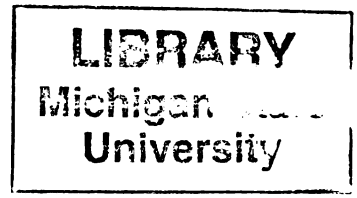

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Sudhiani Pratiwi

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Dennis B. Propst

Major professor

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UNDERSTANDING LOCAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF SELECT PUBLISHED LITERATURE

By

Sudhiani Pratiwi

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ABSTRACT

UNDERSTANDING LOCAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF SELECT PUBLISHED LITERATURE

By

Sudhiani Pratiwi

Ecotourism is a form of tourism that combines conservation and development goals. Many factors influence the relative success of ecotourism in accomplishing these goals. One of the factors is the nature and extent to which local communities are involved in such projects.

This study examined local community participation with regard to ecotourism development by identifying the source and nature of project goals, levels of participation in which communities were involved and characteristics of the participants. Information was collected from written materials. In particular, seventy-three case studies were gathered from various sources of published literature and from correspondence with three international nongovernmental organizations (NGO's). These case studies were then reviewed and content analyzed.

Results indicated that the goal of most ecotourism projects in the case studies was to empower the community. However, in most of the case studies the source of the project goal was outsider driven and community members were involved only in process nominal and action initiation levels of participation. In addition, in terms of the representation of community members, participation most often reflected "by the road " and "elite" biases. Recommendations for policy, planning and future research are provided.

This study is dedicated to those whose existence and voices have been ignored and whose innocence have been used for the advantages of others.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Although conservation and development are often at odds, ecotourism has become a way for developing countries to achieve both conservation and development goals. There are many factors influencing the relative success of ecotourism in accomplishing these goals. One of the factors may be the nature and the extent to which local communities are involved in such projects.

Ecotourism is a form of tourism that should be both environmentally responsible and potentially beneficial to local people (Wood et al., 1991). In fact, the involvement of the local community in ecotourism projects has become an important issue in development studies (Furze et al., 1997). For example, Wall and Ross (1998) suggest that ecotourism can be used as a tool to achieve the goals of resource conservation and local development if it is effectively managed and incorporates local communities, non-governmental organizations (NGO's), conservation agencies and development assistance agencies.

While many ecotourism projects have been developed in or near protected areas such as national parks, protected forests, and natural reserves (Furze et al., 1997; Gurung, 1995), these areas usually exclude the local population who may depend on the natural resources in those areas (Gurung, 1995). This approach creates a conflict between local populations and other parties involved in the projects. As a result, both sides have experienced adversity, such as a lack of access to resources for local people and a lack of support from the local community for the projects.

Yet, local communities can contribute to the success of ecotourism projects by sharing their knowledge about the local areas, participating in conservation programs, and providing human resources (Davis, 1993; Furze et al., 1997; Saunier & Meganck, 1995). At the same time, local communities can benefit from projects through employment opportunities, improved social conditions and continued access to local resources.

While participation of a local community increases the chances of an ecotourism project being successful, problems remain with how participation is conceptualized and practiced. For example, Drake (1991) defined community participation as the capability of local communities to be involved in projects that will affect their lives. However, Rahnema (1992) cautioned that participation is not always used to benefit a local community. He has pointed to a number of ways in which the term "participation" has been deployed, including as a meaningless term to manipulate local people into accepting government programs that meet the objectives of the national government but that may, in fact, conflict with those of the local community. The term has also been used to attract funding from donors but without any real effort to implement a participatory element into a development project. There also is the ploy to project the image that by being labeled participatory a project will avoid the mistakes of past non-participatory projects (Rahnema, 1992). In all of these cases, participation has been used in name only, with no substantive form.

In contrast, Chambers (1995) points to different ways in which participation is put into practice, although participatory projects may benefit certain groups while excluding others. For example, he indicates that participatory projects often reflect a "by the road

bias" in which those who live nearest the project participate and benefit while those living somewhat more distant do not. The other examples are "elite bias" and "male bias." Elite bias describes participation that includes only those people who have power and money, such as political or religious leaders, farmers using modern agricultural methods and materials, and those with social connections to strategic institutional structures, while the poorest and more powerless people are excluded. Male bias is used to describe the situation in which participants are primarily men, with women's roles limited or non-existent.

McDonough and Wheeler (1998) discuss the importance of categorizing community participation based on behaviors, activities and goals. According to these authors, participatory behaviors and activities "vary along a spectrum anchored at one end by provision of labor for project implementation and at the other by projects where local communities control all project features from objectives to outcomes" (McDonough & Wheeler, 1998). Similarly, perceptions of project goals vary. Those they reviewed (Dudley, 1993 cited in McDonough and Wheeler, 1998; Lane, 1995 cited in McDonough and Wheeler, 1998; Nagel, 1992 cited in McDonough and Wheeler, 1998) contend that community participation goals can be either viewed "as a means", "an end", or a "hybrid reality." Participation as a means refers to participation that is used to accomplish project goals. Examples include the use of physical labor to reduce labor costs and community management of projects. Thus, the focus tends to be on the use of communities as technical assistance to accomplish externally determined goals (Dudley, 1993 cited in McDonough and Wheeler, 1998). Participation as an end refers to participation where empowerment and capacity building of the community are project goals. Thus, the focus

is on community development and community members are typically involved in the decision-making process from beginning to end (Lane, 1995 cited in McDonough and Wheeler, 1998). Participation as a hybrid reality refers to participation that has the characteristics of both "as a means" and "an end" no matter what the initial plan (Nagel, 1992 cited in McDonough and Wheeler, 1998).

Variations in how participation is conceptualized and practiced lead to questions pertaining to the kind of participation used in practice. What is the source and nature of project goals? In what levels of participation are communities usually involved? How are authority and responsibility shared? Who is involved in ecotourism development projects? Since most research to date on community participation in ecotourism development has not clearly addressed these questions, further study is needed.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the nature and extent of local community participation in international ecotourism development projects. The study aims to address the question, where on the spectrum of participation do most ecotourism projects fall? Through a review of ecotourism case studies, views and experiences about how communities have participated in ecotourism projects are identified and described. Whether or not the type of participation practiced in the case studies corresponds to the type of participation called for in the ecotourism literature also is analyzed critically.

Beneficiaries

This study builds on previous research concerning ecotourism and community participation. The results and discussion sections of this study may assist decision makers in creating more effective policies concerning ecotourism development. Furthermore, the views and experiences of local communities from all over the world presented in this study can help other local communities understand the implications of various types and levels of participation. These communities may also learn how to be more involved in ecotourism development. In addition, this study may be used as preliminary research for future empirical studies on ecotourism and community participation.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This study investigates the nature and extent of local community participation in international ecotourism development projects. The literature review includes definitions and concepts of ecotourism, a comparison between ecotourism and tourism, the theoretical basis for community participation, a discussion of the need for community participation in ecotourism development, a description of advantages and disadvantages of community participation, definitions and concepts of community participation and definitions and characteristics of communities. Based on the literature reviewed, the kinds of community participation that are suitable for ecotourism projects are discussed, followed by the problem statement and objectives of the study.

Ecotourism: Definitions and Concepts

The term ecotourism emerged in the early 1980s. It has been used for many purposes such as to label the growth of the number of tourists visiting natural areas, as a marketing tool and to refer to a form of tourism development that integrated the goals of development and conservation. At that time, there was no specific definition of ecotourism.

In 1988, the first definition of ecotourism was introduced by Ceballos-Lascurain (Allcock et al., 1994 cited in Furze et al., 1997; Mitchell, 1998; Wall & Ross, 1998). He defined the term as

> traveling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild

> plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas. (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1988 cited in Mitchell, 1998)

By the mid 1990s, at least four parties contributed to the development of the ecotourism concept by attaching different goals based on their own interests (Lindberg et al., 1998). First, the tourism industry viewed ecotourism is an effective marketing tool to attract visitors to natural and cultural areas. Second, economic development professionals viewed ecotourism as a means to provide employment in areas that lack other forms of resource development. Third, conservation and resource management professionals viewed ecotourism as a way to gain revenue to finance conservation programs and as an educational tool to promote conservation programs. Finally, those who are concerned about the negative impact of tourism development on the environment saw a need to promote the sustainability of tourism resources and development.

Those now affiliated with ecotourism research and development define the concept further. For example, the Ecotourism Society defines ecotourism as:

> purposeful travel to natural areas to understand the culture and the natural history of the environment; taking care not to alter the integrity of the ecosystem; producing economic opportunities that make the conservation of the natural resources beneficial to the local people. (Wood et al., 1991)

The International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) describes ecotourism as

> environmentally responsible travel and visitation to relatively undisturbed natural areas, in order to enjoy and appreciate nature (and any accompanying cultural features – both past and present) that promotes conservation, has low visitor impact, and provides for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local populations. (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996)

The Federation of Nature and National Parks of Europe in 1993 describes ecotourism as

> all forms of tourism development, management and activity, which maintains the environment, social and economic integrity and well being of natural, built and cultural resources in perpetuity. (Furze et al., 1997)

Ecotourism is also defined as a form of tourism activity which entails the non-consumptive use of resources (Furze et al., 1997). Wall and Ross (1998) view ecotourism as an approach to protecting natural areas through the generation of revenues, the establishment of environmental education and the involvement of the local community.

In terms of facilities, Ceballos-Lascurain (1996) and Boo (1990) suggest that ecotourism should use environmentally friendly technologies and local resources. Ceballos-Lascurain (1996) uses the term "ecotechniques" to express the type of technology that should be used in ecotourism:

> Ecotechniques should be used whenever possible. Such techniques include: solar energy, capture and utilization of rain water, recycling of waste, natural cross ventilation (instead of air conditioning), self-sufficiency in food production (through use of orchards, "ecological farms", aquaculture, etc.), use of underground wiring, use of locally available building materials and native technology, and the blending of architectural shapes with the natural environment.

From the definitions, it can be inferred that there are several aspects of ecotourism. First, the tourist engaged in ecotourism should like to travel to natural and cultural environments and be willing to learn about and appreciate local cultures and local areas. Second, ecotourism usually takes place in natural and sometimes protected areas and/or cultural environments. Third, in terms of activity, ecotourism should promote environmental education and a nonconsumptive use of resources with a low impact on the environment. Fourth, its facilities should use environmentally friendly technologies and local resources. Fifth, as a new development approach, ecotourism

allows a combination of economic growth and conservation goals in its development. Sixth, the development process of ecotourism should minimize negative impacts on society and the environment and foster the active involvement of local communities. Finally, ecotourism is expected to bring economic benefit to the local communities (Figure 1).

Despite the "positive" meanings of ecotourism, some people believe that the term has been used for marketing purposes and for the justification of the exploitation of tourism resources in protected areas. In other words, the conservation goals are merely a ploy. For instance, Wight (1993) contends

> any terms prefixed with the term 'eco' will increase interest and sales. Thus, in the last few years there has been a proliferation of advertisements in the travel field with references such as ecotour, ecotravel, ecovacation, ecologically sensitive adventures, eco(ad)ventures, ecocruise, ecosafari, ecoexpedition and, of course, ecotourism.

Berle (1990 cited in Orams, 1995) argues that

> ecotourism also threatens to destroy the resources on which it depends. Tour boats dump garbage in the waters off Antarctica, shutterbugs harass wildlife in National Parks, hordes of us trample fragile areas. This frenzied activity threatens the viability of natural systems. At times we seem to be loving nature to death.

Ecotourism and Tourism Compared

Tourism has also been defined in many ways. For example, it has been called a phenomenon of relationships between such actors as tourists, businesses, governments and host communities (McIntosh et al., 1994). It is viewed also as a form of industry that attracts visitors and satisfies their needs and meets their expectations (van Hassel, 1994 cited in Mitchell, 1998). In addition, it is also regarded as an "evolutionary process"

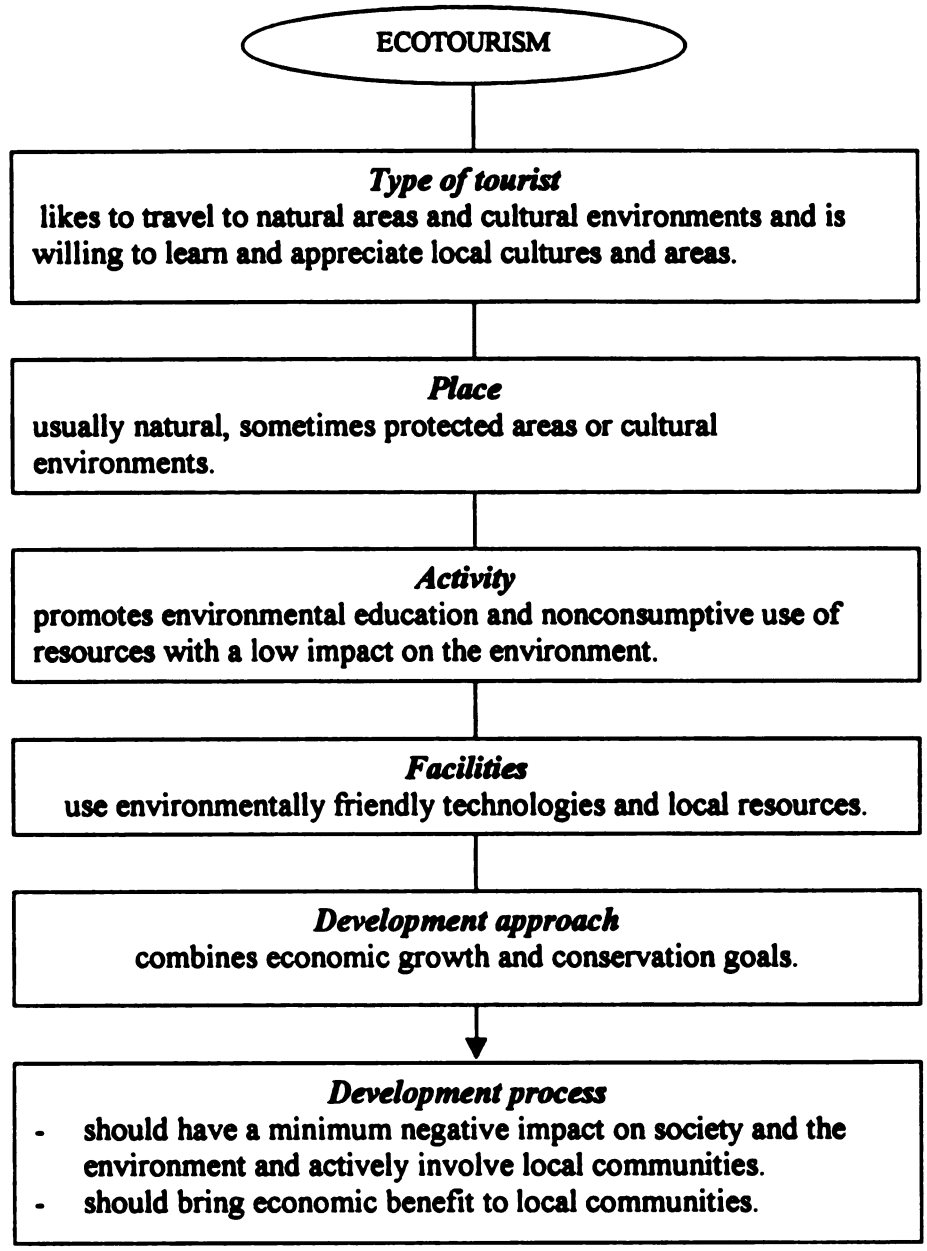

Figure 1. Characteristics of ecotourism

related to tourist activity (Noronha, 1976 cited in Gartner, 1996).

As an evolutionary process, Noronha (1976 cited in Gartner, 1996) describes three stages of tourism development. The first is the discovery of destinations by tourists. The second is the construction of tourism facilities and services by government agencies, local communities and/or private agencies. The last stage is the creation of a complete and formal tourism business activity which could be run by government agencies, private enterprises and/or local communities.

Butler (1980) argues that tourism evolves in six stages: exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation and rejuvenation. Butler's exploration is equivalent to Noronha (1976 cited in Gartner, 1996). In Noronha's first stage, exploration, the tourism destination is found by tourists. In the involvement stage some parties such as government agencies, private enterprises, and host communities show an interest in providing tourism facilities. In the development stage, tourism facilities are developed extensively by the parties involved. It is also characterized by the emergence of advertising and promotion of the tourism destination. In the consolidation stage, the impact of tourism development is acknowledged, especially by the host communities. In the stagnation stage, the carrying capacity of the area has been reached meaning that the environment and society may not be able to accept further tourism development and that the interest of tourists in visiting the destination area has decreased. As a result of the stagnation stage, rejuvenation occurs. In this last stage, the number of tourists may increase, become stable or decline depending on the uniqueness of the area.

Two major approaches to tourism development are prevalent in the literature: mass tourism and sustainable tourism development or "green tourism"(Butler, 1990).

Mass tourism development is characterized by the rapid development of tourism facilities where economic benefit is the main goal and environmental and social impact considerations are lacking (Butler, 1990; Gartner, 1996). It is also described as uncontrolled, unorganized and unplanned growth and development (Butler, 1990; Gartner, 1996).

Growing concerns about the degradation of the environment and society by tourism activities led to the emergence of a sustainable tourism development approach. It was inspired by the concept of sustainable development. As defined by World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), sustainable development is

> a process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development, and institutional change are made consistent with future as well as present needs. (WCED, 1987)

Sustainable tourism development is defined as

> a concept intended to reduce the reliance on short-term profits and shift it to long-term returns by protecting the resources which originally attracted tourists to the area. (Gartner, 1996)

In addition, it is further defined as

> a type of development that connects tourists and providers of tourists facilities and services with advocates of environmental protection and community residents and their leaders who desire a better quality of life. (McIntyre, 1993)

The previous definitions infer that sustainable tourism development is a development concept or approach that promotes conservation and development goals. There is also a future orientation to the approach whereby natural and cultural resources are protected, nourished and/or replenished before they are irretrievably degraded. In addition, this approach advocates the involvement of the host community.

Related to Butler's work on the evolution of tourism development, the emergence of sustainable tourism development is a reaction to the stages of consolidation and stagnation. The feeling is that sustainable tourism development may be able to minimize or avoid the negative impact of these stages.

The goals and approaches of sustainable tourism development may appear similar to the goals and approaches of ecotourism development (the main goal being to protect the resources while developing the areas). On the other hand, there are at least three differences between them. The first difference is the type of tourist. While the type of tourist in the sustainable tourism development is not specifically defined, the ecotourist is clearly defined as the tourist who likes to travel to natural and cultural areas and is willing to learn and appreciate the local culture and environment. The second difference is activity. The difference in the type of tourist leads to a difference in the type of activity. Although one of the goals of both sustainable tourism development and ecotourism is to conserve the environment, environmental education is not specifically promoted in sustainable tourism development. In ecotourism, education is part of the agenda. The third difference is the place in which tourism is developed. The sustainable tourism development concept could be applied anywhere, but ecotourism is usually developed in natural areas or cultural environments, especially in or near protected areas.

From the comparison, ecotourism could be labeled either a unique concept or a part of sustainable tourism development. Because the definitions are not noticeably different, it is often assumed that ecotourism development is part of sustainable tourism development. In fact, ecotourism has been considered a part of the sustainable tourism development approach, specifically applied to tourism that develops in natural and/or

protected areas (Figure 2). This assumption is supported by Gunn (1994) who states that " one current expression of sustainable development is called ecotourism."

Figure 1 notes that active community participation sets ecotourism apart from other types of development (e.g. industrial development). The basis and function of community participation in general is explained by three theories.

Theoretical Basis for Community Participation

Three different theories that can be used as a basis for understanding community participation are democratic theory, social mobilization theory and social exchange theory (Howell et al., 1987). Developed by eighteenth century political philosophers, the basic assumption of the democratic theory is that all community members should have equal rights to express their concern on the public issues that affect them. To achieve this type of community rights, opportunities to become involved should be provided by those with authority. If opportunities to become involved are not provided, it is unlikely that the community will show their interest and concern on public issues (Pateman, 1970 cited in Howell et al., 1987).

The basic assumption of social mobilization theory is that people who are involved in organizations or activities are more likely to be informed and to become aware of public issues (Olsen, 1982 cited in Howell et al., 1987). It is stated as follows:

> . . . people can be mobilized for political involvement through participation in all kinds of community activities or special interest associations: groups such as fraternal or service organizations, business or professional associations, labor unions, charitable or welfare agencies, educational groups, neighborhood associations, and recreational clubs. (Howell et al., 1987)

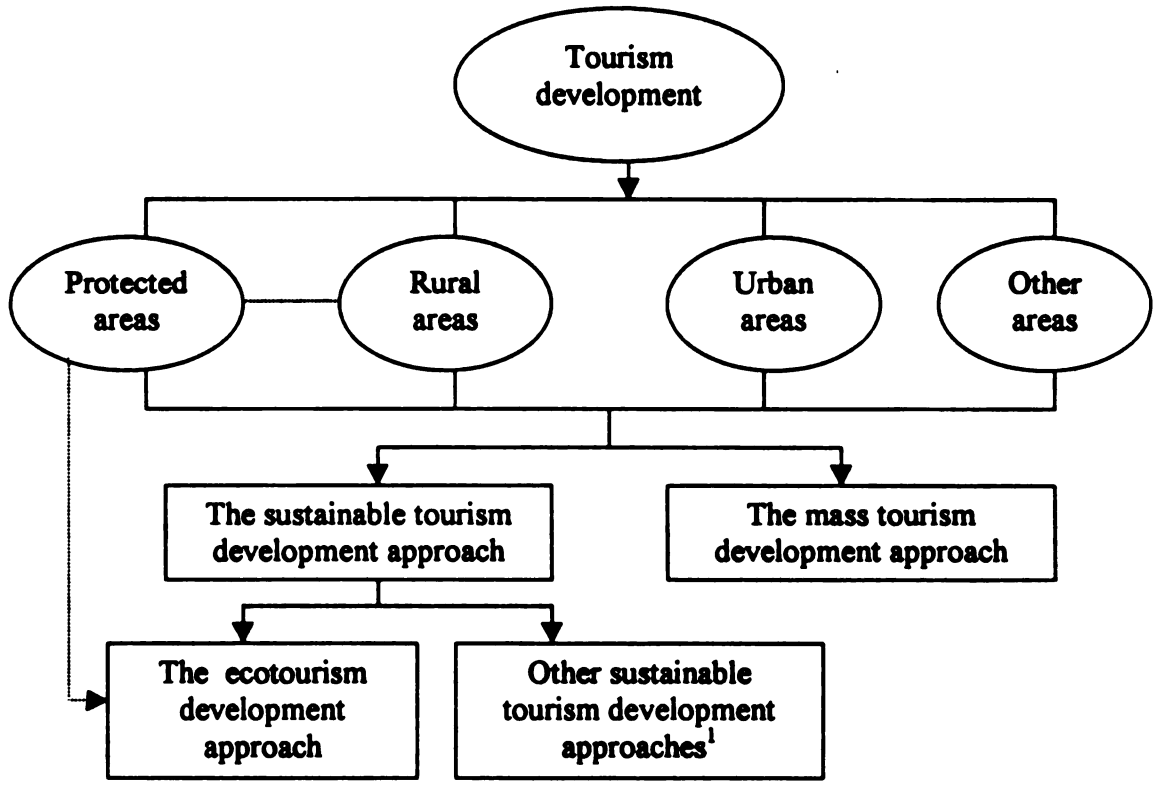

Figure 2. Ecotourism development in the context of tourism development

1 Sustainable rural tourism development such as agro-tourism and sustainable urban tourism development such as urban greening programs and historical site tourism development are examples of other sustainable tourism development approaches. The differences between these sustainable tourism development approaches and ecotourism development are the place in which tourism is developed and the focus of development.

This theory suggests that a new program or development project will receive more support if it is closely linked to the activities of existing groups or organizations in the community.

Finally, social exchange theory proposes that people usually participate in social activities to obtain benefits (Homans, 1961 and Blau, 1964 cited in Howell et al., 1987; Kelly, 1952). It is assumed that " if a particular social activity is not perceived as beneficial, an individual is not likely to engage in it unless coerced, or unless motivated by an overriding loyalty or altruism" (Howell et al., 1987). This theory suggests that three important factors must be established to initiate participation: minimize the costs, maximize the rewards and establish a mutual trust among the parties involved. In terms of the costs, time is the main cost that affects the effectiveness of the participation (Howell et al., 1987). In terms of the rewards, the most desired reward is the opportunity to influence the decision-making process (Howell et al., 1987). To establish a mutual trust among the parties involved, project managers must demonstrate their efforts and concern for public needs and wishes (Howell et al., 1987).

The need for community participation in planning and policymaking has emerged since the late 1960s (Sewell & Phillips, 1979). There are many reasons for this emergence. For example, Simmons (1994) contends that community members have the right to be involved in a development process that may affect them. In addition, community participation in the planning process provides a source of data, helps educate various publics and reinforces public acceptance of planning (Farrel et al., 1976 cited in Sewell & Phillips, 1979). Community participation is also a way to gain local support

(Drake, 1991; Simmons, 1994). In the following section, the need for community participation in ecotourism development is discussed.

Need for Local Community Participation in Ecotourism Development

The main goal of ecotourism development is the sustainability of natural resources and local economies (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Wall & Ross, 1998). Those affiliated with ecotourism research and development believe that the local community can play an important role in achieving this goal. For example, in terms of the conservation of natural resources, the local community can contribute to preliminary data collection by sharing their knowledge of the environment (Furze et al., 1997). The local community can also serve the role of local administrator or steward by maintaining and protecting the environment (Davis & Ebbe, 1993; Saunier & Meganck, 1995; Wall & Ross, 1998).

In terms of economic development, the project could use local resources (Boo, 1990). For example, the project may hire community members for many types of jobs depending on the capability of each member. The project may also use local sources to develop ecotourism including accommodations, facilities, food, and transportation. In addition, to control the impact of project development, the community may act as a local agent (Wall & Ross, 1998). Both the project and community members could benefit from this relationship.

The literature above supports the idea that the involvement of local communities relates to the successful achievement of ecotourism goals. It is assumed that the community could act as a steward to conserve biological diversity and natural resources

while performing as a local control for economic development and infrastructure to ensure that these developments do not exceed the carrying capacity of local environment (Wall and Ross, 1998). Adapted from Wall and Ross (1998), this relationship is illustrated in Figure 3.

The need for community participation in ecotourism development has been established. The remaining literature review examines advantages and disadvantages of community participation, definitions and concepts of participation, definitions and characteristics of the term "community", and the kind of participation called for in the ecotourism development literature.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Community Participation

There are several advantages of community participation in development projects. For example, community participation could promote community empowerment (McNeely, 1993 cited in Chambers & Ham, 1995; Oakley, 1991 cited in Robinson, 1996;). Through empowerment, a community may have opportunities to access information, express their concern, strengthen their ability to identify and address development issues, and take greater control over the outcome of a development project. Community participation also could improve the capacity building of the community (Paul, 1987). Through participation in the project, community members may have opportunities to become involved in activities such as training, workshops, and group discussions. In these activities, community members could learn and/or expand their knowledge.

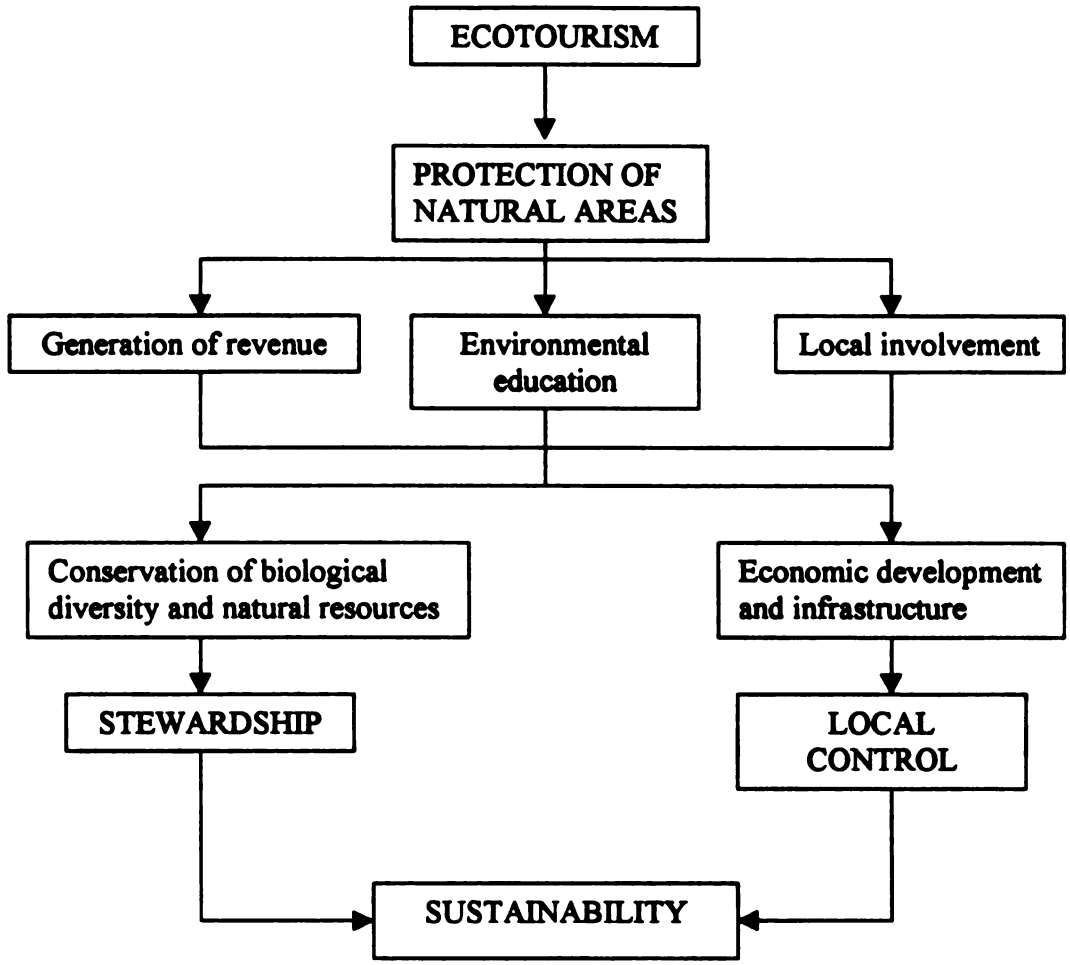

Figure 3. Relationship between community participation and ecotourism development

Source: adapted from Wall & Ross, 1998

Community participation may improve project efficiency and effectiveness. Sewell and Phillips (1979) define project efficiency as "the cost of pursuing a given objective" and project effectiveness as "the extent to which a given objective was actually accomplished." Project efficiency can be achieved through the willingness of community members to volunteer their time and effort for the project, to be employed by the project and to share their resources with the project.

Project effectiveness may be enhanced as the community gains a greater understanding of the goal of the project. This understanding may alter their perceptions of and self-interest in the importance of achieving the goal of the project. However, community participation does have several disadvantages. For example, Brandon (1993) mentions that if not managed properly, community participation could raise a conflict between the project and the community or among the community members themselves. In terms of the conflict between the project and the community, it may difficult to reach agreement on how authorities and responsibilities would be shared. With regard to community members, conflicts may be based on differing values or conflicting goals of various social classes or ethnic groups.

Paul (1987) also identifies several disadvantages of community participation: it is a time consuming, costly and a very complicated process. Specifically, it takes time to organize public meetings, to inform the community about the project, and to achieve agreement between the parties involved. Organizing participation also requires a lot of money for such things as for publication materials, transportation and accommodation.

Community Participation: Definitions and Levels

Definitions

The need for community participation in development projects was established and has expanded over the last fifty years, but there is little agreement in the meaning of community participation. To arrive at some consensus on the meaning of community participation, definitions of community and theories of community participation were reviewed. In addition, literature from areas such as environmental management, rural development and planning science are reviewed.

Community participation has been defined based on its goals, approaches and levels. In terms of goals, community participation can be viewed as a means, an end or a "hybrid reality" (Dudley, 1993 cited in McDonough & Wheeler, 1998, Nagle, 1992 cited in McDonough & Wheeler, 1998 and Lane, 1995 cited in McDonough & Wheeler, 1998). It is viewed as a means if communities are used to accomplish extenally determined project goals by providing labor or technical assistance (Dudley, 1993 cited in McDonough & Wheeler, 1998).

Community participation is viewed as an end if the goal is to empower and improve the capacity building of the local community (Lane, 1995 cited in McDonough & Wheeler, 1998). This type of participation occurs in projects which focus on representativeness and community development. The definition of community participation by Cernea (1985) represents this view:

> ...empowering people to mobilize their own capacities, be social actors rather than passive subjects, manage the resources, make decisions, and control the activities that affect their lives.

The definition of participation by Drake (1991) may also represent this type of participation. Drake (1991) states that participation is "the ability of local community to influence the outcome of development projects such as ecotourism that have an impact on them."

Community participation is viewed as a "hybrid reality" if participation has the characteristics of both a means and an end (Nagel, 1992 cited in McDonough & Wheeler, 1998). For example, the initial goal of participation may be to provide labor but, when consulted, communities may impose their opinions and ideas. On the other hand, the initial goal of participation may be to empower the community, but it may be found that participation has also some practical benefit in obtaining the project goal more efficiently. Participation as a "hybrid reality" is usually unplanned.

In terms of approach, Chambers and Ham (1995) divide community participation into two categories: coercive and interactive. In the coercive approach, the ideas of development, conservation and partnership come from outside of the community from such sources as government agencies, private enterprises, or non-governmental agencies. The local community chooses only to accept the idea or not. On the other hand, in the interactive approach, the ideas of development, conservation and partnership come from within the community. The community alone identifies what they need and what they want. It may even develop a co-management project with government agencies, private enterprises, and non-governmental agencies to share authorities and responsibilities.

Brandon (1993) argues that there are two types of community participation approaches: a beneficiary approach and a participatory approach. In the beneficiary

approach, members of the local community may gain benefits from the proposed project, but they are not involved in the decision-making process.

In the participatory approach, members of the local community are involved in the decision-making process. It is assumed that they will also benefit from the proposed project. By including the community in the decision making process, it could be assumed that community members take part in determining the project goals.

Cohen and Uphoff (1977) believe that participation can be either "externally imposed" or "internally initiated." In externally imposed participation, the community is not involved in the decision-making process. On the other hand, in the internally initiated approach, participation combines community self determination with external forces. In this case, the community is involved in the decision-making process.

Although all of the authors use different terms to define participation, they all tend to agree that participation in projects varies along a spectrum from reducing labor costs of the project at one end to control of the entire project at the other.

Levels of Participation

In addition to the definitions, three sources discuss the levels of community participation. These levels are consistent with the spectrum of participatory behaviors concept offered by McDonough and Wheeler (1998). First, Perez (1997) argues that there are five levels of community participation: information sharing, process nominal, consultative, decision making, and action initiation. At the information sharing level, local communities are informed by the project planner or community. This level is considered as the lowest level in terms of participation. In this stage, the project staff may

have already collected some data about the area. Community members may individually or collectively contribute to such data collecting. The types of the community involvement in this stage may be field surveys, interviews or public meetings. The main characteristic of this stage is that community members volunteer their time and effort (i.e. to attend public meetings and be involved in preliminary data collection).

At the process nominal level, community members may participate by providing resources for the project. The involvement of community members may be through activities such as working for the project or developing their own private enterprises. In terms of working for the project, the project may hire community members based on member capabilities. In terms of developing private enterprises, community members may provide lodging and food for tourists, open restaurants and craft stores, or work as tour operators. In this stage, some of the community members may begin to gain economic benefits from the project. This stage is usually characterized by individual involvement.

At the consultative level, community members are consulted on some development issues related to the project. Consultation may include public meetings, focus groups, public opinion surveys or other consultative methods (Sewell & Phillips, 1979) and occurs before the project is developed. At this level of participation, the local community is usually represented by community leaders. The leaders may share their knowledge, perspective, and opinions of the project, but their opinions may or may not influence the nature and the content of the project. At this level, local community members may start to take a position as a group.

At the decision-making level, communities have opportunities to influence the nature and the content of the project. Decisions are made before and during project development. This level is characterized by the involvement of some key community leaders in the management project (Furze et al., 1997; Reimer, 1994).

Finally, at the action initiation level, communities are asked to improve their ability to manage and control the project implementation. At this level, community members should be ready to be empowered and proactive in implementing the project. Community involvement may be through activities such as formal and informal training as well as involvement in developing and maintaining tourism facilities.

While Perez divides participation into five levels, Paul (1987) classifies the levels of participation into four categorizes: information sharing, consultation, decision making and action initiation. Except for the absence of the process nominal level, Paul's and Perez's levels are virtually identical. For the purpose of this study, a combination of Perez's and Paul's levels of participation is used (Figure 4).

Brandon and Wells (1992 cited in Mitchell, 1998) argue that in addition to the four levels of participation presented by Paul (1987), evaluation should be considered as the final level of participation. However, some literature indicates that evaluation is not the final level of participation (Drake, 1991; Furze et al., 1997; Henderson & Bialeschki, 1995; Kraus & Allen, 1997; Miloon, 1991).

Kraus and Allen (1997) and Blalock (1990) infer that evaluation can be either an integral part of the project or a separate project or stage of development. As an integral

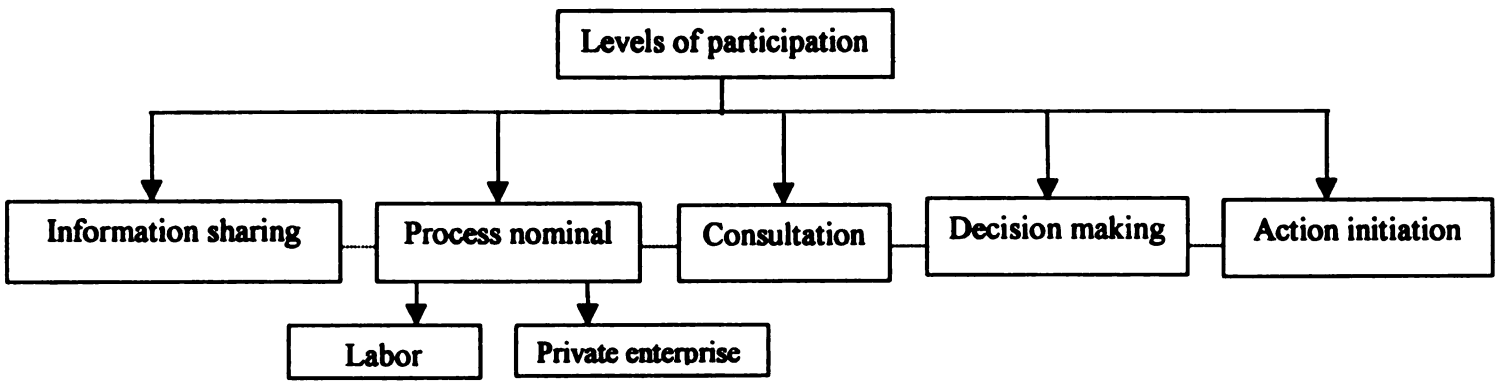

Figure 4. Spectrum of different levels of participation

part of the project, evaluation can occur in the beginning, during or at the end of the project (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1995). As a separate project or stage of development, it means that the development process is divided into three stages: planning, implementation and evaluation (Drake, 1991; Furze et al., 1997; Miloon, 1991). This type of evaluation is performed by an external or an independent agent (Henderson, 1991; Kraus & Allen, 1997). Thus because the parties affected are not the evaluators, evaluation should not be considered as the final level of participation.

Characteristics that Define Communities

Understanding how community is defined and conceptualized helps identify characteristics of community members. This identification will be used to address the question, who is involved in participation?

Community has been defined in many ways. For example, it has been defined based on its similarity in locality or territorial boundary (Setty, 1994; Wilkinson, 1974 cited in Tasosa, 1993), interest (Setty, 1994; Wilkinson, 1974 cited in Tasosa, 1993) and sentimental binding (Drijver, 1991 cited in Robinson, 1996; Isely, 1988 cited in Robinson, 1996; Nisbet, 1966; Setty, 1994). In terms of similarity in locality and sentimental binding, community is described as follows:

> Territorial boundary and the sentimental binding are the essential factors in a community. The groups of people that live within a geographic region have the uniformity or similarity in many customs and habits, such as food, clothing, occupation, etc. . Another factor, which is the outcome of face-to-face, intensive functional interaction, is the community sentiment. This sentiment, that makes them feel that they are one or the "we" feeling is the life of the community. . . A community then means a group of people living in a given area with common interests, bound by a sense of and common mode of living. (Setty, 1994)

In terms of similarity in interest or concern, community has been defined as

> . . . a wide range of groups, from loosely structured aggregates of individuals who share sets of similar economic, occupational, and social interests or similar concerns about a common geographic area, to highly structured organizations with specific issue position and influence strategies. (Wilkinson, 1974 cited in Tasosa, 1993)

Despite its similarities, the community has also been defined as a function of its heterogeneous entities. For example, communities may consist of different ethnic groups, religions, genders, education levels, age groups and economic levels (Chambers, 1995; Drijver, 1991 cited in Robinson, 1996, Green & Isely, 1988 cited in Robinson, 1996; Furze et al., 1997; Oakley & Marsden, 1984; Peters, 1994). These diverse components of community indicate differences in interests, wealth and power (Oakley & Marsden, 1984, Drijver, 1991 cited in Robinson ,1996).

In summary, the community should be viewed not only as based on its similarities but also based on its heterogeneous entities. Identifying the similarities and heterogeneous entities of a community could help when attempting to understand the characteristics of community members who are involved in participation.

Community Participation for Ecotourism Development

The literature pertaining to ecotourism development, community theory and community participation was reviewed and analyzed. One result of this literature review was being able to identify points of agreement regarding the kind and levels of participation that are particular to ecotourism development and the characteristics of the community involved in ecotourism development.

It was clear from the literature reviewed that ecotourism development should

benefit and actively involve the local community (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Furze et al., 1997). This type of project could benefit the community if empowerment and capacity building of the community were included in project goals (Brandon, 1993; Chambers & Ham, 1995; Cohen & Uphoff, 1977; Furze et al., 1997; McDonough & Wheeler, 1998).

According to the literature on community participation, community members are considered actively involved if they are involved the decision-making process (Brandon, 1993; Chambers & Ham, 1995; Cohen & Uphoff, 1977; Furze et al., 1997; McDonough & Wheeler, 1998). The literature also indicates that if the community is involved in all levels of participation in some way, both the community and the project may benefit from this involvement (Furze et al., 1997; Metcalfe, 1995; Paul, 1987 cited in Mitchell, 1998; Sewell & Philips, 1979). Therefore, it can be interpreted that the ecotourism project should use all levels of participation and should involve local community members in those levels of participation, especially in the decision-making process.

Participation that has the goal of community empowerment through the enhancement of local decision-making and control is, therefore, assumed as the appropriate kind of participation for ecotourism development considered in this study.

In terms of the characteristics of the community involved, the literature indicates that the community involved should be the affected or local community (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996; Furze et al., 1997; Sewell & Phillips, 1979; Uphoff, 1993). The literature on community theories states that the community is characterized by its homogenous and heterogeneous entities (Chambers, 1995; Drijver, 1991 & Isely, 1988 cited in Robinson, 1996; Nisbet, 1966; Peters, 1994; Rahnema, 1992; Setty, 1994). According to the literature on community participation, if participation is expected to

benefit the community, it should involve community members that represent the full range of characteristics in the community (Chambers, 1995; Peters, 1994; Rahnema, 1992).

Problem Statement

Despite the call for ecotourism projects to be participatory, both for their success and for the ethical implications of extending tourism into rural communities, only a few studies regarding local community involvement in ecotourism projects have been published. For example, Jones (1997) explored the development of an ecotourism project which focused on community education in Mexico. Reimer (1994) examined participatory paradigms and applied them to an economic development project in an Inuit community. Peters (1994) studied the relationships and processes involved in the attempt to integrate conservation of natural resources with socioeconomic development in a national park setting in Madagascar. And Tasosa (1993) evaluated community action in tourism planning in terms of the application of a community action plan theory in two communities in British Columbia.

Most of these studies are limited to single site case studies and have not directly addressed the broader issue of what kind of participation is usually used in ecotourism development. In addition to the broader issue, several sub issues of those who were involved in such projects, in what stages of development were they involved, and how authority and responsibility were shared also need to be addressed. Thus, there remains a lack of research that assesses the nature and the extent of community participation in ecotourism development projects. In addition, there is a need to study if participation

applied in real-life cases correspond to participation called for in the literature. This study attempts to address these gaps.

Objectives of the Study

The first main objective of this study is to identify the kind of community participation that is most commonly used in international ecotourism development projects. There are two sub-objectives: the first is to identify the levels of participation in which the communities are usually involved, and the second is to identify the characteristics of the communities that are involved. The second main objective is to determine if the kind of participation applied in the case studies corresponds to the kind of participation called for in the literature. The third main objective is to make recommendations for policy, planning and further research.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study is to investigate the nature and extent of local community participation in international ecotourism development projects. There are several research methods that could be used to achieve this purpose including field research (Babbie, 1998), case study research (Yin, 1989) or content analysis (Krippendorff, 1980; Riffe et al., 1998). Two main factors were considered in choosing the most suitable method for this study: study objectives, and time and financial constraints.

The field research method requires the researcher to travel to the areas where ecotourism development projects exist to collect data. While it would be an advantage to have primary data, this method would require large amounts of time and money, especially considering the large number of ecotourism projects required for this study. Due to limitations of time and money, this method was deemed infeasible.

The case study research method is another alternative. This method permits the researcher to analyze one or multiple case studies (Yin, 1989). Data are gathered through documentary information, archival records, interviews or direct observations. This method is not frequently used (Yin, 1989), and literature regarding this method is also rarely found. Therefore, the researcher did not feel confident using this type of research method, especially since there was a desire to analyze a fairly large number of case studies.

Content analysis is another alternative research method that may be used for this study. According to Babbie (1998), Berellson (1952 cited in Krippendorff, 1980) and Fraenkel et al. (1996), the content analysis technique has been used widely for various type of research studies. For example, it has been used to trace trends, to compare media, to understand organizational patterns, to infer attitudes, values, and cultural patterns in different countries, and for various other functions. This method has several advantages (Babbie, 1998; Borg et al., 1989; Fraenkel et al., 1996; Singleton et al., 1993). It is an unobtrusive research method that rarely has any consequences for the subject being studied. Data can be collected from written materials. It allows the researchers to analyze large volumes of data without space and time limits. And it does not require a large research staff or special equipment. In terms of time and money, this research method is economical.

However, content analysis also has some disadvantages (Babbie, 1998; Fraenkel et al., 1996). For example, it is limited to the examination of recorded communications typically oral, written or graphic. There also is a question regarding the validity of data measurement: reliability problem may occur in terms of consistency in coding data.

Based on the above discussions, though it has some disadvantages, the content analysis method seems to be the most appropriate method for this study. Therefore, this chapter includes a discussion of the definitions and approaches of the content analysis method including the nature of the data collected, sampling design, procedures, reliability, validity, and data analysis. The research design of this study is described after this discussion. In general, the procedures of this study are presented in Figure 5.

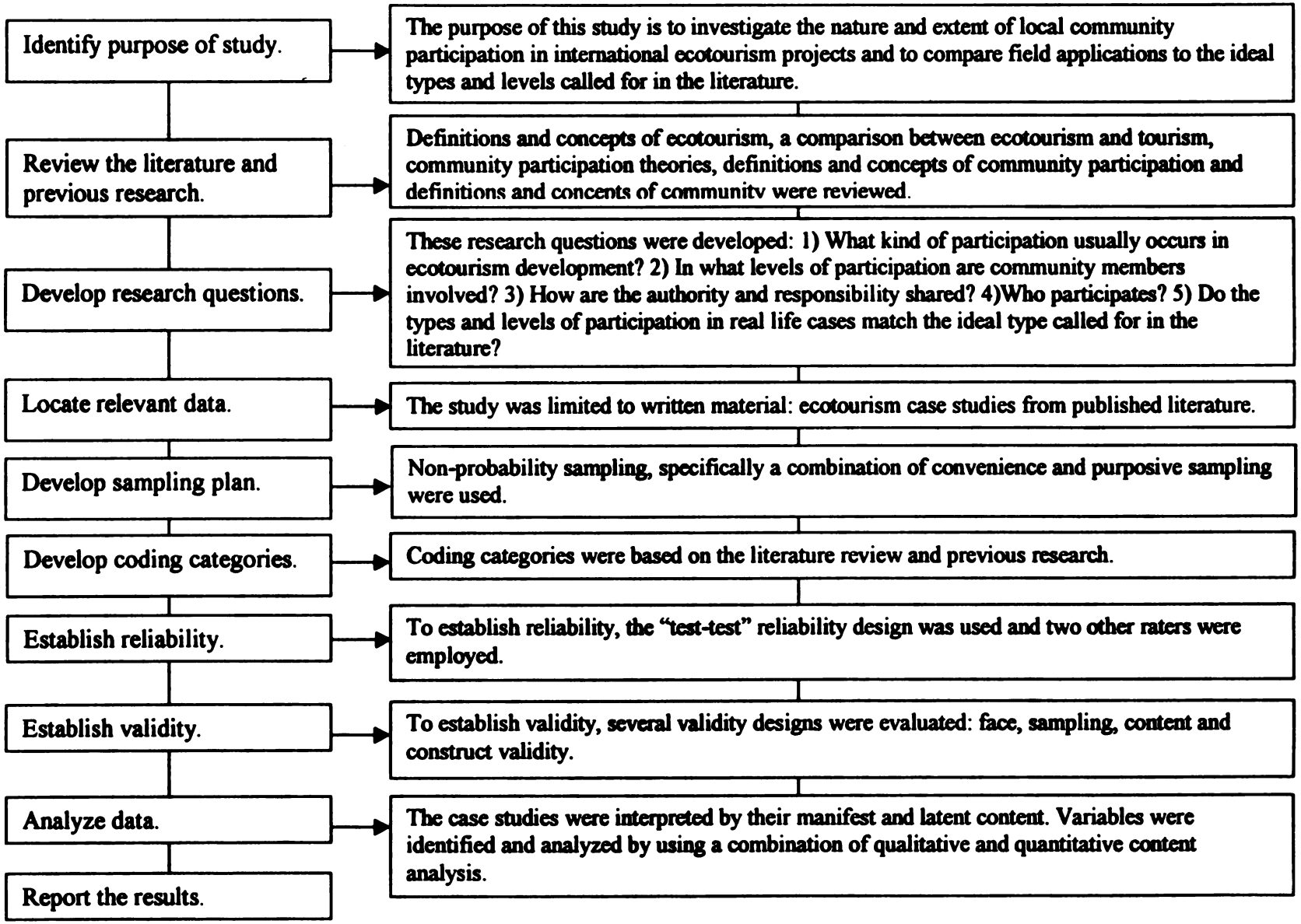

Figure 5. Research procedures

Content Analysis: Definitions and Approaches

There are a variety of working definitions of content analysis. Henderson (1991) and Krippendorf (1980) explain that content analysis is a research technique used to analyze documents, records, transcribed conversations, letters, or anything in textual form. Riffe et al. (1998) view content analysis as a systematic and replicable quantitative technique used to explain or infer the communication of the concept being studied. Finally, Fraenkel et al. (1996) define content analysis as "a technique that enables researchers to study human behavior in an indirect way, through an analysis of their communications."

According to Borg et al. (1989) and Henderson (1991), the types of data collected are usually written materials such as words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs, sections, chapters and books. Other forms of communications such as music, pictures, songs, or gestures also can be used (Borg et al., 1989; Fraenkel et al, 1996, Henderson, 1991).

The data can be gathered using two types of sampling design: non-probability and probability (Riffe et al., 1998). Non-probability sampling is used if no adequate sampling frame exists. Two forms of non-probability techniques are convenience and purposive sampling. In the convenience technique, the sample is selected whenever and wherever it is available. In the purposive technique, samples are selected by using certain criteria (Riffe et al., 1998).

Probability sampling is used if the population is known and the sampling frame can be drawn. Forms of probability sampling include simple random sampling, systematic sampling and stratified sampling. The simple random technique is used if all units of the population have an equal chance of selection. In systematic sampling,

samples are selected based on every particular *(n)* unit of the sampling frame. The *n* units are determined by dividing the sample size by the sampling frame. In stratified sampling, the population is divided into smaller groups. Groups should be homogenous. Samples are selected randomly within those groups.

The literature indicates there are at least thirteen steps of research procedure in a study that employs content analysis (Borg et al., 1989; Riffe et al., 1998; Fraenkel et al., 1996, and Krippendorff, 1980). The thirteen steps are: identify the research problem, review the theory and previous research, assert specific research questions and hypotheses, define relevant content, specify formal design, create dummy tables, develop coding protocol, specify population, specify sampling frame, pretest analysis, process the data and report the results (Figure 6).

Fraenkel et al. (1996) note that there are two types of content within a communication that affect the coding design: manifest content and latent content. The manifest meaning of content analysis data refers to "the obvious, surface content – the words, pictures and images that are directly accessible to the naked eye or ear" (Fraenkel et al., 1996). Inferences as to the underlying meaning are not made. It is sufficient to simply count the number of times the word appears. The latent content of a document refers to the meaning underlying what is said or shown. Latent content requires inferences, which can be made by considering the manner, order, and composition of the text (Sebo, 1996).

Reliability is "the extent to which a measure gives consistent results" (Ritchie & Goeldner, 1994). According to Babbie (1998) and Krippendorff (1980), there are three

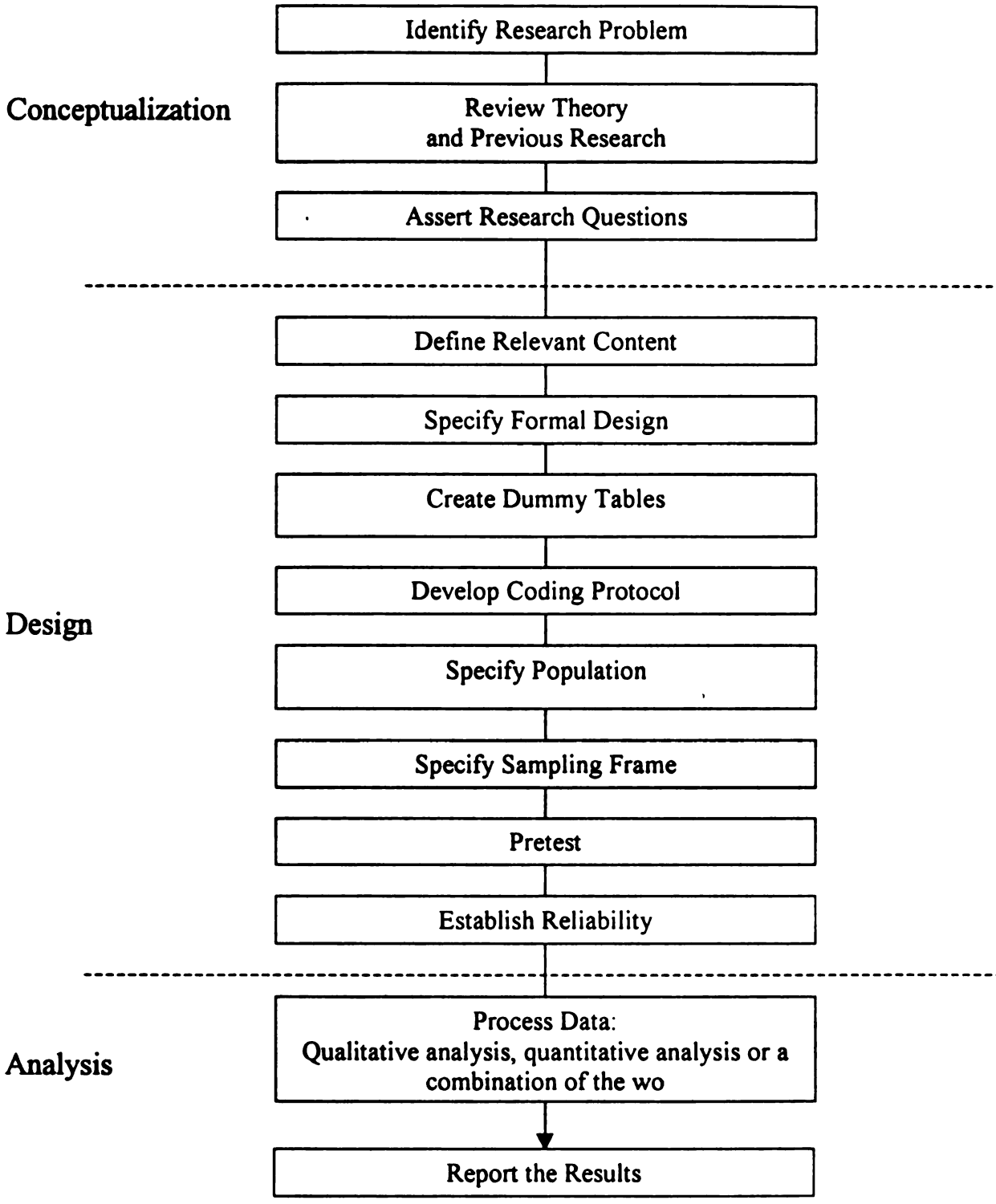

Figure 6. Research procedure in content analysis

Adapted from Borg et al., 1989; Fraenkel et al., 1996; Krippendorff, 1980; Riffe et al., 1998

types of reliability designs in content analysis. They are stability, reproducibility and accuracy. Stability is the degree to which a data gathering process is invariant or unchanging over time. Reproducibility is the degree to which a data gathering process can be recreated under varying conditions or settings, or using different coders or raters. Accuracy is the degree to which a data gathering process conforms to a known standard, or yields what it is intended to yield. The differences between the three types of reliability designs are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Types of reliability designs

Types of reliability	Reliability Designs	Errors Assessed	Relative Strengths
Stability	Test-retest	Intra-observer inconsistencies	Weakest
Reproducibility	Test-test	Intra-observer inconsistencies and inter observer disagreements	Modest
Accuracy	Test-standard	Intra-observer inconsistencies, inter observer disagreements and systematic deviations from a norm	Strongest

Source: Babbie, 1998; Krippendorff, 1980.

Krippendorff (1980) describes three types of validity in content analysis: data oriented, product oriented and process oriented (Table 2). Data oriented validity is defined as how well a method of analysis represents the information in or associated with available data. Semantical and sampling validity designs may be used to assess data oriented validity. Semantical validity is usually used to estimate how well the researcher can create operational working definitions for each category of the concept being studied

Table 2. Validity in content analysis

Types of validity	Typology of validity	Descriptions
Data oriented	Semantical validity	Assesses the degree to which the researcher can create operational working definitions to measure each category of the concept being studied.
	Sampling validity	Assesses the degree to which available data come from unbiased sample of a universe. The data must be statistically representative of that universe.
Product oriented	Predictive validity	Assesses the degree to which predictions obtained by one method agree with directly observed facts.
	Correlational validity	Assesses the degree to which findings obtained by one method correlate with findings obtained by another.
Process oriented	Construct validity	Assesses the degree to which the analytical procedure can represent relationships in the context of data.

Source: Krippendorff, 1980.

(Krippendorff, 1980; Riffe et al., 1998). In the more commonly employed types of validity, semantical validity is similar to content validity[2] (Babbie, 1998). Sampling validity design is used to measure the degree to which the data collected come from an appropriate sample (Krippendorff, 1980). Riffe et al. (1998) include sampling validity as part of external validity. They contend that external validity is used to establish "the broader meaning and importance of research to audiences beyond the scientific community" (Riffe et al., 1998).

Product oriented validity is used to assess how well a method works under a variety of circumstances (Krippendorff, 1980). Predictive and correlational validity

designs may be used to assess product-oriented validity. Predictive validity design refers to " a test that correlates a measure with some predictive outcome" (Riffe et al., 1998). Correlational validity refers to an assessment in which findings accomplished by one method correlate with findings accomplished by another method (Krippendorff, 1980; Riffe et al., 1998). Correlational validity is called concurrent validity in Riffe et al. (1998).

Finally, process oriented validity is used to predict the degree to which an analytical procedure represents relationships in the context of data (Krippendorff, 1980). To assess process-oriented validity, construct validity design may be used. It refers to a validity test in which a measurement was taken from the theoretical context of the concept being studied (Riffe et al., 1998).

Riffe et al. (1998) state that face validity is the minimum required and the most frequently used validity test in content analysis. Face validity refers to the particular measurement of a concept being studied that may or may not make sense "on its face" or "with our common agreements and our individual mental images" (Babbie, 1998; Riffe et al., 1998). To establish face validity, intersubjective agreement on a measure should be high among relevant researchers or raters (Riffe et al., 1998).

Data analysis is used to interpret the characteristics of a sample (Riffe et al., 1998). In content analysis studies, quantitative (i.e., as simple classification or tabulation, frequencies, means and proportions), qualitative or combination of the quantitative and qualitative data analysis have been used (Babbie, 1998; Borg et al., 1989; Fraenkel et al., 1996; Good et al., 1954; Holsti, 1969;Riffe et al., 1998). In addition, the combination of

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[2] "Content validity refers to how much a measure covers the range of meanings included within the concept." (Babbie, 1998: 134)

qualitative and quantitative data analysis in the content analysis technique is called hermeneutic content analysis (Roller et al., 1995 cited in Kelle, 1995).

A variety of computer software is available to analyze content analysis data, to locate and access the content and to code the content. At least seven forms of computerized content analysis have been identified (Riffe et al., 1998): word counts, key-word-in-context and concordances, dictionaries, language structure, readability, artificial intelligence and dynamic content analysis.

Examples of Studies using Content Analysis Method

Two different studies verify the use of these content analysis techniques. One study was conducted by Sebo (1996). The objective of this study was "to examine tourism textbooks, and analyze the ideology being conveyed to the tourism student." Another study was conducted by Kiah (1976). The purpose of this study was to determine if and how selected notable shared experiences of Black people are illustrated in modern realistic fiction written about Black people in the United States for a particular age group of children.

From these studies, it can be concluded that a sample population could be selected appropriately through the creation of criteria such as the content of the sample and the date of sample publication (Kiah, 1976; Sebo, 1996). Using hermeneutic content analysis, the data could be analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively (Sebo, 1996). To test the reliability of data, test and test design could be used by creating predetermined terminology of the variables identified (Kiah, 1976; Sebo, 1996) and by employing other raters (Kiah, 1976). The result of the reliability test also might be used to evaluate face

validity of a study (Kiah, 1976). The study by Kiah (197) indicated that if the result of the interrater reliability rate is above the standard for a minimum level of agreement, it can be assumed that intersubjective agreement on a measurement is high among relevant raters. This level of intersubjective agreement is then used to establish the face validity of the study.

Research Design

The objective of this study is to investigate the application of different types and levels of local community participation in international ecotourism projects through a review of ecotourism case studies. The nature of data collected, the sampling frame, procedures used, reliability and validity design, and data analysis used in this study are presented in the following sections.

Nature of data collected

The nature of the data collected in this study is written material. Data were gathered through an analysis of case study reports.

Sampling frame

The researcher was unable to determine an adequate sampling frame of international ecotourism case studies. Therefore, non-probability sampling, combining purposive and convenience sampling, was used (Riffe et al., 1998).

For this study, purposive sampling was used to select case studies along the following criteria:

- found in published literature such as theses, dissertations, refereed journals, books, internal reports, seminar papers and magazines;
- published between 1988, the year in which the definition of ecotourism was first introduced, and 1999, the year in which this study began;
- contained one or more particular ecotourism projects and discussed the involvement of local communities in such projects;
- written in English.

Convenience sampling was used because it was difficult to obtain some materials being studied and there was limitations in time and budget. Accordingly, ecotourism case study reports were collected whenever and wherever they were available.

Case studies were collected in two different ways. The first was through library research; the second was through correspondence via e-mail with three international nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), which are assumed to be the major sponsors for ecotourism development around the world (Appendix A).

In doing library research, computer search engines such as "ProQuest Direct" and "FirstSearch" were used to locate theses, dissertations, books and journal articles related to the case studies. The examples of key words to locate this literature are "ecotourism," "ecotourism development" and "community participation."

Seven related journals were searched manually to find related articles: Journal of Sustainable Tourism, Environmental Conservation, Environmental Management, Society and Natural Resources, Natural Resources Journal, Biodiversity and Conservation, and

Cultural Survival Quarterly. These journals were located through the bibliographies of ecotourism and community participation literature and by consulting with tourism academics.

Three international nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) were contacted via e-mail: World Wildlife Fund for Nature (WWF), Conservation International (CI) and The Nature Conservancy (TNC). About forty-nine e-mails were sent. Forty-seven e-mails were sent to WWF national organizations and WWF program offices. Two e-mails were sent, one each to the CI and TNC. The list of e-mail addresses is presented in Appendix B.

Seventeen responses were received from forty-nine e-mail messages sent. Eleven could not be delivered and twenty-one did not responded. From the seventeen e-mail responses, six did not have the types of document requested, six suggested contacting other organizations or consulting particular books. Five of the seventeen sent some related materials, including internal reports from WWF-Zimbabwe and internal magazines which had related articles such as WWF- Hungary, Norway, Netherlands and Canada.

From these efforts, eighty-one (81) ecotourism case studies were collected. There were various sources of these case studies: ten (10) cases from published proceedings, nine (9) cases from theses, two (2) cases from dissertations, twelve (12) cases from refereed journals, two (2) cases from internal reports, six (6) cases from papers presented in seminars, two (2) cases from internal magazines and thirty-eight (38) cases from books. Where more than one study was written by the same authors the studies were combined into one case in analysis. Examples include case study numbers 11, 39, 41, 45

and 52 (Appendix C). Case studies complementing other cases were also collapsed in the analysis. Examples include case study numbers 12, 18 and 22 (Appendix C). From eighty-one case studies eight studies were collapsed and a total of seventy-three case studies were analyzed (Appendix C).

Procedures

The main purpose of content analysis was to obtain case study information about the kinds of community participation used in ecotourism development projects, the levels of participation, the various ways in which authority and responsibility are shared and the characteristics of the communities involved in the projects. This information was then compared to the literature to assess whether or not the application of the kinds and levels of community participation in the case studies corresponded to the conceptual of participation called for in the literature. In general, the procedures of this study are presented in Figure 5 (p.34).

The case study was the unit of analysis for this study and its content was the unit of observation. To observe the content of each case study, coding categories (Table 3) and a guide for raters (Appendix D) were developed based on the literature reviewed in chapter two. The coding categories were developed based on the following questions: Who was the source of the project goal? What was the project goal? In what levels of participation were communities involved? How were authority and responsibility shared? What were the characteristics of the community members who were involved?

The literature reviewed indicated that the source of the project goal could be either outside the community or within the community (Brandon, 1993). As such, source

Table 3. List of variables to be identified

Data Code: _____

QUESTIONS	CATEGORY	VARIABLES IDENTIFIED	Discussed		Not discussed	Pg.
			+	-		
Who is source of the project goal?	-	(1) Outside of the community				
		(2 Within the community				
What was the project goal?	-	(3) Empowerment and capacity building of the local community are part of the project's goals				
In what levels of participation were the community members involved, and how were the authority and responsibility shared ?	Information sharing	(4) Local people participate in preliminary data collection				
		(5) Local people volunteer				
	Process nominal	(6) Local people hired by the project				
		(7) Local people develop private enterprises				
	Consultation	(8) Public meetings				
		(9) Focus groups				
		(10) Other "consultative" methods*				
	Decision making	(11) Local community is involved				
	Action initiation	(12) Local community is involved				
Who was involved?	Locality	(13) Live within the project location				
		(14) Live near the project location				
		(15) Live far from the project location				
	Local institutional structures?	(16) Family				
		(17) Religious organization				

Table 3. List of variables to be identified (continue)

Who was involved?		(18) School or academic institutions				
		(19)Local government				
		(20) Other local organizations*)				
	Economic status	(21) High income				
		(22) Middle income				
		(23) Low income				
	Gender	(24) Men				
		(25) Women				
		(26) Combination of Men and Women				

Notes:

(...) data code

+ means "yes" or indicates involvement;

- means "no" or indicates there is no involvement

*) write some necessary notes

of the project goal was operationalized as a dichotomous variable: inside or outside the community.

The literature reviewed also indicated that empowerment of community could be one of the project goals (Cohen & Uphoff, 1977; McDonough &Wheeler, 1998). Whether or not empowerment of community was a goal became the variable that addressed the question: What was the project goal?

Level of participation was defined as the presence or absence of information sharing, process nominal, consultation, decision making and action initiation activities (Paul, 1987 cited in Drake, 1991; Perez, 1997).

To address the question of who was involved, the following characteristics of the local community were identified: localities (Chambers, 1995; Marsden, 1994 cited in Furze et al., 1997; Setty, 1994; Uphoff, 1993), local institutional structures (Beavers, 1995 cited in Norris, 1998; Furze et al., 1997; Peters, 1997; Uphoff, 1993), economic conditions (Chambers, 1995; Peters, 1994) and gender (Chambers, 1995; Peters, 1994).

Localities were used to identify if participation in the case studies reflects "by the road bias" (Chamber, 1995). Categories used to identify the localities in which the community members reside were: "lived within," "near" or "far" from the project location.

Mobilization theory proposes that community members may participate in the development project through community associations or groups such as neighborhood associations, ethnic groups, educational groups, and business or professional organizations (Howell et al., 1987). Besides participating through formal organizations,

the community may also participate through informal local organizational structures such as family and religious organizations (Furze et al., 1997; Peters, 1994).

The heterogeneous entities, economic status and gender of community members involved, were used to identify whether or not participation reflects male and/or elite biases (Chambers, 1995). The economic status of local communities tends to be treated as homogeneous (Peters, 1994), but the socio-economic characteristics of local people are actually very diverse (Oakley & Marsden, 1984; Green and Isely, 1988 cited in Robinson, 1996; Peters, 1994). It is inferred that local communities may range from the richest to the poorest people. Chambers (1995) mentions that usually the poorest group lacks the power to participate, even though they are usually the most affected group, and more importantly, the largest in the community. To identify whether or not participation in the case studies reflected an elite bias, the economic status of community members was categorized into high, middle and low income groups.

Male bias refers to the tendency of greater numbers of men than women to participate in development projects (Chambers, 1995; Peters, 1994). This condition ignores the potential of women to support the projects in many different ways and represents a bias in the participation process itself (Chambers, 1995; Peters, 1994; Sproule & Suhandi, 1998). In addition, calls for human rights and equality in the development process point out that women should have equal rights and responsibilities in deciding which development projects are best for their future (Johnston, 1994). To determine if the participation reflects male bias, participation was classified as either involving men, women, or both men and women.

Guidelines for raters (Appendix D) were developed to assist the researcher and other raters in coding the variables from the case studies.

Reliability

To establish the reliability of the study, a "test-test" procedure was employed. In addition to the principal investigator, two other raters were used. All raters have knowledge about tourism development, ecotourism and community participation in tourism. The two other raters were a faculty member and a graduate student.

Using the same instrument designed for this study, the raters independently interpreted and analyzed three different case studies chosen randomly from the sample and assumed by the principal investigator to be representative of the entire sample. The titles of the case studies were:

1. "Guidelines for Community-based Ecotourism Programs: Lessons From Indonesia (Mount Halimun National Park's case study) " by Keith W. Sproule and Ary S. Suhandi. in Ecotourism: A Guide for Planners and Managers. Kreg Lindberg, Megan Epler Wood, and David Engeldrum. (eds). 1998. Volume 2. Vermont: The Ecotourism Society.
2. Meeting the Global Challenge of Community Participation in Ecotourism: Case Studies and Lessons from Ecuador (Kapawi's ecotourism project) by Megan Epler Wood. 1998. Arlington: The Nature Conservancy.
3. Meeting the Global Challenge of Community Participation in Ecotourism: Case Studies and Lessons from Ecuador (Zabalo ecotourism project) by Megan Epler Wood. 1998. Arlington: The Nature Conservancy.

The instrument consisted of thirty variables to be identified by the raters (Table 3). Guidelines for raters were provided (Appendix D). The raters were instructed to mark if the variables were present in the case studies, not present or not discussed (Table 3).

Results from the three raters were then compared. The purpose of this comparison was to identify how much agreement and disagreement existed between raters (Kiah, 1976; Riffe et al., 1998). These agreements and disagreements were translated into numerical values (Tables 4, 5 and 6).

Table 4. Agreements and disagreements between raters for case study 1.

Coder Pairs	Agree	Disagree	Total
1-2	22	4	26
2-3	21	5	26
3-1	24	2	26
Total	67	11	78

Notes :
1= principal investigator 2= faculty member 3= graduate student

Table 5. Agreements and disagreements between raters for case study 2.

Coder Pairs	Agree	Disagree	Total
1-2	22	4	26
2-3	23	3	26
3-1	21	5	26
Total	66	12	78

Notes :
1= principal investigator 2= faculty member 3= graduate student

Table 6. Agreements and disagreements between raters for case study 3.

Coder Pairs	Agree	Disagree	Total
1-2	22	4	26
2-3	17	9	26
3-1	23	3	26
Total	62	16	78

Notes :
1= principal investigator 2= faculty member 3= graduate student

The Holsti formula (Kiah, 1976) was used to determine the reliability rate between raters as follows:

$$R = \frac{2(C\ 1, 2)}{C1+C2}$$

where,

R = the reliability rate (% of items that the all raters agreed were either present or not)

2 = 2 raters (could be extended for n raters)

C 1, 2 = number of items all raters agreed upon

C1+C2 = number of items all raters rated

The reliability rates between raters in this study were 85.8% for case study one, 84.6% for case study two and 79.5% for case study three. The average reliability rate was 83.3% (Table 7).

Table 7. Interrater reliability rate.

Case study #	Percentage (%)
1	85.8
2	84.6
3	79.5
Average	83.3

A study by Kiah (1976) used 80% as a minimum level of agreement between raters. It is also stated that "the acceptable level of agreement necessary will depend on the type of research conducted, but a minimum level of 80% is usually the standard" (Riffe et al., 1998). Since this study found an overall 83.3% level of agreement, it can be concluded that the instrument used is reliable.

Validity

Riffe et al. (1998) state that face validity is the minimum criterion required to established validity. To establish face validity, intersubjective agreement on a measure should be high among relevant researchers or raters (Riffe et al., 1998).

The results of the "test-test" reliability design were used to evaluate face validity in this study. The result of this test was an interrater reliability rate of 81.4%. This rate is above the standard for a minimum level of agreement, which is 80% (Riffe et al., 1998). Therefore, it is assumed that face validity of this study has been established.

Content (semantic) validity is also assessed in this study. Babbie (1998) defined content validity as, " how much a measure covers the range of meanings included within the concept." For some concepts, such as characteristics of community involved and levels of participation, a wide range of meanings identified from case studies suggests a high content validity. In creating operational definitions, some variables (i.e. gender, academic institutions, religious organizations) were relatively easy to define. Several definitions from the literature review also helped define these variables. However, some other variables (i.e. locality in which the community resides, decision making, consultation) were difficult to define. To help define these variables, examples from

previous studies were used. In conclusion, although some variables of the concept being studied indicated a high content validity, several other variables indicated a low content validity.

Sampling validity was assessed by evaluating the process of data gathering. Data in this study were collected from case studies of ecotourism projects. Though the study population, defined as ecotourism development projects from all over the world, could not be identified, there are indications that case studies were obtained from a reasonable sample of case studies from the universe. For example, criteria were created to specify the case study needed (p. 43).

Case studies were collected in two different ways: library research and correspondence via e-mail with three international nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). In doing library research, computer search engines such as "ProQuest Direct" and "FirstSearch" were used to find published literature. Located through the bibliographies of ecotourism and community participation literature and by consulting with tourism academics, seven related journals were searched manually to find the related articles. Three international non-governmental organizations (NGOs), assumed to be the major sponsor for ecotourism development around the world, were contacted via e-mail: World Wildlife Fund for Nature (WWF), Conservation International (CI) and The Nature Conservancy (TNC). About forty-nine e-mails were sent. From these efforts, eighty-one (81) ecotourism case studies were collected from various sources. From eighty-one case studies eight studies were collapsed, leaving a total of seventy-three case studies to be analyzed (Appendix C).

Construct validity is difficult to establish. It refers to the extent to which a measurement is taken from the theoretical context of the concept being studied (Riffe et al., 1998). Adequately measuring this type of validity typically requires employment of multiple methods and a long period of time. This study used only one method and the data were limited to the information presented in the text. Therefore, construct validity cannot be assessed.

Data analysis

The data analysis process of this study is presented in Figure 7. Each case study was qualitatively coded by trying to identify the existence of the variables (Table 3). If the variable was not discussed, this finding was indicated in the appropriate column.

To examine manifest content, each existence of each variable was directly identified from the text of the case study, direct quotes and examples. For example, if the case study indicated that women were involved in the project, then variable number 25 (Table 3) was checked as positive (+) in the appropriate column to indicate that women were involved in the participation process and no inferences had to be drawn.

Latent content had to be inferred from the coding scheme, the context of the study, examples and direct quotes. For example, In Taquile Island, Peru (Mitchell, 1998) women may have been involved public meeting, but they do not express their opinion and ideas publicly. Their comments are expressed in their houses. This information inferred that women are involved indirectly in decision making.

Since one of the study objectives was to determine the kind of participation most commonly used in ecotourism projects, the frequencies and percentages of data were

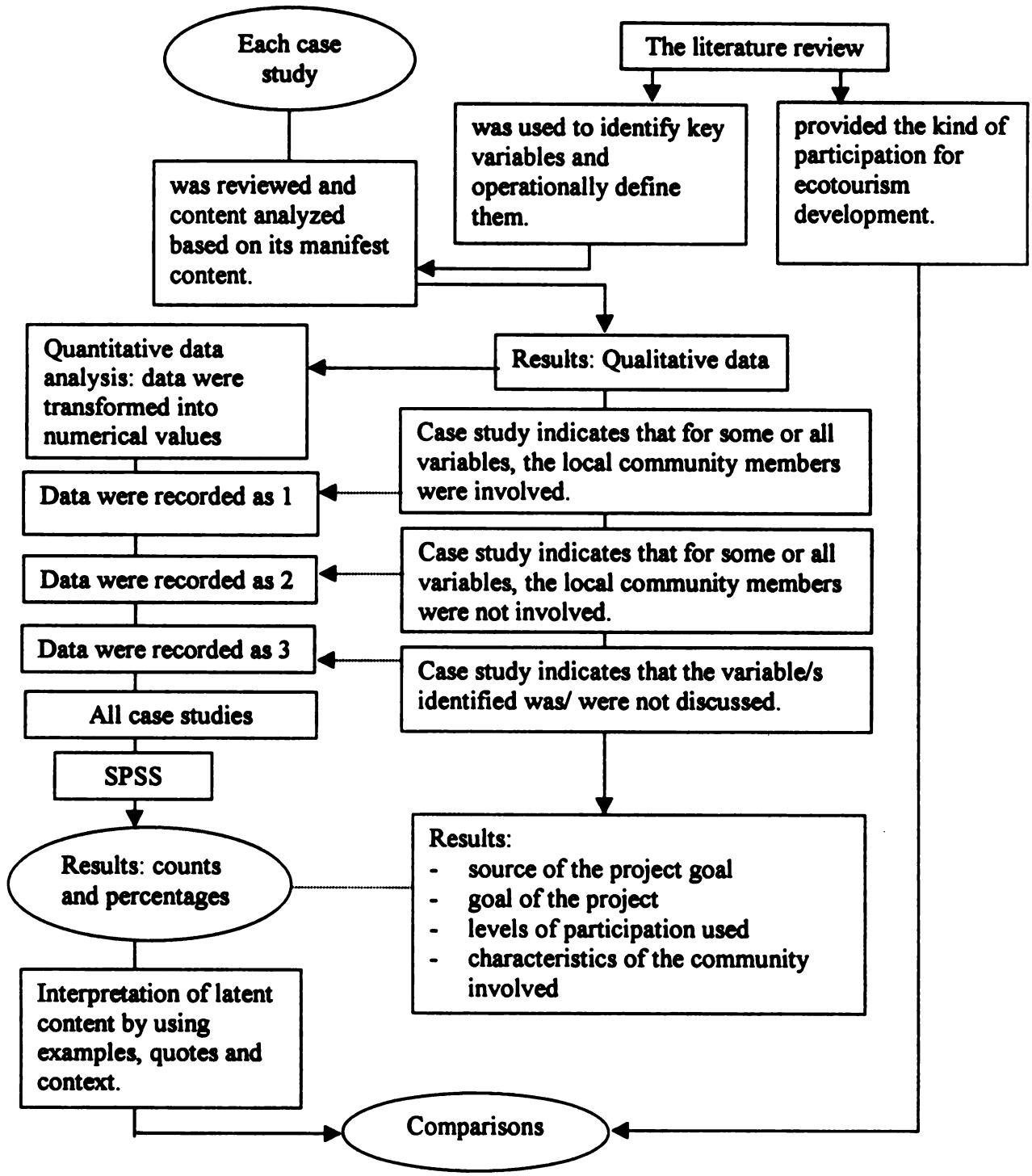


Figure 7. Data analysis.

needed. To reach this objective, all qualitative data in all case studies were transformed into numerical values (Appendix E). For example, a value of one (1) was used if the variable was both discussed in the case study and there was an indication of involvement by the local community members. A value of two (2) was used if the variable was discussed in the case study but there was no indication involvement. A value of three (3) was used if the variable was not discussed at all.

The variables under categories "Source of the project goal" were collapsed. Data were recorded as follows: one (1) if the source of the project goal was outside the community, two (2) if the source of the project goal was within the community, three (3) if there was no information on who was the source of the project goal.

These numerical data were then quantitatively analyzed by using the computer statistical program, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (Kelle, 1995; Weitzman & Miles, 1995). The results from this analysis were frequencies and percents of each variable from all case studies. In conjunction with further interpretation of the contextual meaning, these results were then compared to the participation for ecotourism development called for in the literature. The results of the data analysis are presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, results are presented and discussed. Comparisons between the study results and the kind of participation for ecotourism development called for in the literature reviewed are also discussed. The sections are arranged as follows: characteristics of the case studies, the source of the project goals, levels of participation and the characteristics of the community involved. Cross tabulation analysis was performed on selected pairs of variables. There were five pairs of variables: source of the project goal by empowerment of community, source of the project goal by involvement of community in decision making, empowerment of community by involvement of community in decision making, source of the project goal by involvement of community in action initiation and involvement of community in action initiation by involvement of community in decision making. A discussion of the results is presented at the end of this chapter.

Characteristics of the Case Studies

The characteristics of the case studies include the geographic location and level of development referred to in each case study. As mentioned in the sampling frame section, seventy-three case studies were used in data analysis. The distribution of geographic locations referred to in the case studies is as follows: ten (13.7%) case studies from Asia, seven (9.6%) from Africa, two (2.7%) from Australia and New Zealand, one (1.4%) from Canada, thirty-one (42.5%) from Central America, thirteen (17.8%) from South America,

two (2.7%) from Europe, four (5.5%) from the United States, and three (4.1%) from Micronesia and South Pacific islands (Table 8).

Table 8. Geographic location of case studies.

Geographic Locations	Frequency	Percent
Asia	10	13.7
Africa	7	9.6
Australia and New Zealand	2	2.7
Canada	1	1.4
Central America	31	42.5
South America	13	17.8
Europe	2	2.7
United States	4	5.5
Micronesia and South Pacific Islands	3	4.1
Total	73	100.0

The case studies vary not only by these broad categories of geographic locations, but also by country and site within each category. For example, the Xishuangbana Prefecture ecotourism project in China, the Mount Halimun National Park ecotourism project in Indonesia and the Khao Yai National Park ecotourism project in Thailand are included in the case studies of Asia. The Ranomafana National Park ecotourism project in Madagascar, the Amboseli National Park and Cobra project in Kenya and the Communal Areas Management Program for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) project in Zimbabwe are examples of ecotourism case studies in Africa. Ecotourism in Amazonas, Brazil, ecotourism in the Yucatan Peninsula, Mexico and the Community Baboon Sanctuary in Belize are examples of ecotourism case studies in South America. The complete list of the case studies is presented in Appendix C.

In terms of the country's level of development, the case studies were divided into two categories: developed and developing countries. Sixty-four of the seventy-three case studies were from developing countries; the other nine were from developed countries. For example, Thailand, Nepal, Indonesia, Belize, Kenya, Madagascar and Guyana are developing countries. The United States, Australia and Canada are developed countries (Table 9).

Table 9. Level of development growth of case study countries.

Level of development	Frequency	Percent
Developing country	64	87.7
Developed country	9	12.3
Total	73	100.0

Source of the Project Goal

Of the 73 case studies, fifty-four (74%) indicated that the goals of the ecotourism project were externally determined. Sixteen (21.9%) of the case studies indicated that the source of the project goal came from within the community. In three (4.1%) of the case studies, the source of the project's goals was not discussed (Table 10).

Government agencies, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and private businesses are examples of entities outside of the community that determined project goals. Of these entities, a combination of government, foreign NGOs (e.g., TNC, CI, WWF) and funding agencies (e.g., USAID, World Bank) were most often identified as the source of the project goal (31/54). In sixteen of the fifty-four case studies

government was the source of the project goal. In four of fifty-four case studies, the source of the project goal was a combination of government and local NGOs. In two of the case studies, the source of the project goal was private enterprises and in one of the case studies the source of the project goal was a local NGO.

Table 10. Source of the project goal.

Source of the Project Goal	Frequency	Percent
Outside of the community	54	74.0
Within the community	16	21.9
Not discussed	3	4.1
Total	73	100.0

For example, in the case study of the Bialowieza forest in Poland, a local NGO, the Flaxfield Nature Consultancy (FNC), Netherlands, in conjunction with the Mammal Research Institute, was source of the project goals (van de Vlasakker, 1999). The main goal of this project was to support the continuity of wolf research. Guided by a professional, ecotourists directly assisted wolf research.

Zabalo's ecotourism project is an example of a project goal that was internally determined (Wood, 1998). Though the project was led by Randall Borman, an American missionary's son who grew up with the Cofan and married a Cofan woman, the other Cofan community members at Zabalo were actively involved in developing ecotourism. For example, the community members created their own limits and rules for hunting zones. They also trained community associates to work for the ecotourism project and opened a small cooperative craft store.

Goal of the Project

In thirty-nine (53%) of the case studies, empowerment and capacity building of the community was one of the project goals. In twenty (27%) of the case studies, empowerment and capacity building of the community were not the project goals. In fourteen (19%) of the case studies, empowerment as a project goal was not discussed (Table 11).

Table 11. Empowerment and capacity building of the community.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	39	53.4
No	20	27.4
Not discussed	14	19.2
Total	73	100.0

From the case studies that indicated that empowerment of the community was one of the project goals, two patterns were identified. First, about 85% of the case studies (33/39) defined empowerment as providing training for related ecotourism jobs (e.g., a nature guide, tour operator, or traditional crafter), providing opportunities for community members to express their opinions and ideas through public meetings or monthly meetings, and involving community members in the decision-making process. Second, about 15% of the case studies (6/39) defined empowerment as simply providing training for ecotourism related jobs (i.e. to become a nature guide, tour operator, or traditional crafter).

As an illustration, in the Kapawi ecotourism project in Ecuador (Wood, 1998), empowerment and capacity building of community members included 3 actions:

- establishing joint initiatives with the community to develop the ecotourism project;
- employing a majority of Anchuar people in the project;
- training the Anchuar people to manage and market the ecotourism lodge.

Of the thirty-three case studies that describe empowerment of community, only ten case studies go to the same length as the Kapawi project in term of empowering local residents. Examples of these ten include the case studies in Mount Halimun National Park, Indonesia (Sproule & Suhandi, 1998), Annapurna Conservation Area Project, Nepal (Gurung & De Coursey, 1994; Lama, 1995), Ranomafana National Park, Madagascar (Peters, 1994), Zimbabwe Campfire Project, Zimbabwe (Robinson, 1996; Taylor & I. Bond, 1999), Bialowieza forest, (Van de Vlasakker, 1999) and Community Baboon Sanctuary (Horwich et al., 1998; Horwich & Lyon, 1998; Norris et al., 1998).

Levels of Participation

Information sharing, process nominal, consultation, decision making and action initiation were considered as levels of participation in this study. For information sharing, the variables identified were participation of community members in collecting preliminary data and volunteering their time and effort for the project. In nineteen (26%) of the case studies, community members were involved in preliminary data collection. In eight (11%) of the case studies, the community members were not involved. In forty-six (63%) of the case studies, the involvement of community members in preliminary data collection was not discussed (Table 12). For example, in the case study of Ranomafana National Park, Madagascar, the involvement of community members in preliminary data collection is described as follows:

In some cases, as with the village associations in Vohiparara, this low level of participation characterized only the earliest stages of the public's relationship with the project. Between 1989 and 1991, the village was visited by six different RNPP survey teams gathering socio-economic data and information about agriculture and forest use. (Peters, 1997:116)

Table 12. Community members participating in preliminary data collection.

	Frequency	Percent
The community is involved	19	26
The community is not involved	8	11
Not discussed	46	63
Total	73	100.0

In eleven (15.1%) of the case studies, community members volunteered their time and effort for the project. In eleven (15.1%) of the case studies, the community members did not volunteer. In fifty-one (69.9%) of the case studies, community volunteered their time and effort was not discussed (Table 13).

Table 13. Community members volunteering their time and effort.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	11	15.1
No	11	15.1
Not discussed	51	69.9
Total	73	100.0

The case studies in Huatulco, Mexico (Ishida, 1999), Mount Halimun National Park, Indonesia (Sproule & Suhandi, 1998) and the Cofan community at Zabalo, Ecuador (Wood, 1998) described volunteer efforts by community members. Attending public meetings, collecting preliminary data and providing and building initial access to designated ecotourism areas are examples of activities in which the community members

volunteered their time and effort. All of these activities usually took place in the initial development of the project. For example, in the case study in Mount Halimun National Park, Indonesia, the involvement of community members in volunteering their time and efforts is decribed as follows:

> Each of the villages has constructed trails to nearby natural destinations, such as waterfalls or mountaintops. In many cases, this involved upgrading existing trails traditionally used by village residents for hunting, forest product gathering or cutting bamboo. (Sproule & Suhandi, 1998:228)

Variables identified for the process nominal level were the hiring of community members by the project and the development of private enterprises as opposed to employment by the project. In thirty-four (46.6%) of the case studies, community members were hired by the project. In eight (11%) of the case studies, community members were not hired by the project. In thirty-one (42.5%) of the case studies, the hiring of community members was not discussed (Table 14).

Table 14. Community members hired by the project.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	34	46.6
No	8	11.0
Not discussed	31	42.5
Total	73	100.0

The skill levels of community members hired by the ecotourism project ranged from unskilled labor (e.g., porter, construction worker) to skilled labor (e.g., tour guide, tour operator, crafter, food provider) to management (e.g., project planner, policy maker, regulator). The Annapurna Conservation Area Project, Nepal (Gurung & De Coursey, 1994), Ranomafana National Park, Madagascar (Peters, 1994) and Mount Halimun

National Park, Indonesia (Sproule & Suhandi, 1998) are examples of case studies in which the skill levels of community members hired ranged from unskilled labor to management.

Of the thirty-four case studies that discussed the employment of community members by the project, in two case studies (5.9%), community members were hired as unskilled labor. In six case studies (17.6%), community members were hired as skilled labor. In nine case studies (26.5%), community members were hired as both skilled and unskilled laborers. In seventeen case studies (50%), community members were hired at all three skill levels (i.e., skilled, unskilled, and management).

In fifty-nine (80.8%) of the case studies, the community developed private enterprises to support the ecotourism project. In nine (12.3%) of the case studies, private enterprises were not developed. In five (6.8%) of the case studies, the development of private enterprises was not discussed (Table 15).

Table 15. Private enterprises developed by community members.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	59	80.8
No	9	12.3
Not discussed	5	6.8
Total	73	100.0

Private enterprises that were developed by the local community usually provided tourism services such as lodging, food, souvenirs, tour operators and tour guides. For example, the local communities in the Mount Halimun ecotourism project, Indonesia developed these types of services.

> Each of the three participating villages has built a guest house complex, constructed trails with appropriate signage, developed marketable handicrafts, trained local naturalist guides, and undergone intensive food and beverage preparation training. (Sproule &Suhandi, 1998: 228)

Consultation is the third level of participation. The variables identified for this category were the types of consultation activities used in the project such as public meetings, focus groups or other consultative methods. In eighteen (24.7%) of the case studies, the projects invited community members to public meetings. In thirteen (17.8%) of the case studies, community members were not invited to public meetings or the project did not hold public meetings at all. In forty-two (57.5%) of the case studies, public meetings were not discussed (Table 16). Example of the involvement of community members in the public meeting is described as follows:

> The people of PAN Parks project organized meetings and lectures where they explained the PAN Parks project and the importance of local people. (Niewiadomska et al., 1999: 20)

Table 16. Consultation mode: public meetings.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	18	24.7
No	13	17.8
Not discussed	42	57.5
Total	73	100.0

The case studies indicated that public meetings were used not only as a consultation mode, but also as a way to create some rules and to make some decisions. For example, in the case study of the Community Baboon Sanctuary in Belize, public meetings were used to inform the community about the idea and the purpose of the ecotourism project (Horwich et al., 1998). In the case study of the Ranomafana National

Park in Madagascar, the public meetings were used to make some decisions. For example, the use of public meeting to make decision is described as follows:

> In Vohiparara, local participation in decision making was generally an organized and collective activity of the associations. Thus, in early January 1993, a village meeting was attended by 83 of the 120 voting-aged residents.....In a vote by show of hands, 64 voted to unify, 12 voted to stay separate, and 7 abstain. After several names were proposed, they unanimously decided to name the new organization Tantsaha Miavotena Vohiparara (TMV), the association for the Progress of Vohiparara. (Peters, 1997:118)

In two (2.7%) of the case studies, the project used focus groups as a consultation method. In sixteen (21.9%) of the case studies, the project did not use focus groups. In fifty-five (75.3%) of the case studies, focus groups were not discussed (Table 17). The involvement of community members in focus group is described as follows:

> Such focus group discussions, which are another supported PRA technique...., complemented the larger community meetings in that they created an environment which encouraged people to speak more freely, especially those who are typically less vocal at larger meetings. (Robinson, 1996:87)

Table 17. Consultation mode: focus groups.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	2	2.7
No	16	21.9
Not discussed	55	75.3
Total	73	100.0

Regarding other consultation methods, in seventeen (23.3%) of the case studies, the project used other methods such as workshops, group discussions and distributing questionnaires as in the case study of Community Baboon Sanctuary, Central America (Horwich & Lyon, 1998), Zimbabwe Campfire Project, Zimbabwe (Robinson, 1996) and the case study in Annapurna Conservation Project, Nepal (Gurung & De Corsey, 1994).

In fifteen (20.5%) of the case studies, the project did not use other consultative methods. In forty-one (56.2%) of the case studies, other methods of consultation were not discussed (Table 18).

Table 18. Consultation mode: other methods.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	17	23.3
No	15	20.5
Not discussed	41	56.2
Total	73	100.0

For the decision-making level, community members were involved in thirty-five (47.9%) of the case studies. In twenty (27.4%) of the case studies, the project did not involve community members in the decision-making process. In eighteen (56.2%) of the case studies, the involvement of community members in decision making was not discussed (Table 19).

Table 19. Community involvement in decision making.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	35	47.9
No	20	27.4
Not discussed	18	24.7
Total	73	100.0

Of the thirty-five case studies that discussed involvement in decision making, 54.3% (n=19) did not explain the decision-making process, while 45.7% (n=16)

discussed the process in detail. Of the sixteen case studies that provided details, the decision-making process was characterized by the involvement of community members in determining project design, creating rules and regulations, and implementing activities through public meetings. However, in several particular case studies, the public meetings usually were not well attended (Robinson, 1996), community members were only involved passively (Wood, 1998, Ishida, 1999), and decisions were "outsider driven" (Meadows, 1993).

For example, in the case of Huatulco, Oaxaca, Mexico (Ishida, 1999), community members were involved in determining which part of their village would be designated as an ecotourism center, how facilities and services would be provided and who would be responsible for various tasks (Ishida, 1999). However, not all community members were involved actively in the decision-making process. Women, in particular, were not involved. Another example is the decision-making process in the Bio-Itza Reserve, Guatemala (Huex et al., 1998) and Costa Rica (Meadows, 1993). Entities outside the community had made decisions before community members contributed their ideas. This type of decision-making process might be called "outsider driven" (Meadows, 1993) or "tokenism" (Furze et al., 1997).

At the fifth level of participation, action initiation, forty-seven (64.4%) of the case studies indicated that the community members were involved. Fifteen (20.5%) of the case studies indicated that the project did not involve the community members in action initiation. In eleven (15.1%) of the case studies the involvement of community members in action initiation was not discussed (Table 20).

Table 20. Community involvement in action initiation.

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	47	64.4
No	15	20.5
Not discussed	11	15.1
Total	73	100.0

Of the 47 case studies that discussed the involvement of community members in action initiation, in twenty-five percent of the case studies (n=12), community members were not involved in the decision-making process. In seventy-five percent of the case studies (n=35), communities members were involved in both action initiation and the decision making process. The most common example of action initiation that can be identified from the case studies is involvement at the management level of the project, such as taking part in supervising and controlling project implementation. However, it was difficult to tell from the written materials whether or not people were proactive and initiated their own management after being trained.

Characteristics of the Communities Involved

The characteristics of the communities were assessed in terms of localities, local institutional structures, economic conditions and gender. Locality was defined as the distance from the community to the project location, specifically as living within, near, or far from the project location. In fifty (68.5%) of the case studies, community members of who lived within the project location were involved. In sixteen (21.9%) of the case studies, community members who lived within the project location were not involved. In

seven (9.6%) of the case studies, the involvement of those living within the project was not discussed (Table 21).

Table 21. Involvement of community members living within the project boundaries.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	50	68.5
Not involved	16	21.9
Not discussed	7	9.6
Total	73	100.0

In forty-eight (65.8%) of the case studies, community members who lived near the project location were involved in the project. In twenty-one (28.8%) of the case studies, they were not involved. In four (5.5%) of the case studies, the involvement of those living near the project location was not discussed (Table 22).

Table 22. Involvement of community members living near the project boundaries.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	48	65.8
Not involved	21	28.8
Not discussed	4	5.5
Total	73	100.0

In eight (11%) of the case studies, community who lived far from the project location were involved. In fifty-two (71.2%) of the case studies, they were not involved. In thirteen (17.8%) of the case studies, the involvement of those living far from the project was not discussed (Table 23).

Table 23. Involvement of community members living far from the project boundaries.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	8	11.0
Not involved	52	71.2
Not discussed	13	17.8
Total	73	100.0

The case studies did not discuss the differences in levels of involvement between community members who lived within, near or far from the project. However, the pattern of involvement of these communities, in general, is suggested by the levels of participation in which they were involved. These levels are discussed in the previous section.

The involvement of local institutions in the project was analyzed. These institutions included families, religious organizations, academic institutions, local government agencies, and other local groups. In eleven (15.1%) of the case studies, families were involved in the ecotourism project. In three (4.1%) of the case studies, families were not involved in the project. In fifty-nine (80.8%) of the case studies, the involvement of families was not discussed (Table 24).

The family in ecotourism projects acts as a support system in providing ecotourism facilities and services. For example, in the Community Baboon Sanctuary ecotourism project in Belize, some families contributed their land to the ecotourism area (Horwich et al., 1998). In the case study of ecotourism in the American West, some families provided lodging and food (Bryan, 1991).

Table 24. Involvement of family.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	11	15.1
Not involved	3	4.1
Not discussed	59	80.8
Total	73	100.0

In two (2.7%) of the case studies, religious organizations were involved in the project. In five (6.8%) of the case studies, religious organizations were not involved. In sixty-six (90.4%) of the case studies, the involvement of religious organizations was not discussed (Table 25).

Table 25. Involvement of religious organizations.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	2	2.7
Not involved	5	6.8
Not discussed	66	90.4
Total	73	100.0

In Huatulco, Oaxaca, Mexico, local community members were involved in an ecotourism project through a religious organization (Ishida, 1999), the Organization for the Defense of Rights and Community Development (ODDDECO). This is a grassroots organization with its foundation in liberation theology. It has been a base for Christian community activities since the late 1970s. ODDDECO organized the network of community groups that initiated the development of ecotourism in the area.

In eighteen (24.7%) of the case studies, local academic institutions were involved in the project. In three (4.1%) of the case studies, academic institutions were not

involved. In fifty-two (71.2%) of the case studies, the involvement of local academic institutions was not discussed (Table 26).

Table 26. Involvement of local academic institutions.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	18	24.7
Not involved	3	4.1
Not discussed	52	71.2
Total	73	100.0

The role of academic institutions in projects varied from providing data about the proposed project areas to initiating the project evidenced by the case studies of the Mount Halimun National Park, Indonesia (Sproule & Suhandi, 1998), the Xishuangbana Prefecture, China (Tisdell, 1996), and the Bialowieza forest, Poland (van de Vlasakker, 1999).

In forty-one (56.2%) of the case studies, local government agencies were involved. In nine (12.3%) of the case studies, local government agencies were not involved. In twenty (31.5%) of total case studies, the involvement of local government agencies was not discussed (Table 27). The types of government agencies involved in the projects included tourism development agencies, environmental protection agencies, planning and development agencies and public works agencies.

Table 27. Involvement of local government agencies.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	41	56.2
Not involved	9	12.3
Not discussed	23	31.5
Total	73	100.0

In forty-one (56.2%) of the case studies, other local institutions were involved. in six (8.2%) of the case studies, other local institutions were not involved. In twenty-six (35.6%) of the case studies, the involvement of other local institutions was not discussed (Table 28). This category includes conservation groups, indigenous associations and local businesses associations.

Table 28. Involvement of other local institutional groups.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	41	56.2
Not involved	6	8.2
Not discussed	26	35.6
Total	73	100.0

OINAE, Indigenous Organization of Ecuadorian Achuar Nationalities, is an example of a local indigenous association that was involved in an ecotourism project (Wood, 1998). In developing the ecotourism project in their area, this indigenous group worked with Canodros, a tour operator from outside the community. The case study of ecotourism in Wyoming in the American West is another example of the involvement of other local institutions. In this case, local farmers and ranchers created farm and ranch

recreation enterprises. They also established their own trade and marketing association called the Wyoming Homestay and Outdoor Adventure Association (Bryan, 1991).

Economic condition was defined in terms of the income levels of community members involved in the project. Levels were categorized as high, middle and low. These levels were identified based on what was stated or inferred in the case study. Thus, the low income category in one case study may differ from that of another case study. "Poor community" and "peasant family" were examples of key words describing the low-income category. "Wealthy family" and "elite groups" were examples of key words describing the high income category. The middle income category was identified based on occupation such as teachers, private business owners and farmers with a particular amount of land.

None of the case studies indicated that high-income community members were not involved in the project. In twelve (16.4%) of the case studies, community members whose income level was categorized as high were involved. In sixty-one (83.6%) of the case studies, the involvement by high income members of the community was not discussed (Table 29).

Table 29. Involvement of high-income members of the local community.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	12	16.4
Not involved	0	0.0
Not discussed	61	83.6
Total	73	100.0

In seven (9.6%) of the case studies, middle income members of the community were involved. In one (1.4%) of the case studies, no middle income members of the community were involved. In sixty-five (89%) of the case studies, the involvement of middle income members of the community was not discussed (Table 30).

Table 30. Involvement of middle-income members of the local community.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	7	9.6
Not involved	1	1.4
Not discussed	65	89.0
Total	73	100.0

In eighteen (24.7%) of the case studies, low income members of the community were involved. In five (6.8%) of the case studies, low income members of the community were not involved. In fifty (68.5%) of the case studies, the involvement of low income members of the community was not discussed (Table 31).

Table 31. Involvement of low-income members of the local community.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	18	24.7
Not involved	5	6.8
Not discussed	50	68.5
Total	73	100.0

Gender is another characteristic of the community that was analyzed in this study. The involvement of men, women or both men and women in the project was identified. None of the case studies indicated that men were not involved. In fifteen (20.5%) of the

case studies, men were involved. In fifty-eight (79%) of the case studies, the involvement of men was not discussed (Table 32). In most of the case studies, the involvement of men ranged from unskilled labor to management of the project.

Table 32. Involvement of men.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	15	20.5
Not involved	0	0.0
Not discussed	58	79.5
Total	73	100.0

In seventeen (23.3%) of the case studies, women were involved. In one (1.4%) of the case studies, women were not involved. In fifty-five (75.3%) of the case studies the involvement of women was not discussed (Table 33).

Table 33. Involvement of women.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	17	23.3
Not involved	1	1.4
Not discussed	55	75.3
Total	73	100.0

The case studies indicated that the involvement of women generally consisted of low levels of employment such as cleaning and food services. The case study in Bialowieza forest in Poland (Niewiadomska et al., 1999; van de Vlasakker, 1999) indicated that some private enterprises such as homestays, craft stores and restaurants were run or owned by women. Some of the case studies indicated that women were not in

decision-making positions such as the case study in Huatulco, Mexico (Ishida, 1999) and Ranomafana National Park, Madagascar (Peters, 1997). In Taquile Island, Peru (Mitchell, 1998) the women may have been involved indirectly in decision making. It was illustrated as follows:

> When we (men) have a position of authority, our wives work with us as well... They go to Sunday meetings where they listen, then go to their houses and make comments. They don't say a word publicly but they know. They also have a say in the Women's Club and the Maternity Center. (Mitchell, 1998, p. 167)

Of the case studies that discussed the involvement of men and women, in eleven (15.1%) of the case studies, both men and women were involved. In one (1.4%) of the case studies, both women and men were not involved (Table 34).

Table 34. Involvement of both men and women.

	Frequency	Percent
Involved	11	15.1
Not involved	1	1.4
Not discussed	61	83.6
Total	73	100.0

Cross Tabulation Analysis of Selected Variables

As mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, five selected pairs of variables were analyzed using cross tabulations to identify associations. These pairs of variables were: source of the project goal by empowerment of community, source of the project goal by involvement of community in decision making, empowerment of community by involvement of community in decision making, source of the project goal by involvement

of community in action initiation and involvement of community in action initiation by involvement of community in decision making.

The results of the cross tabulation analysis of the first pair of variables is presented in Table 35. In forty-eight percent of the case studies where the source of the project goal came from the outside community (n=54), empowerment of community was the project goal. In eighty-one percent of the case studies where the source of the project goal came from within the community (n=16), empowerment was the project goal.

Table 35. Crosstabulation: source of the project goal by empowerment of community

Source of the project goal	Empowerment of community			Total
	Yes (f)	No (f)	Not discussed (f)	
Outside of the community	26	19	9	54
Within the community	13	1	2	16
Not discussed	0	0	3	3
Total	39	20	14	73

The results of cross tabulation analysis of the second pair of variables is presented in Table 36. Of the case studies where the source of the project goal came from outside the community (n=54), 38.8% (n=21) involved community members in decision making. Of the case studies where the source of the project goal came from within the community (n=16), 81.3% (n=13) involved community members in decision making.

Table 36. Crosstabulation: source of the project goal by involvement of community in decision making.

Source of the project goal	Involvement of community in decision making			Total
	Yes (f)	No (f)	Not discussed (f)	
Outside of the community	21	18	15	54
Within the community	13	2	1	16
Not discussed	1	0	2	3
Total	35	20	18	73

The result of crosstabulation analysis of the third pair of variables is presented in Table 37. Of the case studies where the project goal was to empower the community (n=39), 74.4% (n=29) involved community members in decision making. In three of the case studies (7.7%), community members were not involved in decision making. In seven of the case studies (17.9%), the involvement of community in decision making was not discussed in the text.

Table 37. Crosstabulation: empowerment of community by involvement of community in decision making

Empowerment of community	Involvement of community in decision making			Total
	Yes (f)	No (f)	Not discussed (f)	
Yes	29	3	7	39
No	2	13	5	20
Not discussed	4	4	6	14
Total	35	20	18	73

The results of cross tabulation analysis of the fourth pair of variables is presented in Table 38. Of the case studies where the source of the project goal came from outside the community (n=54), 57.4% (n=31) involved community members in action initiation. Of the case studies where the source of the project goal came from within the community (n=16), 93.7% (n=15) involved community members in action initiation.

Table 38. Crosstabulation: source of the project goal by involvement of community in action initiation.

Source of the project goal	Involvement of community in action initiation			Total
	Yes (f)	No (f)	Not discussed (f)	
Outside of the community	31	14	9	54
Within the community	15	1	0	16
Not discussed	1	0	2	3
Total	47	15	11	73

The results of cross tabulation analysis of the fifth pair of variables is presented in Table 39. Of the case studies where the community members were involved in action initiation (n=47), 74.5% (n=35) involved community members in decision making. In five of the case studies (10.6%), community members were not involved in decision making. In seven of the case studies (14.9%), involvement of community in decision making was not discussed in the text.

Table 39. Crosstabulation: involvement of community in action initiation by involvement of community in decision making.

Involvement of community in action initiation	Involvement of community in decision making			Total
	Yes (f)	No (f)	Not discussed (f)	
Yes	35	5	7	47
No		15	0	15
Not discussed	0	0	11	11
Total	35	20	18	73

Discussion

This section describes how the results met the objectives of this study. There were three main objectives of this study: to identify the kind of community participation that is used most commonly in international ecotourism development projects, to determine if the kind of participation applied in the case studies corresponds to the kind of participation called for in the literature, and to make policy, planning and research recommendations. The first objective had two sub-objectives: to identify the levels of participation in which the communities are usually involved and to identify the characteristics of the communities that are involved. This section is concluded by comparisons of the study results from the case studies with the kind of participation called for in the literature. Recommendations are presented in the final chapter.

What kind of community participation?

The first objective of this study was to identify the kind of community participation that is most often used in ecotourism development projects. As mentioned in

the literature reviewed, the kind of participation was identified based on whether or not empowerment of the community was a project goal and if the community members were involved in decision making.

The results of data analysis indicated that in thirty-nine of the case studies (53%), empowerment of the community was the project goal. In thirty-five of the case studies (48%), community members were involved in decision making. The crosstabulation of these two variables (Table 37) showed that in twenty-nine of the case studies, the projects with the goal to empower the community were also the projects that involved community members in decision making. However, to determine whether or not this result corresponds to the kind of participation called for in the literature review, two other categories must be evaluated: level of participation in which community members were most often involved and the characteristics of community members that most often participated. For example, the percentage of community involvement in decision making must be compared with the percentage of the other levels of participation. In addition, in the case studies of Taquile Island, Peru (Mitchell, 1998) and Huatulco, Oaxaca, Mexico (Ishida, 1999), only certain community members were involved in the decision making process. Women were usually excluded. Therefore, to understand clearly the kind of participation most often used in the case studies, the Table 37 results must be compared with the levels of participation and the characteristics of the community involved.

In about 85% of the case studies where the goal was to empower the community (33/39), empowerment was defined as providing training for related ecotourism jobs (e.g., a nature guide, tour operator, or traditional crafter), giving opportunities for community members to express their opinions and ideas through public meetings or

monthly meetings, and involving community members in the decision-making process. Also, in twenty-nine (74.4%), of the case studies (Table 37), the projects with the goal to empower the community were also the projects that involved community members in decision making. Thus, it can be inferred that empowerment, as described in most of the case studies, is similar in meaning to empowerment as defined in the literature reviewed.

From the results of crosstabulation analysis presented in Table 35, it is apparent that empowerment of community most often occurred in the project where the source of its goal came from the outside (26/39). Table 36 shows that the involvement of community members in decision making also most often occurred in projects whose goals were determined by the outside (21/35). From these results, it is clear that most of these projects were "outsider driven."

There are many reasons why empowerment as a goal and involvement in decision making occurred most often in projects whose goals were determined by the outside. One reason may be the role of international conservation groups and funding agencies, such as the Audubon Society, World Wildlife Fund for Nature (WWF), Wildlife Preservation Trust International (WPTI) and The Nature Conservancy (TNC). For instance, for more that half (57%) of the case studies where the source of the project goal came from outside, the source was a combined effort of government and international NGOs and funding agencies. From these case studies, it is apparent that these organizations used ecotourism as a vehicle for promoting the conservation of natural resources, while attempting to reduce dependency of local communities on those natural resources and giving them life sustaining alternatives. Not only did they promote the development of ecotourism, especially in developing countries, but they also financially

supported its development (Furze et al., 1997; Lama, 1995). This commitment to empower and increase the capacity building of local communities may have influenced the way participation was practiced in the ecotourism projects they funded. The case studies of the Annapurna Conservation Area Project, Nepal (Lama, 1995), Mount Halimun National Park, Indonesia (Sproule & Suhandi, 1998) and Bialowieza forest, Poland (van de Vlasakker, 1999) are examples of ecotourism projects in which international NGOs took part in promoting and funding the project.

Another reason stems from the literature review on ecotourism where it is noted that the concepts of ecotourism are relatively new and that most of these definitions were created by those from developed countries. Thus, since about 88% of the case studies were located in developing countries (Table 8), most of the local communities in these countries might have no working knowledge of the term and thus must rely on outside sources for project initiation and assistance.

In conclusion, empowerment of community members occurred as the project goal in a little over half of in the case studies (top part of Figure 8). However, whether or not this result is consistent with the type of participation called for in the literature needs to be examined with the results from two other categories: level of participation and the characteristics of community members who most often participated in the ecotourism project.

Levels of participation

The second objective of this study was to identify the levels of participation in which the community was usually involved. The levels of participation include

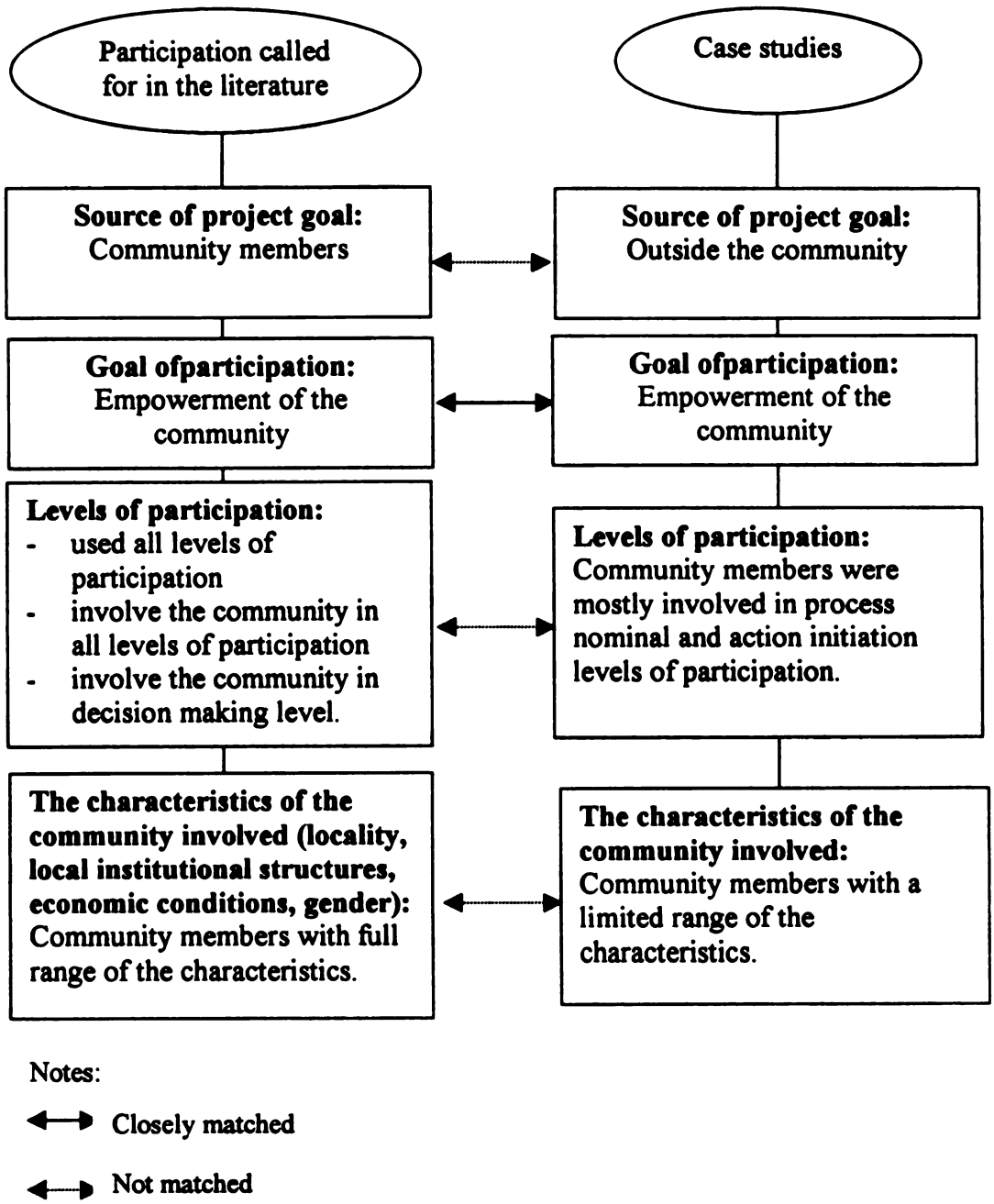


Figure 8. Comparison between the kind of participation in case studies and the kind of participation called for in the literature.

information sharing, process nominal, consultation, decision making and action initiation. In terms of information sharing, only a few case studies mentioned that the community members were involved in preliminary data collection (26.0%) and in volunteering their time and effort (15.1%). Most of the case studies did not discuss involvement of community members in preliminary data collection (63.0%) and in volunteering their time and effort (69.9%). These results might be affected by the failure of the authors of the case studies to fully describe the participation process. The results also might be influenced by the data sources that pertain to the use of published materials. Whatever the case, published materials are considered to be secondary data (Ritchie & Goeldner, 1994) and as secondary data, they may not be perfectly suitable for the research problem. In addition, the researcher was limited to the information presented in the text.

In terms of process nominal, private enterprises were developed in 81% of the case studies in response to the development of ecotourism. Nearly half of the case studies indicated that community members were also hired by the project (47%). The skill levels of community members hired by ecotourism projects ranged from unskilled labor (e.g., porter, construction worker) to management (e.g., project planner, policy maker, regulator). Jobs requiring semi-skilled labor included tour guide, tour operator and food provider.

In terms of consultation, only a few of the case studies indicated that the community members were invited to or were involved in public meetings (24.7%), focus groups (2.7%) and other methods such as workshops and questionnaire surveys (23.3%). Most of the case studies (about 63.0% in average) did not discuss community members' involvement in the consultation process. These results may be influenced by the

inherently limited information provided by the case studies.

Nearly half of the case studies (47.9%) indicated that community members were involved in the decision-making process. Of the case studies that discussed decision making, 46% described a process that included community members in determining project design, creating rules and regulations and implementing activities through public meetings. However, several particular case studies indicated that the decision-making process in real-life cases might reflect some bias. For example, a small number of community members attended public meetings (Robinson, 1996). In this case, the representation of community members in the decision-making process was questionable. Community members also might involved passively (Ishida, 1999; Wood, 1998) meaning that instead of voicing their ideas or opinions during the decision-making process, community members stayed silent. Decisions already made prior public meetings is another example of limited involvement (Meadows, 1993). In this type of case, the decision-making process might only be used to manipulate local people into accepting outside programs.

In 47 of the case studies (64.4%) community members were involved in action initiation. In 35 of these 47 case studies, community members involved in action initiation were involved in decision making (Table 39). There was a close but not perfect association between action initiation and decision making. They go hand-in-hand, so perhaps the distinction between action initiation and decision making (p.25) is more artificial than real.

A comparison of the results of all levels of participation might help in arriving at preliminary conclusions (Table 40). From this comparison, community members were

usually involved in process nominal and action initiation levels of participation. In terms of process nominal, the involvement of community members was mostly through the development of private enterprises. In developing private enterprises, the community members might or might not get help from the outside. In addition to the "nominal" benefits received by the community, the development of private enterprises might also indicate the ability of community members to empower and develop themselves.

Table 40. Levels of participation in which community members were involved.

Levels of participation	Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Information sharing	Community members participated in preliminary data collection	19	26.0
	Community members were volunteer their time and efforts	11	15.1
Process nominal	Community members were hired by the project	34	46.6
	Community members developed private enterprises	59	80.8
Consultation	Community members were involved in public meetings	18	24.7
	Community members were involved in focus groups	2	2.7
	Community members were involved in other consultation methods	17	23.3
Decision making	Community members were involved in decision making	35	47.7
Action initiation	Community members were involved in action initiation	47	64.4

In terms of action initiation, there might be a question as to why the number of case studies that indicate community involvement in action initiation is higher than the number of case studies which indicate community involvement in decision making. Of

the case studies that discussed the involvement of community members in action initiation, 10.6% (5/47) noted that community members were not involved in the decision making process. One of the reasons for this finding may be the increasing awareness of local communities about their rights to be involved in development projects. For example, some ecotourism development projects in Africa, such as the Amboseli Reserve (Gakahu, 1992) and the Masai Mara (Olindo, 1991) projects, originally excluded the local community when ecotourism was first developed. This exclusion created conflict between the project and the local community which did not benefit either party. The project later changed the approach to include local communities. However, most of these communities became involved after the projects were already developed, meaning that some of the project decisions had been made without them.

From the discussion of the results, it can be inferred that the levels of participation in the case studies do not correspond to the levels of participation called for in the literature. As discussed earlier, the literature reviewed suggests that community members should be involved at all levels of participation, especially in decision making (middle part of Figure 8). On a positive note, however, there were a number of activities (jobs, private enterprises, etc.) that might lead to more proactive involvement by community members in all levels in the future.

Characteristics of the communities involved

The third objective of this study was to identify the characteristics of the community members who were involved in the project. As mentioned in the literature reviewed, the characteristics of the identified community were: localities in which the

local community members reside, local institutional structures, economic status, and gender.

In terms of localities, community members who lived within (69%) and near (66%) the project location usually participated. According to Chambers (1995), these results still reflect "by the road bias" because the project involved only those living within and near the project location not those living further away. However, these results might also be influenced by the limitation of measurement within that study. The terms "within", "near" and "far" could not be measured accurately. Also, the case studies provided only qualitative information in which the meanings of "within," "near" and "far" might differ from one case study to another.

In terms of local institutional structures, the results show that local government agencies (56.2%) and other local groups (56.2%) were most often involved in ecotourism projects. Other local groups include conservation groups, indigenous community associations and business enterprise associations. This local involvement is the key to mobilization theory (Olsen, 1982 cited in Howell et al., 1987) which states that a new program or development project will receive more support if it is linked closely to the activities of existing groups or organizations in the community. In this case, the local government agencies and the other local institutions such as conservation groups, indigenous community associations and business enterprise associations may be the types of groups within local communities that are closely linked to ecotourism projects. However, the result might also reflect the "elite bias" in which community groups that have power (e.g., local government) benefit from the project while others do not.

The results also indicated low percentage involvement of families, religious organizations and academic institutions. As these institutions typically try to increase representation by the powerless, their lack of involvement might be a concern.

In terms of economic conditions, most of the case studies did not discuss which income group was usually involved (80%). Of the case studies that discussed involvement based on income level, low income community members were involved most often (24.7%). However, because most case studies did not discuss the involvement of community members in terms of their economic condition, a conclusion for this variable could not be made.

Most of the case studies (79%) also did not discuss the involvement of community members in terms of their gender. Women only were clearly involved in 17/73 cases, men only in 15/73 cases, and both men and women were both involved in 11/73 cases. However, because most case studies did not discuss the involvement of community members in terms of gender, a conclusion for this variable could not be made.

A summary of the results of all the characteristics of community members might help in arriving at preliminary conclusions. Community members who were most often involved in the ecotourism project were those who lived within or near the project area and were part of local government agencies or other local groups (Table 41).

These results do not closely match community characteristics called for in the literature (bottom part of Figure 8). The literature suggested that participation should be broad-based and representative of diverse community characteristics. It can also be inferred that participation in the case studies reflects "by the road bias" and "elite bias." Overall, the results in Table 40 and 41 suggest that, while some types of participation

Table 41. Characteristics of communities participating in ecotourism projects.

Characteristics of the community	Variables	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Locality	Lived within the project location	50	68.5
	Lived near the project location	48	65.8
	Lived far from project the location	8	11.0
Local institutional structures	Family	11	15.1
	Religious organization	2	2.7
	Schools or academic institutions	18	24.7
	Local governments	41	56.2
	Other local organizations	41	56.2
Economic condition	High income	12	16.4
	Middle income	7	9.6
	Low income	18	24.7
Gender	Men	15	20.5
	Women	17	23.3
	Both men and women	11	15.1

(e.g., private enterprises, action initiation) may be high, examination of who participates reveals numerous inequities.

These results might be influenced by the authors' failure to present the complete characteristics of the community members who were participating in the project. The authors may also be biased toward optimism in presenting their case studies. However, the results also might indicate the difficulties of having complete representation of community members in the participation process.

Comparison of case findings to the literature reviewed

This section summarizes and compares the findings of this study to the participation called for in the literature reviewed (Figure 8). It is summarized as follows:

- The goal of the ecotourism case studies was most often outsider-driven (n=54).
- In thirty-nine case studies, empowerment and capacity building of the community was indicated as the project goal.
- Where the goal was to empower the community (n=39), community members were involved in decision making in twenty-nine of the case studies.
- Empowerment defined in the case studies closely corresponds to the meaning of empowerment presented in the literature reviewed.
- The goal to empower the community most often occurred in projects where the source of goal came from the outside (n=29).
- Community members were most often involved in process nominal and action initiation levels of participation.
- The case studies frequently did not discuss representation of community members based on income or gender.
- In terms of locality, community members who participated most often lived within or near the project location.
- Local government and other local organization were more frequently involved than other local institutions (e.g., families, religious organization, educational institutions).

In conclusion, the most frequent ecotourism project goal in the case studies was to empower the community. However, in terms of source of the project goal and levels of participation, participation in the case studies was not consistent with the kind of

participation that is called for in the literature. The results show that the project goal was outsider driven in most of the case studies, while the literature reviewed indicated that the ultimate aim of ecotourism is for community members to be more actively involved than the outside in decision making and control of actions and outcomes (Figure 1). In addition, the results show that community members were most often involved in process nominal and action initiation levels, while the literature indicated that participation should occur at all levels, particularly the decision making level. In terms of the representation of community members, participation in the case studies often reflected "by the road " and "elite" biases.

Limitations

Several limitations of this study may influence the interpretation of the results. These limitations are related to data and measurement, author bias and researcher bias.

Data limitations occurred in the use of published materials. In this study, this type of limitation occurred for some variables. For example, most case studies did not discuss economic conditions and gender. As a result, conclusions for these variables cannot be made because information was limited to that presented in the text.

Measurement limitations were discovered when assessing the involvement of community members based on where they resided and other variables. For example, it was found that the meanings of "within," "near" and "far" from the project location may have differed from one case study to another. The measurement criteria used in this study could not accurately define the terms nor detect the differences.

There are two limitations of the authors that can be identified. First, the authors may or may not have presented a complete description of the participation process of the ecotourism project. Incomplete descriptions resulted in high frequencies in the "not discussed" categories for several variables. Second, the authors may be biased toward optimism in presenting their case studies (e.g., economic status and gender). These limitations influenced the researcher in interpreting information from such case studies and in reaching conclusions.

There are two limitations of the researcher. First, lack of familiarity of the researcher toward the case studies influenced the interpretation and the results of this study. For example, in the case studies of the Annapurna Conservation programs, it was difficult to determine if an organization belonged to an outside government agency or the local community. This lack of familiarity with the study area could result in a miscode of the data, which could influence the results of this study.

Second, English as a second language might be another limitation of the researcher because it may lead to misinterpretation or misjudgment in reading and coding the case studies. Again, this limitation could influence the results of this study.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As stated in Chapter II, there were three main objectives and two sub-objectives of this study. The first main objective was to identify the kind of community participation most commonly used in international ecotourism development projects. There were two sub-objectives of the first main objective: to identify the levels of participation at which communities are usually involved and to identify the characteristics of the communities that are involved. The second main objective was to determine if the type of participation applied in the case studies corresponds to participation called for in the literature. The third main objective was to make policy, planning and research recommendations. The conclusions stem from a summary and synthesis of the research findings presented in Chapter IV. The recommendations are based on the results and discussion of this study.

Conclusions

From the results and discussion, several conclusions can be drawn about the kind of participation most frequently used in ecotourism development. They are based on the goals of the project, the levels of participation, characteristics of local community members involved and the comparison of participation used in the case studies to the participation called for in the literature.

Goal of participation

The ecotourism literature suggests that ecotourism development should actively involve community members (Figure 1). Active involvement means empowerment of the community and local control.

Two variables (source of project goal and presence or absence of community empowerment as a goal) were used to examine the nature of participation in most ecotourism projects. Of the seventy-three case studies, the source of the project goal mostly came from outside of the community (n=54). Thus most of the ecotourism projects were outsider-driven.

A fairly high percentage (53.4%) of the case studies indicated empowerment as a goal but there was some variation in how empowerment was defined in the case studies. Empowerment was defined as providing training for related ecotourism jobs (e.g., a nature guide, tour operator, or traditional crafter), giving opportunities for community members to express their opinions and ideas through public meetings or monthly meetings, and involving community members in the decision-making process.

Where the goal of the project was to empower the community, community members were involved in decision-making process in most of the case studies (74.4%). Since the definition of empowerment in the literature includes decision making, empowerment in the case studies closely corresponds with the literature on that one dimension of empowerment.

Levels of participation

To arrive at a conclusion as to where on the spectrum of participation (Figure 4) most case studies fall, the results in Table 40 are most useful. Community members were most often involved in process nominal and action initiation levels. These findings do not agree with the levels of participation called for in the literature which highlights the involvement of community members at the decision making level and recommends community involvement in all levels. Three patterns of results shed further light on this conclusion.

The first pattern emerged from an analysis of case studies in which community members were involved at the process nominal level. In most of the case studies (81%), community members developed private enterprises. This finding emphasizes that community members might use this level of participation to gain economic benefits from ecotourism development. In addition, private enterprises provide the potential to enhance the capability of community members to empower and develop themselves.

The second pattern concerns the involvement of community members in action initiation. In 65% of the case studies, community members were involved in action initiation and this exceeded the rate of participation in decision making (48% of case studies). Action initiation might exceed decision making because of an increasing awareness of community members about the right to be involved in projects that could affect them. In addition, decision making varied a great deal in quality, being frequently characterized as outsider-driven, passive, or token. Thus, the third pattern was that local residents appeared to initiate action frequently but only after many decisions had already

been made by outside entities.

In short, the levels of involvement of community members in the case studies deviated from the level of involvement called for in the literature. While community members often take it upon themselves to participate or find ways to participate, there were few efforts from the outside to empower and involve the community in all levels of participation. However, through their ability to empower themselves, several communities had indicated that they could still receive "nominal" benefits from their involvement in ecotourism development no matter what the level of participation in which they were involved.

Characteristics of the communities involved

In terms of locality, community members who participated most often lived within or near the project location. Local government agencies and other local organizations were more frequently involved than other local institutions. The fact that these characteristics do not match the community characteristics of community called for in the literature emphasizes that the case studies reflected some biases including "by the road bias" and "elite bias." In addition, while some types of participation may be high, examination of who participates reveals numerous inequities.

Comparison of case findings to the literature reviewed

Consistent with the literature, empowerment and capacity building was a frequently stated goal. However, in terms of the source of the project goal and levels of participation, participation in the case studies did not reflect the participation called for in

the literature. Three patterns of data support this conclusion. First, the project was most often outsider-driven. In fifty-four (73.9%) of the case studies, the source of the project goal came from outside of the community. Thus, in most of the case studies community members were excluded from project goal determination. Secondly, community members were most often involved in process nominal and action initiation levels instead of the decision making level. Thirdly, in several case studies, although community members were involved in decision making, the case studies reflected "by the road" and "elite" biases. It is inferred that although these projects involved community members, the project might benefit particular groups in the community while excluding others.

Recommendations

This section includes recommendations for policy, planning and future research in ecotourism development.

Policy recommendations

Although participation in the case studies still reflected some biases, this study found that the kind of participation with empowerment as a goal and development of private enterprises provided opportunities for capacity building among local community members. It is suggested that the authorities or local government create and establish a general policy to ensure that ecotourism developers attempt to empower and build capacity by a) having empowerment as a clear goal, b) involving people in decision making from beginning to end and c) providing resources for training in management and development of private enterprises.

The results also indicated that parties other than local communities (e.g. private enterprises, local and international nongovernmental organizations, academic institutions) are involved with ecotourism development. Each party usually represented a particular interest related to ecotourism development. With this in mind, policies that determine the roles of the parties involved, based on their expertise, should be created. Policies also need to be made that facilitate communication among the parties involved.

Planning recommendations

As suggested in policy recommendations, participation with empowerment as a goal has and should continue to be employed in ecotourism development. However, the results of this study indicated that there were several problems which occurred when practicing this kind of participation. Problems include passive involvement and/or tokenism in the decision making process and low representation of community members.

Passive involvement in the decision-making process might be caused by a lack of information about the project, a lack of power, or cultural differences between the community and outside entities. Informing the community about the project concept through various information media might help reduce the lack of information. Involving community members at all levels of participation might also help them gain a clearer understanding about the project.

To reduce feelings of powerlessness, fostering a common decision-making process within the local community is recommended by asking for the assistance of community leaders or representatives of various community groups. In addition, creating

and employing different types of decision-making processes may make community members more comfortable with the decision-making process utilized.

To avoid tokenism in the decision-making process, representation in decision making among the parties involved needs to be more equal. The results of the decision-making process also need to be published through various communication media that exist within the affected community.

In terms of appropriate representation of the community, it is recommended that the project planner or manager conduct an informal or formal study of the characteristics of the local community. From this study, the planners could have a clear picture about those in the community who need to be involved.

Research recommendations

Though some findings have been produced, there remain some limitations of this study that need to be addressed in further research. It is recommended that different research methods be used for the same study objectives including field research, surveys or case studies. These types of research may produce more accurate and in-depth data. An examination of the nature and extent of levels of participation also is needed to gain a better understanding about the different roles of community involvement in each level of participation. Exploration of a strategy to maximize the involvement of community members is also needed to obtain better representation in the participation process.

APPENDIX A

E-mail Messages to NGOs

APPENDIX A

E-mail Messages to NGOs

Dear Sir or Madam,

My name is Sudhiani Pratiwi. I am a graduate student in the Park, Recreation and Tourism Resources Department at Michigan State University. Dr. Dennis B. Propst is my study advisor. Currently, I am working on my master's thesis. The topic of my thesis is local community participation in international ecotourism development projects. Through a review of case studies, I will address research questions such as what kind of participation is usually used in ecotourism development, who is involved in such projects, in what stages of development are communities involved, and how are the authorities and responsibilities shared.

Your organization has been recognized as the primary sponsor of ecotourism projects. I would like to ask your assistance in obtaining project reports and other documents to be included in my research. If you have such documents, would you please to let me know how can I obtain them?
Your assistance will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you for your help. I am looking forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely yours,

Sudhiani Pratiwi
Graduate Research Assistant

APPENDIX B

List of E-mail Address

APPENDIX B

List of E-mail Address

No.	Organization's name	e-mail address	Response
1	WWF-Australia	Wwfaust@ozemail.com.au	R/-
2	WWF-Austria	wwf@wwf..at	R/s
3	WWF-Japan	mhoshino@wwf.org.jp	N
4	WWF-Malaysia	wwfmal@pop.jaring.my	R/s
5	WWF-Netherlands	Info@wnf.nl	R/+
6	WWF-Belgium	Info@wwf.be	MR
7	WWF-New Zealand	Osbornec@compuserve.com	MR
8	WWF-Brazil	Pand@wwf.org.br	N
9	WWF-Canada	Dchant@wwfcanada.org	R/s
10	WWF-Denmark	Wwf@wwf.dk	N
11	WWF-Finland	Sirpa.pellinen@wwf.fi	N
12	WWF-Norway	Verdens.naturfond@wwf.no	R/+
13	WWF-Pakistan	Anwar@wwf.edunet.sdnpk.undp.org	N
14	WWF-Philippines	Kkp@mozcom.com	N
15	WWF-Zimbabwe	Ewilson@wwf.org.zw	R/+
16	WWF-Spain	Info@wwf.es	N
17	WWF-Germany	Sjagow@wwf.de	MR
18	WWF-Greece	Fchapple@wwf.gr	MR
19	WWF-India	Root@wwfind.ernet.in	MR
20	WWF-Italy	Mc7802@mclink.it	N
21	WWF-Sweden	Slundberg@wwf.se	MR
22	WWF-Switzerland	Lhagmann@wwf.ch	MR
23	WWF-United Kingdom	Wwf-uk@wwf-uk.org	N
24	WWF-United States	Wwf@worldwildife.org	R/-
25	WWF-Bhutan	Bhutan@wwfus.org	N
26	WWF-Bolivia	Wwfbol@bibosi.scz.entelnet.bo	MR
27	WWF-Cameroon	Jnchami@wwfnet.org	N
28	WWF-Madagascar	Jpadack@wwfnet.org	MR
29	WWF-Mediterranean	Llacerda@wwfnet.org	N
30	WWF-Mexico	Gcastiwwfmex@compuserve.com	R/s
31	WWF-Columbia	Vanessa@wwf.org.co	R/-
32	WWF-Costa Rica	Mcifuent@catie.ac.cr	MR
33	WWF-Nepal	Mns@wwf.mos.com.np	R/s
34	WWF-Peru	Edgar@wwfperu.org.pe	R/-
35	WWF-Russia	Ichestin@wwfnet.org	R/-
36	WWF-Central Africa	Carpo@komo.tiggabon.com	N
37	WWF-Eastern Africa	Wwfearpo@arcc.or.ke	N
38	WWF-European Policy	Tlong@wwfnet.org	N
39	WWF-West Africa	Wwfwarpo@africaonline.co.ci	N

40	WWF-South Pacific	Wwfspp@is.com.fj	N
41	WWF-Tanzania	Wwftpo@raha.com	R/s
42	WWF-Thailand	Wwfthai@ait.ac.th	N
43	WWF-Hungary	Zkun@wwf.zpok.hu	R/+
44	WWF-Zambia	Wwfzam@zamnet.zm	R/+
45	WWF-Indonesia	Kpanji@wwfnet.org	MR
46	WWF-Indochina-Vietnam	Wwfvn@netnam.org.vn	N
47	WWF-Scotland	Spepper@wwfnet.org	N
48	Conservation International	J.SWEETING@CONSERVATION.ORG	R/-
49	The Nature Conservancy	djensen@tnc.org	N

Source: http://www.panda.org, www.conservation.org, www.consci.tnc.org.
Notes:
R = response
N = no response
MR = e-mail returned
(-) = did not have article or report requested
(+) = sent the report
s = suggested book or others agency for follow up

APPENDIX C

List of Ecotourism Case Studies Based on the Types of Literature

APPENDIX C

List of Ecotourism Case Study Based on the Types of Literature

NO.	DATA CODE	CASE STUDIES' TITLE
ASIA		
1	1DAs	Sekartjakrarini, S. (1996). Ecotourism development: A case study of Siberut Island, Indonesia. Doctoral dissertation, Urban and Regional Science, Texas A&M University.
2	2JAs	Tisdell, C. (1996). Ecotourism, economic, and the environment: Observations from China (Xishuangbana Prefecture case study). Journal of Travel Research, 14 (4), 11-19.
3	3BAs	Sproule, K.W., and Suhandi, A.S. (1998). Guidelines for community-based ecotourism programs: Lessons From Indonesia (Gn. Halimun National Park's case study). In Lindberg, K., Wood, M.E., and Engeldrum, D. (Eds). (1998). Ecotourism: A guide for planners and managers. (pp. 215-236). (Vol. 2). Vermont: The Ecotourism Society.
4	4BAs	Gurung, C. P., and De Coursey, M. (1994). Chapter 11: The Annapurna Conservation Area Project: A pioneering example of sustainable tourism? In Carter, E., and Lowman, G. (Eds). Ecotourism: A sustainable option? (pp. 176-194). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
5	5BAs	Weaver, DB. (1998). Chapter 6: Ecotourism in Nepal (The Annapurna Conservation Area Project). In Weaver, DB. Ecotourism in less developed world. (pp. 135-159). Wallingford: CAB International.
6	6IAs	Lama, M.T.T. (1995). Annapurna Conservation Area Project. Annual progress report, 15th July 1994 – 14th July, 1995. Nepal: King Mahendra Trust for Nature Conservation.

7	7BAs	Weaver, DB. (1998). Chapter 7: Ecotourism in Thailand (Khao Yai National Park). In Weaver, DB. Ecotourism in less developed world. (pp. 160-179). Wallingford: CAB International.
8	8SAs	Wall, G., and Ross, S. (1998). Evaluating ecotourism: The case of North Sulawesi, Indonesia (Bunaken). University of Waterloo. Paper was presented at 7th International Symposium Society and Resource Management, University of Missouri-Columbia May 27-31, 1998.
9	9SAs	Wall, G., and Ross, S. (1998). Evaluating ecotourism: The case of North Sulawesi, Indonesia (Bogani). University of Waterloo. Paper was presented at 7th International Symposium Society and Resource Management, University of Missouri-Columbia May 27-31, 1998.
10	10SAs	Wall, G., and Ross, S. (1998). Evaluating ecotourism: The case of North Sulawesi, Indonesia (Tangkoko National Park). University of Waterloo. Paper was presented at 7th International Symposium Society and Resource Management, University of Missouri-Columbia May 27-31, 1998.
AFRICA		
11	1D/JAf	Peters, W.J. (1994a). Attempting to integrate conservation and development among resident peoples of the Ranomafana National Park, Madagascar. Doctoral dissertation, Department of Forestry, North Carolina State University. Peters, W.J. (1997b). Local participation in conservation of The Ranomafana National Park, Madagascar. Journal of World Forest Resource Management. 8, 109-135.
12	2T/IAf	Robinson, J. G. (1996). Searching for the 'community' in community-based conservation: A case study of a Zimbabwe CAMPFIRE project. Master thesis, School for Environmental and Resource Studies, Dalhousie University, Canada. Taylor, R.D., & I.Bond. (1999). Participatory technology development for community based wildlife management in Zimbabwe:The WWF support to CAMPFIRE project. In Watson,

		A.E., & Aplet, G. (1999). Personal, societal, and ecological values of wilderness: Sixth world wilderness congress proceedings on research, management, and allocation, Vol. II, Proc. RMRS-P-000. Ogden, UT: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Rocky Mountain Research Station.
13	3BAf	Weaver, DB. (1998). Chapter 5: Ecotourism in Kenya (Amboseli National Park). In Weaver, DB. Ecotourism in less developed world. (pp. 109-133). Wallingford: CAB International.
14	4PAf	Gakahu, C.G. (1992). Participation of local communities in ecotourism: Rights, roles and socio-economic benefits (Amboseli Ecosystem). In Gakahu, CG, & Goode, B.E. (Eds). Ecotourism and sustainable development in Kenya. (pp. 117-123). The Proceedings of the Kenya Ecotourism Workshop. Lake Nakuru National Park, Kenya: September 13-17, 1992.Wildlife Conservation International.
15	5BAf	Olindo, P. (1991). The old man of nature tourism: Kenya (Masai Mara/Serengeti Ecosystem). In Whelan, Tensie. (Ed). 1991. Nature tourism: Managing for the environment. (pp. 23- 38). Washington, D.C.: Island Press.
16	6PAf	Gakahu, C.G. (1992). Participation of local communities in ecotourism: Rights, roles and socio-economic benefits (Masai Mara/Serengeti Ecosystem). In Gakahu, CG, & Goode, B.E. (Eds). Ecotourism and sustainable development in Kenya. (pp. 117-123). The Proceedings of the Kenya Ecotourism Workshop. Lake Nakuru National Park, Kenya: September 13-17, 1992.Wildlife Conservation International.
17	7PAf	Lusiola, G. J. (1992). The role of the Cobra project in economic development of local communities. In Gakahu, CG, and Goode, B.E.(Eds). Ecotourism and sustainable development in Kenya. (pp. 125-131). The Proceedings of the Kenya Ecotourism Workshop. Lake Nakuru National Park, Kenya: September 13-17, 1992.Wildlife Conservation International.

AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND		
18	1J/BAu	Herath, G. (1997). Research notes: Ecotourism development in Australia. Annals of Tourism Research. 24, (3), 442-445. Hall, C. M. (1994). Chapter 9: Ecotourism in Australia, New Zealand and the South Pacific: Appropriate tourism or a new form of ecological imperialism? (Australia) In Carter, E., and Lowman, G. (Eds). Ecotourism: A sustainable option? (pp. 137-157). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
19	2BAu (New Zealand)	Hall, C. M. (1994). Chapter 9: Ecotourism in Australia, New Zealand and the South Pacific: Appropriate tourism or a new form of ecological imperialism? (New Zealand) In Carter, E., & Lowman, G. (Eds). Ecotourism: A sustainable option? (pp. 137-157). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
CANADA		
20	1JCa	Weaver, D., Glenn, C., and Rounds, R. (1996). Private ecotourism operations in Manitoba, Canada. Journal of Sustainable Tourism. .4, (3), 135-146.
EUROPE		
21	1BEu	Hall, D., & Kinnaird, V. (1994). Chapter 8: Ecotourism in Eastern Europe. (the Danube Delta Biosphere Reserve). In Carter, E., and Lowman, G. (Eds). Ecotourism: A sustainable option? (pp. 111-136). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
22	2MEu	van de Vlasakker, Joep. (1999, April). Wolf research tours: An ecotourism project in Bialowieza Forest. In PAN Times, 18 - 19. Niewiadomska, A., Berghmans, D., Scherpenisse, F., & Beverborg, D.G. (1999, April). Tourism in Bialowieza. PAN Times, 20.

SOUTH AMERICA		
23	1T/BSa	Ennis-Trotman, M. A. (1996). The development of ecotourism in Guyana: Issues and approaches. Master thesis, Departement of Economics, Dalhousie University.
24	2BSa	Wood, M. E. (1998). Meeting the global challenge of community participation in ecotourism: Case studies and lessons from Ecuador. (Coastal Project – Guyanas Province). (pp. 19-20). Arlington: The Nature Conservancy.
25	3TSa	Mitchell, E.G. R. (1998). Community integration in ecotourism : A comparative case study of two communities in Peru. (The Taquile Island). Master thesis, School of Rural Planning Development, The University of Guelph, Canada.
26	4TSa	Mitchell, E.G. R. (1998). Community integration in ecotourism : A comparative case study of two communities in Peru. (The Chiquian). Master thesis, School of Rural Planning Development, The University of Guelph, Canada.
27	5JSa	Wallace, G. N., and Pierce, S.M. (1996). An evaluation of ecotourism in Amazonas, Brazil. Annals of Tourism Research, 23 (4), pp. 843-873.
28	6BSa	Wood, M. E. (1998). Meeting the global challenge of community participation in ecotourism: Case studies and lessons from Ecuador. (Kapawi). (pp. 13-15). Arlington: The Nature Conservancy.
29	7BSa	Wood, M. E. (1998). Meeting the global challenge of community participation in ecotourism: Case studies and lessons from Ecuador. (Zabalo). (pp. 15-17). Arlington: The Nature Conservancy.
30	8BSa	Wood, M. E. (1998). Meeting the global challenge of community participation in ecotourism: Case studies and lessons from Ecuador. (Siecoya). (pp. 17-18). Arlington: The Nature Conservancy.

31	9BSa	Wood, M. E. (1998). Meeting the global challenge of community participation in ecotourism: Case studies and lessons from Ecuador. (Quehueri'ono). (pp. 18-19). Arlington: The Nature Conservancy.
32	10BSa	Wood, M. E. (1998). Meeting the global challenge of community participation in ecotourism: Case studies and lessons from Ecuador (Coastal Project – Playa de Oro). (pp. 19-20). Arlington: The Nature Conservancy.
33	11PSa	Trent, D. (1991). Case studies of two ecotourism destinations in Brazil (The Pantanal). In Kusler, J.A. (Eds). Ecotourism and research conservation: A collection of papers. (Volume 1). (pp. 441-445). Berne, NY : Ecotourism and Resource Conservation Project.
34	12PSa	Trent, D. (1991). Case studies of two ecotourism destinations in Brazil (The Caratinga). In Kusler, J.A. (Eds). Ecotourism and research conservation: A collection of papers. (Volume 1). (pp. 441-445). Berne, NY : Ecotourism and Resource Conservation Project.
35	13PSa	Gerzon, D. (1991). Ecotourism in the Galapagos Islands: Success or failure? In Kusler, J.A. (Eds). Ecotourism and research conservation: A collection of papers. (Volume 1). (pp. 512-515). Berne, NY : Ecotourism and Resource Conservation Project.
CENTRAL AMERICA		
36	1TCe	Meadows, D. R. (1993). The Environment/development interface in Latin America: Ecotourism and Costa Rica's search for sustainable development. Master thesis, Department of Resource Development, Michigan State University.
37	2TCe	Moan, S. A. (1993). Ecotourism on The Yucatan Peninsula: Ecotourism potentials in the Rio Lagartos Wildlife Preserve. Master thesis, College of Environmental Science and Forestry, State University of New York.

38	3TCe	Hartup, Barry K. 1989. An alternative conservation model for tropical areas: The Community Baboon Sanctuary in Belize. Master Thesis, University of Wisconsin-Madison.
39	4B/BCe	Horwich, R. H., et al. (1998). Ecotourism and community development: A view from Belize (Community Baboon Sanctuary). In Lindberg, K., Wood, M.E, and Engeldrum, D. (Eds). Ecotourism: A guide for planners and managers. Volume 1. (pp. 152-168). Vermont: The Ecotourism Society. Horwich, R. H., and Lyon, J. (1998). Community-based development as a conservation tool: The Community Baboon Sanctuary and The Gales Point Manatee Project (Community Baboon Sanctuary). In Primack, R. B. Bray, D., Galletti, H.A., and Ponciano, I. (Eds). Timber, tourist, and temples : Conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 343-363). Washington, D.C.: Island Press.
40	5BCe	Norris, R., Wilber, J.S., and Marin, L.O.M. (1998). Community-Based ecotourism in the Maya Forest: Problems and potentials (Community Baboon Sanctuary). In Primack, R. B. Bray, D., Galletti, H.A., and Ponciano, I. (Eds). Timber, tourist, and temples : Conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 327-342). Washington, D.C.
41	6T/SCe	Ishida, L. (1999). A case study of participatory action research to enhance community development: A community – based ecotourism project in Huatulco, Oaxaca. Master thesis, Department of Resource Development, Michigan State University. Ishida, L., and Runavara, D. (1999). Innovation, collaboration and the maintenance of tradition in Southern Mexico. Department of Resource Development, Michigan State University. Paper presented at A Conference on Participatory Development and Beyond, Ottawa, Canada. August 25-27; 1999.

42	7TCe	Jones, L. G. (1997). A participatory design process to prepare A conceptual ecotourism plan for the Calakmul Biosphere Reserve, State of Campeche, Mexico. Master thesis, College of Environmental Science and Forestry, State University of New York.
43	8SCe	Horochowski, K., and Moisey, R.N. (1998). Sustainable tourism development: The effect of local participation in Honduran ecotourism development (Cuero y Salado). University of Missouri-Columbia. Paper was presented at 7th International Symposium Society and Resource Management, University of Missouri-Columbia May 27-31, 1998.
44	9SCe	Horochowski, K., and Moisey, R.N. (1998). Sustainable tourism development: The effect of local participation in Honduran ecotourism development (Guaimoreto Wildlife Reserve). University of Missouri-Columbia. Paper was presented at 7th International Symposium Society and Resource Management, University of Missouri-Columbia May 27-31, 1998.
45	10PCe	Faust, B.B. (1991). Maya culture and Maya participation in the international ecotourism and resource conservation project. In Jon A. Kusler.(Ed.). Ecotourism and research conservation: A collection of papers. (pp. 178-205). Volume 1. Berne, NY : Ecotourism and Resource Conservation Project. Faust, B.B. (1991). A list of specific suggestions to be considered by Maya Communities. In Jon A. Kusler.(Ed). Ecotourism and research conservation: A collection of papers. Volume 1. (pp. 206-216). Berne, NY : Ecotourism and Resource Conservation Project.
46	11JCe	Chapin, M. (1990). The silent jungle: Ecotourism among the Kuna Indians of Panama. In Cultural Survival Quarterly, 14 (1), 42-45.
47	12BCe	Weaver, DB. 1998. Chapter 4 : Ecotourism in Costa Rica (Talamancan Ecotourism and Conservation Association). In Weaver, DB. Ecotourism in less developed world. (pp. 79- 10). Wallingford: CAB International.

48	13BCe	Rovinski, Y. (1991). Private reserves, parks, and ecotourism in Costa Rica (Monteverde Cloud Forest Reserve). In Whelan, Tensie. (Ed). Nature tourism: Managing for the environment. Chapter 3. (pp. 39-57). Washington, D.C.: Island Press.
49	14BCe	Weaver, D. (1994). Ecotourism in the Caribbean Basin (Dominica). In Carter, E., and G. Lowman. (Eds). Ecotourism: A sustainable option? (pp. 159-176). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
50	15BCe	Horwich, R. H., et al. (1998). Ecotourism and community development: A view from Belize (Cockcomb Basin Wildlife Sanctuary). In Lindberg, K., Wood, M.E, and Engeldrum, D. (Eds). Ecotourism: A guide for planners and managers. Volume 1. (pp. 152-168). Vermont: The Ecotourism Society.
51	16JCe	Linberg, K., Enrique, J., and Sproule, K. (1996). Ecotourism questioned: Case studies from Belize (The Cockscomb Basin Wildlife Sanctuary). In Annals of Tourism Research, 23, (3), 543-562.
52	17B/BCe	Horwich, R. H., et al. (1998). Ecotourism and Community Development: A view from Belize (Manatee Community Reserve). In Lindberg, K., Wood, M.E., and Engeldrum, D. (Eds). Ecotourism: A Guide for Planners and Managers. Volume 2. (pp. 152-168). Vermont: The Ecotourism Society. Horwich, R. H., and Lyon, J. (1998). Community-based development as a conservation tool: The Community Baboon Sanctuary and The Gales Point Manatee Project (the Gales Point Manatee Project). In Primack, R. B. et al. (Eds). Timber, tourist, and temples : conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 343- 362). Washington, D.C.: Island Press.
53	18JCe	Linberg, K., Enrique, J., and Sproule, K. (1996). Ecotourism questioned: Case studies from Belize (The Manatee Development Area). In Annals of Tourism Research, 23, (3), 543-562.

54	19JCe	Linberg, K., Enrique, J., and Sproule, K. (1996). Ecotourism questioned: Case studies from Belize (Hol Chan Marine Reserve). In Annals of Tourism Research, 23, (3), 543-562.
55	20JCe	Thomlinson, E., and Getz, D. (1996). The question of scale in ecotourism: Case study of two small ecotour operators in the Mundo Maya Region of Central America. In Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 4 (4), 183-200).
56	21BCe	Norris, R., Wilber, J.S., and Marin, L.O.M. (1998). Community-based ecotourism in the Maya Forest: Problems and potentials (Ixlu). In Primack, R. B. et al. (Eds). Timber, tourist, and temples : Conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 327-342). Washington, D.C.
57	22BCe	Norris, R., Wilber, J.S., and Marin, L.O.M. (1998). Community-based ecotourism in the Maya Forest: Problems and potentials (Zocotzal). In Primack, R. B. et al. (Eds). Timber, tourist, and temples : Conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 327-342). Washington, D.C.
58	23BCe	Norris, R., Wilber, J.S., and Marin, L.O.M. (1998). Community-based ecotourism in the Maya Forest: Problems and potentials (Uaxactun). In Primack, R. B. et al. (Eds). Timber, tourist, and temples : Conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 327-342). Washington, D.C.
59	24BCe	Norris, R., Wilber, J.S., and Marin, L.O.M. (1998). Community-based ecotourism in the Maya Forest: Problems and potentials (Eco-escuela). In Primack, R. B. et al. (Eds). Timber, tourist, and temples : Conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 327-342). Washington, D.C.
60	25BCe	Norris, R., Wilber, J.S., and Marin, L.O.M. (1998). Community-based ecotourism in the Maya Forest: Problems and potentials (Ixchel). In Primack, R. B. et al. (Eds). Timber,

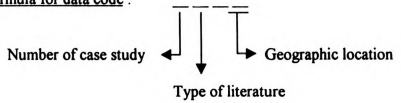
		tourist, and temples : Conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 327-342). Washington, D.C.
61	26BCe	Norris, R., Wilber, J.S., and Marin, L.O.M. (1998). Community-based ecotourism in the Maya Forest: Problems and potentials (Toledo Ecotourism Association). In Primack, R. B. et al. (Eds). Timber, tourist, and temples : Conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 327-342). Washington, D.C.
62	27BCe	Norris, R., Wilber, J.S., and Marin, L.O.M. (1998). Community-based ecotourism in the Maya Forest: Problems and potentials (Amigos de El Pilar). In Primack, R. B. et al. (Eds). Timber, tourist, and temples : Conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 327-342). Washington, D.C.
63	28BCe	Norris, R., Wilber, J.S., and Marin, L.O.M. (1998). Community-based ecotourism in the Maya Forest: Problems and potentials (Maya Centre). In Primack, R. B. et al. (Eds). Timber, tourist, and temples : Conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 327-342). Washington, D.C.
64	29BCe	Norris, R., Wilber, J.S., and Marin, L.O.M. (1998). Community-based ecotourism in the Maya Forest: Problems and potentials (Bio Itza). In Primack, R. B. et al. (Eds). Timber, tourist, and temples : Conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 327-342). Washington, D.C.
65	30BCe	Huex, R. C., Colli, F. T, Caal, C.G., Gretzinger, S.P. (1998). The Bio-Itza: History of an indigenous effort to conserve the Maya Itza community of San Jose, El Peten, Guatemala. In Primack, R. B. et al. (Eds). Timber, tourist, and temples : Conservation and development in the Maya Forest of Belize, Guatemala, and Mexico. (pp. 317-325) Washington, D.C.
66	31PCe	Lewsey, C. (1991). An ecotourism strategy for the development of the South-East Penninsula: The case of St. Kitts, West Indies. In Jon A. Kusler.(Ed). Ecotourism and

		research conservation: A collection of papers. Volume 1. (pp. 484-511). Berne, NY : Ecotourism and Resource Conservation Project.
UNITED STATES		
67	1BUn	Bryan, B. (1991). Ecotourism on family farms and anches in the American West. In Whelan, T. (Ed). Nature tourism: Managing for the environment. (pp. 75-85). Washington, D.C.: Island Press.
68	2PUn	Cousins, K. (1991). Marine ecotourism: Case studies from United States Coastal Management Programs. In Jon A. Kusler.(Ed). Ecotourism and research conservation: A collection of papers. Volume 2. (pp. 634-642). Berne, NY : Ecotourism and Resource Conservation Project.
69	3BUn	Var, T. (1997). Development of an ecotourism strategy for Texas. Iin Cooper, C., & Wanhill, S.(Eds). Tourism development: Environmental and community issues. (pp. 113-116). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
70	4BUn	Smith, V. L. (1997). The four Hs of tribal tourism: Acoma- a Pueblo case study. In Cooper, C., & Wanhill, S. (Eds). Tourism development: Environmental and community issues. (pp. 141-152). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
OTHERS		
71	1JOt	Valentine, P. S. (1993). Ecotourism and nature conservation: A definition with some recent developments in Micronesia (Marshal Islands). In Tourism Management, 14, (2), 107-115.
72	2JOt	Valentine, P. S. (1993). Ecotourism and nature conservation: A definition with some recent developments in Micronesia (Pohnpei). In Tourism Management, 14, (2), 107-115.

73	3BOt	Hall, C. M. (1994). Chapter 9: Ecotourism in Australia, New Zealand and the South Pacific: Appropriate tourism or a new form of ecological imperialism? (South Pacific) In Carter, E., and Lowman, G. (Eds). Ecotourism: A sustainable option? (pp. 137-157). Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Notes:

Formula for data code :



CLASSIFICATIONS OF DATA					
CODE	Type of literature	Total	CODE	Geographic Location	Total case studies
P	Published Proceeding	10	As	Asia	10
T	Thesis	9	Af	Africa	7
D	Dissertation	2	Au	Australia and New Zealand	2
J	Refereed Journal	12	Ca	Canada	1
I	Internal Report	2	Eu	Europe	2
S	Paper presented at seminar	6	Sa	South America	13
B	Book	38	Ce	Central America	31
M	Magazine	2	Un	United States	4
			Ot	Others (Micronesia & Solomon Islands)	3
TOTAL		81	TOTAL		73

Example: 4BUn → means that it is a fourth case study from United States and it's type of data source is a book.

APPENDIX D

Guidelines for Raters

APPENDIX D

Guidelines for Raters

Variable #	Explanations/Definitions/Examples
1	- **Outside of the community** includes government, private enterprise, or international nongovernmental organizations (NGOs). - Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the project goal was determined by influences outside of the community. - If you mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable, you have to mark (-) in the "discussed" column for variable 2. - If there is no information regarding who determined the goals of the project, mark the "not discussed" column for variables 1& 2.
2	- **Local community** is defined as a group of people likely to receive a direct impact from the ecotourism project. They may live within, near, or far from the project (Chambers, 1995). - **A local organization** is defined as an organization that is comprised of all or several members of the local community such as local NGO's, ethnic groups/associations, local conservation groups, or local private enterprise (Furze et al., 1997; Peters, 1994). - Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the project goal was determined by the community such as members of the community or local organizations. - If you mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable, you have to mark (-) in the "discussed" column for variable 1. - If there is no information regarding who determined the goals of the project, mark the "not discussed" column for variables 1 & 2.
3	- **The empowerment and capacity building** of a local community are characterized by the presence of any of the following activities: any type of training to improve the quality of human resources related to the purpose of ecotourism, environmental education for any target audience within the local community, or the employment of members of the local community (Furze et al., 1997; Wall & Ross, 1998). - Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the goal of the project is to empower and to increase the capacity building of the local community or if the reading indicates activities that characterized the empowerment and capacity building of the community. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the goal of the project is not to empower and to increase the capacity building of the local community or if the reading does not indicate activities that characterized the empowerment and capacity building of the community.

	- If there is no information regarding empowerment and capacity building in the reading, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
4	- **"Lived within the project location"** refers to persons residing within the boundaries of areas designated as conserved or protected such as national parks or nature reserves or in a village that is an ecotourism destination, itself (Chambers, 1995; Peters, 1994). - Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the local community members who lived within the project location were involved. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the local community members who lived within the project location were not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of the local community members who lived within the project location, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
5	- **"Lived near the project location"** refers to persons residing outside of the boundaries of areas designated as conserved or protected but within a buffer zone (Chambers, 1995; Peters, 1994; Primack et al., 1998). - **A Buffer zone** is an area between conservation and residential areas. It is designated to give additional protection to the protected area (Primack, et al., 1998). - Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the local community members who lived near the project location were involved. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the local community members who lived near the project location were not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of the local community members who lived near the project location, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
6	- **"Lived far from the project location"** refers to persons residing outside of the boundaries of areas designated as conserved or protected, and outside buffer zones (Chambers, 1995; Peters, 1994). - Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the local community members who lived far the project location were involved. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the local community members who lived far the project location were not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of the local community members who lived far from the project location, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
7	- **Familial relationship** is defined as the basis for the group's organization in the community (Furze et al., 1997). - Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates

	that whole families of community members were involved. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that whole families of community members were not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of whole families, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
8	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that a religious organization was involved (e.g., local Moslem or Christian organizations or any organization based on religion). - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that a religious organization was not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of the local religious organization, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
9	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that schools or academic institutions were involved (e.g. elementary, high schools, universities or university extension). - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that schools or academic institutions were not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of the school or academic institutions, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
10	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that local government was involved including departments of tourism, departments of transportation, or any organization that represent the government in which the ecotourism project is located (Jenkins & Henry, 1982). - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that local government was not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of the local government, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
11	- **A local organization** is defined as an organization that is comprised of all or several members of the local community such as local NGO's, tribal organizations, local conservation groups, or local private enterprise (Beavers, 1995 cited in Norris, 1998). - Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that local organizations were involved. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that local organizations were not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of local organizations, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
12	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that high-income members of the community were involved. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that high-income members of the community were not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of high-income members of the community, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.

13	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that middle-income members of the community were involved. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that middle-income members of the community were not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of the middle-income members of the community, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
14	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that low-income members of the community were involved. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that low-income members of the community were not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of the low-income members of the community, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
15	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that members of the community who are men were involved. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that men were not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of men, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
16	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that members of the community who are women were involved. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that women were not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of women, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
17	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that both men and women who are members of the community were involved. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that both men and women were not involved. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of both men and women, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
18	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the local community members participated in preliminary data collection of the ecotourism project. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the local community members did not participate in preliminary data collection of the ecotourism project. - If there is no information regarding the participation of community members in preliminary data collection of the ecotourism project, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
19	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that community members were employed by the project. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates

	that community members were not employed by the project. - If there is no information regarding the employment of local communities by the project, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
20	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that members of the local community volunteered their time and efforts to develop the ecotourism project without payment. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that members of the local community did not volunteer their time and efforts to develop the ecotourism project. - If there is no information regarding the voluntary involvement members of the local community, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
21	- **Private enterprises** include tour operators, souvenir shops, motel, etc (Primack et al., 1998; Wall & Ross, 1998). - Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that local communities developed and/or owned private enterprises after the ecotourism began. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that local communities did not develop and/or own private enterprises after the ecotourism began. - If there is no information regarding the development or ownership of private enterprises by the local communities, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
22	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the project held public meetings with the local community before the project began. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the project did hold public meetings with the local community before the project began. - If there is no information regarding public meetings, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
23	- **A focus group is** a small group discussion used to explore various aspects of a specific topic, problem or issue (Ritchie & Goeldner, 1994). - Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the project had utilized a series of focus groups before the project began. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that the project had not utilized focus groups before the project began. - If there is no information regarding focus groups, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
24	- Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that there were other consultative methods used before the project began. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that there were not other consultative methods used before the project began. - If there is no information regarding the use of other consultative methods

	in the project, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
25	- **Decision making** includes the involvement of community leaders or the community members in project management or the activities such as creating rules. - Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that local community members were involved in the decision making process of the project. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that local community members were not involved in the decision making process of the project. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of local community in the decision-making process of the project, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.
26	- **Action initiation** includes taking part in the development process and monitoring process (Paul, 1987 cited in Drake, 1991; Perez, 1997). - Mark (+) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that local community members were involved in the action initiation process of the project. - Mark (-) in the "discussed" column for this variable if the reading indicates that local community were not involved in the action initiation process of the project. - If there is no information regarding the involvement of local community members in the action initiation process of the project, mark the "not discussed" column for this variable.

APPENDIX E

Codebook

APPENDIX E

Codebook

Types of Literature (LTR):

Type of literature	Data Code	Value
Published Proceeding	P	1
Thesis	T	2
Dissertation	D	3
Refereed Journal	J	4
Internal Report	I	5
Seminar Paper	S	6
Magazine	M	7
Book	B	8

Geographic Location of the Case Studies (GL):

Geographic location	Data code	Value
Asia	As	1
Africa	Af	2
Australia and New Zealand	Au	3
Canada	Ca	4
Central America	Ce	5
Europe	Eu	6
South America	Sa	7
United States	Un	8
Others	Ot	9

Level of Development Growth of Case Study Countries (GC):

Category	Value
Developing country	1
Developed country	2

Participation:

Category	Variables #	Value
Who is source of the project goal ?	1= outside of the community	1 = discussed +/ yes/involved 2 = discussed –/no/ not involved 3 = not discussed
	2= within the community	
What is the project goal?	3= empowerment and capacity building of the community	

Data were collapsed for variables 1, 2 , and 3 and recorded as :

Category	Variables	Value
Source of the project goal	Outside of the community	1
	Within the community	2
	Not discussed	3

Levels of participation and Sharing Responsibility and Authority:

Category	Sub-category	Variables #	Value
Levels of participation	Information sharing	4= local people participated in preliminary data collection of the project	1 = discussed +/ yes/involved 2 = discussed –/no/ not involved 3 = not discussed
		5= volunteered	
	Process nominal	6= hired by the project	
		7= developed and/ or owned private enterprises	
	Consultation	8= public meetings	
		9= focus groups	
		10 = other methods	
	Decision making	11= involved	
	Action initiation	12= involved	

The Characteristics of the Community Involved in Participation:

Question	Sub-category	Variables #	Value
Who was involved?	Locality	13 = live within the project location	1 = discussed +/ yes/involved 2 = discussed – /no/ not involved 3 = not discussed
		14 = live near the project/ buffer zone	
		15 =live far from the project	
	Local institutional	16 =family	
		17 =religious organization	
		18 =school or academic institution	
		19 = local government	
		20 =other local organization	
	Economic condition	21 =high	
		22 =middle	
		23 =low	
	Gender	24 =men	
		25 =women	
		26 =both men and women	

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LITERATURE CITED

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