Community-based Ecotourism Development Through Stakeholder Engagement and Collaboration: A Case of Lababia Village, Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea.

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ABSTRACT

This thesis argues that community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in ecotourism development has been limited. However, involvement/engagement of stakeholders is important in the affairs of planning, governing and overall development at local level, and must become an integral part (Williams, 2006) of ecotourism development. While there has been much previous research on ecotourism, emergence of participatory tourism development is a relatively new component within prevailing socio-economic, cultural and political conditions. The concepts of ecotourism, community-based ecotourism, and community participation in tourism planning set the theoretical context of the study. The key question in this study is how can we achieve community-based ecotourism development and participation? Methods and conclusions of the thesis have not only provided critical commentaries about community-based ecotourism and participation but have also drawn clear identification of how stakeholders can effectively participate to achieve sustainable community-based ecotourism development.

The aim of this study is to examine the effectiveness of community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in ecotourism development in the context of a developing nation and provide recommendations as to how it may be achieved. As a result of the uneven distribution of economic benefits to the host community, the positive nature of socio-cultural impacts is admittedly perceived by the host community as poor in developing nations. Most, if not all, stakeholder engagement lacks transparency, and is characterised by political instability, lack of information and data about developmental issues, making it difficult to achieve sustainable ecotourism development. This draws attention to the need for tourism stakeholders and the local community to enhance local ecotourism development through stakeholder participation and collaboration. Lababia village in Papua New Guinea is no exception, as an internationally recognised area, Kamiali

Wildlife Management, recognised as a biodiversity research area, fulfilled the requirements of a case study for this research, due to the potential in community-based ecotourism development, and the significance of the negative impact of tourism on the socio-economic nature of the host community. To achieve the research aim, the Nominal Group Technique (NGT) was applied to reveal the existing ways of how stakeholders can facilitate effective engagement and collaboration, and prioritise their recommendations about community-based ecotourism participation. Semi-structured follow-up interviews were conducted with a variety of the relevant stakeholders to further examine the current issues, problems, and concerns raised for the achievement of effective community and stakeholder engagement.

The results of this thesis clearly demonstrate the importance of the facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement in community-based ecotourism development and that the local community cannot work without the participation and collaboration of other tourism stakeholders directly and indirectly involved in tourism.

Key Words: Ecotourism**,** Community-based Ecotourism, Community Participation, Stakeholder Participation, Papua New Guinea.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ERMC – Environment Research and Management Centre

IES – International Ecotourism Society

KWMA – Kamiali Wildlife Management Area

NGT – Nominal Group Technique

PNGTPA – Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority

PNG – Papua New Guinea

TIES – The International Ecotourism Society

TPA – Tourism Promotion Authority

VDT – Village Development Trust

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Tourism has made a significant contribution to the socio-economic development of many Pacific island countries (United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2011). According to the Pacific Regional Tourism context, Papua New Guinea is recognised under the developing group that features some of the fastest industries and unrealised potential niche markets (New Zealand Tourism Research Institute & South Pacific Tourism Organization, 2013) . Papua New Guinea represents a cross-section of types and levels of development, colonial heritage, population types and densities and physical geographies, with a broad range of cultural, ethnic and over 800 linguistic backgrounds (Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority (PNGTPA), 2006). Papua New Guinea recorded over 164,000 international visitors in 2011, an increase of more than 14% or an additional 20,000 arrivals compared to 2010, with visitors injecting an estimated K1.6 billion into the national economy (Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority (PNGTPA), 2006).

1.2 Context of Ecotourism in Papua New Guinea

1.2.1 Current state of ecotourism and potential for expansion

According to the United Nations report on ecotourism development in the Pacific Islands (United Nations, 2003):

> Papua New Guinea does not yet have a sustainable tourism development plan, which in turn, is due to the lack of a national tourism plan. The Tourism Promotion Authority (TPA) does have a section for planning, product development and training, but new information, knowledge and skills are still needed to

start formulating the much-needed tourism development plan. Despite the lack of direction or plan, the Tourism Promotion Authority (TPA) acts as the lead agency in working with other government agencies, NGOs, academic institutions and international conservation groups who are at the forefront of sustainable tourism development. Most of these organizations and groups have been successful at starting projects and creating awareness programmes aimed at the general public. Now ordinary Papua New Guineans can better understand the importance of making development environmentally friendly. There is an immediate need for policies to be formulated and implemented to address environmental concerns and conservation issues. This need has been recognized to a certain extent with respect to marine and land use capabilities. Environmental impact assessment processes have been adopted (p. 24).

Along with the successful growth of tourism, problems such as safety for tourists, insufficient infrastructure, cultural deterioration, limited tourism stakeholder engagement and collaboration, lack of communication and networking, limited support from District and Local Level Government (LLG), limited skills and knowledge and lack of funding are some of the negative impacts on, especially, local people.

1.3 Overview of Ecotourism in Papua New Guinea – Lababia Village

This research investigates a Papua New Guinea community (Lababia village) embarking on 'ecotourism' development as a means of enhancing engagement and collaboration with local community and tourism stakeholders to achieve positive impacts for the host community. Lababia is located in the Salamawa territory. In the past, Salamawa villages have a

history surrounding WWII (1942), and relics have been well preserved as part of that history, but also as a natural landscape. Lababia covers a marine and land surface of approximately 434 square kilometres within the boundaries of the Lababia village (Goodwin, 1999).

Ecotourism is not a new concept to the Lababia people. The people of Lababia community have agreed to engage in an ecotourism venture developed by the Village Development Trust (VDT) since early 1997. At that time, the community leaders entered into an agreement with the Environmental Research and Management Centre (ERMC), Papua New Guinea University of Technology, in partnership with the VDT, to initiate an inventory of the biodiversity of the Kamiali – now known as "Kamiali Wildlife Management Area (KWMA)" (Goodwin, 1999). The objective of the KWMA is to offer visitors and researchers an opportunity to live and experience wildlife and protect the biodiversity of the location (Kamiali village). It offers activities and experiences related to wildlife scenery and opportunities to participate in village life.

The aim of this thesis is examine the effectiveness of community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in ecotourism development. There were basically two phases to this research. The first phase involved a group discussion technique: Nominal Group Technique (NGT) (Vermandere et al., 2013). Hence, there were two key questions under the NGT session: (1) How can we achieve effective participation in developing community-based ecotourism? (2) To what extent can effective participation be achieved in developing community-based ecotourism? The NGT technique is used to allow key stakeholders to participate willingly and to fully develop a consensus document that can be aggregated to identify the main themes. The findings from the Lababia case study are analysed and discussed in relation to the wider community based ecotourism industry.

The second phase involved follow-up semi-structured interviews. The interview questions were guided by key themes aggregated and selected

from the NGT session. The key leading questions were (1) What are the barriers to community based ecotourism development? (2) What are you prepared to do in order to achieve community-based ecotourism development?

The key issue was the facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration amongst the tourism stakeholders in Lababia village, Papua New Guinea. Most, but not all, stakeholders act according to their principles of development. Hence, concerns were raised mainly by the local communities because they are not benefiting from the ecotourism development. For example, "Leakage of profits from local to outside operators has been a major problem" (Honey 1999; Lindberg 1994; as cited in Stronza & Gordillo, 2008, p. 450). Although tourists often pay for the services, some tour operators are reluctant to share with the local community (Stronza & Gordillo, 2008).

The significance of ecotourism lies in the immense geographical and cultural authenticity of Papua New Guinea. As a typical Papua New Guinea village, Lababia village in Morobe Province was chosen as a case study for this research. Therefore, this study describes the relationship of the local community and tourism stakeholders in the local development of ecotourism.

Ecotourism has been a popular form of tourism development and a market segment aligned with the growth of public concern over the natural resources (Tyler & Dangerfield, 1999). The ecotourism phenomenon came into being not long after the initial recognition of sustainability, with the emphasis on considerations of the ecosystem and the communities that live in the environment (Tyler & Dangerfield, 1999). 'The International Ecotourism Society' (TIES) defined ecotourism as "…responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the welfare of local people" (Linberg & Hawkins, 1993, p.81; as cited in Weaver, 2001a, p. 6).

To date, conservation of the natural environment and the practical implications of the benefits to the local communities require close cooperation between the stakeholders (Getz & Jamal, 1994) .

Ecotourism is an agent for community development and growth within the local community and has the potential to generate income and employment therein. Consequently, protecting and enhancing rural communities is a huge challenge for both the private and the public sectors faced by the local resource owners and the resource managers (Fennell and Dowling, 2003). In contrast, the result of less stakeholder engagement and participation more often has contributed to the deterioration of cultural and natural resources (Bith, 2011). For example, "Arnstein (1969) states that the purpose of participation is power redistribution, thereby enabling society to fairly redistribute benefits and costs" (as cited in Okazaki, 2008, p. 511). Thus, the implementation of a participatory development approach is believed to have positive impacts and benefits for the local community with the acquisition of a positive attitude to both development and conservation (Tosun, 2006). Specifically, community development or projects can only be made successful when local people are effectively involved (Award, 2008; as cited in Shah & Baporikar, 2012). Sections 1.4 and 1.5 below further elaborate on tourism and the notion of sustainability for sustainable tourism development.

1.4 Tourism and the Notion of Sustainability

Budeanu (2007) declared tourism as the largest migration in the history of humankind, with 10% of the world's population migrating yearly. For East Asia and the Pacific for instance, growth went up with 190,000 international tourist arrivals in 1950, to over 70 million in 1993, while international tourism revenues in Latin America and the Caribbean reached US$37.4 billion in 2005 (United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2011). Furthermore, tourism as a leading economic factor (Briassoulis, 2003), and

the recent globalisation issues faced by the community (O'Neill, 2002), have placed a severe strain on the economy and the environment; therefore developers, practitioners, scholars and leaders all have very fundamental interests to achieve sustainable development. For example, Pacific Asia Tourism (PAT) is a global organisation which assists the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) through "International Development via Sustainable Development" as a contribution to the "Millennium Development Goals" of UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2011). According to Bowman (2011), Pacific Islands tourism is an economic and social activity gain; however, the importance of sustainable tourism is a step forward for appropriate development. Indeed, Bramwell and Lane (1993) pointed out that sustainable tourism is "…intended to reduce the tensions and friction created by the complex interactions between the tourism industry, visitors, the environment and the communities which are host to holidaymakers" (p. 2).

The emergence of sustainable tourism development became apparent during the late 1940s and early 1950s, when the World Conservation Union was first established with a vision of conservation (Wilbanks, 1994; as cited in Hardy, Beeton, & Pearson, 2002). In addition, "… in 1957–58 the International Geophysical Year drew attention to global challenges, and in 1961 the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWFN) was formed during a decade when a significant increase in environmental consciousness became apparent in developed countries" (Wilbanks, 1994; as cited in Hardy et al., 2002, p. 476). The concept of sustainability became popular, based on a published report "Our Common Future" (Brundtland Report) in 1987 by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) and sponsored by the United Nations (UN) (Hueting, 1990). Sustainability is intended to underpin environmental and social developments; however, its practical implications are very limited and have been questioned a lot by various academics and practitioners (see for example Johnston, Everard, Santillo, & Robert, 2007). Arguably, Wheeler (1991) mention that tourism

has been a potential pollutant with remarkable negative impact on environmental, social and cultural tensions with increased tourism activities.

However, to Sanagustín Fons, Fierro, and Patiño (2011), tourism has changed its form from traditional mass tourism to new values and characteristics, with tourists wanting to experience authentic values which tourism has incorporated with the environment, and natural and social parameters such as climate and countryside. Therefore, destinations and tourists have now arguably turned to 'responsible' sources of activities.

To date, a recent landmark resolution entitled "Promotion of ecotourism for poverty eradication and environmental protection" was acknowledged by The United Nations General Assembly (21 December 2012) as a resolution recognising ecotourism as a key in the fight against poverty, protection of the environment, and the promotion of sustainable development (United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), n.d). Sub-section 1. 5 will discuss the transition – in corporate sustainable development.

1.5 Transition – In Corporate Sustainable Development

The impacts of tourism development were debated during the 1970s and 1980s with discussion on the definitions and concepts. In addition, the current era of globalisation is claimed to have degraded the natural resources, opened markets, increased trade and industrialisation, and therefore affected developing countries through socio-cultural, environmental and economic impacts (Hardy et al., 2002). Sustainable ecotourism development was introduced to connect economic growth and conservation in developing countries (O'Neill, 2002). Rather, sustainability and ecotourism share some common characteristics, in which they both talk about the conservation of natural and cultural environment, economic welfare for future generation and benefits to the community (Dawson, 2001; as cited in Pforr, 2001). Hence, the principles and interpretations have linkages according to their precise meaning (Pforr, 2001). According to Hardy et al. (2002), "… a lot was written about the rise in conservation and

economic development being precursors to the development of the term sustainable development, and ultimately sustainable tourism" (p. 479).

In addition, Látková and Vogt (2012) argue that to achieve successful sustainable tourism development, community leaders and developers need to view tourism as a 'community industry' that enables residents to be actively involved in determining and planning future tourism development with the overall goal of improving residents' quality of life (Fridgen, 1991a). The benefit of this is that the community has been viewed as a resource, or even partners within protected area management and sustainable tourism (Bramwell & Lane, 2000; Dudley et al., 1999; Leverington, 1999; as cited in Hardy et al., 2002, p. 479). Látková and Vogt (2012), for example, showed in their research that a destination's life cycle has the main influence on the relationship of tourism in an area. This means that sustainable tourism development with a link to the research and analysis of the concepts of sustainable ecotourism, and rural tourism, within the scope of this literature, is important when understanding the relevant definitions and clarification of these concepts, as these are often the basis of confusion.

The principles and characteristics of ecotourism are similar to those of sustainable tourism. The fundamental concept – "ecotourism as 'responsible travel to natural areas which conserves the environment and improves the welfare of local people'" (Western 1993, p. 8; as cited in Blamey, 1997, p. 110). The Sustainable Tourism Development (STD) short and long term objectives are similar to those identified in the wide variety of definitions of ecotourism (Lück, 2002). The STD objectives aimed to (Hunter, 1995; as cited in Lück, 2002):

- Meet the needs and wants of the local host community in terms of improved living standards and quality of life
- Satisfy the demands of tourists and the tourism industry, and continue to attract them in order to meet the first aim

- Safeguard the environmental resource base for tourism, encompassing natural, built and cultural components, in order to achieve both of the preceding aims (pp. 155 -156).

The main concept and connection is the aspect of meeting the present needs, while protecting and enhancing the future — socially, environmentally and economically. Arguably, ecotourism has not only been used as a marketing tool for destinations, it has been seen as a strategy to assist local economies and maintain social problems and also used as an effective tool for natural and cultural conservation (Garrod, 2003). Based on the strategy to assist local economies and mitigate social problems locals need to be supported by external stakeholders. Stakeholder involvement/engagement is reportedly the fundamental source of successful development (Reed, 2008). Section 1.6 describes the research aims and objectives of this thesis.

1.6 Research Aims and Objectives

The purpose of this thesis is to examine the facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in ecotourism development in PNG and provide recommendations for how it may be achieved. Specifically, this research provides an opportunity to broaden the understanding of the relationship between the tourism industries, the external and internal stakeholders, and the host region in terms of their participation and initiatives towards community-based ecotourism. This research also has a practical outcome, as key findings could help in the development and implementation of a successful community-based ecotourism development in PNG.

The aim of this study is to:

1. To examine community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in an ecotourism development in PNG.

Therefore, in doing this the research is guided by the following key objectives:

1. To examine the key theoretical constructs of community- based (eco) tourism.

2. To examine to what extent these constructs (in objective 1) are implemented in a case study of an ecotourism area.

3. To identify issues and impediments confronting the (eco) tourism stakeholders in planning and implementing local community participation.

4. To recommend pathways toward community-driven (eco) tourism in the case study area.

The following objectives are important to this research in terms of examining the perspective of the local community and the tourism stakeholders. This initial response will then link to a greater insight into the significance of engagement and collaboration in community-based ecotourism development.

1.7 Significance of the Research

The study outcomes will provide valuable information for stakeholders involved in ecotourism development and can be used in two ways. First, the information will provide stakeholders with an understanding of the facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in community-based ecotourism development in Lababia village. This understanding can enable key stakeholders to plan further actions that ensure their collaboration and enhance their engagement in community-based ecotourism development. Second, the study identifies the present issues and concerns amongst stakeholders towards the development of community-based ecotourism development and provides further recommendations to achieve successful development. This discussion

reflects on the implications of sustainable tourism development, so that its relevancy and efficacy can be enhanced.

Section 1.8 outlines the thesis organisation with details of chapters included in the thesis.

1.8 Thesis Organisation

Following this introductory chapter the next chapter - *Chapter Two: Literature Review* - focuses on supporting the aim of the thesis: This chapter provides an overview of ecotourism, community-based ecotourism, stakeholders' participation, community participation and participation techniques.

Chapter Three – The Case Study Area, Lababia Village, Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea: This chapter sets out the background context of the present study for the facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in ecotourism development. The research is conducted in Lababia village, Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea (PNG). This chapter discusses the growth of tourism and the potential for ecotourism in PNG. Papua New Guinea has increased the promotion of community-based ecotourism over the past years with an overall objective to identify opportunities to improve the competitiveness of the sector and provide an integrated framework for industry development in the next ten years (Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority (PNGTPA), 2006).

Chapter Four – Research Methods: This chapter outlines the research design and a rationale for using particular research methods to achieve the research aim. This chapter outlines firstly, the research methods and data collection procedure. The second discussion describes the qualitative data collection method. The third discussion describes the two types of data collection techniques used in this study - Nominal Group Technique (NGT) and semi-structured interviews. The two leading questions used in the NGT

are: (1) How can we achieve effective participation in developing community-based ecotourism? (2) To what extent can effective participation be achieved in developing community-based ecotourism? The leading questions used in the semi-structured interviews are: (1) What are the barriers to community-based ecotourism development? (2) What are you prepared to do in order to achieve community-based ecotourism development? This section also justifies the adoption of using certain research techniques and data analysis methods.

Chapter Five – Findings/Discussion: This chapter presents the results and wider discussion of the study. There are three sections in this chapter. The first section is the discussion of the concerns and issues affecting the development of community-based ecotourism development. The second discussion is based on the findings of the nominal group session conducted with the relevant stakeholders. The third discussion is based on the findings of the semi-structured interview. Key themes are presented as they were prioritised in respondent's responses and discussed.

Chapter Six – Conclusion & Recommendation: This chapter provides a conclusion and recommendations for the ways to enhance the facilitation of effective engagement and collaboration of stakeholders in developing community-based ecotourism in PNG and suggests future paths of research enquiry to build on the insights gained in this study.

CHAPTER 2: COMMUNITY-BASED ECOTOURISM AND STAKEHOLDERS PARTICIPATION

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of community-based ecotourism as an increasingly important component of the pursuit for sustainable rural development. An understanding of these broad concepts and their objectives of protecting the environment and benefits to local communities and developing countries is necessary. In theory, ecotourism enterprises can be recognised for their expanding markets and revenue generation, however it is said to be dependent on how well each institutional sector functions and collaborates (Zhuang, Lassoie, & Wolf, 2011). The aspiration, therefore, is to develop sustainable strategies to strike a balance between protecting the environment, maintaining cultural integrity and promoting economic benefits (Jayawardena, Patterson, Choi, & Brain, 2008).

The review of previous literature is presented in seven sections in this thesis, reflecting conceptual material relevant for examining the research aim and objectives. The first section is an overview discussion of ecotourism. The second section presents the principles of ecotourism perspectives. The third section is the discussion of community-based ecotourism followed by community support and benefits of community-based ecotourism. The fourth section discusses stakeholder participation followed by community participation. The fifth section will discuss the importance of community participation in tourism planning followed by barriers and enablers, community attachment and involvement. The sixth section discusses the participation techniques and implementation outcomes of stakeholder participation. The last section is the summary of the chapter, synthesising the importance of community-based ecotourism and community participation and involvement within the community.

2.2 Ecotourism: An Overview

As a result of unlimited growth and unrestricted mass tourism during the 1970s and 1980s, ecological and social issues have now become recognised as primary concerns (as cited in Pforr, 2001).

The benefits of ecotourism embrace the protection of nature, and the economic worth for protection and conservation, educational value and designation of more natural areas for protection and conservation (Okech, 2011). Mass tourism, as Islam, Abubakar, and Islam (2011) assert "…often results in disruption of local economies, seasonal unemployment, degradation of natural and cultural environment, community-based ecotourism is supposed to be more cautious and environment friendly with a sustainable tourism approach" (p. 33). For instance, debates on minimising impacts on the natural environment and socio-cultural concerns created the search for alternative and sustainable approaches to tourism development such as through the well-known concepts of 'ecotourism and sustainable tourism' (Pforr, 2001).

Arguably, the concept of ecotourism emerged during the 1980s as a direct result of the world's acknowledgment of sustainable and global ecological practices (Weaver, 2001a). Ecotourism is described as a universal conservation catchword, one of the principal objectives for nature-based travel that exposes unique opportunities to individuals (Okech, 2011). Ecotourism, in the context of other tourism types, includes nature-based tourism, cultural tourism, alternative tourism, and is also described as a subset of sustainable tourism (Weaver, 2001).

To a greater or lesser extent, "Ecotourism potentially provides a sustainable approach to development" (Okech, 2011, p. 19). For example, Johnston et al. (2007) pointed out that sustainability is intended to underpin environmental and social developments; however, its practical implications are very limited and have been questioned a lot by various academics and practitioners. However, ecotourism is very dependent on effective and

efficient planning and policy development in all levels of government, the non-government organisation sector and business (Backman, 2001).

Ecotourism has been defined in different ways. Thus, in the work that first introduced the term 'ecotourism', Hector Ceballos-Lascurain (1987) refers to ecotourism as a concern for ecological and natural conservation: "…ecological tourism or ecotourism is the tourism that involves travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural aspects (both past and present) found in these areas" (p. 25). In a similar way, The International Ecotourism Society (TIES) defined ecotourism as "…responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the welfare of local people" (Linberg & Hawkins, 1993, p. 81; as cited in Weaver, 2001a, p. 6).

Many researchers have modified, extended and developed various ecotourism definitions, including Blamey (1997), Fennell (1998), Fennell and Eagles (1989), Orams (1995), Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) and Valentine (1993), and there are also others which are not mentioned (Higham & Lück, 2002, p. 37). Table 1 shows a summary of the various ecotourism definitions.

Although, definitions and principles for ecotourism have various interpretations, Weaver and Lawton (2007,p. 170) argue that much of the ecotourism definitions must be interpreted by the reader, but more or less cohere around three main criteria: '(1) attractions should be predominantly nature-based, (2) visitor interactions with those attractions should be focused on learning or education, and (3) experience and product management should follow principles and practices associated with ecological, socio-cultural and economic sustainability' (as cited in Hill & Gale, 2009, p. 5).

As mentioned in chapter 1, a recent landmark resolution entitled "Promotion of ecotourism for poverty eradication and environmental protection" was

acknowledged by The United Nations General Assembly (21 December 2012) as a resolution recognising ecotourism as a key to the fight against poverty, protection of the environment, and the promotion of sustainable development (United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), n.d). This resolution emphasises the need for countries, especially developing countries to set up policies under their national tourism plans to adopt the promotion of ecotourism for poverty eradication and environmental protection. As stated by Tosun (2005, p. 333) the Third World community development movement of the 1950s and 1960s has been recognised to be one of the participatory tourism development approaches under prevailing socio-economic, cultural and political conditions in developing countries.

Looking ahead, the Third World nations' economic development strategies and conservation efforts now promote some brand of ecotourism. The countries include: Dominica, Bolivia, Belize, Mongolia, Vietnam, Cambodia, Bhutan, Fiji, Indonesia, Peru, Senegal, Namibia, Madagascar, Thailand, Uganda, Australia, New Zealand and Canada, among the ones that actively market themselves as ecotourism destinations (Honey, 2008).

Table 1. Selected definitions of ecotourism

Source	Definition
Ceballos-Lascuráin (1987, p. 14)	Travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas
The International Ecotourism Society (1991a, b)	Responsible travel to natural areas which conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people
Ecotourism Association of Australia (1992)	Ecologically sustainable tourism that fosters environmental and cultural understanding, appreciation and conservation
National Ecotourism Strategy of Australia (Allcock et al., 1994)	Ecotourism is nature-based tourism that involves education and interpretation of the natural environment and is managed to be ecologically sustainable.
	This definition recognizes that 'natural environment' includes cultural components and that 'ecologically sustainable' involves an appropriate return to the local community and long-term conservation of the resource
Tickell (1994, p.ix)	Travel to enjoy the world's amazing diversity of natural life and human culture without causing damage to either

Source: Blamey (2001)

Pforr (2001, p. 70) pointed out that ecotourism is not only understood as a contribution to sustainable tourism, it also contributes to the long and difficult process of its implementation in the tourism system (e.g. Hall & Lew, 1998). The main concern is, according to Pforr (2001), the key players in

ecotourism, political processes and institutional arrangements represent important mechanisms that can direct and guide sustainable tourism development. These mean that participation by these interest groups should be active and maintained at all times. For instance, Conservation International emphasis (Anonymous, 2007) that:

> …partnering is key to the process, linking local governments, communities and organizations. One outstanding example is the Posadas Amazonas lodge in Peru. Owned by the local indigenous community and operated by an affiliate of Conservation International, the undertaking creates employment for local inhabitants and gives tourists a chance to see the rain forest at close range without causing environmental damage. In Africa, too, a group of indigenous communities in Kenya manage their own wildlife sanctuaries in ways that protect endangered animals, like the zebra and black rhino (p. 4).

On the whole, the growth of ecotourism during the 1980s, according to Cater (1993), more than doubled (as cited in Sharpley, 2006). For instance, in the same period, the overall number of 'nature-based' tourists (ecotourists) reportedly rose by 20% yearly with an equal increase in nature-tour operators. The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) forecasted an annual growth rate of 10–15% in early 1990s (Ziffer, 1989, p. 10; as cited in Sharpley, 2006, p. 7). As Papatheodorou and Song's (2005) research shows:

> For example, in 1960 WTO recorded 69.3 million of international tourists, while in 2000 the same number was 698.8 million, i.e. a tenfold increase over forty years. Rise of disposable income, establishment of paid vacation, reduction of travel time and costs and less bureaucratic impediments are

among the well-known factors that account for this growth (p. 14).

As supported by Papatheodorou's research, the growth rate has reached the forecasted growth rate.

According to Weaver's (2001) study, ecotourism is one of the fastest growing areas of tourism as a result of the increase in travellers taking vacations that include education, outdoors and nature. Weaver (2001) pointed out that the desire to learn and experience nature has been the driving force of the changing attitudes toward the purpose of travel. The International Ecotourism Society, Australia's Nature and Ecotourism Accreditation Programme (NEAP), charitable industry networks (e.g. The Travel Foundation) and the United Nation's declared 2002 as the "International Year of Ecotourism" (Sharpley, 2006, p. 8).

In general, the conceptual description of sustainable tourism development and in particular ecotourism has generally been discussed above. The following sections will discuss the principles of ecotourism and community-based ecotourism in further detail. As an elaboration of the preceding discussion, it is important to outline the key principles of ecotourism in order to understand how ecotourism can be used in order to help a local community.

2.2.1 Ecotourism: Principles

Ecotourism is a form of sustainable tourism development that exists within the natural environment (Clarke, 2002; Diamantis & Ludkin, 1999; as cited in Sharpley, 2006). In addition, Lück (2002) highlights that ecotourism should be recognised as small-scale tourism (Lück, 2002). This is evident, as Blamey (1993,2001; as cited in Weaver, 2002) argued that ecotourism is particularly positioned around three main principles:

1. The primary attractions of ecotourism are *nature-based*, which can involve a focus on relatively undisturbed ecosystems in their entirety or on specific charismatic megafauna such as giant pandas, orangutans or polar bears (Weaver, 2001a).

2. Ecotourism is essentially *learning-focused* in regard to the interaction between the tourist and these natural attractions. This educational element, which can range along a formal–informal spectrum, distinguishes ecotourism from other forms of nature-based tourism such as outdoor adventure travel or 3S (sea, sand, sun) resort tourism, where the natural environment provides a suitable setting respectively for thrill/risk and hedonistic motivations.

3. Although, a major point of contention, ecotourism is expected to be *environmentally and socio-culturally sustainable* (pp. 153 – 154).

In a similar fashion, Sharpley (2006, p. 10) discussed three main pillars of ecotourism that include, (1) Environment: Ecotourism is low-impact tourism that should be managed in such a way that it contributes to the conservation of the flora and fauna of natural areas; (2) Development: Ecotourism should encourage local participation and control in developing tourism that is of sustainable socio-economic benefit to local communities; (3) Experience: Ecotourism should provide opportunities for learning and meaningful encounters between tourists and the environment/local community. In addition, during the same year, Donohue and Needham (2006, p,192) identify six "key tenets" of ecotourism: "(1) nature-based; (2) preservation/ conservation; (3) education; (4) sustainability; (5) distribution of benefits; and (6) ethics/responsibility/awareness" (as cited in Reimer & Walter, 2013, p. 122). On the one hand, Higham (2007) "…sees eight defining principles and characteristics of ecotourism however Cater (2001, p. 4166) reduces these to three: ecotourism should be 'green', it should be 'responsible' and 'must recognize the interests of all stakeholders'" (as cited in Reimer & Walter, 2013, p. 122).

On the other hand, ecotourism is essentially a Western cultural, economic and political process, according to Cater (2006). As one of the most lucrative niche markets (Cater, 2006), ecotourism is seen to have provided the impetus for appropriate longterm developments. According to Weaver (2001b) less developed countries realize that it is an opportunity to earn foreign exchange while simultaneously conserving the natural environment. In other words, Honey (1999, p. 4) mentioned that "Around the world, ecotourism has been hailed as a panacea: a way to fund conservation and scientific research, protect fragile and pristine ecosystems, benefit rural communities, promote development in poor countries, enhance ecological and cultural sensitivity, instill environmental awareness and a social conscience in the travel industry, satisfy and educate the discriminating tourist, and, some claim, build world peace" (as cited in Wearing, 2001).

Table 2 displays a summary of ecotourism principles and guidelines stipulated by Wight (1994), The Ecotourism Society (Lindberg & Hawkins, 1993) and the National Ecotourism Accreditation Program (NEAP, Australia). From the interpretations in Table 2 Wight's (1994) discussion mainly talked about what should be done in order to achieve ecotourism, for example, it should not degrade the resource and should be developed in an environmentally sound area, and it should provide long-term benefits to the resources to the local community and the industry. The Ecotourism Society's (Lindberg and Hawkins, 1993) interpretation mainly described guidelines on how travellers, managers and staff can work together to achieve the principles of ecotourism.

Table 2. Ecotourism principles and guidelines

Wight (1994)	The Ecotourism Society (Lindberg and Hawkins, 1993)	National Ecotourism Accreditation Program (NEAP), Australia. Eligibility principles
It should not degrade the resource and should be developed in an environmentally sound manner.	Prepare travellers to minimize their negative impacts while visiting sensitive environments and cultures before departure.	Focuses on personally experiencing natural areas in ways that lead to greater understanding and appreciation.
It should provide long-term benefits to the resource, to the local community and industry.	Prepare travellers for each encounter with local cultures and with native animals and plants.	Integrates opportunities to understand natural areas into each experience.
It should provide first-hand, participatory and enlightening experiences.	Minimize visitor impacts on the environment by offering literature, briefings, leading by example, and taking corrective actions.	Represents best practice for ecologically sustainable tourism.
It should involve education among all parties: local communities, government, non-government organizations, industry and tourists (before, during and after the trip).	Minimize traveller impacts on cultures by offering literature, briefings, leading by example, and taking corrective actions.	Positively contributes to the ongoing conservation of natural areas.
It should encourage all-party recognition of the intrinsic values of the resource.	Use adequate leadership, and maintain small enough groups to ensure minimum group impact on destinations. Avoid areas that are under-managed and over-visited.	Provides constructive ongoing contributions to local communities.

Wight (1994)	The Ecotourism Society (Lindberg and Hawkins, 1993)	National Ecotourism Accreditation Program (NEAP), Australia. Eligibility principles
It should involve acceptance of the resource in its own terms, and in recognition of its limits, which involves supply-oriented management.	Ensure managers, staff and contract employees know and participate in all aspects of company policy to prevent impacts on the environment and local cultures.	Is sensitive to, interprets and involves different cultures, particularly indigenous cultures.
It should promote understanding and involve partnerships between many players, which could involve government, non-governmental organizations, industry, scientists and locals (both before and during operations).	Give managers, staff and contract employees access to programmes that will upgrade their ability to communicate with and manage clients in sensitive natural and cultural settings.	Consistently meets client expectations.
It should promote moral and ethical responsibilities and behaviour towards the natural and cultural environment by all players.	Be a contributor to the conservation of the region being visited Provide competitive, local employment in all aspects of business operations Offer site-sensitive accommodations that are not wasteful of local resources or destructive to the environment, which provide ample opportunity for learning about the environment and sensitive interchange with local communities.	Marketing is accurate and leads to realistic expectations.

Source: Blamey (2001, p. 11).

In general, Blamey (2001, p. 6) stated that given the ecotourism principles, definitions and analysis, ecotourism is described as "(1) nature based, (2) environmentally educated, and (3) sustainably managed". However, ecotourism is often seen as plagued with problems with non-realisation of benefits and lack of coordination between stakeholders (Tosun, 2001). "What is essential, however is the recognition that without adequate understanding of underlying factors and careful planning and management, ecotourism may include unsustainable aspects such as: high cost of locally based day trips, locals are excluded from tourism activities, and inflationary pressure and land prices" (Cater, 1993, p. 86).

Since ecotourism is used as a source of environmental conservation, according to Kiss (2004), the attraction of "community-based ecotourism", can be frequently used as a connection to the local community in preserving biodiversity, whilst simultaneously lessening rural poverty, and achieve sustainable objectives. Further to the discussion, the next section talks about 'community-based ecotourism' that can potentially take an effect in a local community.

2.3 Community-Based Ecotourism (CBET): Key Theoretical Concepts

Ecotourism, with its reported potential to generate income and employment, and to conserve the natural environment is an important agent for community development (Bith, 2011). Hence, a particular variant of ecotourism known as "community-based ecotourism" is a concept of tourism development that is argued and questioned by a number of authors as a community driven approach that is controlled by the community as a community (Campbell, 1999; Colvin, 1996; Loon & Polakow, 2001; as cited in Jones, 2005). According to Islam et al. (2011) "Community-based ecotourism has been implemented in many developing countries, often in support of wildlife management, environmental protection and development of the indigenous peoples" (p. 34).

As Buckley (2009, p. 218) states, community-based ecotourism is a particular type of ecotourism, with a primary focus on involving local communities and providing them with social and economic benefits. Hence, Scheyvens (1999) argued that ecotourism projects should only be considered "successful" if local communities take ownership and control to gain an equal share of the benefits. In addition, Schevyns highlighted that "community-based ecotourism" should be reserved for those ventures based on a high degree of community control (and hence where communities command a large proportion of the benefits) rather than those almost wholly controlled by outside operators.

On the one hand, Harris (2009, p. 133) argues that community-based tourism (CBET) is a kind of pro-poor tourism operated within a rural area by the locals whereby visitors are enticed with warm hospitality and accommodated, and the visitors also learn to enjoy and appreciate the rural life style, value indigenous culture and appreciate the rural environment. On the other hand, Shahwahid, Iqbal, Ayu, and Farah (2013) mention that CBET is a distinct form of ecotourism away from mass tourism and has environmental, social and cultural sustainability that can be beneficial to the local community.

Furthermore, Reimer and Walter (2013) point out that:

> …community-based ecotourism (CBET) appears to hold great promise in resolving the contradiction between conservation imperatives and local and native rights to territory. Moreover, since CBET also includes a focus on cultural preservation, it may prove to be more sustainable for local communities in socio-cultural terms as well. In practice, CBET embodies a mutually reinforcing relationship between environmental conservation, local economic livelihood, and cultural preservation - a kind of mutualist symbiotic relationship which benefits all three (p. 123).

Though locals are left to face the cost of social and environmental consequences from ecotourism, it is argued that they rarely benefit from the outcome (West & Carrier, 2004; as cited in Jones, 2005). However, benefits predominately occur in conservationists' discussion of ecotourism; often described as incentives for residents to protect natural resources (Jones, 2005).

In a nutshell, in support of sustainable tourism development, based on the concept of community-based ecotourism, Butler's principles indicated the following (1999, 2003) five principles: (1) It must take a long-term view, (2) place an emphasis on local benefits (environmental, economic, social), (3) minimise negative impacts, (4) operate within the limits of the environment, and (5) apply equity on both intra- and intergenerational basis must all present in an ecotourism destination. Hence, if these outcomes are to be achieved then tourism planning has to acknowledge the fundamental relationship between local people and tourism stakeholders (in planning for ecotourism development).

In a similar fashion, the sustainability of community-based ecotourism, according to Kiss (2004) predominately comes from three main sources: "(i) an ongoing conservation incentive in the form of income dependent on biodiversity; (ii) reinvestment of some of the income to maintain the business and protect the biodiversity asset base, thereby eliminating or at least reducing the need for external funding; and (iii) once a basis has been established (community awareness and organization, basic infrastructure, etc.), the entry of the private sector to provide the capital for further development and expansion" (p. 235). All those three aspects depend on the degree of financial success for the benefit of the community (Kiss, 2004).

As stated in the ecotourism discourse (see Fennell 2003; Weaver 2001; Buckley, 2009) environmental conservation is just one of the core principles, in addition to socio-cultural and economic benefits. Weaver (2001) highlighted the three core principles: nature-based, environmentally

educated and sustainably managed. Ecotourism is based on nature and promotes the knowledge of how to take care of the environment and manage it in a sustainable manner. For instance, Stronza and Gordillo (2008) conducted a comparative study with leaders from three ecotourism partnerships, namely Peru, Ecuador, Bolivia, with the aim of bringing local voices to the fore in ecotourism analyses. The results specifically indicated that locals have the opportunity to gain skills and leadership, heighten self-esteem, expand networks of support, and better organizational capacity. In addition, for example, Lee (2013) stated that:

> In Taiwan, community-based tourism is linked to both sustainable development and environmental conservation. Moreover, the development of community-based tourism, especially in rural villages, fishing villages, and aboriginal communities, is a national policy of Taiwan's current government (Taiwan Tourism Bureau, 2011) (p.37).

However, some of the negative impacts of ecotourism include new restrictions on time, the erosion of reciprocity and other traditional relationships, and new conflicts associated with distribution of profits. According to Stronza and Gordillo (2008), "Both the positive and the negative impacts have the potential either to strengthen or weaken social cohesion, trust, and cooperation within communities" (pp. 461 – 462).

Meanwhile, based on research conducted by Belsky (1999, p. 641), 'politics of class, gender, and patronage inequalities limit the co-management of ecotourism association, equitable distribution of ecotourism income, and support for conservation regulations across the community were main issues identified in community-based rural ecotourism" in Gales Point Manatee, Brazil, between 1992 to 1998. However, as Belsky (1999, p. 642) highlighted "…attention to multiple interests and identities within rural communities and their relationships to broader actors and institutions is

critical in meeting the formidable challenges facing community-based conservation efforts in Belize and elsewhere".

However, from a business perspective, according to Shahwahid et al. (2013) community-based ecotourism (CBE) offer business opportunities to support local communities living whilst simultaneously conserving their distinct ecological sites. For instance, as *The Encyclopaedia of Ecotourism* (Cohen, 2001) pointed out the principle of ecotourism includes setting aside ecotourism revenue that can be used to conserve the culture and ecology of a destination. In addition, Shahwahid et al. (2013) stress that as demand for CBE increases, visitors' needs are of paramount importance to maintain a high standard of service quality. The visitors are given careful treatment with value for money for any activities or products purchased, either tangible or intangible.

Thus, Islam et al. (2011, p. 33) point out that community-based ecotourism is not a business that only maximises profits, yet more concern should be placed on the impacts it has on community and environment. Similarly, it should be used as a community development strategy and tool together with the participation of local people to strengthen and manage ecotourism development in the community (Islam et al., 2011). Therefore, "A useful way to discern responsible community-based ecotourism is to approach it from a development perspective, which considers social, environmental and economic goals, and questions how ecotourism can '… meet the needs of the host population in terms of improved living standards both in the short and longterm'" (Cater, 1993, pp.85 - 86; as cited in Scheyvens, 1999, p. 246). The developers must work with the community collectively and reflectively in order to achieve their vision and goals for development (Taylor, 2008). Hence, community support for ecotourism is necessary for the community to achieve its goals.

2.3.1 Community Support for Ecotourism

In spite of tourism being widely promoted in many communities, according to Spencer and Nsiah (2013), local citizen support for these attractions is important for its longterm existence. According to Spencer and Nsiah (2013) community support depends entirely on the support of the residents. As a result, "…individuals are an integral part of the tourism product and the hospitality they extend or do not extend to visitors directly affects visitors' satisfaction, expenditure levels, and propensities to visit again and recommend the destination to others" (Spencer & Nsiah, 2013, p. 221) .

As Moscardo, Konovalov, Murphy, and McGehee (2013) argue, research about community well-being demonstrates several vital areas of consideration in a social setting that can describe multiple forms of capital and relationships associated with tourism. So, what is a community? In the words of Head (2007), a 'community' is "…often a euphemistic term that glosses over the social, economic and cultural differentiation of localities or peoples; and it often implies a (false and misleading) sense of identity, harmony, cooperation and inclusiveness (p.441). However, community support must not be taken lightly (Spencer & Nsiah, 2013).

Subsequently, numerous aspects of tourism activities and development have impacted the multiple realities of communities and how they shaped and are shaped by tourism impacts (Dredge & Jenkins, 2007). For example, Bario, in Malaysia, flourished in their tourism activities, according to Harris (2009), communities appreciated the value tourists have on their experiences in Bario and used that knowledge to further develop their own needs. In a similar fashion, Moscardo et al. (2013) stated that to ensure better understanding of tourism impacts, communities must identify the means in which tourism and/or tourists influence the different forms of capital available to tourism communities. To some extent, community support often involves direct aid to their operations, especially when the attractions contribute significantly to the economic vitality, cultural heritage,

and/or brand identity of the area (LaPage, 1994; Pritchard, 1980; Swarbrooke, 1999; as cited in Spencer & Nsiah, 2013, p. 221). Specifically, Moscardo et al. (2013) identify seven varieties of capital that are also regarded as vital for a community's well-being and support. The seven varieties of capital include: financial, natural, built, social, cultural, human and capital. Table 3 provides an overview of summary descriptions.

Table 3. Summary descriptions of seven types of capital that contribute to community well-being

Type of Capital	Key features
Financial	Income, saving and access to funding for investment.
Natural	Natural ecosystems and the assets, services and resources that they provide. It includes landscape, environmental systems, green spaces and conservation areas.
Built	Physical facilities and infrastructure that communities have available for use including buildings, transport systems, public spaces, technological systems and distribution systems for water, waste and energy.
Social	Cultural values and symbols shared by human groups and manifested in things such as rituals and social activities, arts and crafts, spiritual practices, languages and celebrations.
Cultural	Values and symbols shared by human groups and manifested in things such ritual and social activities, arts and crafts, spiritual practices, languages and celebrations.
Human	The capabilities, skills, knowledge and health of the people who make up a community.
Political	Ability to access political decisions making processes and influence governance.

Source: Emery and Flora (2006) and Fey, Bregendahl, and Flora (2006) (as cited in Moscardo et al. (2013, pp. 543 - 544).

On the other hand, all too often decisions are made and defined mostly by the organisations and institutions that reside outside the boundary of the community (Toomey, 2011). Meanwhile, the roles of the institutions and the organisations do not often have much to do with the overall goal of community development (Toomey, 2011). As a result, there is shallow resemblance of the community engagement and/or community participation during the decision-making processes, and also throughout the development stages. For example, community participation is vital for the development of ecotourism in Papua New Guinea, where native landowners own above 90% of the land under customary tenure and 80% of the population live in rural areas (Zeppel, 2006). In Wearing, Wearing, and McDonald (2009) it is argued that the Kokoda Trail in Papua New Guinea exposes a need for an ecotourism development process due to the different cultural backgrounds. Therefore, according to Wearing, Grabowski, Chatterton, and Ponting (2009), a Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) was a best fit approach to use:

> Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) is an approach to data collection in participatory research. In this approach, the researcher is required to acknowledge and appreciate that research participants have the necessary knowledge and skills to be partners in the research process. PRA techniques were used to collect data on the Kokoda Track, Papua New Guinea, illuminating the communities' perceptions of eco-trekking and how they could better benefit from it. This case study is an example of the implementation of community-based ecotourism development and of understanding the multiplicity of forces that support or undermine it (p.101).

On the one hand, Tosun's analysis and explanation demonstrated that lack of community participation in the developing countries resulted as a manifestation of prevailing socio-political, economic and cultural structures

(Tosun, 2000). For example, "participation of rural community and tourism development in Iran", according to Dadvar-Khani (2012), particularly involves locals to be motivated and willing to participate in tourism development, therefore the local tourism structure must be appropriately prepared for communities to be involved. Though the local community are encouraged to participate in tourism development, there is low participation esteem due to the absence of satisfaction in the way tourism benefits are shared.

Therefore, it is crucial to integrate community tourism development with the support of other tourism stakeholders (for example, the private sector, government and non-government sectors) to achieve sustainable tourism development through local interpretations and interactions. From the participation of local residents, there can be a tremendous effect on the destination's well-being which can have a positive impact on the whole community (e.g. Beeton, 2009; Hwang, Stewart, Ko, 2012). For instance, the focus group result from Wilson, Fesenmaier, Fesenmaier, and Van Es (2001) research suggests;

> …10 factors/conditions most important for successful tourism development in rural areas: (1) a complete tourism package, (2) good community leadership, (3) support and participation of local government, (4) sufficient funds for tourism development, (5) strategic planning, (6) coordination and cooperation between businesspersons and local leadership, (7) coordination and cooperation between rural tourism entrepreneurs, (8) information and technical assistance for tourism development and promotion, (9) good convention and visitors bureaus, and (10) widespread community support for tourism (p.134).

Therefore, the next discussion highlights the need for stakeholders' participation in community-based ecotourism development. As Murphy (1983) states "More communities are developing the tourism potential within their geographic location or cultural heritage as a means of diversifying the local economy and increasing local amenities" (p. 98).

2.3.2 Benefits of Community-Based Ecotourism

To date, ecotourism is promoted as a way to achieve economic development, environmental conservation and cultural preservation, and recognises the need to promote the quality of life of people. While ecotourism has many positive attributes, grounded in the rise of environmental concerns (Turner et al., 2012; as cited in Sakata & Prideaux, 2013), conservation is therefore recognised as the tool for poverty mitigation and a constraint on development. As Kiss (2004) states:

> Ecotourism can generate support for conservation among communities as long as they see some benefit (or maintain a hope of doing so), and if it does not threaten or interfere with their main sources of livelihood [16, 17, 19]. Unfortunately, effective conservation often involves some sacrifice. For example, communities sometimes insist on allowing livestock into community wildlife reserves during times of drought, just when the wildlife also most need the water and forage [20] (p. 234).

Rather, it is important to distinguish that in some conservation plans, strategies designed to protect biodiversity may conflict with the development aspirations of local communities (Blangy & Mehta, 2006; Robards, Schoon, Meek & Engle, 2001; Turner et al., 2012; as cited in Sakata & Prideaux, 2013, p. 880). Hence, sustainable tourism development is an option to reduce the risk of depletion of biodiversity based on the concepts that

include community-based ecotourism (CBET) (Wearing, McDonald, & Ponting, 2005; as cited in Sakata & Prideaux, 2013, p. 880).

In particular, the main benefit of community-based ecotourism (CBET) is to become a popular tool for biodiversity conservation, based on the principle that biodiversity must pay for itself by generating economic benefits, particularly for local people (Kiss, 2004). Community-based ecotourism (CBET) is used in many local and grassroots communities as a development tool that can sustain and maintain the well-being of the local economy with an emphasis on full and effective participation of the local population. However, S. L. Wearing et al. (2009, p. 61) emphasised the fact that too often the incapability (powerlessness) of the local residents to completely comprehend and participate in the development process results in the lion's share of tourism income being taken away or leaked out from the less developed destination. However, according to the study of (Kiss, 2004), he highlighted that:

> Most ecotourism operations also claim to benefit local communities, either through employment or by contributing to community projects, but the term community-based in CBET implies going beyond this to involving communities actively. This has been interpreted as anything from regular consultations, to ensuring that at least some community members participate in tourism-related economic activities, to partial or full community ownership of whole ecotourism enterprises [15, 48] (p. 232).

Clearly, the process requires direct knowledge and experience from the community which forms the basis for the management of the socio-cultural impacts so that the communities can engage in ongoing development and enhancement through ecotourism (Wearing, 2002). An avenue that permits this to happen is socio-cultural planning appraisals, wherein local people

have absolute involvement and influence over the process of community-based ecotourism (CBET) development, (Wearing, 2001), in which locals can benefit from the knowledge and skills being passed.

Moreover, tourism that exists does not emerge only to suit the community's needs or sustain the environment (Wearing, 2001). Although idealistic, according to Wearing (2002) ecotourism is good for the following circumstances:

- Increased demand for accommodation, houses, and food and beverage outlets, and therefore improve viability for new and established hotels, motels, guest houses, farm stays, etc.;
- Provide additional revenue to local retail businesses and other services (e.g. medical, banking, hire car, cottage and industry souvenir shops, tourist attractions);
- Increase the market for local products (e.g. locally grown produce, artefacts, value added goods), thereby sustaining traditional customs and practices;
- Use local labour and expertise (e.g. eco-tour guides, retail sales assistants, restaurant table waiting staff);
- Provide a source of funding for the protection and maintenance of natural attractions and symbols of cultural heritage;
- Provide funding and/or volunteers for field work associated with wildlife research and archaeological studies; and
- Create a heightened community awareness of the value of local/indigenous culture and the natural environment (p. 396).

Communities can only benefit when there is ample support and involvement from the whole population. Thus, studies present support of host communities for tourism development with a focus extended to residents' involvement in tourism as being vital (see Gursoy et al., 2002; Gursoy &

Kendall, 2006; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Kaltenborn et al., 2008; Nicholas et al., 2009; as cited in Lee, 2013).

2.4 Stakeholder Participation

As noted from the preceding discussions, there is often an underlying statement of environmental planning and community development, according to Campbell (1999), the purpose in mind is always what to achieve at the end. Thus, Kutay (1992) emphasises cooperation between the local community and the industry to provide sufficient support for collaborative efforts (as cited in Campbell, 1999). The tourism network consists of a vast range of stakeholders' coexistence that is complex in nature (Presenza and Cipollina, 2010). In assessing the existing literature, we move from the broader and more abstract portrayals of the stakeholder concept through to the studies addressing the specific use of stakeholders in community-based ecotourism implementation.

2.4.1 Stakeholder Participation: An Overview

While research on sustainable tourism and ecotourism is rapidly expanding, the need to address tourism actors (stakeholders) turns out to be important in terms of acknowledging the need to act responsibly, as described in the 1987 Brundtland report by various authors (for example, Hunt, 1990; Lodge, 1990; DeFries, 2007; Hueting, 1990). The impacts of tourism on communities as described by Hwang, Stewart, and Ko (2012, p. 328) can create traffic congestion, construction projects, crimes, mixed effects on quality of life and changes to community identity. Moreover, ecotourism can constantly provide results in terms of financial support for protected areas, park fees, and create a constituency among ecotourists to promote conservation at the visited sites (Brandon, 1996; as cited in Stem, Lassoie, Lee, Deshler, & Schelhas, 2003). For example, research conducted in Costa Rica provided local residents with economic benefits and maintained the ecosystem's integrity (Stem et al., 2003). Therefore, an interaction between outside developers and residents should ultimately build a

sustainable dialogue for the growth of tourism (Hwang et al., 2012, p. 328), through redirecting tourism development projects to minimise the impacts on the environment, economy and society.

However, adapting to the concept of stakeholder participation and engagement can be problematic, as described by several authors (see for example, Byrd, 2006; Byrd & Gustke, 2011; Waligo, Clarke, and Hawkins, 2013), especially with the intention of promoting sustainable tourism development and ecotourism. On the one hand, this can often be seen as problematic due to the individual benefits and their priorities (Bith, 2011) as opposed to the other stakeholders. On the other hand, stakeholder participation and engagement can be problematic due to "Many complexities such as lack of transparencies, political instability, lack of information and data about development issues, and undemocratic special circumstances make it difficult to simultaneously highlight tourism and local participation in developing nations" (Tosun, 2005, p. 334).

Essentially, stakeholders are dependent on the circumstances and efficiencies of the parties involved, either externally or internally. Considering the circumstances and the efficiencies, stakeholder participation can be facilitated or implemented in a variety of ways, both formal and informal, to cater for their own interests (Byrd, 2006). For example, community-based ecotourism (CBE), according to Shahwahid et al. (2013) could offer business opportunities to local communities living within or adjacent to unique ecological sites.

Indeed, it has been argued by Bramwell and Lane (2003, p. 4) that each stakeholder controls resources, such as knowledge, expertise, constituency and capital, but alone they are not able to possess all the resources needed to gain their objectives and to also plan for the future effectively.

Thus stakeholders performing jointly, according to Bramwell and Lane (2003), have greater chances of survival than those acting alone. Consequently, joint participation brings benefits and even distribution to local people that are appropriately targeted (Lindberg & Hawkins, 1993). For example, as a quest to sustainable development, Nepal's trekking industry incorporated multiple stakeholders to initiate better conditions for porters (Wearing & Neil, 2009). Stakeholders included some non-government organisations such as the Centre for Community Development and Research (CCODER), SNV Nepal, TMI and WWF Nepal whose intention was based upon the service the porters provided as an important income generator (Wearing & Neil, 2009). Additionally, other stakeholders included organisations such as IPPG, KEEP and TAAN, whose interests were relatively based upon the well-being of the porters (Van Klaveren, 2000; as cited in Wearing & Neil, 2009).

Waligo, Clarke and Hawkins's (2013) study shows that leadership quality, information quality and accessibility, stakeholder mindsets, stakeholder involvement capacity, stakeholder relationships and implementation priorities are noted as key factors influencing stakeholder involvement in sustainable tourism. Despite the controversial issue of tourism, stakeholders have the challenge to participate actively to achieve positive growth in tourism without having to negatively harm or degrade the economic and social benefits of communities and simultaneously maintain the environment and cultures upon which the tourism industry is based (Ross, 2002) and minimise inefficiency. For example, Waligo, Clarke and Hawkins's (2013) research on multiple stakeholders serves as a guide to much of the focus on multiple stakeholders' involvement in which past research on tourism planners (e.g. Murphy, 1985), has indicated the concept of 'stakeholders' as being the primary focus of successful tourism development.

Thus, stakeholder' participation is seen as a key tool for tourism development in a community that can reflect on the manner that is well planned and managed and potentially lead to avoidance of major conflicts between stakeholder groups (Healey, 1998). In other words, successful tourism development requires cooperation between local people and tourism planners (Wearing & Neil, 2009). Hence, emerging opportunities in ecotourism development, incorporating the concept of stakeholder participation can "…contribute profitably to the long term health of the community rather than reward owners and shareholders over the short term" (Lodge, 1990, p. 221).

On the one hand, successful activities in the communities are something that will not be achieved by communities alone, instead collective cooperation of stakeholders and partners across societies is necessary (Byrd, 2006). On the other hand, keeping in mind that the degree and quality of participation in tourism planning should be integrated with the three main sustainable principles; viable economic development, environmental conservation and cultural preservation. Having said that, community participation is central to the alternative ecotourism concept (in this case CBET) as described by Murphy (1985), such that participation in planning is necessary to ensure that benefits reach residents (Simmons, 1994; as cited in Campbell, 1999).

2.4.2 Community Participation

Haywood (1988, p. 106) defines community participation as a process involving all [stakeholders] (local government officials, local citizens, architects, developers, business people, and planners) in such a way that decision making is shared. According to Arnstein (1969, p. 216) community participation is 'citizen partnership' that is "…the redistribution of power that enables the have-not citizens to be deliberately included in the future by which they can induce significant social reform" (as cited in Tosun, 2006, p. 494). Similarly, Arnstein (1969) argued that the reason for participation is

power redistribution, thereby enabling society to redistribute benefits and costs (as cited in Tosun, 2006).

The first globally accepted definition of community development came from the Cambridge Summer Conference on African Administration (Colonial Office, 1958, discussed in Foster, 1982):

> A movement designed to promote better living for the whole community with active participation, and if possible on the initiative of the community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming spontaneously, by the use of techniques for arousing and stimulating it in order to secure its active enthusiastic response of movement (p. 2).

Historically, 'community participation' or the participatory ideal, has developed from the political theories of democracy and follows later after World War II (Jewkes & Murcott, 1998). Meanwhile, Tosun (2005) mentioned that current community participation is based on three main historical antecedents:

> These are western ideologies and political theories; the Third World community development movement of the 1950s and 1960s; and finally Western social work and community radicalism (Midgley, 1986a). Accumulation of participatory experience in the social, political and economic life of Western societies has become the modern source of inclination for community participation in the tourism development process (CPTDP) (p.333).

According to French and Bayley (2010) participation is normally perceived as a 'good thing', however little empirical guidance as to whether the correct instrument is used for a specific context. In addition, 'participation' is known as the voice for those rejected from shaping future development (Hussin & Mat Som, 2008). For example, this may mean that a community, a

conservationist or a tour organisation, and few others have the need to participate but are sometimes neglected by the key organizers. According to Jayal (2001), interpretation of community participation defines the direct involvement and/or engagement of everyday affairs of planning, governance and overall development programmes at local or 'grassroots' level which has become an integral part of democratic practice in recent years (as cited in Williams, 2006). However, accordingly, Feighery (2002) stated that "Most scholars concerned with community participation in tourism aligned their definition from Murphy's (1985) argument that the local inhabitants of tourist destinations form an integral part of the tourism 'product' and, as such, should be involved in the consultation and planning process" (p. 2).

According to Li (2006) participation in decision-making is considered an alternative among other means to empower local participation and ensure benefits from tourism; however, it is not in itself a final goal. For instance, "public participation in tourism can be viewed from at least two perspectives: in the decision-making process and in the benefits of tourism development" (McIntosh & Geoldner, 1986; Wall, 1995; as cited in Timothy, 1999, p. 372). Rather, it is important to recognise participation as empowering for local communities with a determination of reaching their goals and consultation that determines hopes and concerns for tourism (Timothy, 1999).

Indeed, defined in such terms, community participation is often driven by specific socio-economic goals that seek to ensure a 'better life for all', especially for those who seek a better living environment (Williams, 2006). Therefore, it should not be seen as problematic, but as an aspiration for community-based development. Nevertheless, from the foregoing debate and understanding, ecotourism and community-based tourism (CBT) is nominated as an alternative plan (Moscardo, 2008) that is community driven, and as such, community participation is mostly encouraged. As an example, Kokoda Track in PNG is an ongoing community-based ecotourism project that clearly showed success through participatory which can also be

replicated in other rural areas in developing countries (Wearing & Neil, 2009; S. Wearing et al., 2009).

A range of different terms have been used to refer to community participation, such as people participation, public participation, community empowerment and community development (see Tosun, 2005; Moscardo, 2008; Weaver, 2009; Wearing et al., 2009; Jones, 2005).   All these terminologies relate to the involvement of people that have shared interest or common experiences within their geographical locations. However, the concepts of community participation are interrelated and are seemingly inspired by similar thoughts and practices. In the meantime, according to Shah and Baporikar (2012), the concept of participation is used in development by different organisations to mean different things according to their purposes. Indeed, "Community development is actually a specific form of community participation (Abbott, 1995), the success of which is determined by two factors: first, the role of the state; and second, the complexity of the decision-making taking place at the core of the community participation process" (as cited in Pongponrat, 2011, p. 59).

However, community development or projects can only be made successful when local people are effectively involved (Award, 2008; as cited in Shah & Baporikar, 2012) For instance, social activists and fieldworkers demonstrated that failure of development projects during the 1950s were due to lack of people participation. That is, the population concerned were never included during the project's design and implementation stages (Shah & Baporikar, 2012).

According to Johnson and Wilson (2000), external consultants, government staff and development, or aid agency personnel have the advantage over the local communities through their expertise and domination in proposed development and decision making. Further, the communities, especially in the under-developed and rural and/or peripheral regions, lack the knowledge to actively engage in the planning and development process

(Johnson & Wilson, 2000). To some extent, Goodson (2012) mention that communities equipped with skills and knowledge can have control and power to implement and develop quality of their own life, which as such is the highest level of achievement (as cited in Arnstein, 1969). Admittedly, this is not an easy task.

The implementation of a participatory development approach is believed to have positive impacts and benefits on the local community with the acquisition of a positive attitude to both development and conservation (Tosun, 2006). In addition, Pongponrat's (2011) research concluded that successful local tourism development is significantly supported by the local leaders and tourism stakeholders through progressive cooperation in planning and implementation. Table 2 shows some of the discussions outlined in the literature review about the assumptions and elements for participation. Table 2 is a summary of assumptions and elements for community participation from several authors (such as Jayal, 2001; Pearce et al., 1996; Tosun, 1998; Pongponrat, 2011; Wall 1995; Smith & Mike 1985). The authors have attempted to describe what community participation is and how it reflects in terms of tourism development.

Table 4. Assumptions and Elements for Community Participation

1. Community participation is described as the direct involvement and/or engagement of everyday affairs of planning, governance and overall development programmes at local or grassroots level, which has become an integral part of democratic practice in recent years (Jayal, 2001).

2. Greater participation has been seen as an instrument to improve the professional basis of tourism development planning (Pearce, Moscardo, & Ross, 1996).

3. Participation helps to reflect and satisfy needs of local people in a better way (Tosun, 1998).

4. Complexity of the decision-making taking place at the core of the community participation process (Pongponrat, 2011).

5. Public participation in tourism can be viewed from at least two perspectives: in the decision-making process and in the benefits of tourism development (McIntosh and Goeldner 1986; Wall 1995).

6. Community participation is well studied for reasons that is important and covered well in the literature-has also been recognised as a criterion of sustainable tourism (Smith & Mike, 1985).

Source: Extracts from the literature review text.

There are both positive and negative impacts to community participation. For example, tensions may develop from uneven or unplanned development during the effort of tourism development (Reid, Mair, & George, 2004). However, Sheldon and Abenoja (2001) suggest that carefully planned and monitored development minimises the cost implied (as cited in Brida, Osti, & Faccioli, 2009) and produces benefits to all three sectors of the development – economic, social and environment. This in turn sets the scene for the discussion on a number of essential questions and issues

which run through the following chapter. Importantly, as Arnstein (1969) asserts, "There is a critical difference between going through the empty ritual of participation and having the real power needed to affect the outcome of the process" (p. 216). In other words, inadequate power relations between external actors and local communities lead to low community participation (Sakata & Prideaux, 2013).

However, Arnstein's hierarchy (1969) ladder of participation (Figure 1) is known by Arnstein as one of the best in terms of identifying the ladder of participation. Apart from Arnstein's hierarchy, there are other techniques such as drop-in centres, nominal group technique sessions, citizen surveys, focus groups, citizen task forces and consensus-building meetings (see for instance, Ritchie 1985, Simmons 1994, Yuksel, Bramwell, Yuksel, 1999; as cited in Wisansing, 2004, p. 30). Essentially, the Arnstein Hierarchy of participation (1969) shows the following distinctions (see Figure 1).

Citizen Control		
Delegated power	Citizen Power	
Partnership		
Consultation		
Informing	Tokenism	
Placation		
Therapy	Non-participation	
Manipulation		
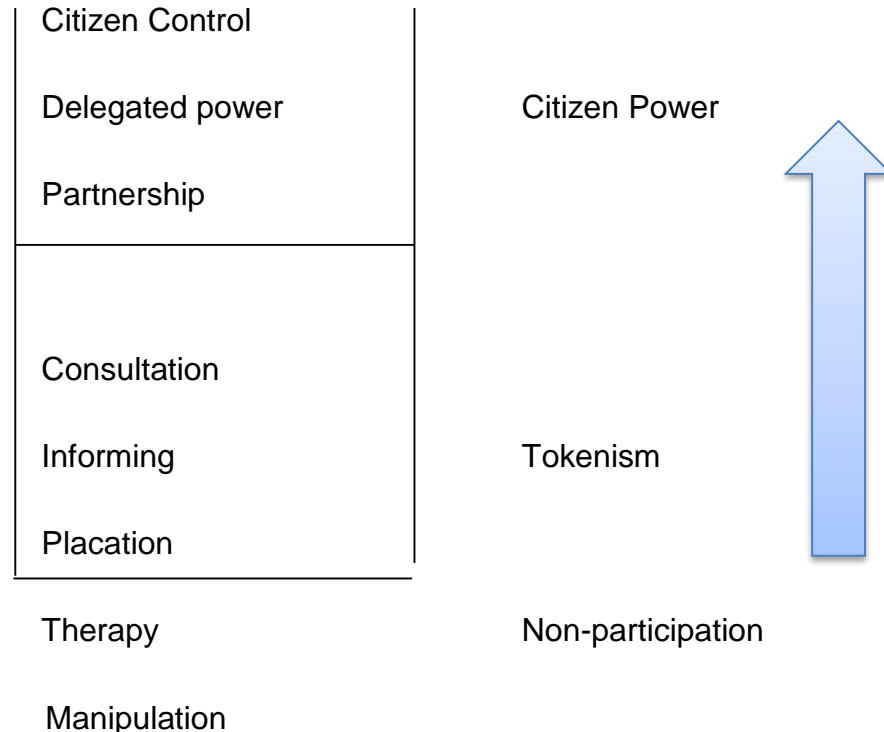
Figure 1. Arnstein's (1969) Ladder of participation. Source: (Arnstein, 1969)

According to Arnstein (1969, p. 217) the study identifies the Ladder of participation in Figure 1 as:

> The ladder identifies 'Citizen control' at the top of the ladder, with a category of 'non-participation' at the bottom, in which therapy and manipulation are placed. Arnstein's point of departure is the citizen on the receiving end of projects or programmes. She draws a distinction between 'citizen power', which includes citizen control, delegated power and partnership, and 'tokenism', in which she includes consultation, informing and placation. It is worth noting the part that the activities she associates with 'tokenism' play in the efforts – and indeed the definitions – of development organizations claiming to promote participation (p. 217).

Simmons (1994) indicated that many authors talk a lot about public participation and community involvement without actually specifying which method of participation is suitable to a particular project, meaning, less is said about the participation techniques to secure the interest of local residents and moreover support tourism planning. In addition, Beeton (2009, p. 157) agrees that community consultation is necessary in all stages of development and that the implementation process comes from people who are entirely involved despite their wishes not being taken on board.

The preceding literature and discussions have indicated that in the pursuit of genuine participation, there is a call for public participation in planning, and those involved in its execution must involve and engage communities in every step of the process of community-based ecotourism development. The next discussion elaborates further on community participation in tourism planning as a vital component to achieve community-based ecotourism development.

2.5 Community Participation in the Tourism Planning Literature

The emphasis on planners and developers needing to embrace community involvement is an essential ingredient. Hence the goals of communities must embrace a more community orientated approach. According to Jackson and Morpeth's (1999) study, Agenda 21 challenges local authorities to adopt policy goals encompassing sustainable development to incorporate participative, collaborative processes that should involve local communities in defining sustainable futures. Therefore, in order to achieve sustainable development, deliberate measures must be carefully introduced to enable indigenous people to take advantages of the opportunities brought by tourism (Reid et al., 2004). Hence, one of the reasons, from a tourism planning perspective, that Bianchini and Schwengel (1992,p.232) point out is that "planning should see its primary objective as being to improve the quality of life for local residents … [and] … an explicit commitment to revitalising cultural and public social life in cities should precede and support the formulation of any strategy for the expansion of tourism" (as cited in Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999, p. 245). According to Ross (1984; as cited in Gunn, 2000):

> Planning is a multidimensional activity and seeks to be integrative. It embraces social, economic, political, psychological, anthropological and technological factors. It is concerned with the past, present and future as cited in Gun (p. 45).

Similarly, Haywood (1988) highlighted that the goals of community tourism plans are (as cited in Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999):

- to identify the possibilities and choices about the future of tourism within communities;
- to examine each possibility carefully in terms of probable impacts;

- to include in the planning process the real preferences of the people in the communities whose lives and home environment are in influenced by tourism (p. 249-250).

For instance, in a similar fashion, Murphy (1983) reported that in the United Kingdom, the Snowdonia National Park Plan integrated tourism as part of the economic and social well-being of local people. As stated by Murphy (1983, p. 183), among the National Park Plan objectives, it embrace several of the goals:

- to maintain the traditional pattern of agriculture;
- to encourage those forms of tourism with the greatest local benefit;
- to create jobs at most of the existing settlements within the Park; and
- to safeguard the identity of local communities by seeking to retain and develop the cultural heritage (p.183).

On the one hand, in the essence of providing guidelines for community tourism planning, (D' Amore, 1983; as cited in Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999, p. 249) mentioned the following key points: "resident identification of development priorities; promotion subject to resident endorsement; public/private sector effort to maintain local recreational opportunities; greater local involvement in the industry; local capital/entrepreneurial investment be encouraged; broad based community participation in events and activities; tourism product to reflect local identity; mitigate against growth problems before allowing further expansion". On the other hand, Reid et al. (2004) emphasise that community-based approaches to tourism planning must still have more consideration of how the techniques might be developed.

Planning involves power relations and structures, individuals with more power than others (Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999) might dominate the decisions during the planning process. For example, in the tourism industry

this may include property developers, land and property owners; and potentially, though less likely, community and environmental pressure groups (Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999). Reed (1997, p. 567) demonstrates in his study that power relations can change the result of collaborative efforts or even preclude collaborative action. Consequently, it is necessary to consider how power relations can aid in explaining the methods and outcomes of collaboration.

Thus, in an effort to counter the tensions resulting from the more negative impacts from uneven/unplanned development, Simmons (1994) point out that many researchers have suggested that tourism-dominated/interested communities should plan their evolution more systematically, thereby taking into account residents' attitudes and perceptions about its growth at the outset. According to Simmons (1994) encouragement of community participation and involvement in tourism planning and development involves changing the balance of power amongst the stakeholders to the advantage of some or all members of the community.

As Garrod (2003) emphasises in his study, full and effective participation of local communities can be used as a strategy to overcome certain barriers. Hence, it is important to recognise that collaboration and cohesions amongst the key tourism stakeholders are essential in the planning and management of ecotourism development (Jamal and Getz (1995). Furthermore, Table 5 shows the implementation strategies used in community tourism. These strategies can be used as guidelines to develop efficient plans for the community tourism.

Table 5. Implementation strategies in community tourism

Establish a permanent tourism committee or forum, with the widest possible community (stakeholders) representation which would act in an advisory and consultative capacity to management.
The local, regional or national government to give consultative advice and continuous financial support to community initiatives.
The community to be balloted on key issues in tourism strategy with opportunities to vote for alternatives.
Use small group processes and focus groups to ensure democratic process.
Regular attitudinal surveys of the community to identify issues and solutions.
Use of outside speakers and experts to impartially inform the community of the implications of proposals.
The provision of educational materials and documentaries, design workshops and visual presentations to inform and educate.
Hold public hearings on key planning issues.
Introduce measures to improve the quality of work in the tourism industry – training initiatives to raise the career profile of tourism employment.
Organise events, residents' weekends, and festivals to ensure the widest possible local community participation.

Source: Harrison & Husbands (1996) and Gunn (1988) (as cited in Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999, p. 251).

Hence, the imperative aim of this literature review is to adapt a suitable participatory approach that can have positive impact on the community in a community-based ecotourism destination. However, in Wisansing's research (2004) research, she mentioned that "To practice community participation, which entails all of the above elements has been proven to be ambitious and complex, particularly to achieve *all* public stakeholders direct roles in all planning process" (p. 28). Furthermore, Wisansing (2004) stated that participatory planning literature has not been common in the past, although debates were centred on *how* to involve the community in planning.

For example, a participatory tourism planning process as shown in Figure 2 demonstrates the process of involving stakeholders in tourism planning.
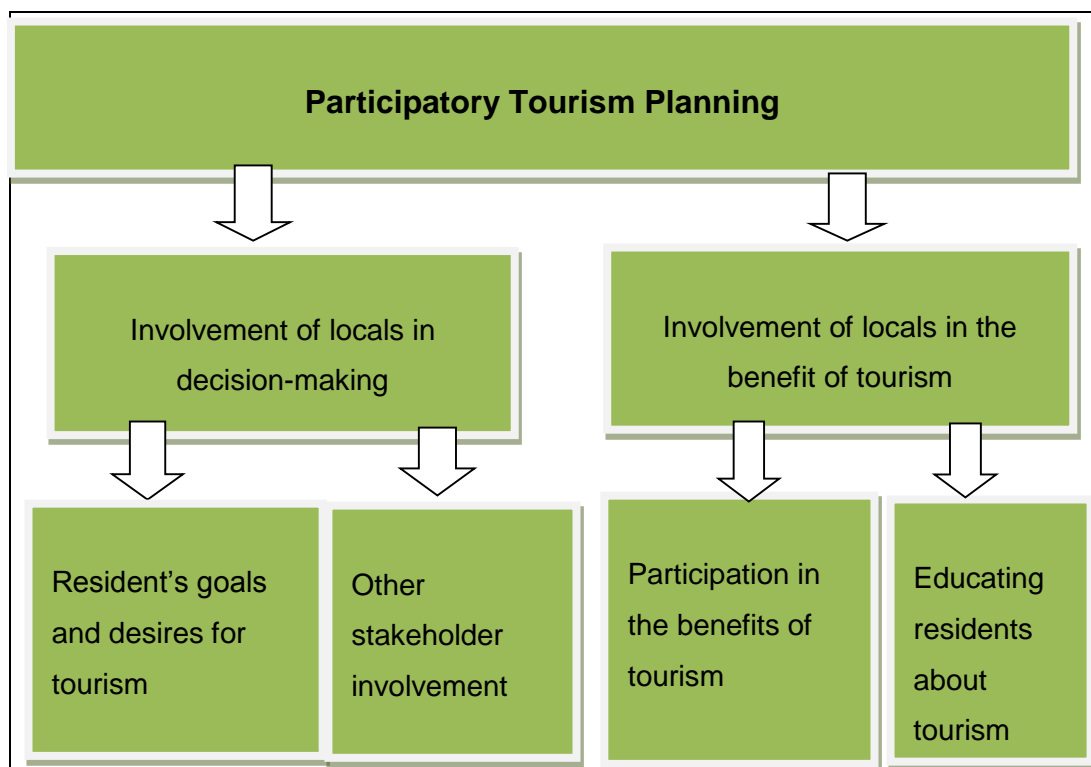
Figure 2. A normative model of participatory tourism planning

Source: Timothy (1999).

The normative model of participatory tourism planning shows an illustration of involving locals in decision making and benefits of tourism. On the one hand, other stakeholders and locals are involved in decision making, together they must recognise residents' goals and desires for tourism. On the other hand, involvement of locals in the benefit of tourism involves locals to benefit while simultaneously educating residents about tourism.

However, consideration of barriers and enablers is important in terms of understanding what impacts it can have on the other stakeholders and the local community. The following section will discuss further on the barriers and the enablers to stakeholder participation.

2.5.1 Stakeholders' Participation: Barriers and Enablers

According to Wang (2010) description, successful ecotourism rests upon the high quality of tourism suppliers (including ecotourism planners, developers, operators and managers). In addition, Wang suggests having viable "standardized management of tourism planning, carry out the system stipulated by tourism planners and guarantee the quality of tourism planning" (Wang, 2010, p. 262). However, at the end of the spectrum, numerous complexities such as lack of transparencies, political instability, lack of data about developmental issues, and undemocratic special circumstances create tougher situations to effectively focus on tourism and local participation in developing countries (Wang, 2010). Hence, the reality is that effective community participation cannot be achieved easily. As demonstrated by Wisansing (2004), limits and obstacles of participatory tourism planning can be summarised as follows:

- The performance of participatory strategies is not encouraging, and authentic participation (Arnsteins' 'citizen power') seldom occurs.

- There are obstacles associated with the public administration being centralised and too bureaucratic to respond to local needs.
- There is a lack of communication between communities and decision makers. This results in an increased gap and isolation of the local community from the tourism development process
- There exists a lack of awareness of the consequences of tourism development in the local community and this is worsened by a lack of opportunities for local people to take part in the decision-making process.
- There is a lack of expertise on how to incorporate community participation in planning (p. 44).

Therefore, as Wisansing (2004) stated, appropriate process, criteria, and structures are essential in the process of undertaking a participatory planning approach.

To some extent, this explains how a participatory approach in ecotourism development is still lacking in some developing countries. However, a problematic issue may arise when the needs of the rural communities are not identical with the needs of other stakeholders (for example, the global conservation movement). For instance, according to Brockington (2006, p. 425):

> Conservation displacement, like other forms of displacement, comprises two processes (Cernea 2005b) (i) the forced removal of people from their homes; and (ii) economic displacement, the exclusion of people from particular areas in their pursuit of a livelihood (e.g. Horowitz 1998). People dwelling on the edge of a park but unable to gather firewood or wild foods, to hunt, or fish, or unable to walk to their farms on

the other side of the park, would be unable to live as they were before. Exclusion of economic activity, which does not lead to moving home, still displaces that activity elsewhere.

Due to dissatisfaction in the planning management of community-based ecotourism, this then can create a barrier. Why then do some organisations refuse to work with the villages on this issue and instead develop opposing strategies? The reluctance of stakeholders to commit themselves to local development goals is a key problem (Jamal & Getz, 1995). Given this gap in both the literature and practice, this study will address this specific research question on the relationships between the local perspective of development pay-off and stakeholder perspective of community-based ecotourism development. Some rural villages gain less benefit from ecotourism development due to unequal pay-off, thereby causing conflicts and disagreement that can result in closure of the community-based ecotourism project (p. 425).

In general, some organisations prefer their own ideology or practices as correct in some absolute way and often seek to convert villages to that ideology rather than accepting the fundamental nature of the project (Wagner, 2002) and its benefits to the community. Therefore, Hall (1999) concluded by saying equal participation and involvement in discussions and decision making must always have individuals and interest groups participating actively. Section 2.5.2 further discusses community attachment and involvement in terms of effective participation and involvement.

2.5.2 Community Attachment and Involvement

Rothenbuhler and Mullen (1996) consider community attachment as a notion that integrates community identification with relation to an affective tie. Affective tie in this study, relates to being an emotional part of or a common bond between, families, clan, village or community. Hence, being attached is a social norm to some communities. Nevertheless, according to Rothenbuhler and Mullen (1996):

> Attachment implies feeling a part of the community — seeing oneself as belonging. Attachment also means that this sense of belonging is positively evaluated, that one is happy and proud to belong. In this way the community and self are articulated together with the community being a contingency for one's own happiness (p. 447).

Therefore, community attachment can be regarded as an individual's social participation and integration into community life and reflects an affective bond or emotional link between an individual and a specific community (McCool & Martin, 1994).

On the one hand, community involvement is described by Lee (2013), as sharing, supportive and critical for host residents to participate effectively to eradicate negative impacts. On the other hand, Scheyvens (1999) promoted empowerment as a precursor to community involvement. Therefore, "community involvement can be regarded as a critical factor in the development of community based tourism" (Jones, 2005; Lepp, 2007; as cited in Lee, 2013).

Therefore, the effective participation and involvement in community-based ecotourism can also bring social, cultural, economic and environmental benefits to the local community.

Indeed, the 'sociological approach' to understanding the human experience rests on the assumption that 'social structural' phenomenon affects individuals' sentiments and behaviours (Entwisle, Faust, Rindfuss, & Kaneda, 2007). The term 'social structure' carries two distinctive meanings. According to Entwisle et al. (2007):

> One meaning is relational, involving networks of ties between individuals or groups of individuals. These ties may involve kinship, friendship, neighbour relations, social support, and so forth. A second meaning relates to the social units within which individuals and groups of individuals are contained (p. 1495).

Particularly, relationships to local people as part of ecotourism as an alternative form of development, should demonstrate a positive attitude, and it is important that the host communities should not be neglected (Bramwell & Lane, 2000). Moreover, the communities are seen as needing to be attached to other stakeholders and actively participating in the planning and development process. Thus "some scholars have reported that community attachment positively, directly, and significantly affects perceived benefits and therefore indirectly affects the support of the host residents for tourism development" (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Nicholas et al., 2009; as cited in Lee, 2013). For instance, the analytical results from Lee's research suggest that:

> …community attachment and community involvement are critical factors that affect the level of support for sustainable tourism development. The benefits perceived by host residents affect the relationship between community attachment and support for sustainable tourism development and between community involvement and support for sustainable tourism development (p.37).

In summary, since ecotourism is a community-based tourism development process, community attachment is certainly the driving force that can give impetus for one to actively participate. As such, 'community action' is necessary throughout the participation and involvement process. In this case, community action refers to the "…activities being undertaken by the local residents working together to address and solve specific locale-oriented needs and problems" (Wilkinson, 1991; as cited in Theodori, 2004, p. 73) within a community. In addition, there are comprehensive thoughts of the recommendable requirements of the community throughout the course of tourism development, as well as the decisions, planning, management, and supervision of tourism while regarding the community as both the developmental and participatory subject (Bao & Sun, 2007).

2.6 Participation Techniques and Implementation Outcome

Central to the goals of effective planning in ecotourism (Wearing & Neil, 2009) or community-based ecotourism, or either the need to support supply and demand for tourism (Higham & Lück, 2002) and effective marketing (Lück, 2002), community-based ecotourism aims to ensure that the community have control over tourism development and benefits (Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999). As a viable economic tool, Inskeep (1991) also added that tourism planning should be an integrative process rather than a product and further claim that community involvement is an essential ingredient. Therefore, this brings the scholars to seek participatory techniques to involve the public as part of the broader change (Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999). In anticipation for growing demand in ecotourism and/community-based ecotourism development, participation mechanisms must be chosen to fit the desired output from participation and current tourism plans (Simmons, 1994).

Hence, in an attempt to meet the needs of the community and other stakeholders, Ritchie (1985) pointed out that the 'Nominal Group Technique'

(NGT) is used as one of the participation techniques for some organisations. The Nominal Group Technique, according to Spencer (2010) is:

> …a method of systematically developing a consensus of group opinion. It yields a list of ideas pertaining to the topic or issue at hand and individual and aggregate measures of the desirability of these ideas. In planning situations such information can help to set priorities and focus efforts (p. 685).

The NGT was developed as an organisational planning and research technique (Ritchie, 1985). For example, the Tourism Industry Association of Alberta, Canada used NGT in consensus planning for tourism growth and development as a research procedure (Ritchie, 1985). The method used was a proven success with different ideas collected for the development. In addition, Spencer (2010) declared that the Nominal Group Technique has also proven to provide rich information on tourism development for the three lakefront properties conducted on the Lake Traverse Reservation of the Sisseton–Wahpeton Oyate (people, nation) in North and South Dakota, USA. Spencer emphasised that "the study provided evidence that the NGT worked well in a particular American setting in which the objective was to generate tourism development ideas" (Spencer, 2010, p. 689).

In addition, Simmons' (1994) study of community participation in tourism planning" sought three different kinds of participatory techniques: (1) Informal interviews; (2) Postal surveys; (3) Focus groups. The informal interviews were exploring and informal, the postal surveys established the quantitative foundation of the research and the focus groups were from three different settings, however, they were particularly from the survey participants who had shown their interest to participate in the focus groups. Simmons' study reports on the research programme for Huron County, Ontario (Canada), that sought to explore the three ways in which information about the tourism development can be obtained and what technique or method is suitable to use. Ultimately, Simmons emphasises the importance

of greater participation in tourism planning due to the impacts that are mostly felt by the community and the recognition that community can guarantee the best hospitable atmosphere if they participate actively in tourism planning. The results indicated general support for tourism development. Further discussion of participatory methods will be discussed in the Methodology Chapter.

In addition, Yuksel, Bramwell, and Yuksel (1999), examined the use of interviews as a technique to identify stakeholders' views on the implementation of proposals contained in a tourism and conservation plan for Pamukkale, Turkey. Their research illustrated how useful interviews can provide detailed information on the attitudes of tourism stakeholders to tourism issues and changes to tourism in a destination area. The information collected from the interview can be used for ongoing planning and implementation of tourism development.

On the contrary, Rowe and Frewer (2000) argue that a general lack of empirical considerations of the quality of interview method raises the confusion as to the appropriate benchmarks for evaluation. Therefore, Rowe and Frewer (2000, p. 3) mentioned two types of evaluation criteria that are necessary for effective participation: (1) "acceptance criteria which concerns features of a method that make it acceptable to the wider public and (2) process criteria which concerns features of the process that are liable to ensure that it takes place in an effective manner" (p. 3).

In general, Yuksel et al. (1999) stated that different tourism development settings and participation will depend on each type of participation and how it can help stakeholders to actively collaborate and plan. In turn, Reed (2008, p. 2417) asserts that "…where relevant, participation should be considered as early as possible and throughout the process, representing relevant stakeholders systematically and that the process needs to have clear objectives" (p. 2417). The emphasis about the participatory techniques and implementation outcome discussion were based on the nominal group

techniques, informal interviews, postal surveys and focus groups for more integrative planning. On the contrary, Pretty (1995) came up with the different types and ways of how people can participate in agricultural development projects. Specifically, the typology for participation includes (see Table 6): self-mobilisation, interactive participation, functional participation, participation for material incentives, participation for consultation, passive participation and manipulative participation. According to this view, participation is conceptualised as two-way communication and implies different degrees of participation (Reed, 2008).

Table 6. A Typology of Participation: How People Participate in Development Programs and Projects

TYPOLOGY	CHARACTERISTCS OF EACH TYPE
Self-mobilisation	People participate by taking initiatives independently of external institutions for resources and technical advice they need, but retain control over how resources are used. Self- mobilisation can spread if governments and NGOs provide an enabling framework of support. Such self-initiated mobilisation may or may not challenge existing distributions of wealth and power.
Interactive participation	People participate in joint analysis, development of action plans and formation or strengthening of local institutions. Participation is seen as a right, not just the means to achieve project goals. The process involves interdisciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives and make use of systemic and structured learning processes. As groups take over local decisions and determine how available resources are used, so they have a stake in maintaining structures or practices.
Functional participation	Participation is seen by external agencies as a means to achieve project goals, especially reduced costs. People may participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives related to the project. Such involvement may be interactive and involve shared decision making, but tends to arise only after external agents have already made major

	decisions. At worst, local people may still be only co-opted to serve external goals.
Participation for material incentives	People participate by contributing resources, for example, labour in return for food, cash or other material incentives. Farmers may provide the fields and labour, but are involved in neither experimentation nor the process of learning. It is very common to see this called participation, yet people have no stake in prolonging technologies or practices when incentives end.
Participation by consultation	People participate by being consulted and by answering questions. External agents define problems and information-gathering processes, and so control analysis. Such a consultative process does not concede any share in decision making, and professionals are under no obligation to take on board people's views.
Passive participation	People participate by being told by what has been decided or has already happened. It involves unilateral announcements by an administration or project management without any listening to people's responses. The information being shared belongs only to external professionals.
Manipulative participation	Participation is simply pretence, with "people's" representatives on official boards but who are unelected and have no power.

Source: Pretty (1995)

Hence, people participation and consultative processes can be seen as crucial source of involvement and contribution to the development of programmes and projects (Pretty, 1995). Arguably, participation techniques are important.

2.7 Chapter Summary

During the 1970s and 1980s, ecological and social issues were recognised as primary concerns (as cited in Pforr, 2001). Therefore, the convergence of sustainable tourism development became apparent during the late 1940s and early 1950s, when the World Conservation Union was first established with a vision of conservation (Wilbanks, 1994; cited in Hardy, Beeton, & Pearson, 2002). Consequently, debates on minimising impacts on the natural environment and socio-cultural concerns created alternative approaches to sustainable tourism development such as 'ecotourism and sustainable tourism' (Pforr, 2001). The concept of ecotourism emerged during the 1980s as a direct result of the world's acknowledgment of sustainable and global ecological practices (Weaver, 2001a).

As mentioned in the preceding literature review, Sharpley (2006, p. 10) discussed three main pillars of developing ecotourism (see also Wallace & Pierce, 1996) as, (1) Environment: Ecotourism is low-impact tourism that should be managed in such a way that it contributes to the conservation of the flora and fauna of natural areas; (2) Development: Ecotourism should encourage local participation and control in developing tourism that is of sustainable socio-economic benefit to local communities; (3) Experience: Ecotourism should provide opportunities for learning and meaningful encounters between tourists and the environment/local community (p. 10).

According to Scheyvens (1999), ecotourism projects should only be considered "successful" if local communities take ownership and control to gain an equal share of the benefits. As Buckley (2009, p. 218) emphasised, community-based ecotourism is a particular ecotourism, with primary focus on involving local communities and providing them with social and economic benefits. However, Bramwell and Lane (2000) stated that stakeholders performing jointly have greater chances of survival than those acting alone. Consequently, joint participation brings benefits, according to Lindberg &

Hawkins (1993), and even distribution to local people that are appropriately targeted.

Community-based ecotourism planning should see its primary objective as being to improve the quality of life and commitment to socio-cultural well-being. The emphasis on planners and developers needing to embrace community involvement is an essential ingredient. Hence, community attachment is certainly the driving force that can give impetus for oneself to actively participate. Hence the goals of communities must embrace a more community orientated approach. In terms of achieving the need for a participatory approach, it was considered appropriate to adopt the nominal group technique mainly because the participatory approach has been successful as a vehicle to achieve community-tourism planning and development (Spencer, 2010).

CHAPTER 3: THE CASE STUDY AREA – LABABIA VILLAGE, MOROBE PROVINCE, PAPUA NEW GUINEA

3.1 Introduction

This chapter sets the context of the present study for the facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in community-based ecotourism development. Papua New Guinea has increased the promotion of community-based ecotourism over the past years with an overall objective to identify opportunities to improve the competitiveness of ecotourism and provide an integrated framework for industry development in the next ten years (Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority (PNGTPA), 2006).

This chapter provides an overview of tourism development in Papua New Guinea and as a case study for this particular research, Lababia village in Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea. As raised in Chapter Two, Latkova and Vogt (2012) argue that to achieve successful sustainable tourism development, community leaders and developers need to view tourism as a 'community industry' that enables residents to be actively involved in determining and planning future tourism development with the overall goal of improving residents' quality of life (Fridgen, 1991b). For example, Conservation International emphasizes (Anonymous, 2007, p. 4) that "…partnering is key to the process, linking local governments, communities and organizations" (p. 4).

As also introduced in Chapter Two, social purposes and economic benefits of ecotourism have been continuous obstacles to success, according to a study by Wagner (2002). This could happen due to unequal distribution of wealth gained from ecotourism and frequent conflict and disagreement among the stakeholders.

This is also due to the fact that tourism is a complex industry and the industry not only links local community but the whole economic system. Section 3.2 below discusses the wider context of developing countries and tourism in which the present case study is situated.

3.2 Developing Countries and Tourism

Tourism has economically gained more favour in the developing countries since its contribution to the development of tourist destinations (Sasidharan, Sirakaya, & Kerstetter, 2002). Besides foreign exchange earnings and investment, tourism development has created socio-cultural and environmental problems and concerns to tourist destinations especially in developing nations (Sasidharan et al., 2002). According to Thapa (2012, p. 1705) "Tourism is considered to have one of the fastest growth rates in the past two decades among countries with emerging and developing economies as international arrivals have risen from 31% in 1990 to 47% in 2010 (UNWTO, 2011)". Therefore, Thapa (2012) further emphasises the importance to maintain and enhance the expansion and competitiveness in rural and urban regions of developing nations. Furthermore, the hard infrastructure success and human resource development to support tourism capacity building and institutional development is a key development tool (Thapa, 2012). Section 3.2.1 below discusses the growth of tourism in Papua New Guinea.

3.2.1 The Regional Overview of Tourism

As indicated by the South Pacific Tourism Organization (New Zealand Tourism Research Institute & South Pacific Tourism Organization, 2013) regional tourism industries are categorised into advanced, developing and nascent. The Pacific Island countries under the advanced category are Fiji, Samoa, Cook Islands and Vanuatu. The countries under 'developing' are Tonga, Federated States of Micronesia, Palau and Papua New Guinea. The

Pacific Island countries under nascent are Kiribati, Solomon Islands, Tuvalu, Marshall Islands, Nauru and Timor-Leste.

Fiji is among the largest destination in the Melanesian nations. The economy of Fiji is dependent on the tourism industry for almost half of its national economy (New Zealand Tourism Research Institute & South Pacific Tourism Organization, 2013). Papua New Guinea is also part of the Melanesian countries with booming business travel sectors; however, mining and logging have always been the major contributors to the national economy. Papua New Guinea is categorized under 'developing' which means that it is among some of the other potential and fastest growing industries and yet also sitting on unrealised potential. Table 7 shows the 15 countries in the Pacific Island nations categorized under the regional overview of tourism.

Table 7. Regional Overview of Tourism – 15 PACPs

Country	Tourism GDP % (SPTO 2002)	Number of air Arrivals 2011	Tourism GDP % (estimates 2011)	Tourism Employment (SPTO 2002)	Tourism Employment (estimates 2011)
Cook Is	47.0	112,881	50	?	55
Fiji	12.8	675,050	30	9.5	18
FSM	?	28,000	?	?	?
Kiribati	14.5	4,000	14.5	14.5	10
Marshall Islands	?	6,000	?	?	?
Nauru	?	2,000	?	?	?
Niue	13.0	6,000	20	20	15
Palau	49.0	109,057	50	50	50
PNG	6.3	35,700	7	7	6
Samoa	9.5	127,604	20	20	18
Solomon Island	2.9	22,941	3	3	4
Timor-Leste	?	36, 643	?	?	?
Tonga	5.0	46, 005	12	3.2	15
Tuvalu	3.0	1,232	3	?	0.7
Vanuatu	16.6	88,742	35	12.0	32

Source: ADB Pacific Tourism report on individual countries (www.adb.org) Pacific Community (www.spc.imt/) annual statistics for tourism for member nations, National Bureau of Statistics and through consultation with NTO officials. (Cited in South Pacific Tourism Organisation, 2013, p. 4).

The overall look on the regional overview of tourism remains relatively positive. Table 7 shows Fiji with 675,050 as the highest number of air arrivals in 2011 compared to Papua New Guinea with only 35,700 tourist arrivals in the same year. Other Pacific Island countries with high tourist arrivals include Cook Islands, Samoa, Palau and Vanuatu. As stated by the South Pacific Tourism Organisation (2013), there is more emphasis on sustainable tourism development in the developing countries. A review of the 2003 – 2013 Regional Tourism Strategy (SPTO 2006) reveals the following specific strategic areas (based on stakeholder research):

- Small business development and assistance,
- Investment facilitation,
- Planning,
- Product development,
- Marketing and market research,
- Human resource development (p. 4).

The importance of HRD is highlighted further by increasing the economic structures and freeing of labour flows between the Pacific states (New Zealand Tourism Research Institute & South Pacific Tourism Organization, 2013).

3.3 Tourism in Papua New Guinea

Papua New Guinea is located on the eastern side of New Guinea in the South West Pacific Ocean. Papua New Guinea has one of the most diverse populations (Trans Niugini Tours, 2013), with over 600 islands, an estimated population of six million people, and over 800 different languages (Subbiah & Kannan, 2012). The country is a land of natural tropical diversity and authentic culture and tradition that comes together in an array of colours and passion (Trans Niugini Tours, 2013). According to the Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority (PNGTPA) (n.d.):

Papua New Guinea is seeking to diversify its economy, and has identified tourism as one of the key pillars of economic growth, alongside agriculture, forestry, fisheries, mining, petroleum and gas. As a result, various incentives and concessions have been introduced in the 2007 and 2009 National Budgets to promote business investments in the sector.

Figure 3. Map of Papua New Guinea

Source: Lonely Planet. Reprinted with permission.

Papua New Guinea has huge potential as one of the most desired tourism destinations. Hence, the development of the tourism industry is reliant on a partnership between the government, industry, and the people of PNG

(Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority (PNGTPA), 2006). For instance, according to the Tourism Promotion Authority, Papua New Guinea is recognised to have high potential in investment in areas of hospitality, transport, food and beverages, tourist attractions, travel retail services and infrastructure. Investors can tap into prospects presented by the advent of ecotourism and develop products and services catering to promising tourist segments.

Nature-based attractions, high mountains, tropical jungles, and diverse cultural heritage are common ecotourism experiences that are promoted in every island and the mainland of rural Papua New Guinea. Subbiah and Kannan (2012, p. 115) highlight that rainforests, rivers, and scenery attract trekkers, bushwalkers, surfers, cave explorers and mountaineers. Tourist activities, according to Subbiah and Kannan (2012, p. 115) include visits to museums, art galleries, botanical gardens and war relics; interacting with locals; watching cultural shows and festivals; shopping, sightseeing, cycling, walking, climbing, bird watching, kayaking, island hopping, fishing, canoeing, cruising, swimming, white-water rafting, diving, and snorkelling. Hussan (2000) stated that "…the heterogeneity of destinations is accomplished by the heterogeneity of contemporary tourist preferences" (as cited in Romão, Guerreiro, & Rodrigues, 2012, p. 57). Therefore, the promotion and marketing of Papua New Guinea is crucial to the country's tourism industry.

Whilst ecotourism has developed globally (Chapter 2), its impacts and implications are not adequately known to all (Dowling & Fennell, 2003). In developing tourism in Papua New Guinea, such issues as deficiencies in infrastructure and policy shortcomings have tainted tourism development. However, ecotourism is promoted by several organisations in Papua New Guinea. For instance, the Morobe Provincial Tourism Office, Village Development Trust (VDT), and Conservation Department are a few of those organisations that have contributed to the development of ecotourism projects and training within Morobe Province. Figure 4 shows the Tourism Planning Framework.

3.3.1 Tourism Planning Framework

The following tourism planning framework is a guide to Papua New Guinea tourism planning. Each section on this framework is delegated a task according to its specialised areas. The years on the framework show when the sections became active.
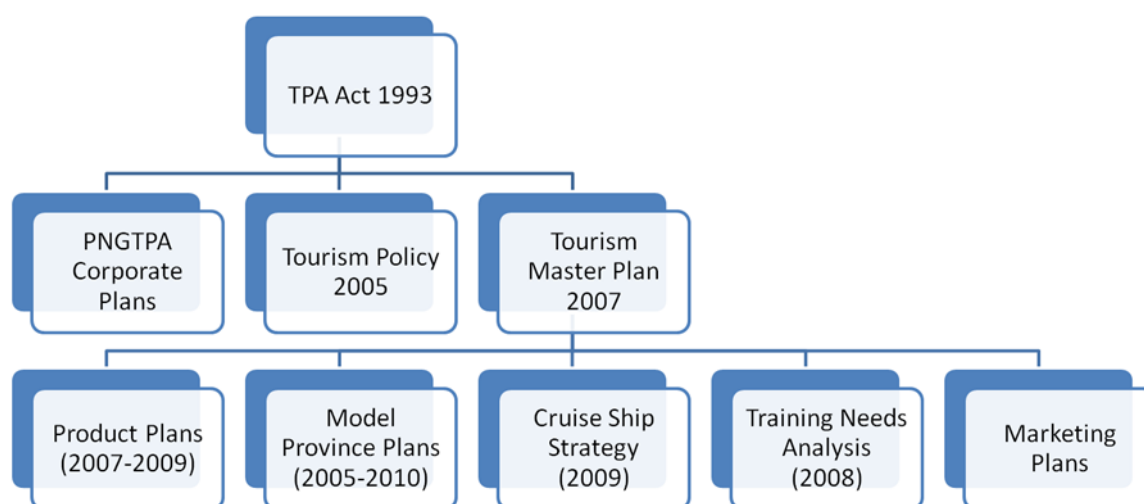
Figure 4. Papua New Guinea Tourism Planning Framework

Source: (Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority (PNGTPA), n.d.). Reprint with permission.

Under the TPA Act 1993 are the PNG TPA Corporate Plans, Tourism Policy 2005, and the Tourism Master Plan 2007. From the framework the Papua New Guinea (PNG) Tourism Master Plan consists of the Product Plans (2007 -2009), the Model Province Plans (2005 – 2010), Cruise Ship Strategy (2009), Training Needs (2008) and the Marketing Plans.

3.4 Tourism in Papua New Guinea: Facts and Figures

According to the Papua New Guinea Investment Guide, Papua New Guinea's tourism industry has increased over the past five years in terms of international tourist arrivals. Retrieved from the Papua New Guinea

Investment Guide (Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority (PNGTPA), 2006, p. 28):

> In 2005, a total of 69,251 short-term international visitors were recorded, which was an increase of 17.3% compared to the other year. In 2006, the arrivals figure maintained its upward trend by recording 77,730 international visitors, an increase of 12.2% compared to the 2005 arrivals. The year 2007 was even better for tourism growth in Papua New Guinea, recording 104,123 arrivals, an excess of 26,000 new arrivals or 34% increase compared to the same period of the previous year. In 2008, the arrivals figure continued its healthy upward trend by recording 120,139 short-term international visitors, an increase of 15.4% or 16,000 extra arrivals compared to the 2007 arrivals. Total international arrivals to Papua New Guinea in 2009 was recorded at 125,891, which was a slight increase of 4.8% compared to 2008 due to the fact that world tourism was affected by the global financial crisis.
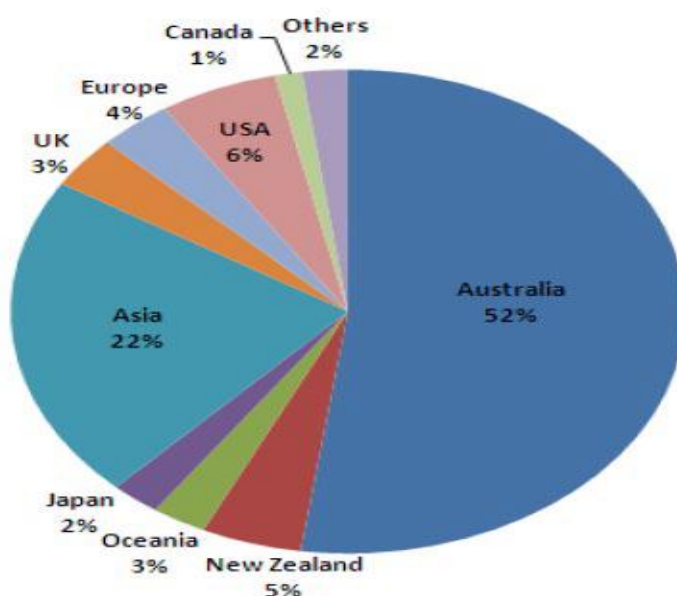
Figure 5. Arrivals by Country. Reprinted with permission.

In 2010, short-term visitor arrivals to Papua New Guinea increased by 18%, recording more than 146,000 international tourists to Papua New Guinea. Of the total 2010 visitor arrivals, 52% were from Australia, followed by the United States (6%), New Zealand (5%) and the UK (3%) (see Figure 5). Australia has become well entrenched as the top source market for Papua New Guinea tourism over the years, largely due to major business and historical links as well as geographical proximity. Major emerging source markets include the Philippines, New Zealand and China. The United Kingdom and Japan, though out of the top five, remain key target markets for Papua New Guinea tourism because of their historical interests in the region.

Figure 6. Annual visitor arrivals trend

However, after 1999 the number rapidly declined due to political unrest, perception of safety issues for visitors, plus it was too costly to travel to the remote destinations (S. Wearing et al., 2009).

However, according to the Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority (PNGTPA) (2006, p. 28):

> … in 2011 Papua New Guinea recorded more than 164,000 international visitors, an increase of more than 14%, or an additional 20,000 arrivals compared to 2010 visitors, injecting an estimated K1.6 billion into the national economy. Therefore, out of the total visitors to the country: Holidays accounted for 21%; business 44%; visiting friends and relatives (VFR) 4%; employment 28%, and education and other at 1% each (p. 28).

Papua New Guinea is known as the second biggest island in the world next to Greenland. With its striking natural beauty and complex cultures, PNG with its diversity in topography and mountainous terrain is also a home to unique flora and fauna with great diversity of animal life. Tourists mostly come to PNG for nature-based activities and ecotourism activities. However, other reasons may include business and visiting friends and relatives. Hence, tourism in Papua New Guinea increased from 1995 until 1999 with a peak of 80,000 international tourist arrivals (see Figure 6).

Sections 3.5 and 3.6 below contain discussion of Morobe Province and the case study area – Lababia village.

3.5 Morobe Province: Overview

Morobe Province is a province on the North Coast of Papua New Guinea The provincial capital, and largest city, is Lae, with an area of 34,500 km2 and a population of approximately 600,000 people since independence in 1975. Morobe Province has about nine districts with distinct languages

spoken within the Province, with English and Tok Pigin as the common languages spoken in the urban cities.

Lae city was a mission station before the 1920s during the goldrush at Wau and was later developed into a major seaport (www.tpa.org). In addition, Morobe Province played a significant role during WWII, remnants (for example shipwrecks, aircrafts, artillery, and gun emplacements) can still be seen in most parts of the province (for instance, Salamaua, approximately 35kms south of Lae city). The WWII tracks (Black Cat, Skin Diwai (tree) and Bulldog) are now open for adventurous tourism trekkers (www.morobe png.com). Morobe Province, known as the home of interesting cultural and archaeological sites, is located on the Huon Peninsula. The Huon Terraces are a "staircase" of ancient coral reefs and is one of the most remarkable examples of an uplifted marine terrace in the Pacific. See Figure 7 for a map showing Morobe Province, Salamaua, Huon district.

Figure 7. Map of Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea

3.5.1 Morobe Province Tourism Policy

3.5.1.1 Tourism and Related Industries

The tourism industry in the province is noted as underdeveloped since 1998, according to research conducted by A.J. Stafford & Associates Pty Ltd. (1998). As stated, the objectives in the Province's Medium Development Plan for the next five years were:

- to encourage the flow of tourists (both local and international) and spending by tourists as a source of revenue for the province;
- encourage private interest in all forms of tourism;
- encourage ecotourism at village level, including investment in the provision of accommodation and standards acceptable to tourists;
- undertake detailed studies;
- provide opportunities for greater local participation through employment and training and supply of goods and services.

The Morobe Provincial Government, as recommended by Stafford & Associates, will need to facilitate these objectives with the private sector to support and promote the tourism industry. Cooperation is noted as being required between the public and private sectors to realise the full potential of the tourism industry.

3.6 Case Study: Lababia village, Lae, Morobe, Papua New Guinea

This study is conducted in Lababia village, a rural village located along Huon Coast of Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea - a popular tourism destination site along the Huon Peninsula (*see Map 2).* Lababia is located in the Salamawa territory. In the past, Salamawa villages have a history surrounding WWII (1942), and relics have been well preserved as part of that history, but also as a natural landscape. Lababia covers a marine and

land surface of approximately 434 square kilometres within the boundaries of the Lababia village (Goodwin, 1999). "Lababia's marine environment by itself encompasses an area of 17,800 hectares, including a twenty kilometre stretch of shoreline, two islands and a generous array of fringe and patch reef that provides habitat for a rich diversity of fish and other aquatic species" (Wagner, 2002, p. 50). The land is predominantly covered by a wide range of lowland and mid-mountain rainforest; inshore marine areas including lush coral reefs overlooking the ocean for about 2000 metres, and a rich array of plants, animals and ecosystems (Goodwin, 1999). The location is also a nesting place for leatherback turtles, and is the home of other species. Direct access is difficult as there is a large fringing reef in front of the Kamiali Training Centre making boat access almost impossible. However, access is currently confined to Lababia beach and entails crossing the mouth of a fast flowing river which is reputed to have crocodiles. Figure 8 shows the map location of Kamiali Wildlife Management Area (KWMA).

Figure 8. Map location of Kamiali Wildlife Management Area (KWMA)

Source: http://hbs.bishopmuseum.org/publications/pdf/tr62.pdf

South of Salamaua, in Nasau Bay, the Village Development Trust (VDT) has established the Kamiali Training Centre and Guesthouse (see Figure 9) that has accommodation facilities and a separate training facility. The guest house is built to accommodate researchers and other guests travelling to Kamiali.

Figure 9. Kamiali-Guest House

Source: http://kamiali.org

The Kamiali area was first established by Bishop Museum in 1961 as a montane field station about 50km directly from Wau Township (Goodwin, 1999). Lababia, famous for its pristine and untouched marine and terrestrial boundaries, became the host of the biodiversity research centre – Kamiali Wildlife Management Area (KWMA). According to Longenecker, Langston, Bolick, and Kondio (2013, p. 11);

> The Kamiali is a Bishop Museum-led project that is developed in a self-sustaining cycle of environmental conservation scientific research, and economic development in the coastal community of Kamiali village, Papua New Guinea. The areas includes 120 000 acres of terrestrial and marine habitat – larger than most of the state park of California and is globally significant, with numerous endemic plants. The success of Kamiali is contingent upon 600 Kamiali villagers preserving the natural environment such that biological field researchers are

motivated to work in the area. This project is arguably the most successful large-scale terrestrial/marine biodiversity conservation project implementation in PNG and it is the only such project that is fully sustainable in PNG (p.11).

In addition, the VDT had been in partnership with the Environmental Research and Management Centre (ERMC) of the University of Papua New Guinea in Lae (Morobe Province) since 1997. The main purpose of the partnership is to train the local villagers to work with visiting scientists as guides. Ecotourism can be beneficial to the host region as well as the stakeholders; therefore, Lababia village must take a high conservation approach to the wildlife. For example, in the Lababia precinct there are a number of beaches which are used by giant leatherback turtles for breeding purposes (refer to www.loseaturtles.org for more information). Hence, this is a feature that could be utilised as a nature-based tourism product centred on the Kamiali Training Centre, associated with conservation issues. Hence, stakeholder participation is highly recommended for future gain.

On the one hand, the management of ecotourism development in Papua New Guinea was studied by Subbiah and Kannan (2012), who state:

> The principle management strategies recommended for the development of ecotourism in Papua New Guinea are the promotion of low carbon emitting vehicles at the tourists' destinations; encouraging hotels and restaurants to supply environmentally friendly products and services; and supporting tourists' activities that do not harm the native species, soil formation, coastal environment and natural attractions.

On the other hand, the National Government – Tourism Policy of Papua New Guinea came up with 11 'Ecotourism Policies':

Development plans must respect the right and needs of the indigenous human population

1. Development plans must respect the carrying capacity and biodiversity of the environment
2. Development of ecotourism should be integrated with broader land-use planning to avoid destruction of ecosystems
3. Specific fragile areas, such as ecosystems containing rare and unique species, should be set aside for complete protection
4. Infrastructure and other development within natural reserves and surrounding areas should be limited to basic maintenance
5. Respect must be given to wildlife migration routes and to the maintenance and restoration of interconnected ecosystem structure and function
6. Visitor plans should be designed and implemented to include use of equitable rationing or quota systems for access to those sensitive areas where visitor access would not be a conflict
7. Proper waste management, energy conservation and environmental restoration should be a part of all planning
8. All waste should be stored on board ships and other watercraft for proper disposal in ports. Ships should have the capability to store all wastes on board for the duration of the trip
9. Helicopters are inappropriate vehicles for many sensitive areas, such as endangered species recovery areas, certain national parks, etc., and should be banned or strictly controlled as to height limits
10. Engage and support local, national, and international conservation efforts through appropriate actions and donations (p. 10).

These policies are set up as guidelines to the ecotourism activities in Papua New Guinea. See figure 10 for the conceptual model of the Kamiali Community-based Ecotourism Initiative: A well-managed community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration can attract community-based participation, providing a means of economic benefit and development to

pay for community based ecotourism development and conservation, thus providing incentive for continued engagement and collaboration.

Conceptual model of the Kamiali Community-based Ecotourism Initiative: A well-managed community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration can attract community-based participation, providing a means of economic benefit and development to pay for community-based ecotourism development and conservation, thus providing incentive for continued engagement and collaboration.
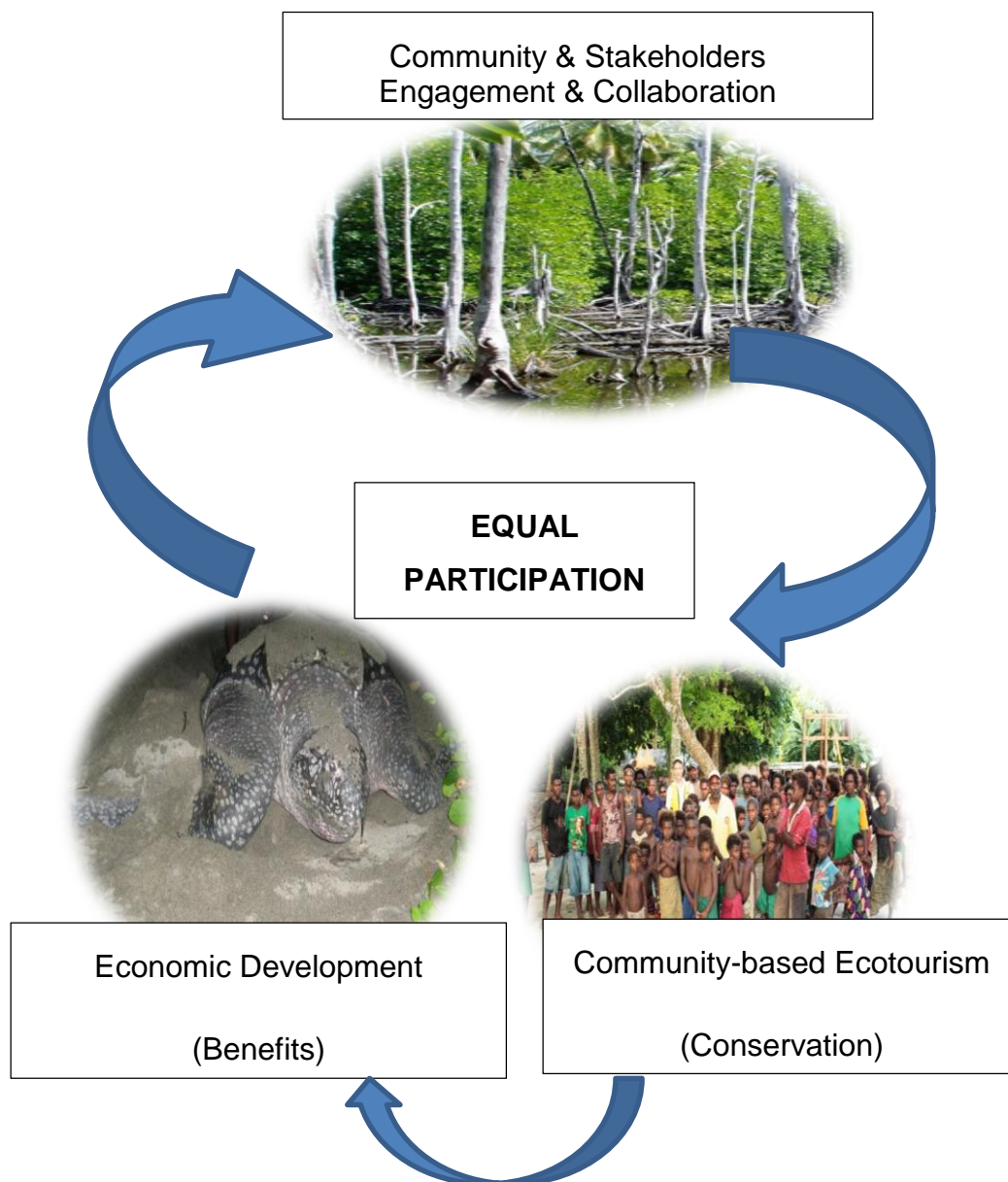
Figure 10. Conceptual Model: Lababia, Kamiali Community-based Ecotourism

To date, Kamiali has been the centre of biological study and has been highlighted for its environmental conservation. The locals have agreed to preserve most of their forest and wildlife areas rather than logging trees for commercial purposes (Goodwin, 1999). This is one of the approaches that have been promoted to bring socio-cultural and environmental enhancement. In addition, the local people also derive income from the activities of Kamiali Wildlife Management Area, which brings economic benefits to the local community. Currently, such activities include hosting training workshops; supporting scientists who study biota in the local area of Kamiali, and ecotourism (Goodwin, 1999).The main tourism activities planned for Kamiali include nature walks, trekking, snorkelling, midnight turtle watching and other ecotourism nature-based adventures
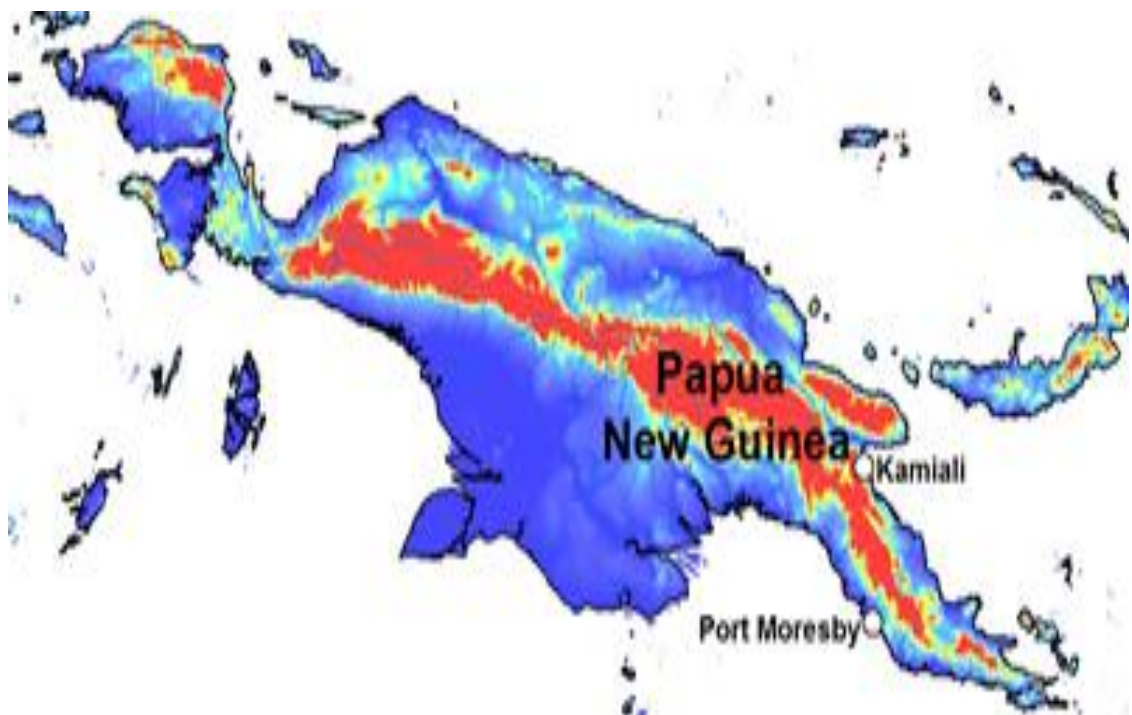
Figure 11. Map of Papua New Guinea, Salamaua – Lababia village. Reprinted with permission.

Source: http//:kamiali.org (webpage).

The location of the site (Figure 11) was selected as the most convenient due to its uniqueness as the biodiversity area and the active support from the local community. For instance, the local community have formed the Kamiali Management Trust Committee to support the projects.

On the contrary, since Lababia ecotourism was officially introduced in 1995, the Kamiali people have faced a lot of challenges, issues and concerns.The current issues and problems are discussed further in Chapter 5 (findings and discussions) of this thesis.

According to a review of existing literature, community participation is the major factor in tourism development because of the fact that communities are directly affected by it (Ap, 1992; Murphy, 1985;Gunn, 1994; as cited in Choi & Sirakaya, 2005). Stakeholder is defined by this research as including all organisations or individuals who can participate or have participated in tourism directly or indirectly.

3.7 Chapter summary

Chapter 3 provides an introduction to the case study area of Lababia village in Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea (PNG) as an appropriate location for research due to many challenges, issues and concern raised by the host community in terms of community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration. The village has been known to be a significant conservation area since the 1960s and has gone through a lot of challenges in planning and development since 1997 when the Village Development Trust (VDT) took full control of the ecotourism training and projects within the location. To date, Kamiali (Lababia village) has now become a centre for biodiversity study and has highlight environmental conservation and ecotourism. Therefore, the research context provides an intriguing setting due to the number of tourism activities and as a context for effectiveness in ecotourism development.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODS

4.1 Introduction

As stated in the preceding chapter, the present study was conducted in Lababia village, Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea. The previous chapter highlighted the suitability of Lababia, Kamiali Wildlife Management Area (KWMA) as the ideal case for the aim of this research: that is, the facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in ecotourism development. Using this case study, this research investigates the main obstacles and reasons affecting effective participation and collaboration amongst the stakeholders (such as the local community, private and public organisations and the non-government organisations). In this case, "stakeholder is defined here as any person, group, or organisation that is affected by the causes or consequences of an issue" (Bryson & Crosby, 1991, p.65; as cited in Bramwell & Lane, 2000, p. 275). In this case the stakeholders include the private, public, host community (Lababia), and others.

This chapter outlines the research methods used to achieve the main research aim, that is, to examine the effective facilitation of community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in ecotourism development in Lababia. This chapter outlines firstly, the research methods and data collection procedure. The second discussion describes the qualitative data collection method. The third discussion describes the two types of data collection techniques used in this study - Nominal Group Technique (NGT) and semi-structured interviews. This section also outlines the rationale for using these research methods and the data analysis methods.

4.2 Research Methods and Data Collection Procedure

As qualitative research is a recognised approach for studying social phenomena it is an appropriate approach to apply in this study due to the fact that participation, especially amongst tourism stakeholders and the local community, has complicated social systems (Morse, 1994). For instance, participation of the majority does not assume wider representation; however qualitative research enables researchers to emphasise in-depth records of the respondents (Jennings, 2001). A 'methodology' is the translation of ontological and epistemological principles or guidelines into how a research should be conducted (Sarantakos, 2005,p. 30; see also Stanley & Wise, 1990,p. 26; as cited in Jennings, 2010).

As noted from Jennings (2010) qualitative research, or inductive research, is a real-world setting. As an assumption of this research, lack of community and stakeholder participation in planning and developing Lababia ecotourism has been a major issue for PNG. Hence, the interpretive social sciences paradigm used in this study valued the point of views of all stakeholders without being biased (Jennings, 2010, pp. 43-44). In addition, an interpretive approach is vital for further elaborations and explanations of human experiences and social construct (Jennings, 2010).

In a nutshell, understanding one's experiences is embedded in social phenomenon which is identified by time, location, persons, and events (Morse, 1994). Essentially, one of the challenges of qualitative research relies on the participants to present in-depth responses to questions and how they have comprehended or constructed their real life experiences (Jackson, Drummond, & Camara, 2007). With the view of promoting human experiences and one's opportunity to express their view, the interpretive approach is necessary. The interpretive paradigm is used in this research to explain the insights into stakeholder perceptions, and experiences of ecotourism development within the area of Lababia.

The research design shown in Figure 12 summarises the illustration of the process of achieving the thesis aim described above. The next section discusses the data collection methods used and the rationale for using these methods.

The research aim is achieved through:

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│      Literature Review      │
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│      Research Objectives     │
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│      Research Questions      │
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│  Nominal Group   │    │  Semi-structured │
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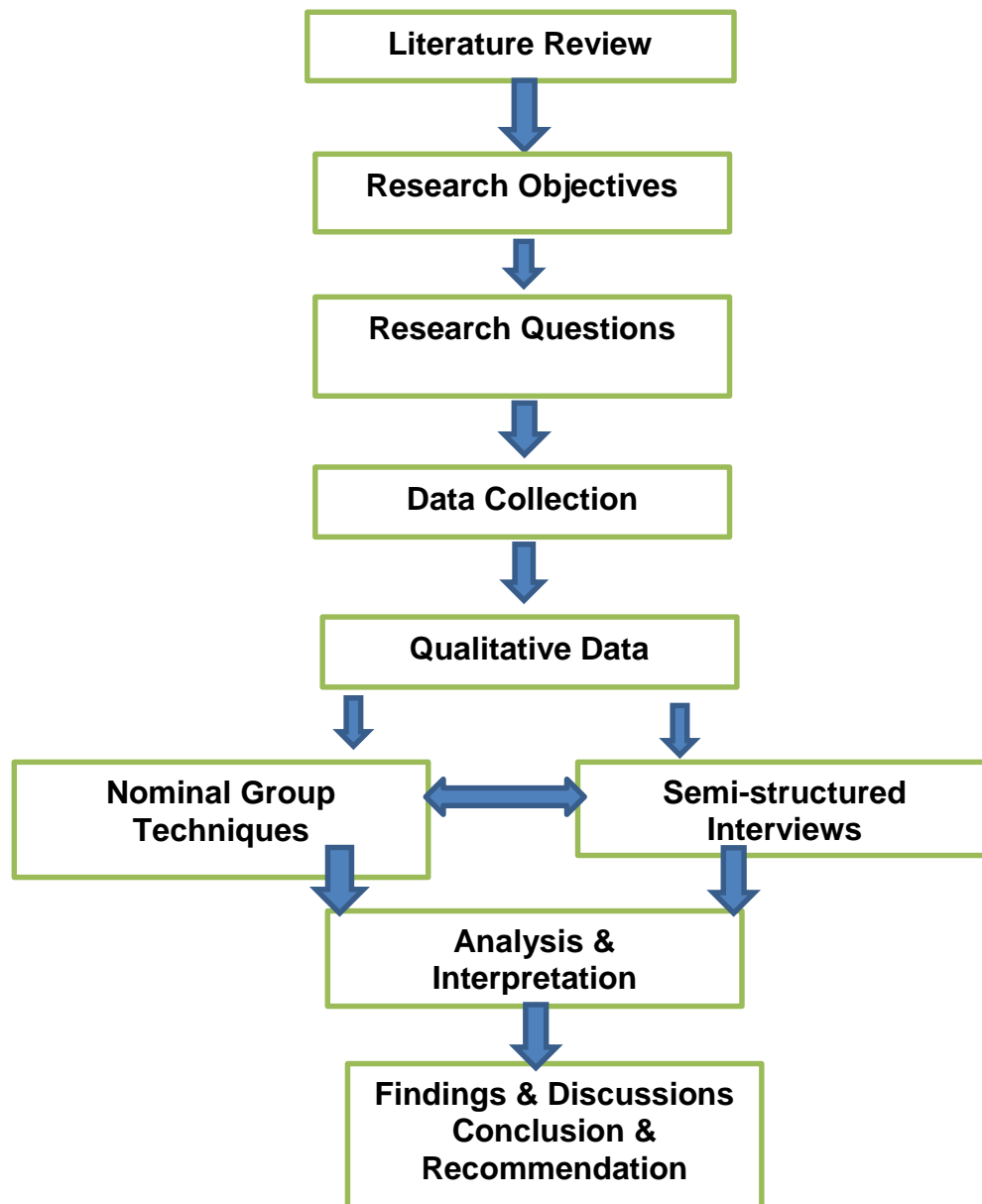
Figure 12. Research design

4.3 Qualitative Data Collection

Primarily empirical data in qualitative methodology are usually collected by observation, in-depth interviews, focus groups, the Delphi technique and case studies (Jennings, 2010). In terms of collecting the primary data, the thesis research has employed two specific techniques, namely The Nominal Group Technique (NGT) and semi-structured interviews, to achieve the aim of this research. The advantage of the researcher is that the data/empirical materials will be collected first-hand (Jennings, 2010). In order to support and examine the stated aim, qualitative insights into the individual and personal experiences is more appropriate and necessary than a quantitative method (Patton, 2002). For example, qualitative data can yield deeper understanding and reveal more depth of participants' feelings so as to clarify and justify the various aspects of the research aim. In a similar way, Arcidiacono and Procentese (2009, p. 165) mention that qualitative methods are better used for understanding participants' life experiences and perspectives on specific life context and such analyses would be quite difficult to obtain from quantitative methods. More so, "As noted quantitative research aims to explain phenomena and events by the construction of the hypotheses formulated by the researcher, while qualitative research within a constructivist perspective, aims to describe and understand the meaning and value attributed by particular individuals or social groups to the events or situation of the interest to the researcher (Arcidiacono & Procentese, 2009). Hence, qualitative methods are used in this research by using the Nominal Group Technique (NGT) and semi-structured interviews.

The next discussion will further describe and discuss the two techniques used to collect data in this study: The Nominal Group Technique (NGT) and semi-structured interview.

4.3.1 Data Gathering Techniques

Nominal Group Technique and Semi-structured Interviews

The purpose of this study is based on qualitative methods - Nominal Group Techniques (NGT), semi-structured interviews conducted with key stakeholders - and the gathering of secondary data.

Nominal Group Technique (NGT)

4.3.1.1 Rationale for using the NGT

The NGT was first established by Delbecq, Van de Ven and Gustafson in the 1970s as an organisational planning technique (Hutchings, Rapport, Wright, & Doel, 2013) that connects experiences, skills or feelings of participants. Specifically, the NGT provides an orderly procedure for obtaining relevant and reliable qualitative data pertinent to this study (Harvey & Holmes, 2012). Therefore, in order to minimise the negative threats or dialogue, cooperation and collaboration is necessary between the various stakeholders (Aas, Ladkin, & Fletcher, 2005). Indeed, all participants have the chance to be heard, and this creates the opportunities of all stakeholders to be able to prioritise their concerns.

The key purpose of this research is to examine the facilitation of effective community engagement and collaboration in community-based ecotourism development. Hence, there were two key questions under the NGT session: (1) How can we achieve effective participation in developing community-based ecotourism? (2) To what extent can effective participation be achieved in developing community-based ecotourism? The NGT technique is used to allow key stakeholders to participate willingly and to fully develop a consensus document that can be aggregated to identify the main themes. As the focus of this thesis is on community-based ecotourism development and stakeholders' participation and collaboration, questions around how this can be achieved is necessary.

In Churugsa's previous research (2004), she aimed to examine the capacity of a local Thai government (Tambon Administrative Authority [TAA]), its impacts on and responses to sustainable tourism development. This was successfully carried out using the NGT. Based on Churugsa's research, the NGT is used as a planning technique to gather integrative consensus among the stakeholders (for example, government, the private sectors and non-government organisations. Research by Wisansing (2004) and Simmons (1994) has similarly proven that an integrated community-based tourism planning and ongoing support for community-based ecotourism development is a necessary component of a community. Therefore, having all stakeholders in the NGT seems appropriate to identify and generate specific issues and problems facing tourism and may also be a participatory planning technique (Churugsa, 2004).

The NGT was developed as an organisational planning and research technique (Ritchie, 1985). For example, the Tourism Industry Association of Alberta, Canada used NGT in consensus planning for tourism growth and development as a research procedure (Ritchie, 1985). The method used was a proven success with different ideas collected for planning in tourism, as consensus planning is vital for all stakeholders to participate. In addition, Spencer (2010) declared that the NGT has also been proven to provide rich information on tourism development for the three lakefront properties conducted at the Lake Traverse Reservation of the Sisseton–Wahpeton Oyate (people, nation) in North and South Dakota, USA. Spencer emphasised that "the study provided evidence that the NGT worked well in a particular American setting in which the objective was to generate tourism development ideas" (Spencer, 2010, p. 689).

As such, there were a number of persuasive reasons for using NGT for this study. As Harvey and Holmes (2012) state, NGT involves experts in a face-to-face structured meeting to enable first-hand information to be obtained; it is time efficient, provides opportunity to get more information in a short time; NGT is money efficient with direct expenditure; it requires little

participation from clients; allows for little in-session completion and immediate dissemination of information; most importantly, NGT allows for equal participation and an environment conducive to all the participants. Hence, the direct opportunities for learning with shared relationship and thoughts require effective participation and involvement of all group members. This approach follows on with successful interactions that present direct dialogue between the key stakeholders with great depth of understanding of the main issues. However, more attention and careful interaction is vital during the process of the NGT session as a means to achieve consensus decision-making. The next section (4.3.1.2) discusses the implementation of the NGT.

4.3.1.2 Implementation of the NGT

Following previous studies, the NGT undertaken for this research involved four phases: generating ideas, recording the ideas, evaluation, and a group decision phase (Vermandere et al., 2013). As noted from Taffinder and Viedge (1987), a six-step process can normally be used (for example, phase 1: NGT Question is presented; phase 2: write answers individually; phase 3: round robin listing of ideas; phase 4: clarification/discussion of ideas; phase 5: priorities/ranking; phase 6: consensus priority) . The NGT process is used to stimulate opinions and aggregate rationality between the key stakeholders to come to a consensus. The questions articulated in the NGT session were from the research aims and objectives indicated in Chapter 1. Hence, section 4.3.1.2.1 further describes the four phases of NGT that are adopted from Vermandere et al 's (2013) study to conduct this research.

4.3.1.2.1 Four phases of NGT sessions

Accordingly, Vermandere et al. (2013) used the nominal group technique (NGT) as a consensus procedure aimed at investigating important dimensions and indicators for the assessment and evaluation of palliative care with experts from 3 stakeholder groups (physicians, professional spiritual caregivers, and researchers) representing 2 countries (Belgium

and The Netherlands) that gathered six main topics as crucial priorities. The session involves the four phases stated below (see Figure 14 as the flow chart adapted from Vermandere et al. for this thesis).

The first phase involves generating ideas; the facilitator has the duty to explain the procedures to the participants and asks each of them to generate ideas individually and write each idea on the index cards provided without discussion – one card per idea. The participants write what they consider as key issues or problems for community-based ecotourism development. Hence, being stimulated from what each person has written, they now have made a step forward to what is being identified as key issues faced by the local stakeholders and likewise the urban stakeholders (public/private). This process may take up to 20-30 minutes.

In the second phase, the facilitator collects the idea cards and records all the ideas in a flip chart and labels the ideas as A, B, C, D, etc. From the ideas listed under alphabetical order, with the help of the facilitator the group then discusses for the issues mentioned to be clarified. This process may take up to 30 minutes.

In the third phase, the group (host community/other stakeholders) has the chance to evaluate each outcome and justify each idea with clarified explanations as to which ideas have the most influential weight to the development of community-based ecotourism projects within the local community. Ideas of a similar nature can then be eliminated. The ideas are presented so everyone is able to see the composite list. This process may take up to one hour.

The fourth and final phase is the 'prioritisation' phase. Ideas are aggregated and judgements are laid as a result of highly structured discussion that is pertinent to the final outcome. The outcome of the aggregated ideas are determined as the main problems identified; therefore, each member of the group is given the opportunity to rank the ideas from most important or

relevant to the least effective or least important by individually choosing five ideas only.

The participants are asked to individually rank five of those selected and rank them, from five as being the most important to 1 as being the least important. The ideas are written on the flip chart by the researcher and ranked from most important to the least important. The counting is explicitly done with all participants observing. The final outcome is listed for the participants to vote as an overall prioritised list. An hour is allocated to this procedure (see Figure 13). This data collection process is illustrated in Figure 14 which shows the NGT adapted version of Vermandere et al. (2013). Emergent themes collected from NGT were used as questions during the interview which will be further discussed in section 4.4.1 (semi-structured interview).

Figure 13. Nominal Group Technique Session

Method	**Processes (Phases)**

Key guiding questions (1) How can we achieve effective participation in developing community-based ecotourism? (2) To what extend can effective participation be achieved in developing community-based ecotourism?

1. NGT Workshop

NGT Workshop: NGT Question

1. Outline key theoretical constructs of community-based ecotourism. Begins with NGT question. Write answers individually on index cards.

Generating Ideas

2. List all ideas on the flow chart. Write down issues affecting facilitation of effective engagement and collaboration amongst stakeholders in developing ecotourism.

Recording Ideas

3. Examine the ideas recorded on the flip chart. To what extent do the local community and tourism stakeholders participate/engage/involve?

Group Discussions: "Final Consensus"

4. To provide final consensus on facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration.

2. Semi-Structured Interview

Semi-structured Interview
With private and public stakeholders/NGO/academic.

Figure 14. Nominal Group Technique Adapted Version of Vermandere et al. (2013)

Source: Adapted from Vermandere et al. (2013).

Table 8 shows the illustration of the points system used in analysing and ranking the ideas listed in phase 4 of the NGT. The following outcome is

then evaluated and held as the key answers to the two questions raised for the NGT session.

Table 8. A point system

Session rank	Rank	Points
Most important	1	5
Very important	2	4
Important	3	3
Less important	4	2
Least important	5	1

Source: Churugsa (2004)

Based on this process, spontaneous discussion follows in the same fashion as an interactive group meeting and selection of nominal voting depends on the priorities' rank ordering or rating that is relevant to the problem question (Van De Ven & Delbecq, 1971). The success of the nominal group depends on the willingness of the participants and the researcher (Fink, Kosecoff, Chassin, & Brook, 1984, p. 980). Spencer's (2010) study on facilitating public participation in tourism planning on American Indian reservations resulted in possible success factors in tourism planning using the nominal group technique. Rich information on tourism development possibilities was collected from the NGT. The Technique has proven applicable today as it can be used as a method for consensus planning in tourism development.

Therefore, in exploring the NGT the question of who may participate is pursued by this research with two key stakeholders: the host community and other tourism stakeholders (for example, private and public sectors). That is, the NGT identifies the needs of answering the research questions and meeting the aim and objectives of this research. Participation of multiple stakeholders, with divergent priorities and interests, can encourage involvement stemming from varied social, cultural, environmental and political issues (Bramwell & Lane, 2000, p. 272). The sample selection and process will be further discussed in section 4.3.1.3.

4.3.1.3 Sample Selection and Process

In this study, the prospective participants to participate in the Nominal Group Technique were invited to participate through purposive and snowball sampling techniques. Purposive sampling and snowball sampling are purposely used in this research to reach the relevant key stakeholders that are able to confidently provide relevant information during the NGT. The selected participants in this research are purposely based on their knowledge, experiences and attachment to Lababia ecotourism, and the explicit aim of this thesis research. Purposive sampling can also be referred to as judgemental sampling, which directly involves the researcher making decisions about the studies involved (Jennings, 2010, p. 139).

On the one hand, to Devers and Frankel (2000, p. 264) "Purposive sampling strategies are designed to enhance understandings of selected individuals' or groups' experience(s) or for developing theories and concepts". In addition, Devers and Frankel (2000, p. 264) state that researchers purposely seek 'information rich' cases, that is individual groups, organisation, or behaviours that provide the greatest understanding into the research question. On the other hand, Bramwell and Lane (2000) mention that the 'snowball technique' is often a useful means of identifying relevant stakeholders at a local level based on the views of other stakeholders. Snowball or chain referral sampling is widely used in qualitative sociological research with the purpose that requires the knowledge of an insider (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981). The snowball technique is used when other key persons are identified through certain network connections such as planning, budgeting, land ownership and local tourism. As mentioned by Jennings (2010), other members can be identified by a member of the population. Nevertheless, Mason (2002) reminds us that qualitative research is all about depth, nuance, complexity and understanding the important focus of the research question. Hence, the selection of the participants is determinant on the participants' knowledge of the interrelated

factors of ecotourism development within the research location – key stakeholder opinions being vital to achieve the thesis aim.

This study requires information that is particularly applicable to this research, and thus requires knowledge of an insider (Biernacki & Waldorf, 1981). This ensures the validity and reliability of information. With a focus of inviting the right candidates for the NGT, the pool of the purposive sample can use their social networks to potentially direct the researcher to have the key participants in the industry participate. The reliability and validity of the sampling techniques can be captured through the selection of appropriate participants who are directly influenced and have wider experiences in the political, socio-cultural, economic and environmental development of the research location. In this study, reliability is referred to as the stability of findings, whereas validity represents the truthfulness of the findings (Altheide & Johson, 1994; as cited in Whittemore, Chase, & Mandle, 2001, p. 523).

Therefore, in such instances, Krefting (1991, p. 214) emphasised that "Subjective meanings and perceptions of the subject are critical in qualitative research, and it is the researcher's responsibility to access the meaning". The target nominal group selected for this sample is also closely associated with the research area and is influential to the society in achieving transformational outcomes. In general, the research sample population for this study specifically involved the most relevant actors concerned with tourism planning and development in the research location. Indeed, the sample method is carefully based on the objectives of the research (Babbie, 2001; as cited in Churugsa, 2004).

The participants selected from various stakeholders include private and public sectors, academics, non-government organizations (NGOs), community leaders (Lababia village), and members of Kamiali (Lababia) Wildlife Management Area. The NGT session was carried out to obtain a consensus ranking of the key factors of facilitation of effective community

and stakeholder engagement and collaboration toward community-based ecotourism development. In the field situation, the procedure of the NGT was discussed with relevant stakeholders to ensure implementation of the NGT session was carried out successfully.

Table 9 shows the list of nominal group participants listed for participation. Initially, seventeen participants were invited from different tourism stakeholders in Morobe Province, to participate in the NGT session, however, only twelve participants turned up for the nominal group session. Hence, the following participants were not present: one Local Level Government (LLG), two non-government participants and two from the private sector. Regardless of those stakeholders not present the findings from the research were sufficient enough to answer the thesis aim.

Table 9. List of nominal group participants

No	No. of Participants	Type of Organisation
01	5	Community Leaders (Kamiali/Lababia)
02	4 1	Public sector (Provincial Government) Local Level Government
03	2	Private Sector
04	3	Academic
05	2	Non-Government Organisation VDT Staff, Environment and Conservation

In the field, the following participants were present: One Provincial Commerce Industry and Tourism Officer, three Division of Sports and Culture Officers, five Kamiali Wildlife Committee Members, and three

academics - Tourism and Hospitality Department, National Polytechnic Institute of Papua New Guinea. Therefore, twelve key representatives participated in the NGT session.

4.2.1.2.5 The NGT in the field

The NGT workshop was conducted on 12 November, 2013, at the National Polytechnic Institute of Papua New Guinea, Advocacy Training Centre. A Nominal Group Technique workshop programme is provided in Appendix 1 and a summary of data gathering and method tools is in Appendix 2. A talk on ecotourism and community-based ecotourism was given by the researcher before the main NGT session. Particularly, the concept of these two terms helped build an understanding among the stakeholders. Speeches about the importance of ecotourism were given by the academic representative and the provincial culture officer. The speeches were very much related to the questions of the NGT and the following semi-structured interviews. It appeared that the speeches built an understanding and interest about the importance of the research. After the talk, the research project and the NGT procedures were introduced by the researcher. The questions were explained to the participants as shown below.

The research question posed to participants in the NGT workshop:

1. How can we achieve effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in developing community-based ecotourism?
2. To what extent can effective participation be achieved in developing community-based ecotourism?

Accordingly, both the questions were answered appropriately to be able to answer the research aim, the key participants were able to propose some tourism issues and also gave some recommendations about how to achieve

effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in developing community-based ecotourism.

After the introduction of the research, participants were asked to write their answers to questions one and two using the index cards that had already been placed in front of them. The participants individually wrote down their answers without any form of discussion. The participants from the community, government and academic key representative responded well in the first phase. It took them about 40 minutes to write down what they thought about the two questions. Once all their answers were written, the facilitator (author) collected all the index cards and wrote the answers down on a flip chart. The answers were written down in alphabetical order. The flip chart was then put up for discussion and elimination of similar answers. The process took up to one hour.

Participants from the different stakeholders equally shared their ideas and thoughts during this time to make sure that their ideas were heard and that similar ideas were eliminated. The final response were written down on the flip chart. Then the participants were asked by the facilitator to each prioritise and rank their ideas according to the ranking point system provided, as shown in Table 8: most important, very important, important, less important and least important. The rating was visible to all participants. It was observed that the participants finished ranking their answers within 15 minutes. In general the NGT took about 4 hours, an hour longer than planned. The presentation of the final output was displayed for all participants to view. It appeared that the contributions of all participants were accepted. The stakeholders were happy with the NGT. The participants mentioned that there should be more workshops of this sort in the near future.

4.2.1.2.6 Data Analysis for NGT

Qualitative data analysis does not entertain external statistical generalisation since the aim of the research is usually not associated with

inferences about the sample population. Consequently, data analysis is about obtaining insights into particular educational, social, and familial processes that exist within the location and context (Connolly, 1998; as cited in Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007, p. 240).

Data collection in this study was derived from generation and identification of facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration to develop community-based ecotourism. Data were analysed by ranking the five most important answers from the group session. The analysis was readily available from the consensus reached by the participants. The consensus from the NGT were all used as a guide for the semi-structured interviews.

Section 4.4 discusses the semi-structured interviews, rationale for using semi-structured interviews and its implementation and analysis.

4.4 Method 2: Interviews

Interviews are a common method used by qualitative researchers depending on the manner and approach of the research conducted. Typically, the interviews can be conducted using unstructured (in-depth interview), semi-structured or structured interviews (Greener, 2011). Jennings (2010) pointed out that interviews are conversations that must be based on 'mutual trust' otherwise the end result of the interview can be unsatisfactory in achieving the research aims. The choice of interview type used in this research is semi-structured purposely allowing the interviewer to probe beyond the answers (May, 1997). A semi-structured interview was needed to answer the thesis aim in addition to NGT because of the need to justify and confirm the themes mentioned. The need for a semi-structured interview also helped to provoke and challenge the key findings from the NGT. The challenge provides the focus for the discussion and is well suited for the exploration of perceptions and opinions from the respondents. The next section discusses and justifies the method of semi-structured interviews.

4.4.1 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews were selected as the means of data collection. The two key reasons are for the purpose of exploring respondents' opinions about the sensitive issues and second, the varied professional, educational and personal histories of the sample group excluded the use of a standardized interview (Barriball & While, 1994).

Conversations with purpose relating to the issue and exchange with the researcher and participants is crucial, as the interviewer is meant to listen attentively and encourage the interviewee to talk (Jennings, 2010). As the questions are specified, the interviewer has the opportunity to probe more questions when necessary (May, 1997). Probes are follow-up questions that can usually increase the richness and depth of a response (Patton, 2002). The opportunity of using probing questions allows for information to be clarified and refined with solid interpretation (May, 1997). Detailed oriented probes such as when, how and what were few of the probing questions. In addition, elaboration probes and clarification probes were also important to this study.

As mentioned above, the interview process takes an interpretive approach. Hence, from an insider's view, an interpretive approach to this research seeks primary data from the interviewees (Mason, 2002). The purpose of the semi-structured interview in this research is to understand the social reality surrounding the issues associated with how effective stakeholders participate in order to support community-based ecotourism development in Lababia village. However, taking into consideration the subjectivity of human nature, individual constraints to critical issues related to the nature of the question produce subjective views (Jennings, 2010). Hence, section 4.4.2 discusses the rationale for using semi-structured interviews.

4.4.2 The rationale for using semi-structured interviews

Research objectives 3 and 4 of the thesis were to identify issues confronting the (eco) tourism stakeholders in planning and implementing local community participation. In addition, this process intends to recommend pathways that would contribute toward community-driven (eco) tourism in the case study area. Semi-structured interviews were selected as an appropriate method to accomplish these objectives. The goal is to explore in-depth understanding of the respondent's point of view, experiences, feelings, and perspectives about the research objectives (Jennings, 2010). The people's knowledge, views, understanding, interpretations, experiences and interactions are important (Mason, 2002). As Tribe (2001) mentioned, the goal is not to treat participants as objects but more as subjects.

It is the responsibility of the researcher to be fully aware of the implications while constructively uncovering the relevant specifics during the course of interview (Mason, 2002). Hence, semi-structured interviews will allow the researcher flexibility in responding to emerging issues that are considered important to the research objectives.

4.4.3 Sampling Process

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with key representatives at local and provincial levels at the Training and Advocacy Centre (at National Polytechnic Institute of Papua New Guinea) in Lae, Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea. Drawing on the NGT sampling proceedures described above the purposive sampling and snowball sampling methods were used to select the participants for the semi-structured interviews. Ultimately, the research questions in this method were based on specific issues related to the participation and collaborative efforts of ecotourism development in Lababia village, Papua New Guinea. Tourism stakeholders (private/public sectors and non-government sectors) and Kamiali Wildlife Community leaders and village leaders are identified and drawn from the nominal group

workshop and precisely selected according to their knowledge of the key issues aggregated from the NGT. The individual views are important because of the challenges the issues had on them and what the respondents feel in general following the NGT.

A group of 12 representatives from different stakeholders who participated in the NGT were selected through purposive sampling with relevance to their expertise and experiences in ecotourism development within the location. As Patton (2002, p. 230) pointed out "Information-rich cases for study, are those maybe from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the inquiry, thus the term purposive". In addition, the participants were identified according to their roles and responsibilities and how influential each individual is in the decision -making process. The participants were recognised as having more than 5 years in the tourism and hospitality industry or otherwise within the context of their experiences and knowledge in the political, social-cultural, economic, and tourism environment in Lababia. Hence, six participants out of the twelve from the nominal group session were selected from each stakeholder group.

From those twelve participants, six informants were asked to take part in the semi-structured interviews, each presenting the different stakeholders: two local community representatives, one provincial culture officer, one commerce industry and tourism officer and two academics (The National Polytechnic Institute of PNG – Tourism & Hospitality Department). The general aim was to determine the participants' perspectives on the development of community-based ecotourism development and the issues and impediments affecting the development. Table 10 shows the number of key informants who participated in the interviews.

Table 10. List of interviewed participants.

Total 6 people

Public sectors Provincial (informants selected from the NGT session)	Private Sector	Academics	Community leaders Local (informants selected from the NGT workshop)	Total
- 1 Provincial Tourism Officer - 1 Provincial Culture Officer	- Nil attendance	- 2 local academics (The National Polytechnic Institute of PNG – Tourism & Hospitality Department)	- 2 (informants from Lababia KWMA Committees)	
2	**0**	**2**	**2**	**6**

Selected interviewees were formally given invitation letters to participate after the nominal group session, stating two weeks' notice for preparation and also for the researcher to articulate the final themes ready for the semi-structured interview.

4.4.4 Conducting a Semi-structured Interview

Semi-structured interviews were conducted between November and December 2013 at the National Polytechnic Institute of Papua New Guinea. However, the provincial government officers were interviewed at the Morobe Provincial Tourism and Culture Office. Six representatives from the NGT were approached and all were willing to participate in the interviews. The interviews took approximately one hour per participant. Before the interview the participants were well informed about the procedures and what was expected of the outcome. All interviewees agreed on using the tape recorder so that accuracy of data could be ensured.

The purpose of the semi-structured interview was to identify issues and impediments confronting the (eco) tourism stakeholders in planning and implementing local community participation and to recommend pathways toward community-driven (eco) tourism in the case study area. Hence, the two leading questions were: (1) What are the barriers to developing community-based ecotourism development? (2) What are you prepared to do in order to achieve community-based ecotourism development? The interviewees were also given the opportunity to provide suggestions for the future development of community-based ecotourism development in Lababia. The discussion guide used in the interview (see Appendix 3 – interview schedule) were used as the basis for interview and the objective for revealing the perspective of the participants involved in tourism in Morobe. The interview guide was produced in this study as a guide for the researcher and the participants to effectively partake according to the time and date set aside for the interview. The interview as scheduled according to what time was appropriate for the participants. The interview focused on the responses of issues related to the development of community-based ecotourism in Lababia. The participants were reminded of the key issues discussed during the nominal group session.

4.4.5 Data Analysis

The procedures of data analysis of the semi-structured interviews began with transcribing tape-recorded interviews word-for-word to ensure the accuracy and validity of the data collected. As Patton (2002) has stated, verbatim transcription is seen as the essential raw data for qualitative analysis. After the interviews, the transcript was read by the researcher several times to ensure familiarity with data and the links to the objective of this study. The data collected from this study aimed to identify the issues and impediments confronting (eco) tourism stakeholders in planning and implementing local community participation and to recommend pathways toward community-driven (eco) tourism in the case study area. The ability of the participants to speak openly was evident by the free-ranging discussions that occurred in the interviews.

Although there were seven main themes created from the NGT session, several other issues were also noted. The interview was based on the two leading questions for the interview, plus the seven themes identified during the NGT session (Chapter 5 – Key issues).

Direct quotations recorded are used to present and support the research results in chapter 5. Basically, the raw data is used to reveal interviewees' perspectives in their own words. After the key questions were answered, the author provided a brief summary of their responses to be sure they were understood. After the summary, the interviewees were asked if the interviewer had accurately described what was said. According to Fitzpatrick, Sanders, and Worthen (2004) this kind of interview technique enhances trustworthiness of the findings (as cited in Hwang et al., 2012). As Hudley, Haight, and Miller (2003) mention that "Such interactive processes nuanced meaning and built a "thick description" to ensure credibility of the stories told" (as cited in Hwang et al., 2012, p. 331). For this study the key themes in responses were already interpreted and verified.

The transcripts were transcribed by the author, who is bilingual in Pidgin and English. Being an interactive process, the transcripts were read and analysed to identify facts and thematic narratives between the NGT and the stories that were told.

4.5 Ethical Considerations

As part of this study, ethical approval was granted by the Waikato Management School Human Research Ethics Committee. In consideration of ethical consent, participants were given a participant information sheet (see Appendix 4) with details outlining the purpose of this study. In addition, the participants were each given a consent form (see Appendix 5) stating their agreement to participate under the conditions set out in the information sheet. Therefore, as the participants were aware of the study and the purpose of the interview, he or she had to sign the consent form. This shows that the participant was volunteering to partake in the interview.

The main reason for going through these formalities is, as Greener (2011, p. 153) asserts, "ethics are regarded as the cornerstone of research, with everything in the researcher's power being done to make sure that different viewpoints are incorporated and that participants' words and ideas are presented fairly in the research". Hence, the selected participants and the researcher can achieve a more naturalistic environment and have a focus to achieve during the interview. As stated in Montgomery (2000), organisation is the key to success. Therefore, in terms of preparing for the interview, it is also vital for researchers to make sure that they are organised.

4.6 Limitations of the Study

This study has certain limitations in data collection, data analysis and data interpretation and responses from participants. The main limitation of this study is that it is focused on participants in one village alone in Papua New Guinea, and that is in Morobe Province. Therefore, conclusions on Lababia village are drawn from their perceptions and experiences and may not

necessarily be typical of perceptions and experiences of other rural areas in Papua New Guinea.

Another limitation of this study is that the non-government organisation operating within the Lababia area (Village Development Trust – VDT) is no longer in operation and their perceptions and experiences may not be represented well in this study.

Even though these limitations have been mentioned, the researcher has given careful consideration to the process of analyzing and interpreting the data.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has outlined the research methods used in this study to achieve the research aim: To examine the facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in ecotourism development and to identify ways as to how this may be achieved. The NGT and semi-structured interviews may not represent the whole population under qualitative methods, however compared with other methods, NGT and semi-structured interviews can provide productive, rich and valid data using sample groups in a particular location with limited time and resources, as confirmed by previous similar studies (e.g. Churugsa, 2004). The NGT and semi-structured interviews were deemed appropriate to this study. Lababia was selected as an appropriate area for the case study because of the current state of ecotourism in Lababia.

CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the methods used for data collection in order to achieve the aim of the study: to examine the facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in community-based ecotourism development in Lababia village, Morobe Province. Firstly, the study attempts to identify the factors affecting facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in Lababia village, and in addition, simultaneously answering the questions as to why these problems occur. This was achieved using the NGT session. The outcome of the NGT was used as the basis for the semi-structured interviews. The two leading questions for the semi-structured interviews were: (1) What are the barriers to community-based ecotourism development? (2) To what extent can effective participation be achieved in developing community-based ecotourism? The objective is to identify the key issues and provide recommendations to minimise the major impediments associated with what can be seen as successful participatory approaches. This chapter discusses and presents the results of the research.

The following findings and discussion first disclose the issues affecting community-based ecotourism development. Second, findings of the NGT are present and discussed. Third, the findings of the semi-structured interviews are reported and discussed. Finally, a summary of the chapter is presented.

5.2 Issues affecting community-based ecotourism development

Based on the actual findings as indicated below, in Lababia village, Morobe Province the stakeholder partnerships between the local community residents, private tourism stakeholders, and non-government organisations is not as effective as what it should be due to lack of support and benefits received from ecotourism businesses. For example, from the villagers' perspective the choice of new development opportunities is limited due to the lack of financial reward. The chairman of KWMA stated simply that *"mipla no save kisim money gut because long igat namel man"* – we do not get enough money because we have a third party involved". It is observed by Choi and Sirakaya (2005, p. 382) that:

> Community residents should derive some advantage from tourism. To successfully implement sustainable community tourism, this paradigm requires integrated vision, policy, planning, management, monitoring, and social learning processes. Active participation of the community can make sustainable community tourism viable. This viability can be created by opening well-developed management-communication channels with receptive governments.

In a similar fashion, Rees states that (cited in Gunn 1994), "…sustainable community tourism needs to prevent the deterioration of the social, cultural, and ecological systems of a host community" (as cited in Choi & Sirakaya, 2005, p. 382). For example, the study conducted by Wilson et al. (2001) in rural tourism development demonstrated the importance of a community approach to tourism development, rural tourism development, and entrepreneurship that showed the participation and collaboration of business persons directly and indirectly involved in tourism are inseparable. Like other economic developments, the literature has showed that tourism involves attractions, promotions, tourism infrastructures, services and

hospitality (Wilson et al., 2001). Hence, the above components and community assets are essential for development (Wilson et al., 2001).

At this stage, according to the local chairperson of Kamiali Wildlife Management Area (KWMA), VDT has ceased its operation and is no longer participating in promoting ecotourism. In this case, the local communities are facing problems in maintaining the ecotourism activities in Lababia due to a lack of support. However, there was evidence that the village upgraded water supply services with the help of VDT. For example, "VDT assist in upgrading various community services, the most important of which was the community water supply, and to sponsor various training programs related to sustainable forestry, conservation, tourism, the running of small businesses, and community planning" (Martin 1998, p. 3-4; as cited in Wagner, 2002, p. 147).

The next section discusses the findings of the Nominal Group Technique (NGT) session.

5.3 Findings of the NGT session

In this section, three significant points from the results of the NGT session are identified. The first point is the community's and stakeholders' perceptions on the effectiveness of their engagements. Secondly, the issues proposed and ranked by three individual sectors. Finally, on the basis of the NGT, further interviews were conducted to cross-check between the results of the NGT session to validate the data collected. The stakeholders in Lababia reportedly faced some impediments in delivering effective engagement and collaboration according to the data collected. There were two key questions under the NGT session: (1) How can we achieve effective participation in developing community-based ecotourism? (2) To what extent can effective participation be achieved in developing community-based ecotourism? The NGT technique is used to allow key stakeholders to participate willingly and fully develop a consensus document that can be aggregated to identify the main themes. Overall, the

process of ranking worked well, and the priority lists reflected group consensus.

The stakeholder engagement and collaboration issues raised from the NGT sessions revealed the perspectives of the group during the session. The four groups included the local community leaders (Lababia), academics, provincial commerce and tourism industry, and the provincial sports and culture representatives. Each group proposed and ranked the five most important issues of their group. Table 11 presents the 20 key issues collected from all four groups. The scores ranking the key issues of 1 to 20 (i.e. most important to least important) illustrate that these issues are broadly paid attention to by all groups of stakeholders.

Table 11. List of ranked priorities generated by three groups to questions 1& 2 (NGT session).

Importance Ranking	1 (5 scores)	2 (4 scores)	3 (3 scores)	4 (2 scores)	5 (1 score)	Total scores
K1	PS & A	CL				14
K2	CL &	A				14
K3	PS	A & CL				13
K4	CL	A & PS				13
K5	A	CL				9
K6	PS	CL				9
K7	PS	CL				9
K8			A & PS			6
K9			PS & A			6
K10	CL					5
K11		CL				4
K12		CL				4
K13		CL				4
K14		CL				4
K15		CL				4
K16		A				4
K17		CL				4
K18			CL			3
K19			CL			3
K20			CL			3

PS = Public Sector
A = Academic
CL = Community Leaders

Important Ranking
1 = most important
2 = very important
3 = important
4 = less important
5 =least important

Key Issues
KI 1 = Lack of community awareness: law and order, community values and importance of ecotourism
KI 2 = Lack of local skills and training
KI 3 = Lack of proper education and development plan
KI 4 = Lack of sufficient funds for development
KI 5 = Lack of promotions & marketing
KI 6 = Limited community involvement or control KI 7 = Lack of assistance from the District and Local Level Government (LLG) towards ecotourism development
KI 8 = Lack of facilities, standards & security
KI 9 = Lack of policy consultation and guidance
KI 10 = Lack of Infrastructural services
KI11= Lack of communications/networking (communication and consultation with other stakeholders).
KI 12 = Unity in community
KI 13 = Lack of management skills
KI 14 = Lack of coordination of community stakeholders and conflict
KI 15 Lack of information sharing
KI 16 Lack of cultural protection
KI 17 Limited affiliation with other stakeholders
KI 18 Lack of government support
KI 19 Lack of visitation by community development officers (government)
KI 20 Land disputes and ownership

As shown in Table 11, overall, lack of community awareness - key issue one (KI 1) (on points such as law and order and community values, importance of ecotourism), lack of local skills and training, key issue two (KI 2), lack of proper education and development plan, key issue three (KI 3), and lack of sufficient funds for development, key issue four (KI 4) were issues listed by all respondents across the 3 stakeholder groups. The public sector group followed by the academic group, ranked lack of community awareness as the 'most important' of the issues, whilst the community leaders placed it as 'very important'. The community leader group and public sector group placed 'most important' on lack of local skills and training, (K2), whilst the academic group placed it as 'very important'. In addition, the public sector group placed 'most important' on the lack of education and development plan, (KI 3), whilst the academic group followed by community leaders, rated KI 3 as 'very important'.

Lack of sufficient funds for development, key issue four (KI 4), was rated as 'most important' by the community leaders and as 'very important' by the academic followed by the public sectors. The reason for this issue being ranked more highly by community leaders in contrast to other groups may be attributed to the fact that at present the rate of development is very slow and the ecotourism activities and facilities are deteriorating according to the village leaders. For example, according to the Kamiali Chairman, he says that "the Kamiali Guest house is deteriorating due to lack of financial assistance". The Kamiali leaders say that they do not have the money to maintain the ongoing operation of the guesthouse.

The key issues from five to seven (KI 5 to K 7) indicate lack of promotions and marketing (KI 5), limited community involvement or control (KI 6), and lack of assistance from the District and Local Level Government (LLG) towards ecotourism development (KI 7), were all broadly ranked as 'most important' by both the academic and public sector, whilst community leaders rated those three issues as 'very important'. This may reveal that the

academic group and public sector group considered that local communities are most times not included in the decision making processes and implementation. Hence, community involvement, promotions and marketing and more importantly, assistance from the District and LLG were recommended as most important to the community and that the District and LLG must be involved. This was the main concern. Community leaders argued that they are often not being assisted by the Huon District Officer in terms of promoting and marketing tourism. Lack of assistance from the District and LLG towards ecotourism development (KI 7) was ranked as 'most important' by public sectors, whilst 'very important' by the community. These issues are currently faced by the local community.

It was the Village Development Trust (VDT) that historically always supported Lababia ecotourism. However, the VDT has already withdrawn its support; so the project of Kamiali Wildlife Management Area (KWMA) has been stagnant for almost five years. Support such as marketing and promotion and community involvement were some of those issues appropriately managed and coordinated well by VDT. As the research found, the local participants pointed out that marketing and promotion of ecotourism activities in Lababia seemed easier to promote and market with external parties, such as the tour operators and VDT.

Lack of standards, security and facilities, key issue eight (KI 8), and lack of infrastructural services, key issue nine (KI 9), were both ranked as 'important' by the public sector group and the academic group. Perceived as a 'moderate' issue to consider, the public sector and the academic sector groups are aware of the impact of poor standards, security and facilities, as cooperation amongst these stakeholders and local community is important in terms of their roles in tourism development. The community rated key issue ten (KI 10) as 'most important', due to the lack of infrastructural services as a major issue in planning towards ecotourism development in Lababia. This may reveal that roads and other transport infrastructure also provide households with better access to markets that may help them

engage in a wider range of income earning activities. However, at present, locals from Lababia and tourists struggle with the high cost of sea transport, as reported by the local leaders.

The key issues from eleven to fifteen (KI 11 to KI 15) were each ranked by only one sample group, the community leaders. They particularly stated key issues eleven to fifteen (K11 to K15) due to the experiences mostly felt by the community. For example, the community leaders rated key issue eleven to fifteen (KI 11 to KI 15), 'very important', as the issue of lack of communication/networking and consultation with other tourism stakeholders (KI 11) was very difficult to establish with locals. In addition, the issue of unity in the community (KI 12) was often a major issue due to unequal benefits amongst the people. Lack of management skills (KI 13) has been an ongoing issue due to changes in the management roles and lack of training in managerial roles. Lack of coordination of community stakeholders and conflict (KI 14) focusses on the role of each stakeholder to participate effectively in tourism planning and development. Lack of coordination is a major issue at present. Lack of information sharing (KI 15) directly affects the local community and the local economy through less information sharing amongst the new and old contributors to ecotourism development. The know-how skill is not passed on to the younger generations due to personal reasons. For example, vital information such as the international contacts, managerial skills and training, tourists' information, guest-house details and other aid programmes are not shared. This can also have a major impact on planning and development.

Lack of cultural protection, key issue sixteen (KI 16) was ranked as 'very important' by the academic group as this group promote cultural preservation for future generations according to the principles of sustainable ecotourism.

Limited affiliation with other stakeholders, key issue seventeen (KI 17) was ranked as a 'very important' issue by the community leaders. This may

reveal that community leaders have experienced limited sources of assistance in terms of development and planning. Where there is limited knowledge of tourism, the external agents can provide the support. Lack of government support (KI 18) was rated as important issue by the local community leaders. As reported by the community leaders, the issue of government support has been an ongoing issue as perceived by the locals in the sense that as far as tourism development and other business opportunities is concerned people have been struggling with the range of tourism development options. The potential markets of tourism require the government support that should be recognised in the tourism destinations.

Lack of visitation by community development officers, key issue nineteen (KI 19), land disputes, and ownership were each rated as 'important' by the community leaders. It is also mandatory that the community development officers from the local level government and district officers assist locals with community developments. As it results, the problems and issues are faced at the community level. Ninety-eight percent of the land in Papua New Guinea is owned by customary rights and reflects the culture of the country with constant rearrangement of power, authority and land tenure (Zeppel, 2006). The land rights and traditional hierarchical system of leadership reflects on the changes in power benefits to any development. Table 12 shows the consensus ranking on issues and problems faced by Lababia village.

Table 12. Top consensus ranking - issues/problems.

Similar Key Issues	Diverse Key Issues
1. Lack of community awareness: law & order, community values, importance of ecotourism	Lack of infrastructural services
2. Lack of local skills & training	Lack of communications/networking
3. Lack of proper education & HR development	Lack of Unity in the community
4. Lack of sufficient funding for development	Lack of management skills
5. Lack of promotions & marketing	Lack of policy consultation and guidance
6. Limited community involvement or control	Lack of assistance from the LLG & District Office
7. Lack of information sharing	Lack of cultural protection
8. Lack of facilities, standards & security	Lack of Government support
9. Lack of coordination of community stakeholder and conflict	Lack of visitation by community development officers (government)
	Land disputes and ownerships
	Lack of affiliation with other stakeholders

5.4 Response from Individual Sector Group

5.4.1 The Community Response to the Issues Affecting Community-Based Ecotourism in Lababia

Since ecotourism was introduced to Lababia, it initially began with Kamiali Wildlife Management Area (KWMA) as a Biological Research Centre in

Papua New Guinea. From the research, the perspective of participants on community-based ecotourism development was quite a challenge due to lack of support from tourism stakeholders.

The Kamiali Wildlife Management Area committees' focus was based on contributions to ecotourism development within the community: the welfare benefits, the protection of the natural environment, and the local economy. Hence, the findings from the participants' perspective were grouped into three aspects of concern: economic, socio-cultural and environment.

Table 13. Response from the community leaders.

Key Issues		
Economic	**Socio-cultural**	**Environment**
Lack of transparency	Lack of awareness/training	Improve local participation in conservation and environmental issues
Unequal distribution of wealth	Lack of community participation by resource owners	Improve knowledge and understanding on environmental issues
Lack of financial assistance	Lack of negotiation skills	
Lack of technical support	Lack of networking & communication	
Lack of incentives for locals to start ecotourism business	Lack of community participation in exhibition in tourism	
Lack of product development	Lack of technical support in creating more tourism products	
High transport/utility, accommodation cost	Limited unity in community	
Lack of marketing opportunities	Limit third party involvement	
	Lack of Youth involvement	
	Land disputes and ownership	
	Loss of cultural &traditional knowledge	

Table 13, findings from the NGT, show that there is a lack of shared information about community-based ecotourism and its activities within the community. As the research found, the local community complained that the benefits from tourism activities were not equally distributed to them. As a result, unequal distribution of wealth has created a lack of interest and participation in the whole community. From the community's perspective, they were not involved in decision making and the planning process. Due to lack of knowledge and skills, education and training programmes need to be conducted regularly. Also, education and training for youth and members of the community has been suggested for future priority. On the one hand, whilst having the need to equally share benefits, stakeholders may need to establish and provide effective ways to involve the local community. On the other hand, the study found that the sources of funding and technical support were very limited due to the lack of support from the tourism stakeholders.

The local people have struggled with minimal assistance from the tourism stakeholders (private/government/non-government organisations). To establish effective engagement and collaboration, as stated in Bith (2011) it can often be seen as problematic due to the individual benefits and their priorities. In addition, as argued in Tosun (2005), complexities such as lack of transparencies, political instability, lack of information and data about development issues, and undemocratic special circumstances make it difficult to simultaneously highlight tourism and local participation in developing nations. However, stakeholders are dependent on the circumstances and efficiencies of the parties involved, either externally or internally. Therefore, as stated in Byrd (2006), considering the circumstances and the efficiencies, stakeholder participation can be facilitated or implemented in a variety of ways, both formal and informal, to cater for their own interests.

To establish a network, the local community and the tourism stakeholder may need to establish a provincial tourism association to coordinate all the

tourism activities within the province. The findings revealed that there was a lack of affiliation and interaction with other stakeholders which has significantly contributed to poor communication and networking. As Mr Bose the Provincial Culture Officer reported, technical support, such as communication in the form of two-way radio or satellite services may be needed in the community to fully extend good communication and networking among the tourism stakeholders and the community.

As stated in Reid et al. (2004), without much admission and implementation community participation or measures necessary for tourism development, communities can possibly turn to being less supportive, and that could threaten the sustainability of development in the future. Therefore, regular planning and consultation may need to be established in order to successfully manage the provincial tourism activities within the cities and in rural areas. In addition, understanding and knowledge of various issues should lead to better and more effective management of tourism by the tourism stakeholders and the local community. Overall, the community leaders stated that lack of understanding and knowledge about community-based ecotourism development and planning has often limited the unity in the community.

Business opportunities were limited due to a lack of tourism product and market development. Also, local tourism markets are often discouraged by the high cost of transport and /utility costs. It was evident from the finding of the research that the community leaders may need better understanding and knowledge about the coordination with other stakeholders to effectively collaborate and engage in developing cost-effective and marketable products. The tourism stakeholders and the communities need to understand that each stakeholder controls resources such as knowledge, expertise, constituency and capital, therefore alone they are not able to possess all the resources needed to gain their objectives and to also plan for the future effectively (Bramwell & Lane, 2000).

The findings of the research revealed that community-based ecotourism development in Lababia in its capacity to accomplish its goals in ecotourism development is dependent on all the tourism stakeholders to engage and participate effectively in order to benefit from each other. In fact, however, the local communities should also be taken into consideration when planning and establishing community-based ecotourism development. Lack of financial and technical resources were reported as still lacking by both the academic and government sectors. Therefore, this perspective can be seen as part of the planning process to be taken into future consideration. Consequently, joint participation brings benefits and even distribution to local people that are appropriately targeted (Lindberg & Hawkins, 1993). For example, as a quest to sustainable development, Nepal's Trekking industry incorporated multiple stakeholders to initiate better conditions for porters (Wearing & Neil, 2009).

In a nutshell the findings from the NGT session have raised a lot of thoughts about the issues and how well the stakeholders and the government can collaboratively work together and help the community to achieve community-based ecotourism development. The problems and issues need to be resolved urgently. A senior tourism lecturer from the National Polytechnic Institute, in his speech at the Advocacy Training Centre in the province, mentioned emphasis on the need for equal participation and information sharing through the potential establishment of a Provincial Tourism Association.

Section 5.5 further talks about the perspectives of relevant stakeholders.

5.5 The Perspectives of Relevant Stakeholders

The findings from the semi-structured interviews with participants from the government, community and academic participants in Morobe Province also showed several factors that contributed to the poor engagement and collaboration of relevant stakeholders. The research revealed that the key

barriers or problems hindering the progress and development of ecotourism in Lababia were mostly related to the following:

5.5.1 Human Resource Development

One of the key problems linked to education and social goals is the lack of skills training. An analysis of the interviews reveals poor opportunities for workplace training and other tourism skills related training. For example, employment opportunities in the rural community is limited due to less educated people. Literate people have frequent opportunities to work in the ecotourism projects as reported by Mr Tsui, Chairman of Kamiali Wildlife Management Area. As a result, often the illiterate local people complain that the benefits are not reaching them due to unemployment. However, the major economic and social benefits which tourism can generate for the Province are employment opportunities. The Provincial Tourism Officer stated that one of the areas requiring immediate attention is the need to provide a trained and skilled workforce in the areas which include the following. He was also referring to what he knew from his experience and from the Morobe Tourism Master Plan. Hence, the following listed below are still lacking in the province:

- o Guiding services (porters, fishing, and hiking guides);
- o Tour operators;
- o Transport operators (boats);
- o Guesthouse operators and staff;
- o Tourism industry personnel (extension officers);
- o Hotel/lodge workforce (stewards, chefs, and housemaids); and
- o Attraction and activity operators (dive operators, cultural performers).

The provincial tourism officer with his many years of experiences in the tourism industry, outlined those key issues as factors that needed to be

addressed. Section 5.5.1.1 shows a number of key issues that require stakeholders to address.

5.5.1.1 A Number of Key issues to be Addressed:

The following listed below are a few of the issues mentioned by the Provincial Tourism Officer during an interview conducted with him at the Morobe Provincial Tourism Office. To confirm those points he also mentioned that the Morobe Tourism Master Plan since 1990 has also revealed similar key issues which were:

- o A general lack of understanding of what tourism actually is and the level of expertise required to make it work;
- o Lack of marketable cuisine and knowledge on food preparation (for visitors);
- o Absence of professional tour guides and tour operators; and
- o Lack of tourism planning and administrative skills at government level.

The Morobe Provincial Tourism Officer, stated that:

Community resentment and disagreements develop and sometimes cause serious problems among the tourism stakeholders due to misunderstanding and lack of tourism awareness.

He continued by saying that the lack of understanding has often been the main barrier between the community and the other tourism stakeholders, such as the tour operators. However, as stated in Wisansing (2004) appropriate process, criteria and structures are essential in the process of undertaking a participatory planning approach. Hence, as stated in Bramwell and Lane (2000), relationships to local people should demonstrate

a positive attitude and that it is important that the host community must not be neglected. Therefore, in that sense this should minimise the act of resentment and disagreements among the stakeholders and the local community.

5.5.2 Lack of Community Awareness

Lack of tourism awareness to the locals and the tourism staff (government/private staff) is an important factor that is currently ongoing. The Morobe Tourism Officer stated that generally most people are not aware of the benefits and the impacts tourism can bring to a society or country. In a wider discussion, the provincial government stated that in order for tourism to be successful, people need to know that they need operational support, training, product distribution and marketing. Lack of understanding contributes to lack of communication and misunderstanding about the impacts and benefits of tourism.

5.5.2.1 Community Awareness Campaign

The Morobe Tourism Master Plan claim that a key role with the Morobe Tourism Bureau (MTB), in conjunction with various Provincial Government agencies, will need to perform the development and implementation of a community awareness campaign (Morobe Tourism Master Plan, p. 149). This is required to assist all communities/villages to more fully understand:

- The need for visitors;
- How the tourists industry works – wholesalers, commissions, and packaging
- The benefits visitors can provide (social, economic and environment); and
- The way to avoid misunderstanding and conflict between the visitors and the host community;
- Fulfilling visitor expectations created by marketing.

5.5.3 Communication and Negotiation Skills

It is widely agreed by all the interviewees that lack of communication and negotiation skills are again fundamental issues as proposed by the respondent in the NGT session. Local leaders and the community have limited access to communicate with urban tourism stakeholders due to failures in technology connection. However, face to face verbal communication is also a problem due to lack of understanding and knowledge. In addition, the negotiation process is quite a challenge and often not successfully achieved. The KWMA Chairman, Mr Tusi, further elaborated and stated that negotiation process at the village level is quite challenging due to the different demands from the traditional landowners. He mentioned that village people sometimes go against and do not work well with the community leaders due to their self-interest. They said that due to lack of tourism awareness people have limited knowledge of the future benefits.

In addition, the village leaders also stated that from their experiences poor communication and/network coverage make it harder for communicating with other tour operators and international tour wholsalers. The village leaders mentioned during the interview that they are often surprised that international visitors arrive at the village without proper notice given in advance. This has been going on for some time. Even worse, they stated that at present Lababia village is not connected to landline telephone services or any radio system. As a result, there is lack of motivation and drive to prosper through willingness to participate.

5.5.4 Management and Coordination

As stated by the community leaders, that lack of management and coordination in community-based ecotourism development has created

poor standards for tourism services. Although, as mentioned by the provincial tourism officer, project managers and government officers lack the knowledge of proper documentation, international competitive costs of goods and services, convenience of international accessibility, supply and presentation of suitable facilities, general security and safety standards and leadership industry participation. As a result, ineffective developmental plans makes it difficult to prosper and do well. According to both the community leaders and the academics at the National Polytechnic Institute of Papua New Guinea, they agreed that there is still more consideration of proper planning and development. In addition, the Morobe Tourism Officer argued that there is a general need to better manage resources.

On the one hand, tourism has a leading role to play in conservation, and tourism development should actually encourage the need for full environmental impact assessments and ongoing research studies. Hence, the main benefits of community tourism are based on effective management and coordination collectively recognised by the community and the tourism stakeholders.

Section 5.5.5 discusses the lack of sufficient funding support.

5.5.5 Lack of sufficient funding support

The respondents from the interview proposed that there is lack of sufficient funding support to the local level for community-based ecotourism projects. A representative from the academic sector recommended that:

> *More funding is needed in the rural sectors to develop quality tourism products and train skilled people. The more money pumped into tourism, or for this matter the local rural tourism, then more tourism benefits are achieved.*

The funding for the local community are mostly provided by local level government. Therefore, standard funding proposals should be given to the community development officers to assist with proper implementation of ecotourism development plans, tourism awareness and training, proper hospitality and catering facilities.

Section 5.5.6 discusses the land ownership issues.

5.5.6 Land Ownership Issues

The chairman of Kamiali Wildlife Management Area, Mr Tusi Nadang commented that:

> *Land ownership is a major issue in the village. Tourism products are owned by several landowners and sometimes make it difficult for us to compromise on the benefits received. Tribes and clans argue on how much benefit they should get out of any development in the village, including the tourism returns.*

According to the government officers, the problem of land ownership should be resolved urgently in order to develop community-based ecotourism. The community leaders mentioned that the control of land is with male succession. However, as many clans have intermarried, the actual number of individuals with land rights is difficult to ascertain in the absence of written recording processes. Therefore, this creates difficulties when consultation with all landowners is required.

The village interviewees need to state which opportunities arise over time. Therefore, attractive financial returns are to be made from selling or leasing land for tourism development purposes. However, the village leaders stated that there is the ongoing risk of conflict between customary land owners if land is leased or freehold, but not all owners are consulted and consents

obtained. They further stated that this is already leading to disputes between landowners over leases granted for commercial logging, agriculture and other sectoral developments. Meanwhile, as reported by the Provincial Tourism Officer, "unless the investors are able to secure freehold land from customary landowners, the risk of land disputes and unworkable partnerships will deter future investment".

As the Provincial Tourism Officer stated, "a review of the Morobe Tourism Master Plan indicated that a national cultural property body has been established under the National Cultural Commission Act with its role to preserve and maintain national asserts and properties including historical sites and war relics". Therefore, it was proposed by the academics from the National Polytechnic Institute that the provincial field officers need to work closely with the villagers in locating and identifying possible tourism assets.

Section 5.5.7 discusses the transportation issue.

5.5.7 Transportation

The cost of travel to the village is becoming expensive for visitors to afford. All the interviewees reported that even though there are lots of attractive sites to visit one of the factors contributing to less numbers of visitors travelling is because the boat costs are currently expensive.

They reported that the mode of transport to the village is by banana boats only. They further mentioned that the standard form of sea transport currently to the village is fibreglass 19ft boats (sometimes up to 23ft) with 75/40hp engines commonly referred to as banana boats. As reported by the community leaders, this vessel provides an important sea transport link and offers regular services between the coastal villages, depending on sea conditions.

However, the Provincial Culture Officer, Mr Bose, stated that from a tourism perspective there are a variety of factors that have to be considered if

banana boats are to be an acceptable option for tourism use. The Provincial Tourism Officer stated that according to the Morobe Tourism Master Plan (1998, p.77), these include:

- The provision of seats and life jackets are mandatory;
- The ongoing and regular maintenance of engines and general equipment;
- Safety gear such as radios, flares, water and spare fuel.

In addition, he reported, "according to the Morobe Tourism Master Plan, the plan states that to improve the attractiveness of these vessels for tourism purposes it is recommended that:

- Banana boats be painted in traditional designs;
- A dedicated banana boat base (with jetty) be established in Lae city;
- A schedule of fees (per passenger) be listed so visitors can see the cost of getting to the various locations;
- Banana boat operators should be required to be endorsed via an accreditation scheme as a tourism boat operator before they can carry tourists.

The village leaders proposed that the local level government should start looking at providing solutions to help boat operators in maintaining the services at the most agreeable standard. This leads the discussion to the next section about proper direction from the Provincial Government down to the Local Level Government (LLG).

5.5.8 Proper Direction from the Provincial Government down to the Local Level Government

From the academics' perspective, Mr Peter Imbal, a senior tourism lecturer at the National Polytechnic Institute of PNG, stated that "there is still a lack of direction or clear vision passed down from the Provincial Government to the District and Local Level Government (LLG). Mr Imbal further states that:

Officers in charge of helping locals with community development projects still lack clear directives from the office. It's either that or maybe they lack tourism knowledge.

According to the Morobe Tourism Master Plan on the exiting tourism master policy, the national government through its agency, the Tourism Promotion Authority (TPA), has an overview role as well as a coordination role for regional tourism. It has a close working relationship with provincial governments, regional authorities and the industry at a local and national level. According to the Morobe Tourism Master Plan (1998), at a national level the Government has a mandate to implement policies and strategies which address industry and related issues including:

- The international competitive costs of goods and services delivered;
- The relative convenience of international accessibility;
- The supply and presentation of suitable facilities;
- The general security and safety standards and maintenance of law and order;
- Government leadership and industry participation; and
- Equitable resolution of land ownership.

The next section discusses the role of Provincial Government.

5.5.8.1 Role of Provincial Government

As stated by the Provincial Tourism Officer, Mr. Joe Kevere, according to the National Government Tourism Policy of Papua New Guinea, the provincial governments play a major role in the tourism development process. They are responsible for the following:

- Establishing provincial tourism offices;

- Developing provincial five year tourism development plans;
- Physical planning;
- Creating an environment conducive to local participation;
- Developing local tourism marketing;
- Provincial tourism product inventory;
- Land issues for tourism development process.

Further, Mr. Kevere, pointed out that the role of Provincial Government in the implementation of tourism policy is:

- Leasing with public authorities, local communities and the private sector to encourage and promote tourism development in accordance with the objectives of the PNG Tourism Development Policy;
- Working closely with the PNG Tourism Promotion Authority (TPA) to prepare provincial plans that identify potential development opportunities and provide guidelines for tourism development. As part of this process, assist with identification of tourism development sites and appropriate forms of development;
- Develop planning controls and policies that will facilitate the establishment of commercially viable tourism enterprises;
- Ensure that development proposals are of high standards;
- Encourage the establishment of new tourism plants and infrastructure by providing assistance and positive advice to developers.

He further stated that to encourage the enhancement of the local area, the host region should have improvement and development of:

- Access to attraction sites;
- Quality visitor facilities and amenities such as picnic areas, rest areas, public toilets, parks and reserves and boat ramps;

- The appearance of towns, villages and attraction;
- The appearance of major entrance roads and at the main points of visitor activities is done through landscaping and planting;
- The appearance of shop fronts and advertising structures;
- Effective signposting to towns villages and attractions, services and scenic routes.

Section 5.5.9 discusses the relationship to Morobe Province.

5.5.9 Relationship to Morobe Province

According to the Provincial Tourism Officer, with respect to the effective development of tourism in Morobe Province, effective policies and related strategies are required to overcome current constraints identified as:

- The high costs of goods and services to the tourism industry in Morobe Province in a number of areas;
- The cost of air access to Morobe Province (particularly internationally);
- The need to develop and upgrade appropriate tourism infrastructure including more suitable facilities (visitor information outlets, marine development and wharves, lodges, guesthouses and entertainment centres);
- The perception of law and order problems, particularly in Lae city;
- The issue of land tenure and difficulty securing appropriate sites for tourism development due to existing customary land ownership over 97% of the Province.

The Provincial Tourism Officer stated that "certainly there are problems that affect and hinder the development of ecotourism in areas of Morobe rural ecotourism sites". He further stated that however, ecotourism is good for Morobe Province and will certainly benefit the host community. Section 5.6

further elaborates on the case study of Lababia with stakeholder engagement and participation.

5.6 A case study of Lababia in stakeholder engagement and participation

Understanding of community-based ecotourism requires direct knowledge and experience from the community which forms the basis for the management of the socio-cultural impacts in order for the communities to engage in ongoing development and enhancement through ecotourism (Wearing, 2002). In this case, there is limited knowledge and understanding in planning and developing community-based ecotourism. This could have been due to the lack of collaboration and participation between the tourism stakeholders. The results relate to land ownership conflict, communications, transportation, community's perception of poor assistance from the district and local level government, lack of ecotourism knowledge, lack of community participation, lack of financial and technical assistance, and unclear direction from the provincial government down to the local level government.

In order for the provision of the local, regional or national government consultative and continuous financial support to community initiatives (Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999) a community must have an implementation strategy. In addition, as stated in Jackson and Morpeth's (1999) study, Agenda 21 challenges local authorities to adopt policy goals encompassing sustainable development to incorporate participative, collaborative processes that should involve local communities in defining sustainable futures. One such movement can engage and encourage the community to involve in tourism planning and involvement. As stated in Simmons (1994) this can mean changing the balance of power amongst the stakeholders to the advantage of some or all members of the community.

Unity in the community is an essential attachment and in particular, locals need to work together to address and solve specific locale-oriented needs

and problems. As stated in Entwisle et al. (2007) community participation and involvement is necessarily seen as relational and involves ties between individual or groups. Locals need to trust each other and also trust each other in decisions, planning and management. Where relevant, participation by all stakeholders should be considered important throughout the process. In general the stakeholders are involved in major developmental programs and projects such as:

- Establishment of Morobe Tourism Bureau;
- Facilitation of Morobe Tourism Master Plan;
- Conducting tourism training programs;
- Facilitation of cruise ship arrival and departure;
- Facilitation of Provincial, District, Local Level Government Cultural Festivalsl;
- Establishment of networks with government agencies and other stakeholders;
- Association with Wildlife Management Areas and Conservation projects.

As stated in Bramwell and Lane (2003, p. 4) each stakeholder controls resources such as knowledge, expertise, constituency and capital, but alone they are not able to possess all the resources needed to gain their objectives and to also plan for the future effectively. For example, increased tourism activities in the province such as increased development in accommodation sector, product development, increases in transport sector, local communities' participation, cultural activities and local tourism market hub are some of the activities in the province that stakeholders engage to provide services to the visitors. Hence, as stated in Lindberg and Hawkins (1993) joint participation brings benefits and even distribution to local people that are appropriately targeted. As reported by Mr Ali Paul, senior tourism lecturer (National Polytechnic Institute of PNG), the local, national and

regional governments must work closely with the local people to have tourism products develop fully.

Section 5.7 discusses the connections between barriers to effective tourism development.

5.7 Connections Between Barriers to Effective Tourism Development

The assistance of leadership is an important factor and thus requires assistance from external stakeholders (Moscardo, 2008). Barriers to effective tourism development such as losses of local leaders, limited infrastructure, lack of funding or financial support, limited or no coordination mechanism and no implementation of plans are few of the key problems. For example, lack of tourism knowledge is a critical barrier that limits the ability of locals to participate in tourism development.

In addition, support from the local government development, widespread community support, coordination and cooperation between stakeholders and entrepreneurs and information and technical assistance for promotion are some of the success factors that can bring potential connectedness to tourism development (Wilson et al 2001; as cited in Moscardo, 2008, p. 7). Other success factors to effective tourism development include local government control over development, high levels of community development, good connections to tourism distribution systems, market research and planning, support for local leaders, government support for education, and funding schemes, and investment in transport infrastructure (Moscardo, 2008, p. 7). Effective tourism development occurs when we choose tourism and focus on the total visitor experience and appropriate development. Equal stakeholder and community participation and engagement is the key to the success.

5.8 Chapter Summary

The case study of Lababia revealed that the community and stakeholder perception of community-based ecotourism and stakeholder collaboration and engagement is a general concern that is beyond the control of local people. The complexity of effects of most issues indicated results related to ineffective stakeholder participation as well as the inability to maintain the mutual understanding among local level government, provincial government, academic institution and the community itself. The understanding from the literature clearly states that different public administrations, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), private institutions and the local community itself must participate and work together (López-Guzmán, Sánchez-Cañizares, & Pavón, 2011).

The aim of this study was to examine community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in an ecotourism development in PNG. And to what extent can effective participation be achieved in developing community-based ecotourism? In the case of Lababia the common themes identified during the nominal group technique session were basically issues and problems identified as unequal participation both in the government, community, the private sector and NGOs. The practicality of effective participation was a major problem. Overall, the community response to government support was very poor. The reason being that some may have not understood how they can contribute to tourism development or that tourism was not a concern or priority to them.

From the academic response, the academics are willing to conduct training and provide advice to both the local community and the local government but they are not being approached. It is demonstrated that lack of effective community and stakeholder participation, common understating and knowledge have been major impediments. Tourism must be developed in a sustainable manner with greater emphasis on community participation; such an ideal is currently non-existent. Representatives from different

stakeholders must have an interest in tourism and also have broader understanding and appreciation of community-based tourism for the benefit of the community in the long run.

In short, as pointed out in López-Guzmán et al. (2011, p. 69) according to Nyaupane et al. (2006), "the main limitations local communities have to face when implementing tourism projects are the following: lack of financial resources, infrastructure or know-how; limitations of a cultural kind; and potential conflicts between the different public administrations'. Hence, as stated in Reed (2008), where relevant participation should be considered as early as possible and throughout the process, representing relevant stakeholders systematically with clear objectives.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Overview of Research

As stated by the United Nations World Tourism Organization, tourism has made a significant contribution to the socio-economic development of many Pacific Island countries (United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2011). According to the Pacific Regional tourism context, Papua New Guinea is recognised under the developing group that features some of the fastest industries and unrealised potential niche markets (Organisation, 2013). Papua New Guinea recorded over 164,000 international visitors in 2011, an increase of more than 14% or an additional 20,000 arrivals compared to 2010, with visitors injecting an estimated K1.6 billion into the national economy (Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority (PNGTPA), 2006).

The aim of the thesis has been to examine the community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in an ecotourism development in Papua New Guinea, Lababia village, and to address the question: To what extent can effective participation be achieved in developing community-based ecotourism? Lababia village has provided an appropriate case study because of its continued rapid decline in the number of tourists arrivals and the presence of negative stakeholder participation despite its historical and environmental potentials. The four research objectives are to first examine the key theoretical constructs of community- based (eco) tourism. Second, to examine to what extent these constructs (in objective 1) are implemented in a case study of an ecotourism area. Third, to identify issues and impediments confronting the (eco) tourism stakeholders in planning and implementing local community participation. And finally to recommend pathways toward community-driven (eco) tourism in the case study area. Specifically, this research provides an opportunity to broaden the understanding of the relationship between the tourism industries, the

external and internal stakeholders, and the host region in terms of their participation and initiatives towards community-based ecotourism.

Regardless, of the fact that tourism is one of the world's most important sources of employment (Moscardo, 2008), the perception of effective community-based ecotourism development, and the importance of stakeholder engagement and participation is still a great concern. As stated in Buckley (2009, p. 218) community-based ecotourism is a particular type of ecotourism, with a primary focus on involving local communities and providing them with social and economic benefits.

Hence, the development of the tourism industry is reliant on a partnership between the government, industry, and the people of PNG (Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority (PNGTPA), 2006). As stated in Waligo, Clarke, and Hawkins' (2013) study, leadership quality, information quality and accessibility, stakeholder mind-sets, stakeholder involvement capacity, stakeholder relationships and implementation priorities are noted as key factors influencing stakeholder involvement in sustainable tourism. However, lack of tourism planning and implementation of regulations, proper management and little attention to problem solving, conflict resolution and lack of understanding stem from ineffective stakeholder collaboration and engagement. The local government and the national government have to regularly increase its support and assistance. This can also motivate the staff and the locals from actively participating. In this case, Lababia village has gone through a lot of challenges and issues during the development stages since the 1960s.

Tourism stakeholders have the challenge to participate actively to achieve positive growth in tourism without having to negatively harm or degrade the economic and social benefits of communities (Ross, 2002). Simultaneously, there is a need to maintain the environment and cultures upon which the tourism industry is based (Ross, 2002) and minimise inefficiency. As Murphy (1985) indicated, community participation is central to the

alternative ecotourism concept (in this case CBET) such that participation in planning is necessary to ensure that benefits reach residents (Simmons, 1994; as cited in Campbell, 1999).

The Nominal Group Technique (NGT) was used to document the current issues and problems. The NGT is a method of systematically developing a consensus of group opinion about the following questions: (1) How can we achieve effective participation in developing community-based ecotourism? (2) To what extent can effective participation be achieved in developing community-based ecotourism? The NGT technique was used to allow key stakeholders to participate willingly and to fully develop a consensus document that can be aggregated to identify the main themes. Table 6 shows the twenty key issues collected from the NGT. Some of the main issues and problems are in relation to land ownership, financial and technical support, lack of awareness and training, lack of understanding and communication, lack of participation from stakeholders, high transportation cost, lack of support from the Local Level Government and Provincial Government. Central to the goals of effective planning in ecotourism (Wearing & Neil, 2009) or community-based ecotourism, or the need to support supply and demand for tourism (Higham & Lück, 2002) and effective marketing (Lück, 2002), community-based ecotourism needs to ensure that the community has control over tourism development and benefits (Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999).

Table 14. Summary of the 20 key issues – Nominal Group Technique Session

No	Consensus of 20 Key Issues during NGT
1	Lack of community awareness: law & order, community values, importance of ecotourism
2	Lack of local skills and training
3	Lack of proper education and development plan
4	Lack of sufficient funds for development
5	Lack of promotions and marketing
6	Limited community involvement or control
7	Lack of assistance from District and Local Level Government (LLG) towards ecotourism development
8	Lack of standards, facilities and security
9	Lack of policy consultation and guidance
10	Lack of Infrastructural services
11	Lack of communications/networking (communication and consultation with other stakeholders).
12	Unity in community
13	Lack of management skills
14	Lack of coordination of community stakeholders and conflict
15	Lack of information sharing
16	Lack of cultural protection
17	Limited affiliation with other stakeholders
18	Lack of government support
19	Lack of visitation by community development officers (government)
20	Land disputes and ownership

The thesis, research objectives three and four were to identify issues and impediments confronting the (eco) tourism stakeholders in planning and implementing local community participation and to recommend pathways toward community-driven (eco) tourism in the case study area. Semi-structured interviews were selected as an appropriate method to accomplish these objectives. Based on the actual findings collected, the stakeholder partnerships between the local community residents, private tourism stakeholders, and non-government organisations is not as effective as what it should be due to lack of support and benefits received from ecotourism businesses in Lababia village. From the respondents, the main barriers mentioned were: lack of human resource development at the community level, lack of tourism awareness, lack of communication and negotiation skills, lack of management skills, lack of proper direction from top to bottom and lack of stakeholder participation. Hence, the recommendations arising from these findings were mainly centred on providing more tourism awareness, engaging institutions that can help with the development of the community and providing more funding for future development.

6.2 Research implications

According to Scheyvens (1999), ecotourism projects should only be considered "successful" if local communities take ownership and control to gain an equal share of the benefits. Community-based ecotourism planning should see its primary objective as being to improve the quality of life and commitment to socio-cultural well-being. The conclusions of the study indicate that more engagement and collaboration is needed among the community and the tourism stakeholders in participation in tourism planning and development and also promotion among the local working group. The members of the tourism stakeholders and the local community can have members in the working group to assist with the tourism needs.

The emphasis on planners' and developers' needs to embrace community involvement is an essential ingredient. Hence, community attachment is

certainly the driving force that can give impetus for oneself to actively participate. The stakeholders' responses in general were positive in terms of collaborating and engaging, however they need to be motivated. Sharing equal benefits is a key to success in business operations. Therefore, to ensure better participation and engagement, the local community and other stakeholders should ensure better tourism management and provide active tourism association within the province to act and solve tourism issues within the province. It is suggested that there must be a centralised administrative office for tourism networking and communication. The public-private stakeholders and non-government organisations can now take into consideration the following aspects on section 6.3 on improving management and financial support, training and participation techniques that can help to improve community-based ecotourism development.

This study has given Lababia a unique opportunity to review the stakeholder engagement and collaboration relationship in the province. Successful local tourism management in local, provincial and national level may allow Lababia to prosper and develop sustainable community-based ecotourism development. Findings of this thesis research advocate that the local people must participate in every decision making process or programmes where necessary.

6.3 Recommendations

The data collected from the NGT and the interviews showed that stakeholder engagement and participation urgently needed more attention. The community have less support from the government and have very little trust in the local level government to assist. Therefore, the following recommendations can help with improving the current situation. As reported, the lack of support from the government in terms of financial assistance, workshops training and tourism awareness, lack of interaction with local communities, and other related issues mentioned during the NGT session has to gradually change. These changes can only happen when

stakeholders join as one association and have that association take care of all the private and government issues. Tourism Morobe can be developed and solved with an active association and membership. In addition policies can be set aside to be taken into consideration. The recommendations presented below have also been recommended in the Morobe Tourism Master Plan. Specifically, the tourism stakeholders should provide assistance in the following areas:

Marine Policy:

- Encourage the development of day trip and short term cruise operations by the private sector in Lababia including the key targeted coastal tourism precincts and districts;
- Seek to foster and support private sector development of the recreational dive and gamefishing industries;
- Ensure provision of adequate and suitable sea port facilities.

Training Policy:

- Establish, develop and maintain tertiary tourism and hospitality training curricula and delivery agencies;
- Encourage training delivery institutions and private sector to import training skills not presently available within Papua New Guinea.

Standards Policy:

- Ensure the establishment of, and mandatory regulative adherence to, baseline minimum standards of operations;
- Investigate and if appropriate, subscribe to international standards and convenience.

Environment Policy:

- Formulate and implement policies to ensure the ecological sustainable development of the tourism industry;
- Encourage environmentally sensitive development through the recognition of land use capabilities, the adoption of improved environmental impact assessment processes and the development of facilities which harmonise with the environment;
- Facilitate more extensive research into environmental issues impacting on tourism.

Social Policy:

- Ensure that social costs and benefits of tourism development and growth are appropriately considered prior to implementation;
- Seek and develop adequate health, safety and law and order measures to protect the welfare of tourists and industry personnel;
- Seek to promote the desirability of tourism and tourism development to the public, and to encourage friendly and hospitable community attitudes towards tourists and tourism industry personnel;
- Seek to preserve and promote an appreciation and understanding of traditional culture and traditions.

These policies must be practically budgeted for and the activities must be carried out in order to have successful tourism destination management. More recommendations from the respondents were basically related to establishing training and development programmes, providing tourism awareness, sorting out proper communication links and engaging in communication and negotiation training, more government consultation and support from the local level government and national government. The key priority actions include: clearing and maintenance of the village track, first

aid training of guides, installation of radios, formal establishment of the association, and coordinating bookings.

In a nutshell, this case study was useful for enhancing future stakeholder engagement and collaboration. There is also a strong demand in educating the stakeholders and the local community on different and alternative approaches to tourism development. The next section discusses future research to build upon the findings presented here.

6.4 Future Research

The stakeholder research for achieving proper engagement and collaboration may need to be examined through different research methods, sampling and locations to extend the implications and applications of the research. Nominal Group Technique and semi-structured interviews were two approaches used in this qualitative case study. In a similar view of the number of alternatives, future research can either use a mixed method or a quantitative research method with either the community or tourism stakeholders to specifically collect more related quantitative and qualitative information about the tourism stakeholder participation and host community.

In order to promote more tourism activities in the future, further research can be done on sustainable development and ecotourism development projects in PNG. Therefore, it is hoped that tourism planners will find occasion to build on the experience reported here to help establish the generalization of the above observations across various Papua New Guinean rural areas, and thereby contribute in some measure to economic development. Clearly, this study emphasizes the neglected issue of incorporating community views into tourism planning and development. In a similar fashion, Tosun's (2006) study reported that although his study addressed a weakness in the tourism literature, he highlighted that more studies are needed to develop a model to better understand how to involve communities effectively in tourism. He argues that only then will the results of these studies provide a better set of policy for developing a participatory

tourism development approach. This thesis shows that this is also true for developing countries.

As a useful consensus planning tool, the Nominal Group Technique can be used for upcoming research in future consensus planning from all tourism stakeholders within the province. This technique is an appropriate method to use as it combines all stakeholders together and will have them achieve consensus on the issues and plan out what is needed to be done in the future. Ecotourism is a valid tool and can potentially be very useful in the society in terms of bringing in benefits when managed sustainably. As stated in Wearing (2001) "Around the world, ecotourism has been hailed as a panacea: a way to fund conservation and scientific research, protect fragile and pristine ecosystems, benefit rural communities, promote development in poor countries, enhance ecological and cultural sensitivity, instill environmental awareness and a social conscience in the travel industry, satisfy and educate the discriminating tourist, and, some claim, build world peace" (p. 5).

Hence, it is important that all stakeholders must work collaboratively to achieve community-based ecotourism. The motivation, perception and satisfaction has to come from all stakeholders involved in order to develop and promote community-based ecotourism.

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APPENDIX 1

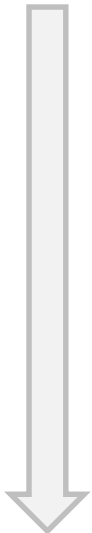## Summary of data gathering methods and tools

No	Research Question	Data Gathering Method	Data Gathering Tools
1	How have the key stakeholders (government and non- governmental organisations) been involved in community-based ecotourism planning and implementation?	Nominal Group Technique (NGT) semi-structured Interviews Document analysis	• NGT schedules • In-depth interview schedules • Tape Recorder
2	What are the perceptions/experiences of stakeholders/ local community in participatory approaches regarding the implementation of community-based ecotourism in Lababia?	Nominal Group Technique (NGT) semi-structured Interviews Document analysis	• NGT schedules • In-depth interview schedules • Tape Recorder
3	How will the stakeholders and the host community evaluate the usefulness/applicability of participatory approach in community-based tourism planning and development?	Nominal Group Technique (NGT) Semi-structured Interviews Document analysis	• NGT schedules • In-depth interview schedules • Tape Recorder

APPENDIX 2

The Nominal Group Technique Workshop on

12 November 2013 at Advocacy Training Centre – National Polytechnic Institute of Papua New Guinea, Morobe Province

Time: 3 hour session

Time-frame Day 1	Researcher activities	Participant activities
Session 1 **0900 – 1000** **Break (15 minutes)** **1015 – 1155** **1200 (end of session 1)** **Session 2** **1300 - 1400**	• Unpack the research topic and questions • Present the key literature of community-based ecotourism • Supply guidelines for two data gathering methods • Explain steps involved in data collection for both methods • Unpack and discuss research question 1 • Supply questionnaires to guide discussion Lunch Break • Unpack and discuss research question 2 • Supply questionnaires to guide discussion. • Final remarks : end of discussion	• Questions and feedback will be recorded. This will be transcribed and grouped according to thematic codes developed for the question. • Feedback will be collected and filed.

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE SAMPLE

Date: 13 November 2013   Time: 0900

I.   **Opening**

Establish Rapport (Shake hands). My name is **Renet Vanua** and I am studying my Masters in Tourism and Hospitality Management in the University of Waikato in New Zealand……………………………………..thought it would be a good idea to interview you so that I can have an in-depth information about the themes we have discussed in the nominal group discussion. I will go through themes once again before we can actually begin.

II.   **Purpose**

The purpose of the interview is:

1) Firstly, to identify the issues and problems obstructing effective stakeholder participation and management between the host community and the other tourism stakeholders towards achieving successful community-based ecotourism development in a rural location such as the 'Lababia village'. In addition, simultaneously answering the questions as to why these problems occur.

2) Secondly, the study attempts to provide recommendations or ways to minimise the major impediments associated with what can be seen as successful participatory approaches through collaborative and cooperative efforts identified through this study. In order to provide the best experiences within a destination, the host community should welcome and offer the best experience to the consumers.

III.   I hope this information can help your organisation/community to work in partnership and have a good relationship with the each other in developing community-based ecotourism in Lababia.

IV.   The interview should take about 30 minutes. Are you available to answer to come of these questions at this time?...................

40 Minutes interview

Day 1: First interview begins at 0830am

Location: The National Polytechnic Institute

Morning Interview:

Time	Interview
0830 - 0900	Interview 1:
0900 - 0915	Sorting out/ Prepare 2nd for interview
0915 - 0945	Interview 2:
0945 - 1000	Sorting out/ Prepare for 3rd Interview
1000 - 1030	Interview 3:
1030 - 1100	Break
1100 - 1130	Interview 4

40 Minutes Interview

Day 2: Second interview begins at 0900am

Location: The National Polytechnic Institute

Morning Interview:

Time	Interview
0830 - 0900	Interview 5:
0900 - 0915	Sorting out/ Prepare 2nd interview
0915 - 0945	Interview 6:
0945 - 1000	Sorting out/ Prepare for 3rd Interview
1000 - 1030	Interview 7:
1030 - 1100	Break
1100 - 1130	Interview 8

* Schedule

Waikato Management School
Te Raupapa

THE UNIVERSITY OF
WAIKATO
Te Whare Wānanga o Waikato

Research Title: Community-based Ecotourism Development Through Stakeholder Engagement and Collaboration: A Case of Lababia Village, Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea.

Purpose and Aim of Research

The aim of this research is focused on "The facilitation of effective community and stakeholder engagement and collaboration in ecotourism development". Secondly, the following research will also attempt to provide recommendations or ways to achieve successful participatory approaches through engagement and collaboration. There are four main objectives to achieve in this study. They are:

1.   To examine the key theoretical constructs of community-based (eco) tourism.

2.   To examine to what extent these constructs (in objective 1) are implemented in a case study of an ecotourism area.

3.   To identify issues and impediments confronting the (eco) tourism stakeholders in planning and implementing local community participation.

4.   To recommend pathways toward community-driven (eco) tourism in the case study area.

I anticipate that results from this research conducted in Lababia village, Papua New Guinea, could be useful to the host community, private organizations, local and national government, and non-government organisations. These organizations can work together to construct programmes and policies to maintain professional conduct and equally participate in every aspects of community-based ecotourism. Since it is a case study, the results obtained from this area can help other rural areas of Papua

New Guinea to encourage the importance of effective participation in ecotourism planning and development. For me personally, I will enjoy the benefits of taking part in the research, learn new techniques and share information, to publish research findings and reflect on my career in promoting community-based ecotourism in Lababia and other parts of Papua New Guinea.

As a way of providing directions and support, my supervisor has worked closely with me on a regular basis to achieve the purpose of my research. This research is well supported by the University of Waikato, New Zealand, as part of the fulfilment of my Masters in Tourism and Hospitality Management. The current study is being approved by the Ethics Committee of University of Waikato.

WHO DO I CONTACT FOR MORE INFORMATION OR IF I HAVE CONCERNS?

Contact Information:

Researcher(s) name and contact information:

Researcher: Renet Vanua

Contact: Email: rv38@waikato.ac.nz

Mobile: ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮

Supervisor's name and contact information (if relevant)

Supervisor's name: Professor Alison Mclntosh

Contact: Email:mcintosh@waikato.ac.nz

Phone: +64 7 838 4962

WHAT'S INVOLVED FOR THE PARTICIPANTS?

You are invited to take part in a study on "Ecotourism development through stakeholder participation: A case study of Lababia village, Huon Coast, Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea". Whether or not you take part is your choice.

There are basically two phases to this research. The first phase involves a group discussion technique called the "Nominal Group Technique" (NGT) which aims to collect data based on two specific questions that must be answered during the discussion. The NGT workshop will be conducted in National Polytechnic Institute, in the city due to time and financial constraints. Participants from the village will be transported to the city before the workshop date. The NGT is a one day activity which may take up to 3 hours. The focus of this technique is to aggregate consensus about those two main questions. This will help the researcher answer her research questions. The questions are: (1) How can we achieve effective participation in developing community-based ecotourism? (2) Provide recommendations as to how these may be achieved? The participants involve different organizations including, private, government, non-government organizations and local village (Lababia). The second phase will involve follow –up interviews. The participants from the interviews will be selected according to their experiences and knowledge of the tourism industry and ecotourism development within the case study area. Interviews for the urban stakeholders will be conducted in National Polytechnic Institute on schedule dates whilst local village participants will be interviewed at the Lababia Guest House - conference room. The interview will take up to 30 minutes only. The interview will be guided with the key themes (consensus) aggregated and selected from the nominal group discussion. However, the key leading questions are (1) What are the barriers to community-based ecotourism development? (2) What are you prepared to do in order to achieve community-based ecotourism development?

You do not have to decide today whether or not you will participate in this study. Before you decide you may want to talk about the study with other people, such as family, (Wantoks), friends, or tourism and hospitality providers; feel free to do this. I can only give you one week to decide whether you will or will not take part in this research. If you don't want to take part, you don't have to give a reason, and it won't affect the care you receive. If you do want to take part now, but change your mind later, you can pull out of the study at any time but not until 2 December 2012. If you agree to take part in this study, you will be asked to sign the Consent Form on the last page of this document. You will be given a copy of both the Participant Information Sheet and the Consent Form to keep. Please make sure you have read and understood all the pages.

This Participant Information Sheet will help you decide if you'd like to take part. It sets out why we are doing the study, what your participation would involve, what the benefits and risks to you might be, and what would happen after the study ends. I will go through this information with you and answer any questions you may have.

WHAT WILL HAPPEN TO THE MATERIAL COLLECTED?

The information collected from you as the participants will be purposely for this research only. All prospective participants will be assured of confidentiality, which means that all audiotapes, transcripts, and notes will be stored safely in my private lockable safe and deleted after 5 years. Names of prospective participants will be disguised. All the research participants will remain confidential in any subsequent publications. In addition, the names of organizations will remain confidential unless the organisation agrees to use the organization's name in the final report. I will be the only one to have access to all research data during the research. After fieldwork, research data will be securely stored in a safe and only the researcher and the supervisor will have access to the data. All transcripts will be transcribed and given back to the interviewees for their validation.

The findings of the research will be published as a thesis. A print copy of this thesis when completed will be deposited in the university library, and a digital copy may be available online via the university's digital repository 'Research Commons'.

For more information regarding the following research, please refer to the contact details mentioned above.

Your participation in this research will greatly assist the host community, government and private sectors, and other rural villages with tourism hot spots to actively engage in collaborative effort to produce successful results in community-based ecotourism.

Thank you for your time and consideration. For any questions or comments, please do not hesitate to contact the above mention address.

I look forward to meeting with you.

Renet Vanua

Student at University of Waikato, New Zealand.

Waikato Management School
Te Raupapa

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Community-based Ecotourism Development Through Community and Stakeholder Engagement And Collaboration: A Case of Lababia-Kamiali Wildlife Management Area, Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea.

Consent Form for Participants

I have read the **Information Sheet for Participants** for this study and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions about the study have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I also understand that I am free to withdraw from the study on the 02nd of December, 2013, or to decline to answer any particular questions in the study. I agree to provide information to the researchers under the conditions of confidentiality set out on the **Information Sheet**.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the **Information Sheet** form.

I agree to participate in audio recording. I have also agreed to participate in follow-up interview. I agree to provide the use of the organisations name in the final report.

Signed: _____

Name: _____

Date: _____

Researcher's Name and contact information: Renet Vanua,

Mobile: ███████████

Email: rv38@waikato.ac.nz

Supervisor's Name and contact information: Professor Alison McIntosh

Email: mcintosh@waikato.ac.nz

Phone: +64 7 838 4962

APPENDIX 6

A letter to relevant public sectors/private /NGOs/community leaders, Lababia village

Dear Sir/Madam,

Subject: Asking for assistance

My name is Ms Renet Vanua, master's student at the Waikato Management School, University of Waikato, New Zealand. I am conducting research for my master's thesis majoring in Tourism and Hospitality Management. I found that community-based ecotourism development is a major concern for nearly all rural areas in the Morobe Province, and stakeholders' participation and engagement is a major issue; therefore, I have decided to conduct research in Lababia village and wish to invite you to participate. I have chosen Lababia village to carry out my research because the community has already been exposed to numerous experiences in ecotourism and the village is also the host for Kamiali Wildlife Management Area. Please find attached the aim and objective of this research (See attachment: Appendix 1). To achieve the research aim, I would like to invite you to a two day work shop (see appendix 5) that will take 3 hours only. Among the participants are relevant community leaders of Lababia village, public and private sectors, academics and non-government organisations. The workshop will consist of a maximum of 17 participants. It is important that you attend so that your contribution will be heard or known through the process. The workshop will be conducted in Lae at the Polytechnic Institute.

The workshop will aim to brainstorm, to discover any consensus on the importance of tourism issues and stakeholder problems, and potential solutions affecting ecotourism development. Your firm may have been one of the organisations that plays an integral part in Lababia ecotourism. Therefore, I ask for your assistance to relieve tourism problems experienced in Lababia village during your engagement with development of ecotourism or your operation as tour operator. Should you wish to participate or seek further information, please do not hesitate to contact me on phone 73319041 or email rv38@waikato.ac..nz. Please find attached a copy of the workshop schedule plus the participation information sheet and consent form (See attachment: Appendix 2).

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Yours Faithfully,

…………………….   ………………………………….

Renet Vanua   Professor Alison McIntosh

Masters Student   Supervisor

APPENDIX 7

For the Attention of Morobe Provincial Government

8 October 2013

ATTENTION: Morobe Provincial Administration

Dear Sir/Madam

Subject: **Seeking Permission to Conduct Research in Lababia Village, Huon Coast – Morobe Province**

I, Renet Vanua, am currently pursuing a course of studies leading to a masters in management studies with a major in tourism management from the University of Waikato, New Zealand. As part of the requirement, I wish to seek the permission of the Board to carry out some research on the Huon Coast of Morobe, Lababia village. Anticipated date of research 05th November 2013.I would be grateful for this permission and for your support. In this study I have two main aims. The initial aim of this research is about identifying the issues and problems obstructing effective participation and management between the host community and the other tourism stakeholders to actively engage and participate in community-based ecotourism development in a rural location such as Lababia village; and also to provide recommendations or ways to minimise the major impediments associated with what can be seen as successful participatory approaches through collaborative and cooperative efforts identified through the research conducted. More information can be found in the attachments.

I guarantee total confidentiality of information. I will only report information that is in the public domain and within law. I will not reveal anything of a personal or compromising nature. If I intend to use information that is in any way sensitive I will seek the permission of the originator before using it. There will also be total confidentiality of all names and I will not name the participants without permission.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Yours Faithfully,

Renet Vanua.

To Whom It May Concern

Renet Vanua has the permission of Morobe Provincial Administration to carry out a case study research in Lababia village, Morobe Province, Papua New Guinea.

Signed: ……………………………   Date:………………………………….

APPENDIX 8

MOROBE PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION
OFFICE OF THE ADMINISTRATOR

Telephone: 4731522
Facsimile: 4724745
Telex: NE 42454 BUREAU LAE

P O BOX 572
LAE 411
MOROBE PROVINCE

Ms Renet Vanua
Masters Student
University of Waikato
New Zealand

Date : **23rd October, 2013**
Our Ref. :
Action Officer :
Designation :

Your Reference :
Date :

Dear Madam,

RE: SEEKING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN LABABIA VILLAGE, HUON COAST – MOROBE PROVINICE

I am responding to your letter dated 22nd October, 2013 as per above.

The Morobe Provincial Research Committee (MPRC) approves your research however, it is the requirement under the Provincial Research Guidelines (bylaws) that whatever findings you have undertaken a copy should be given to the committee particularly the research office of the province hence it is kept here for later uses or references.

The MPRC acknowledges the importance of this research and wishes you all the best in your research

Yours faithfully,

Geoving Bilong
Acting Provincial Administrator

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APPENDIX 9

Pictures taken from the NGT Workshop 12 November 2013