

Assessing the Typology of Community Participation in Wonchi Crater Lake Ecotourism Development, Ethiopia

Nafbek Somon Kebede

Department of Tourism Management, School of Business and Economics, Madda Walabu University
Bale, Robe, Ethiopia

Abstract

This study purports to investigate the typology of local community participation in Wonchi Crater Lake Ecotourism development. Being designed to be cross-sectional descriptive, the study used simple random and purposive sampling to contact individual observation. The data collected from primary and secondary sources were analyzed using both the descriptive and inferential statistics. The findings demonstrated that the participation of local community members in planning, decision making and evaluation of ecotourism was extremely poor compared to other participation indices. On the whole, their participation level is found somewhere at induced level of Tosun's typology. The findings cannot be generalized to other settings with no common features though it yet gives a solid foundation on the issue under the study.

Keywords: ecotourism, community participation, typology, Wonchi Crater Lake

Introduction

Tourism, over the past 60 years, has shown uninterrupted growth and become one of the largest and fastest growing focal economic sectors across the globe (WTO, 2014). It had a 10.3% of total GDP contribution to Ethiopia in 2013, and... is forecast to rise by 4.9% pa (9.0% of GDP) in 2024 (WTTC, 2014). In particular, ecotourism, within this international tourism industry, has become a rapidly growing niche market, contributing to the conservation of natural resources and improvement of livelihoods (UNECA, 2011). Likewise, it's strongly hailed by IGAD member states as a tool for sustainable tourism development (ibid). Generally, there are strong arguments in support of ecotourism playing a central role in conservation and rural development in sub-Saharan Africa since tourism became an important industry in many countries of East and Southern Africa (World Tourism Organization, 2001). Granted this, Ethiopia has harnessed tourism especially ecotourism as alternative tool to reduce poverty in rural areas and conserve the environment since 2002 when the first ecotourism initiatives, community-based (eco)tourism enterprises such as Wonchi Ecotourism Association, came into existence.

However, ecotourism is, apparently, not a panacea for...the betterment of community livelihoods (UNECA, 2011; Muller, 2000). It is, therefore, imperative that ecotourism should bring community participation in the hub of its development to fit the concept of sustainable tourism which contribute to conservation and wellbeing of community both in developed and developing countries (Wood, 2002; Wang and Tong, 2009; Ishmael and Adof, 2012). However, such situation is poorly studied in developing countries (Aref and Redzuan, 2008). For its successful implementation, it appears to be inevitable that ecotourism needs to be effectively planned and monitored, and controlled by the local community through their active involvement in different participation indexes as a result (Muller, 2000; Scheyvens, 1999).

In this respect, the level of local community involvement in ecotourism development is very much minimal in least developing countries (Garrod, 2003). Mulugeta (2010) and Okazaki (2008) are of opinion that it is more easily said than its practical actions to promote ecotourism albeit many studies have suggested the importance of community empowerment and participation. One reason for this may be the common failure to identify the existing level of community participation (Okazaki, 2008). In this light, this study aims to uncover the level of local community participation in the development of Wonchi Crater Lake Ecotourism in Oromia National State of Ethiopia. For the purpose of this study community is considered as a group of people who live within the same geographical area of Gedam Wonchi and Kella sub-kebeles of Haro-Wonchi having common values and linked by social ties over several years.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Concepts and Definitions

The growth of nature based tourism and the realization of the mutual interest of the conservation community, the local community in and around protected areas and the travel industry, and the nature has given the birth of ecotourism three decades ago (Anandaraj, 2015). Although there is no widely agreed upon definition of ecotourism, it has been considered as a form of sustainable tourism in which economic development is paralleled by natural resource protection (Tsaur et al., 2005; Cusack and Dixon, 2006).

The more advanced form of ecotourism, that takes the social dimension a stage further, where the local community actively participates in and control its operation and management to assure the remaining of a bulk of

profit within the community is referred to as 'community-based ecotourism' (WWF International, 2001). As a result, empowerment of local people is the main underlying concept for the development of community-based ecotourism through considering the views and interests of the wider local community in the very planning stage of ecotourism (ibid).

The concept of participation has been advocated in academic literature since community participation became the first order of precedence though it's not the only for the success of development. Community participation became popular since 1970s as new genre of intervention in development (Tosun, 2000). Any challenges encountered in the development can be overcome more easily through genuine community participation since it's ingredients of an empowered community (Baksh et al., 2012). Although few agree on the definition of community participation in development, for the sake of this study it's defined as the way in which the target beneficiaries take part in every aspect of the development that matters their life by reflecting their interest and feelings to determine its process and outcomes through mobilizing their resources.

Typologies of Community Participations

Much of the literatures on ecotourism highly advocate the essence of community participation (Baksh et al., 2012; Mulugeta, 2010; Wood, 2002; Okazaki, 2008); however, they hardly mention the degree and forms of participation and who should be entitled with this chance in the community (Southgate, 2006). Various participation typologies have been proposed to describe degrees or levels of participation which utterly depends on the forms of ownership of the development initiatives and the structure of the local community, and on other factors too.

Arnstein (1969) introduced a 'ladder of citizen participation' categorizing into three major levels of participation, namely: 'non-participation', 'degrees of tokenism' and 'degrees of citizen power' which has a further eight rungs of classification. 'Manipulation' and 'Therapy' are the bottom rungs of the ladder describing the levels of 'Non-Participation' in which the elite power holders undermine the powerless people with distorted participation stake, while the next three levels of ladders (Informing, Consultation and Placation) are 'Tokenism' that allow the have-nots to hear and to have a voice though the latter rung is the higher level of tokenism allowing have-nots to advise; however, it's the discretion of the power-holders to consider the views and advice of these members of community in the final decision. The sixth rung of the ladder is 'Partnership' where power-holders and the wider community members share responsibilities of planning and decision-making whereas the 'Delegated Power', which is the seventh rung, allows the citizens to dominate the decision making authority after effective negotiation with public officials. The eighth, 'citizen control', entitles citizens with full authority on decision making and management. The last three rungs of the ladder are classified as 'Degrees of Citizen Power' (Arnstein, 1969).

Accepting the use of different names to discuss the types of community participation which is a multi-dimensional concept and subject to multi definitions, Tosun (1999) also classified it into three main types corresponding to Arnstein's (1969) major typologies. These are spontaneous participation (active/direct/informal/authentic participation), induced participation (passive/indirect/formal/pseudo participation) and coercive participation. As per the spontaneous participation level, it seems formidable to the poor to take full control of the development without the intervention of external bodies or to participate in day-to-day decision making. However, the local community might be capable of taking power over all the development aspects once government or NGOs have utterly transferred the project they initiated to the locals. In this case, the have-nots can possibly reach the 'Degree of Citizen Power', at most a 'Delegated Power'. Apparently, the government in many developing countries has the overall mandate to look after the participatory initiatives (Tosun, 1999); hence, the participation levels of local community in such projects are directly or indirectly influenced by government.

Table 1 indicated here

Barriers to Local community Participation

Some view participation as a process that leads to empowerment of local community (Abu Samah & Aref, 2009; Mulugeta, 2010). However, there are various factors that hinder community participation in ecotourism development. In this respect, though literatures specifically discuss management system, lack of tenure, lack of devolution of rights, time consuming nature of a participatory approach, lack of finance, and opportunity cost of forgone alternative means of livelihoods as causes for the alienation of community from participation in (eco)tourism development (Muller, 2000; Chang and Gunnarsdotter, 2012), Tosun (2000) classified the limitations to community participation in tourism development process in developing countries into three main organized categories namely operation limitation which is associated with lack of decentralization of public administration of tourism, lack of coordination among stakeholders and lack of information to the local people, structural limitations that includes lack of expertise, elite domination and lack of appropriate legal system, and the third category is cultural limitation with respect to low level of awareness among the local community

members (Tosun, 2000).

If the local community is entitled with the legal power over land and full legal rights to protect any business that they establish, the community development in the area become lucrative (Wood, 2002) although most local communities in developing countries lack the legal power to own, use and manage resources, and to participate in the developments which provide a basis for their survival and livelihood. Nevertheless, this cannot be merely guaranteed by entitling the have-nots community members with the right to participate but also by informing them the means to do so (Jamal and Getz, 1999) since residents themselves do not know where to begin participation in such development (Joppe, 1999).

Methodology

The Study Area

Wonchi, a small village located at 155km west of Addis Ababa in South West Shewa Zone of Oromia national regional state, is a central Ethiopian highland situating at elevation of about 11,316 ft. high above sea level. The area is typical for its amazing volcanic lake and spectacular rugged landscape, and other natural and fascinating cultural resources. With the ambition to uplift the have-nots from poverty and conserve these potential resources, ecotourism came into existence with strong support of Germany German Society for International Cooperation (GIZ) under Wonchi Ecotourism Association (WETA). The residents in Gedam Wonchi and few from Kella sub-kebeles are entitled with the right to participate in ecotourism development; but only those who live in Giergis and Achazer of the former sub-kebele, and those who live very near to the rim of the volcano of the latter sub-kebele which is approximately 10% of the total residents in this village were the ultimate target of the study because of their relative active participation in the development.

Research Design

The research was of a cross-sectional descriptive design with the aim of identifying the existing degree of local community participation in ecotourism development. Both the qualitative and quantitative research approaches were employed. The study area was purposively chosen due to the practice of ecotourism activity while simple random sampling was adopted to select the individual observation after the determination of the sample size using the formula $n = N / (1 + N(e)^2)$ (Yamane, 1967; cited in Israel, 1992); where n is a sample size, N is total population, and e is the precision level ($\pm 5\%$). The calculated sample size significantly exceeds 10%, which is considered as a true representative in the research work, of the total population of the sub-kebeles whose homesteads are dispersed over the mountainous area. Added to this, nine key informants (experts from wereda culture and tourism office, staffs of Wonchi Ecotourism Association, expert from non-governmental organization-Germany society for International Cooperation (GIZ), kebele chairperson and local elders including one woman) were contacted for in depth interview with a mixture of structured and semi-structured types.

The study used both primary and secondary data sources. In this respect, questionnaire, which is assumed by many scholars as quicker if the sample is widely scattered as of this particular study area, was distributed to 65 head of households containing both the open-ended and closed ended items although the former was very limited in number for the sake of effective data analysis. The questionnaire questioned heads of household about their background, their participation in planning, decision making, business activities and benefit sharing and evaluation of ecotourism performance, challenges and opportunities for their participation, and also surveyed the influential participant stakeholders.

The pre-coded quantifiable data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics with the help of the latest version 20 Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software whereas the qualitative data was discussed using the qualitative description. After all, the participation level of local community in the development of WCLE was analyzed with respect to the participation indices-planning, decision making, implementation/business activities, benefit sharing and evaluation using Tosun's typology of community participation and Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Out of the total of 65 respondents surveyed, 87.7% were males, and 12.3% were females. The majority of the sample head of households were married (81.5%) while the remaining 12.3% and 6.2% respondents were singles and widows' respectively. 61.5% of the sample had five and more family numbers while 38.5% of head of households lived with the family size of less than four.

With reference to respondents' literacy, 15.4% of the respondents were illiterate while their counterparts could have attended the formal education and hence found to be literates. However, apart from tour guiding service which claims foreign language skill at least, the local community could participate in other ecotourism business activities such as horse renting, boat service provision and bee-keeping regardless of their educational background, for they have practiced such activities for years in their daily livelihoods activities.

Local Community Participation Indicators

Having engagement and a voice in planning, decision making and benefit sharing, implementation and evaluation of development are the key indicators of participation. Through these key participation indices, the extent of local community participation in the development of ecotourism was measured. This is to reveal how so far the benefits and costs of ecotourism as well as power are equitably distributed among the diverse groups of local community of Wonchi. To this end, this study provides pragmatic managerial implications with respect to the enhancement of level of local community participation in ecotourism and to improve the effective management of the development in getting best of it to the wider community. In developing countries it is assumed that the local community does not actively participate in planning, decision making, and management of ecotourism due to different factors such as personal status, educational level, social gap, and other factors. In the concept of participation every diverse groups of local community members should have at least representatives that reflect their interests and feelings where the whole community cannot participate at large. Of course, it will be very difficult for the local community to participate in day-to-day decision making process.

Scheyvens (1999), furthermore, stated that diverse interest groups within a community, including women and youths, need to have representation on community and broader decision-making bodies. It was the paper that advocated the right of the local people to participate in the development regardless of personality factors (that have nothing with participation); women and poor locals in the study area were practically overlooked, with no support and encouragement from concerned bodies. The significance of women participation in this development has been often marginalized regardless of their qualification hitherto. In other words, Wonchi Crater Lake ecotourism was not promoting the potential diverse alternative ecotourism business activities, thus made it quite challenging for the local women to participate in. Conversely, as women's participation in the tourism industry becomes the fastest growing fashion at different regions, the finding of WTO and UN Women (2010) revealed the potential of tourism to empower women mainly in developing countries.

Participation in Planning Stage

Participating in ecotourism planning will help the local community to take provision for their future active and full participation particularly in decision making, benefit sharing and evaluation. It, to certain extent, assists them to feel empowered and develop sense of ownership through at least recommending what sort of activities should be considered for effective ecotourism planning. Nevertheless, according to Okazaki (2008), the imperativeness of local community participation in the tourism planning for the implementation of sustainable tourism is often not noted by many stakeholders.

The study result indicated, on figure 1, that 29.4% of the respondents did not totally participate to shape the ecotourism style while more than one-fourth of the sample respondents took part occasionally in planning at the lowest level. Nearly one-fifth of respondents fairly participated in ecotourism planning. The remaining inconsiderable number of respondents highly participated constituting 18.6% to galvanize local economies through shaping ecotourism at the very early planning stage. Although scholars like Ross and Wall (1999b) believe that ecotourism can best be developed when local community participate in planning process, the reality at Wonchi ecotourism is far from this with 50% to 60% of local community had no or a marginalized role in this ecotourism participation index which is in line with Murphy's (1985) assertion that local communities lacked control over their destinies where tourism planning became the top-down approach. However, according to Cambell and Marshall (2000), there seems to be difficult to make decision easily in planning when local community participates in.

Participation in Decision Making

Many scholars argue for that the participation level of local community in the development project including ecotourism is very poor in developing countries. The absenteeism of local community participation in planning stage might affect highly their participation in decision making. Figure 2 indicated here.

There were more than two fold of respondents who did have little or no participation in decision making than those who had voice in this stage. In a manner of speaking, as many as 35.3% of sample households, including all female head of households, stated that they had no role totally in making decision regarding the growth and style of ecotourism development in their village while only 7.9% of respondents participated at the highest level, though. On the other hand, 37.3% of respondents poorly participated in decision making. In other words, their influence in decision making was very much limited. The remaining that constitute about one-fifth of the sample households (19.6%) have had a moderate stake in decision making process. In the decision making process of Wonchi Crater Lake ecotourism, which is dominated by the elites, majority of the local community members have no or limited voices though they are the ones that are positively and negatively affected by the ecotourism development in their village. This result was consistent with the report outcome which stated that in developing countries, local community participation in tourism decision-making processes is considerably

minimal (Dola and Mijan, 2006). Teye et al (2000) further stated that the exclusion of local community from planning, decision making and the overall management is a common practice in developing countries where the traditional top-down development approach is used. Such limited representation of local community in planning and decision making processes, apparently, can hinder the growth of tourism (Safari et al. 2015).

Participation in Ecotourism Business Activities

The local people highly participated in ecotourism implementation of business activities than any other participation areas as generation of income was the first order of precedence for most indigents. Although locals participate to the greater extent in implementation and benefit sharing, their participation is not yet at spontaneous level as this level, according to Tosun (2000), requires a self-motivated and fully empowered community. It's difficult for local communities in developing countries like Ethiopia to have a genuine spontaneous participation level soon in the development, for they need to be empowered to take the initiatives themselves. This clearly reveals that the local community in the study area has induced level of participation, getting highly engaged in implementation and in sharing benefits of ecotourism development than in decision making and evaluation.

The survey result was consistent with the statement that local community participation in the management and implementation of ecotourism can help to increase the income of the local people themselves (Baksh et al., 2012). But, participating merely in the implementation activities does not ensure the sustainability of ecotourism in the area unless the locals are empowered to actively and fully participate in even other indicators so as to reflect the interest of the wider diverse groups of the community members. In this regard, majority of the respondents were actively participating in different ecotourism business activities with few exceptions. Numerically, only 15.7% of respondents were poorly engaged in ecotourism business activities, as it's shown in figure 3a.

Main Ecotourism Business Activities

There were very limited functional ecotourism business activities operated by the local community in Wonchi ecotourism. With this limitation, nearly three-fourth of the respondents participated in horse renting which constitutes 59.4% of the total business activities while tour guiding service accounted for 15.6%. Likewise, home stay service and souvenir sales, which tourists occasionally interested in, boat service and honey production & sales were also the functional ecotourism business activities at Wonchi following one another in order of importance. More than half of the total participant people provided horse renting service. That is, horse renting was the largest ecotourism business activity in having numerous members of service providers. Figure 3b indicated here.

Participation in Benefit Sharing

Participation in benefit sharing is also significantly decisive for the local community in order to ensure that they are sharing the fair monetary and/or non-monetary benefits with their other counterparts. According to Scheyvens (2000), unless the ecotourism development exerts attempt to empower the local community through having some measures of control over ecotourism development and sharing equitably in any benefits deriving therefrom, it should not be considered 'successful'.

In this respect, the lion share of the participant sample households perceived that they were actively participating in monetary benefit sharing process than other concerned stakeholders. By the same token, about 70.6% of the respondents participated in guaranteeing the fair and equitable benefit sharing at the most satisfactory levels while poor participation level was claimed by more than one-fourth of respondents (29.4%). Importantly, participant sample women households were, to some extent, participating in benefit sharing which ecotourism has brought. Figure 4 indicated here.

Local Community Participation in Ecotourism Evaluation

As it's clearly indicated in figure 5, majority of the respondents did not totally take part in ecotourism evaluation process accounting for 47.1%. In this participation indicator, no sample women head of households took part. To this end, with the exception of about one-tenth, the remaining all sample households have very low or no participation in the evaluation of ecotourism development performance.

In addition to the above mechanism to identify the level of community participation in the development of WCLE, the sample respondents were also asked with further cross-examination. The result observed from table 2 clearly presents that majority of the sample households responded that they were only told what sort of activities have changed or would change without any consultation while their fewer counterparts could get the chance to be consulted on ecotourism development issues though the decisions were finally made by somebody else. The local community did not know the present success of WCLE because of their failure to participate in evaluation program. However, Hall (2000) is of the opinion that evaluation has equivalent relevance with

decision-making process to determine the future sustainability of ecotourism. Local community should be empowered so as to have meaningful participation in development. Despite the significance of consultation, they have to participate in decision making too in order to ensure that their feelings and interests are reflected. They are the ones whose livelihoods are affected by the style and growth of ecotourism in their village.

Capacity Building

The participation of local community in the development of ecotourism is one of the most secret reasons for its sustainability. However, the local indigenous people do not know even where to begin and how to participate in. As a result, empowerment of local community through effective capacity building such as the provision of education and training enables them particularly the low income group for active and full participation in the sector so as to contribute for the elevation of their wellbeing and conservation of both cultural and natural resources. Thus, the local community should be aware of how the stakeholders participation particularly themselves determine the sustainability of ecotourism. Alemneh (2003) and Mulugeta (2010) asserted the importance of human resource development through the provision of training for the community members so as to contribute for community empowerment. However, from the survey result, half of the participant households have never taken any training that would help them to actively participate in the development and to get empowered.

Seemingly, the local community should know that their participation is the backbone for the success of development that affects their livelihoods. In this respect, the awareness creation and education program have to be organized in the way that fits the capacity level of the locals. This particular development project had no cooperation with educational institutions to do so efficiently.

In line with this, about one-fifth of the sample households who had taken training believed that the training has not built a significant capacity for them while the remaining majority had the opposite stance. Similarly, about 60% of the sample households have recognized the visible difference of their participation level in ecotourism activity after attending the training while the remaining 40% of respondents have found no change and even a decline after the training.

Furthermore, the statistical significant difference between those who took and did not take training for the last two years in terms of their participation level in ecotourism planning and decision making, areas that even determine participation of locals in other participation indices, was run. As per the result of ANOVA table 3, no participation level difference in planning was observed between those who took training and did not take any training about ecotourism for the last two years though the average mean of the later (3.42) exceeded their counterparts whose mean is 2.96, $F(1, 49) = 1.296, P > .05$. Likewise, those who were trained with a lesser average mean ($M=4.2$ to $M= 4.69$) did not differ from the rest in their participation level in decision making process. This was statistically shown, $F(1, 49) = 1.584, P > .05$.

This was perhaps due to the inappropriateness and irrelevance of the content of the training. The information gained from interview with key informants other than locals has justified that because of lack of linkage with training providers such as educational institutions, significant and relevant training particularly regarding the business of ecotourism (but not conservation of environment) has not been given to the locals. Besides, the result is consistent with the unpublished finding of Abiot (2010) that presented the training was given to the local community of Wonchi with insufficiency and inequitable distribution. However, it seemed that those who got the opportunity to share experience from other ecotourism sites in the country could have better participated in ecotourism activities than before. The wonchi ecotourism association has not encouraged and supported the local community to participate in ecotourism activity.

Challenges and Opportunities of Local Community Participation

For a successful community participation in development, the beneficiaries should be encouraged to have a voice on what matters their development through mobilizing their own resources, defining their own needs, and making their own decisions about how to meet them (Stone, 1989). Nevertheless, there are several factors that limit community participation in the development of ecotourism. This study has gone toward assessing the typology of local community participation in ecotourism development, coupled with identifying the challenges that hinder locals from participation. It should be noted that the political and socio-economic structures and other factors highly influence the mode of typology of local community participation in development. Specifically in the development of WCLE, majority of the local community members could not participate due to such major factors as economic limitation and other productive assets, lack of information, elite dominance, age, and lack of appropriate legal system. Over all, these challenges were discussed by Tosun (2000) under the broad categories of operational, structural and cultural limitations. On the contrary, devolution of rights, enough income and productive assets such as horse and boat, good awareness and knowledge were the desirable factors that promoted locals to participate in Wonchi ecotourism development. Added to this, some of the sample respondents had abandoned other livelihood activities after they had begun participating in ecotourism. As a

result, they were entitled with plenty of time to participate in ecotourism though this was not the only factor for having enough time.

Conclusion

The costs and benefits of ecotourism are not equitably distributed among local community in the study area, for some community members have no a family member that participate in this ecotourism development to enjoy its direct benefits while the others could participate with more family members in even various ecotourism business activities. Shortly, diverse groups of community members are not participating in development of WCLE that would concern their livelihoods directly and/or indirectly. Comparatively, almost all women are totally overlooked by ecotourism development.

Besides, there are very limited ecotourism business activities practiced in the area where the local community particularly women could possibly participate. In this manner, no attempt has recently been made to widen the range of different ecotourism activities in the study area where tourists spend their money simultaneously the locals could derive benefits through their participation.

However, the local community around Wonchi could highly participate in existing ecotourism business activities with insignificant voice in other ecotourism participation areas. By and large, the participation of local community in planning, decision making and evaluation of ecotourism is extremely poor. Thereby, large number of sample households did not have the power to decide on the styles and growth of ecotourism that affect their livelihoods and even they did not know the status quo of their association. Majority simply accepted decisions made for them by others. This is explicitly substantiated by implausible dominance of elites in the development.

The spontaneous participation represents the participation of local community in all participation indices while the coercive participation allows community to merely participate in the implementation process of the development (Tosun, 2000). Granted this, though it is not easy to accurately define the border between the different forms of community participation in the major categories (ibid), the participation level of local community in the development of WCLE is found at induced level of Tosun's typology of participation with similar position at the lower rungs of the degree of tokenism of Arnstein's ladder of citizen's participation where the have-nots actively participate in implementation and benefit sharing than other participation indices.

Acknowledgement

I thank Dr. Mulugeta Fesseha for his constructive ideas for the quality of this research. I owe my deepest gratitude to my beloved wife, Betelhem Daniel, for her courage and patience in taking care of our baby, Mati Nafbek (Hananu), alone the moment I got busy, and for cheering me up to develop this study. Thanks also go to all anonymous contributors.

Reference

- Abu Samah A, Aref F. (2009). Empowerment as an Approach for Community Development in Malaysia. *World Rural Observations*, 1(2), 63-68.
- Alemneh, D. (2003). *Integrated Natural Resources Management to Enhance Food Security: The Case for Community-Based Approaches in Ethiopia*. FAO, Technical Paper NO.16, Rome.
- Anandaraj, M. (2015). Ecotourism: Origin and Development. *International Journal of Management and Humanities*, 02(01), 2349-7289.
- Aref F, Redzuan M. (2009). Community Capacity Building for Tourism Development. *J Hum Ecol*, 27(1): 21-25.
- Aref F, Redzuan M. (2008). Barriers to Community Participation toward Tourism Development in Shiraz. *Pakistan Journal of Social Science*, 5 (9), 936-940.
- Arnstein R. (1969). A Ladder of Citizen Participation. *JAIP* 35(4): 216-224.
- Baksh R, Soemarno, Hakim L, Nugroho, I. (2012). Community Participation in the Development of Ecotourism: A Case Study in Tambaksari Village, East Java Indonesia. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research*, 2(12), 12432-12437.
- Cambell H, Marshall R. (2000). Public Involvement and Planning: Looking beyond the One to the Many. *International Planning Studies* 5(3), 321-344.
- Chang M, Gunnarsdotter Y. (2012). Local Community Participation in Ecotourism and Conservation Issues in Two Nature Reserves in Nicaragua. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(8), 1025-1043.
- Cusak D, Dixon L. (2006). Community Based Ecotourism and Sustainability. *Journal of Sustainable Forestry*, 22(1), 157- 182.
- Dola K, Mijan D. (2006). Public Participation in Planning for Sustainable Development: Operational Questions and Issues. *Intl. J. on Sustainable Tropical Design Research & Practice*, 1(1), 1-8.
- Eshliki S, Kaboudi M. (2011). Community perception of Tourism Impacts and Their Perception in Tourism Planning: A Case Study of Ramsar, Iran. *Procedia- Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 36(2012), 333-341.

- Garrod B. (2003). *Local Participation in the Planning and Management of Ecotourism: A Revised Model Approach*. University of the West England.
- Ishmael M, Adofo E. 2012. Community Participation in Ecotourism: The Case of Bobiri Forest Reserve and Butterfly Sanctuary in Ashanti Region of Ghana. *American Journal of Tourism Management* 2(1A): 34-42.
- Israel, D. (1992). *Sampling, the Evidence of Extension Program Impact, Evaluation and Organizational Development*. IFAS: University of Florida.
- Jamal B, Getz D. (1999). Community Roundtables for Tourism-related Conflicts: The Dialectics of Consensus and Process Structures. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 7 (3-4), 290-313.
- Joppe M. (1996). Sustainable Community Tourism Development Revisited. *Journal of Tourism Management*, 17 (7), 475-479.
- Müller G. (2000). Ecotourism: An Economic Concept for Ecological Sustainable Tourism. *International Journal of Environmental Studies*, 57(3), 241- 251.
- Mulugeta F. (2010). Participatory community-based ecotourism for the future of Ethiopia: The case of Adwa, Ethiopia.
- Murphy P. (1985). *Tourism: A Community Approach*. Mathuen, New York and London: Matheun and Co.Ltd.
- Okazaki E. (2008). A Community-Based Tourism Model: Its Conception and Use. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(5), 511- 529.
- Ross S, Wall G. (1999b). Ecotourism: Towards Congruence between Theory and Practice. *Tourism Management*, 20(1999), 123-132.
- Safari J, Gowele V, Lwelamira J. 2015. Involvement in Tourism Activities and Perceived Benefits in Communities around Udzungwa Mountain National Park in Tanzania. *American Journal of Environmental Protection* 4(3): 120-126.
- Scheyvens R. (1999). Ecotourism and the Empowerment of Local Community. *Tourism Management*, 20(2), 245-249.
- Scheyvens R. (2000). Promoting Women's Empowerment through Involvement in Ecotourism: Experiences from the Third World. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 8(3),232-249.
- Southgate J. (2006). Ecotourism in Kenya: The Vulnerability of Communities. *Journal of Ecotourism*, 5(1), 80 — 96.
- Teye V, Sonmez S, Sirakaya E. (2002). Resident Attitudes toward Tourism Development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(3), 668-688.
- Tosun C. (1999). Towards a Typology of Community Participation in the Tourism Development Process, *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 10(2), 113-134.
- Tosun C. (2000). Limits to Community Participation in the Tourism Development Process in Developing Countries. *Tourism Management*, 21(6), 613-633.
- Tsaur S, Lin Y, Lin J. (2006). Evaluating ecotourism sustainability from the integrated perspective of resource, community and tourism. *Tourism Management*, 27(4), 640-653.
- UNECA. (2011). *Ecotourism in the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) Region. An untapped potential with considerable Socio-economic Opportunities*.
- Wang H, Tong M. (2009). Research on Community Participation in Environmental Management of Ecotourism. *International journal of business and management*, 4(3), 131-135.
- Wood E. (2002). *Ecotourism: Principles, Practices and Policies for Sustainability: United Nations Environment Programmed, Division of Technology, Industry and Economics*. First edition.
- World Tourism Organization. (2001). *Compendium of Tourism Statistics*. Available from <http://www.world-tourism.org/facts/eng/highlights/htm>. Accessed on 10 January 2014.
- WTO, UN Women. (2010). *Global Report on Women in Tourism 2010: Preliminary Findings*.
- WTTC. (2014). *Travel and Tourism: Economic Impact 2014 Ethiopia*.
- WWF International. (2001). *Guidelines for Community Based Ecotourism Development*.

List of Table

Table 1 Typology of Community Participation

	Citizen Control	}	Degrees of Citizen Power	Spontaneous Participation	
	Delegated Power				
	Partnership	}	Degrees of Citizen Tokenism		Induced Participation
	Placation				
	Consultation	}	Non- Participation	Coercive Participation	
	Informing				
	Therapy	}	Non- Participation		Coercive Participation
	Manipulation				

Source; Arnstein (1969) and Tosun (2011)

Table 2 Demographic background of respondents (Source: Field survey, 2014)

Variables	Options	Frequency	Percent
Sex	Male	57	87.7
	Female	8	12.3
	Total	65	100.0
Marital Status	Married	53	81.5
	Widowed	4	6.2
	Single	8	12.3
	Total	65	100.0
Size of Family	1-4	25	38.5
	>=5	40	61.5
	Total	65	100.0
Education	Illiterate	10	15.4
	Literate (read, write)	55	84.6
	Total	65	100.0

Table 3 Participation level difference in planning and decision making between trained and untrained participants

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Participation in Planning	Between Groups	2.733	1	2.733	1.296	0.26
	Within Groups	103.306	49	2.108		
	Total	106.039	50			
Participation in decision making	Between Groups	3.089	1	3.089	1.584	0.214
	Within Groups	95.538	49	1.95		
	Total	98.627	50			

Source: Field survey, 2014

Table 4 Extent of Community Participation (Source: Field survey, 2014)

Variables	Response					Total
	SA	A	NO	DA	SD	
	%	%	%	%	%	
I am only told what is going to happen or have already happened	23.5	39.2		19.6	17.6	100.0
I am sometimes consulted but decision is made by other at the end of the day	17.6	17.6		33.3	31.4	100.0
I do not know how successful the project is at present	31.4	13.7	15.7	19.6	19.6	100.0
I have control over the growth and style of ecotourism	7.8	29.4	2.0	19.6	41.2	100.0

*SA= Strongly Agree; A= Agree; NO= No Opinion; DA= Disagree; SD= Strongly Disagree

Table 5 Respondents took ecotourism training for the last two years

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Have you taken training about ecotourism for the last two years?	Yes	25	49.0	49.0
	No	26	51.0	51.0
	Total	51	100.0	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2014

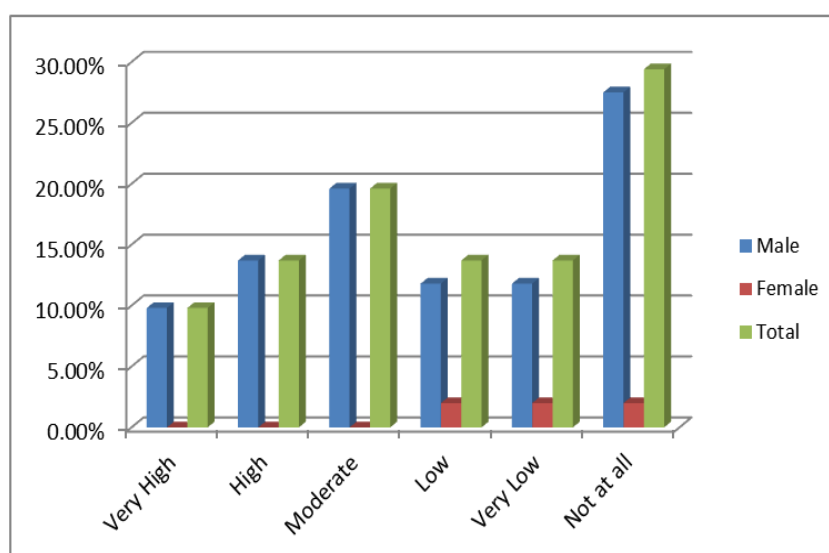
Table 6 Participation after training

	Frequency	Percent
Very high	7	28
High	6	24
Moderate	2	8
Unchanged	9	36
Low	1	4
Total	25	100

Source: Field survey, 2014

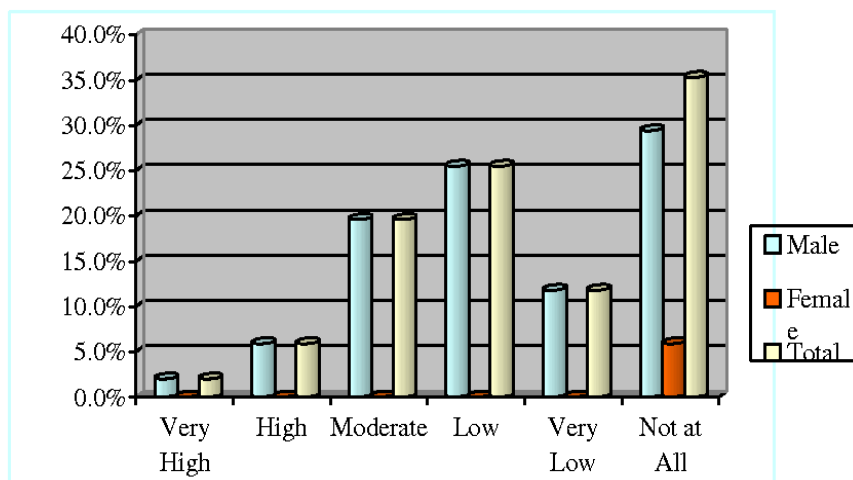
List of Figures

Figure 1 Community participation in ecotourism planning



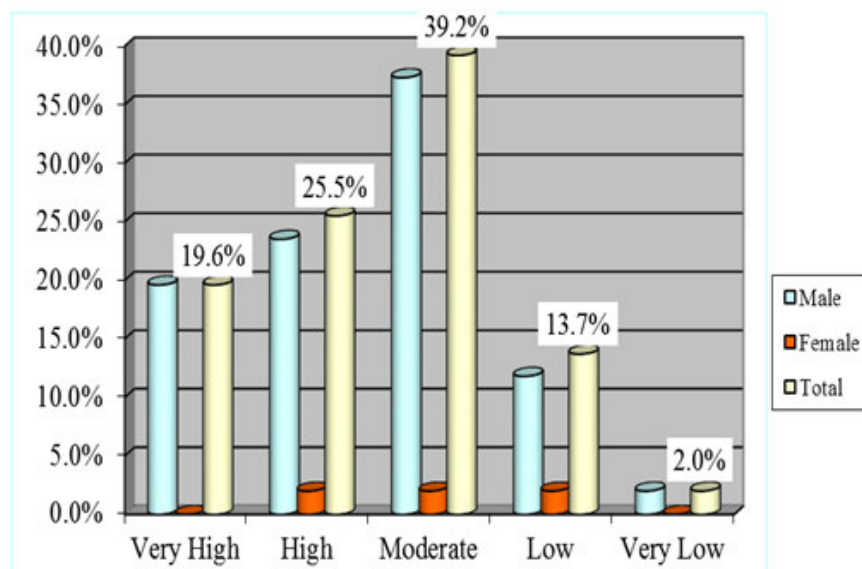
Source: Field survey, 2014

Figure 2 Community participation in decision making



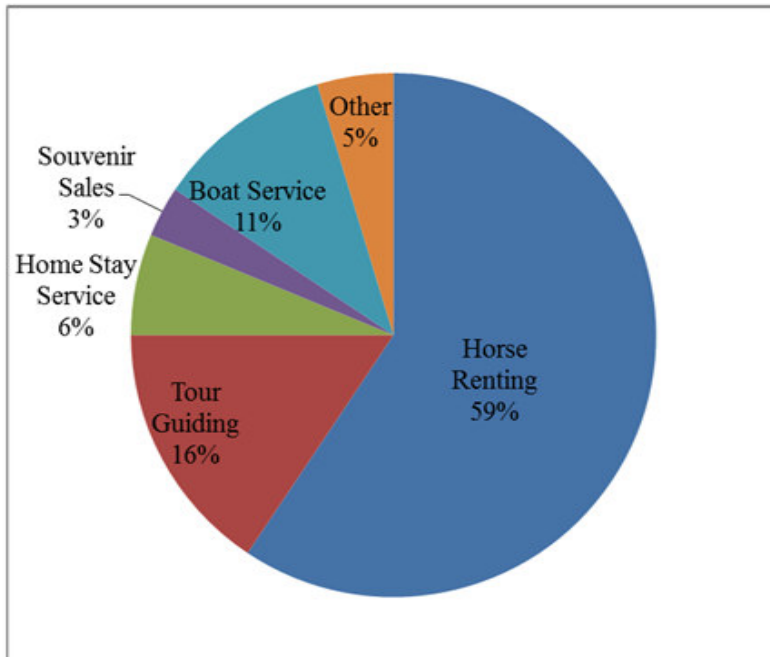
Source: Field survey, 2014

Figure 3a Community participation in ecotourism implementation



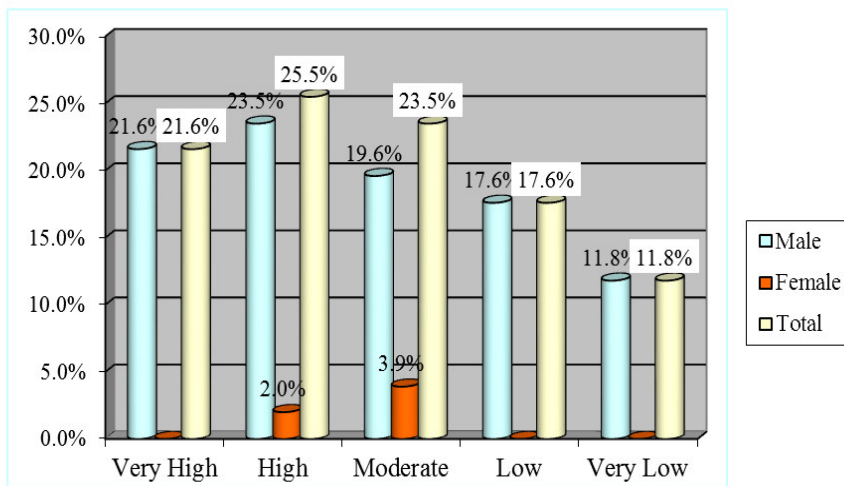
Source: Field survey, 2014

Figure 3b WCLE business activities



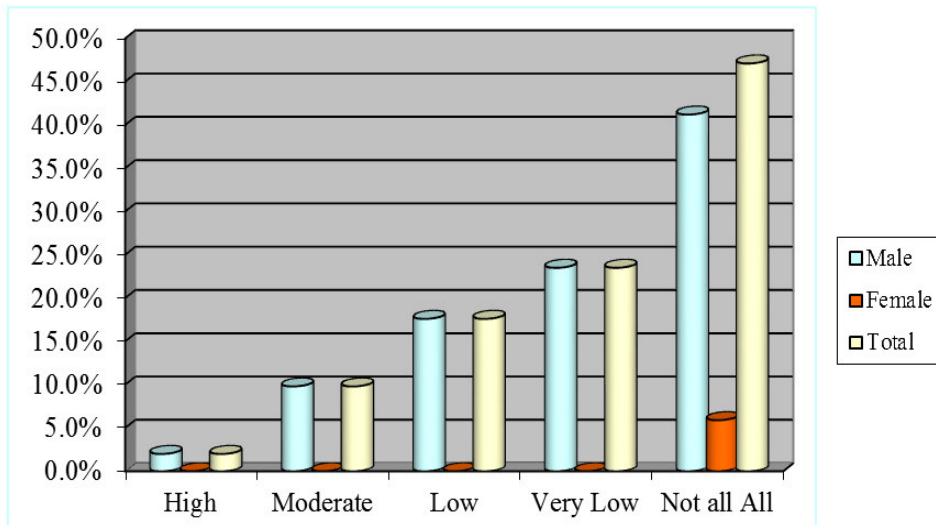
Source: Field survey, 2014

Figure 4 Community participation in ecotourism benefits sharing



Source: Field survey, 2014

Figure 5 Community participation in ecotourism evaluation



Source: Field survey, 2014