firm's the perceived service quality. i.e. the expectation of consumers are influenced by their view of the company: by the image. As a result Gronroos suggests the functional quality dimension cannot be evaluated as objectively as the technical dimension; frequently it is perceived subjectively.

![Figure 5.4.1 The Gronroos Service Quality Model](source: Gronroos (1984) pg. 40)
5.4.2 The North American Approach

The North American School is dominated by the work of Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml (1985) who also developed a conceptual model of service quality (fig 5.4.2). The model demonstrates how service quality emerges. The upper part of the model includes phenomena related to the customer, the lower part depicts phenomena related to the service provider. This model is characterised by a series of four distinct gaps which can impede delivery of high-quality service. These are:

**Gap 1:** The difference between actual customer expectations and management perception of customer expectations

**Gap 2:** The difference between management perception of customer expectations and service-quality specifications

**Gap 3:** The difference between service-quality specifications and the service actually delivered

**Gap 4:** The difference between service delivered and what is communicated about the service to customers

These combine to form the ultimate gap, that is, the gap between expected and (experienced) perceived service (Gap 5), which is a function of the other gaps which may have occurred in the process. To improve service quality, therefore, it is vital to try to reduce the gaps.
Figure 5.4.2 Conceptual Model of Service Quality

CONSUMER

Word of Mouth Communications

Personal Needs

Past Experience

Expected Service

Perceived Service

MARKETEER

Service Delivery (including pre- and post-contacts)

External Communications to Consumers

Translation of Perceptions Into Service Quality Specs.

Management Perceptions of Consumer Expectations

GAP1

GAP2

GAP3

GAP4

GAP5

Source: Parasuraman et al (1990) pg. 4
5.5 Measuring the Service Quality Construct

Service quality and customer satisfaction are widely recognised as key influences in the formation of consumer purchase intentions in service environments. This section attempts to highlight the issues associated with defining and measuring service quality as distinct construct and its influence on consumer purchase intention.


Holbrook (1994) recently characterises service quality research as “wallowing in a sea of confusion.” However, review of empirical work suggests that there does appear to be relative consensus among marketing researchers that service quality and consumer satisfaction are separate (Bitner and Hubbert 1994; Oliver 1993; Patterson and Johnson 1993; Cronin and Taylor 1992; Parasuraman et al 1988)

Rust and Oliver (1994,p 2) describe the dominant model of customer satisfaction in the services literature as follows:

“In brief customer satisfaction is a summary cognitive and affective reaction to a service incident (or sometimes to a long term service relationship). Satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) results from experiencing a service quality encounter and comparing that encounter with what was expected (Oliver 1980)”
Further work by Oliver (1993) suggests that satisfaction also involves states that are not merely limited to mere satiation; and can be described as a process. Further consumer satisfaction judgments are influenced by:

- *both positive and negative affective (ie. emotional) responses;*
- *cognitive disconfirmation*

Service quality, on the other hand, has been described as a form of attitude, related to but not equivalent to satisfaction, that results from comparison of expectations with performance (Bolton and Drew 1991a, Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1988), as a comparison to excellence in service encounters by the customer (Rust and Oliver 1994; Taylor and Cronin 1994); or similarly, the consumer’s overall impression of the relative inferiority/superiority of the organisation and its services (Bitner & Hubert 1994).

The most common form of explanation of the difference between the two is that perceived service quality is a form of attitude, a long run overall evaluation, whereas satisfaction is a transaction-specific measure (Cronin & Taylor 1993; Bolton & Drew 1991; Bitner 1990). Work by Rust and Oliver (1994) adds support to the distinction between the conceptual domains of service quality and consumer satisfaction.

- *The dimensions underlying quality judgments are rather specific, whereas satisfaction can result from any dimension (whether or not it is quality related).*

- *Expectations for quality are based on ideals or perceptions of excellence whereas a large number of non-quality issues can help*
form satisfaction judgments (e.g., needs equity, perception of fairness).

- Quality perceptions do not require experience with the service or provider whereas satisfaction judgments do.

- Quality is believed to have fewer conceptual antecedents than does satisfaction.

Therefore the weight of evidence in the services literature supports the position that service quality and consumer satisfaction are best conceptualised as unique constructs that should not be treated as equivalents in models of consumer decision making. However Baker and Taylor (1994) offer the view that models which include an interaction term between service and quality and satisfaction provide greater explanation of consumer purchase intentions highlighting the importance of the nature of the relationship between consumer satisfaction and service quality. As an associated issue this view will not be researched because it falls outside the scope of the current study.

Debate arising over the current measurement hinges on consumer perception of service quality conforming to the disconfirmation paradigm (Bitner 1990; Parasuraman et al ibid.) as described by Churchill and Supreant (1982) encompassing four constructs; expectation, performance, disconformation and satisfaction. In short the debate focuses on whether expectation based norms should be included in the measurement of the service quality construct.

Wood, Cadotte & Jenkins (1983) supported by (Churchill and Suprenant 1982; Brown, Churchill, & Peter 1993; Cronin et al 1993) suggest that experience-based norms are more appropriate than expectations to serve as a
bench mark against which product experiences are compared. They argue that the use of experienced based norms eliminates the problem associated with unrealistic service expectations - impacting on individual service expectations. ie. what the consumer should expect from a given service provider given their experience with that type of service organisation.

This view is also supported by Cronin and Taylor (1992) who concluded that service quality appears to be a causal antecedent of consumer satisfaction. However a weakness of this view is that no accommodation is made for the impact of negative disconfirmation of service by the service experience, and the resulting dissatisfaction with the service provider. If the experience-based norm is one of dissatisfaction, then measuring the current experience against experienced-based norm will not reveal the on-going dissatisfaction with the service as the consumer is not being given the opportunity to express what is expected in terms of the service. There also exist a problem of exactly what constitutes an experience based norm where experience (be it satisfaction or dissatisfaction) decays into attitude as Oliver (1981) suggests.

A contrasting view by offered by Parasuraman et al (1985) who provides illustrations of instances when respondents were satisfied with a specific service but did not feel it was of high quality. Oliver (1981 ibid.) observes, "satisfaction soon decays into one's overall attitude toward purchasing products" (Parasuraman et al 1988). For example at an expensive hotel the staff may be friendly and humorous, but actual standard of service, in absolute terms could be still lower than in a budget hotel. Therefore, Parasuraman et al (ibid.) argue that the difference lies in the way disconfirmation is operationalised. They state that in measuring perceived service quality the level of comparison is what a consumer should expect, whereas in measures of satisfaction the appropriate comparison is what a consumer would expect.
This view is supported by Bitner (1990) who in an attempt to reconcile Oliver's 1980 disconfirmation of expectations paradigm with attribution theory concluded that consumer attribution's mediate disconfirmation and satisfaction judgments and consumer behavioural intentions. In short consumer satisfaction is an antecedent of service quality, therefore service quality judgments mediate consumer satisfaction judgments and consumer behavioural intentions.

Further evidence for the use of expectations in measuring the service quality construct is offered by Anderson and Fornell (1994) who have incorporated an additional dimension of level of aggregation into the conceptualisation of the relationship between service quality and consumer satisfaction suggesting that service quality affects service satisfaction at the encounter-specific level. Later, separate service encounter experiences can be aggregated into overall perceptions of quality (and satisfaction Bitner and Hubert 1994). This highlights the importance of the customer expectations at the encounter specific level which later contributes to measuring the overall perception of quality.

In summary the service literature supports the view that service quality and consumer satisfaction should be viewed as separate constructs. Some confusion still exists as to the nature of the relationship between consumer satisfaction and service quality, and the validity of including an interaction service quality/consumer satisfaction term into models of consumer decision making. Support for the use of expectations in the measurement of the service quality construct is provided by extensive studies by Parasuraman (1993) concluding that richer diagnostics are revealed when the service quality construct is operationalised as an expectation-minus- perception difference score with high reliability's and discriminant validity.
5.6 Determinants of Service Quality

While considerable empirical work has addressed the conceptual debate over the service quality and satisfaction constructs other efforts have been made to determine the factors on which consumers evaluate the service offering (Lewis and Mitchell 1990) and develop instruments (ie. scale) or procedures to measure the service quality construct (Churchill 1979; Peter 1981; Parasuraman et al 1985)

Determinants of service quality have been hypothesised by a number of writers. Sasser et al (1978) describe levels of material, facilities and personnel which affect quality; and Lethinen et al (1985) refer to physical quality, corporate quality and interactive quality. They also divide quality into process quality and output quality. Gronroos (1982,1984) offers 3 dimensions of service quality; technical quality, functional quality and corporate image.

However the most widely reported set of determinants of service quality is that of Berry et al (1985) and Parasuraman et al (1985;1988). These authors originally identified ten determinants of service quality based on a series of focus groups. Subsequent research, analysis and testing led recasting the ten determinants into five specific dimensions: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. These dimensions and their descriptions served as the basic structure of the service quality domain from which the items were derived for the SERVQUAL scale. In the following chapter the development and application of the SERVQUAL instrument is reviewed.
6.0 SERVQUAL

"Quality doesn't improve unless you measure it".  
- Reicheld

6.1 Introduction

While the importance of quality is becoming more widely recognised its conceptualisation and measurement have typically remained understudied (Zeithaml, 1988). However efforts in the services marketing area have intensified to overcome this shortcoming. In particular, a comprehensive measurement instrument, known as SERVQUAL, has been developed to measure perceived service quality.

"SERVQUAL is a concise multi-item scale with good reliability and validity that retailers can use to understand better service expectations of consumers and as a result, improve service." (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1988)

Not only has SERVQUAL been cited in the extant marketing and retailing literature (Table 6.1) but its use in industry has also been widespread (Brown, Churchill and Peter 1993). This is primarily a result of the proposition that the instrument has been designed to be applicable across a broad spectrum of services. As such, it provides a basic skeleton through its expectations/perceptions format encompassing statements for each of the five service-quality dimensions. The skeleton when necessary, can be adapted or supplemented to fit the characteristics or specific research needs of a particular organisation (Parasuraman et al 1988)
Table 6.1

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Industry Sector</th>
<th>Selected References</th>
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<td>Crompton and MacKay (1989)</td>
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<td>Carman (1990)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Placement Center, Tire Store</td>
<td>Carman (1990)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Motor Carrier companies</td>
<td>Breisinger and Lambert (1990)</td>
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<td>Accounting firm</td>
<td>Bojanic (1991)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discount and Department Stores</td>
<td>Finn and Lamb (1991)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gas Electric Utility Company</td>
<td>Babakus and Boller (1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitals</td>
<td>Babakus and Mangold (1991); Carman (1990)</td>
</tr>
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<td>Banking, Pest Control,</td>
<td>Cronin and Taylor (1992)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dry Cleaning, Fast Food</td>
<td>Cronin and Taylor (1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td>Boulding Karla, Staelin and Zeithaml (1993)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td>Joseph and Joseph (1993)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td>Brown, Churchill and Peter (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pizza Business</td>
<td>Richard and Allaway (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail Apparel Specialty Stores</td>
<td>Gagliano and Hathcote (1994)</td>
</tr>
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The approach taken by Parasuraman et al (1985; 1986; 1988) to measure the service quality construct has great intuitive appeal. SERVQUAL bridges the gap between the conceptual models and practitioners need for a tool to measure and monitor service quality on an ongoing basis (Babakus and Boller 1992). Evidence from a variety of applications as highlighted above in Table 6.2 suggests SERVQUAL is a highly reliable scale with adequate validity. This is supported by a number of researchers who have studied the conceptualisation and measurement approach used for developing the SERVQUAL scale Hedvall and Palschik (1989); Vogel et al., (1989); Breisinger and Lambert (1990); Carman (1990); Finn and Lamb (1991); and Babakus and Boller (1992)
6.2 SERVQUAL - the Research Instrument

The SERVQUAL scale represents one of the major outcomes of the programmatic research initiated by Parasuraman et al (1986; 1988). Figure 6.2 illustrates the summary of steps employed in developing the SERVQUAL scale. The evolution of the SERVQUAL instrument began with a series of in-depth interviews with executives from nationally recognize service firms in four selected service categories that varied in the categorisation of services (Lovelock 1983). The four services chosen included appliance repair and maintenance, long distance telephone, retail banking, and credit cards. Three consumer focus groups in each of these categories were conducted in conjunction with the executive interviews.

The interviews and focus groups led SERVQUAL's developers to the important conclusion that, regardless of the type of service being considered, the criteria used by the consumers in evaluating perceived service quality are very similar. As discussed in Section 5.6 exploratory research by Parasuraman et al., (1985) revealed that the criteria used by consumers in assessing service quality fit 10 potentially overlapping dimensions. These original 10-dimensional formulation were later reduced through a scale purification procedure in accordance with Churchill's (1979) recommendation.

The final outcome consists of a measure that defines service quality as a second order construct with 5 interrelated dimensions (three original and two combined dimensions) with the following labels and concise definitions for the dimensions:
• Tangibles: Physical facilities, equipment, and appearance of personnel

• Reliability: Ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately

• Responsiveness: Willingness to help customers and provide prompt service

• Assurance: Knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to inspire trust and confidence

• Empathy: Caring, individualised attention the firm provides its customers

The last two dimensions contain items representing seven original dimensions - communication, credibility, security, competence, courtesy, understanding/knowing customers and access - that did not remain distinct after the first two stages of scale purification. (Parasuraman et al. 1986; 1988)

In its finalised form (see Parasuraman et al 1988) SERVQUAL contains 22 pairs of Likert-type items. Half of these items are intended to measure the consumers expected levels of service for a particular service organisation (expectations). The other 22 matching items are designed to measure the perceived level of service provided by a particular organisation (perceptions). Each of the 5 dimensions has between four and six statement sets (items) associated with it. The intent of the statements is to provide a quantifiable score for components of the dimension; this score can then be
averaged to provide an overall score for the dimension. The items are presented in a 7-point response format, with anchors "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree." The actual measurement of service quality is achieved by calculating the difference scores between corresponding items (i.e., perceptions minus expectations).

Figure 6.2 Summary of Steps Employed in Developing the Service Quality Scale

Step 1: Definition of service quality as the discrepancy between consumer perceptions of services offered by a particular firm and marketing expectations about receiving such services.

Step 2: Identification of 10 dimensions making up the content of the service quality construct.

Step 3: Computation of 87 items representing the 10 dimensions.

Step 4: Collection of opinions and perceptions data from a sample of 200 respondents, each of whom was & Customer service of one of the following 11 service settings: Banking, travel and transportation services, telecommunications, professional services, insurance, retail stores, and food service.

Step 5: Scale purification through following criteria.

- Computation of coefficients alpha and item-to-total correlations for each dimension.
- Dimension of items whose item-to-total correlations were low and whose variances were extreme.
- Elimination of items and retesting of dimensions where necessary.

Step 6: Identification of 34 items representing 5 dimensions.

Step 7: Correlation of expectations and perceptions data using the 34 item construct from two independent samples of 200 respondents (each sample consisted current or recent customers of a nationally known firm in one of the following four service settings: Banking, travel and transportation services, telecommunications, and professional services).

Step 8: Evaluation of each item's contribution to the 34 item scale by using the same negative sequence as in Step 5 on each of the two data sets.

Step 9: Identification of a more parsimonious 22 item scale (SERVQUAL) representing five dimensions.

Step 10: Evaluation of SERVQUAL's reliability and factor structure and retesting of the sample data collected in Step 10 performing five of the 22 items to verify the scale's internal consistency and dimensionality.

Step 11: Assessment of SERVQUAL's validity.

Source: Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) pg. 14
In the conceptual model developed by these researchers (Parasuraman et al., 1985; 1986) service quality is the key outcome variable. The construct of quality as conceptualised in the service literature and measured by SERVQUAL, involves a distinction between perceived quality and objective quality (Gabbot and Hogg 1994). Perceived quality is defined as the consumers judgment about an entity's overall excellence or superiority (Zeithaml 1987). As discussed in Section 5.5 perceived quality is defined as a form of attitude related but not equivalent to satisfaction, and results in the comparison of expectations and perceptions of performance.

Alternatively objective quality refers to the technical superiority or excellence of a product against measurable and verifiable standards. Garvin (1983) describes this as evaluation based upon amounts of specific attributes or ingredients, for example, weight, colour or size. This implies that quality is defined solely in terms of the consumers perception which is a much more use-orientated approach to evaluation and is closer to the definition of service quality proposed by Zeithaml (1990) as meeting or exceeding customer expectations. Determining satisfaction or dissatisfaction is therefore on the basis of a comparison between perceived quality and expected quality of the service experience (Gabbot and Hogg 1994).

Based on the distinction between objective quality and perceived quality Parasuraman et al (1991) suggest that there is a fundamental expectation of a service; which is, that it provides what it promises, i.e. Airlines get passengers safely from destination X to destination Y and restaurants produce good meals. This fundamental expectation forms the earlier described reliability dimension of service Parasuraman et al (1991). Generally speaking this basic expectation relates to the more tangible
elements of a product and as such it can be measured by the consumer in a reasonably objective manner.

The other 4 dimensions Tangibles, Responsiveness, Assurance, Empathy which make up the SERVQUAL instrument are termed the process dimensions and are usually evaluated as the service is delivered. Further research Parasuraman et al (1991) suggests that although reliability (the what) is important in meeting customer expectations the process dimensions (the how) are the most important in exceeding customer expectations (see Section 7.2 for further discussion). The “how” dimensions are invariably associated with the individual service provider (Gabbot and Hogg 1994).

6.3 SERVQUAL - Applied to Tourism

Review of the extant literature on the reveals that while the SERVQUAL instrument has received considerable attention from researchers in general service marketing the attention from researchers in travel and tourism has been lacking.

Early work by Fick and Ritchie (1991) suggested that there has been little tourism related replication of the initial work, no extension of the scale to services of interest to tourism industry, nor any refinement of the instrument based on its application to the field of tourism. In their study they concluded that the SERVQUAL approach to measuring perceived service quality is useful but expressed a number of concerns regarding the interpretation of results from its present formulation.

Extended literature review identified further exploratory work by Farouk and Ryan (1991) who also applied the SERVQUAL instrument in the
hospitality industry and identified 5 dimensions, however these differed from the original SERVQUAL model. Both the aforementioned studies support the use of SERVQUAL to measure perceived service quality in the tourism industry however concerned has been noted with regard to

- Farouk and Ryan (1991) the dimensionality of the scale.
- Fick and Ritchie (1991) effects of negatively wording scale items;
- inability of a seven point Likert scale to distinguish subtle differences in expectations and perceptions;
- problems associated with the use of difference scores to calculate a construct;
- validity of the service quality construct.

Review of New Zealand literature supports earlier comments by Fick and Ritchie (ibid) that little attention has been given to replicating the work in the travel and tourism industry. The need for further work is highlighted by the New Zealand Tourism Board’s (NZTB) 1992/93 International Visitor Survey. A key finding from this study found that 23%, approximately 200,000 of all international visitors left New Zealand without purchasing an item they had wanted to buy (Figure 6.3)
Reasons given for non purchase behaviour included:

- Too expensive
- Not available
- No room
- Lack of Time
- Limited range
- Other
- Poor Quality
- Inadequate Hours
- Poor Service
- Inadequate Facilities

Although interpretation of NZTB survey data suggests "prima facie" that poor service quality only accounts for less than 1.0% of non purchase behaviour (see Figure 6.3.1) closer examination of the survey methodology suggests the existence of a different service quality construct which does not conceptualise the dimensions of perceived service quality as proposed by Parasuraman et al (1985; 1988). An example is expressed in the NZTB survey data analysis through the calculation of the "poor service" reason for non purchase behaviour. It is assumed that this undefined dimension is related and or similar to one of the four process dimensions of service quality as described earlier. Secondly the reasons for non purchase behaviour such as "inadequate hours" and "inadequate facilities" are also attributes of the tangibles and empathy dimensions as described earlier.
A weakness of this approach is based on the anecdotal evidence that "reasons for non purchase" as listed in the NZTB survey are separate and distinct constructs from perceived service quality. Interpretation of results based on this conceptualisation may be misleading concluding that poor service is an insignificant variable, and therefore will receive inproportionate academic and managerial attention. Compounding this issue is the economic effect of total unrealised revenue from domestic tourism (Adams 1994), based on an anecdotal assumption that there is a significant correlation between international and domestic visitor purchase behaviour, which makes up the other 72% of the all visitor nights (NZTB Visitor Survey 1992/93).

Further support for the application of SERVQUAL is reflected by the lack of visitor expectation measures to enhance the diagnostic value of the perception based measures of the NZTB (1994) survey data. ie. For example as price (expensiveness) was identified as the primary reason for lack of purchase behaviour; what is the visitor expectation of price?
What is the difference between the expectation and the perception of price? Similar questions may be posed for the other reasons identified contributing to lack of purchase highlighting the need for an instrument that is reliable yet provides more accurate diagnostics for improving service quality (Parasuraman et al., 1993) through the use of difference scores.

While the New Zealand tourism industry acknowledges the need to address quality issues its reaction has been to focus on developing operational initiatives such as Brand New Zealand, KiwiHost, the New Zealand Tourism Awards, the development of the Visitor Information Network, and the most recent Qualmark (New Zealand Tourism Convention 1994). All of these initiatives while aiming to encouraging operators in all sectors to lift their standards and offer high quality, consistency and value for money are limited in their effectiveness as measures of service quality due to a number of conceptual weaknesses:

- **Industry based standards vs. customer based standards**

- **Industry awarded standards vs. Customer awarded standards**

- **Bias toward measuring reliability dimension of service quality vs. process dimensions**

- **Lack of visitor expectation measures**

In summary the literature suggests that while quality initiatives are being launched within the New Zealand tourism industry little progress has been made in developing a collective body of knowledge on which to base a
systematic upgrading of service quality across the industry. International exploratory work has attempted to enhance our understanding of the fundamental nature of service quality in travel and tourism and how it can be measured while New Zealand specific research into SERVQUAL’s applicability to selected travel and tourism services has remains unexplored.

6.4 SERVQUAL - Limitations of the Instrument

Despite its popularity, several analysts suggest that the measure has serious shortcomings that limit its usefulness, (Brown Churchill and Peter 1993). Table 6.4 provides a summary of purported limitations of the instrument and selected references citing those limitations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggested Limitations of SERVQUAL</th>
<th>Selected References</th>
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<tr>
<td>Dimensionality</td>
<td>Carman (1990)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dimensionality</td>
<td>Finn and Lamb (1991)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dimensionality</td>
<td>Farouk and Ryan (1991)</td>
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<td>Dimensionality</td>
<td>Cronin and Taylor (1992)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dimensionality</td>
<td>Babakus and Boller (1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Difference Scores/reliability and validity</td>
<td>Babakus and Mangold (1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need to measure expectations</td>
<td>Babakus and Mangold (1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation and Operationalization of Expectations</td>
<td>Cronin and Taylor (1992; 1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantics - Effects of Mixed Item Wording</td>
<td>Teas (1993;1994)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Parasuraman et al (1994)</td>
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The major issues emerging from the ongoing debate include:

**Dimensionality**

The soundness of the five-dimensional framework originally proposed for the SERVQUAL items (1988) has been discussed and evaluated extensively (Brown et al 1993; Parasuraman et al 1991; Babakus and Boller 1992; Farouk and Ryan 1991; Finn and Lamb 1991; Bresinger and Lambert 1990; Carman 1990). A number of researchers have been unable to replicate the SERVQUAL dimensionality: Babakus and Mangold (1989) identified a unidimensional solution; Babakus and Boller (1992) identified a 2 factor solution; Parasuraman et al (1994) identified a 3 factor solution; Cronin and Taylor (1992) identified a unidimensional solution; and Brown et al (1993) identified a unidimensional solution.

These disappointing results raise serious questions about the correspondence between SERVQUAL and the theory underlying it i.e. construct validity (Brown et al 1993). General debate still exists over the considerable interdimensional overlap, especially among responsiveness, assurance, and empathy. Parasuraman et al (1991; 1994) speculate about possible reasons for similar overlaps observed in earlier studies offering possible directions for future research on this issue.

**Empirical vs. Diagnostic value of Expectations in Service Quality Measurement**

Parasuraman et al (1993) note that the contribution of expectation component in the SERVQUAL can restrict the variance of the difference scores at the higher levels of service quality i.e. when expectation means are high and standard deviations are low. However in support of including expectation ratings in the SERVQUAL scale Parasuraman et al (ibid) note
that seriousness and relevance of the above problem depends on how the difference scores are used in multivariate analysis. ie. variance restriction only becomes problematic when the difference score is the dependent variable. Further, application of techniques such as generalised least squares regression and variable transformations can help to eliminate these problems (Brown et al 1993).

Secondly, Parasuraman et al (ibid) conclude that the greater diagnostic value of measuring expectations outweighs the inability to explain as much variance as a perceptions-only measure. This view is supported by (Perreault 1992; Parasuraman et al 1994) who advocate the need for explicitly incorporating practical criteria such as diagnostic value into the traditional scale-assessment paradigm that is dominated by psychometric criteria.

Findings from Parasuraman et al (1991) also suggest that perceptions-only ratings may not lead to the same (or correct) practical implications as the perceptions - expectations difference scores. Advantages of the using the expectation ratings include: the ability to evaluate the importance of each the five dimensions and prioritise attention to weaknesses; gain a better understanding of the dynamics of customer assessments over time ie. ability to assess whether scores have changed over time due to a change in expectations or perceptions or both; identify whether customers service perceptions fall within a zone of tolerance, the space between adequate service and desired service or outside the zone (Zeithaml Berry and Parasuraman 1993); and measuring both expectations and perceptions at the same time can equally serve the dual objectives of accurately diagnosing service shortfalls and explaining the variance in related variables.
Use of Difference Scores vs. Non Difference Scores

Brown et al (1993) suggest using non-difference scores vs. difference scores produces higher reliability, stronger discriminant validity and nomological validity, normal distribution of SERVQUAL scores, variance restriction, and increases subject efficiency due to the greater number of items requiring responses. Cronin and Taylor (1992) support this view concluding that their non-difference score measure outperformed SERVQUAL. Parasuraman et al (1994) in comparing alternative service quality measurement scales on psychometric and diagnostic grounds study concluded that difference score measures are superior diagnostically and as sound as non difference score measures except in terms of predictive power (Brown et al 1993; Parasuraman et al 1993). In addition they also highlight evidence that non difference scores have a persistent tendency to overstate customer assessments further supported by Brown et al (1993); Liljander and Strandvik (1992); Peterson and Wilson (1992)

Semantics Effects of Mixed Item Wording

Babakus and Boller (1992) note that the inclusion of items with mixed wording to reduce the potential of "yee" or "nay" saying can produce method factors (Howell et al 1988) bringing into question the factor structure and trait validity of the SERVQUAL scale. Parasuraman et al 1991 recognised this conceptual problem transforming all negatively worded items into positively worded items. These changes occurred as a result of the original study Parasuraman et al (1988) , where the negatively worded items loaded separately from the positively worded items, forming two of the five dimensions. Moreover, the expectation scores were unrealistically high when respondents were unrealistically high when respondents were asked to indicate the level of service that should be provided. (Parasuraman et al 1993)
Alternative Service Quality Measure Formats

Based on suggestions of superior validity Brown et al (1993) have questioned the respondent efficiency of the SERVQUAL format in relation the length of questionnaire with the inclusion of expectation ratings vs. perception ratings only. In response Parasuraman et al (1994) compared of 3 alternative SERVQUAL scale formats including:

- **One Column Format**: direct measure of service superiority and service adequacy in two batteries of items

- **Two Column Format**: direct measures of service superiority and service adequacy side by side

- **Three Column Format**: difference score separate ratings of desired, adequate and perceived service side by side.

The findings suggest that the in terms of predictive power alone (measured by R2 values) the perceptions-only measure (from the one and two column formats) is superior to the difference scores measures and within the three column format the direct measure is superior to the difference score measure. However in diagnostic terms the three column format is superior with less response error therefore improving scale validity. Although the three column format presents practical problems because it is more time consuming for the respondent Parasuraman et al (ibid) assert that these problems can be overcome by administering logical subsections of the questionnaire to comparable samples of customers while still achieving its full diagnostic value.
As a final point the issue of the SERVQUAL scale's universal applicability still remains debatable (Brown et al. 1993; Cronin and Taylor 1992; Finn and Lamb 1991). In response, Parasuraman et al. (1993) reassert that the SERVQUAL items represent core evaluation criteria that transcend specific companies and industries. They conclude that context-specific items can be included where necessary (guidelines are given in Parasuraman et al. 1991) and evaluated by analyzing internal consistencies and alpha coefficients (Parasuraman et al. 1994).

Notwithstanding the purported limitations of the SERVQUAL scale, Parasuraman et al. (1991; 1993; 1994) have presented counterarguments, clarifications, and additional empirical evidence to reaffirm that the collective conceptual and empirical evidence neither demonstrates clear superiority of another instrument nor warrants the abandonment of the SERVQUAL scale which is reflected in its psychometric soundness and practical value. Therefore, it is proposed that the SERVQUAL scale be applied to a selected set of Maori tourism services in an attempt to provide a limited replication and extension of the initial work by Parasuraman et al. (1988) and later work by Fick and Ritchie (1991); Farouk and Ryan (1991).
7.0 Gap Analysis

"Gaps between the manifest and the extant service system are the focus of quality control techniques".
-(Gamble and Jones 1991)

7.1 Introduction

Despite the growing interest in service marketing and specifically the evaluation of "service quality" there exists a paucity of academic work examining the tourism service encounter from a dyadic view - that is from perspectives of both the visitor and the host. From a tourism marketing perspective both parties are very important and must be considered if a more thorough understanding of service quality is to be gained.

7.2 Gap Analysis and the Extended Service Quality Model

Looking beyond single transactions that directly relate to evaluation of satisfaction Parasuraman et al (1985) developed a model of service quality representing more global judgements across multiple encounters. This model of service quality indicates that consumer quality perceptions are influenced by a series of four distinct gaps that can impeded delivery of high quality service. They are:

- **Gap 1:** the difference between actual customer expectations and management perception of customer expectations

- **Gap 2:** the difference between management perception of customer expectations and service -quality specifications
- **Gap 3:** the difference between service-quality specifications and the service actually delivered

- **Gap 4:** the difference between service delivered and what is communicated about to customers

A fifth gap, which occurs between customer expectations and perceptions, determines "perceived service quality" as defined in the model. Further empirical work (Zeithaml et al 1988) identified a reasonably exhaustive set of constructs that could affect the magnitude and direction of Gaps 1-4 resulting in an Extended Model of Service Quality (Fig 7.2), summarising the various organisational constructs affecting most gaps. To quantify consumer perceptions of service quality Parasuraman et al (1988) developed and tested the SERVQUAL instrument to measure service quality along five dimensions.

The Extended Model of Service Quality implies that the larger the gaps (Gaps 1-4) in the service organisation the larger the gap (Gap 5) between customer expectations and perceptions. (Parasuraman et al 1990)
Figure 7.2 Extended Model of Service Quality

Source Parasuraman et al (1990) pg 5
In support of this approach Brown and Swartz (1989) note "potential gaps that relate to expected and experienced service and represent both sides of the service exchange should have a significant impact on the service evaluation." In general these gaps include:

Gap A: Visitor expectations - Visitor experiences  
(Represented by Gap 5 on Fig 7.2)

Gap B: Visitor expectations - Host perception of visitor expectations  
(Represented by Gap 1 on Fig 7.2)

Gap C: Visitor experiences - Host perception of visitor experiences  
(Represented by Gaps 2,3 & 4 on Fig 7.2)

Any difference between the two attributes measurements for Gap A will result in either positive disconformation (satisfaction) or negative disconformation (dissatisfaction) or an area of indifference termed the "zone of tolerance" (Parasuraman et al 1991). From these three gaps the hypotheses presented by Brown and Swartz (1989) can be employed:

\[ H_1: \text{the level of positive visitor evaluation of the tourism service is inversely related to Gap A. i.e. The bigger the negative gap the lower the level of satisfaction} \]

\[ H_2: \text{the level of positive visitor evaluation of the tourism service is inversely related to Gap B. i.e. The bigger the negative gap the lower the level of satisfaction} \]
H3: the level of positive visitor evaluation of the tourism service is related positively to Gap. The bigger the negative gap the lower the level of satisfaction.

Gap A is hypothesised to be related to positive visitor evaluation because it measures the difference between visitor expectations and experiences, a standard approach to determining satisfaction and assessing an encounter. Gaps B and C are hypothesised to be related to positive visitor evaluation because they reflect differences between the visitor's expectations/experiences and the provider's perceptions of them.

Associated to the measurement of Gaps A and B is the differing views between service quality and customer satisfaction literature over the use of expectations as a comparison standard. Service quality researchers generally view expectations as normative standards i.e. what customers believe about what the provider should provide. The dominant view among customer satisfaction researchers is that expectations are predictive standards, i.e. what the customers feel a service provider will offer. (Woodruff et al 1991)

In an attempt to synthesise issues surrounding the measurement of expectations work by Zeithaml et al (1994) suggests a reconceptualisation of expectations which captures not only the discrepancy between perceived service and desire service levels but also the discrepancy between perceived service and adequate service, termed the “zone of tolerance.” Parasuraman et al (1991) note that zone of tolerance differs for the outcome dimension of reliability and the process dimensions of tangibles, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy.
Because customers view reliability as the "core" service and tend to have higher expectation for it, they seem least willing to relax expectations. Thus, the zone of tolerance for service is likely to be smaller, and the desired and adequate service levels are likely to be higher. Figure 7.2.1 reinforces graphically that the opportunity to for firm to exceed customer expectations is greater with the process dimension than with the outcome dimension and therefore the need to empirically examine the discrepancies.

Figure 7.2.1 Tolerance Zones for Outcome and Process Dimensions of Service

Source Parasuraman et al (1991) pg 43
7.3 Gap Analysis - a Tourism Marketing Tool

Service gaps, though possibly not entirely avoidable are measurable. Tourism marketers searching for the roots of customer dissatisfaction might begin by looking at the five critical interfaces as suggested by the extended model service quality (Parasuraman 1990)

Commenting on the tourism industry Gamble and Jones (1990) note that quality control systems are normally designed to focus on potential gaps between actual and planned service. They argue that a true service culture depends on all staff being properly trained to understand the policy service level which they must support. Furthermore, unless some form of measurement is employed, there is no means by which either the current position or the effect of management decisions can be related to planned results. Measurement implies the systematic collection of reliable data and the application of an appropriate technique. Witt and Witt (1989) suggest that within the tourism industry hospitality managers lack the foresight and ability to draw on reliable data for their service quality control techniques.

Empirical work by Fick and Ritchie (1991); Shames and Glover (1990); Lewis (1987); Nightingale (1985) suggests that Gap Analysis as a methodology is an effective and valid research tool for use in the tourism industry. Results from this respective studies highlight the existence of significant negative gaps at Gaps 2, 3 and 4 (Shames and Glover 1990); (Nightingale 1985); and Gap 5 (Fick and Ritchie 1991). Once inconsistencies have been identified, the objective of the marketing function will be to develop strategies and tactics for achieving more congruent expectations and experiences, thus increasing the likelihood of satisfaction and a positive quality evaluation. (Brown and Swartz 1989)
Compatible expectations and experiences can be achieved through two approaches. The first approach attempts to alter the host's behaviour and expectations. This implies adjusting the host's own behaviour and expectations to be consistent with the visitor's expectations. In the case of inbound tourism this issue is further exacerbated by the diverse cultural backgrounds of visitors (Collier 1994). Highlighting the need to increase knowledge on the wide array of factors visitors use to evaluating them and the quality of service they provide.

The second approach, is to alter the visitor's expectations and experiences. In the case of inbound tourism, strategies toward achieving compatibility will be influenced by the cultural diversity of the visitor market. Adoption of the former approach will have go some way to altering both the visitor expectations and experiences. Other methods of altering visitor expectation and experiences include educational and/or promotional communications and involving the visitor in the decision making process pertinent to his or her experience.

In conclusion the service gap approach to tourism marketing underscores the impact of cultural values of both host (as defined in 2.2) and visitor on service delivery. Support from the service quality literature suggests that once managers accept the premise that service quality is not the service itself but, rather, in the visitors value laden expectations and perceptions, their focus can shift from engineering the product (the outcome) to engineering the social milieu (process dimensions) surrounding the product. The former approach almost invariably results in service gaps, the latter in service on the customers' terms and ultimately, a more profitable business. (Shames and Glover 1990)
7.4 Gap Analysis: Application to Maori Tourism

Summary discussion in 7.3 note that service gaps are evident within the tourism industry. Nightingale (1985), Shames and Glover (1990) conclude further that management in many instances are not only self assured of their perceptions but also oblivious to their failings. Exploratory work by Ritter (1994) and anecdotal evidence from Matthews (1994) support the international research suggesting that similar issues and problems exist within the New Zealand Maori tourism sector.

Of the estimated 100 Maori tourism operators Ritter (ibid) suggests that less than 50% of these operations offer a "reasonable standard" of quality. Current success of those operators identified as not providing a "reasonable standard" of quality may be attributed in part to the current undersupply of ecotourism in the form of cultural and nature based activities/attractions. Griffith (1994) notes that Maori culture is the only unique feature New Zealand has, and at present there are not enough Maori tourism operators to satisfy demand. In the short term this implies that some businesses may be going concerns by default. However it is suggested the long term success of operators who offer substandard quality will become a function of how competitive the Maori tourism sector becomes as more operators enter the market and what quality levels ensure long term visitor purchase.

This potential for complacency over quality standards is further supported by Dyall (1991). In a comprehensive overview of Maori economic development, he has noted management weaknesses in Maori communally owned enterprises. These weaknesses result from insufficient understanding of business or successful management practice which has led: "inter alia", to a lack of internal controls, inability to properly assess
alternative project options and difficulties in addressing technical and business matters in an efficient and timely manner. He also states that the appointment of Maori to management positions tends to be based on seniority and lineage, not ability and expertise, and that the slowness in reacting to commercial pressures can be reinforced by a management style weighted towards seeking consensus, with seniority playing an important role.

Further, he notes that the existence of multiple objectives can impede a commercial approach on the part of Maori economic authorities because a wide variety of social and economic purposes can dilute impact in any activity, and a high priority being attached to short term employment rather than meeting market needs. This is magnified by the cultural attachment to land-based activity, and a high priority being attached to short term employment rather than a meeting market needs.

For non communally Maori owned operations Pringle and Henry (1993) note associated management issues including the recognition that cultural affiliation and familiarity with tikanga Maori influenced the degree to which the organisations incorporated Maori cultural concepts, and the extent to which Maori values influenced the central aims of the businesses. In summary the general findings of Maori economic literature balance the evidence for further industry specific research to identify and assess the magnitude of service gaps as suggested by Ritter (1994).

This view is supported by Henry (1994) noting that, "there is need for more qualitative case studies, that account for tribal, regional and other variations applicable to Maori society and culture. As a result it is proposed that a gap analysis should be applied as the appropriate research
methodology to identify and assess the existence of service gaps within the Maori tourism sector and extend upon the exploratory body of knowledge that already exists.
8.0 Research Methodology

8.1 Introduction
This section introduces the quantitative data analysis methods and techniques used in the current study to address the research objectives. Further discussion is offered highlighting the limitations of the data analysis and the subsequent interpretation of the results.

8.2 Research Objectives
A. To review the literature on the nature and elements of the New Zealand Maori tourism industry and examine issues relating to the conceptualisation and measurement of service quality.

B. To provide limited replication of the work conducted by those responsible for the development of the SERVQUAL scale.

C. To extend the application of the SERVQUAL scale to a selected set of Maori tourism services

D. To examine the performance of the SERVQUAL scale with a view to suggesting modifications or refinements which might be appropriate for the general tourism industry

8.3 Population, Sampling and Sampling Frame
A judgemental nonprobability sampling method was used based on the exploratory knowledge of the population, its elements, and the research aim to gain an insight into the current position of service quality within the
Maori tourism industry, including ventures of varying sizes and function. The value of this approach is that the findings of this study may effectively uncover any peculiar defects in the instrument before it is applied to the greater tourism industry as a benchmark. The sample was selected on a qualitative basis using four tourism ventures as recommended by the Aotearoa Maori Tourism Federation (October 1991). The selection criteria for the sample was based on a framework of eight basic management principles outlined by Peters and Waterman (1982) in their management text “In Search of Excellence”. Four operators were chosen representing various sectors of the industry including:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Operator A Accommodation</td>
<td>Accommodation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operator B Restaurant/Dining</td>
<td>Hospitality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operator C Eco/cultural tourism</td>
<td>Attractions/Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operator D Cultural performance and the arts</td>
<td>Attractions/Activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.4 Data Collection

Fieldwork to elicit visitor response was carried out by the author and various host/staff members from each venture. Random mall intercept method was used gain respondents. A total of 213 questionaries were collected comprising an aggregated sample of 170 visitor responses and 43 host responses. While most questionnaires were completed with the author “on site,” in some cases management took responsibility for completion of fieldwork (questionnaire completion by visitors and hosts). Hosts and visitors at each venture were surveyed with identical research instruments.
8.4.1 Survey Time Frame
The questionnaire was administered randomly by the author and management between November 1991 and February 1992. In cases where the fieldwork was not completed with the author "on site", senior management took responsibility for completion of the task. To overcome management apathy toward the survey completion, formal telephone and written follow-ups were used as a means to encourage effective response rates.

8.4.2 Questionnaire Design
Questionnaire design was based on replication of the instrument SERVQUAL developed by Parasuraman et al (1988) to examine the robustness of the SERVQUAL when applied to tourism services, (see Appendices for SERVQUAL Replication). Semantic modification was limited to the inclusion of the words "tourism business" instead of "business" to highlight to the respondent the type of business the questionnaire represented. A series of demographic questions were added to the preface section of the questionnaire to allow for further manipulation of data, (see Appendices)

8.4.3 Questionnaire Pretesting
The questionnaire was pretested on a random sample of visitors to the Otago Museum during May 1991. Respondents completed the questionnaire and were then individually interviewed to establish any practical problems they may have experienced. Findings suggested changing Section II of the questionnaire (Section II asks respondents to rank the 5 service dimensions) to incorporate five 7 point Likert scales in place of the original constant sums scale. Justification for not using a constant sum scale was based on
respondent difficulty in making a mental calculation, using a constant sum scale, therefore increasing the likelihood of missing values. Because the questionnaire objective of Section II is to measure the relative importance of the service dimensions as outlined by Parasuraman et al (1988) it is argued that aggregating sample Likert scale scores provides a valid alternative measure.

8.5 Data Analysis Method

Analysis of data was carried out using the SPSS-X (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) program on the Digital Vax system at the University of Otago. This package was used to ensure internal consistency with the SERVQUAL instrument as documented by Parasuraman et al (1988; pg 20).

8.5.1 Data Analysis Techniques

Factor Analysis was employed to reduce the data into a more manageable form. This form of analysis is essentially a technique for condensing many variables into a few underlying constructs. Principal Axis factoring procedure (Harman 1967) was used and the analysis was constrained a priori to five factors to allow for comparative assessment with the SERVQUAL instrument (Parasuraman et al 1988). The Oblimin (oblique) rotation method was used to allow for intercorrelation of factors (Henderson 1987). Parasuraman et al (1985) explain the appropriateness of using this factor rotation method due to a "degree of overlap among the conceptual dimensions" of the SERVQUAL instrument. The Cronbach Alpha reliability test was used to test for internal consistency for the factor solution within each dimension suggested by SERVQUAL results and for the instrument reliability in its entirety. SPSS-X related t tests were used to
compare expectation and perception score means to facilitate the service quality Gap Analysis as discussed (ibid).

8.6 Methodological Research Limitations

The methodology chosen imposed certain limitations which should be recognised:

**Respondents** - The instrument and methodology used highlighted a number of respondent problems and research concerns. First, the instruments written form created a bias in the visitor sample toward those that could understand English as reflected by the low proportion of Non-English speaking respondents. Secondly, because the instrument required a ten to fifteen minute commitment some visitors who were on tight time schedules were reluctant to participate in the survey and/or consequently left a significant number of questions unanswered.

**Response Rate** - The sampling objective was to survey 60 visitors and a minimum of 40% of all staff from each venture. In cases where fieldwork was not supervised by the author management apathy for research objectives resulted in lower visitor and staff responses. Individual and aggregated response rates are listed below in Table 8.6.

**Questionnaire Analysis** - The questionnaire was designed to investigate a wide range of factors concerning service quality of Maori tourism operators. There is clearly significant potential for in-depth analysis of these variables, however it would be outside the parameters of this present study to consider all the possible iterations. The potential for further analysis of a more prescriptive nature is however recognised and noted accordingly.
Table 8.6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Visitor response rate %</th>
<th>Host response rate %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Operator A (Accommodation)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>50*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operator B (Restaurant/Dining)</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>100*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operator C (Eco/cultural tourism)</td>
<td>83*</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operator D (Cultural performance /Arts)</td>
<td>86*</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Aggregate Sample</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>57.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
- Fieldwork supervised indicated by *
- Individual Operator samples \( n = 60 \)
- Individual Host samples \( n : A = 8, B = 10, C = 30, D = 40 \)
- Above response rates reflect useable cases
Missing values - Analysis of the Data Frequencies from survey questionnaires revealed a problematic pattern of uncompleted survey questionnaires and questions as highlighted in the following Table 8.6.2.

Table 8.6.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total Valid Cases</th>
<th>Missing Values/Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>1 case missing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations scores</td>
<td>203 - 209</td>
<td>4.6 - 7.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception scores</td>
<td>176 - 204</td>
<td>12.0 - 38.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&lt; 10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pattern that emerged suggested that respondent attention to completing the questionnaire diminished substantially upon completion of the first section (Expectations scores) of the questionnaire with significant increases in the number of question unanswered and reduction of valid cases for the second section. Given the second section (Perception scores) of the questionnaire is essentially a replication of the former, the pattern of responses suggests that respondents were either confused by the similarity of questions in the second section and/or apathetic in their responses. Regardless, the resulting number of missing cases and missing values significantly affects the validity and reliability of the of the data analysis (Bryman and Cramer 1990) and therefore interpretation of results must be made with reservation. Discussion of data analysis affects follows.
Data Analysis of Small Samples - based on the above points the small size of individual Maori tourism samples, although reliable as a response rate, led to data analysis problems with the Principal Axis Factoring/Oblimin Rotation Procedure. This was highlighted by the inability of data from three individual Maori tourism operators to rotate under the SPSS-X Oblimin procedure due to the communalities at various iterations exceeding 1.0. This implied that the rotated factors were attempting to explain more than 100% of the variance in the original pre rotated variables.

This problem is a function of using oblique rotation techniques with small sample sizes because it is concerned with explaining the variation shared by the scores of participants on 3 or more variables while attempting to exclude all specific and error variance. Harris (1985) estimates that "Heywood cases" (communalities greater than 1.0) occur about 30-40% of the time when using maximum-likelihood algorithms.

Examples of the SPSS-X System warnings experienced during analysis where rotation of factors did not occur included:

- Communalities of a some variables exceeded 1.0 terminating procedure for extraction of factors
- In some cases the correlation matrix was ill-conditioned which terminated the extraction procedure and avoided the possibility of providing invalid results.
- In some cases squared multiple correlations could not be found. This implies that initial estimates of communalities was the maximum off-diagonal element of the correlation matrix.
In some cases negative eigenvalues were found and the matrix was not positive definite. In these circumstances the SPSS-X procedure automatically tests if the pairwise deletion of missing values affects the results and replaces all negative eigenvalues with a 0. However in all cases where this occurred the factor extraction still terminated.

Factors Correlation Scores using Small Samples

Analysis and interpretation of results on aggregated and individual operators in the current study must viewed with caution due to the small sample sizes tested as expressed in the examples below. The size of $r$ and the significance level must be considered in tandem. (Bryman and Cramer 1994)

$\text{ie. average pairwise correlation of Tourism sample} = 0.48$

(Constrained A Priori to 5 factors)

$\text{number of useable cases} = 114$

- At the 0.01 level this relationship is unlikely to have arisen by chance and it is fair to suggest that a relationship of this size holds in the population

$\text{ie. average pairwise correlation of Sample D} = 0.48$

(Constrained A Priori to 5 factors)

$\text{number of useable cases} = 50$

- At the 0.01 level interpretation becomes somewhat more circumspect because the relationship is more likely to have arisen by chance within the population.
9.0 Primary Research Results

9.1 Introduction
The present study was undertaken to examine the issue of service quality measurement in tourism through the application of the SERVQUAL instrument to a range of tourism related services. Specifically the instrument was applied to four operations involving three tourism industry segments; accommodation, hospitality, and attractions. This application was designed to provide a limited replication of the initial research on which the present research is based.

9.2 Factor Analysis
The following factor correlation matrix, Table 9.2, relates to the factor loading (aggregated sample) achieved in the survey of Maori tourism operators compared with loadings achieved by Parasuraman et al (1988) in the development of SERVQUAL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1</th>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Factor 4</th>
<th>Factor 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>0.39977</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3</td>
<td>0.19263</td>
<td>0.09839</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 4</td>
<td>0.26141</td>
<td>0.17075</td>
<td>0.12570</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 5</td>
<td>0.44938</td>
<td>0.26543</td>
<td>0.21284</td>
<td>0.14501</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interpretation of the factor correlation matrix above suggests there is evidence of multicollinearity within the current sample ie. low - mod intercorrelation. (Cohen and Holliday 1982)

Low - moderate correlation among the five factors in the current study suggests that the generic dimensions as purported in SERVQUAL may not be replicable for Maori tourism services, average pairwise correlation calculated on the above factor correlation matrix is 0.48.

In comparison results reported by Parasuraman et al (1988) were 0.21, 0.24, 0.26 and 0.23 for the bank, credit card, repair and maintenance, and long distance telephone samples, respectively (During later SERVQUAL scale purification average pairwise correlation among the 5 factors rose to 0.35). This result supports the contention that there is only limited similarity between the manner in which the current study factors replicated the early SERVQUAL scale work. The factor correlation matrix suggests a positive relationship between factors one and two and factors one and five. The other correlations are all lower than the relationship between factors one, two and five (with the next closest relationship = 0.26543). These low correlations allow for valid interpretation of the factor loadings.

9.2.1 Factor Analysis Constrained to Five Factors

The above factor correlation matrix relates to the first statistical comparison between SERVQUAL and the current study: a comparison of the factor loadings of variables achieved in the current study on the dimensions to which they belong, (as identified by Parasuraman et al 1988, Tangibles, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance and Empathy), with those achieved by Parasuraman et al (1988) for their SERVQUAL studies.
The following table (Table 9.2.1) shows the factor loadings on the dimensions (or factors) to which the variables belong. The dimensions (or factors) shown are those conceptually outlined in Section 6.2: Tangibles, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance and Empathy. The results contained within Table 2 of Parasuraman et al (1988) show limited support for their contention that there are indeed five dimensions to service quality within the scope of the work they have undertaken.

The results in Table 9.2.1 are taken from Tables 3 and 4 of SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al 1988) and the current study. For the purposes of scale comparability and replication, aggregated sample results from the current study are presented, based on the rationale that a greater sample size provides better statistical validity for interpretation of the results (Bryman and Cramer 1990). Aggregated results of the current study are labelled in Table 9.2.1 as "TOURISM".

Further validation for the aggregation of the results comes from the exploratory work on SERVQUAL. During this research phase Parasuraman et al (1988) purposely pooled data across five different service categories in order "to develop a concise instrument that would be reliable and meaningful in assessing quality in a variety of sectors... the purpose was to produce a scale that would have general applicability". It should be noted the factors in the current study were constrained a priori to five factors and subject to oblique rotation (using the OBLIMIN procedure in SPSS-X ) to allow for intercorrelations among the dimensions and to facilitate easy interpretation (as was SERVQUAL Parasuraman et al 1988) The oblique rotation applied to the current study produced a factor loading matrix with High loadings on more than one factor. Similar results were observed during the first stage scale purification of SERVQUAL (ibid.)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>BANK</th>
<th>CCC</th>
<th>R&amp;M</th>
<th>LDT</th>
<th>SQ</th>
<th>TOURISM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>TANGIBLES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>RELIABILITY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>- (58) A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q6</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>- (48) R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>40 (60) A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q9</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>RESPONSIVENESS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>- (39) RE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q11</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q12</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ASSURANCE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>- (49) E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>- (37) E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>- (60) R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>- (39) E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EMPATHY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q21</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q22</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Key:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q1-22</th>
<th>SERVQUAL Expectation and Perception items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BANK</td>
<td>Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R &amp; M</td>
<td>Repair and Maintenance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL</td>
<td>Aggregated SERVQUAL sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOURISM</td>
<td>Aggregated Tourism Sample</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>item is loading on Responsiveness dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>item is loading on Assurance dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>item is loading on Empathy dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RE</td>
<td>item is loading on Reliability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All numbers in the Table 9.1.2 are magnitudes of the factor loadings multiplied by 100. Loadings that are 0.3 or less are omitted. Percentage of variance extracted by the five factors in Table 9.1.2 are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Variance %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BANK</td>
<td>56.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCC</td>
<td>57.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R &amp; M</td>
<td>61.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDT</td>
<td>63.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOURISM</td>
<td>44.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The factor loadings were obtained following principal axis factoring and OBLIMIN (oblique) rotation of five factor solutions. Factor loading scores contained in brackets under “TOURISM” indicate where items loaded on alternative dimensions. Details of the comparison are discussed in the following sections.
9.2.2 Discussion of Five Factor Solution

The factors outlined below are derived from the factor loading matrix (Table 9.2.1) representing the "best fit factors" that correspond with those from SERVQUAL. This allows for a comparison of the current study with SERVQUAL results to test for replication and the applicability of the (SERVQUAL) measurement instrument to the measuring of the 'service quality of Maori tourism operators.

### Tangibles Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service Items</th>
<th>SERVQUAL</th>
<th>TOURISM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sd1 ... businesses will have modern looking equipment</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd2 ... businesses will be visually appealing</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd3 ... businesses will be neat in appearance</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd4... businesses will have visually appealing promotional material</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>47 (30)A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Moderate - low replication of the tangibles dimension is evident within the current study.*

- Moderate - low factor loadings were expressed on three of the four items within the Tangibles dimension supporting the limited stability of the dimension.

Summary of key points on observation of the results:
- moderate level of factor loadings on sd1 and sd2 suggests that the relationship between these items and the tangible dimension is not as strong as that observed in the aggregated SERVQUAL scores. This may also reflect the intangibility of Maori tourism experiences reflected in the cultural predisposition of the host (see sections 2.2 - 2.2.5)
• sd4 also loads on the Assurance dimension therefore it cannot be inferred that this variable is definitely part of the tangibles dimension.

• sd3 has the Highest loading, compared with sd2 for SERVQUAL, suggesting consumers of Maori tourism services consider neatness an important item within the tangible dimension of service quality. Given the specific nature of Maori tourism operations involved in the current study, it is suggested that neatness may broadly measure consumer service quality perceptions of hygiene, safety and professionalism.

### Reliability Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service Items</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sd5... businesses will promise to do things by a certain time</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>- (58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd6... businesses will show a sincere interest in solving problems</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>- (48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd7... businesses will perform the service right the first time</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd8... businesses will provide the service at the time they promised to</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>40 (67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd9... businesses will insist on error free records</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Replication of the Reliability dimension is not conclusive within the current study.*

• High - moderate factor loadings were expressed on only two of the five items within the Reliability dimension demonstrating the limited stability of the dimension.

Summary of key points on observation of the results:

• Items sd5 and sd6 load on the Assurance and Responsiveness dimensions respectively suggesting mixed consumer attitudes toward the service quality dimensions these items represent.
Item sd7 shows a lower loading than the SERVQUAL score suggesting this variable is not as important to consumers of Maori tourism services as a measure of reliability. From a cultural activity perspective this may also be reflective of a lack of knowledge on the part the consumer as to what is the “right service”. i.e. dependant on the visitor’s knowledge of Maori culture and protocol the visitor will be limited in their ability to assess the correctness or authenticity of the service (see section 2.2.4).

Item sd8 loads on both Reliability and Assurance therefore it cannot be inferred that this variable is part of the reliability dimension.

Item sd9 shows a very High loading compared with the SERVQUAL score suggesting the importance of this variable as a measure of reliability. This result seems appropriate given that the service quality of many tourism experiences is a function of the operators’ ability to ensure error free travel and itinerary arrangements.

### Responsiveness Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service Items</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sd10 businesses will tell guests exactly when services will be performed</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>(39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd11 businesses will give prompt service</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>48(35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd12 businesses will always be willing to help guests</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd13 businesses will never be to busy to respond to guests requests</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moderate - Low replication of the Responsiveness dimension is evident within the current study.

High - moderate factor loadings were expressed on two of the four items within the Responsiveness dimension supporting the moderate stability of the dimension.
Summary of key points on observation of the results:

- **Item sd10** loads on the Reliability dimension. It is suggested that consumers of Maori tourism services may consider the "informing of visitors when services will be performed" as a variable of the Reliability dimension because visitors are generally more concerned with the ability to inform in contrast to the willingness to inform.

- **Item sd11** also loads on Reliability dimension and therefore it cannot be inferred that this variable is definitely part of the Responsiveness dimension.

- **Item sd12** has a Higher loading than SERVQUAL suggesting this variable is very important to consumers of Maori tourism services as a measure of responsiveness. This result highlights the need for visitors in a cross cultural situation to feel that the host is approachable at all times.

- **Item sd13** has a lower loading than the SERVQUAL score suggesting this variable is not as important to consumers of Maori tourism services as a measure of Responsiveness. This result partly reflects the nature of tourism services which are very seasonal and also the large percentage of *group* cultural experiences which make the task of responding immediately to individual guest requests often impractical.
**Assurance Dimension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service Items</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sd14 ... businesses will instil confidence in their guests</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>-(49)E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd15 ... businesses will feel safe in their transactions</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>-(37)E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd16 ... businesses will be consistently courteous with guests</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>-(60)R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd17 ... businesses will have the knowledge to answer guests questions</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>-(39)E</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Replication of the Assurance dimension is not evident within the current study.*

- Factor loadings were expressed on 2 other dimensions (Empathy and Responsiveness) supporting the concern over the stability of the dimension.

Summary of key points on observation of the results:

- Item sd14, sd15 and sd17 load on the Empathy dimension. Factor loadings for each of the respective variables is comparatively low. This result suggests that the respective variables are considered by consumers of Maori tourism services to be more closely associated with “caring individualised attention” expressed by the Empathy dimension as discussed below.

- “Instilling confidence“ (sd14) as a variable of Empathy for the current study could be interpreted as a responsibility of the host; to facilitate cross cultural communication and provide evidence of cultural authenticity, safety, and health standards for individual visitors.

- “Safety in transactions“ (sd15) as a variable of Empathy for the current study can be interpreted as a desire for visitors to satisfy their social and security needs specific to cultural experiences. ie. the process and outcome of the financial transactions become part of the cultural experience.
• "Knowledge to answer guests questions" (sd17) as a variable of Empathy for the current study can be interpreted by acknowledging the broad nature of cultural experiences, the growing demand for authenticity, and that cross cultural interaction creates opportunities for limitless questions from individuals.

• Item sd16 loads on the Responsiveness dimension. This suggests that consumers of Maori tourism services consider "consistent courtesy" has an impact on the "willingness" of the businesses to provide "prompt service and help customers" which make up the Responsiveness dimension.

### Empathy Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service Items</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SD18 ... businesses will give guests individual attention</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD19... businesses will have operating hours convenient to all their guests</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD20... businesses will have employees who give guests personal attention</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD21 ... businesses will have the guests' best interest at heart</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD22 ... businesses will understand the specific needs of their guests</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*High - Moderate replication of the Empathy dimension is evident within the current study.*

• High - moderate factor loadings were expressed on four of the five items within the empathy dimension supporting the stability of the dimension.

Summary of key points on observation of the results:

• Item sd18 has a significantly lower loading than the SERVQUAL score. Given the loading of factors from the Assurance dimension to the Empathy dimension it is suggested that respondents of the current study may have interpreted this variable as a duplication of an item from the previous dimension or alternatively as a generic variable. Previous discussion also suggests that visitor desire for individual attention is closely associated with variables that reflect "caring attention" rather
than purely “individualised attention”. In support of this view the loading of factors from the Assurance dimension to the Empathy also suggests that consumers of Maori tourism experiences do not place as much emphasis purely on individual attention as general service consumers. This possibly reflects cross cultural communication styles and the nature of many tourism activities and services which have a bias toward satisfying group needs vs. individual needs.

- Item sd19 loads considerably lower than SERVQUAL suggesting this variable is not as important as a measure of Empathy for consumers of tourism services. This result partly reflects the limited supply of Maori tourism ventures (as discussed in section 7.4), low-moderate direct competition and growing visitor demand therefore visitors are forced to arrange itineraries on operating hours dictated by the host.

- Item sd21 and sd22 load similar to the SERVQUAL scores suggesting consumers of tourism services have similar empathy associations.

- Item sd22 has a High loading suggesting that the need for Maori tourism operators to understand specific needs of guests is very important within the Empathy dimension. This result can be interpreted as a desire from visitors to participate in authentic experiences, experience host - visitor cultural awareness in the process vs. host ethnocentrism, and for the host to effectively facilitate the specific needs of visitors from a variety of cultural backgrounds.
9.3 Conclusion: A Priori Constrained Factor Loadings

The pattern of factor loading scores, generated from the aggregated sample of Maori tourism operators, reflects limited replication of the 5 service dimensions as presented by Parasuraman et al (1988) in the original SERVQUAL work. The current study applies the same instrument to measuring the quality of the service interaction in the New Zealand tourism industry to a sample of Maori tourism operators.

SERVQUAL's trait validity is questioned due to moderate correlation between factors and evidence weak factor loadings expressed through omission and/or overlap of items specific on certain dimensions. The results imply that the dimensions as presented in SERVQUAL may not be as distinct when applied to the Maori tourism industry, suggesting need for the inclusion of new items, reassignment of current items and re-examination of the factor structures. Consideration of missing values and sample size provide only partial explanation for the limited replication of the results.

Given the limitations of the current study the results suggest that the relationship between generic service consumers and the consumers of Maori tourism services along the five dimensions reported by Parasuraman et al (ibid.) is limited and therefore measurement of service quality using SERVQUAL warrants further investigation.
Table 9.4 Permutations of Factor Loading Matrices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BANK</th>
<th>CCC</th>
<th>R&amp;M</th>
<th>LDT</th>
<th>SERVQUAL</th>
<th>TOURISM Pairwise</th>
<th>TOURISM Meansub</th>
<th>SAMPLE(C) Pairwise</th>
<th>SAMPLE(C) Meansub</th>
<th>SAMPLE(B) Meansub</th>
<th>SAMPLE(D) Meansub</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>45</td>
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<td>Q2</td>
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<td>70</td>
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<td></td>
<td>45</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITERATION</th>
<th>VAR %</th>
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<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>57.5%</td>
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<td>63.2%</td>
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<td>44.4%</td>
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<tr>
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<td>48.3%</td>
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<td>40.2%</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>52.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>54.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9.4 Stability of Five Factor Solution

To test the stability of the dimensions as outlined above, further permutations of factor analyses were performed, altering various parameters of the factor analysis equation including omitting constraints on the number of factors allowed and substitution of the SPSS-X procedure *Meansub* for *Pairwise* to calculate the effect of missing values within the data.

SPSS-X *Pairwise* procedure for missing values deletes missing values pairwise. Each correlation coefficient is computed using cases with complete data on the pair of variables correlated, regardless of whether the cases have missing values on any other variables on any other variables in the variables list. SPSS-X *Meansub* procedure for missing values replaces missing values with the variable mean. All cases are used in the analyses with the substitutions treated as valid observations. This applies only to the estimation of coefficients. It does not affect the calculation of factor scores.

Factor loadings illustrated in Table 9.4 above represent results from the original SERVQUAL work (including individual and aggregated samples). Individual sample results, although not illustrated spatially, should be interpreted as loading on the five respective dimensions. Aggregated SERVQUAL results, are spatially illustrated to facilitate visual comparison with results of current study samples. Additional discussion is provided on the results of the factor permutations unconstrained.
9.4.1. Discussion of Factor Analysis Permutations

Tangibles Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sd1</th>
<th>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</th>
<th>Replication of Items Loading on Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sd2</th>
<th>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</th>
<th>Replication of Items Loading on Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Moderate, evidence of item expression on alternative dimension</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sd3</th>
<th>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</th>
<th>Replication of Items Loading on Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>Moderate - Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Moderate, evidence of item expression on alternative dimension</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sd4</th>
<th>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</th>
<th>Replication of Items Loading on Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Moderate, evidence of item expression on alternative dimension</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary: Reasonably stable dimension

- Aggregated TOURISM samples demonstrate Moderate-High replication of factor loading scores and High replication of items loading on Tangibles dimension.

- Individual TOURISM samples demonstrate High replication of factor loading scores and Moderate-High replication of items loading on Tangibles dimension with some samples expressing items on alternative dimensions.
# Reliability Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( sd5 )</th>
<th>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</th>
<th>Replication of Items Loading on Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>Moderate-High</td>
<td>Evidence of item loading on 2 dimensions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>Low-Moderate</td>
<td>Low, Evidence of item loading on 2 dimensions and alternative dimensions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( sd6 )</th>
<th>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</th>
<th>Replication of Items Loading on Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Evidence of item loading on 2 dimensions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Evidence of item expression on alternative dimension</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( sd7 )</th>
<th>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</th>
<th>Replication of Items Loading on Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>Low-Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate evidence of item expression on alternative dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Evidence of item expression on alternative dimension</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( sd8 )</th>
<th>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</th>
<th>Replication of Items Loading on Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>Low-Moderate</td>
<td>Evidence of item loading on 2 dimensions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>Moderate-High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( sd9 )</th>
<th>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</th>
<th>Replication of Items Loading on Dimension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Moderate evidence of item expression on alternative dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Moderate, Evidence of item expression on alternative dimension</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary: Very unstable dimension with items loading on several dimensions.
- Aggregated TOURISM samples demonstrate Moderate-High replication of factor loading scores. Low replication of items loading on Reliability dimension is due to items being expressed on alternative and or alternative dimensions.
• Individual TOURISM samples demonstrate High replication of factor loading scores on only two items. Low replication of items loading on Reliability dimension is evident with some samples expressing items on alternative and or additional dimensions.
### Responsiveness Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</th>
<th>Replication of Items Loading on Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| sd10 | SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM    
Aggregated Samples | Moderate | Evidence of item expression on alternative dimension |
|      | SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM    
Individual Samples | High | Low, Evidence of item loading on 2 dimensions and alternative dimensions |
| sd11 | Replication of Factor Loading Scores | Replication of Items Loading on Factor |
|      | SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM    
Aggregated Samples | Low-Moderate | Evidence of item loading on 2 dimensions |
|      | SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM    
Individual Samples | High | Evidence of item loading on 2 dimensions and alternative dimensions |
| sd12 | Replication of Factor Loading Scores | Replication of Items Loading on Factor |
|      | SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM    
Aggregated Samples | High | High |
|      | SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM    
Individual Samples | High | Low, Evidence of item loading on 2 dimensions and alternative dimensions |
| sd13 | Replication of Factor Loading Scores | Replication of Items Loading on Factor |
|      | SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM    
Aggregated Samples | Moderate | High |
|      | SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM    
Individual Samples | High | Low, Evidence of item loading on 2 dimensions and alternative dimensions |

**Summary:** Items sd11-sd13 are very stable but item sd10 tends to load on the Reliability dimension.

- Aggregated TOURISM samples demonstrate High replication of factor loading scores and High replication of items loading on only 2 items of Responsiveness dimension. Items sd10 and sd11 are expressed on alternative and 2 dimensions respectively.
- Individual TOURISM samples demonstrate Moderate - High replication of factor loading scores and Low replication of items loading on Responsiveness dimension with some samples expressing items on alternative and or 2 dimensions.

### Assurance Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</th>
<th>Replication of Items Loading on Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sd14</td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>Moderate-High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd15</td>
<td>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</td>
<td>Replication of Items Loading on Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>Low-Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd16</td>
<td>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</td>
<td>Replication of Items Loading on Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>Low-Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd17</td>
<td>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</td>
<td>Replication of Items Loading on Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>Moderate-High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM Individual Samples</td>
<td>Low-High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary: Items load heavily on Empathy dimension

- Aggregated TOURISM samples demonstrate Moderate-High replication of factor loading scores and Low replication of items loading on Assurance dimension with all samples expressing items on alternative and or additional dimensions.
• Individual TOURISM samples demonstrate low-moderate replication of factor loading scores and Low replication of items loading on Assurance dimension with all samples expressing items on alternative and or additional dimensions.

Empathy Dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Replication of Factor Loading Scores</th>
<th>Replication of Items Loading on Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sd18</td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM</td>
<td>Low-Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual Samples</td>
<td>Low, Evidence of item loading on 2 dimensions and alternative dimensions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd19</td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM</td>
<td>Low-Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM</td>
<td>Low-Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual Samples</td>
<td>High, Evidence of item loading on 2 dimensions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd20</td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual Samples</td>
<td>Low, Evidence of item loading on 2 dimensions and alternative dimensions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd21</td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual Samples</td>
<td>Low, Evidence of item expression on alternative dimension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd22</td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aggregated Samples</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SERVQUAL vs. TOURISM</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Individual Samples</td>
<td>High, Evidence of item expression on alternative dimension</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summary: Evidence of stability but includes variables from Assurance Dimension

• Aggregated TOURISM samples demonstrate High replication of factor loading scores for only three items (sd20-sd22) and High replication of items loading on Empathy dimension.

• Individual TOURISM samples demonstrate High replication of factor loading scores for four out of five items and Moderate replication of items loading on Empathy dimension with some samples expressing items on alternative and or additional dimensions.

9.4.2. Conclusion: Factor Solution Stability

The results reflect low to moderate replication between responses from Maori tourism consumers in this study and service consumers results outlined by Parasuraman et al (1988).

Of the five dimensions found in SERVQUAL, only the Tangibles dimension appeared to replicate in a conclusive manner. Two other dimensions (Empathy and Responsiveness) provided limited evidence of replication but demonstrated instability at individual operator sample level as a result of items loading on alternative and additional dimensions respectively. The remaining two dimensions (Reliability and Assurance) appeared very unstable due to items loading on alternative dimensions.

Analyses of permutations on the individual operator samples highlights significantly less replication than the aggregated results however the results of the former permutations must be interpreted with reservation due to the problems associated with small sample sizes and the application of oblique rotation procedures. Permutations using the data from the individual
operators within the sample provided very limited replication of results applying identical extraction procedures as used to develop SERVQUAL. In all but one case extraction of 5 factors was terminated.

The disappointing results are further supported by Aggregate TOURISM samples moderate to low replication of variance extraction for the five factors ranging from 44.4 - 40.2 % compared with 63.2% (SERVQUAL). The Individual TOURISM samples reflect similar moderate replication of variance extraction for the five factors ranging from 48.3 - 54.1 % compared with 56.0 - 61.6 % (SERVQUAL)

Reasons for the low level of replication from the data of the individual operators are discussed within the Methodological Limitations; (Section 8.6) and supported by the system warnings received while applying SPSS-X Principle Axis Factoring Procedure to the individual operator samples. This suggests that while some items in the current study loaded heavily to the dimensions as outlined in SERVQUAL the trait validity of the five factor solution as a generic measure of service quality is questionable supporting concerns of previous empirical studies (Brown et al 1993)

**Analysis of unconstrained permutations**

Permutations omitting constraints on the numbers of factors allowed revealed a 22 item, seven factor solution with low- moderate reliability and validity as highlighted below in Table 9.4.2 As discussed above permutations using the data from the individual operators within the sample provided very limited replication of results applying identical extraction procedures as used to develop SERVQUAL. In all but one case extraction of 7 factors was terminated.
Initial development work on SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al 1985) also revealed a seven factor solution however it must noted that this included 34 items which were later purified to a final 22 item five factor instrument. Therefore it is invalid to compare the results in terms of replication. An alternative interpretation of the results centres on comparison of the variances extracted from the respective factor solutions. This suggested that for the current study that a seven factor solution may be more robust in capturing the facets of Maori tourism service quality.

Further analysis of the seven factor permutations revealed irregular factor loading patterns and low-moderate factor loading scores. Although average pairwise correlations were within the acceptable range (0.39 - 0.34), given the limitations of interpreting data from sample sizes no conclusive evidence is available to suggest that the seven factor solution is more robust than the five factor solution offered by SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al 1985)

Table 9.4.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Missing values procedure</th>
<th>% Variance extracted (7 factor)</th>
<th>% Variance extracted (5 factor)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL</td>
<td>(34) (22)</td>
<td>Pairwise</td>
<td>61.7%</td>
<td>63.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Pairwise</td>
<td>52.3%</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Meansub</td>
<td>46.9%</td>
<td>40.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample D</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Meansub</td>
<td>64.4%</td>
<td>54.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additional notes for Table 9.4.2

Dimensionality of Tourism samples
- Tangibles, Responsiveness and Empathy dimensions moderately stable
- Assurance Dimension appears to represent 2 factors
- Reliability dimension very unstable no clear pattern evident
- Dimensionality of Sample D, unstable, difficult to establish any clear pattern
Table 9.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Items Within each Factor</th>
<th>Reliability Scores for each Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SERVQUAL</td>
<td>TRISM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangibles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>sd5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsiveness</td>
<td>sd10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assurance</td>
<td>sd14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>sd18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total/Scale Reliability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m = items</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key:
- SERVQUAL = Aggregated scores
- TOURISM = Aggregate sample scores
- Sample A = Accommodation
- Sample B = Restaurant/Dining
- Sample C = Eco tourism (Whalewatch)
- Sample D = Cultural Performance/Arts
9.5 Alpha Reliability Scores of Internal Consistency

Table 9.5 illustrates the component and total instrument alpha reliability coefficients for:

- the aggregated SERVQUAL sample,
- the aggregated Maori tourism sample (TOURISM) and
- the individual Maori tourism samples (A,B,C,D) within the current study.

Individual sample coefficient alpha scores should be interpreted with caution due to the small samples sizes (see discussion on Methodological Limitations; Section 8.6).

9.5.1 Tangibles Dimension

The Tangible dimension score of (0.60 - aggregated responses) demonstrates low-moderate replication with the reported SERVQUAL results of 0.72. This suggests that items within the dimension are not internally consistent. Analysis of factor loading scores adds further support highlighting that items sd1 and sd2 within the dimension are not as important to consumers of tourism services as compared with service consumers results outlined by Parasuraman et al (1988).

9.5.2 Reliability Dimension

The Reliability dimension score of (0.65 - aggregated responses) demonstrates low-moderate replication with the reported SERVQUAL results of 0.83. The small size of useable cases for all samples on this dimension is problematic for the interpretation of the results (see Section 8.6) and therefore should be noted with caution. Results suggests that items within the dimension are not internally consistent (reflected by the lack of clear loadings for items sd5, sd6 and sc8) suggesting respondent confusion and/or disagreement over what
these items represent and to which dimension they belong. Lack of dimensional stability is further supported by low alpha coefficients for the individual samples which vary between 0.40 and 0.65. The result for sample B (0.95) is viewed circumspectively due to statistical significance of the sample size (n=12) it is derived from.

9.5.3 Responsiveness Dimension

The Reliability dimension score of (0.69 - aggregated responses) demonstrates *low-moderate replication* with the reported SERVQUAL results of 0.82. This result tends to reflect the consistent loading of item sd10 on the Reliability dimension. Similar to the previous discussion the alpha coefficient for sample B (0.20) is viewed circumspectively due to statistical significance of the sample size it is derived from.

9.5.4 Assurance Dimension

The Reliability dimension score of (0.69 - aggregated responses) demonstrates *low-moderate replication* with the reported SERVQUAL results of 0.81. Results suggest that items within the dimension are not internally consistent, reflected by the loadings of item sd16 on the Responsiveness dimension and items sd 14 and sd15 loading on the Empathy dimension. This pattern of response appears consistent across all samples.

9.5.5 Empathy Dimension

The Reliability dimension score of (0.75 - aggregated responses) demonstrates *moderate replication* with the reported SERVQUAL results of 0.86. Analysis of factor loading patterns adds further support highlighting consistent answering patterns which suggest that this dimension may be appropriate for
measuring the ‘Empathy dimension’ of service quality but include items from the Assurance dimension.

9.5.6 Instrument Reliability
The Reliability score for the overall instrument (0.85) suggests that there is only moderate internal consistency within the responses for the instrument. This means that respondents consistently answer in similar patterns, suggesting that there is limited of understanding (or consistent misunderstanding) of the questions being asked. Allowing for limitations outlined in Section 8.6 these disappointing results support previous empirical concerns (Brown et al. 1993) over the dimensionality of SERVQUAL and the theory underlying it.

9.5.7 Conclusion Reliability Scores
Applying the general score of 0.8 as a benchmark (Bryman and Cramer 1990) the reliability scores across individual Maori tourism samples reflect moderate to low internal reliability, and notwithstanding Sample B, moderate overall instrument reliability. This result provides limited support that the SERVQUAL instrument is appropriate for measuring service quality in the current study of Maori tourism services. It is suggested that the lack of replication of results is partly a function of applying the SERVQUAL instrument in its original form therefore providing opportunity for inconsistent respondent interpretation due to the generic semantics of each item. This implies that to enhance reliability of the measure the instrument items need to be customised ie. reworded and or augmented to make them more germane to the context (Parasuraman et al. 1988) of Maori tourism services.
9.6 Conclusion: SERVQUAL’s Reliability and Validity for Maori Tourism

The above discussion of the results of the current study (notwithstanding the limitations of the study outlined in Section 8.6) provides limited evidence of replication of the results achieved using SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al 1988), a generic service quality measure.

Applied in its generic form evidence of multicollinearity and unstable factor loadings raise concerns over the dimensionality of SERVQUAL and the theory that underlies it. Disappointing internal and overall instrument reliability scores add further weight to the question of instrument trait and construct validity.

In support of the instrument’s usefulness as a reliable measure it is also possible that perceived service quality in Maori tourism is not a function of 5 dimensions as acknowledged by Parasuraman et al (1988). Defending the generic nature of five dimensional framework through comparison of applying SERVQUAL within and across service industry samples Zeithaml et al (1985, p.43) note themselves "..while it is useful to generalize about the characteristics of services and service businesses, it appears to be equally important to recognize that differences exist among various services and among the firms that market them.” and therefore warrants further investigation

Therefore further empirical research is required as discussed in the preceding sections and by Parasuraman et al (1991) using a modified instrument on the same population to facilitate more conclusive evidence of SERVQUAL’s reliability and validity as a measurement instrument of Maori tourism service quality.
10.0 The Gap Analysis

10.1 Introduction

This section discusses the perceptual gaps between expectation and perception scores for the five dimensions (Tangibles, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance and Empathy identified by Parasuraman et al 1988 in SERVQUAL) as applied in the current study.

Analysis for this section will include results from a dyadic perspective, in an attempt to interpret gaps scores from both the visitor and host perspectives. Primary discussion focuses on the fifth service gap outlined by Parasuraman et al (1990) and comparison of results achieved by Zeithaml et al (1990)

- Service Gap 5: The gap between Visitor Perception and Visitor Expectation

Analysis on additional service gaps, as described by Brown and Swartz (1989), is also offered in an attempt to fulfil the secondary objective of the current study to establish a broad “service gap profile” of Maori tourism operators and provide a frame of reference for further research. These additional gaps include:

- Service Gap A: The gap between Visitor Expectation and Host Expectation
- Service Gap B: The gap between Visitor Perception and Host Perception

10.2 Service Gap Results

The following figures summarise the results of F significance T Tests to identify the likelihood of the potential perceptual gaps in service quality arising by chance (Bryman and Cramer 1990).
In an attempt to consolidate the scope of the gap analysis, presentation and discussion centres primarily on "gap results" which are significant at or below the 5% levels of significance. Data tables (aggregated sample only) are provided to assist with the interpretation of results for "all gap scores" which are not significant at the 5% level.

Results indicated by bar graphs include both aggregated tourism and individual operators sample A, B, C, and D. Negative scores indicate perception (experience) is lower than expectation while positive scores indicate perception is higher than expectation.
10.2.1 Service Gap 5: Tangibles Dimension

Figure 10.2.1.

Summary of key points on observation of aggregated tourism results:

Items where Visitor Expectations are exceeded

- In the current study Tangibles ranks 5th: 87% rated Tangibles >5 while 33% of those respondents rated Tangibles 7. This compares with the SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al. 1988) work which also ranked Tangibles 5th however the implications of not exceeding visitor expectation still remain significant.

- sd1 - very strong evidence operators are over performing on this item. This result may reflect the images used in the promotion of Maori tourism (see section 3.4) which tend to focus on people, flora, fauna, arts and crafts. Alternatively it may reflect the predisposition of visitors toward indigenous hosts as a reflected by historical socio economic stereotypes (see sections 2.0 & 3.0)
Items where Visitor Expectations are not exceeded

- sd4 - very strong evidence operators are underperforming on this item. This result suggests operators need to allocate more resources to develop the visual appearance of promotional material to remain competitive. Given the intangible nature of many tourism services/experiences and the increasing market competition the importance of visually appealing promotional material as an influence on visitor expectation cannot be underestimated.

Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded
(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- sd2 and sd3 - operators are currently meeting visitor expectations however both items provide opportunities to become more competitive by exceeding visitor expectation. In the case of Maori tourism ventures an enormous amount of opportunity lies in the use of traditional design, arts and crafts to enhance the appearance of facilities and employees while maintaining and developing indigenous host culture.

Table 10.2.1 Aggregated Tourism Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>P-E</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd1 business has modern looking</td>
<td>5.1731</td>
<td>4.3654</td>
<td>0.8077</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>equipment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd2 facilities are visually</td>
<td>5.7500</td>
<td>5.7372</td>
<td>0.0128</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>.921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>appealing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd3 employees have neat</td>
<td>5.8258</td>
<td>5.8452</td>
<td>-0.0194</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>.872</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>appearance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd4 promotional material is</td>
<td>5.5646</td>
<td>5.9660</td>
<td>-0.4041</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>visually appealing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
The above table highlights mean difference scores (P-E) for individual items and the F level of significance. Only those scores which were significant at 5% level or below are graphically illustrated in Figure 10.2.1
Table 10.2.1A

**TANGIBLE DIMENSION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Sample A</th>
<th>Sample B</th>
<th>Sample C</th>
<th>Sample D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean Difference Score</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of key points on observation of individual sample results:

**Items where Visitor Expectations are exceeded**

- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism N = 51)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature N = 47)

sd1 - very strong evidence both operators are over performing on this item. Operator D has a very established operation and is one of the most visited Maori tourism operations in New Zealand. Operator C is the fastest growing tourism venture in New Zealand and due to the nature of the operation (ocean based) has invested a large amount of capital into the modern high tech equipment. Both operators tend to highlight fauna and flora in promotional strategies which influences the ability to exceed visitor expectation.
Items where Visitor Expectations are not exceeded

- Sample A (Accommodation N = 18)
  
  sd2 - due to small sample size this result must be viewed with caution. Given the high expectation of visitors for accommodation this result is a fair reflection of the current status of the operation. Because the operation is located in a World Heritage Park and attracts a high ratio (9:10) of international visitors the meeting and exceeding expectation of visitors is very demanding. This highlights the importance of meeting accommodation grading standards of the industry and consideration of finance requirements to develop operations and capital assets

- Sample B (Restaurant N = 35)

- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature N = 46)
  
  sd4 - strong evidence operators are under performing on this item. This result suggests operators need to allocate more resources to develop the visual appearance of promotional material to remain competitive. Operator B may benefit from the use of contemporary Maori design for use in promotional material, based on competitor research of hospitality images currently being offered.

Operator D’s result suggests that its traditional geyser and Maori maiden image may be obsolete and requires modification or replacement with a unique contemporary image. Given the intangible nature of many tourism services/experiences and the increasing market competition, the importance of visually appealing promotional material as an influence on visitor expectation cannot be underestimated.
Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded
(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)

sd1- opportunities to exceed expectations for this item will need to consider profitability impacts.

- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd2 - as previously discussed operators are currently meeting visitor expectations however in the case of Maori tourism ventures an enormous amount of opportunity lies in the use of traditional design, arts and crafts to enhance the appearance of facilities employees, maintain and developing indigenous host culture, increasing competitive advantage by exceeding visitor expectations.

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd3- as discussed above. All operators need to consider the area of Maori design and uniform development as a unique opportunity to exceed visitor expectation during the service encounter (See Section 3.3.3 and 5.3)

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)

sd4 - as above. Opportunities exist to exceed expectations through aesthetic development of promotional material and use of Maori language and icons. (see Section 3.4.3-3.4.4)
10.2.2 Service Gap 5: Reliability Dimension

Summary of key points on observation of aggregated results:

Items where Visitor Expectations are exceeded

- sd5 -sd9 no evidence of expectations being exceeded on any item. This result highlights serious concern for all operators given the importance of the Reliability as a dimension of perceived service quality. (In the current study Reliability ranks 3rd: 94% of respondents rated Reliability >5 while 50% of those rated Reliability 7. This differs from the SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al 1988) work which ranked Reliability 1st however the implications of not exceeding visitor expectation still remain significant.)
Items where Visitor Expectations are not exceeded

- sd5 - sd9 very strong evidence operators are underperforming on all items. This result suggests operators need to allocate considerable effort and resources to develop strategies and systems that enhance and facilitate all aspects of Reliability. High visitor expectation scores (94% above 5) suggests operators are limited in their ability to manage and reduce visitor expectation and therefore should focus on meeting the minimum expectation levels for each item. Examples include:
  - sd5 provide warranties and/or refunds for failure to achieve obligation
  - sd6 implement staff training for handling complaints (KiwiHost)
  - sd7 develop a zero defections production culture
  - sd8 provide information on circumstances of possible of time delays
  - sd9 invest in information technology systems

Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded

(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- sd5-sd9 no evidence of operators meeting visitor expectation. Research from literature suggests achievement of the minimum expected levels is fundamental for business survival. (Peters and Waterman 1982)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>P-E</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>sd5 keeps promises to do things on time</td>
<td>5.778</td>
<td>6.3630</td>
<td>-0.5852</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd6 sincere interest in solving problems</td>
<td>5.9274</td>
<td>6.5081</td>
<td>-0.5806</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd7 performs service right the first time</td>
<td>5.8913</td>
<td>6.2536</td>
<td>-0.3623</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd8 provides its services at time promised</td>
<td>5.8889</td>
<td>6.4074</td>
<td>-0.5185</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd9 insists on error free records</td>
<td>5.5532</td>
<td>5.9255</td>
<td>-0.3723</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>006</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
The above table highlights mean difference scores (P-E) for individual items and the F level of significance. Only those scores which were significant at 5% level or below are graphically illustrated in Figure 10.2.2
Summary of key points on observation of individual sample results:
Figure 10.2.2A

![Reliability Dimension Graph]

**Items where Visitor Expectations are exceeded**
- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd5 - sd9 no evidence of expectations being exceeded on any item. This result supports earlier discussion.

**Items where Visitor Expectations are not exceeded**
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism N = 48)

sd5 - this result reflects the constraints of weather on Operator C which is ocean based and seasonal. As discussed above mean visitor expectation scores are high (>5) which limits the ability to manage and reduce the expectation therefore incentive policies should developed to allow for the
constraints and failure to meet visitor expectation ie. Discount or refund for a prebooked sailing that is postponed or cancelled.

- Sample B (Restaurant N = 32)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism N = 45)

sd6 - this result suggests a breakdown in either management systems and/or the ability of staff to solve visitor problems. Both operators need to analyse management systems (policies and procedures) and evaluate staff training needs to meet minimum visitor expectations on problem solving.

- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature N = 36)

sd7 - this result tends to reflect the heterogeneity of cultural performance and guiding. Operator D is one of New Zealand’s most popular visitor attractions providing a wide range of performances expressing Maori arts and crafts. The challenge for the host is to develop policies to enable staff to perform consistently with high levels of integrity, and authenticity while avoiding employee burnout and subsequent turnover.

- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism N = 49)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature N = 35)

sd8 - this result suggests both operators need develop policies and procedures to meet visitor expectations on scheduled times. Examples include: information on time and its relationship to Maori cultural protocol, prior notice of the circumstances when possible time delays may occur.

- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism N = 34)

sd9 - this result suggests a problem with operations management or staff training. Given that the mean expectation score is moderate = 5 out of 7
the result suggests that the problem may be quite serious and therefore deserves further investigation.

**Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded**

(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd5 - opportunities exist to exceed visitor expectations IE. through the development of policies that empower staff to remedy problems efficiently and effectively or within a defined period (IE. 24 hour turnaround), warranties and or refunds for specific delays.

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd6 - as above. Examples include: develop policies, procedures and training on expected host behaviour.

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)

sd7- as above. Examples include: standardized staff procedures and protocol, investment in staff incentives for zero defects and performance consistency.
Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded
(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)

sd8- as above. Examples include: provide information on circumstances including why delays may occur; develop and market policies/procedures on the visitor compensation for undue delays. (ie. 1 hour film processing)

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd9 - as above. Examples include: develop and invest in quality control information technology systems that consistently provide accuracy of records, market the visitor benefits of these systems.
10.2.3 Service Gap 5: Responsiveness Dimension

Figure 10.2.3

Summary of key points on observation of aggregated results:

**Items where Visitor Expectations are exceeded**

sd10 - sd13 no evidence of expectations being exceeded on any item. This result highlights serious concern for all operators given the rank importance of the Responsiveness as a measure of perceived service quality. (In the current study Responsiveness ranks 1st 98% of respondents ranked Responsiveness >5 while 60% of those respondents ranked Responsiveness 7. This result compares with previous SERVQUAL Zeithaml et al (1990) work however the implications of not exceeding visitor expectation still remain significant.)
Items where Visitor Expectations are not exceeded
(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- sd10 - sd12 very strong evidence operators are under performing on these items. This result suggests operators need to allocate considerable effort and resources to develop strategies and systems that enhance and facilitate all aspects of Responsiveness. High visitor expectation scores (98% >5) suggests operators are limited in their ability to manage and reduce visitor expectation and therefore should focus on meeting the minimum expectation levels for each item. Examples include:
  
  sd10  Actively promote operating hours and timetables  
  sd11  Develop and implement efficient customer service procedures  
  sd12  Develop organisation culture that rewards willingness to help visitor

Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded
(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- sd13 - operators are currently meeting visitor expectations however opportunities exist to become more competitive by exceeding visitor expectations. This suggests that as visitors become more discerning the ability to respond efficiently to visitor requests will become a function of constant innovation from information technology and staffing ratios. In the case of Maori tourism human resources, underlying socio economic trends would support the increase of host to visitor ratios, greater visitor interaction and resultant host employment prospects
Table 10.2.3 Aggregated Tourism Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>P-E</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsiveness</td>
<td>sd10 employees tell you service will be performed</td>
<td>5.9701</td>
<td>6.2090</td>
<td>-0.2388</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>0.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd11 employees provide prompt service</td>
<td>6.1701</td>
<td>6.4694</td>
<td>-0.2993</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd12 employees always willing to help</td>
<td>6.2014</td>
<td>6.4653</td>
<td>-0.2639</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd13 employees always respond to requests</td>
<td>6.0000</td>
<td>6.0462</td>
<td>-0.0462</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>0.641</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
The above table highlights mean difference scores (P-E) for individual items and the F level of significance.
Only those scores which were significant at 5% level or below are graphically illustrated in Figure 10.2.3
Summary of key points on observation of individual sample results:

Figure 10.2.3A

**RESPONSIVENESS DIMENSION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>SD10</th>
<th>SD11</th>
<th>SD12</th>
<th>SD13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Items where Visitor Expectations are exceeded**
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd10 - sd12 no evidence of expectations being exceeded on any item. This result supports earlier discussion

- Sample A (Accommodation N = 15)

sd13 - this result should be interpreted with caution due to the small sample size. Findings suggest the Operator A has developed and implemented a successful communication strategy by over performing on this item.
It is suggested that the operation's high ratio (9:10) of international visitors has influenced the outcome due to the increasing levels of service quality demanded by the international 'well educated culture seeker,' (see section 3.5-3.6)

**Items where Visitor Expectations are not exceeded**

(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- **Sample C** (Eco/cultural tourism N = 49)
  
  sd10 - this result reflects a lack of effective communication methods with regard to sailing schedules. This scheduling of this operation is heavily constrained by climatic factors. As discussed above mean visitor expectation scores are high (>5) which limits the ability to manage and reduce the expectation. Therefore increased effort is required to implement a better reservation and timetable information service.

- **Sample B** (Restaurant N = 38)
- **Sample C** (Eco/cultural tourism N = 49)

  sd11 - the results for both operators suggest that problems exist with staff policies and procedures and/or staff attitudes toward visitor expectation of prompt service.

- **Sample D** (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature N = 42)

  sd12 - this result reflects problems associated with medium size organisation servicing mass audiences. Staff attitudes toward visitors becomes cynical as demands on standardised performances arise and their roles become route learned and mechanistic. Staff development training plays an important preventative role for improving host/visitor satisfaction and decreasing staff turnover.
Items where Visitor Expectation is **met** but not exceeded

(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd10 - opportunities exist to exceed visitor expectations through the training and development of staff people skills ie. knowing how to use specific questioning techniques to understand visitor information needs

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)

sd11 - as above. Examples include: develop standards and procedures based on measurable times for providing prompt service ie. Express check-in systems

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd12- as above. Examples include: develop corporate culture which rewards and recognises staff willingness to help customers, develop policies and procedures that allow staff to go "the extra mile" in providing superior levels of service quality.

- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd13- as above. Examples include: comfortable host/visitor ratios that allows greater personalisation, develop job descriptions that recognises front-line staff availability for visitors.
10.2.4 Service Gap 5: Assurance Dimension

Summary of key points on observation of aggregated results:

**Items where Visitor Expectations are exceeded**
- sd14 - sd17 no evidence of expectations being exceeded on any item. This result highlights concern for all operators given the importance of the Assurance as a dimension of perceived service quality. (In the current study Assurance ranks 2nd: 98% of respondents rated Assurance >5 while 58% of those respondents rated Assurance 7. This differs from previous SERVQUAL work (Parasuraman et al 1988; Zeithaml et al 1990) which ranked Reliability 1st, however the implications of not exceeding visitor expectation still remain significant.

**Items where Visitor Expectations are not exceeded**
- sd14 - sd7 no evidence operators are under performing on any item. This finding suggests operators have established the minimum requirements for satisfying the items relating to Assurance. The challenge remains to maintain fulfillment of expectation levels and monitor any changes. High visitor expectation scores (98% above 5) suggests operators need to constantly review the process component of delivering assurance. i.e. regular staff training to update product knowledge and qualifications.

**Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded**
(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

Findings suggest that all operators are meeting visitor expectations for all items see Table 10.4. Due to the rank importance of Assurance (2nd in the current study) the opportunity for operators to exceed expectations could provide strategic competitive advantage.
• sd14, sd16, sd17 - operators are currently meeting visitor expectations however all three items provide opportunities to become more competitive by exceeding visitor expectation. In the case of Maori tourism ventures an enormous amount of opportunity lies in the use and application of Maori cultural elements i.e. cultural protocol and oral traditions to instill confidence, application and use of manaakitanga (see section 2.0) as a means to courteous behavior, genealogy and tribal lore to express knowledge.

• sd15 - opportunities for operators to enhance trust with visitors result from reducing perceived risks. Methods include affiliating with reputable suppliers, partners, credit card companies, promoting staff qualifications (i.e. Kiwi Host), promoting Iwi Trust Board backing and or underwriters.

Table 10.2.4 Aggregated Tourism Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>P-E</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assurance</td>
<td>sd14 employees instill confidence</td>
<td>6.1644</td>
<td>6.3219</td>
<td>-0.1575</td>
<td>0.068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd15 you feel safe in your transactions</td>
<td>6.3403</td>
<td>6.4722</td>
<td>-0.1319</td>
<td>0.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd16 employees are consistently courteous</td>
<td>6.3973</td>
<td>6.2877</td>
<td>0.1096</td>
<td>0.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd17 employees have the knowledge to answer questions</td>
<td>6.2153</td>
<td>6.2431</td>
<td>-0.0278</td>
<td>0.768</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
The above table highlights mean difference scores (P-E) for individual items and the F level of significance. Only scores that are significant at 5% level or below are graphically illustrated in Figure 10.2.4
Summary of key points on observation of individual sample results:

Figure 10.2.4A

**ASSURANCE DIMENSION**

Items where Visitor Expectations are exceeded

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd14 - sd17 no evidence of expectations being exceeded on any item. This result supports earlier discussion
Items where Visitor Expectations are not exceeded

- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)

sd14. This finding is associated with the result for sd21 within the Empathy dimension. The nature of this operation requires a high level of expertise regarding the piloting of high speed ocean based vessels. Findings suggest that behaviour and style of navigating the vessels does not instill confidence in the eyes of the visitor even though all hosts are fully qualified skippers. Based on comparative transportation modes i.e. airlines, it is suggested that Operator C should re-evaluate the current policies and procedures of vessel skippers. Possible methods of instilling confidence in the visitor include actively promoting safety standards and procedures, promoting operation safety statistics, promoting host qualifications, host availability to answer questions that alleviate visitor anxiety, offering different types of tours (adventure vs. cruise).

Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded

(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd14 - opportunities exist to exceed visitor expectations i.e. clearly explain expected cultural protocol and behavior, provide information on safety procedures, develop expertise on food and hygiene, encourage staff to become knowledge experts, develop knowledge of culturally accepted body language.

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)
sd15 - as above examples include: invest in information technology, affiliate
business with reputable credit card companies, employ qualified accountants,
maintain consistency with price rates, offer payment options of deposit balance
on departure.

**Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded**
(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd16 - as above examples include: Encourage national greetings and
salutations, offer menus in visitor national language, enquire about visitor
comfort levels, provide guided tours.

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd17 - as above examples include: hire trained staff, establish on site learning
center and resource areas, register with national and international industry
bodies, establish staff development policies and ongoing training
10.2.5: Empathy Dimension

Figure 10.2.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Difference Score</th>
<th>SD18</th>
<th>SD19</th>
<th>SD20</th>
<th>SD21</th>
<th>SD22</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-0.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>-0.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of key points on observation of aggregated results:

**Items where Visitor Expectations are exceeded**

- sd18 -sd22 no evidence of expectations being exceeded on any item. In the current study Empathy ranks 4th: 90.6% of respondents rated Empathy >5 while 42% of those respondents rated Empathy 7. This compares with the results from previous SERVQUAL work (Parasuraman et al 1988; Zethaml et al 1990) which also ranked Empathy 4th suggesting the implications of not exceeding visitor expectation on this dimension still remain significant.
Items where Visitor Expectations are not exceeded

- sd21  very strong evidence operators are under performing on this item. This result suggests operators have a bias toward product orientation in satisfying visitor needs. Increasing market competition reflected by high visitor expectation scores (90% above 5) suggests operators are limited in their ability to manage and reduce visitor expectation and therefore should focus on meeting the minimum expectation levels for this item. Critical to this issue is brand image and how it positions the core values and personality of the business in the mind of the visitor. The correlation of results between sd4 and sd18 implies that considerable attention should be offered toward developing Maori tourism brands with premium positioning in the global marketplace, (see section 3.4.4). Examples of this process include; developing a proactive visitor feedback system, investing in market research and product development, creating promotion campaigns that reflects caring values. Matching staff performance with the brand image then becomes a function of common and shared core values and the reinforcement of the values through staff training and performance appraisals.

Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded

(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- sd18  - opportunities exist for operators to exceed expectations on this item. Examples include: remembering and using names, personalized menus, repeat/frequent user discounts, specialized tours.

- sd19  - opportunities exist for operators to exceed expectations on this item. Examples include: late night hours, early morning hours, weekend hours, public holiday hours, shoulder seasons, hours for group bookings.
Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded
(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- sd20 - opportunities exist for operators to exceed expectations on this item. Examples include: employ staff based on people skills, develop policies and procedures that give flexibility for staff to provide personalized service, empower front-line staff.

- sd22 - opportunities exist for operators to exceed expectations on this item. Examples include; employ staff who can speak other languages, employ staff who are culturally aware, promote equal employment opportunities, become more aware of the needs of minority groups i.e. disabled visitors, develop staff communication skills i.e. ask visitors open ended questions, encourage staff to have good product knowledge.

Table 10.2.5 Aggregated Tourism Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>P E</th>
<th>P-E</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>sd18 businesses gives individual attention</td>
<td>5.9116</td>
<td>5.9592</td>
<td>-0.0476</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd19 convenient operating hours</td>
<td>5.9143</td>
<td>5.8857</td>
<td>0.0286</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd20 employees give personal attention</td>
<td>5.9433</td>
<td>5.9433</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd21 business has your best interest at heart</td>
<td>5.9638</td>
<td>6.2899</td>
<td>-0.3261</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sd22 business understand individual needs</td>
<td>5.7879</td>
<td>5.9394</td>
<td>-0.1515</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
The above table highlights mean difference scores (P-E) for individual items and the F level of significance. Only those scores which were significant at 5% level or below are graphically illustrated in Figure 10.2.5.
Figure 10.2.5

Summary of key points on observation of individual sample results:

**Items where Visitor Expectations are exceeded**

- **Sample A** (Accommodation N = 17)

  sd18 - this result should be interpreted with caution due to the small sample size. This finding is in part a function of the small size of the operation, the nature of the operation, host/visitor ratio, and management style of the operation which is to make visitors feel like they are at home and limit formality of cultural protocol. Given the operations high ratio of international visitors (90%) findings suggest that staff have developed a superior level of cultural awareness in terms individual attention or convinced visitors to adopt an international standard of service. As a model of service delivery process this operation warrants further observation.

  sd19 - sd22 no evidence of expectations being exceeded on any item. This result supports earlier discussion.
Items where Visitor Expectations are not exceeded

- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism N = 48)

sd21 - this result partly reflects the physical discomfort that can be experienced while attempting to view wildlife in ocean going vessels. Research suggests that staff attitudes toward visitor discomfort was patronizing and out of touch with the interests of the visitor. In fairness to the staff performance, the physical discomfort experienced is primarily attributable to the type of vessel used on the operation which is designed for speed and safety rather than comfort, however the decision over speed vs. comfort is entirely staff driven. Given mean visitor expectation scores are high (> 5) findings suggests a reevaluation of speed policies.

- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism N = 47)

sd22 - This result can be associated to the findings and discussion on item sd21. It is suggested specific attention should made to evaluating visitor fitness levels and whether they have any history of back or hip injury which could be aggravated during the high speed sections of the tour or adverse sea and weather conditions.

Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded

(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd18 - opportunities exist to exceed visitor expectations i.e. private rooms, private functions, recognition of special anniversary/birthday, personal greeting from host (Maori welcome: Powhiri), private tours.
Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded
(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd19 - as above. Examples include: late night bookings, breakfast and lunch time hours, twilight evening hours, 24 hour 7 days a week.

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample C (Eco/cultural tourism)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd20- as above. Examples include: Develop the concept of manaakitanga (see section 2.2), Use of local elders (kaumatua and kuia) to provide information, personal waiter or waitress for the meal, availability of staff attendants, involving visitors in the performance.

Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded
(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- Sample A (Accommodation)
- Sample B (Restaurant)
- Sample D (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd21- as above. Examples include: Marae stays with communal and private sleeping areas, low fat and or vegetarian menus, supporting written information in visitor national language assisted by interpreter representing either host or visitor.
Items where Visitor Expectation is met but not exceeded

(no evidence of a gap at 5% level)

- **Sample A** (Accommodation)
- **Sample B** (Restaurant)
- **Sample D** (Cultural performance/Arts/Nature)

sd22- as above. Examples include: High standard of ablution and bathroom facilities, menus for visitors from countries which limit selection because of religious beliefs, variety of cultural performance formats dependent on the background and needs of the visitor.
10.2.6 Service Gap A: Visitor Expectation - Host Expectation

The following discussion centers on the results of F significance T Tests for independent samples to identify the likelihood of the gaps arising by chance. In an attempt to consolidate the scope of the gap analysis, discussion is limited to “positive or negative gap scores” which are significant at or below the 5% levels of significance from the aggregated tourism sample.

“Gap results” for individual samples have not been included in this section based on the rationale that interpretation of data is limited by the probability that the results could have arisen by chance due to the sample size of host responses (Bryman and Cramer 1990).

Items where Visitor Expectation is lower than Host Expectation:

Tangibles
- $sd3$ Neat appearance of employees
- $sd4$ Visual appearance of promotional materials

This finding highlights the need to accurately identify visitor expectations and the minimum levels required to satisfy them. If these levels are not identified problems may occur through surplus allocation of resources above the minimum requirement. Compounded with the rank order importance of the Tangible dimension (5th) the long term effects may result in surplus allocation of resources to areas that do not require assistance and inadequate allocation to items that are not being satisfied.

Assurance
- $sd14$ Behavior of employees that instills visitor confidence

This result suggests that the host has overestimated the minimum level of expectation expects in terms of behaviour of employees that instils visitor confidence. In the current study the Assurance dimension is ranked number 2
and therefore over-estimation of this item by the host could be to an advantage given the “lack of tolerance” (see section 7.1) on outcome items of the dimensions if expectation scores are consistently high.

**Empathy**

- *sd22 Understanding the specific needs of visitors.*

This result suggests hosts are over estimating the minimum level of expectation in terms of understanding specific needs. In the case of Maori tourism the cultural sensitivity must be balanced against ethnocentrism so that the visitor experience is authentic as possible. In addition as part of a process dimension the “zone of tolerance” for this item is larger and therefore easier to satisfy adequate service levels. (see section 7.1)

### 10.2.7 Service Gap B: Visitor Perception - Host Perception

The following discussion centers on the results of F significance T Tests for independent samples to identify the likelihood of the gaps in arising by chance. In an attempt to consolidate the scope of the gap analysis, discussion only covers “gap results” which are significant at or below the 5% levels of significance from the aggregated tourism sample.

“Gap results” for individual samples have not been included in this section based on the rationale that interpretation of data is limited by the probability that the results could have arisen by chance due to the small sample size of host responses. (Bryman and Cramer 1990).

**Items where Visitor Perception is lower than Host Perception**

**Tangibles**

- *sd3 Neat appearance of employees*
This results suggests that while hosts are correctly identifying the expectation level for this item they are overestimating how much they are delivering in satisfying the visitor perception. For Maori tourism operators this suggests that they review grooming and dress standards in order to meet and exceed the visitor perception.

**Items where Visitor Perception is higher than Host Perception**

**Reliability**
- *sd9 Providing error free records*

Host over-estimation on this item supports the discussion on host expectation scores. However in this case the problem becomes one of host complacency due to the inaccurate estimation of the visitor perception. For Maori tourism operators the result highlights a number of factors including; host attitudes toward accuracy of records, lack of skills in documentation and accounting procedures, and a shortage of skilled managers to develop human resources.
10.2.8 Service Dimension Rank Order

This section provides results from section II of the SERVQUAL instrument which asks respondents to rank the five service dimensions in order of relative importance (Parasuraman et al 1988; 1990). Rank order of each service dimension provides a contextual perspective for latter discussion of service gaps and their strategic implications. For the current study the original SERVQUAL instrument was modified (see section 8.4.2) substituting the original constant sum scale for a 7 point Likert Scale. Average mean scores were tabulated using T-test for independent samples (Host and Visitor samples). Discussion is limited to aggregated visitor sample results.

Figure 10.2.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative Importance of Dimension</th>
<th>Aggregated Tourism Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tangibles</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsiveness</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assurance</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Aggregated Tourism Sample  n = 163

Responsiveness ranks 1st  Assurance ranks 2nd
Reliability ranks 3rd  Empathy ranks 4th
Tangibles ranks 5th
Results differ from SERVQUAL (Zeithaml et al 1990) which ranked Reliability 1st, Assurance 2nd, Responsiveness 3rd, Empathy 4th and Tangibles 5th. It is argued that some of the variance from this comparative result may can attributed to the cultural context of the Maori tourism service environment and therefore influence the ranking of service quality dimensions. Intuitively it would seem reasonable to suggest that a cultural experience would demand high levels of Responsiveness and Assurance to cross communication cultural barriers and create an emancipatory experience.

Using the same rationale, accuracy and consistency (Reliability items) of cultural experiences, particularly cultural performance, often rely on the nature and size of audiences creating ‘performance variance’. However for the visitor this ‘variance’ is generally be acceptable because there is usually little precedent of content authenticity and performance context. The reverse is generally true for consumer services and therefore requires different ranking priorities for the respective service dimensions.
Responsiveness is ranked as the most important dimension implying that the cultural context of Maori accommodation services creates greater expectations for employees to exhibit willingness to help and provide prompt service.

Reliability is considered to be the 2nd most important dimension implying that the cultural context of Maori tourism accommodation is similar to consumer services, requiring high levels of dependability, accuracy and consistency.
Result is very similar to aggregated sample result however Empathy items are considered to be significantly more important in the hospitality sector. This implies that cultural context of Maori tourism hospitality creates greater expectation for caring individualised attention than for consumer service providers.
Results for Operator C are very similar to the aggregated sample with minor decrease in Empathy and Tangibles mean scores. This result implies that the cultural context of Maori eco/cultural services creates greater expectation for Responsiveness items; prompt service, willingness to help, caring and individualised attention than for consumer service providers.
Figure 10.2.8D

Trends for Operator D are very similar to the Operator C sample with comparatively higher mean scores on all dimensions suggesting less significance between the three most important dimensions. Assurance items are ranked as the most important implying that the cultural context of Maori cultural performance and art services creates greater expectations for employees to have superior knowledge levels; convey trust, courtesy and confidence than for consumer service providers.

In summary the most significant outcome of the rank analysis is the consistent ranking of the Reliability dimension as either second or third which contrasts with the previous SERVQUAL work by Parasuraman et al (1988, 1990). Further analysis suggests that the lack of rank order replication may be attributed to the sector specific context and the cultural context of service quality.
10.3 Conclusion: Gap Analysis

Summary findings provide significance evidence of service gaps in the service quality of Maori tourism operators.

Table 10.3 below indicates that visitors of Maori tourism operators have *more expectations negatively disconfirmed than positively disconfirmed*. This findings provide further replication of empirical work using SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al 1988).

Table 10.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative Gap Score</th>
<th>Positive Gap Score</th>
<th>No Gap Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 items = 45.5%</td>
<td>1 items = 4.5%</td>
<td>11 item = 50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Aggregated Tourism Sample

Negative disconfirmations are evident on almost half of all scale items. This highlights a serious weakness for the Maori tourism sector in its strategy toward retention and growth of market share as discussed in section 2.6. At a service dimension level over three quarters of the negative disconfirmations are attributed to under performance on Reliability (50%), and Responsiveness (30%). This result may be problematic for two reasons.

Firstly because Reliability is considered a ‘core’ service (Parasuraman et al 1990), as an ‘outcome’ dimension, expectation scores tend to be higher and therefore the zone of tolerance smaller (see Section 7.2). As a consequence it is critical that hosts appreciate visitors are less likely to relax expectations for the respective items and more discerning about meeting adequate expectations levels.
Secondly, Responsiveness as a ‘process dimension’ (see section 7.2) generally has lower adequate expectation levels, a higher zone of tolerance and therefore greater opportunity for the host to not only meet but exceed visitor expectations. In the current study the 1st rank order of this dimension compounds the issue by creating a negative cumulative effect for under performance. Evidence of positive disconfirmation was achieved for only one scale item: sd1 ‘This business has modern looking equipment’ - Tangibles Dimension. This result highlights a common management practice (Peters and Waterman 1982) of allocating of time and resources disproportionately to their rank order. This is reflected clearly in the current study results as the Tangible dimension ranks fifth (least important) and yet it contains the only positive gap score.

Analysis of the aggregated results highlights half of the 22 items have no gap score which provides positive evidence that operators are attempting to meet the minimum expectations of visitors. It is noteworthy that the 4 items contained within the Assurance dimension have no significant gap score. Given the 2nd order ranking, as shown in Table 10.3B, of this ‘process’ dimension it is argued that further efforts to create positive gap scores will provide operators with excellent opportunities to exceed visitor expectations and gain competitive advantages.

Table 10.3B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SERVQUAL</th>
<th>TOURISM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DIMENSION</td>
<td>RANK BY DIMENSION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsiveness</td>
<td>2nd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assurance</td>
<td>3rd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>4th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangibles</td>
<td>5th</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:  Tourism results represent aggregated sample SERVQUAL results (Zeithaml et al 1990)
Rank by Gap Size 1 = largest gap; 5 = smallest gap.
Gap score results from the current study indicate that, of the five service quality dimensions, under-performance is greatest on the Reliability dimension across all items. Comparative trends are illustrated below in Fig 10.3 highlighting limited replication of work by Zeithaml et al (1990) further supporting the conclusion that the Reliability dimension gap score is the largest of the five dimension gaps. In the current study respondents ranked the Reliability dimension third in relative importance compared to the SERVQUAL results (Parasuraman et al 1988; ibid.) which ranked the Reliability dimension first.

The Responsiveness dimension reveals the fourth largest gap score, across three items. This compares with SERVQUAL results which found Responsiveness to have the second largest gap score implying Maori tourism operators are regarded as being relatively more responsive to visitor requirements than consumer service providers (Zeithaml ibid.). As discussed previously the Assurance dimension reveals no significant gap score. This differs from the SERVQUAL results which rank the Assurance dimension gap score fourth largest implying Maori tourism operators provide more Assurance i.e. knowledge, courtesy and ability to convey trust and confidence to customers, than consumer service providers.

Replication of previous SERVQUAL work (ibid.) is achieved on the Empathy dimension with a comparative ranking’s for dimension importance and gap score magnitude. The Tangibles dimension provides limited replication (see Table 10.3B) of earlier SERVQUAL work achieving the same rank and a positive gap score. However this dimension also demonstrates contrast providing the second largest (positive) gap compared with the SERVQUAL result which indicates the smallest (positive) gap score. In relative terms it appears that Maori tourism operators are performing with similar success to providers of consumer services with the provision of tangible service items.
10.3.1 Service Gap A: Visitor Expectation - Host Expectation

Results of Service Gap A highlight positive expectation scores for items contained within the Tangibles (2), Assurance (1) and Empathy (1) dimensions. This suggests Maori tourism operators are overestimating the expectations of their visitors which may contribute to excess resource allocations.

Table 10.3.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative Gap score</th>
<th>Positive Gap score</th>
<th>No Gap score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 items</td>
<td>4 items</td>
<td>17 items</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Aggregated Tourism Sample
The absence of gap scores and (negative scores) on the remaining items indicates Maori tourism operators know what visitors expect and therefore are well positioned to operationalise the process and outcome dimensions.

10.3.2 Service Gap B: Visitor Perception - Host Perception

Results of Service Gap B highlights a solitary positive perception score \( (sd3) \) contained within the Tangibles dimension. This suggests Maori tourism operators are underestimating ‘the neat appearance of their employees’ which may prevent the acknowledgment of this factor in marketing activities.

Table 10.3.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negative Gap Score</th>
<th>Positive Gap Score</th>
<th>No Gap Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 items</td>
<td>1 item</td>
<td>19 items</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Aggregated Tourism Sample

Results also reveal a negative perception score \( (sd9) \) ‘error free records’ contained within the Reliability dimension suggesting Maori tourism operators are overestimating the efficiency and effectiveness of their administration systems. The absence of gap scores on the remaining items signals Maori tourism operators perceive their service delivery in a similar way to their visitors and therefore are well positioned to operationalise the process and outcome dimensions.

10.3.3 Gap Analysis: A dyadic view

Dyadic analysis of the three service gaps offers an important finding that host awareness of visitor expectations and perception levels is high however, this is contrasted by a significant lack of “operational reality” signalled clearly in the magnitude and frequency of negative visitor disconfirmation scores (see Table 10.3). In summary this means that Maori tourism operators appear
to understand what is required of visitors but are not delivering the processes or outcomes of service quality.

This result further highlights the diagnostic value of dyadic gap analysis in gaining greater insights into the service gaps (Parasuraman et al 1988) that impede the delivery of high service quality.
10.4 Individual Samples Profiles

The secondary objective of the current study was to develop broad profiles of Maori tourism operators based on analysis of service gaps. As such the profiles of the individual samples may be interpreted as "Maori industry sector benchmarks".

Table 10.4 below reaffirms discussion in sections 10.2.8 and 10.3 that visitors have *more expectations negatively disconfirmed than positively disconfirmed*. Analysis of these results provides further insight into the characteristics of operator profiles by examining the sector specific disconfirmations (negative and positive gap scores). Comparative profile descriptions are offered below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample A (Accommodation)</th>
<th>Sample B (Restaurant)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Gap score</td>
<td>Positive Gap score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Gap score</td>
<td>No Gap score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19 items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Gap score</td>
<td>Negative Gap score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 items</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample C (Eco/Cultural)</th>
<th>Sample D (Culture/Arts/Nature)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Gap score</td>
<td>Positive Gap score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Gap score</td>
<td>No Gap score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16 items</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Gap score</td>
<td>Negative Gap score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 items</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Profile: Sample A (Accommodation)

Negative disconfirmation:
(sd2) '...physical facilities will be visually appealing'.

Positive disconfirmations:
(sd13) '...never to busy to respond to guests requests.'
(sd18) '...give guests individual attention.'

In general notwithstanding concern over (sd2) "visual appearance of physical facilities" Operator A is meeting of service quality expectations across all dimensions providing an excellent business model for new and existing Maori operators in the accommodation sector.

- Operators A, B & D were perceived as equally Assuring
- Operator A (Accommodation) was perceived as the most Reliable.
- Operator A (Accommodation) was perceived as the most Empathetic (sd18)
- Operator A (Accommodation) was perceived as the most Responsive (sd13)
- Operator A (Accommodation) was perceived as providing the worst Tangible item (sd2)

Profile: Sample B (Restaurant)

Negative disconfirmations:
(sd4) '...materials associated with service will be visually appealing'
(sd6) '...show sincere interest in solving it'

In general, notwithstanding concern over (sd4) and (sd6) Operator B is meeting service quality expectations across all dimensions suggesting a comprehensive understanding of visitor needs and operational capability. As such Operator B provides a constructive business model for new and existing Maori operators in the hospitality sector.

- Operators A, B & D were perceived as equally Assuring
Profile: Sample C (Eco/Cultural Tourism)

Negative disconfirmations:
(s65) '...promise to do something by a certain time'
(s66) '...show sincere interest in solving it'
(s68) '...provide their services at a time they promise to do so'
(s69) '...insist on error free records'
(s610) '...tell guests exactly when services will be performed'
(s611) '...give prompt services to guests'
(s612) '...willing to help customers'
(s614) '...instil confidence in guests'
(s621) '...have guests' best interests at heart'
(s622) '...understand specific needs of their guests'

Positive disconfirmations:
(s61) '...has modern looking equipment'

In general, negative disconfirmations are evident on almost half of all scale items. While the current success of this operation is partially related to its exclusivity and uniqueness (whale watching) the results highlight significant service quality weaknesses within the strategy of retention and growth of market share. At the service dimension level, three quarters of the negative disconfirmations are attributed to under performance on Responsiveness (30%), Assurance (10%) and Reliability (40%). The respective rank order of these service dimensions (see Fig 10.2.8C) would suggest that these areas require priority attention to ensure long term competitiveness.

As such Operator C provides a business model which highlights service quality weaknesses and strategic implications for new and existing Maori operators in the attractions and activities sector.

- Operator C(Eco/cultural tourism) was perceived as the least Responsive
• Operator C (Eco/cultural tourism) was perceived as the least Empathetic
• Operator C (Eco/cultural tourism) was perceived as the least Reliable
• Operator C (Eco/cultural tourism) was perceived as least Assuring

Profile: Sample D (Cultural Performance/Arts/Nature)

Negative disconfirmations:

(sd4) '...materials associated with service will be visually appealing'
(sd7) '...will perform the service right the first time'
(sd8) '...provide their services at a time they promise to do so'
(sd11) '...give prompt services to guests'

Positive disconfirmation:

(sd1) '...having the most modern looking equipment'

In general, notwithstanding (sd4), (sd7), (sd8) and (sd11) Operator D is meeting expectation levels across dimensions. Based on the rank order of the respective dimensions (see Fig 10.2.8D) service gaps evident on the Reliability and Responsiveness items require urgent redress. Overall, Operator D provides a useful business model for new and existing Maori operators to emulate in the attraction and activities sector.

• Operators A, B & D were perceived as equally Assuring
• Operator D (Cultural Performance/Arts/Nature) was perceived as providing the best Tangible service item

The absence of gap scores and (negative scores) on all remaining items suggests Maori tourism operators (A, B & C) currently understand the sector specific service quality needs of visitors and should remain focused on developing and sustaining competitive service advantages through positive
disconfirmations. In summary the individual results representing a sample of 'the best Maori tourism operations', at the time of survey, should provide:

- A 'needs analysis' frame of reference for addressing areas of service quality and the development of specific skills training programs.

- A descriptive frame of reference for new and existing operators to use as a business analysis and planning tool.
10.5 Limitations and Implications for Result Interpretation

10.5.1 Introduction

Previous sections have discussed the specific nature of assessing service quality through the use of Gap Analysis. This section considers the implications of using the SERVQUAL instrument as noted by Brown et al (1993); Babakus and Boller (1992), Fick and Ritchie (1991) and Lewis and Mitchell (1990).

Discussions centers on the limitations inherent in the methodology discussed by Parasuraman et al (1988) and possible approaches to ensure the SERVQUAL instrument is operationally consistent with the conceptual and theoretical frameworks for assessing service quality.

Magnitude of Gap score

The usefulness of statistically significant gap scores is problematic for a number of reasons. Firstly, restricting respondents to a 7 point scale may mask subtle variation in their expectations and perceptions. For example the respondent may feel his/her expectation lies somewhere between points 5 and 6, possibly closer to 6. Six will then be recorded as the measurement, whereas in fact a more accurate figure would have been 5.6. On the perception rating he/she may feel the rating should be between 6 and 7, possibly closer to 6, then six will be the recorded response, whereas the true feelings would be 6.4 on the scale. The recorded measurement will show no difference between expectations and perceptions. However in reality the difference may have been as much as 0.8 which represents 11 per cent of the scale. If this is a particularly important item, ignoring such a mismatch can significantly effect the interpretation of results at the peril of the researcher, (Lewis and Mitchell 1990)
Secondly, what does the magnitude of the gap score represent in terms of respondent buyer behaviour (repeat purchase and referral)? Using the above example would a gap score of 0.8 imply the respondent will repeat purchase, continue referring potential customers or no give response? Alternatively would a gap score of -0.8 create the opposite reactions? Evidence of this problem creates difficulty in providing valid interpretations of the current study results.

Zeithaml et al (1993) addressed this problem by measuring two levels of expectations - adequate and desired. Using this approach it possible to diagnose whether respondents service perceptions fall within the "zone of tolerance", the space between adequate and desired service (see section 7.2), or outside the zone. Through this analysis further insight is gained toward anticipating respondent buyer behaviour (repeat purchase and referral).

**Gaps and Rank Order of Dimensions**

The issue of what gap score magnitude represents is further compounded by the weighting or rank order of service dimensions. In the current study, the soundness of the five dimension framework of SERVQUAL impinges on any interpretation of gap scores and the associated weighting based on dimension rank scores. For example, the Responsiveness dimension of the tourism sample has a ranking of 1 however factor analysis results (see section 9.0) highlights its unstable. Therefore any interpretation of item gap scores within the Responsiveness dimension must be viewed with caution.

**Gaps and Dimensionality**

Does SERVQUAL measure all the gaps within each dimension ie. are there enough items? Parasuraman et al (1988) detail the iterative procedure used to develop and refine the SERVQUAL instrument noting it retained only *those*
items that are common and relevant to all service sectors. They acknowledge however that the same procedure may have deleted certain items relevant to some but not all firms. This point is further supported by another tourism based study (Fick and Ritchie 1990) which suggests that the number of Tangibles items included within the present version of SERVQUAL to limiting and does not take into account service specific items ie. technologies. Therefore while SERVQUAL can be used in its present form to assess and compare service quality across a wide variety of firms, appropriate adaptation of the instrument may be desirable when only a single service is investigated.

Discussion on the meaning and importance of the service quality disconfirmation gap demonstrates the difficulties involved in interpreting the gap scores. Although the magnitude of the gap score offers a rank order of the level of dissatisfaction, the degree of importance of the gap score still remains subjective. This in turn limits the diagnostic ability of the instrument to measure service item performance. Therefore the SERVQUAL (1988) instrument format as applied in the current study is better suited to identifying the existence of service quality disconfirmation gaps.
11.0 Conclusions

In this study, the conceptualisation, measurement and assessment of Maori tourism service quality has been explored. Two approaches were employed to examine these issues: a supplier behavioural approach and a managerial approach.

From a supplier behavioural approach perspective, Maori tourism operators are portrayed as visitor hosts’ with a living cultural heritage that remains unique within the world today. Beliefs, values, and language dating back to the beginning of time are still expressed today through protocol and primeval traditions that explain the universal relationships between man and nature. The ability of Maori culture to adapt to dynamic environments is a characteristic that has ensured its tenuous survival during numerous periods of migration and settlement over the last 1000 years.

European colonisation, alienation of land, intermarriage, urbanisation, and the break down of traditional social structures have contributed to the marginal position of Maori in the 19th and 20th centuries. The resulting loss of language, cultural values and natural resources is highlighted by low levels of education, health, housing, employment and high levels of crime. Analysis of what defines the Maori population using a "continuum of cultural knowledge" reveals a significant skew toward the negative end. This resulting variation of "cultural knowledge" within the population becomes problematic for the conceptualisation and measurement of Maori involvement in tourism and the assessment of host culture impact on the visitor service encounter.
Contrasting the history of pre-1980, a strong renaissance of Maori culture and resolution of Treaty of Waitangi issues underpins the current growth of Maori economic development including tourism. The evolution of Maori involvement in tourism is rooted firmly in the "expression of culture" through guiding, kapa haka, the arts, and in more recent times, hospitality and eco-tourism. Geographically the existence of natural features, iwi based initiatives and government support encouraged the establishment of Rotorua as New Zealand's first cultural tourism region. Recent evidence suggests that a portfolio of future opportunities exist for Maori to become involved at all levels of the "New Zealand tourist product."

This implies a broadening of the Maori tourism product range and the creation of employment opportunities that reduce the reliance on "formal cultural protocol" and the "staged expression of culture". A number of issues offset these potential opportunities for iwi based tourism development due to "cultural conflict" over what constitutes the optimum organisational structures, accountability, and balancing the cultural, economic and social needs of iwi members.

Accepting the iwi development approach of the South Island's Ngai Tahu, it is argued, that if economic strength is a prerequisite for sustainable social development then a greater understanding of the tourism industry is required. For non iwi based tourism operations, potential barriers may include; competition with iwi for cultural resources (taonga), acknowledgment and acceptance of tribal kawa, individual operator cultural knowledge, visitor expectation and industry recognition as a credible commercial entity.
Given the intangible nature of most Maori tourism involvement it is suggested that sustainable growth will be a function of operator ability to develop and implement marketing strategies that consider the special nature and characteristics of tourism services (as compared to products). The future challenge for the Maori tourism industry rests with the planning and development of frameworks that provide greater insights into the management and protection of culture within the tourism product. This concluded the supplier behavioural approach examining the nature and elements of Maori involvement in tourism.

The second approach explored the theoretical background of service marketing, the service quality construct and the diagnostic value of the SERVQUAL instrument to assess the current level of Maori tourism service quality from a dyadic perspective.

Associated with the growth of tourism has been the consideration of quality service as the critical factor in determining a sustainable competitive edge. As New Zealand business moves away from cost based strategies toward service based strategies the issue of service excellence becomes increasingly important for attaining market share, brand loyalty and profitability.

Research into the area of service quality from a tourism perspective suggests that a barrier to achieving superior service quality results is associated with a lack of cultural understanding. This results in service standards, marketing practices and management systems that fail to recognise cultural predisposition of the host staff, visitors, and local community within the dynamics of organisational culture. Adopting a causal relationship approach it is suggested that host ethnic and cultural awareness
impacts the service encounter and forms measurable attributes within the dimensions of service quality. The conceptualisation and measurement of the service quality construct is well documented and while debate still continues over what validates the most appropriate norms to measure service quality, a significant amount of empirical research supports the notion that service quality is a valid construct and can be reliably measured. The most widely documented measurement instrument is a multi item scale known as SERVQUAL which formed one of the major outcome of programmatic research initiated by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1986; 1988) The widespread use of the SERVQUAL instrument is due to its authors claim that its design allows applicability across a wide range of services allowing for adaptation to fit the characteristics and needs of the individual organisations, based on the expectation/perception format (Parasuraman et al ibid).

The current study provides only limited replication of the original work conducted by those who developed the SERVQUAL scale (notwithstanding the limitations of the study outlined in sections 8.6. and 10.6) Factor analysis and low variance extraction of the SERVQUAL instrument applied its generic format indicates the five dimensional framework originally proposed for the SERVQUAL items may be unsound, questioning its trait and construct validity. Subsequent analysis of permutations suggests a seven factor solution may be a more appropriate framework for measuring service quality of Maori tourism services. Disappointing internal and overall instrument reliability scores add further weight to the question of SERVQUAL’s trait and construct validity supporting the concerns of previous studies which have evaluated SERVQUAL (Babakus and Boller 1992; Bresinger and Lambert 1990; Carman 1990; and Finn and Lamb 1991)
Support for the future use of SERVQUAL (1988) as a valid and reliable instrument to measure Maori tourism service quality is cautioned without further empirical research incorporating modifications to the instrument as recommended by Parasuraman et al (1991)

Notwithstanding the findings of the factor analysis, SERVQUAL provides an extremely useful diagnostic instrument for the identification of operational service gaps. Results of three conceptual gaps which explored service perceptions from a dyadic perspective suggest that while Maori operators are competent in their estimations of visitor expectations and perceptions they fail to operationalise these estimates during the visitor experience, evidenced by the significant number of negative visitor disconfirmation gaps.

Analysis of the negative visitor gaps highlights major operational weaknesses in terms of Reliability and Responsiveness. Due to the strong service nature of all operators sampled it is suggested that underperformance on these dimensions may be a function of cross cultural communication (notwithstanding technical and seasonal problems). Review of specific items within each of the above dimensions indicates the need for efficient and effective levels of communication especially where time is an important variable. Anecdotal evidence of host apathy toward meeting communication expectations is compounded by the temporal nature of activities, culturally diverse market and the composite nature of the industry, resulting in higher levels of expectations and smaller ranges of tolerance.

The lack of service gaps and the existence of positive service gaps acknowledges the ability of Maori tourism operators to meet and exceed visitor
expectation in a variety of service contexts. Specific merit is evident on Assurance and Tangible items which suggests operators are skilled in development and maintenance of facilities, plant, and employee appearance, knowledge and courtesy. At sector level the gap score trends suggest that Maori tourism operators are competent providers of accommodation, hospitality and performing arts but lack significant competencies as providers of the eco-tourism. Review of literature and analysis of data reveal significantly higher expectation scores for the eco-tourism sector which can be attributed to the discerning visitor market it targets and the seasonal/climatic and environmental constraints associated with eco-tourism activities. While overall results demonstrate clear strength and weakness of Maori tourism operators, the underlying message from the study can be summarised in the following unsolicited visitor comment.

“...keep doing the things that you already do well but satisfy me further by consistently being on time, asking me if I need help or assistance and do everything else with a sense of purpose and credibility and urgency...”

As the Maori tourism industry implements its strategy toward retention and growth of market share, is hoped that results from the current study will provide a sound frame of reference for future empirical work on the nature and elements of Maori tourism, the reliability and validity of SERVQUAL as a measurement instrument for Maori tourism service quality, and, Maori tourism human resource development.
12.0 Recommendations

The recommendations in this section are derived from the analysis of the literature and primary research. The following are recommendations for possible research opportunities.

**Maori culture.** There is a need to further investigate the nature and use of Maori culture in the tourism context. For example, what elements of culture are commonly used in a tourist setting? How are the elements of culture expressed... in a traditional or contemporary manner? How is local kawa acknowledged and protected in a tourist setting?

**Maori in Tourism.** Scope exists to further define the nature and scope of Maori involvement in tourism at iwi and individual levels. At present a fundamental problem exists over what defines “being Maori”, which undermines the reliability and validity of empirical research in any associated area. Further research is required to conceptualise a Maori tourism construct and its antecedents.

**Impacts of host culture on the service encounter.** While there exists an abundance of generic literature covering service marketing and its application within the tourism industry, there is little evidence of work done on the conceptualisation and measurement of service quality in a cultural context. Further research is required to bridge the knowledge gap about the impact of Maori culture on service encounters.

**Longitudinal Maori Tourism Studies.** As discussed by Parasuraman et al (1988) SERVQUAL can also be used to track the level of service provided by an operator and assess the impact of management decisions. The current
study provides an exploratory assessment of Maori tourism service quality to build a database upon and assess the impacts of internal and external factors on service performance.

Comparative studies. It would be useful to conduct a comparative study of this nature with another indigenous culture in order to provide a benchmark for both Maori and overseas indigenous tourism operators. Additionally, comparative studies of Non Maori New Zealand tourism operators would also provide a useful insight into the relative performance of Maori operators.

SERVQUAL Attention from researchers in travel and tourism has been lacking. There has been little tourism related replication of the initial work, no extension of the scale to services of interest to the tourism industry, nor any refinement of the instrument based on its application to the field of tourism.

Further research is needed to verify the applicability of the SERVQUAL instrument modified as suggested by Parasurman (1991) to suit the characteristics of the Maori tourism field.

Dimensionality. Empirical evidence from the current study raises questions over the validity of the five dimensions measure. Separate analyses of the expectations and perceptions components of SERVQUAL produced a seven factor solution with higher levels of variance extraction suggesting the dimensionality of the service quality may be a function of industry type. Further research is recommended to validate these propositions.

Semantic modification From a sample reliability perspective if samples are to incorporate visitors from other cultures consideration must be given to
the written language and grammar used within the measurement instrument. Consultation during the field work of the current study suggests that the instrument should be available with translated versions for respondents who have English as a second language.

**Negative wording of scale items.** Administering SERVQUAL with half of the items worded negatively decreases response rates due to confusion over statements that read as a “double negative question”. Further research is suggested to verify the validity of the measure after rewording all statements positively.

**Construct validity.** The results question the construct validity of SERVQUAL. In the current study respondents were not given the opportunity to give an overall rating of service and therefore it was not possible to compare SERVQUAL scores and assess its convergent validity using the Maori tourism sample. Further research is needed to verify preliminary findings on SERVQUAL’s validity.

**Cultural barriers for Maori research.** In attempting to measure the service quality of Maori tourism from a dyadic perspective, it is important to acknowledge practical and ethical constraints of identifying and getting the co-operation of Maori tourism operators to facilitate the field work processes of the research. Strategies for improving the efficiency and effectiveness of this process requires considerable assistance from the national trade association and local/regional parties to build greater trust and respect between operators, respondents and researchers of Maori involvement in tourism. To put this into historical context Matunga (1995) comments “research, as the art/science of gathering knowledge has in many cases been for Maori a rather negative experience, an exercise in power and
control over Maori, and a Pakeha attempt to define the Maori reality and experience (Te Awekotuku 1991). So often in the past, Maori and Maori experience has been defined by non-Maori, and used as a tool to justify public policy and management that has subsequently undermined (Te Ariki and Spoonley 1992), rather than advanced the cause of Maori self-determination. In short this explains why some Maori are suspicious of research and as a result very conservative in their involvement.

**Ethical Research considerations.** Evidence clearly points to Maori and iwi being more proactive in gathering information on their natural resources, investigating how these resources can be better utilised for greater social and economic gain, and assessing how they can be better managed to not simply protect but to maximise cultural benefits for themselves. As a result it is essential that close attention be paid to the conduct of any ethical Maori research project. Relevant issues include such things as; the extent to which tangata whenua kaitiaki have been involved in the design of the research project, the degree of accountability of the researcher to the researched, and the cultural appropriateness of the methodology for transferring research findings to Maori. It also requires a personal assessment on the part of the researcher, and the asking of sometimes difficult questions such as, who is going to benefit if anyone? Who says so? Who is the researcher accountable to?

In the current study every attempt was made to develop and facilitate an ethical and culturally sound research project. Primary safeguards involved extensive consultation with key personalities within the Maori tourism industry at public and private sector level providing direction on research issues and parameters. Project finance, selection of the Maori tourism sample, and on site field work, operator support and co-operation were all
outcomes of this process justifying the deliberation over consultation. From a cultural context (see section 2.0) the value of on-site field work cannot be overestimated, because in many instances the apathy of the host staff toward completing questionnaires was overcome by the researchers' cultural background (Maori), physical presence and verbal communication, which supports previous discussion.
Bibliography


Vol. 11, No.6


70. Lewis, Barbara R., and Vincent Mitchell (1990), "Defining and Measuring the Quality of Customer Service" *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, Vol.8 No.6 pp.11-17


Appendix A: Study Questionnaire
Dear Sir/Madam

I am a Masters student in the Marketing Department of Otago University. As part of my course work I am required to write a thesis on a topic of my choice. My topic is the Service Quality of Maori Tourism Operators. This is an area of the New Zealand tourism industry which is of importance to us all.

I am studying how hosts and visitors perceive the Service Quality of Maori tourism experiences. I would like to know what you expect from a Maori tourism experience and what you received from the current experience. This information will be used to aid us in the development of Maori tourism experiences to maintain New Zealand's competitiveness and distinction as a global destination.

All you have to do is fill in the questionnaire provided and leave it in the marked box at the exit or hand it to any of the duty staff. The Questionnaire should take you approximately 20-25 minutes to fill out. All the information you supply will be treated with the strictest confidence.

Thank you for your help and enjoy your experience.

Yours in tourism

Steven Renata
MAORI TOURISM SURVEY

Department of Marketing
November 1991

Steven Renata
Thank you for helping us by agreeing to complete this questionnaire. For a start we would like you to complete these opening questions. These are for statistical purposes only.

All you need to do is to tick the appropriate box.

1. Is this your first visit here?  
   Yes [ ] No [ ]
   If 'NO' how many previous visits have you made?  
   Once before [ ] More than once before [ ]

2. Are you: Male [ ] or Female [ ]?

3. Your age category is:
   Under 20 years.....[ ] 20 - 29 years..[ ]
   30 - 39 years......[ ] 40 - 49 years..[ ]
   50 - 59 years.....[ ] 60 and over....[ ]

4. Your normal occupation is: (Please write in the space provided).

5. Your present marital status is:
   Single....[ ] Married...[ ]
   Living with partner..[ ] Widowed...[ ]
   Divorced/Separated...[ ]

6. Have you any children? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   If 'YES' are they with you? Yes [ ] No [ ]

7. Are you a visitor to New Zealand? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   If 'YES' what country are you from?
   ...................................................................................
   If 'NO' what N.Z. town or city do you live in?
   ...................................................................................

8. Where are you presently staying?
   Hotel.....[ ] Motel.....[ ]
   Cabin.....[ ] Hostel....[ ]
   Timeshare.[ ] Friends/relatives [ ]
   I am a local resident..............................[ ]
   Other (e.g. day tripper)............................[ ]

9. Is your visit part of: (you may tick more than one box)
   Visiting friends/relatives....[ ] Business..[ ]
   Other (please state).............. Holiday...[ ]
PART ONE

DIRECTIONS:

Based on your experiences as a consumer of tourism services, please think about:

1. a tourism business that you think has excellent quality of service, or

2. if you cannot think of one then try to imagine a tourism business with excellent quality of service

Please indicate the extent to which you think such a tourism business would possess the feature described by each statement.

If you strongly DISAGREE with the statement given, circle 1.

If you strongly AGREE with the statement given, circle 7

For example:

Excellent tourism businesses will have modern looking equipment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STRONGLY DISAGREE</th>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>3</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Because the scale is intended to measure your level of agreement or disagreement you may circle any one number to indicate the strength of your feelings.

There are no right or wrong answers — all we are interested in is a number that truly reflects your feelings regarding tourism businesses that would deliver excellent quality of service.
Excellent tourism businesses will have modern-looking equipment

The physical facilities at excellent tourism businesses will be visually appealing

Employees in excellent tourism businesses will be neat in appearance

Materials associated with the service (i.e., pamphlets or statements) will be visually appealing in excellent tourism businesses

When excellent tourism businesses promise to do something by a certain time, they will do so

When a guest has a problem, excellent tourism businesses will show a sincere interest in solving it

Excellent tourism businesses will perform the service right the first time

Excellent tourism businesses will provide their services at the time they promise to do so

Excellent tourism businesses will insist on error-free records

Employees in excellent tourism businesses will tell guests exactly when services will be performed

Employees in excellent tourism businesses will give prompt service to guests
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STRONGLY DISAGREE</th>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employees in excellent tourism businesses will always be willing to help customers</strong></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employees in excellent tourism businesses will never be too busy to respond to guests' requests</strong></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The behavior of employees in excellent tourism businesses will instill confidence in guests</strong></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Guests of excellent tourism businesses will feel safe in their transactions</strong></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employees in excellent tourism businesses will be consistently courteous with guests</strong></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employees in excellent tourism businesses will have the knowledge to answer guests' questions</strong></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Excellent tourism businesses will give guests individual attention</strong></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Excellent tourism businesses will have operating hours convenient to all their guests</strong></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Excellent tourism businesses will have employees who give guests personal attention</strong></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Excellent tourism businesses will have the guests' best interest at heart</strong></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The employees of excellent tourism businesses will understand the specific needs of their guests</strong></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PART 2

DIRECTIONS:

Listed below are 5 features influencing excellent tourism businesses and the service they offer you. Please indicate how important each of these features is to you personally. Please rate **ALL** of these impressions on a scale of 0 to 7 where

1 = of no importance

7 = extremely important

If you feel that you are not in a position to comment on a particular statement, then leave a blank.

Simply give your answer by putting a circle around the answer that best describes how important to you each attribute is.

For example:

Appearance of tourism facilities  1  2  3  4  5  6  7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>OF NO IMPORTANCE</th>
<th>EXREMELY IMPORTANT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The appearance of the tourism business's physical facilities, equipment, personnel, and communication materials</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The tourism business's ability to perform service dependably and accurately</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. The tourism business's willingness to help guests and provide prompt service</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. The knowledge and courtesy of the tourism business's employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The caring, individualized attention the tourism business provides its guests</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
DIRECTIONS:

The following set of statements relate to your feelings about THIS tourism business. For each statement, please show the extent to which you believe THIS tourism business has the feature described by the statement.

Circling a 1 means that you strongly DISAGREE with the statement given.

Circling 7 means that you strongly AGREE with the statement given.

You may circle any one number in-between that shows how strong your feelings are.

There are no right or wrong answers — all that we are interested in is a number that best shows your perceptions about THIS tourism business.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STRONGLY DISAGREE</th>
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<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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</table>

This tourism business has modern looking equipment

THIS tourism business's facilities are visually appealing

THIS tourism business's employees are neat-appearing

Materials associated with the service (ie pamphlets and statements) are visually appealing at THIS tourism business

When THIS tourism business promises to do something by a certain time it does so

When you have a problem THIS tourism business shows a sincere interest in solving it
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STRONGLY DISAGREE</th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>5</th>
<th>STRONGLY AGREE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THIS tourism business performs the service right the first time</td>
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<tr>
<td>THIS tourism business provides its services at the time it promises to do so</td>
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<tr>
<td>THIS tourism business insists on error-free records</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees in THIS tourism business tell you exactly when services will be performed</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employees in THIS tourism business give you prompt service</td>
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<td>Employees in THIS tourism business are always willing to help you</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employees in THIS tourism business are never too busy to respond to your requests</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>The behavior of employees in THIS tourism business instills confidence</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>You feel safe in your transactions with THIS tourism business</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employees in THIS tourism business are consistent courteous with you</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employees in THIS have the knowledge to answer your questions</td>
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<tr>
<td>THIS tourism business gives you individual attention</td>
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<td>Statement</td>
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<tr>
<td>THIS tourism business has operating hours convenient to all its guests</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THIS tourism business has employees who give you personal attention</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>THIS tourism business has your best interests at heart</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees of THIS tourism business understands your specific needs</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
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</table>

"Kia ora, and thank you for your help".

Heoi ano

Steven Renata
(Researcher)