Land Use Policy 88 (2019) 104155

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Land Use Policy

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/landusepol

Community participation in tourism development as a tool to foster sustainable land and resource use practices in a national park milieu

Amare Wondirad[a,*], Biruk Ewnetu[b]

[a] Sol International School Hospitality Management (SIHOM), Sol International School, Woosong University, 171 Dongdaejeon-ro, Dong-gu, Daejeon 34606, Republic of Korea

[b] Department of Hotel and Tourism Management, Hawassa University, P.O Box: 05, Hawassa, Ethiopia

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
Bale Mountains National Park
Community participation
Constraints
Dinsho
Stakeholder theory
Sustainable land and resource use
Sustainable tourism

ABSTRACT

Community participation has been on the spotlight in tourism academia as a tool to induce sustainable tourism development. However, despite profound commendations of literature, destinations often fail to adequately operationalize effective community participation. Under the lenses of stakeholder theory and Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation, the current study examines community participation in Dinsho area of Bale Mountains National Park, Southeastern Ethiopia. Arnstein's citizen participation model is employed to better understand the extent of community participation in the tourism development process, while stakeholder theory is adopted to gain a deeper insight regarding the interests of stakeholders along with the corresponding management strategies. Research findings unfold that in Dinsho, the extant community participation corresponds to non-participation continuum where citizens are simply deceived by pseudo and tokenistic participation which led to inequitable benefit-sharing. Based on study findings, the researchers challenge that communities' engagement in tourism development highly relies on gatekeepers' nature and communities' economic background and argue that in a venue where economically weak community and manipulative gatekeepers exist, ensuring community participation is more challenging. That, in turn, negatively affects the sustainable land and resource use practices leading to irreversible devastation on ecologically sensitive habitats such as the Bale Mountains National Park.

1. Introduction

Tourism literature underscores the importance of grassroots community engagement to ensure self-reliance and thereby improve residents' standard of living (Cooper and Hall, 2016; Lu et al., 2016; Sakata and Prideaux, 2013; Sharpley, 2000; Telfer, 2002). Within the umbrella of alternative development paradigm, tourism has become an appealing option for socio-economic development especially in developing countries (Berno and Bricker, 2001; Butcher, 2011; Iorio and Corsale, 2014; Mitchell and Coles, 2009; Snyman, 2014) if it embraces genuine community participation (Chan and Bhatta, 2013; Curcija et al., 2019; Gale and Hill, 2009; Honey, 2008; Mayaka et al., 2018; Noakes and Carlsen, 2013; Okazaki, 2008; Scheyvens, 1999; Snyman, 2014; Stronza and Gordillo, 2008; Tran and Walter, 2014). Numerous case studies across the globe demonstrate that tourism can significantly improve communities' livelihood and contribute to the socio-cultural and ecological protection if it is properly planned and developed through a comprehensive and genuine community participation (de Haas, 2002; Hunt et al., 2014; Jamal and Stronza, 2009; KC et al., 2015; Kennedy et al., 2013; Sebele, 2010; Sharpley, 2009; Sakata and Prideaux, 2013; Snyman, 2014; Stone and Stone, 2011; Timothy and White, 1999; Tokalu, 2005; Zapata et al., 2011).

Owning the highest number of World Heritage sites in Africa (UNECA, 2015) and some of the most magnificent national parks and wildlife resources along with exotic cultural heritages in Africa (Frost and Shanka, 2002; Mann, 2006; Young, 2012), Ethiopia has an enormous potential of benefiting from its tourism sector. If it is supported with the necessary development policies and political commitment, tourism in Ethiopia can meaningfully contribute to poverty reduction programs as it is stressed in the tourism policy document of the country (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009; Tegegne et al., 2018; Tessema et al., 2010; Wondirad, 2017). On paper, the government of Ethiopia emphasizes the roles of tourism in the fight against poverty (Mann, 2006; Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009). Words of both the former Prime Ministers (Zenawi and Dessalgne) demonstrate the government's disposition appreciating the country's untapped tourism potential and the growing contribution of tourism to the overall economic development (Mann, 2006; UNECA, 2015; World Travel and Tourism

* Corresponding author.
E-mail addresses: amare.wondirad@sis.ac.kr (A. Wondirad), meetbiruk@gmail.com (B. Ewnetu).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2019.104155
Received 24 April 2019; Received in revised form 3 August 2019; Accepted 6 August 2019

Council, WTTC, 2018). As a result, currently, tourism is included as one of the priority sectors outlined in the country's Growth and Transformation Plan (UNECA, 2015). In this respect, the former PM of the country (PM Dessalegne) stated that:

The government of Ethiopia is deeply committed to exert every effort necessary to implement the Ethiopia Sustainable Tourism Master Plan (ESTMP) and further calls for the strong commitment, effort and practical involvement of the private sector, civil society, community and development partners in its implementation and monitoring' (UNECA, 2015, p.12).

PM Zenawi also made clear the stand of his administration in stating that 'My government believes that an increased focus on tourism can play a more significant role in the war on poverty, both in Ethiopia and across Africa as a whole' (Mann, 2006, p. 59).

Nevertheless, in part due to a protective, instead of a participative national park development and management approach, and in part due to strategic, planning, and operational constraints, presently the extent of community participation in the tourism development of the country remains inadequate (Birhan and Gebreyes, 2015; Italemahu, 2015; Assegid, 2015; Tessema et al., 2010; Wondirad, 2017). Because of the presence of an inextricable link between communities and protected areas, ensuring active community engagement in tourism development projects that involve national parks is profoundly important (Eshetu, 2014; Tessema et al., 2010). Given the vast majority of communities residing around national parks in Ethiopia predominantly rely on mixed-agriculture, their livelihood is strongly intertwined with nature directly influencing the existence of protected areas. Mitigating such chronic challenges demands to undertake a study that intends to analyze the interactions, interests, and desires of local communities vis-à-vis other tourism stakeholders. In doing so, it is possible to foster a tourism development that is properly integrated into the overall development plans and land-use practices. Based on the researchers' understanding, there is a paucity of a rigorously conducted scientific research in Bale Mountains National Park (BMNP) implying the real and immediate need to carry out a study that explores local community engagement amid the dynamics of scheming tourism stakeholder interplay. Therefore, in line with the clarion calls from Birhan and Gebreyes (2015), Eshetu (2014), Italemahu (2015), and Assegid (2015) and Tessema et al. (2010), the current study intends to examine the dynamics, practices, and challenges of grassroots community participation in the tourism development process in Bale Mountains National Park (BMNP), one of the most ecologically diverse and frequently visited national parks in Ethiopia (UNESCO, 2018; Welteji and Zerihun, 2018), by employing stakeholder theory and Arnstein's (1969) ladder of citizen participation. Specifically, this study aims to:

1) inspect the current tourism practices in Dinsho areas of Bale Mountains National Park;
2) explore communities' level of understanding and their attitude towards existing tourism development;
3) examine the extent and types of present community participation; and
4) identify factors that hinder community participation in the tourism development process in Dinsho areas of Bale Mountains National Park.

In line with these research objectives, this study first conducts a critical review of relevant literature along with a brief discussion of theories guiding the research. Then, methodological issues are addressed followed by research findings and discussion elaborating the current tourism business development practices, local community awareness and participation in the tourism development as well as challenges of community participation in Dinsho area of Bale Mountains National Park. Eventually, conclusion and research implications are discussed along with study limitations and opportunities for future research.

2. Literature review

2.1. Tourism development and community participation

Tourism continues to be an agent of economic development, particularly in a setting where there are fewer economic alternatives to tackle poverty and reduce unemployment (Ashley, 2006; Mitchell and Coles, 2009). It provides with various economic benefits including the development of small and medium-sized tourism enterprises, employment opportunities for local residents including women and the youth, injection of fresh income into local economies and other non-economic benefits such as cultural exchange, capacity development, improved access to services such as infrastructure, health care, water supplies, telecommunication, and transportation services (Kennedy et al., 2013; Mowforth and Munt, 2003; Sakata and Prideaux, 2013; UNWTO, 2002). Tourism also leads to ecosystem and environmental restoration and eases tensions and resource use conflicts through providing complementary income, which in turn, help to avoid environmentally destructive economic activities such as mining, logging, oil extraction, commercial fishing and traditional intensive farming (de Haas, 2002; Tokalu, 2005; Li, 2006; Ambe et al., 2010; Hunt et al., 2014; Timothy and White, 1999).

As a result, governments in developing countries place enormous importance to the tourism sector as a tool to tackle poverty and rehabilitate an increasingly deteriorating ecosystem. Considering that, around 80% of African poverty reduction strategy roadmaps stress the role of tourism in unlocking opportunities and fighting poverty (Mitchell and Coles, 2009). Tourism creates a means to local economic development through creating and consolidating value chains and stimulating sectoral interlinkages where local communities can be beneficiaries by directly providing agricultural supplies and souvenirs, and rendering other tourist services such as cooking, transportation and tour guiding (Stone and Stone, 2011; Timothy and White, 1999; Tokalu, 2005).

The term community is elusive in its nature and grasping a clear definition is often problematic (Aas et al., 2005). According to Aas et al. (2005) and Singh et al. (2003), community refers to a concept where a group of people with shared cultural norms and identities living in a common geographic area. On the other hand, Williams and Lawson (2001) described the term community as a group of people who share common goals or opinions. Although community participation occupies much space in the academic discourse as a core tourism development pillar (Liu et al., 2014; Saufi et al., 2014), literature (Arnstein, 1969; Bello et al., 2016; Okazaki, 2008; Pasape et al., 2013; Snyman, 2014; Yitbarek, 2012; Yitbarek et al., 2013) challenges its practicalities on the real-world revealing the absence of genuine community participation commensurate to other tourism stakeholders (Cole, 2006; Kebete and Wondirad, 2019; Sirima and Backman, 2013; Wang et al., 2016; Wondirad, 2017). Such a tourism development in its nature violates the fundamental values that stakeholder theory underlines.

The central thesis of stakeholder theory accentuates that in order to use tourism as a tool for sustainable development, there must be a balance of power among its actors so that the overarching social equity, ecological integrity and economic pillars of a tourist destination can be achieved and sustained (Seba, 2012). The importance and value of involving and participating stakeholders whose interests and well-being are ought to be impacted by the tourism development ramifications can be better explained using stakeholder theory. In tourism research, stakeholder theory explains the diverse relationships among all relevant parties who have a stake in the tourism development and their respective interest on the stake at hand (Donohoe et al., 2015; Freeman, 1984; Yodsuwan and Butcher, 2012). In line with the core principles of stakeholder theory, recent arguments suggest that genuine community participation rests at the heart of sustainable development since community participation and benefit sharing in tourism development warrant not only economic gains but also ensure resident support and

custodianship (Jurowski, 2015; Kebete and Wondirad, 2019; Pasape et al., 2013; Schevyns, 1999). Accordingly, local people should take a greater stake not only in the economic benefits of tourism development but also in key decision making and managerial roles of the tourism development (Arnstein, 1969; Baral and Heinen, 2007; Lepp, 2008a).

In that way, community empowerment can be guaranteed, and the centralized protective development trap can be abolished (Cobbinah et al., 2015; Ladkin and Bertramini, 2002; Nelson, 2012; Pasape et al., 2015; Schevyns, 1999; Tosun, 2000). Scholars underline community participation as an integral part of sustainable tourism development given communities are the frontline stakeholder to bear costs of the tourism development (Cooper and Hall, 2016; George et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2014; Mbaiwa, 2015a) and are legitimate owners of tourism resources in many cases, be it nature or culture (Murphy, 1985; Pearce, 1994; Okazaki, 2008).

2.2. Challenges of community participation in tourism development

Although poor community participation is a global concern in tourism (Bello et al., 2016; Li, 2006; Pasape et al., 2013; Yitbarek, 2012; Yitbarek et al., 2013), its extent varies between developed and developing nations (Backman and Munanura, 2015; Kebete and Wondirad, 2019; Pasape et al., 2015). In the context of developing countries, several factors influence community participation in the planning, decision making, and benefit-sharing schemes of the tourism development (Aref, 2011; Shoo and Songorwa, 2013; Telfer and Sharpley, 2008). Factors such as poor stakeholder interaction, loose community organization, lack of community expertise due to low literacy level, limited financial access, and lack of support from other actors inhibit effective community participation (Kebede et al., 2014; Kibicho, 2008). According to Tosun (2000), elite domination, lack of an appropriate legal system, lack of awareness and inappropriate management approach preclude community participation in most developing countries. As one of developing nations, challenges stated above are reflected in Dinsho area of Bale Mountains National Park, Ethiopia (Amaja et al., 2016; Kebede and Bayeh, 2017; Assegid, 2015).

Scholars suggest different strategies to boost community participation and thereby ensure equitable benefit sharing to ignite a sense of belongingness and alter detrimental traditional economic activities in fragile ecosystems such as Dinsho area of Bale Mountains National Park (Cobbinah et al., 2015; Li, 2006; Scheyvens, 1999; Su and Wall, 2015). The first strategy proposed to enhance community participation is empowerment and power redistribution so that communities can take control of the tourism development (Bien, 2010; Chan and Bhatta, 2013; Scheyvens, 1999; Snyman, 2014). Empowerment involves economic, psychological, social, and political empowerment (Okazaki, 2008; Scheyvens, 1999). The second significant tool is establishing a reliable partnership between communities and other tourism stakeholders (Ashley and Jones, 2001; Okazaki, 2008). Finally, strengthening communities' social capital (social association revitalizing traditional knowledge, cultivating local entrepreneurial skills, networks and community's self-organization) plays a pivotal role (Sato, 2001). In doing so, communities can climb up from manipulation (Arnstein, 1969) - a type of non-informed, insincere participation to self-mobilization (Pretty, 1995; Tosun, 1999; Tosun and Timothy, 2003) or citizen control (Arnstein, 1969), where communities take control of the tourism development to meaningfully influence management decisions that might affect their livelihoods. The following section discusses types of community participation in tourism development.

2.3. Forms of community participation

The meaning, scope, and spectrum of community participation can vary depending on myriads of factors such as social, political, cultural, technological and economic conditions (Afua, 2012; Tosun, 1999; Tosun and Timothy, 2003). Saufi et al. (2014) underlined that community participation in tourism should meaningfully engage locals resulting in the retention of economic benefits within the local economy and thereby improves communities' standard of living. To make sure that community participation brings the required benefits to locals, several scholars suggested various models of participation (e.g. Arnstein, 1969; Connor, 1988; Deshler and Sock, 1985; Pretty, 1995; Tosun, 1999; Tosun and Timothy, 2003).

Community participation indeed cannot be adequately discussed without examining Arnstein's (1969) ladder of citizen participation, a pioneering work widely known to unravel the controversy underneath community participation rhetoric. Bringing clarity to the controversy of community participation and promoting redistribution of power for the have-not citizens are at the heart of Arnstein's (1969) participation model. As underlined by Arnstein (1969), the purpose of introducing the spectrum of citizen participation was to encourage a more insightful dialogue in reference to the provocative concepts of participation. The model plots participation in a ladder where every phase corresponding to the extent of citizens' power in determining the plan and/or program that impacts their well-being. Arnstein (1969) highlighted that participation is a cornerstone to a democratic and transparent system which redistributes power to citizens who are excluded from the political and economic process. Based on Arnstein's (1969) description, community participation refers to the redistribution of power that enables the poor communities, currently excluded from the political and economic spheres, to be included in the future so that they can influence decisions and induce significant social and economic reforms which enable them to equitably share benefits that accrue in their localities.

Arnstein's (1969) participation model comprises eight distinct levels. The eight steps of the model in ascending order are manipulation, therapy, informing, consultation, placation, partnership, delegated power, and citizen control (see Fig. 1). These eight phases are reclassified into three major categories namely non-participation (corresponding to manipulation and therapy), degrees of tokenism (comprising informing, consultation and placation) and degrees of citizen power (consisting of partnership, delegated power, and citizen control). Non-participation symbolizes manipulative participation where citizens are simply deceived by pseudo participation. In this stage, citizens or community members are not involved in the planning and development process. The policymakers have no mechanism to seek inputs from communities to guide tourism development. Tourism administrators also feel that community members lack the know-how to contribute to the development process. The middle rung, represented by citizens' tokenism, is a level where authorities just inform communities, about their rights, responsibilities, and options as well as encourage them to express their views on the issue, but do not grant them the power to influence decisions. The final stage, which is called citizen power, is the most desirable form of community participation where participants decide on issues that matter to them and influence decisions that affect their livelihood. This is a stage, where communities receive maximum feasible involvement and substantial control on issues that determine

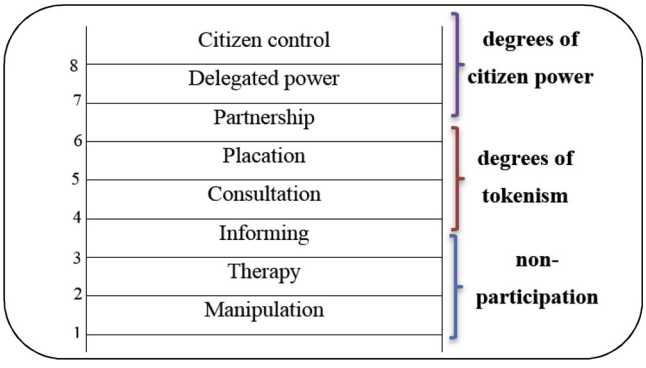

Fig. 1. Arnstein's (1969, p.217) ladder of citizen participation.

their destiny (Arnstein, 1969).

Literature also accentuates that community participation should not only strive to ensure equitable distribution of material resource but also needs to guarantee a substantial knowledge transfer as well to induce community transformation in the long run (Okazaki, 2008; Scheyvens, 1999; Stone, 2015). According to Williams and Lawson (2001), it is unfair to evaluate the success of community participation by considering a few aspects such as job creation or learning about other cultures. Instead, a acritical analysis of how the tourism sector provides better facilities for local people to enjoy, the extent to which it provides incentives to protect the natural environment, and the degree to which communities are empowered enough to influence decisions that potentially determine the course of their livelihood is instrumental to have a holistic understanding (Aref and Redzuan, 2009; Okazaki, 2008; Williams and Lawson, 2001). Therefore, in delicate ecological habitats such as the Bale Mountains National Park, effectively engaging communities plus providing adequate compensation and sustainable economic alternatives strengthen the conservation effort to rescue a rapidly deteriorating fragile environment (Liu et al., 2018; van Niekerk, 2014v).

3. Theory informing the study

3.1. Stakeholder theory

The current study strives to understand and explain the necessity of community participation from the actor's perspective under the lenses of stakeholder theory coupled with Arnstein's (1969) ladder of citizen participation in a setting where multiple actors retain diverse and competing interests (Jamal and Stronza, 2009; Stone and Stone, 2011). In this study, the interest beneath stakeholder theory is to nurture effective local community participation in the planning, development, and management of tourism in sensitive protected areas (van Niekerk, 2014v), while Arnstein's (1969) ladder of citizen participation is used to explain the extant level of community participation and thereby provide suggestions. Theory is a conceptual representation that explains how and why a phenomenon operates in the way it does (Lengkeek and Jacobsen, 2016) by establishing logical relationships among underlying notions of the phenomenon (McCool, 1995). Per se, theory serves as a tool in guiding scientific inquiry and elaborating subsequent analysis (Babbie, 2010). As Flake and Rose (2005) noted, adopting and integrating theory from more matured disciplines is imperative to develop a theoretical framework, which helps to better understand a phenomenon in less explored fields of studies and in disciplines that lack strong theoretical foundations such as tourism.

Evolved from the business management discipline, stakeholder theory sheds light on the nature of inter-organizational relationships, interactions, and organizational concepts, and values (Sheehan and Ritchie, 2005). The term firstly appeared in Stanford Research Institute in 1963 to refer key actors that are crucial to the success of an organization (Marzuki and Hay, 2016). By scrutinizing questions such as who stakeholders of the firm are, what do they want, and how are they going to impact, stakeholder theory tries to understand stakeholders' attributes, interests, and the influence they can make. It also strives to examine the structures and dimensions of businesses and social relationships and thereby underscores the need to consider the interests of groups affected by the firm where earlier theories overlook (Getz and Timur, 2012). The central concept of stakeholder theory, therefore, highlights that despite organizations occupy the core of a network of relationships, the support from all concerned entities or groups is essential to survive in the short-term and thrive in the long-term (Waligo et al., 2013).

Since organizations are interdependent entities instead of self-reliant in their own, the essence of cooperation and partnership is inexorable (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978) especially in a sector like tourism with a profound fragmentation and deeper interconnectedness (Graci, 2013; Pansiri, 2013). Consequently, the transposition of stakeholder theory to the tourism sector explains the vitality of dialogue, negotiation, and collaboration among actors in the development of sustainable tourism in the face of increasing ecosystem destruction (Arnaboldi and Spiller, 2011; Bricker and Donohoe, 2015; Pansiri, 2013). The friction between tourism stakeholders is harsher in the context of developing nations particularly due to limited livelihood opportunities and survival questions on the one hand (Liu et al., 2014; Mbaiwa, 2015b) and the absence of consistent stakeholder platforms that invoke and nurture dialogue with the aim to reach a common agenda on the other hand (Wondirad, 2017).

Considering that, the adoption of stakeholder theory into the current study helps to better understand relevant tourism stakeholders and their interests, concerns and possible roles in the process of sustainable tourism development in Dinsho district of Bale Mountains National Park. Framing the nature, characteristics, interests, and roles of pertinent actors, in turn, improves stakeholder management and fosters the establishment of steadfast collaboration among stakeholders (Mitchell et al., 1997; Wang and Krakover, 2008). Mutually interdependent attributes of stakeholder theory (power, legitimacy, and urgency) are reflected in one or another way among stakeholders considered in the current study. Power can be either coercive, utilitarian or normative where the holders use to enforce their intent in the relationship. Per se, power is one of the attributes of stakeholder theory that stems from the control of either physical, material and/or financial resource. Legitimacy, on the other hand, denotes the degree to which stakeholders' claims gain popular support, while urgency refers to the degree to which stakeholder claims call for immediate action (Mitchell et al., 1997).

Stakeholder theory (ST) has been consistently used to elaborate on various phenomena in tourism research. To mention few, Byrd (2007); Domínguez-Gómez and González-Gómez (2017) and Hardy and Pearson (2018), employed ST to analyze perceptions and roles of stakeholders in sustainable tourism development, while Theodoulidis et al. (2017) adopted ST to explore the link between corporate social responsibility and financial performance in tourism industries. Moreover, Pasape et al. (2013) implemented ST to explain the development of sustainable ecotourism in Tanzania whereas Tham (2018) utilized ST to demonstrate how the involvement of multiple stakeholders determine medical tourism development.

4. Methodology

4.1. Setting the scene

Established in 1970 and nominated to the World Heritage Tentative List in 2009 (Gashaw, 2015; Welteji and Zerihun, 2018), Bale Mountains National Park (BMNP), is a protected area of approximately 2,200 km^2 and one of the most magnificent and frequently visited national parks in Ethiopia (UNESCO, 2018; Welteji and Zerihun, 2018). The Park covers the largest Afro-alpine habitat with an altitude of greater than 3000 MASL in Africa (Gashaw, 2015; UNESCO, 2018). The highest peak is known as Tullu Dimtuu found at an altitude of 4377 MASL, making it the second-highest peak in Ethiopia (Ethiopian Wildlife Conservation Authority, 2016). The national park has five distinctive ecological zones known as (1) Northern Grasslands (Gaysay Valley), (2) Northern Woodlands (Park Headquarters), (3) Afro-alpine Meadows (Sanetti plateau), (4) Erica Moorlands, and (5) the Harrenna Forest (EWCA, 2016). With its high mountains, sweeping valleys, dramatic escarpment and wide expanses of forests, Bale Mountains National Park provides visitors with a wide array of spectacular vistas unique to the Ethiopian highlands (UNESCO, 2018). Furthermore, due to its varied ecological zones, the national park depicts one of the highest incidences of animal endemicity in Ethiopia and the world (Welteji and Zerihun, 2018). So far, 78 mammal species (22 are endemic) and 278 bird species (16 are endemic) have been identified in

the national park's territory (Gashaw, 2015). Mountain Nyala, Bale Monkey, and Giant Mole Rat are some of the fauna species unique to Bale Mountains National Park (EWCA, 2013). Furthermore, Bale Mountains National Park is the source of more than 40 rivers upon which the lives of tens of millions of people in the downstream depend on (Belayneh et al., 2013; Gashaw, 2015).

Out of those five ecological zones, the current study takes place in the Northern Grasslands (Gaysay Valley) and the Northern Woodlands (Park Headquarter) which, together form Dinsho sites of Bale Mountains National Park. Geographically, Dinsho is located 400 km Southeast of the capital Addis Ababa. The altitude of Dinsho varies between 2000 and 3600 MASL, where the highest peak is found at Dinsho sub-district (Kebede and Bayeh, 2017). This part of the park is also the source of three perennial rivers known as Togona, Weyib, and Shaya (EWCA, 2013). Currently, Dinsho sites of Bale Mountains National Park faces mounting pressure from the local communities because of the continued practice of subsistent agriculture and pastoralism resulting in persistent encroachment (Asmamaw and Verma, 2013; Gashaw, 2015; Lonely Planet, 2018). Data obtained from the national park's management office show growth both in tourist arrivals and visitor expenditure (see Fig. 3). Dinsho Woreda Culture and Tourism Office, BMNP management, Ethiopian Wildlife Conservation Authority (EWCA), Ecotourism Associations, ecolodge and tour operators, local communities as well as non-governmental organizations including Frankfurt Zoological Society (FZS), and Ethiopian Wolf Conservation Program (EWCP) are key actors of the tourism sector presently.

4.2. Research design

The current study adopts a mixed research approach and employs both cross-sectional and longitudinal data. In terms of research design, it is the combination of both descriptive and exploratory designs. Data have been collected through a questionnaire survey, in-depth interviews and focus group discussions. Secondary data sources pertinent to the study are also consulted to provide robust theoretical support to research findings (Tsang et al., 2011). The survey, which is generated from existing literature, has four sections. Part one deals with tourists' socio-demographics, while section two of the questionnaire enquires respondents about the current tourism practices in Dinsho and their awareness about tourism. Section three, on the other hand, strives to pinpoint community participation and the resulting benefit sharing opportunities. The last part of the questionnaire aims to identify major constraints that hamper community participation in the tourism development process.

In the interest of ensuring the trustworthiness of research findings, quantitative data (cross-sectional data) are triangulated with qualitative data (longitudinal data) gathered through in-depth interviews and focus group discussions (Decrop, 1999; Kreuger & Neuman, 2006). In-depth interview and focus group discussions captured issues pertaining to communities' understanding of tourism and their attitude towards the sector along with headlines that are covered by the questionnaire to triangulate findings. Unlike social psychology and consumer behavior studies, in tourism, community attitude symbolizes communities' opinion on a given phenomenon: how they view and decipher it (Williams and Lawson, 2001). The subjects of this study are local communities living in Dinsho area of BMNP, BMNP management staffs, ecotourism associations in Dinsho area, non-governmental organizations (Frankfurt Zoological Society and Ethiopian Wolf Conservation Program, EWCP), and Dinsho ecolodge staff. All local communities, except members of ecotourism associations and scouts, who took part in in-depth interviews and focus group discussions, are included in the survey. To gather quantitative data, 364 respondents were recruited from local communities living adjacent to Dinsho sits of BMNP using systematic random sampling and were provided with questionnaires with a remarkable return rate (see Tables 1 and 3).

Table 1
Background of survey participants.

Variables		Frequency	Percent
Age	20 to 30	92	25.5
	31 to 40	122	33.9
	41 to 50	146	40.6
	Total	360	100.0
Sex	Male	247	68.6
	Female	113	31.4
	Total	360	100.0
Educational profile	Unschooled	163	45.3
	Elementary school complete	117	32.5
	Secondary school complete	65	18.0
	University graduate (Bachelor's Degree)	15	4.2
	Total	360	100.0
Job type	Farming	131	36.3
	Mixed (farming + trading)	106	29.4
	Trading	79	22.0
	Mainly tourism related job	44	12.3
	Total	360	100
Family size	1-3	58	16.1
	4-6	274	76.1
	> 6	28	7.8
	Total	360	100.0

With regards to qualitative data, twenty-six semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with purposively selected participants believed to have adequate knowledge, experience, and involvement in the tourism sector in the study area (see Table 2). To maintain consistency, the researchers execute all the data collection, transcription, coding, and translation. Two focus group discussions comprising of 8 and 12 participants from members of local community and ecotourism associations respectively were conducted separately. Furthermore, various governmental and non-governmental organization accounts were consulted to verify primary data generated through in-depth interviews, focus group discussions and survey. Researchers also have spent considerable time in the study area to develop a better understanding of the problem under investigation and to increase objective analysis (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

Questionnaires are distributed to respondents in *Affaan Oromo* (local language) for clarity, which in turn increases data quality.

A pilot study with 10 randomly selected households was also conducted in the study area to boost data reliability. After the pilot test, further amendments were made on the survey for better precision before proceeding to the main phase of data collection. Out of 1810 households, a sample of 364 households was taken using Gomm (2008) sample size determination formula $n = \frac{N}{1+N(a^2)}$, where n = the number of samples, N = the number of targeted population and a = is 0.05 (95%) confidence level. Questionnaires were distributed to every 5th household (*i. e.* $k = \frac{N}{n}$, $k = \frac{1810}{364} = 5.03$). Criteria such as proximity to the park, visitor flow, and existing tourism activities are considered to select the kebeles. As Table 3 shows, the return rate for distributed surveys is 98.9%.

As noted by Williams and Lawson (2001), in examining issues related to community participation and attitude, the search for antecedents of resident opinions of tourism may lie in the values, rather than demographic characteristics, of residents per se. Taking that into account, the current study pays minimal attention to participants' sociodemographic profiles due to the nature of the study (Williams and Lawson, 2001). Nonetheless, as Table 1 shows, in terms of age, the vast majority of respondents fall under the age categories of 31–40, 122 (33.9%) and 41-50^{+}, 146 (40.6%). As far as the sex composition of respondents is concerned, 247 (68.6%) are male while the remaining 113 (31.4%) are female. Given the current study took place in a countryside setting most of the respondents are unschooled, 163 (45.3%) and elementary school complete 117 (32.5%) regarding their

Table 2
In-depth interviewees and focus group participants.

Categories of interviewees		No. of participants recruited	Categories of focus group discussants		Sample taken
1. Government bodies	BMNP Management	1	FGD 1	Local community representatives from 4 selected villages	2*4 = 8
2. Employees	BMNP employees	5	FGD 2	Ecotourism Associations Representatives located in the study are	2*6 = 12
	Dinsho *Woreda* Culture and Tourism Office employees	1			
3. Local community	Communities residing in sampled villages	4	***Total = 20***		
4. Ecotourism Associations	Nyala guides	2			
	Kerensa Horse renters	2			
	Bare Women Handcraft	2			
	Key Kebero Cooks	2			
	Walin Jiregna Woodsellers	1			
	Borofa Porters	1			
5. Private sector representatives	Management and employees	2			
6. NGOs	EWCP	2			
	FZS	1			
Total = 26					

FZS: Frankfurt Zoological Society.
EWCP: Ethiopian Wolf Conservation Program.

Table 3
Questionnaires distributed and returned per Kebele.

No.	Kebeles			
	Dinsho town	Gojera	Kara Ari	Gofingira Kebeles
No. of surveys distributed	118	62	97	87
No. of surveys collected	115	61	97	87
Rate of return	97%	98%	100%	100%
Total	**360 (98.9%) return rate**			

educational profile (see Table 1). Concerning family size, most of the respondents 274 (76.1%) fall under the family size category of 4-6. Eventually, while 131 (36.3%) of the respondents are engaged in agriculture as their main economic stay, 106 (29.4%) work both in farming and small business activities. On the other hand, 22% of the respondents are involved in trading, mainly retailing and food and breakfast business whereas 12.3% depend on tourism-related jobs.

Analysis of qualitative data were conducted inductively (see Fig. 2) where researchers construct and reconstruct meaning in line with the study objectives (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Janesick, 2000). Views, perspectives, and responses of participants were coded and categorized to form relationships among various concepts in relation to the research problem (Jennings, 2001). Three types of coding (open coding, axial coding, and selective coding) were employed to extract major themes from transcribed raw data (Merriam, 2009; Strauss, 1987). On the other hand, SPSS version 24 was employed to analyze survey data.

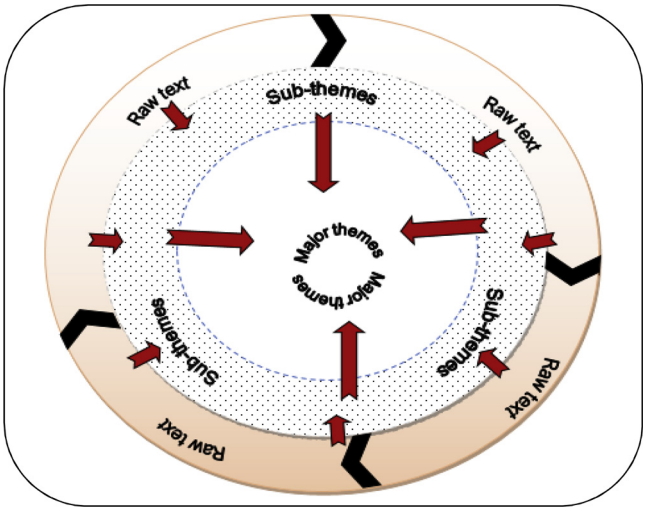

Fig. 2. Qualitative data analysis procedure (adapted from Attride-Stirling, 2001 and Easterby-Smith et al., 2015).

5. Findings and discussion

5.1. Current tourism business practices in Dinsho area of Bale Mountains National Park

Well known for its wildlife diversity more than any other national park in Ethiopia (Lonely Planet, 2018), Bale Mountains National Park is frequented by both domestic and international tourists (Reber et al., 2018). That results in the thriving of tourism practices in the national park's milieu (Welteji and Zerihun, 2018). Based on the feedback from the park management, most tourists visiting Dinsho area are domestic visitors consisting of students, researchers, and recreationists followed by international tourists, primarily holidaymakers. As far as existing tourism practices are concerned, wildlife-based tourism activities, hiking, trekking, and camping are growing gradually. Tourism business activities such as ecolodge business, tour guiding, scouting, tourism enterprises run by associations such as food and beverage providers and handicraft producers constitute existing tourism business practice. Communities also have a chance to rent camping equipment and serve as porters and provide local supplies to ecolodges and food and beverage establishments in addition to the opportunity to work as a waiter/waitress. Moreover, other crucial tourism business activities including regular trading and renting of horses, mules, and donkeys provide supplementary income for members of the local community (Welteji and Zerihun, 2018). In addition to the surrounding communities, there are various stakeholders with a differing interest in Bale Mountains National Park. In Dinsho area of BMNP, where data collection for the current study took place, Frankfurt Zoological Society (FZS), Ethiopian Wolf Conservation Program (EWCP) MELKA Ethiopia (all NGOs), Ethiopian Wildlife Conservation Authority (EWCA) and Dinsho District Culture and Tourism Office plus various ecotourism associations and private ecotourism institutions are the major tourism stakeholders. As respective participants from the NGOs and the government organs stated, working for the sustainable development of the national park is the motive behind their presence whereas the involvement of the

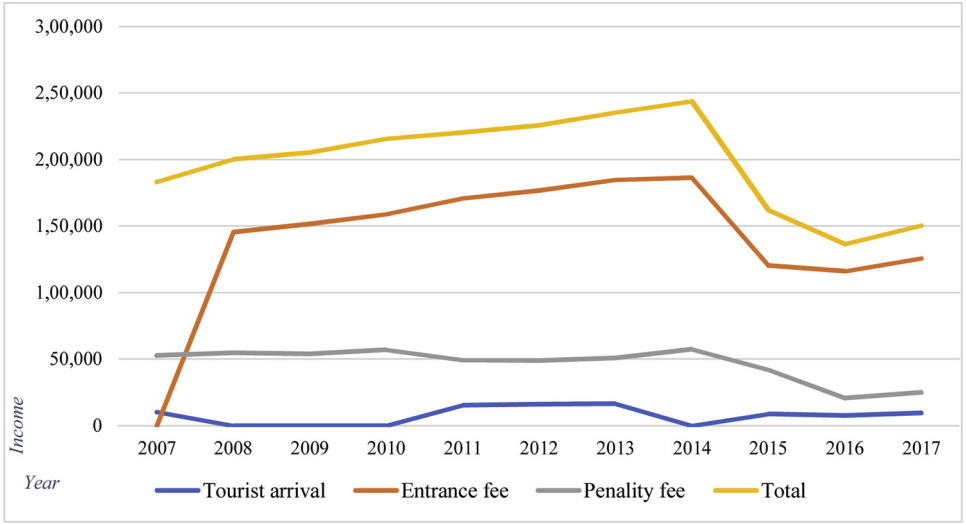

Fig. 3. Tourist arrivals and expenditure trend (Bale Mountains National Park office, 2017).

private sector is mainly driven by economic interest.

5.2. Local communities' understanding and participation in the tourism development

Benefit-sharing is examined in relation to the extent to which local communities obtain advantages that accrue out from the tourism sector including its economic, socio-cultural, and environmental benefits in line with previous research (Muganda et al., 2012). On the other hand, awareness illuminates communities understanding of the nature of tourism, its development process, benefits, and costs, and resources that lay the foundation to the sector. Given community benefit is a widely studied research agenda, constructs that intend to measure tourism benefit in the current study are generated from existing literature and are ameliorated to the study context. Furthermore, researchers made a frequent and extended field visit to the study area in addition to conducting in-depth interviews and focus group discussion with pertinent stakeholders to triangulate and further validate measurement items. Survey results suggest that currently, communities are aware of the tourism sector and its benefits, particularly its economic impact in generating additional income through creating employment opportunities, inducing cultural exchange, and stimulating communities' entrepreneurial skills with a mean score greater than 4.5 ($M > 4.5$) in 5-point Likert scale in all the indicators mentioned earlier. Findings extracted from in-depth interviews and focus group discussions also support survey outcomes signifying communities understanding of tourism and its benefits to communities living in remote destinations (Snyman, 2014; Tokalu, 2005; Welteji and Zerihun, 2018). It was interesting enough, however, to learn that tourism itself as the source of communities' awareness. As it was stated by the vast majority of research participants, they became aware of the tourism sector through time solely via their own day-to-day experience instead of awareness-raising campaigns form other relevant stakeholders such as the government and NGOs implying the power of tourism in awakening communities and thereby grab the opportunities it creates. However, despite communities' awareness about the benefits of tourism, most survey respondents perceived that the participation of local communities in the overall tourism development presently is considered as very low leading to inadequate benefit sharing (Bayih and Tola, 2017; Wondirad, 2017) as Table 4 depicts.

To further validate and corroborate the level of community participation in the tourism development, researchers investigate the annual tourism income dependency level of communities employing a Chi-square test of association (McHugh, 2013). Test results (see Table 5, $p = 0.746$) uncover an insignificant relationship between communities' annual income and dependency on tourism. The result confirms the findings of Kebede and Bayeh (2017) who could not detect a statistically significant difference in annual income between households that have participated in tourism and those who have not participated.

Table 4
Communities' perception of their level of benefiting from tourism.

Frequency	Percent		Valid Percent
Adequate	95	26.4	26.4
Inadequate	265	73.6	73.6
Total	360	100.0	100.0

Table 5
Tests of association between annual income and tourism dependency.

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.699[a]	5	0.746
N of valid cases	360		

In-depth interviews and focus group discussions outcomes also resonate similar outcome implying the absence of wider community participation and lack of community control over the tourism development in Dinsho district. Despite there is a noticeable growth in the number of community associations with increasing income, still the tourism sector is controlled and maneuvered by the private sector (mainly tour operators), the federal government, and few elite community members violating the central thesis of stakeholder theory (Bricker and Donohoe, 2015; Fletcher et al., 2016). In light of that an in-depth interview participant who represents local communities addressed that:

Grassroots community participation in tourism development, management, and benefit-sharing is intentionally relegated in Dinsho area. Tour operation companies show no interest to provide support and build local communities' capacity. What the government has been doing is also sporadic and insufficient. Because of that communities are always far behind in terms of benefit sharing compared to other stakeholders (Local community representative, Dinsho Town, July 2018).

However, although the lack of wider community participation and equitable benefit sharing are still pressing challenges of tourism development in Dinsho as 86% of respondents state (see Table 5), it should be noted that some community members still managed to tap the tourism sector organizing themselves through various community-

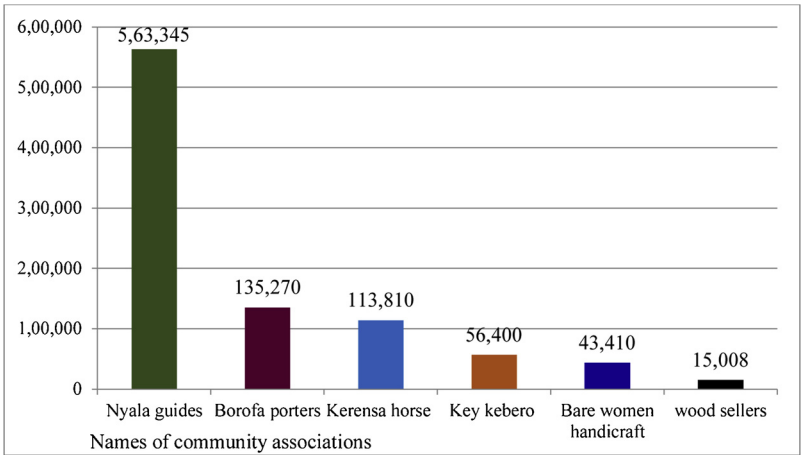

Fig. 4. Tourism associations owned and managed by communities (BMNP, 2013).

based tourism associations (see Fig. 4).

Another perpetual challenge that calls for immediate attention is the park ownership dispute between local communities and the federal government. Local communities believe that they have legitimate ownership and the right to use the park's resources since they are one of the key stakeholders (Pearce, 1994; Okazaki, 2008). Communities expressed that they do not only possess most of the tourism resources (natural and cultural) in Dinsho district but also, they are facing increasing livelihood challenges given their survival is directly dependent on the resources of the area in one or another way (Cooper and Hall, 2016; Liu et al., 2014). Participants in the focus group discussion accentuated that despite the national park is officially administered by the federal government, without communities' acceptance, support, collaboration, and guardianship, the future existence of the park is questionable as the following excerpt vividly points out.

We are frequently told that the entire national park including Dinsho district is administered by the federal government. Nevertheless, to our understanding, apart from collecting the park's tourism revenue, we hardly see the government practically tackling mounting issues on the national park. We are the one reaching first in rescue efforts whenever problems such as recurrent extensive human instigated forest fire occur in the national park. As community exclusion and marginalization continues, communities' attitude towards the park gets worsened and destructive land-use practices continued indefinitely (Local community representative, July 2018).

The findings from 30 years data analysis by Belayneh et al. (2013) revealed that the extent of forest fire has increased from 210 ha in the 1970s to 12,825 ha in late 2000s where 84% of the recent fires have happened within the national park boundary. In their study entitled *'Natural resource use conflict in Bale Mountains National Park'*, Kebede et al. (2014) uncovered that in contrast to working towards a benign relationship, the current park management approach encourages exclusion, enclosure, and restriction of resource use. As a result, most of the fires incidents were human-induced from antagonized community members causing devastation on the park. Consequently, the current situation is very dire calling for immediate action to scrutinize the root causes of such unlawful practices and thereby to design an integrated forest fire management plan which seems non-existent in the country so far (Belayneh et al., 2013; Gashaw, 2015).

The issue of land-use right is addressed in the Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. Article 40, Sub-Article 3 of the Constitution articulates the right to the ownership and use of rural and urban land and all the natural resources it contains as follows:

The right to ownership of rural and urban land, as well as of all-natural resources, is exclusively vested in the State and the peoples of Ethiopia. Land is a common property of the Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples of Ethiopia and shall not be subject to sale or other means of exchange (The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Constitution, 1994, p.14).

Therefore, on the one hand, except the right to sell, exchange and mortgage, the constitution guarantees local communities a lifetime ownership right (Zerga, 2016). On the other hand, the government took away this ownership right enshrined in the constitution by introducing a contentious regulation through Ethiopian Wildlife Development, Conservation and Utilization Council of Ministers (Regulation No. 163/2008), which violates the constitutionally awarded right of land ownership. According to Regulation No. 163/2008, Article 4, Sub-article 1, 11 national parks of the country that are frequented by international and domestic visitors must be exclusively administered by the federal government. To make even things worse, Regulation No. 163/2008 entirely denies community access to these national parks and prohibits the procurement of benefits from national parks in a non-harmful manner including beekeeping or honey harvesting and using water resources (Council of Ministers Regulations No. 163/2008, 2008Council of Ministers, 2008Council of Ministers Regulations No. 163/2008, 2008). All the income generated from the park in terms of entrance fees and concession is also directly channeled to the federal government. That is what the findings of both in-depth interview and focus group discussions corroborate in the current study. This dichotomy of government's action results in a type of development where communities lose control of their resource and deprived of active engagement, which potentially leads to community marginalization and thereby resentment (Arnstein, 1969; Duffy, 2006; Faux and Dwyer, 2009; Fennell, 2008; Stoddard et al., 2012). The following excerpt shows the discontent of a local community representative about the way Bale Mountains National Park is currently managed. 'Although we are the owners of resources upon which tourism depends on, the revenue collected from tourism through an entrance, concession, and penalty fees is directed to the federal government' (Community representative, Dinsho, August 2018).

Such a practice is an outdated national park management approach as existing literature rather suggests a bottom-up community-based tourism development approach (Cooper and Hall, 2016; Edwards et al., 2013; Sakata and Prideaux, 2013; Zapata et al., 2011). Even though community participation in the development and use of land is backed up by the constitution in Article 43, sub-article 2, and in Article 92, sub-article 3, various studies uncovered that in Ethiopia practically community engagement in the planning and implementation of policies that affect their livelihood remains elusive (Ariti et al., 2018a; Asmamaw and Verma, 2013; Kebete and Wondirad, 2019; Wondirad, 2017). Research (e.g. Lepp, 2008b; Muhumuza and Balkwill, 2013) from other African countries context evidences that such type of protectionist park management style has been practiced by colonialists until the 1980s. Findings from the current study show that the same challenge is still

prevailing in Dinsho district of BMNP with regards to the ownership, benefit sharing and genuine community participation in the tourism sector. As Kabiri (2016) and van Niekerk (2014) underlined, successful grassroots community participation is imperative to enhance environmental governance and they recommended for broader public participation in land use and ecosystem governance through comprehensive legislation. The existing NGOs functioning in Bale Mountains National Park do refrain from promoting active community participation in fear of potential conflict with the government and its undesirable consequences since they are restricted to do so by law (Ariti et al., 2018b; Bekele et al., 2009; Dupuy et al., 2015; Nega and Milofsky, 2011). Subsequently, in contrast to what literature suggests (Barkin and Bouchez, 2002; Halpenny, 2003; Kabiri, 2016; Stone, 2015; Zhuang et al., 2011), non-profit organizations operating in Bale Mountains National Park, including in Dinsho district, fail to pressurize the government and thereby leverage the current power imbalance (Ariti et al., 2018b; Asmamaw and Verma, 2013). The following section briefly discusses chronic challenges hindering community participation in Dinisho district of Bale Mountains National Park in greater depth.

5.3. Constraints of community participation in tourism

As noted by van Niekerk (2014), community participation can be viewed from at least three schools of thought. According to the first school of thought, whenever possible, most people tend to downplay community participation, whereas the second assumption recognizes community participation as a voluntary process in which communities can engage if they believe that their participation brings them some benefit. The third school of thought, on the other hand, underlines that communities have a legitimate and democratic right to participate in decisions that might affect their livelihood and often want to participate but are deprived of such entitlements due to several constraints.

In this respect, a correlation analysis of survey data in the current study reveals significant relationships between a handful of factors and current community participation in tourism (see Table 6). Test results inform that, lack of startup capital ($p < 0.05$), poor entrepreneurial skill ($p < 0.05$) and absence of effective and sustained collaboration among key tourism stakeholders ($p < 0.05$) are major drawbacks that limit community participation in tourism. One of the focus group participants cements this by stating:

Since communities' economic stay predominantly depends on subsistence farming and livestock rearing, they are always short of capital even to cover their daily household expenses let alone to start-up tourism businesses (Ecotourism association representative, Dinsho area, August 2018).

Literature extensively documents factors that become statistically significant in this research as recurrent constraints of community engagement in tourism development leading to poor and uneven tourism benefit distribution in various parts of the globe (Kibicho, 2008; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Tosun, 2000; Wondirad, 2017). For instance, Pasape et al. (2013) explored a similar situation in Tanzania (another Eastern African country) where the involvement of ecotourism stakeholders has been limited despite the presence of various actors in the ecotourism sector. Pasape et al. (2013) discovered that poor stakeholder collaboration that stems from several underlying factors leads to a poor sense of ownership among stakeholders which jeopardizes both the development and promotion of sustainable ecotourism in the country. In-depth interviews and focus group discussions outcomes also emulate survey findings reconfirming prior studies (Ariti et al., 2018a; Asmamaw and Verma, 2013). The following statement is what a participant from Nyala Guides Association has reported in this respect.

It is customary that every tourism actor, be it a tour guide, community member, NGOs, government organizations or private sectors just to rush to serve for individual interests overlooking the interests and desires of counterparts, which led to a poor partnership among key tourism stakeholders. In this dynamics, particularly local communities are sidelined (Member of Nyala Guides Association, Dinsho, July 2018).

One interesting finding (see Table 6) that draws researchers' attention is the presence of an insignificant relationship ($p > 0.05$) between government support and community engagement in tourism. That might presumably be explained by three possible nuances taking the research context into account. First, it could be argued that, given the characteristics and nature of the current government in Ethiopia, people have already lost faith in the government due to several previous experiences of unfulfilled promises (Lepp, 2008b; Yitbarek et al., 2013; Wondirad, 2017) and thereby defy and contempt the role of government in tourism development process due to its obsolete top-down imposition of regulations, power struggles and pseudo-public participation (Ruhanen, 2013; Wondirad, 2017). The second possible anecdote could be the fact that communities might be mixing up the roles between non-governmental institutions and governmental organizations since the government always closely aligns itself with NGOs for monitoring and espionage purposes (Bekele et al., 2009; Dupuy et al., 2015). Compared to governmental organizations, non-governmental organizations perform notable jobs (Wondirad, 2018) in some national parks of the country including Bale Mountains National Park (Asfaw, 2004; Nega and Schneider, 2014). The third possible reason might be the stage of current tourism development in Dinsho area of Bale Mountains National Park. Based on the information supplied by the park management, currently, the scale of tourism development generally in Bale Mountains National Park can be attributed to the involvement stage of Butler's (1980) tourist area life cycle model with longer offseason period. According to Butler (1980), the involvement phase of tourist destination development is a stage where some community members started to be attracted by the tourism sector and join the sector through providing various facilities and offers for tourists with limited experience and time to complain about the government. As Lepp (2008b) uncovered, communities' perceptions evolve through time shaped by a sequence of events happened previously. In contrast to prior studies (Cole, 2006; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 2000) lack of community awareness appeared to be statistically insignificant ($p > 0.05$) in affecting communities' engagement and benefit sharing in the tourism sector. In addition to the above factors, in-depth interview findings suggest seasonality and scale or level of tourism development as factors that influence community participation strengthening the findings of numerous previous studies (Ariti et al., 2018a; Asmamaw and Verma, 2013; Kebete and Wondirad, 2019; Kim et al., 2013).

Table 6
Factors influencing community engagement (benefit) in tourism in Dinsho areas of BMNP.

No	Variables	Pearson Chi-square	*df*	*P-value*
1	Inadequate awareness	3.084	4	.544
2	Financial constraints	14.578	4	.006
3	Poor stakeholder collaboration	9.640	4	.047
4	Lack of entrepreneurial skills	13.653	4	.008
5	Lack of proper government support and follow-up	4.297	4	.367

6. Conclusion and implications

The present study examines the current practices and challenges of community participation and issues of benefit sharing in tourism development in Dinsho area of Bale Mountains National Park. Therefore, the study intends to shed light on the nature, extent, and dynamics of grassroots community participation regarding protected area management, proper land and resource use practices, and sustainable tourism development. Land is a valuable resource especially in developing countries such as Ethiopia where its economic sector is predominantly

reliant on agriculture. Hence, as the most valued resource, the land, and its related use draw the attention of numerous stakeholders. Especially when it comes to protected areas, reconciling the competing interests of various stakeholders is a pressing challenge. Governmental and non-governmental institutions, by and large, may need the land to expand conservation areas and thereby to preserve the hastily deteriorating ecosystem. In contrast, local communities, whose livelihood is directly dependent on the land and the resources attached to the land, need to practice subsistence economic activities to support themselves. From the short-term standpoint, local communities could opt for increasing productivity to sustain their livelihood by expanding the size of their farmland, which significantly compromises protected areas' status. Nevertheless, in the long run, this will not only affect the tourism development by further deteriorating the fragile ecosystem but also it jeopardizes the survival and life-support system of the communities themselves (Wondirad et al., forthcoming). In this regard, finding the right balance by designing a well-studied land-use plan that involves key stakeholders and promotes a wise-use of resources as well as negotiates competing stakeholder interests in a win-win situation in line with the principles of stakeholder theory is extremely important.

In Dinsho district of Bale Mountains National Park, currently, nature-based tourism is predominantly practiced with increasing trend providing with some opportunities for few community members. Various stakeholders (governmental and non-governmental organizations, private sector enterprises) play a role in the tourism sector upholding competing and at times conflicting interests (Gashaw, 2015; Kebede et al., 2014). Given Bale Mountains National Park is exclusively controlled and managed by the federal government (Kebede et al., 2014), tourism revenue accruing out from the park directly outflows from the local economy to the central government, causing local economic leakage (Gebreanenya and Meaza, 2017; Pratt, 2015). This practice categorically contradicts the core principles of community-based tourism development which advocate wider community involvement (Kabiri, 2016; Muhumuza and Balkwill, 2013; Sakata and Prideaux, 2013; UNECA, 2011a; Zapata et al., 2011) and the notions of stakeholder theory which call for power decentralization and wider grassroots participation (Bricker and Donohoe, 2015; Donohoe et al., 2015; Freeman, 2010). Community-based tourism strives to unlock opportunities to communities in terms of controlling and involving in the planning, development, and management of tourism so that substantial portion of tourism income stays within the local economy and improves communities' living qualities (Okazaki, 2008; Stone and Stone, 2011; Wondirad, 2018). Such a principle is particularly crucial in the context of fragile ecosystems like the Bale Mountains National Park to successfully protect the park and its wildlife. Factors such as lack of tourism entrepreneurship skills, poor financial capacity, lack of access to financial supports, sparse interest from other stakeholders, such as governmental and private sector, to involve communities and absence of proper benefit distribution mechanism are constraints halting community participation in Dinsho area of BMNP (Ariti et al., 2018a; Asmamaw and Verma, 2013; Wondirad, 2017). Subsequently, measured against Arnstein's (1969) ladder of citizen participation, it is fair to conclude that the current community participation in Dinsho area is at the level of non-participation where citizens are simply deceived by pseudo and tokenistic participation (Arnstein, 1969).

Therefore, to nurture effective community participation, providing uninterrupted government support through well-organized governance structure, facilitating financial access and empowering and building community capacity are immediately required (Chan and Bhatta, 2013; Spenceley, 2008; Fletcher et al., 2016; Kebete and Wondirad, 2019). Moreover, as a case in South Africa demonstrates, community exclusion and marginalization can be alleviated through legislating for community participation (how, where and when it should be done) within the destination management framework, which guides destination planners to consider certain rooms for community participation during destination development (van Niekerk, 2014v). In this respect, the Ethiopian tourism policy, which was unveiled in 2009 for the first time, recognizes local communities as direct participants and beneficiaries of the tourism sector (MoCT, 2009). However, the practicalities on the ground have serious limitations mainly due to the absence of a subsequent strategy that details how community engagement can be materialized.

Despite the current trend shows the opposite, part of the tourism revenue collected from the national park should be also reallocated to communities' trust fund in addition to donations from non-profit organizations for capacity building expenditures and construction of basic facilities, which in turn, improves their well-being. Furthermore, establishing strong partnerships between key tourism stakeholders (the private sector or non-profit organizations, the government and communities) would be vital to improving community engagement in tourism (Berno and Bricker, 2001; Buckley, 2003; Spenceley, 2008; Timothy and White, 1999; Tahiri and Kovaci, 2017). Another intervention mechanism suggested to enhance community engagement in the tourism sector is to integrate agriculture, which is the major local economic activity in the area, with tourism through community-based tourism (Dodd et al., 2018; Chan and Bhatta, 2013; Cobbinah et al., 2015). It is equally crucial to settle park ownership disputes and resource use conflicts impartially and peacefully to ease unnecessary tensions (Belayneh et al., 2013; Gashaw, 2015). In doing so, it could be possible to catapult the neglected community participation, and promote local control over tourism development, and thereby improve livelihoods of communities and realize the wise use of resources (Rinzin et al., 2007; Harrison and Schipani, 2007; Wondirad, 2017).

Findings of the current research challenge the preexistent assumption in the literature (Aref, 2011; Cole, 2006; Su and Wall, 2015; Bello et al., 2016; Tosun, 2000) that interlinks poor community participation predominantly with lack of awareness about the nature and benefits of tourism in developing nations. Due to limited options available in remote destinations like Dinsho area of Bale Mountains National Park, communities are aware of tourism and its benefits with a vested interest of obtaining supplementary income (Kebete and Wondirad, 2019; Snyman, 2014; Spenceley and Snyman, 2017; Tamene and Wondirad, 2019). As a result, the current research brings clarity to the issue of community participation and engagement in the context of direct resource-dependent society of a remote destination. However, researchers challenge that in a setting where the tourism sector is controlled by scheming stakeholders with competing and at times conflicting interest, broad-based community participation is prone to manipulation despite communities' awareness and desire to participate. Benefited from longitudinal research approach, the current study advances our critical understanding of issues revolving around community participation in dynamic stakeholder interactions. Findings also offer crucial input to policymakers (governmental and non-governmental organizations), tourism service providers and local communities in drawing their attention to grassroots sustainability efforts from a development (supply side) perspective in addition to inciting further research.

7. Limitations and opportunities for future research

This study has some shortcomings including its understanding of communities' attitude towards tourism development. Since this research took place in a relatively less studied setting, it aimed to understand communities' awareness, views, and opinions about the tourism sector and its related benefits and costs involved in an aggregate manner. Nonetheless, as a concept, community is a value-laden term comprising various segments where each segment possesses distinct interest and desires. Yet, the current research has no intention to dissect communities' understanding and opinions based on participants' sociodemographic profiles per se. In this respect, Williams and Lawson (2001) noted that when examining issues focusing on community attitude, concentrating more on socio-demographic profiles of respondents is less important. Consequently, future research might strive

to dichotomize and conduct an in-depth analysis of the dynamics within the community itself. Furthermore, it would be quite interesting to examine anecdotes that explain influential factors of grassroots participation in tourism development across the tourist destination life cycle in the context of emerging tourism destinations. Another limitation is related to the lack of methodological sophistication for the quantitative data. However, that was done purposely since the authors intend to provide research beneficiaries in the tourism industry with simple and straightforward analysis for a better understanding.

References

Aas, C., Ladkin, A., Fletcher, J., 2005. Stakeholder collaboration and heritage management. Anna. Tour. Res. 32 (1), 28–48.

Afua, A.E., 2012. Community Participation in ecotourism: Evidence from Tafi Atome, Ghana. Afr. J. Hospital. Tour. Leisure 2 (2), 1–12.

Amaja, L.G., Feyssa, D.H., Gutema, T.M., 2016. Assessment of types of damage and causes of human-wildlife conflict in Gera district, Southwestern Ethiopia. J. Ecol. Nat. Environ. 8 (5), 49–54.

Ambe, T.A., Tsi, E.A., Chi, G.T., Siri, B.N., Tita, D.F., 2010. Ecological tourism and Cameroon – opportunities and threats. In: Krause, A., Weir, E. (Eds.), Ecotourism: Development, Management and Impact. Nova Science Publishers, pp. 113–133.

Aref, F., 2011. Barriers to community capacity building for tourism development in communities in Shiraz, Iran. J. Sustain. Tour. 19 (3), 347–359.

Aref, F., Redzuan, M.R.B., 2009. Community capacity building for tourism development. J. Human Ecol. 27 (1), 21–25.

Ariti, A.T., van Vliet, J., Verburg, P.H., 2018a. Farmers' participation in the development of land use policies for the Central Rift Valley of Ethiopia. Land Use Policy 71, 129–137.

Ariti, A.T., van Vliet, J., Verburg, P.H., 2018b. What restrains Ethiopian NGOs to participate in the development of policies for natural resource management? Environ. Sci. Policy 89, 292–299.

Arnaboldi, M., Spiller, N., 2011. Actor-network theory and stakeholder collaboration: the case of Cultural Districts. Tour. Manag. 32 (3), 641–654.

Arnstein, S.R., 1969. A ladder of citizen participation. J. Am. Inst. Plann. 35 (4), 216–224.

Asfaw, S., 2004. Adaba-Dodola Community-Based Eco-Tourism Development. Retrieved 05.06.18 from https://www.google.co.kr/search?q=Adaba-DodolaCommunity-Based Eco-Tourism+Development &oq Adaba-Dodola Community-BasedEco-Tourism+Development&aqs=chrome..69i57.1105j0j7&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8. .

Ashley, C., Jones, B., 2001. Joint ventures between communities and tourism investors: experience in South Africa. Int. J. Tour. Res. 3 (5), 407–423.

Ashley, C., 2006. How Can Governments Boost the Local Economic Impacts of Tourism? Options and Tools, Overseas Development Institute and Stichting Nederlandse Vriwilligers (SNV), London.

Asmamaw, D., Verma, A., 2013. Ecotourism for environmental conservation and community livelihoods, the case of the Bale Mountains National Park, Ethiopia. J. Environ. Sci. Water Resour. 2 (8), 250–259.

Assegid, A.M., 2015. Tourism: a viable option for pro poor growth in Gamo Gofa Zone? Southern Ethiopia. J. Hospital. Manage. Tour. 6 (2), 8–16.

Attride-Stirling, J., 2001. Thematic networks: an analytic tool for qualitative research. Qual. Res. 1, 385–405.

Babbie, E., 2010. The Practice of Social Research. Wadsworth, California.

Baral, N., Heinen, J.T., 2007. Decentralization and people's participation in conservation: a comparative study from the Western Trai of Nepal. Int. J. Sustain. Dev. World Ecol. 14 (5), 520–531.

Barkin, D., Bouchez, C.P., 2002. NGO–community collaboration for ecotourism: a strategy for sustainable regional development. Curr. Issues Tour. 5 (3-4), 245–253.

Bayih, B.E., Tola, M.W., 2017. Practices and challenges of promoting major tourism destinations of Bale Zone for Sustainable Tourism Development in Ethiopia. Afr. J. Hosp. Tour. Leisure 6 (2), 1–19.

Bekele, Y., Hopkins, C., Noble, L., 2009. Sounding the Horn: Ethiopia's civil society law threatens human rights defenders. Retrieved from https://www.law.northwestern.edu/legalclinic/humanrights/documents/EthiopiaCSOPaper-Nov2009.pdf.

Belayneh, A., Yohannes, T., Worku, A., 2013. Recurrent and extensive forest fire incidence in the Bale Mountains National Park (BMNP), Ethiopia: extent, cause and consequences. Int. J. Environ. Sci. 2 (1), 29–39.

Bello, F.G., Lovelock, B., Carr, N., 2016. Constraints of community participation in protected area-based tourism planning: the case of Malawi. J. Ecotour. 1–21.

Berno, T., Bricker, K., 2001. Sustainable tourism development: the long road from theory to practice. Int. J. Econ. Dev. 3 (3), 1–18.

Bien, A., 2010. Bridging the Gap Between Policies and the Field in Sustainable Tourism Through New International Networks. February, Retrieved 09.01.18 from. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=de55JjVZVS8.

Birhan, M., Gebreyes, G., 2015. Review on problems, prospects and economic contribution of wildlife management and ecotourism in Ethiopia. J. Vet. Sci. Technol. 6, 1–5.

Bricker, K., Donohoe, H., 2015. Demystifying Theories in Tourism Research. CABI Publishing, Wallingford, Oxfordshire.

Buckley, R., 2003. Environmental inputs and outputs in ecotourism: geotourism with a positive triple bottom line. Journal of Ecotourism 2 (1), 76–82.

Butcher, J., 2011. Can ecotourism contribute to tackling poverty? The importance of 'symbiosis'. Curr. Issues Tour. 14 (3), 295–307.

Butler, R.W., 1980. The concept of a tourist area cycle of evolution: implications for management of resources. Canadian Geographer/Le Géographe Canadien 24 (1), 5–12.

Byrd, E.T., 2007. Stakeholders in sustainable tourism development and their roles: applying stakeholder theory to sustainable tourism development. Tour. Rev. 62 (2), 6–13.

Chan, R., Bhatta, K., 2013. Ecotourism Planning and Sustainable Community Development: Theoretical Perspectives for Nepal. South Asian J. Tour. Heritage 6 (1), 69–96.

Cobbinah, P.B., Black, R., Thwaites, R., 2015. Ecotourism implementation in the Kakum Conservation Area, Ghana: administrative framework and local community experiences. J. Ecotour. 14 (2–3), 223–242.

Cole, S., 2006. Information and Empowerment: the Keys to achieve sustainable tourism. J. Sustain. Tour. 14 (6), 629–644.

Connor, D., 1988. A new ladder of citizen participation. National Civic Rev. 77 (3), 249–257.

Cooper, C., Hall, C.M., 2016. Contemporary Tourism: an International Approach. Goodfellow Publishers, Limited, Burlington.

Council of Ministers, 2008. Ethiopian Wildlife Development, Conservation and Utilization Council of Ministers Regulations No. 163/2008. Retrieved 12.02.18 from. http://extwprlegs1.fao.org/docs/pdf/eth136632.pdf.

Curcija, M., Breakey, N., Driml, S., 2019. Development of a conflict management model as a tool for improved project outcomes in community-based tourism. Tour. Manag. 70, 341–354.

de Haas, H.C., 2002. Sustainability of small-scale ecotourism: the case of Niue, South Pacific. Curr. Issues Tour. 5 (3-4), 319–337.

Deshler, D., Sock, D., 1985. Community development participation: a concept review of the international literature. International League for Social Commitment in Adult Education. pp. 22–26.

Domínguez-Gómez, J.A., González-Gómez, T., 2017. Analysing stakeholders' perceptions of golf-course-based tourism: a proposal for developing sustainable tourism projects. Tour. Manag. 63, 135–143.

Donohoe, H., Reyes, B., Becerra, L., 2015. Theoretical perspectives on stakeholders in tourism management. In: Bricker, K.S., Donohoe, H. (Eds.), Demystifying Theories in Tourism Research. CABI Publishing, Wallingford, Oxfordshire, pp. 18–30.

Duffy, R., 2006. The politics of ecotourism and the developing world. J. Ecotourism 5 (1-2), 1–6.

Dupuy, K.E., Ron, J., Prakash, A., 2015. Who survived? Ethiopia's regulatory crackdown on foreign-funded NGOs. Rev. Int. Political Econ. 22 (2), 419–456.

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., Jackson, P.R., 2015. Management and Business Research (5th Eds.). Sage Publications, London.

Edwards, R.G., Galaski, K., Dodds, R., 2013. Connecting Communities to the Tourism Supply Chain. In: Bricker, K.S., Black, R., Cottrell, S. (Eds.), Sustainable tourism and the millennium development goals. Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC, United States of America, pp. 265–276.

Eshetu, A., 2014. Ecotourism as a viable strategy for livelihood diversification and sustainable natural resource management in Ethiopia (from eco-development paradigm point of view). J. Environ. Scie. Water Resour. 3 (2), 40–52.

Ethiopian Wildlife Conservation Authority, 2013. Bale Mountains National Park: A Traveller's Guidebook. published by Frankfurt Zoological Society and Bale Mountains National Park, Addis Ababa.

Faux, J., Dwyer, L., 2009. Triple bottom line reporting of tourism organizations to support sustainable development. BEST Education Network Module. pp. 1–47.

Fennell, D.A., 2008. Ecotourism and the myth of indigenous stewardship. J. Sustain. Tour. 16 (2), 129–149.

Flake, L.S., Rose, J., 2005. Stakeholder governance: adapting stakeholder theory to e-government. Commun. Assoc. Inf. Syst. 16 (31), 1–46.

Fletcher, C., Pforr, C., Brueckner, M., 2016. Factors influencing Indigenous engagement in tourism development: an international perspective. J. Sustain. Tour. 24 (8-9), 1100–1120.

Freeman, R.E., 1984. Strategic management: A stakeholder approach. Adv. Strat. Manage. 1 (1), 31–60.

Freeman, R.E., 2010. Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach. Cambridge university press.

Frost, F.A., Shanka, T., 2002. Regionalism in Tourism-The Case for Kenya and Ethiopia. J. Travel Tour. Market. 11 (1), 35–58.

Gale, T., Hill, J., 2009. Ecotourism and environmental sustainability: an introduction. In: Hill, J., Gale, T. (Eds.), Ecotourism and Environmental Sustainability: Principles and Practices, pp. 3–17.

Gashaw, T., 2015. Threats of Bale Mountains National Park and solutions, Ethiopia. J. Phys. Sci. Environ. Stud. 1 (2), 10–16.

Gebreanenya, G., Meaza, H., 2017. The socio-economic impacts of tourism in Axum Town. J. Tour. Hosp. Manage. 5 (1), 1–24.

George, B.P., Nedelea, A., Antony, M., 2007. The business of community based tourism: a multi-stakeholder approach. J. Tour. Res. 118–139.

Getz, D., Timur, S., 2012. Stakeholder involvement in sustainable tourism: balancing the voices. Global Tourism 230.

Gomm, R., 2008. Social Research Methodology: a Critical Introduction. Macmillan International Higher Education, Hampshire.

Halpenny, E.A., 2003. NGOs as conservation agents: achieving conservation through Marine ecotourism. In: Garrod, B., Wilson, J.C. (Eds.), Marine Ecotourism: Issues and Experiences. Channel View Publication, pp. 107–120.

Hardy, A., Pearson, L.J., 2018. Examining stakeholder group specificity: an innovative sustainable tourism approach. J. Destin. Mark. Manage. 8, 247–258.

Harrison, D., Schipani, S., 2007. Lao tourism and poverty alleviation: Community-based tourism and the private sector. Curr. Issues Tour. 10 (2), 194–230.

Honey, M., 2008. Ecotourism and Sustainable Development Who Owns Paradise? Island Press, Washington DC, USA.
Hunt, C.A., Durham, W.H., Driscoll, L., Honey, M., 2014. Can ecotourism deliver real economic social, and environmental benefits? A study of the Osa Peninsula, Costa Rica. J. Sustain. Tour. 23 (3), 339–357.
Iorio, M., Corsale, A., 2014. Community-based tourism and networking: Viscri, Romania. J. Sustain. Tour. 22 (2), 234–255.
Italemahu, T., 2015. Interaction, Institutions and Impacts of Tourism on the Bishoftu-Modjo- Hawassa Route, Central Ethiopia. Ph.D. Thesis, Retrieved 2018.03.25 from. Addis Ababa University. http://etd.aau.edu.et/bitstream/handle/123456789/978/Tesfaye%20Zeleke%20Italemahu.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y.
Jamal, T., Stronza, A., 2009. Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: Stakeholders, structuring and sustainability. J. Sustain. Tour. 17 (2), 169–189.
Janesick, V.J., 2000. The choreography of qualitative research design. In: Denzin, N.K., Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.), Handbook of Qualitative Research. Sage, Thousand Oaks, pp. 379–399.
Jennings, G., 2001. Tourism research. John Wiley and sons Australia, Ltd.
KC, A., Rijal, K., Sapkota, R.P., 2015. Role of ecotourism in environmental conservation and socioeconomic development in Annapurna conservation area, Nepal. Int. J. Sustain. Dev. World Ecol. 22 (3), 251–258.
Kabiri, N., 2016. Public participation, land use and climate change governance in Thailand. Land Use Policy 52, 511–517.
Kebede, N.S., Bayeh, B.E., 2017. Alignment of tourism against poverty in Bale eco-region, Dinsho district, Ethiopia. Int. J. Tour. Sci. 17 (4), 247–261.
Kebede, A.G., Bekele, M., Woldeamanuel, T., 2014. Natural resource use conflict in Bale Mountains National Park, Southeast Ethiopia. Int. J. Biodivers. Conserv. 6 (12), 814–822.
Kebete, Y., Wondirad, A., 2019. Visitor management and sustainable destination management nexus in Zegie Peninsula, Northern Ethiopia. J. Destin. Mark. Manage. 13, 83–98.
Kennedy, M.O., Monica, V.V., Maria, A.S.N., Carlos, A.R.G., 2013. Ecotourism in developing countries: a critical analysis of the promise, the reality and the future. J. Emerg. Trends Econ. Manage. Sci. 4 (5), 481–486.
Kibicho, w., 2008. Community-based tourism: a factor-cluster segmentation approach. J. Sustain. Tour. 16 (2), 211–231.
Kim, K., Uysal, M., Sirgy, M.J., 2013. How does tourism in a community impact the quality of life of community residents? Tour. Manage. 36, 527–540.
Ladkin, A., Bertramini, A.M., 2002. Collaborative tourism planning: A case study of Cusco, Peru. Curr. Issues Tour. 5 (2), 71–93.
Lengkeek, J., Jacobsen, J.K., 2016. Theory. In: Jafari, J., Xiao, H. (Eds.), Encyclopedia of Tourism. Springer International Publishing, Switzerland, pp. 941–944.
Lepp, A., 2008a. Attitudes towards initial tourism development in a community with no prior tourism experience: The case of Bigodi, Uganda. J. Sustain. Tour. 16 (1), 5–22.
Lepp, A., 2008b. Tourism and dependency: an analysis of Bigodi village, Uganda. Tour. Manage. 29 (6), 1206–1214.
Li, W., 2006. Community decision-making participation in development. Ann. Tour. Res. 33 (1), 132–143.
Liu, J., Qu, H., Huang, D., Chen, G., Yue, X., Zhao, X., Liang, Z., 2014. The role of social capital in encouraging residents' pro-environmental behaviors in community-based ecotourism. Tour. Manage. 41, 190–201.
Liu, M., Yang, L., Bai, Y., Min, Q., 2018. The impacts of farmers' livelihood endowments on their participation in eco-compensation policies: globally important agricultural heritage systems case studies from China. Land Use Policy 77, 231–239.
Lonely Planet, 2018. Bale Mountains National Park Travel. Retrieved 24.05.18 from. https://www.lonelyplanet.com/ethiopia/southern-ethiopia/bale-mountains-national-park.
Lu, H.F., Campbell, D.E., Sagisaka, M., Ren, H., 2016. Interactions among energy consumption, economic development and greenhouse gas emissions in Japan after World War II. Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev. 54, 1060–1072.
Mann, S., 2006. Ethiopia, in Makeda's Footsteps: Towards a Strategy for Pro-Poor Tourism Development. World Bank Report to Ethiopian Government.
Marzuki, A., Hay, I., 2016. Stakeholder. In: Jafari, J., Xiao, H. (Eds.), Encyclopedia of Tourism. Springer International Publishing, Switzerland, pp. 896–898.
Mayaka, M., Croy, W.G., Cox, J.W., 2018. Participation as motif in community-based tourism: a practice perspective. J. Sustain. Tour. 26 (3), 416–432.
Mbaiwa, J.E., 2015a. Community-based natural resource management in Botswana. In: Van der Duim, R., Lamers, M., Wijk, J. (Eds.), Institutional arrangements for conservation, development and tourism in Eastern and Southern Africa. Springer, New York, pp. 59–80.
Mbaiwa, J.E., 2015b. Ecotourism in Botswana: 30 years later. J. Ecotourism 14 (2-3), 204–222.
McCool, D., 1995. Public Policy Theories, Models, and Concepts: an Anthology. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.
Merriam, S., 2009. Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.
Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2009. Tourism Development Policy, Addis Ababa. Retrieved 2019.03.19 from. https://chilot.me/wp-content/uploads/2011/08/tourism-development-policy-english.pdf.
Mitchell, J., Coles, C., 2009. Enhancing Private Sector and Community Engagement in Tourism Services in Ethiopia. Overseas development institute, London, UK.
Mitchell, R., Agle, B., Wood, D., 1997. Towards a theory of stakeholder identification and alliance. Defining the principle of who and what really counts. Acad. Manage. Rev. 22 (4), 853–886.
MoCT, 2009. Tourism Development Policy. Addis Ababa.
Mowforth, M., Munt, I., 2003. Sustainable Tourism in Developing Countries: Poverty Alleviation, Participatory Planning, and Ethical Issues. Routledge, London.
Muganda, M., Sirima, A., Moshy, B., Mkumbo, P., 2012. Sharing tourism benefits with the local community: a business perspective from the grassroots in Tanzania. Ethiop. J. Environ. Stud. Manage. 5 (3), 239–251.
Muhumuza, M., Balkwill, K., 2013. Factors affecting the success of conserving biodiversity in national parks: a review of case studies from Africa. Int. J. Biodivers. 2013.
Murphy, P.E., 1985. Tourism: A Community Approach. Methuen, New York.
Nega, B., Milofsky, C., 2011. Ethiopia's anti-NGO law and its consequences for economic development. Commun. Dev. J. 46 (suppl_2), ii33–ii48.
Nega, B., Schneider, G., 2014. NGOs, the state, and development in Africa. Rev. Soc. Econ. 72 (4), 485–503.
Nelson, F., 2012. Blessing or curse? The political economy of tourism development in Tanzania. J. Sustain. Tour. 20 (3), 359–375.
Noakes, S., Carlsen, J., 2013. Ecotourism as a potential tool for poverty eradication and wild tiger conservation. In: Bricker, K.S., Black, R., Cottrell, S. (Eds.), Sustainable Tourism and the Millennium Development Goals. Jones & Bartlett Learning, LLC, United States of America, pp. 265–276.
Okazaki, E., 2008. A community-based tourism model: its conception and use. J. Sustain. Tour. 16 (5), 511–529.
Pansiri, J., 2013. Collaboration and partnership in tourism: the experience of Botswana. Tour. Plan. Dev. 10 (1), 64–84.
Pasape, L., Anderson, W., Lindi, G., 2013. Towards sustainable ecotourism through stakeholder collaborations in Tanzania. J. Tour. Res. Hosp. 2 (1), 1–14.
Pasape, L., Anderson, W., Lindi, G., 2015. Good governance strategies for sustainable ecotourism in Tanzania. J. Ecotour. 14 (2-3), 145–165.
Pearce, P.L., 1994. Tourist-resident impact: examples and emerging solutions. In: Theobald, W.F. (Ed.), Global Tourism: The Next Decade. Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford, pp. 103–123.
Pfeffer, J., Salancik, G., 1978. The External Control of Organizations: a Resource Dependence Perspective. Harper & Row, New York.
Pratt, S., 2015. The economic impact of tourism in SIDS. Ann. Tour. Res. 52, 148–160.
Pretty, J., 1995. The many interpretations of participation. Focus 16. pp. 4–5.
Rasoolimanesh, S.M., Jaafar, M., Tangit, T.M., 2017. Community involvement in rural tourism: a case of Kinabalu National Park, Malaysia. Anatolia 1–14.
Reber, D., Fekadu, M., Detsch, F., Vogelsang, R., Bekele, T., Nauss, T., Miehe, G., 2018. High-Altitude Rock Shelters and Settlements in an African Alpine Ecosystem: The Bale Mountains National Park, Ethiopia. Hum. Ecol. 1–14.
Rinzin, C., Vermeulen, W.J., Glasbergen, P., 2007. Ecotourism as a mechanism for sustainable development: the case of Bhutan. Environ. Sci. 4 (2), 109–125.
Ruhanen, L., 2013. Local government: facilitator or inhibitor of sustainable tourism development? J. Sustain. Tour. 21 (1), 80–98.
Sakata, H., Prideaux, B., 2013. An alternative approach to community-based ecotourism: a bottom-up locally initiated non-monetized project in Papua New Guinea. J. Sustain. Tour. 21 (6), 880–899.
Sato, H., 2001. Enjo-to-Shakai-kankei-shihon: Social Capital-ron-no-kanousei (Aid and Social Capital: Potential of Social Capital Theories). Institute of Developing, Chiba, Japan.
Saufi, A., O'Brien, D., Wilkins, H., 2014. Inhibitors to host community participation in sustainable tourism development in developing countries. J. Sustain. Tour. 22 (5), 801–820.
Scheyvens, R., 1999. Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities. Tour. Manage. 20 (2), 245–249.
Seba, J.A., 2012. Ecotourism and sustainable tourism: New perspectives and Studies. Apple Academic press, Inc, Toronto.
Sebele, S.L., 2010. Community-based tourism ventures, benefits and challenges: Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust, Central District, Botswana. Tour. Manage. 31 (1), 136–146.
Sharpley, R., 2000. Tourism and sustainable development: exploring the theoretical divide. J. Sustain. Tour. 8 (1), 1–19.
Sharpley, R., 2009. Tourism and development challenges in the least developed countries: The case of The Gambia. Curr. Issues Tour. 12 (4), 337–358.
Sheehan, L.R., Ritchie, J.B., 2005. Destination stakeholders exploring identity and salience. Ann. Tour. Res. 32 (3), 711–734.
Shoo, R.A., Songorwa, A.N., 2013. Contribution of eco-tourism to nature conservation and improvement of livelihoods around Amani nature reserve, Tanzania. J. Ecotour. 12 (2), 75–89.
Singh, S., Timothy, D.J., Dowling, R.K. (Eds.), 2003. Tourism in destination communities. Cabi, Wallingford.
Sirima, A., Backman, K.F., 2013. Communities' displacement from national park and tourism development in the Usangu Plains, Tanzania. Current Issues in Tourism 16 (7-8), 719–735.
Snyman, S., 2014. The impact of ecotourism employment on rural household incomes and social welfare in six southern African countries. Tour. Hosp. Res. 14 (1-2), 37–52.
Spenceley, A., Snyman, S., 2017. Can a wildlife tourism company influence conservation and the development of tourism in a specific destination? Tour. Hospital. Res. 17 (1), 52–67.
Spenceley, A., 2008. Introduction: responsible tourism in Southern Africa. In: Spenceley, A. (Ed.), Responsible Tourism Critical Issues for Conservation and Development. Earthscan, UK, pp. 1–26.
Stoddard, J.E., Pollard, C.E., Evans, M.R., 2012. The triple bottom line: a framework for sustainable tourism development. Int. J. Hosp. Tour. Adm. 13 (3), 233–258.
Stone, L.S., Stone, T.M., 2011. Community-based tourism enterprises: challenges and prospects for community participation; Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust, Botswana. J. Sustain. Tour. 19 (1), 97–114.
Stone, M.T., 2015. Community-based ecotourism: a collaborative partnerships perspective. J. Ecotourism 1–19.
Strauss, A.L., 1987. Qualitative analysis for social scientists. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Stronza, A., Gordillo, J., 2008. Community views of ecotourism. Ann. Tour. Res. 35 (2), 448–468.
Su, M.M., Wall, G., 2015. Community involvement at great wall world heritage sites, Beijing, China. Curr. Issues Tour. 18 (2), 137–157.
Tahiri, A., Kovaci, I., 2017. The theory of sustainable Tourism Development. Acad. J. Bus. 3 (1), 343–349.
Tamene, K., Wondirad, A., 2019. Economic impact of tourism on small-scale tourism enterprises in Hawassa City, Southern Ethiopia. Int. J. Tour. Sci. 1–18.
Tegegne, W.A., Moyle, B.D., Becken, S., 2018. A qualitative system dynamics approach to understanding destination image. J. Destin. Mark. Manag. 8, 14–22.
Telfer, D.J., Sharpley, R., 2008. Tourism and Development in the Developing World, Routledge Perspectives on Development. Routledge, New York.
Telfer, D.J., 2002. The evolution of tourism and development theory. In: Sharpley, R., Telfer, D.J. (Eds.), Tourism and Development: Concepts and Issues. Channel View Publication, Clevedon, pp. 35–78.
Tessema, M.E., Lilieholm, R.J., Ashenafi, Z.T., Leader-Williams, N., 2010. Community attitudes toward wildlife and protected areas in Ethiopia. Soc. Nat. Resour. 23 (6), 489–506.
Tham, A., 2018. Sand, surgery and stakeholders: a multi-stakeholder involvement model of domestic medical tourism for Australia's Sunshine Coast. Tourism Manage. Perspect. 25, 29–40.
Theodoulidis, B., Diaz, D., Crotto, F., Rancati, E., 2017. Exploring corporate social responsibility and financial performance through stakeholder theory in the tourism industries. Tour. Manage. 62, 173–188.
Timothy, D.J., White, K., 1999. Community-based ecotourism development on the periphery of Belize. Curr. Issues Tour. 2 (2-3), 226–242.
Timothy, D.J., 1999. Participatory planning: a view of tourism in Indonesia. Ann. Tour. Res. 26, 371–391.
Tokalu, F., 2005. The economic benefits of an ecotourism project in a regional economy: a case study of namuamua Island tour, namosi, Fiji Islands. In: Hall, M., Boyd, S. (Eds.), Nature-Based Tourism in Peripheral Areas: Development or Disaster? Channel View Publications, Clevedon, pp. 173–187.
Tosun, C., Timothy, D.J., 2003. Arguments for community participation in the tourism development process. J. Tour. Stud. 14 (2), 2–15.
Tosun, C., 1999. Towards a typology of community participation in the tourism development process. Anatolia 10 (2), 113–134.
Tosun, C., 2000. Limits to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries. Tour. Manage. 21, 613–633.
Tran, L., Walter, P., 2014. Ecotourism, gender and development in Northern Vietnam. Ann. Tour. Res. 44, 116–130.
Tsang, N.K., Yeung, S., Cheung, C., 2011. A critical investigation of the use and effectiveness of interpretive services. Asia Pacific J. Tour. Res. 16 (2), 123–137.
UNECA, 2011a. Ecotourism in the IGAD Region: an Untapped Potential. UNECA, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
UNECA, 2015. The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Sustainable Tourism Master Plan 2015 – 2025. UNECA, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.
UNESCO, 2018. Bale Mountains National Park. Retrieved 2018.11.03 from https://whc.unesco.org/en/tentativelists/5315/.
UNWTO, 2002. Tourism and Poverty Alleviation. United Nations World Tourism Organization, Madrid.
van Niekerk, M., 2014v. Advocating community participation and integrated tourism development planning in local destinations: the case of South Africa. J. Destin. Mark. Manag. 3 (2), 82–84.
Waligo, V.M., Clarke, J., Hawkins, R., 2013. Implementing sustainable tourism: a multi-stakeholder involvement management framework. Tour. Manag. 36, 342–353.
Wang, Y., Krakover, S., 2008. Destination marketing: competition, cooperation or coopetition? Int. J. Contemp. Hosp. Manage. 20 (2), 126–141.
Wang, C.C., Cater, C., Low, T., 2016. Political challenges in community-based ecotourism. J. Sustain. Tour. 1–14.
Welteji, D., Zerihun, B., 2018. Tourism–agriculture nexuses: practices, challenges and opportunities in the case of Bale Mountains National Park, Southeastern Ethiopia. Agric. Food Secur. 7 (1), 8.
Williams, J., Lawson, R., 2001. Community issues and resident opinions of tourism. Ann. Tour. Res. 28 (2), 269–290.
Wondirad, A., Tolkach, D. & King, D. (forthcoming). Stakeholder collaboration for sustainable ecotourism development in the context of developing countries. Tourism Management.
Wondirad, A., 2017. Who benefits from the ecotourism sector in Southern Ethiopia? Int. J. Tour. Sci. 17 (4), 276–297.
Wondirad, A., 2018. Stakeholder Collaboration for Sustainable Ecotourism Development in Southern Ethiopia. Doctoral dissertation. The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.
World Travel and Tourism Council, WTTC, 2018. Travel & Tourism Economic Impact, Ethiopia. Retrieved 21 August 2018 from. . https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/regions-2018/world2018.pdf.
Yitbarek, T.W., Tadie, D., Timer, G., Fischer, A., 2013. Evaluating governance processes in the sharing of revenues from wildlife tourism and hunting in Ethiopia. Environ. Conserv. 40 (03), 253–265.
Yitbarek, T., 2012. Hunting for Sustainability in Africa – Ethiopia. Research Briefings. Retrieved 2018.06.09 from https://fp7hunt.net/Portals/HUNT/Publikasjoner/factsheets/2013/HUSA%20research%20briefings%20Ethiopia%20July%202013.pdf. .
Yodsuwan, C., Butcher, K., 2012. Determinants of tourism collaboration member satisfaction in Thailand. Asia Pac. J. Tour. Res. 17 (1), 63–80.
Young, J., 2012. Ethiopian Protected Areas: A "Snapshot". A reference guide for future strategic planning and project funding. pp. 46.
Zapata, M.J., Hall, C.M., Lindo, P., Vanderschaeghe, M., 2011. Can community-based tourism contribute to development and poverty alleviation? Lessons from Nicaragua. Current Issues in Tourism 14 (8), 725–749.
Zerga, B., 2016. Land Resource, Uses, and Ownership in Ethiopia: Past, Present and Future. Int. J. Sci. Res. Eng. Technol. 2, 1.
Zhuang, H., Lassoie, J.P., Wolf, S.A., 2011. Ecotourism development in China: prospects for expanded roles for non-governmental organisations. J. Ecotourism 10 (1), 46–63.

Amare WONDIRAD His research interests include ecotourism, sustainable tourism, community-based tourism and small-scale tourism business development.

Biruk EWNETU His research interests include sustainable tourism, community-based tourism and rural tourism.